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Media Literacy Definitions

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MEDIA LITERACY DEFINITIONS:

AMBIGUITY AND PROBLEMS IN MEDIA PEDAGOGY

by

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ABSTRACT

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This thesis conducts a critical discourse analysis on definitions of the term "media literacy" used by researchers in media literacy educational interventions. These definitions are compared to the skills developed in participants of media literacy interventions. This comparison reveals if and how researchers are operationalizing their stated definition of media literacy. Over half of researchers are using the definition proffered by the National Association for Media Literacy Education. However the disagreement in the field around a definition of the term "media literacy" has created confusion. This confusion has left educators falling back on practices scaffolded by the previous educational paradigm. This research finds that the definition of media literacy put forth by NAMLE addresses the paradigm shift that has taken place in the field.

This thesis is dedicated to my cat Miss. Kitty, who has been by my side through this whole process.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The proliferation of digital technology has become a given in today's classroom environments. Whether it is the interface a teacher uses or a phone in a student's pocket, networked communication technologies are ubiquitous. This fact stands in contradistinction with the majority of the research into individuals' interactions with media technology. This work has historically been dominated by media effects research, that is, studies which focus on the effects on individuals after they are exposed to media created by advertising, and entertainment producers[1]. However, unlike the past periods in which media effects research took place, selective exposure is no longer optional. In the past the term "media" referred to mass media such as newspapers, books, magazines, radio, film, and television. Today media can be used to refer to the aforementioned mediums but also refers to the Internet, smartphone apps, and social networking websites. As such the media climate has changed significantly. In the last fifteen years media audiences have become empowered by the overwhelming accessibility of technology, everyone is now their own producer (Jenkins, 2006). Now that each individual can create media, media not only affects us, it is us. The onset of everyday individuals as producers of media is a paradigm shift from individuals' perceived role in the past as audiences and viewers. As Henry Jenkins points out "the new media operate with different principles than the broadcast media that dominated American politics for so long: access, participation, reciprocity, and peer-to-peer rather than one-to-many communication" (Jenkins, 2006, p. 219). However, this paradigm shift is not yet reflected in the way individuals are educated about media. This is because there is confusion in the field about what exactly media literacy is and how to teach it.

[1] See Appendix A

For example, most secondary and college classroom environments provide formal settings where students are educated about media. Currently *ad hoc* media literacy interventions are the dominant educational strategy of choice in bridging the chasm between the old media effects paradigm and the new media literacy paradigm. Almost all of these *ad hoc* media literacy interventions define the term "media literacy", which is the educational tool in use. But there is disagreement in the field of media literacy on how the term "media literacy" is defined. Different definitions of the term create different pedagogic applications for media literacy education.

This thesis analyzes the definition of the term "media literacy" in media literacy intervention, and curriculum, studies by foundational researchers in the field. Analyzing both the definition of media literacy and the skills measured as developed in study bridges the gap between the theory behind the definitions and the application of that theory in interventions, and curriculums. This thesis also analyzes what skills those interventions, and curriculums develop in study participants. This analysis aims to clarify the confusion in the media literacy field by unraveling the underlying theoretical narratives in operationalized definitions of media literacy. Unraveling these underlying theoretical narratives reveals the ideologies behind current pedagogical practices in the media literacy field. In my conclusion I argue that the disagreement on a definition has left the media literacy field without a set of common best practices for teaching media literacy. Without the structure of best practices for this new media literacy paradigm researchers and educators in the field fall back on the best practices of the media effects paradigm. I argue that the empowerment definition of media literacy put forth by NAMLE[2] should be the foundational, theoretical definition upon which practices are based.

[2] National Association for Media Literacy Education

Instead of the protectionist definition of media literacy, the NAMLE definition encompasses the spectrum that media literacy has become and must address educationally.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Media Literacy Education

Media Education. As mentioned, researchers have long conducted studies on what information individuals receive when they read, view, and process the media available to them. The majority of research into individuals' interactions with media references a past paradigm when media exposure was optional. Standards and norms for media education took shape around this idea that media exposure is optional. If an individual is exposed to a negative or harmful media message a brief intervention can rectify the situation. But today exposure is no longer optional. Much of the content that makes up media on the Internet is user-created. Jenkins observes that, "the circulation of media content - across different media systems, competing media economies, and national borders - depends heavily on consumers' active participation" (p. 3, 2006). As Duran et al. state, "the pervasiveness of mass media in our lives has resulted in an environment where the media have emerged as perhaps the most powerful of socializing institutions" (2008, p. 50). Even if a child never sets foot in a room with a television or radio they socialize with their peers who are exposed to media. Unless an individual is Amish our media culture at the very least encompasses everyone. Media creation today is subtle; a 68-year-old grandmother creates media just by attempting to videoconference with a new grandchild. Educational methods today do not address how a contemporary media-literate citizen interacts with a media saturated culture, or how one deconstructs and creates media content. This means that educational methods do not address how today's citizen interacts with media on a daily basis.

Literacy Education. When discussing literacy we begin with the understanding that the theoretical foundations of literacy theory in the United States of America lie with John Dewey, the American pragmatist, and scholar in a number of fields that include education. Dewey's understanding of literacy applied to our contemporary setting, and its state of flux with technology, is helpful. Just as Dewey experienced the end of an agrarian paradigm and the rise of an industrial economy, we are experiencing the end of an industrial economy and moving into an information age. Economic shifts create change in the distribution of wealth in a country, class relations, and political regulations. For Dewey, literacy skills, and the investment in literacy training, is important to maintain a sense of community and a coherence to society: "Our concern at this time is to state how it is that the machine age in developing the Great Society has invaded and partially disintegrated the small communities of former times without generating a Great community" (Dewey, 1927, p. 126-127). If an individual has the ability to read they can obtain a newspaper and become informed of the goings-on in their community, or they can obtain a technical manual and learn how to change the oil in their car. An individual who learns to write can communicate with individuals near and far. In his time Dewey shifted the focus in education from exclusively training individuals in the skills to perform a specific job to creating a fully equipped public actor, a citizen. A citizen, according to Dewey, is the individual who is to be educated into becoming "a social individual and that society is an organic union of individuals" (Dewey, 1897).

Similarly, when discussing education and civics today Renee Hobbs states "People need to engage actively in lifelong learning starting as early as preschool and running well into old age in order to use evolving tools and resources that can help them accomplish personal, social,

cultural and civic activities" (2010, p. 15). Hobbs' comments about education and community echo Dewey's words:

> Much of present education fails because it neglects this fundamental principle of the school as a form of community life. It conceives the schools as a place where certain information is to be given, where certain lessons are to be learned, or where certain habits are to be formed. The value of these is conceived as lying largely in the remote future; the child must do these things for the sake of something else he is to do; they are mere preparations. As a result they do not become a part of life experience of the child and so are not truly educative.
>
> (My Pedagogic Creed, 1910)

With the teach-for-the-test mentality of today's public school classroom much of what is taught to students is rooted in what they need to know in order to pass a test or get into college, not what they need to function a citizen of a society. This is a problem because modern technology is facilitating the formation of a global community, whether individuals are ready to be fully informed participants or not. Dewey's work acts as a useful model to analyze the next steps in the next phase of literacy education: a digital media literacy.

Media Literacy Education

In our contemporary 21st century setting the need to negotiate a fluid, changing, digital media environment is paramount. To quote John Seely Brown, "the need to memorize something is a 20th century skill. The need to navigate in a buzz of confusion and to figure out how to trust the information that you find [is key]. If you can feel confident doing that, the world

is yours" (Digital Media: New Learners of the 21st Century, 2011). We are living in an age of swiftly changing technologies that are fundamentally altering the way people live. Changes in technology require changes in both the knowledge and skill sets of the public. For example, Dewey's definition of the public essentially is a group of individuals who come together to create agency external to them that regulates externalities of societal living [3] (1927, p. 27). In this case the externalities are the educational curriculums necessary to create citizens. Dewey states that those curricula that "the best and wisest parent wants for his own child, that must the community want for all of its children. Any other ideal for our schools is narrow and unlovely; acted upon, it destroys our democracy" (Dewey, 1899, p. 7). With this statement Dewey explains that while not every individual has access to the best education possible, we as a society must hold high standards as the norm. To say any one individual is more worthy of a better education than someone else is immoral and goes against the values of our democracy. Media are texts and the ability for a public to both read and write texts requires a significant investment in literacy. Transitioning into a new literacy paradigm means new standards and norms must be set. A new common set of best practices must be explored in order to achieve those standards and norms of the new digital media literacy paradigm.

[3] "The characteristic of the public as a state springs from the fact that all modes of associated behavior may have extensive and enduring consequences which involve others beyond those directly engaged in them. When these consequences are in turn realized in thought and sentiment, recognition of them reacts to remake the conditions out of which they arose. Consequences have to be taken care of, looked out for. This supervision and regulation cannot be effected by the primary groupings themselves. For the essence of the consequences which call a public into being is the fact that they expand beyond those directly engaged in producing them. Consequently special agencies and measure must be formed if they are to be attended to; or else some existing group must take on new functions. The obvious external mark of the organization of a public or of a state is thus the existence of officials. Government is not the state, for that includes the public as well as the rulers charged with special duties and powers. The public, however, is organized in and through those officers who act in behalf of its interests." (Dewey, 1927, p. 27-28)

Paradigm Shifts

Kuhn is the pivotal figure when discussing paradigm change. Coining the term "paradigm change", Kuhn describes the dominance of a paradigm as a mode under which "normal science" dominates. Normal science does not search for novelties and often works to confirm the dominant paradigm and demands a network of commitments by a community of practice. This adherence to the paradigm involves the rules and laws, i.e. norms of practice, under which that community works. The members of a paradigm, operating under the rules of normal science, "learn the bases of their field from the same concrete models" and subsequently their "practice will seldom evoke overt disagreement over fundamentals" (Kuhn, 1996, p. 11). It is only against the backdrop of a reigning paradigm that anomalies appear. The tools and practices of normal science solve most anomalies. When a paradigm no longer proves "capable of solving the problems it defines" (Kuhn, 1996, p.76) active members in a field "will devise numerous articulations and *ad hoc* modifications of their theory in order to eliminate any apparent conflict (Kuhn, 1996, p. 78). The crisis can end one of three ways: first, with normal science proving capable of handling the crisis; second, "the problem is labeled and set aside for a future generation with more developed tools" (Kuhn, 1996, p. 84); and finally, the one of note for this thesis, "a crisis may end with the emergence of a new candidate for paradigm and with the ensuing battle over its acceptance" (Kuhn, 1996, p. 84).

Kuhn's explanation of paradigm shifts sheds light on the issues that face the media literacy field. The field is transitioning from the old media effects paradigm to the new media literacy paradigm. The familiar pedagogical structure of the previous paradigm is firmly in place and informing educational practices. A lack of agreed upon best practices for the new media

literacy paradigm leaves educators to fall back on the educational practices they are familiar with, those of the media effects paradigm.

Media Literacy Schools of Thought

The media literacy field is separated into two dominant schools of thought: protectionist and empowerment. Contemporary protectionist theory is founded on the work of British media scholar David Buckingham[4] (1998). Protectionists define media literacy largely in line with the leading authority in the protectionist media education: W. James Potter[5]. Potter is considered a leading authority in the field of protectionist media literacy and his textbook *Media Literacy*, originally published in 1998, is in its 7th edition with an 8th edition expected to be released in 2016. Potter has also written textbooks on *Media Effects*, and *On Media Violence*. Potter's research focuses heavily upon media effects, and media violence. In *Media Literacy* Potter defines media literacy as "a set of perspectives that we actively use to expose ourselves to the mass media to interpret the meaning of the messages we encounter," and goes on to describe how perspectives are built from knowledge structures which can be built given one has tools (our

[4] "David Buckingham is one of the leading international researchers in the field of media education, and in research on children and young people's interactions with electronic media. He has directed more than 20 externally-funded research projects on these issues, funded by bodies such as the Economic and Social Research Council, the Arts and Humanities Research Council, the Broadcasting Standards Commission, the Arts Council of England, the European Commission and the Gulbenkian, Macarthur, Spencer and Nuffield Foundations; and he has been a consultant for bodies such as UNESCO, the United Nations, Ofcom, the Department for Children, Schools and Families, and the Institute for Public Policy Research.
He is the author, co-author or editor of 24 books, and around 200 articles and book chapters. His work has been translated into 15 languages. Professor Buckingham has been a Visiting Scholar at the Annenberg School for Communications, University of Pennsylvania, a Visiting Professor at New York University, and a Visiting Professor at the Norwegian Centre for Child Research. He has taught and addressed conferences in more than 25 countries around the world, and his work has been disseminated in a wide range of print and broadcast media, nationally and internationally."
(http://www.ioe.ac.uk/staff/CCMA/LKLB_7.html)

[5] W. James Potter holds the title of Professor at the University of California Santa Barbara in the Department of Communication. He holds a Ph.D. in Communication Theory and another in Instructional Systems. "His research focuses primarily on media literacy and media violence. He is currently at work on a general of theory of the mass media in which he plans to integrate the theories and research findings about the mass media industries, their content, audiences, and effects into a unified system of explanation" (http://www.comm.ucsb.edu/people/w-james-potter)

skills), raw material ("information from the media"), and willingness (which "comes from our personal locus") (p.25). In an interview from 2011 with The Center for Media Literacy, Potter states that "over the past few years, the phenomenon that we are studying is growing so fast and changing so much… we need to have more closure and conversion amongst scholars and more of a clustering of certain ideas in order to get the field a profile and a better definition."

On the other hand, the empowerment perspective defines "media literacy" differently from Potter and the protectionist school of thought. The empowerment school of thought, as articulated by Henry Jenkins[6] et. al. in 2009 and paraphrased by Renee Hobbs[7] in 2011, is less vague:

> Generated by the rise of social media and other digital tools that enable anyone to be an author, there is an explosion of interest in media literacy as a tool for empowerment. Emerging theoretically from constructivist learning theory and articulated in the work of visual literacy specialists, media educators, and youth development professionals, this approach to media literacy emphasizes young people as capable, resilient and active in their choices as both media consumers and as creative producers. It values and celebrates the pleasure that children and young people experience as media consumers and as media makers (Jenkins et al., 2009).

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[6] Henry Jenkins is Provost Professor of Communication, Journalism, Cinematic Arts and Education at USC Annenberg. "He has worked closely with the John D. and Catherine T. MacArthur Foundation to shape a media literacy program designed to explore the effects of participatory media on young people, and reveal potential new pathways for education through emerging digital media" (http://annenberg.usc.edu).

[7] Renee Hobbs (Ed.D., Harvard University) is Professor of Communication Studies at the Harrington School of Communication and Media at the University of Rhode Island. (http://harrington.uri.edu/person/renee-hobbs/) "Her research interests include digital and media literacy education, children and media, and the uses of media and technology in K-12 and higher education" (Hobbs, 2011).

Empowerment scholars define media literacy largely in line with the National Association for Media Literacy Education or NAMLE. As available on their website NAMLE's "basic definition" of media literacy is:

> Within North America, media literacy is seen to consist of a series of communication competencies, including the ability to access, analyze, evaluate, and communicate information in a variety of forms, including print and non-print messages. Media literacy *empowers* people to be both critical thinkers and creative producers of an increasingly wide range of messages using image, language, and sound. It is the skillful application of literacy skills to media and technology messages (Media Literacy Defined, 2015).

Indeed David Buckingham in his 1998 article "Media Education in the UK: Moving Beyond Protectionism" states:

> The view of children as passive victims of media effects has steadily been challenged and surpassed. This is not, of course, to say that the media have no effects on children, or that there are not areas they need to know more about. Teaching children about the media - enabling them to analyse how media texts are constructed, and to understand the economic functions of the media industries - is seen as a way of empowering them to resist such influences (Buckingham, 1998).

The current shift in educational paradigms is in line with Dewey's observation that change must engage an experimental attitude to handle large-scale social change. Dewey witnessed the end of an economy dominated by agrarian considerations, and the rise of urban/industrial economies in the United States. This economic shift demanded a change in educational models of the era. Indeed, Dewey's philosophical work in education laid the

groundwork for the creating a civically engaged set of literate citizens for the 20th century. He notes that, "the obvious fact is that our social life has undergone a thorough and radical change. If our education is to have any meaning for life, it must pass through an equally complete transformation" (1899, p. 29). Dewey explains: "since conditions of action and of inquiry and knowledge are always changing, [experiments] must always be retried" (1899, p. 34). Since conditions are ever changing in society "it is impossible to prepare" a child for "any precise set of conditions" (Dewey, 1959, p. 21). For Dewey education should train an individual for social interaction and community life and "the graded difference in age, the fact that some are born as some die, makes possible through transmission of ideas and practices the constant reweaving of the social fabric" (Dewey, 1916, p. 3). Orderly change, according to Dewey, is created by communication, while disorderly change "is an invitation to revolt and revolution" (Dewey, 1927, p. 84). Again, for Dewey, literacy of mediated forms of communication is a necessity for substantial civic participation. As a result, those excluded and marginalized by their lack of media literacy are effectively disenfranchised. The problem with this is that throughout history those without a political voice turn to violent, civil disruption. These disruptions can be avoided as "a sophisticated and powerful vision of literacy shows potential to enable each person to at least join the debate by skillfully negotiating within the existing power structure, as well as outside it" (Tyner, 1998, p. 4). This is an important outcome of literacy and literacy education: the ability to participate in society as an engaged and enlightened citizen. As Dewey explains:

> Whenever we have in mind the discussion of a new movement in education, it is especially necessary to take the broader, or social view. Otherwise, changes in the school institution and tradition will be looked at as the arbitrary inventions of particular teachers; at the worst transitory fads, and at the best merely

> improvements in certain details-and this is the plane upon which it is too customary to consider school changes. It is as rational to conceive of the locomotive or the telegraph as personal devices. The modification going on in the method and curriculum of education is as much a product of the changed social situation and as much an effort to meet the needs of the new society that is forming, as are changes in modes of industry and commerce (1959, p.34).

The tools individuals use to learn and communicate have changed. This is reflective of the change in society that has occurred. But the way we teach literacy, expanding it to be media literacy, has not changed in reflection, not entirely, as we will see in the results of the analysis conducted for the purposes of this thesis.

The State of Media Literacy

While media literacy researchers come from a variety of distinct backgrounds,[8], the field of media literacy has drawn a line in the sand with protectionists on one side and empowerment researchers on the other. As Hobbs puts it, "[the] tension between protectionist and empowerment perspectives was long part of the media literacy field" (Hobbs, 1998). Indeed, Hobbs notes that, "scholars and educators [have] debated whether to emphasize media literacy as an expanded conceptualization of literacy or as a means to counter the negative effects of mass media and popular culture" (Hobbs, 2011, p. 422). This debate is manifest in the four-article dialogue between W. James Potter and Renee Hobbs. Titled "The State of Media Literacy" and hosted in *The Journal of Broadcasting & Electronic Media* in three different issues, over a

[8] "Media literacy resides within numerous disciplines such as Gestalt psychology, communication, journalism, linguistics, semantics, rhetoric, anthropology, science, engineering, literacy criticism, art criticism, film studies, sociology, humanities, and literacy education (Fox, 1994, 2005)" as paraphrased by Evelien A. M. Schilder in the 2013 "Theoretical Underpinnings of Media Literacy from Communication and Learning Theory."

twelve-month period of publication. The importance of their debate was considered paramount by the journal because both are leaders in the media literacy field, each of whom produces Ph.D. and MA students who actively experiment with and apply their respective theories. In an invited essay "The State of Media Literacy" Potter offers twenty-three definitions for media literacy. However, he pointedly omits the definition put forth by NAMLE, a growing body of scholars in the field whose members include Hobbs and Jenkins. Potter limits his scope of analysis to include only initiatives that conceptualize media literacy "as a response to counteract the negative effects of mass media and popular culture" (Hobbs, 2011, p. 419). In doing so Hobbs points out that "Potter fails to capture the depth and complexity of the field" by omitting "media literacy education initiatives" (2011). In this debate we see the confusion and struggle over practices in the field. Even the researchers who agree on the definition of media literacy are confused, or disagree on the application of that definition. The framework of the media literacy interventions analyzed is inherently that of the previous media effects paradigm. This thesis does not address if a truly NAMLE media literacy skills based intervention would be as effective as its scaffolding is based on that of the previous paradigm. However it is the educational method used in the field today and as such these interventions are the sample analyzed for the purposes of this thesis. By analyzing how researchers define "media literacy" and, in turn, apply that definition to develop "media literacy" skills in participants, this thesis' critical discourse analysis acts as a first step in to bringing resolution to the on-going debate around the definition of media literacy in a shifting educational paradigm.

Definitions of Media Literacy

While the two camps have different perspectives on the definition of media literacy they both agree that media literacy includes a spectrum of learned understandings. No one person is ever without media literacy competencies completely. Potter describes media literacy "as a continuum" where there is always room for improvement (2014, p. 27). The continual creation of new technologies means the horizon of media literacy is ever expanding. When discussing media literacy skills Hobbs quotes The U.S. Department of Education's 2010 technology plan "Transforming American Education: Learning Powered by Technology" noting "These competencies are necessary to become expert learners, which we all must be if we are to adapt to our rapidly changing world over the course of our lives, and that involves developing deep understanding within specific content areas and making the connections between them (p. vi)" (2010, p. viii). Hobbs goes on to note that "rather than viewing empowerment and protection as an either-or proposition they must be seen as two side of the same coin" (2010, p. ix). Elizabeth Thoman,[9] a founder of both The Center for Media Literacy and NAMLE, breaks down media literacy educational pedagogy into five stages: "awareness of time and choice in media consumption; critical reading/viewing skills and deconstructive/close analysis; creative and expressive media production activities; analysis of political, economic, social and cultural contexts of the media environment; and media advocacy, media action and social change" (Thoman, 1996 as summarized by E. Babad, E. Peer, and Renee Hobbs in 2009). Potter offers no such pedagogical breakdown for a new media literacy paradigm to utilize.

[9] Elizabeth Thoman is a founder of the Center for Media Literacy and NAMLE. She is coauthor of the CML MediaLit Kit, "a comprehensive framework for media literacy education based on CML's *Five Core Concepts* and the *Five Key Questions of Media Literacy…* In 2003, she was honored with the Daniel J. Kane Award for lifetime achievement in media and communications by the University of Dayton and in 2006, received the *Leaders in Learning Award* from the National PTA and Cable in the Classroom for a lifetime of innovation and leadership in the field of media literacy education." (https://education.okstate.edu/sites/default/files/crst/crst_thoman_bio.pdf)

Protectionist scholars often reference the work of media effects researchers from the mid-20th century. Indeed, early communication researchers wanted to understand how press and radio effect individuals. Consequently, this field of research has become known as "media effects." The origins of media effects theory can be traced back to a study conducted in 1940 out of Columbia University headed by Paul Lazarsfeld that "sought to determine how the press and radio affected the people's choice for the upcoming presidential election" (Griffin, 2012, p. 355). Upon finding a lack of effect upon individuals by the media, Lazarsfeld attributed the lack to what he termed, "selective exposure" (Griffin, 2012, p. 355). Selective exposure is the principle that some people do not expose themselves to media with opinions in opposition with their own. The importance of understanding how people are influenced and affected by media continued to exert a political interest in the United States. This influence rose specifically out of WWII, post-WWII, and Cold War mentalities that perceived an explicit and imperative need to inoculate individuals against counterpropaganda from anti-democratic political forces and regimes (McGuire, 1961; Lumsdaine & Janis, 1953). "Media effects" research has generated multiple theories. For example, inoculation theory, cultivation theory, and social learning theory have each aimed to describe, and predict how media might influence people, especially violent media. These theories are the foundations for the tactics employed by protectionist media literacy researchers today in their interventions.

Empowerment researchers focus "on preparing students rather than protecting them" (Schilder, 2013)[10]. The goal is to expand a student's literacy. As John Dewey, the American pragmatist, and scholar in a number of fields that include education, explains in his 1910 book,

[10] Evelien Schilder holds a Ph.D. in Instructional Design and Technology from Virginia Tech. She has a background in communications and media literacy. She "earned her Bachelor and Master's degree in Communication Science at the University of Amsterdam, and has studied and taught media literacy and media production at Appalachian State University" (Schilder, 2013).

How We Think, literacy is integral to the skill of "thought". "Thought is a distinct piece of mental machinery," a skill that is honed with education, and learning the literacy skills of reading, and writing, but distinct from other mental activities such as "observation, memory, imagination, and common sense judgments of persons and things" (p. 36). Today when discussing media literacy, empowerment scholars, to quote Semali, "rather than adhering to print-based definitions of literacy, contemporary theories extend reading and meaning-making processes of literacy (reading, writing, speaking, and listening) to other texts including visuals" (Semali, 2000, p.14). For example, in the past these "empowerment practices" were applied in high school social studies classes when students would subscribe to newspapers and discuss current events in class. While this created loyal newspaper consumers, it also ostensibly taught students how to use the newspaper as way into the everyday terrain of civics and governance. The practice of the newspaper has been replaced by digital mediums as many modern individuals, student or otherwise, consume news primarily via the Internet. However, these same individuals may also create news media and publish it on any number of social media pages. Weather and news affiliates are notorious for referencing Twitter and their own posts on their Facebook pages during broadcasts. As Jenkins notes, "Amateur media producers will upload digital videos to a Web site; visitors to the site will be able to evaluate each submission, and those which receive the strongest support from viewers will make it onto the airwaves" (Jenkins, 2006, p. 251). Empowerment scholars aim to prepare individuals for technology, media, and a world that we cannot predict.

Crisis in the field

Tyner makes it clear that "the conversation about literacy and schooling takes on new urgency as teachers and parents are told - and children believe - that students' life chances hinge on their grasp of new technologies" (1998, p. 3). Indeed, these stakeholders are not wrong to have such urgency. As Jenkins explains, "the current diversification of communication channels is politically important because it expands the range of voices that can be heard" (Jenkins, 2006, p.219). But as stated by Renee Hobbs in her white paper "Digital and Media Literacy: A Plan of Action": "in many schools, despite significant investment in technology, teachers are not making effective use of the engaging instructional practices of digital and media literacy" (2010, p. 25). Tyner describes, "like the blind men and the elephant, teachers often practice one small aspect of media education and conclude that they have the whole picture" (1991). This inconsistency in effective media literacy pedagogy is a crisis point in the educational community of practice that needs to be solved by finding new tools, tactics and strategies necessary to teach. As Thomas Kuhn states "the significance of crises is the indication they provide that an occasion for retooling has arrived" (1996, p. 76).

The current crisis that the field of media literacy aims to address is "the role of mass media, popular culture, and digital media and technology in the lives" (Hobbs, p. 421, 2011) of individuals. As vague as this goal is, it is problematized by a lack of best practices by which teachers, parents, students, administrators, scholars, researchers, and other educators can utilize to meet this goal. Media literacy practitioners are particularly focused on children and young people, although the issue is extended to other generations with research across the lifespan spectrum ranging from toddlers to seniors (See, Mohammad & Mohammad, 2012; Marsh, 2006; Wolfe & Flewitt, 2010; Fingerman et. al., 2011; Schmidt, 2012; Schmidt, 2013a; Schmidt,

2013b; Tyma, 2009; Morrell, 2002; Simpson et. al., 2012; Stuart-Hamilton, 2011; Gatto & Tak, 2008; Richardson, Weaver, & Zorn, 2005). Currently most media literacy interventions focus primarily on the "internalization of societal beauty standards, [and] the development of body dissatisfaction" (Irving, DuPen, Berel, 1998, p. 119), the desirability to imitate "portrayals in the media" (Austin, Pinkleton, Funabiki, 2007, p. 48), and preventing adolescents under the age of 18 from taking up smoking (Banerjee & Greene, 2006; Banerjee & Greene, 2007). The recurring concern in these interventions is that the media poses an active threat against an individual's health. But this is the mentality of the media effect paradigm. Media effects interventions are a Band-Aid that ignores the larger issue of teaching a more holistic vision of literacy that emphasizes composition and reading. Because there is a lack of standard common practices, media literacy continues to exist in educational curricula through sets of *ad hoc* interventions. These interventions mimic the interventions of the media effects paradigm. They often address health-related issues such as eating and weight, alcohol and tobacco use, and exposure to violence through the media. The only thing that has changed from the media effects intervention to the media literacy intervention is that researchers claim to be using media literacy as their teaching tool now. As such interventions vary in application time span, i.e. duration of class, number of classes, etc. This inconsistency in educational interventions only adds to the confusion in the field. As Hobbs states the many educational needs are not currently addressed by *ad hoc* interventions:

> Those who position media literacy education simply as an antidote to mass media exposure may be blinded inadvertently to the wider range of aims of media literacy education, thus missing out on important evidence and information that

> contributes to the development of digital and media literacy both in the United States and around the world. (Hobbs, 2011a, p. 421)

In her co-authored article, "The Effect of Media Literacy Education on Susceptibility to Media Bias" with E. Babad, and E. Peer, media literacy is defined as: "a dimension of citizenship. The organic connection between communication, education, and democracy is obvious because democracy 'is meaningless without multiple voices . . . it is simply impossible to talk about citizenship training in modern society without reference to mass communication' (Katz, 1992, p. 37)." (Babad, Peer, Hobbs, 2009, p. 4).

Examining the field of "media literacy" and analyzing the different intervention and curriculum practices it is clear that field exists in a state that Thomas Kuhn describes as a pre-paradigmatic or experimental stage. For Kuhn, "the pre-paradigm period is regularly marked by frequent and deep debates over legitimate methods, problems, and standards of solution, though these serve rather to define schools than to produce agreement" (Kuhn, 1996, p. 47-48). Indeed, this is the state of media literacy today. Many scholars "agree over the new democratic and constructivist paradigm which focuses on preparing students rather than protecting them" (Schilder, 2013). Yet *ad hoc* interventions remain the norm and media literacy scholars in the United States have the tendency to gather, "circle the wagons - and shoot in" (Bob McCannon, 1996[11]) which slows cohesion of the new paradigm. Analyzing the different definitions of the term "media literacy" for the purposes of this thesis researchers are clearly divided into one of the two schools of thought in the field: protectionist, or empowerment.

[11] A leader of the New Mexico Literacy Project, as quoted by Renee Hobbs in her 1998 "The Seven Great Debates in the Media Literacy Movement"

Media Literacy Curricular Interventions and Debates

Simply deciding to place media education in a curriculum demands that schools rethink their conception of what, specifically, to teach and how to teach it. As Jeff Share[12] paraphrases, "teaching media literacy can be a major paradigm shift for many teachers because it requires movement from a psychological model of education to a sociological one" (Luke & Freebody, 1997; as paraphrased by Share, 2009; in Tyner, 2010). Adding a normative demand, Hobbs argues that the new paradigm must help people of all ages engage with resources for lifelong learning (Hobbs, 2010, p. xii). To quote Raymond Williams, "any real theory of communication is a theory of community" (Williams, 1958, p. 332). Current media literacy interventions focus upon health related subject content and ignore the problem of a changing paradigm. The problem that needs to be addressed now is how to teach students to become media literate citizens in an era of media abundance. This thesis however is limited to the scope of the confusion around the definition of the term "media literacy". The effectiveness of a media literacy intervention vs. a media literacy curriculum is outside the limited scope of this thesis. It is noteworthy however that the educational intervention model is the educational delivery method of the media effects paradigm. It is naive to expect the scaffolding of the previous paradigm to be effective pedagogical methodology for a new paradigm.

The majority of schools, grade schools and college-level, are using one-time interventions to protect students from a lifetime of persuasive messages. However, conceptualizing media literacy "as an intervention designed to counter negative effects of mass media and popular culture" educators limit the field to the scope of "the social scientific literature in media studies" (Hobbs, 2011). Health risk issues addressed by many media literacy

[12] Jeff Share is "a Faculty Advisor for UCLA's Teacher Education Program" and a researcher who focuses on "the teaching of critical media literacy in K-12 education". (http://ucla.academia.edu/JeffShare)

interventions are important, but interventionist approaches are *ad hoc* solutions of a failing paradigm. These health issues are still addressed by the holistic form of media literacy that is extended from literacy theory. Some schools have integrated media into every aspect of the classroom, such as the *Quest 2 Learn* program, a school with a pedagogical model based in game design and play. Other schools are expanding a single course by incorporating a variety of media into their 11th grade English classes (Hobbs & Frost, 2003) to deliberately have a media literacy component in the curriculum. This is a significant move that aims to solve the crises in educational/pedagogical models by steering media literacy away from an interventionist mode and into a more long-term set of strategic initiatives that incorporates media literacy across the curriculum. These curricular changes could affect elementary and secondary education in a holistic fashion and take place in "health education, social studies, English language arts, communication arts, and the fine and performing arts" classrooms across the "15,000 school districts in the United States" (Hobbs, 2005, p. 866-867). As Hobb's notes, "media literacy education has entered the K-12 world through many portals, including English language arts, social studies, fine arts, library-skills and educational technology, vocational education, and health education" (Hobbs, 2004, p. 44). To Hobbs, the presence of technology in the classroom, which is becoming even more widespread and common, does not equal media literacy education. For that we need a community of practice with a specific network of commitments to making students literate. As Hobbs notes:

> Although researchers have begun to evaluate the effectiveness of media literacy programs in schools, few studies have been published. One of the challenges faced by most evaluators is the questions of conducting research that takes into account the real-life characteristics of the school environment, including

> implementation by ordinary teachers, not specially trained experts. Many factors encourage (or discourage) K-12 teachers from implementing curriculum materials in the way that they are intended to be used (Hobbs, 2004, p.48).

Research Questions

RQ 1: How do active media literacy researchers and educators define media literacy?

RQ 2: How do the researchers' definitions overlap and how do they diverge?

RQ 3: Where and why are the researchers situated on the spectrum in the discussion on media literacy?

RQ 4: Why and/or how do these studies contribute to the on-going refinement of the definition, and people's understanding of the term "media literacy" and media literacy education?

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

To analyze the definition of the term "media literacy" as it is used in media literacy interventions, and curriculums, and the application of that definition in the skills developed in intervention participants this thesis employs a critical discourse analysis [CDA]. Literacy scholars since the 1980s have "positioned literacy as discourse" (Tyner, p. 28, 1998). As Tyner explains in *Literacy in a Digital World* critical discourse analyses "attempt to reconcile the theory of discourse within the parameters of contemporary schools. Discourse theories make the study of literacy more precise - and more complex" (p. 28, 1998). The use of a CDA will allow us to analyze the ideological underpinnings behind researchers' definition of the term "media literacy" as well as the skills developed in research participants. The results of this analysis will identify where on the protectionist vs. empowerment spectrum researchers lie. Understanding where researchers lie on this spectrum gives a snapshot of the state of the field. This snapshot allows us to identify where in the current paradigm shift we are situated. Understanding where in the paradigm shift we are situated helps clear the path ahead. It's key to remember that both schools of thought have ideological underpinnings that are not simply unmoored. Protectionist research and methodology, as previously stated, stem from media effects research, which dates back to the WWII, post-WWII era. Empowerment research stems from literacy research and theory, which traces its theoretical underpinnings back to the work of John Dewey at the turn of the 20th Century.

As a method, CDA has "been influenced by the development of mass media and by international politics" (Titscher et. al., 2000, p. 55). The development of media literacy

education is influenced by the development of media throughout time with an understanding of specific social and cultural needs. The state of media in the United States is based upon sets of social, and cultural practices that are debated, negotiated, and resisted. While the theoretical framework for CDA is not always explicit, its origins trace back to "Louis Althusser's theories of ideology, Mikhail Bakhtin's genre theory…the philosophical traditions of Antonio Gramsci and the Frankfurt School" (Titscher et. al., 2000, p.144). More specifically for Fairclough's employment of CDA is the work of Michel Foucault.

Fairclough's method is ideal because it allows us to analyze "the relationships between concrete language use and the wider social and cultural structures" (Titscher et. al., 2000, p. 149). This thesis aims to analyze the language used by researchers to define the term "media literacy" and the pedagogical application of that definition in a classroom or laboratory. The classroom and laboratory are public spaces created by dominant social and cultural structures. Whether these studies were done in the classroom or laboratory this researcher firmly believes that the intentions of each camp are both practical and noble. As we engage with the studies from both protectionist and empowerment camps, it will become clear how each differ in their ideological assumptions. These assumptions also support what each school of thought views as the possibilities of civic engagement. As such, the application of these different assumptions creates different curricula with which individuals of varying age are prepared to either be protected from media, or for civic participation through media. All but one of the studies define "media literacy" outright, and all the studies define media literacy through the skills they measure as developed in participants, and how they define those skills. The skills measured as developed in participants reveal which theoretical school of thought researchers are most in line with. In turn the theoretical schools of thought reveal which ideologies, and which paradigm

researchers are operating under. Revealing which paradigm researchers are operating under allows us to understand how each definition creates a different idea of what it is to be a participatory citizen. Definitions that differ create a different picture of that participatory citizen. As the new paradigm solidifies, the creation of citizens hangs in the balance. The abilities of these citizens will shape the political and social landscape of our democracy.

Levels of Discourse (CDA)

Fairclough's analytical framework for a CDA operates on three levels of analysis: textual, discursive, and the analysis of social practice (Titscher et. al., 2000; Fairclough, 1995). For Fairclough a text is "the written or spoken language produced in a discursive event" (Titscher et. al, 2000, p. 148). Texts can be, and increasingly are, "multi-semiotic" or a text that is primarily language but is combined with other semiotic forms e.g. TV (Fairclough, 1995, p. 4). A discursive event is an "instance of language use, analyzed as text, discursive practice, [or] social practice" (Titscher et. al., 2000, p.148). Discursive events are influenced by "two major centripetal forces" (Fairclough, 1995, p. 10) language, and the order of discourse. The level of social practice, the third dimension of a discursive event analyzed in a CDA, examines "the different levels of social organization: the situation, the institutional context, the wider group or social context." The order of discourse according to Fairclough is the "totality of discursive practices of an institution and relationships between them" (Titscher et. al., 2000, p. 148).

On "the textual level content and form," (Titscher et. al., 2000, p. 150) complementary concepts are analyzed. By content Fairclough refers to analyzing the linguistic features of a text; i.e. phonology, grammar, vocabulary, and semantics (Titscher et. al., 2000). Form refers to a wide scoped analysis of the "aspects of textual organization [such] as cohesion and turn-taking"

(Titscher et. al., p. 150). The textual level examines physical, syntactical and referential units of analysis in the manifest content of a text (Baxter & Babbie, 2003; Fairclough, 1995).

On the discursive level "the link between text and social practice" (Titscher et. al., 2000, p. 148) is analyzed. An intertextual analysis examines how the "social and historical foundations are combined or modified by texts, and how discourses and genres blend together" (Titscher et. al., 2000, p. 150). This level of analysis in CDA pays particular attention to the "processes of text production, distribution and consumption" (Fairclough, 1995, p. 9), as well as interdiscursivity or "the relationships of discursive events to orders of discourse" (Titscher et. al., 2000, p.150). Interdiscursivity examines how "repertoires of genres and discourses are exploited within orders of discourse for text production and interpretation" (Titscher et. al., 2000, p. 150). The discursive level of analysis examines propositional and thematic units of analysis in the latent content of a text (Baxter & Babbie, 2003).

The level of social practice, the third dimension of a discursive event analyzed in a CDA, examines "the different levels of social organization: the situation, the institutional context, the wider group or social context. Questions of power are of central interest; power and ideologies may have an effect on each of the contextual levels" (Titscher et. al., 2000, p. 151). The level of social practice is an analysis of the ideology that "is seen as 'located' in both structures (discourse conventions) and events" (Fairclough, 1995, p. 25). Fairclough invokes the conceptualization of ideology as posited by Antonio Gramsci that "ideology here focuses upon the effects of ideologies rather than questions of truth, and features of texts are seen as ideological in so far as they affect (sustain, undermine) power relations" (Fairclough, 1995, p. 25).

Text in this thesis refers to the research studies analyzed. Text is the language produced, written or spoken, in a discursive event. Studies written about a media literacy intervention are discursive events. These discursive events, the studies analyzed for the purpose of this thesis, are posited in the language of their theoretical traditions and influenced by the orders of discourse in those traditions as well as the socio-cultural setting. The language or jargon used by the studies analyzed stems from the theoretical traditions from which media literacy stems: mass communication, psychology, and education. Orders of discourse; dominant powers at play, the funders of the researchers, the school or university institution where the study was conducted, even the IRB affect the studies examined by this thesis and the language used therein. "Analysis of texts should not be artificially isolated from analysis of institutional and discursive practices within which texts are embedded" (Fairclough, 1995, p. 9). This thesis will focus mainly on the socio-cultural setting of the first world contemporary setting of Northern America, Eastern Europe, and Australia when considering orders of discourse on the level of social practice.

Power in this analysis centers on who is the "we" in the studies; the researchers are the "we" in the protectionist studies, while the "they" are the people who are exposed to media. Looking at empowerment, is there a corollary division of "we" and "they" or is there the discussion of "people" and their behavior, presuming that the researcher and the subjects are all people and would perform the same behaviors in the same environment? This comes from Fairclough's discussion of situational deixis (Fairclough 1995, Titscher et. al., 2000, p. 149.) "Texts negotiate the sociocultural contradictions and more loosely 'differences' (Kress 1988) which are thrown up in social situations, and indeed they constitute a form in which social struggles are acted out" (Fairclough, 1995, p. 7).

On the textual level content and form are analyzed. Influential schools of thought are evidenced in the word choices of research studies. Content and form will examine manifest content: physical units, syntactical units, and referential units. Physical units will refer to the amount of space dedicated to a given definition. Physical units will indicate the complexity of the topic in the eyes of the researchers. Syntactical units will refer to the recurrence of a keyword or phrase. The recurrence of keywords, phrases, and jargon will identify the theoretical underpinnings of each study. Referential units will refer to the manner, the nouns or pronouns used, in which the authors describe and refer to; the intervention location, the intervention, the individuals involved in the intervention, the researchers, the coders, and administrators of interventions. Analysis of referential units will aim to identify how the researchers frame their role and the role of the individuals involved in the intervention. On the discursive level the link between text and social practice is analyzed. The theoretical traditions from which media literacy stems as well as the socio-cultural setting of the countries where the interventions took place are the social and historical foundations, the orders of discourse, defined by the texts analyzed in this thesis. The information gathered in the textual analysis will be analyzed against the socio-cultural setting of the first world contemporary setting of Northern America, Eastern Europe, and Australia, the framework of theoretical underpinnings evidenced in the text, and the history of the rhetorical framing of the need for media effects and media literacy interventions. The third level of analysis, the level of social practice, will examine what the studies analyzed contribute to the understanding of, and on-going discussion around, media literacy in the socio-cultural setting of the first world contemporary setting of Northern America, Eastern Europe, and Australia.

Sample

The studies analyzed were acquired through a meta-analysis conducted by Jeong et. al. on media literacy interventions that had positive effects on tracked outcomes was utilized as a compilation of studies that focused upon media literacy interventions. Jeong et. al. searched multiple scholarly databases for the key words "media literacy," "media literacy intervention," "media literacy curriculum," "media literacy program," "intervention," "advertising," and "skepticism" (Jeong et. al., 2012). This search resulted in 127 studies. Five criteria were applied to this 127 sample pool to narrow the articles for the researchers' meta-analysis: 1) studies "must have used quantitative methods;" 2) interventions discussed by the studies had to be tested on audiences; 3)"studies must have included one of the following outcomes of media literacy: knowledge, criticism, influence, realism, behavioral beliefs, attitudes, norms, self-efficacy, or behaviors" (statistical information collected by the studies was reported in their article); 4) "studies had to be written in English" (Jeong, et. al., 2012). Finally, 5) studies that were not readily available during the time period of May 2013 to May 2014 were excluded in the interest of time, bringing the number of studies analyzed to thirty six. When the five criteria were applied the 127 studies were narrowed down to 51 studies.

The sample pool was narrowed further to those studies that explicitly mention "media literacy." Narrowing the pool in this way allows us to compare the critical theory behind definitions of media literacy used in a study, with the critical theory behind the skills developed in study participants. This analysis of the bridge between critical theory and the application of that theory in classrooms identifies the norms to which researchers adhere when applying theory. Depending on which norms researchers adhere to, we can identify the paradigms under which researchers and educators are operating when developing skills in the classroom or laboratory. It

is convenient to use this meta-analysis, however it spans the breadth of the media education field as the researchers who conducted these studies are seminal in the field. By analyzing their individual definitions of the term media literacy, explicit, implied, or non-existent, allows for an in-depth analysis of the applied use of this term in current research.

Studies from the Jeong et al. article were obtained via databases on EBSCOhost, SAGE, CIOS, Questia Online Library, ERIC, ProQuest, PsychNET, and Google Scholar. The studies range from the 1980s to 2009, with the majority of them published in the 2000-2009 decade. The units of analysis are the definitions of media literacy. If media literacy is not defined, the aims and principles behind a given intervention have been deduced and placed in a either a protectionist or empowerment camp. To this purpose, the units of observation are the keywords identified in the definitions, skills measured as developed, and the definitions of those skills.

Procedures

Methodological procedures for a critical discourse analysis are as follows: *Sampling, Units of analysis, Categories and coding, Coding and reliability,* and *Analysis and evaluation* (Titcher et. al., 2000, p. 58-61). First, a sample is acquired. Second, units of analysis are identified. Third, categories are created with corresponding coding. Fourth, coding is tested for reliability. Finally, the analysis of the data is conducted and the results are evaluated. Procedures during data analysis followed the methodology outlined by Fairclough's method "*description, interpretation,* and *explanation*" (Titscher et. al., 2000, p. 153). First, the analyst describes "the language text" (Fairclough, 1995, p. 97). Second, an analyst interprets "the relationship between the (productive and interpretative) discursive processes and the text"

(Fairclough, 1995, p. 97). Third, the analyst explains "the relationship between the discursive processes and the social processes" (Fairclough, 1995, p. 97).

Initially each study was examined for a preliminary data analysis that collected cursory information. Five questions made up the preliminary review of each document (see Appendix B). A subsequent reading of each study was done to gather more nuanced information, and the use of a definition of media literacy. In this reading, the initial questions were explored in more depth (see Appendix C). A third set of questions was posed in a third data gather and analysis that fine-tuned the focus of the line of questioning on a Fairclough CDA (see Appendix D). The research questions were broken down into questionnaire-like lab sheets (see Appendices B-D) in order to code the text for the purposes of the data gather and analysis. Each Lab Sheet C ended with an open-ended "comments" section.

As mentioned above, I employ inductive and deductive methods to create the coding utilized in this analysis. First, by pulling keywords from the two leading definitions of media literacy put forth by NAMLE and Potter and, second, by pulling recurring, commonly identified key words from the research studies themselves. The coding created for this thesis derives from pulling the core terms and themes that define of media literacy as per NAMLE, Potter, and numerous media effects theories. NAMLE's definition breaks down into the following key terms and themes: access, analyze, evaluate, communicate information, and critical thinking. The definition of media literacy put forth by Potter breaks down into the following key terms: competencies, perspectives, knowledge, and behaviors. Inoculation theory provides the following key terms: persuade, beliefs, reject/refute, resist, prevent, inoculate, and attitudes. Media effects theory provides the following key terms: skepticism, identification, perception,

and environment. Finally, literacy theory provides the following key terms: logic, response,, mean(ing), and literacy skills.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Textual Level: Units of Analysis

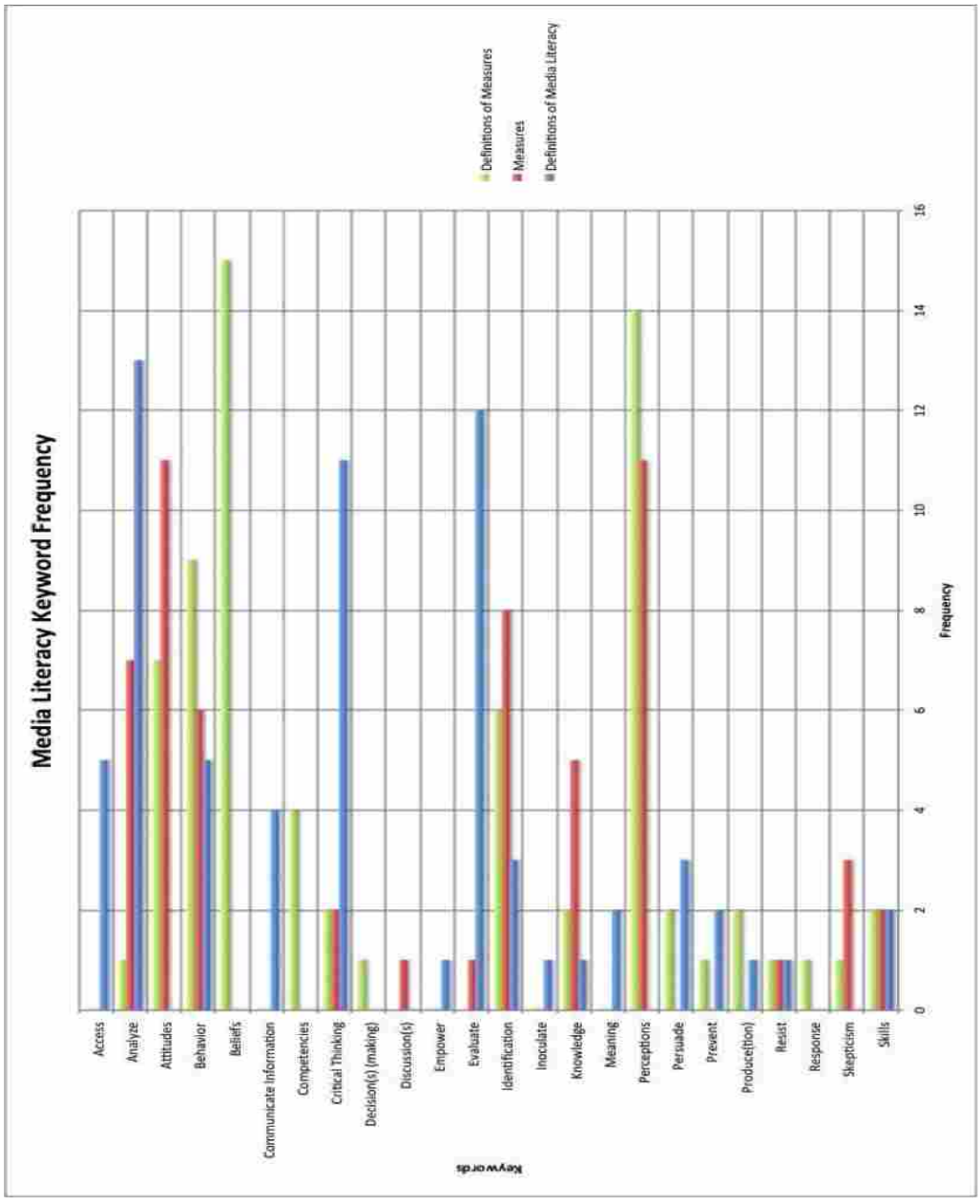
Physical Units: Length of Definition. Most studies defined "media literacy" in about a sentence to a paragraph, with the exception of Comer, Furr, Beidas, Weiner, and Kendall, who did not define "media literacy" at all. This data however did not result in findings significant to this thesis. While researchers who define "media literacy" close in line with NAMLE tended to have shorter definitions of media literacy that were more direct than longer definitions, the use of media effects keywords to measure what skills were developed in participants, and how those skills were defined, negates any theoretical implications of the physical units.

Syntactical Units: Keywords[13]. As stated in the methods section I use inductive and deductive methods to create the coding utilized in the keyword analysis. Keywords derive from pulling core terms and themes, the definitions of media literacy by NAMLE, and Potter, and different media effects theories. NAMLE's definition broke down into the following key terms and themes: "access," "analyze," "evaluate," "communicate information," and "critical thinking." The definition of media literacy put forth by Potter broke down into the key terms "competencies," "perspectives," "knowledge," and "behaviors." Inoculation theory provided the key terms "persuade," "beliefs," "reject/refute," "resist," "prevent," "inoculate," and "attitudes." Media effects theory provided the key terms "skepticism," "identification," "perception," "environment." Literacy theory provided the key terms "logic," "response," "mean(ing)," and "literacy skills."

[13] The keywords were further broken down into category-grouped keyword bar graphs. These can be found in Appendixes E-I

Keyword frequency is recorded in the bar graph below. The blue data lines represent keywords used to define media literacy. The orange lines represent the measurement keywords, those skills measured as developed by the researchers in their study participants. The green lines represent the keywords used by researchers to define the measurements they developed in study participants. In 22 studies the keywords associated with the definition of media literacy were used with the following frequency:

MEDIA LITERACY KEYWORD FREQUENCY BAR GRAPH



Referential Units: Researcher's Descriptions. There was no significant variability in how researchers referred to themselves, participants, or the settings in which studies were conducted.

Discursive Level

Over half of active researchers define media literacy as analytical skills, 13 out of 22 studies, evaluative skills, 12 out of 22 studies and critical thinking skills, 11 out of 22 studies. Each occurrence of the keywords "analyze," "evaluate," "critical thinking," "access," and "behavior," identified in definitions of media literacy were found in different studies, with the exception of the Webb, Martin, Afifi, and Kraus 2010 article "Media Literacy as a Violence-Prevention Strategy: A Pilot Evaluation" which uses "critical" twice. The ability to "access" media was used by 5 out of 22 studies to define media literacy. Each use of "access" was in the phrase "ability to access, analyze, evaluate" with the exception of Scharrer's 2006 "'I've Noticed More Violence:' The Effects of a Media Literacy Program on Critical Attitudes Toward Media Violence" which states "to use, analyze, access and evaluate" (p. 70). The keyword "behavior" was used in 5 out of 22 studies. 2 out of the 5 uses of "behavior" are by Irving, Dupen, & Berel's in their 1998, "A media literacy program for high school females" and Irving and Berel in their 2001, "Comparison of Media-Literacy Programs to Strengthen College Women's Resistance to Media Images" to describe media literacy as promoting "adaptive behavior." The 2007 Dysart, "The Effectiveness of Media Literacy and Eating Disorder Prevention in Schools: A Controlled Evaluation with 9th Grade Girls" uses "behavior" in their definition of media literacy to describe that media literacy can help individuals "resist contributing to- or becoming victims of- any media bullying behavior" (p. 140). The 2009 article, "Media Literacy Interventions: What makes them Boom or Boomerang?" by Sahara Bryne, uses "behavior" to

describe that "media literacy interventions can influence children's interpretations of violent media as measured by a significant reduction in their aggressive thoughts and behavior" (p. 12). The 2001 article, "Media Literacy as a Violence-Prevention Strategy: A Pilot Evaluation" by Webb, Martin, Afifi, and Kraus, uses the keyword "behavior" to describe that "media literacy education… has been employed in the areas of… consumption behaviors" (p. 715). The keywords "analyze," "evaluate," "critical thinking" and "access" derive from the NAMLE definition of media literacy. The keyword "behavior" derives from Potter's definition of media literacy.

Despite defining media literacy as analytical, evaluative, and critical thinking skills the most frequent recurring keywords that researchers developed and measured as changes in participants are "attitudes," (11 occurrences in 8 studies) and "perceptions" (11 occurrences in 8 studies), analytical skills (7 occurrences in 3 studies), behaviors (6 occurrences in 5 studies), and "knowledge," (5 occurrences in 5 studies). Analytical skills and behaviors are the only keywords used in at least a quarter of definitions of media literacy, and skills measured as developed. "Measuring the acquisition of media-literacy skills," a 2003 article by Hobbs and Frost, accounts for four of the occurrences of "analyze." "'I've Noticed More Violence:' The Effects of a Media Literacy Program on Critical Attitudes Toward Media Violence," the 2006 article by Scharrer, and the 2008 article, "Holistic Media Education: An Assessment of the Effectiveness of a College Course in Media Literacy" by Duran et al., account for the two remaining occurrences of the keyword "analyze." While Scharrer use the keyword "analyze" in their definition, the study by Duran et al. does not. "'I've Noticed More Violence:' The Effects of a Media Literacy Program on Critical Attitudes Toward Media Violence," a 2006 article by Scharrer, and the 2003, "Measuring the acquisition of media-literacy skills" by Hobbs and Frost, are the only two

studies to use the keyword "analyze" in both their definition of "media literacy" and the skills that were developed in study participants. The keyword "identification" occurs eight times in five studies. Three occurrences were in the 2003, "Measuring the acquisition of media-literacy skills," a Hobbs and Frost study. The four remaining occurrences are in four different studies: the 2007 article, "The Desirability Paradox in the Effects of Media Literacy Training" by Austin, Pinkleton, and Funabiki; "Evaluation of an American Legacy Foundation/Washington State Department of Health Media Literacy Pilot Study" the 2005 article by Austin, Pinkleton, and Hust; "Benefits and Costs of *Channel One* in a Middle School Setting and the Role of Media-Literacy Training," the 2006 article by Austin, Chen, Pinkleton, and Johnson; and the 2006 article "Benefits and Costs of *Channel One* in a Middle School Setting and the Role of Media-Literacy Training" by Austin, Chen, Pinkleton, & Johnson. The researchers Erica Weintraub Austin and Bruce E. Pinkleton are authors on each of the four studies. The keyword "access," which occurred in five definitions of "media literacy", was not measured by any of the researchers. The keyword "attitude" derives from inoculation theory. The keywords "perceptions," and "identification" derive from media effects theory. The keyword "analyze" derives from the NAMLE definition of "media literacy." The keywords "behavior," and "knowledge" derive from the definition of "media literacy" put forth by Potter.

Researchers defined the skills measured as developed in participants with the keywords "beliefs," (15 occurrences in 6 studies) "perceptions," (14 occurrences in 9 studies), "behavior," (9 occurrences in 6 studies) "attitudes," (7 occurrences in 5 studies) and "identification" (6 occurrences in 1 study). The keyword "beliefs" derives from inoculation theory. "Perceptions," and "identification" derive from media effects theory. The keyword "behaviors" derives from Potter's definition of "media literacy." "Attitudes" derives from inoculation theory.

Level of Social Practice

The level of social practice analysis: how researchers are contributing to the on-going refinement of the term “media literacy” is discussed in the answer to Research Question 4.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

Research Questions Answered

RQ 1: How do active media literacy researchers and educators define media literacy?

A1: Over half of the studies by active researchers in the field of media literacy define media literacy as analytical, evaluative, and critical thinking skills. Just under a quarter of media literacy definitions used by scholars include an individual's ability to access media content, and the individual's behaviors a part of the definition of media literacy.

RQ 2: How do the researchers' definitions overlap and how do they diverge?

A2: The researchers' definitions overlap in an unpredicted way. There is the aforementioned agreement on analytical, evaluative, and critical thinking skills by over half of the studies. But outside of the just-over-half consensus to RQ1 researchers use a hodge-podge of the keywords derived from media effects, NAMLE, and Potter, but hardly any from literacy theory. In their definitions the researchers diverge but in their measurement of skills developed in participants, and the definitions of those measures the researchers overlap.

RQ 3: Where and why are the researchers situated on the spectrum in the discussion on media literacy?

A3: The majority of researchers are situated towards the protectionist end of the spectrum of media literacy.

RQ 4: Why and/or how do these studies contribute to the on-going refinement of the definition, and people's understanding of the term "media literacy" and media literacy education?

A4: These studies demonstrate that most researchers are moving towards consensus on the definition of media literacy as NAMLE defines it but do not know how to apply that definition into pedagogical practices in the classroom leaving the field without a set of common best practices. Without an understanding of how to apply this definition researchers fall back on the practices of a media effects based paradigm. In this way the majority of these studies do not contribute to an on-going refinement of the definition of media literacy, instead they demonstrate the confusion in the state of the field during this transition.

Research Question One

Not every study analyzed defines media literacy, states their measures, and defines their measurements, which leaves pockets of little to analyze for some studies. Around half of the studies use the keywords "analyze," (13 of 22) "critical thinking," (11 of 22) and "evaluate" (12 of 22) to define "media literacy" which derive from the NAMLE definition of media literacy. Only two of those studies used keywords in their measures, and definitions of measures that reflected the NAMLE definition of media literacy. Instead, over half of the studies analyzed use the keywords "attitudes," (11 of 22 measures analyzed) "beliefs," (15 of 22 definitions of measures analyzed) and "perceptions," (11 of 22 measures, and 14 of 22 definitions of measures) to describe what skills they developed in participants, and to define those skills. Studies define "media literacy" in line with NAMLE, as the keywords show. But those studies do not develop

NAMLE based media literacy skills in participants. Most interventions analyzed develop media effects skills in their participants. If NAMLE based media literacy skills are developed in participants the keywords in use would be NAMLE and literacy theory based keywords such as "access," "analyze," "evaluate," "communicate information," and "critical thinking;" "logic," "response," "mean(ing)," and "literacy skills" respectively.

In fact, media literacy educational pedagogy has a very concrete form as outlined by Thoman in 1996 and summarized by E. Babad, E. Peer, and Renee Hobbs in 2009:

> In general, media literacy education uses an inquiry-oriented constructivist pedagogy that relies on asking questions about students' media consumption and production experiences, combined with deconstruction/close analysis of media texts and creative, expressive and collaborative media production projects, practices that can be conceptualized along a continuum with five phases, as articulated by Thoman (1996): awareness of time and choice in media consumption; critical reading/viewing skills and deconstructive/close analysis; creative and expressive media production activities; analysis of political, economic, social and cultural contexts of the media environment; and media advocacy, media action and social change.

Yet researchers do not reference, make use of, or seem to be aware of the 20-year-old existing research they need to inform their pedagogy. Instead, researchers utilize the media effects pedagogy of the established, but outdated, paradigm of the 20th Century. As stated previously this paradigm has passed. Choosing to expose oneself to digital media is no longer an option,

digital media is integrated into every aspect of life, from gaining access to a student's grades, to doing internet research on a small rash, to writing a paper for school.

Research Question Two

Researchers overlap in their definition of "media literacy" as analytical, evaluative, and critical thinking skills. But the skills that researchers measured as developed in participants are media effects skills, not the analytical, evaluative, and critical thinking skills stated in their definition of "media literacy". In this way researchers overlap in the skills they develop in participants but diverge from their own stated definition of "media literacy". "Behavior" is the only keyword found in a quarter or more of the definitions of media literacy, skills measured as developed in participants, and the definitions of those measures. Only "'I've Noticed More Violence:' The Effects of a Media Literacy Program on Critical Attitudes Toward Media Violence", the 2006 article by Scharrer, and "Measuring the acquisition of media-literacy skills", the 2003 article by Hobbs and Frost, remain consistent to a definition of "media literacy" that imagines it as a set of skills measured as developed, to their definition of those measured skills. The studies by Scharrer, and Hobbs and Frost, are the only two consistently empowerment studies in not only the extension of literacy subset, but the entire sample.

Scharrer defines "media literacy" as "the ability to analyze, access, and evaluate media in a variety of forms (Aufderheide, 1997)" (Scharrer, 2006), measures the development of "critical thinking," critiquing skills, "analyzing media content," the development of these skills was defined by participants' responses. "Response," and "skills" are derived from literacy theory, while the terms "analyze," "critical thinking," "evaluate," and "access" are derived from NAMLE's definition of "media literacy."

Hobbs and Frost define "media literacy", "as 'the ability to access, analyze, evaluate, and communicate messages in a wide variety of forms' (Aufderheide & Firestone, 1993)" (Hobbs and Frost, 2003). Hobbs and Frost measure the development of "writing skills," and five different analytical skills: "analysis: identification of construction techniques," "analysis: identification of point of view," "analysis: identification of omissions," "analysis: comparison-contrast," and "analysis: identification of purpose and target audience." Hobbs and Frost define the development of those analytical skills by the measured improvement in participants' ability to identify points of view, identify omitted information, identify the purpose of a media message in any form, skillfully deconstruct texts, and critical thinking. "Critical thinking," "access," "analyze," "evaluate," and "communicate messages," derive from the NAMLE definition of "media literacy." "Skills" derives from literacy theory. The keyword "identification" derives from media effects theory but Hobbs and Frost use it the sense that Thoman describes it as the foundational element to scaffolding media literacy skills. Based on the description of media literacy developmental stages by Thoman in 1996 "awareness of time and choice in media consumption" the "identification" of media effects skills is the introductory aspect of media literacy. In fact the only study that defines a skill measured as developed in participants with the keyword "identification" is Hobbs and Frost's, "Measuring the acquisition of media-literacy skills" (2003).

Researchers overlap and diverge in fascinating ways in the studies sampled. In the following paragraphs I discuss several of these noteworthy similarities and differences. First I analyze how the terms in these studies overlap with the keywords "access" and "critical thinking". Then I discuss how researchers overlap and diverge when their work is compared based on what topics their studies focused upon. Provided in the appendixes is a more in depth

breakdown of keyword use by studies. These bar graphs are topically categorized. The categorical breakdowns serve to further highlight similarities and differences, and the confusion around short educational interventions and long-term curriculum changes.

The myth of "access". When examining the bar graph "Media Literacy Keyword Frequency" the most obvious discrepancy is "access." It is frequently mentioned in researcher's definition of media literacy, but not one researcher mentions it in their measures, or definitions of measures. Participants were not asked if they had access to media at home. Regardless of what the term "media" is intended to refer to, access to media is tantamount to the ability to critically deconstruct media. In most recent US socio-cultural settings a growing amount of media is accessed via the Internet. For example, many parents are now required to check their child's grades, and behavior, via the Internet. Students are required to use the Internet[14] to find sources for essays and projects. However, if an individual does not have access to the Internet at home or through a smartphone, they must find alternative methods of accessing that information such as visiting a public library or using a computer at work. This challenge is compounded for individuals who are not native English speakers. For these individuals, utilizing a public library computer is a particular challenge as there are time limits on usage and navigating while actively translating may take longer than their allotted time. Indeed, the lack of measurement on the keyword "access" demonstrates the presumption, by those individuals with access, that access to media is every individual's normal.

[14] It is noteworthy that during the United States Government shutdown of 2013, this researcher was unable to access multiple sources for the purposes of this paper. Access to media is too often taken for granted.

The problem of "critical thinking." The frequent recurrence of "critical thinking" in the definitions of media literacy presents a discrepancy in the measurement of critical thinking in participants. Keywords that could serve as definitions for the keyword "critical thinking" such as "analyze," "evaluate," "skills," "skepticism" are not present in the measures or definitions of measures. Researchers often state the importance of "critical thinking" to media literacy but do not measure a participant's baseline ability to critically think, nor if the intervention conducted changed a participant's ability to critically think. For example, in the definition of media literacy put forth by studies focusing on eating and weight issues "critical thinking" is the most frequent keyword used. "Critical thinking" is in the definition in six out of seven of the studies on eating and weight. The one exception only had one keyword in their definition "prevention." Yet in these six, of the seven studies, their definitions of the measure used include no mention of "critical thinking," or an analogous term such as analytical or evaluative abilities. Instead, the measures focus upon attitudes, behaviors, while the definitions of these measures focus upon competencies and perceptions. Worse, there is no definition of the term "critical thinking." Anyone who employs it does not provide a set of competencies that may be measured to know if, indeed, a subject is thinking critically.

Health issues are symptoms of a larger problem. In examining the "eating and weight" bar graph[15] we see the problem of critical thinking rear its head alongside a reiteration of the problem discussed in the introduction of this thesis: the term media literacy is used to address health problems while the larger issue of media illiteracy issue remains ignored. We see this problem again, when examining the "tobacco" bar graph[16]. The keywords we anticipate to see,

[15] APPENDIX E
[16] APPENDIX F

based on the NAMLE definition of media literacy used by over half of the studies analyzed, are present. For example, the terms "analyze," "evaluate," "access," "communicate information," "critical thinking," "meaning," and "identification" all occur. However, these are not represented on the bar graphs in the measures and definitions of measures. The tobacco research subset uses the keywords "perceptions," "attitudes," "behaviors," "knowledge," and "identification" to measure the skills developed in participants, and the definitions of these measures are "beliefs," "perceptions," and "behaviors." These keywords stem from inoculation theory and do not any anything to do with the analytical or evaluative skills used to define media literacy.

While examining the "Violence Keyword Frequency" bar graph[17], "critical thinking" stands out in both the definition of media literacy used by researchers in this subset and what the researchers measured in this subset. Still, "critical thinking" was only mentioned in one of the four studies' measures, while "perceptions" was only mentioned in two of the four. The study **"**Media Literacy Interventions: What makes them Boom or Boomerang?" by Sahara Bryne does not use any of the keywords associated with media literacy in the definition of media literacy, or the definition of the measures, only contributing the keyword "knowledge" to the bar graph. Looking at the definitions of measures for this subset there are only three words "perceptions, behavior," and "response." Upon close examination of the definitions of the measures there is a total lack of measuring what was stated as the measurements.

*Media literacy as an extension of literacy. T*he "Extension of Literacy Keyword Frequency" bar graph[18] is particularly interesting. Four studies sampled fell into this subset.

[17] APPENDIX G
[18] APPENDIX H

Three analysts use empowerment-derived keywords; one uses protectionist-derived keywords in their definition of media literacy. Examining the "Extension of Literacy Keyword Frequency" bar graph the definition of media literacy for this subset is evaluative, analytical, communicative skills. Access is frequently mentioned here as well, and then not at all in the measures or their definitions. In Hobbs & Frost's research, the use of the word "analyze" accounts for five out of the six occurrences in the "Extension of Literacy Keyword Frequency" bar graph it acts as an outlier that provides us a false impression that the term occurs more in the literature than it actually does.. Six out of six occurrences of "identification" in the definitions of measures, and four out of five of the occurrences of "identification" in the measures of skills developed come from the Hobbs and Frost study. Indeed the main skills measured by are participants' analytical skills and their ability to identify information.

Consumerism Concerns. The "Consumerism Keyword Frequency" bar graph[19] consists of only one study, "Benefits and Costs of *Channel One* in a Middle School Setting and the Role of Media-Literacy Training," the 2006 article by Austin, Chen, Pinkleton, and Johnson. We see the same discrepancy here that is found with almost every other bar graph: what is stated as the definition of media literacy is not what is measured as developed in participants.

Research Question Three

The results make it clear that the majority of researchers are situated towards the protectionist end of the spectrum. Hobbs and Frost, and Scharrer are the only researchers identified to consistently define and measure the development of skills related to the widely accepted definition of "media literacy" as put forth NAMLE. The transition from the paradigm

[19] APPENDIX I

of protectionism to an empowerment paradigm has left the field flooded with potential definitions for media literacy. Worse, there is little focus on developing and rigorously testing a common set of practices.

The 22 studies analyzed for the purpose of this thesis demonstrate the confusion of such a paradigm transition. Best practices for the field are not widely established, a fact that leaves many researchers falling back on the practices of the previously established paradigm. For example, health related topics of great importance such as weight, violence, alcohol abuse, drug abuse, and tobacco abuse are broached by media literacy interventions that then employ media effects skill development as their *ad hoc* intervention. Teaching media literacy addresses these health issues but only if the skills developed in students are media literacy skills. The current problematic tendency is to underline how media effects us rather than teaching students how to write, and to compose media that are the second and third steps to scaffolding media literacy according to Thoman[20]. In order to address these health-risk topics with media literacy, researchers and educators must teach media literacy skills instead of focusing exclusively on the effects by the media that are of concern. Media literacy skills, not media effects skills, will empower students to critically analyze, evaluate, and create media messages. Factor in the necessity for each individual to be media literate in order to fully participate as a citizen in today's society, as explained first by Dewey[21], then later by Jenkins[22], and Tyner[23], and the need for a common set of media literacy practices, that integrated into a public school system, is clear.

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[20] "awareness of time and choice in media consumption; critical reading/viewing skills and deconstructive/close analysis; creative and expressive media production activities; analysis of political, economic, social and cultural contexts of the media environment; and media advocacy, media action and social change" (Thoman, 1996 as summarized by E. Babad, E. Peer, and Renee Hobbs in 2009).

[21] "education is the fundamental method of social progress and reform" (Dewey, 1897)

[22] As Jenkins explains, "the current diversification of communication channels is politically important because it expands the range of voices that can be heard" (Jenkins, 2006, p.219)

[23] "a sophisticated and powerful vision of literacy shows potential to enable each person to at least join the debate by skillfully negotiating within the existing power structure, as well as outside it" (Tyner, 1998, p. 4)

Research Question Four

The data presents a slightly different picture than hypothesized. One outcome hypothesized was that studies of the protectionist school of thought would starkly contrast with those in the empowerment school of thought, this was not so. Around half of the studies define media literacy using keywords associated with the NAMLE definition of media literacy, but only two of those studies used those same NAMLE keywords in their measures, and definitions of measures. While one half of the studies on media literacy interventions use the same working (NAMLE) definition, the other half use 11 different keywords with no significant frequency due to the small sample size. Closely examining the bar graphs we see most studies iterate existing media effects research in the skills developed in study participants.

There is a growing consensus among researchers that the definition of media literacy is the ability to analyze, evaluate, critically think about, and communicate information. Yet the majority of researchers' methodologies remain based in inoculation theory and media effects theory research. This study documents a disconnect between the conceptualization and operationalization of "media literacy" in research studies published between the early 1980s and 2009. That is, studies employ language in their conceptual definitions, which is different from that which is used in their measures. This is evidenced by the heavy focus on attitudes, perceptions, beliefs, and behaviors in the measures and definitions of the measures used in the studies analyzed. This is why researchers are struggling to find their way in this paradigm shift, while some researchers acknowledge a change has occurred in the literacy education landscape, and they utilize roughly the same definitions, very few measurements of the skills developed in

participants reflect that change. Most of these researchers are not teaching or utilizing "media literacy", despite their use of the term they are utilizing media effects.

Conclusion

Today's contemporary setting is media saturated. Individuals create content in addition to actively viewing content created by other amateurs and media professionals. The previous paradigm of media effects is no longer sufficient to address the anomalies in the current educational landscape. A lack of agreed upon best practices for the new media literacy paradigm is stalling the progress of establishing this new paradigm. As such current media literacy interventions develop media effects skills in participants. Researchers understand individuals are living in a media saturated environment where each person has different skill levels in different mediums. However, researchers do not have a common set of practices to refer to in order to teach individuals of differing backgrounds and skills and in turn create curricula that scaffolds media literacy skills for those individuals. Currently the disagreement over best practices in the field of media literacy boils down to the debate over a definition of the term "media literacy." With the definition of media literacy contested researchers fall back on the best practices of the media effects paradigm, despite outlining their research in line with media literacy. So media literacy researchers depend so heavily on antiquated media effects research, despite the fact that installing media literacy practices for a general public are both viewed as integral for the creation of citizens. It is this last portion that is alarming as we do not see this mission reflected in the skills researchers and educators develop in participants. This thesis has successfully identified this issue in the paradigmatic transition between media effects and media literacy in order to clear the confusion that currently muddles the field. With this issue pinpointed future research can build on these findings. We need an agreed upon definition on which to scaffold media

literacy education practices. Only the NAMLE definition of media literacy operates under the paradigm we as a society have entered.

Future Research

There are a number of experimental best practices, for example: the Media Literacy Education & Common Core Standards put forth by NAMLE, or The MediaLit Kit assembled by the Center for Media Literacy. Future research that would be beneficial to the field should examine the reliability of the two experimental best practices put forth by the NAMLE and the Center for Media Literacy. A similar, but more in-depth, study can examine if interventions that develop media literacy skills are as effective as curriculums that develop media literacy skills. A genealogical study can explore the historical connections between media effects theory and protectionist research. A different genealogical study might examine other Deweyian capacities for empowerment that can be applied to our contemporary setting. A more in-depth examination of the measurement scales employed by researchers will allow researchers to understand the ideological underpinnings of the measures used to track participants' skill development. Future research would constructively add to the field by surveying the installation of media literacy curriculums as well as the cultural factors that enables such an installation. It would also benefit the field to examine how the concept of students learning to be media literate in public schools, in order to become a member of society, extends to private school students who are going to become citizens. Examining how public policy affects educational media literacy pedagogies, and vice versa, will inform current advocacy groups that lobby for progressive curriculum standards. The possibilities for the future application of this research are limitless.

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APPENDIX A

PARAPHRASE REFERENCE

(Cordes & Miller, 2000; McCarthy, 2001; Barr, 2010; Courage & Howe, 2010; Courage & Setliff, 2010; Richards, 2010; Anderson & Hanson, 2010; Ward-Barnes, 2010; Sherry, 2004; Miller & Dollard, 1941; Bandura & Walters, 1963; Bandura, Ross and Ross, 1961; Bandura, 1997; Gerbner, 1976; Gerbner & Gross, 1976; Gerbner, 1998; Austin & Johnson, 1997a; Austin & Johnson, 1997b; Gonzales et. al., 2004; Goldberg et. al., 2006; Buijzen, 2007; Beltramini & Bridge, 2001; McVey & Davis, 2002; Lew et. al., 2007; Huesmann et. al., 1983; Yamamiya et. al., 2004; Steiner-Adair et. al., 2002; Vooijs & van der Voort, 1993; Posavac, Posavac, Weigel, 2001; Rabak-Wagener, 1998; Robinson et. al., 2001; Rosenkoetter et. al., 2004; Rosenkoetter, Rosenkoetter, Acock, 2009)

APPENDIX B

LAB SHEET A

A key sentence defining media literacy:

Did this study utilize NAMLE's definition?

Protectionist or Empowerment?

Do the researchers describe their intervention?

Do the researchers describe how they measured what they did?

APPENDIX C

LAB SHEET B

Article:

Year:

Researchers:

How does the research group define media literacy?

Media Literacy Camp:

What they did as an intervention?

What did they measure?

How did they measure it?

How do they define what they measured?

APPENDIX D

LAB SHEET C

Coding Key Words:

Coding keywords that arise in the article when referring to a definition of a theory, a foundational concept for their study, or an outcome of the intervention.

Access

Analyze

Attitudes

Behavior

Beliefs

Creative(ly) Produce(r)

Critical Thinking

Communicate Information

Competencies

Decision(s) (making)

Discussion(s)

Empower

Environment

Evaluate

Identification

Inoculate

Knowledge

Literacy Skills

Logic

Meaning

Perceptions

Perspectives

Persuade

Prevent

Produce(tion)

Reject/Refute

Resist

Response

Skepticism

Skills

1. Where was this study conducted?

2. In what kind of setting was the intervention administered?

3. What different theories, theoretical frameworks, schools of thought do the researcher use to explain why and how they created and/or administered an intervention?

4. How much space is devoted to any theory referenced in this study?

5. Were there any declared limitations on the study or subject matter?

6. How often do the researchers mention the individuals involved in the intervention? How do they refer to them (what words do they use? Subjects? Recipients? Participants? etc.)?

7. How did researchers frame individuals', observed for the intervention discussed, interactions with media?

Does media act upon them (do stuff to them, make them smoke, drink, gain weight)? Does media influence their opinion?

Does something else affect individuals or individuals opinions beside the media (according to the researchers)?

8. How did the researchers frame themselves, and the other participants in the research? Did they administer the intervention themselves? If not, who did?

Comments:

APPENDIX E

CODE BOOK

Lab Sheets and Research Questions

Lab Sheets A, B, and C contained the following questions which aimed to deconstruct the texts for the purposes of addressing research questions 1-4 posed in this thesis. Research Question 1: "How do active media literacy researchers and educators define media literacy?" breaks down into the following: "How does the research group define media literacy?," "What is a key sentence defining media literacy in this study?," "Did this study utilize NAMLE's definition? Did they utilize Potter's definition? Do the researchers explicitly state their definition of media literacy?" If the research group defines media literacy at all, keywords from the protectionist and empowerment schools of thought will identify which definition, if either, is being utilized. If neither NAMLE nor Potter's definitions were used but there is a definition for media literacy then who defines media literacy? What keywords were used? If there is no definition of media literacy given then what theory was used to justify an intervention? "How do the researchers define what they measured?" was posed in an aim to clarify what the researchers involved in each study actualize their theoretical definition and justification for an intervention. This question also attempted to capture any theoretical or ideological framework to interventions that is implied in the definitions of the measures if the researchers provide no definition of media literacy or the theory behind their intervention. How the researchers chose to deliver their intervention sheds light on how the researchers view the intervention, their role, and the role of others participating. "What was the intervention in this study?" aimed to gather this information.. "How often do the researchers mention the individuals involved in the intervention? How do they refer to them (what words do they use? Subjects? Recipients?

Participants? etc.)?" gathered information on the referential units. "How did researchers frame individuals', observed for the intervention discussed, interactions with media? Does media act upon them? Does media influence their opinion?" aimed to gather information on the referential units as well as the theoretical traditions influencing the studies analyzed for research questions 1 and 3. "How did the researchers frame themselves, and the other participants in the research? Did they administer the intervention themselves? If not, who did?" gathered information on the referential units and theoretical traditions for the purposes of research questions 1 and 3.

Research Question 2: "How do the researchers' definitions overlap and how do they diverge?" data was gathered by creating coding keywords used in definitions of theories and interventions: "access," "analyze," "evaluate," "communicate information," "critical thinking," "skepticism," "knowledge," "resist," "prevent," "inoculate," "behavior," "identification," "perception," "attitudes," "competencies," "perspectives," "creative(ly) produce(r)," "persuade," "beliefs," "environment," "logic," "response," "reject," "mean(ing)," "literacy skills." "What different theories, theoretical frameworks, schools of thought do the researchers use to explain why and how they created and/or administered an intervention?" aimed to collect information on the syntactical units analyzed in this thesis as well as the various theoretical traditions researchers may have utilized for the purposes of their study. "How much space is devoted to any theory referenced in this study?" collected information on the physical units analyzed for the purposes of this thesis.

Research Questions 3: "Where and why are the researchers situated on the spectrum in the discussion on media literacy?" was broken down into 6 questions. "Would this study be classified as characteristic of protectionist or empowerment?," "What is the evidence that this media literacy study should be placed in the protectionist or the empowerment camp?," aimed to

compile the researchers' conceptualization of where their study lies on the media literacy spectrum. The latter question aimed to gather information that would contribute to the understanding researchers have of their role as well as the roles of the other participants involved in the intervention. "What was the intervention in this study?" aimed to understand how much time and at what frequency interventions took place. "Do media researchers envision that their participants are in a predetermined (or determined by them) category which is frozen, or do they envision their participants as people who are in the process of learning, becoming and capable of communicating ideas that are transformative?" aimed to understand if the researchers see people as individuals capable of growth, acquiring critical thinking skills, and communicating information. "Do the researchers describe their intervention?" aimed to understand if the researchers told subjects of the interventions what to think or educated the subjects in critical thinking skills. "Do the researchers describe how they measured the effect of what they did?" gathered information on theoretical traditions. "What was measured as an outcome of the intervention?" gathered information on any measures that were further broken down by the researchers for the purposes of unitizing their studies for quantification. "How was the outcome measured?" aimed to collect information on the theoretical traditions influencing the studies.

Research Question 4: "Why and/or how do these studies contribute to the on-going refinement of the definition, and people's understanding of the term "media literacy" and media literacy education?" collected the information necessary for the analysis on the level of social practice. "Were there any declared limitations on the study or subject matter?" aimed to collect information on limitations that might apply to the refinement of the definition, and research in the field. "Does something else affect individuals or individuals opinions beside the media?" aimed to gather information on the theoretical traditions as well as influences on the studies that

may have occurred on the level of social practice. "How did the researchers frame themselves, and the other participants in the research? Did they administer the intervention themselves? If not, who did?" gathered information on the roles of participants in the eyes of the researchers.

Lab Sheet Examples

During the initial phase of Lab Sheet A, each article was critically analyzed in order to extract the answers to the questions posed on Lab Sheet A. Utilizing the 2004 article by Compton & Pfau in the data sample as an example, when question 1 from Lab Sheet A was posed "A key sentence defining media literacy:" the only answer possible was "none, as the researchers utilized inoculation theory to justify their call for an educational media intervention." For question 2 "Did this study utilize NAMLE's definition?" the answer was "no" as the study had not addressed media literacy. Question 3 "Protectionist or Empowerment?" the answer was "Protectionist" since the study conducted by Compton and Pfau exclusively followed the inoculation school of thought where recipients are taught *what* to think and not *how* to think. "Do the researchers describe their intervention?" was question 4, and question 5 "Do the researchers describe how they measure what they did?" were answered of "yes" meant the article could be further analyzed for Research Question 1 and 3 in later data gather phases for Research Question 1, 2, 3, and 4.

For Lab Sheet B the year an article was published was also obtained on this lab sheet in order to map any chronological trends. The Compton & Pfau article was published in 2004. "How does the research group define media literacy?" was answered "They do not; they use inoculation theory, and resistance research p.345 and 351." "Media literacy Camp:" was

"Protectionist, as they instill attitudinal 'resistance through the process of counterarguing and refutations. Inoculation works to confer resistance…' p.345." "What they did as an intervention?" "In phase 1 participants filled out a questionnaire for baseline attitudes, and behaviors in relation to credit cards, and demographic information. Then in phase 2 participants received a 'booklet containing a questionnaire' regarding their attitudes toward credit cards, treatment participants received 'an inoculation message' prior to the questionnaire p.350. In phase 3 'all participants were subjected to a simulated credit card advertising message' and completed a third questionnaire p.350." Question four on Lab Sheet B asked "What did they measure?" and "Issue involvement, elicited threat from the inoculation treatments, attitude accessibility, number of counterarguments and responses to counterarguments, strength of attitude toward credit card debt, attitude toward the issue of credit card debt, 'intent to proselytize positive and negative information about credit cards to others and intent to apply for credit cards,' and 'changes in likelihood of engaging in these behaviors' p.351-352" was the answer. "How did they measure it?" and "3 7-point scales, 2 '0-100-point probability continuum,' p.351-352" was the answer. Question six "How do they define what they measured?" was answered "'Issue Involvement operationalized as the importance or salience of the topic and, consistent with inoculation research, was assess during Phases 1 and 2 using an abbreviated version of Zaichowsky's (1985) Personal Involvement Inventory (PII). Six relevant items of PII were used in this study, including: *insignificant/significant, doesn't/does matter to me, unimportant/important, of no concern/of much concern, means nothing/means a lot,* and *irrelevant/relevant*.' p.351.' 'Elicited threat from the inoculation treatments was assessed using five bipolar adjective pairs (e.g. Pfau et al., 2004) on 7-point scales; high scores indicated greater elicited threat. The adjective pairs included: *not threatening/threatening*, *not harmful/harmful,*

unintimidating/intimidating, not risky/risky, and *safe/dangerous*. p.351.' The items defined attitude accessibility 'Compared to other issues, how often do you think about [or for the next item, how often do you discuss with friend, family members, or others] the issue of credit card debt?' p.351. Number of counterarguments and responses to counterarguments were 20 statements 'reflecting major arguments for and against the issue of credit card debt,' p.351. Strength of attitude toward credit card debt was defined as this and measured with '*no certainty'* and '*absolute certainty*' p.351. 'Attitude toward the issue of credit card debt was assessed using six bipolar adjective pairs developed for use in resistance research by Burgoon and colleagues (1978)... Adjective opposite pairs were: *foolish/wise, unacceptable/acceptable, wrong/right, unfavorable/favorable, bad/good,* and *negative/positive*.' p.351-352. 'Intent to proselytize positive and negative information about credit cards to others and intent to apply for credit cards,' defined as such and measured by '*no probability'* to '*certain probability*' p.351. 'Changes in likelihood of engaging in these behaviors' was defined as such and had only 'positive or negative' p.351-352." Lab Sheet B ended with a small keyword section that became irrelevant moving through the second data gather as it was greatly expanded for Lab Sheet C.

With Lab Sheet C the keywords were gathered as other questions on the lab sheet were answered. Keywords in Compton & Pfau's 2004 article that arose were attitudes, behavior, inoculate, and resist. They were coded for each page they appeared upon but not the frequency with which they appeared on any given page. The page numbers were recorded next to the keyword found. The keyword of "behavior" coded as found on page 350 and 351 however were not explicitly stated instead the phrase "likelihood of sharing credit card information with others, likelihood of applying for a credit card and increasing efforts to pay down existing credit card debt" was coded as "behavior" as it is referred to as "behavior" on page 352 when the

researchers describe measuring a change “in these behaviors” when referring to these likelihoods. Question one “Where was this study conducted?” was answered “‘A Midwestern university’ p.349.” Question two “In what kind of setting was the intervention administered?” was answered “never stated but presumably a laboratory setting due to the phrase ‘Participants were recruited from introductory communication courses at a Midwestern university with the incentive of course credit.’ p.349.” Question three “What different theories, theoretical frameworks, schools of thought do the researcher(s) use to explain why and how they created and/or administered an intervention?” was answered “McGuire’s inoculation theory p.344-345, 346; resistance research p.351-352.” Question four “How much space is devoted to any theory referenced in this study?” was answered “McGuire’s inoculation theory p.344-345 = 3 paragraphs on 344-345 and most of page 346; resistance research p.351-352 = one sentence.” Question five “Were there any declared limitations on the study or subject matter?” was answered “‘First, our argument strength manipulation suggested that, while strong counterarguments were perceived as significantly stronger than weak counterarguments, the levels of perceived argument strength was skewed. Ideally, in future research, refinement of the argument strength manipulation will result in more distinct levels of strong and weak argumentation. Also the sample size was smaller than we had hoped, and power may be an explanation for some of our nonsignificant findings’” (p.358). Question six “How often do the researchers mention the individuals involved in the intervention? How do they refer to them (what words do they use? Subjects? Recipients? Participants? etc.)?” was answered “‘student(s)’ p.343 ‘freshman and sophomore students’ p.349 ‘participants’ p.350 and on.” Question seven ‘How did researcher frame individuals’, observed for the intervention discussed, interactions with media? Does media act upon them (do stuff to them, make them smoke, drink,

gain weight)? Does media influence their opinion? does something else affect individuals or individuals opinions beside the media (according to researchers)?" was answered "'students are prime targets for credit card marketing.' p.344 'individuals could be inoculated against future attitude attacks in much the same way as individuals can be inoculated against future viral attacks.' p.344-345." Question eight "How did the researchers frame themselves, and the other participants in the research? Did they administer the intervention themselves? If not, who did?" was answered "'researchers' p.345 and 358 but not in reference to themselves directly, more in reference to researchers at large. 'we' p.358." There were no comments in the "Comments" section.

An additional example, which is in contrast the 2004 Compton & Pfau article, is the 2007 Buijzen article was analyzed in the same method. When analyzed with question one "A key sentence defining media literacy" on Lab Sheet A the answer for the Buijzen article was "They use cognitive defenses to advertising research 'Cognitive advertising defenses include children's knowledge of the advertisers' persuasive intent and skepticism toward commercials (Batra & Ray, 1986; Brucks, et al., 1988; John, 1999; Rossiter, 1979)... The development of cognitive advertising defenses is not only a matter of obtaining the necessary knowledge and understanding, but also of acquiring the information-processing skills that enable the child to apply that knowledge when watching a commercial (Brusk et al., 1988; Friestad, & Wright, 1994; John, 1999).' p.413." Question two "Did this study utilize NAMLE's definition" was "no." Question three "Protectionist or Empowerment?" was "Empowerment as on page 413 Buijzen refers to critical thinking skills." Question four "Do the researchers describe their intervention?" was "yes." Question five "Do the researchers describe how they measured what they did?" was "yes."

Buijzen's 2007 article was then analyzed with Lab Sheet B for the second phase of the data gather. Question one "How does the research group define media literacy?" was "They do not, they utilize cognitive defenses to advertising research 'Cognitive advertising defenses include children's knowledge of the advertisers' persuasive intent and skepticism toward commercials (Batra & Ray, 1986; Brucks, et al., 1988; John, 1999; Rossiter, 1979)... The development of cognitive advertising defenses is not only a matter of obtaining the necessary knowledge and understanding, but also of acquiring the information-processing skills that enable the child to apply that knowledge when watching a commercial (Brusk et al., 1988; Friestad, & Wright, 1994; John, 1999).' p.413." Question two "Media literacy camp" was answered "Empowerment as on page 413 they refer to critical thinking skills and on page 416-417 Buijzen refers to using knowledge and skepticism to develop 'critical attitudes.'" Question three "What they did as an intervention?" was "'Children in each classroom were randomly assigned to one of the three conditions. A female experimenter brought the children, in groups of 1 to 8 (*Mdn* = 5), to an empty classroom in which a television and video recorder were located. To make the children feel at ease the experimenter offered them some lemonade and chatted with them for a while. Then participants watched a 3-min edited compilation of six toy commercials that were selected to appeal to both boys and girls, and to children of different ages. The commercials were videotaped from various children's networks 2 years prior to the investigation and were no longer being broadcast… After every set of two commercials, a short pause was inserted to allow for the intervention comments. To avoid order effects, the set of commercials were rotated, resulting in three different video compilations. To control for children's prior knowledge of the commercials, they were asked with commercials they had seen before. Because half of the children (50.5%) recognized three commercials or more, this variable was controlled for (see

Table 1). In all conditions, the experimenter watched the commercials together with the children. During each pause, a statement was made that was directly relevant to the commercials the children had just viewed… In the factual intervention condition, the experimenter provided facts about the commercials and the products advertised; in the evaluative intervention condition, the experimenter casually expressed negative evaluations of the commercials and the products advertised; and in the no intervention condition, the experimenter did not give comments on the commercials shown… After viewing the commercials, the children completed a 20-min questionnaire about the commercials they had just viewed. the experimenter read each question and its response options to the children, who circled their answers. Before the questionnaires were administered, the experimenter emphasized that the test had nothing to do with formal grades or testing. At the end of the session, the children were brought back to their classroom' p.418-419." Question four "What did they measure?" was "Advertising knowledge, advertising skepticism, attitude toward commercials, intended product requests p.419-420." Question five "How did they measure it?" was "'The intervention conditions were recorded into categorical variables, one for factual (1 = *factual intervention*, 0 = *no intervention*) and one for evaluative intervention (1 = *evaluative intervention*, 0 = *no intervention*) to correspond to the proposed model (cf., Russell et al., 1998)… For each of the questionnaire items, children responded on a 4-point scale ranging from 1 (*no, not at all*) to 4 (*yes, very much*)' p.419." Question six "How do they define what they measured?" was "Advertising knowledge defined by questionnaire items '(a) 'Do you think commercials try to sell things to people?' and (b) 'Do you think commercials use special tricks to make the toys look better than they really are?' p.419. Advertising skepticism defined by questionnaire items '(a) 'Do you think television commercials tell the truth?' and (b) 'Do you think you can believe what the people in the commercials say or do?'

p.419. Attitude toward commercials defined by how much children 'liked each commercial in the video.' p.419. Intended product requests were defined by 'children were asked to indicate whether they intended to ask their parents to purchase the product advertised in each commercial.' p.420."

The keywords from Lab Sheet C found in Buijzen's 2007 article were attitudes, behavior, critical thinking, knowledge, persuade, skepticism, and skills. Critical thinking appeared on page 413 as "critical thoughts" and on page 417 "critical attitudes" the latter of which was coded as critical thinking, and attitudes. Question one on Lab Sheet C was "Where was this study conducted?" and the answer was "the Netherlands p. 417." Question two "In what kind of setting was the intervention administered?" was "In an empty classroom in groups of 1 to 8 p.418." Question three "What different theories, theoretical frameworks, schools of thought do the researchers use to explain why and how they created and/or administered an intervention?" was "Information processing theory p.413-414; media effects p.414-415; Nathanson 2004 referenced p.415." Question four "How much space was devoted to any theory reference in this study?" was ""Information processing theory p.413-414 = one paragraph; media effects p.414-415 = one sentence; Nathanson 2004 referenced p.415." Question five "Were there any declared limitations on the study or subject matter?" was "'First, it is difficult to generalize the results to the home environment, and second, there is a possibility that children give socially desirable responses, which they perceive to be in line with the intervention comments made by the experimenter' p.426." Question six "How often do the researchers mention the individuals involved in the intervention? How do they refer to them (what words do they use? Subjects? Recipients? Participants? etc.)?" was "'children in early and middle childhood' p.411; '5- to 10-year-old children' p. 411; 'participants' p.418." Question seven "How did researchers frame

individuals', observed for the intervention discussed, interactions with media? Does media act upon them (do stuff to them, make them smoke, drink, gain weight)? Does media influence their opinion? Does something else affect individuals or individuals opinions beside the media (according to the researchers)?" was "'the topic of advertising aimed at children has traditionally been accompanied by concern and debate about the unfairness of such advertising and its possible adverse effects on children (Kunkel et al., 2004)...these studies have rather convincingly shown that such advertising mediation or intervention can modify children's responses to television commercials (Bijmolt, Claassen, & Brus, 1998; Roberts, Christenson, Gibson, Mooser, & Goldberg, 1980; Wiman, 1983)' p.411. 'The effects of television advertising on children have often been divided into two general types: intended and unintended effects.' p.412. 'Most authors agree that young children are more susceptible to the intended and unintended effects of advertising than older children and adults are (Blosser & Roberts, 1985; Buijzen & Valkenburg, 2000; Robertson & Rossiter, 1977)' p.412-413. '…although most children have acquired sufficient knowledge and understanding of advertising intent by the time they are 8, information-process research suggests that they need to be prompted or cued to apply this knowledge until they are 12'-p.413-414. 'As children mature, their attitudes toward commercials change as a function of (a) shifting program preferences and (b) increasing cognitive advertising defenses...In middle childhood, children become progressively more critical about, and thereby less susceptible to, advertising messages(Austin & Johnson, 1997a,b; Boush, 2001) In addition, children's affective responses to commercials are also determined by their cognitive advertising defenses' p.414. '…parents and other caregivers can prevent children from unwanted media effects … by talking with children about the media content (e.g., Austin, 1997a, 1997b; Cantor, Sparks, & Hoffner, 1988; Nathanson, 1999, 2004; Nathanson & Cantor, 2000; Wilson, 1989).'

p.414-415." Question eight How did the researchers frame themselves, and the other participants in the research? Did they administer the intervention themselves? If not, who did?" was "'female experimenter' administered the intervention from then on referred to as 'the experimenter' -p.418. In the Discussion section Buijzen takes the first person 'I developed and tested…' p.423." There were no comments in the "Comments" section of Buijen's Lab Sheet C.

Hypotheses

RQ 1: How do active media literacy researchers and educators define media literacy?

H1: Researchers will define media literacy by either protectionist, or empowerment terms.

RQ 2: How do the researchers' definitions overlap and how do they diverge?

H2: Researchers definitions will overlap more than they diverge.

RQ 3: Where and why are the researchers situated on the spectrum in the discussion on media literacy?

H3: The majority of researchers will be situated closer to the protectionist end of the spectrum.

RQ 4: Why and/or how do these studies contribute to the on-going refinement of the definition, and people's understanding of the term "media literacy" and media literacy education?

H4: Protectionist studies will most likely be reiterations of existing media effects research, while empowerment studies will utilize techniques which experimentally extend literacy theory research into the digital and videographic media realm.

When examining the definitions used by media literacy researchers in the field I expect to find researchers who define media literacy in line with NAMLE, and the empowerment side of the field, and researchers who define media literacy in line with Potter and the previously existing paradigm of media effects and inoculation theory. The hypothesis to Research Question 1 is based on my preliminary examination of the studies sampled for the purposes of this thesis. Hypothesis 2, in response to Research Question 2, is based on the fact research in the field of media literacy stems from media effects theory, and literacy theory and researchers will overlap in their source material as it will stem from one or both of the aforementioned fields. Hypothesis 3 in response to Research Question 3 is based upon a preliminary examination of the studies sampled for the purposes of this thesis. As media effects theory, and protectionist research, has been the normal science of the media literacy field it is most likely that most researchers will be situated towards the protectionist end of the media literacy spectrum. In response to Research Question 4, Hypothesis 4 postulates that the protectionist studies will reiterations of existing media effects research, while empowerment studies will utilize techniques which experimentally extend literacy theory research into the digital and videographic media realm.

Lab Sheet Results[24] *and Coding*

Eating and Weight "A media literacy program for high school females" the 1998 article by Irving, Dupen and Berel state "media literacy is a type of communications intervention that promotes adaptive behavior indirectly - by teaching individuals, often children, to evaluate the media critically and reduce the credibility and persuasive influence of media messages" (p. 121). The study sampled 24 female high school sophomores who participated in a "peer-administered media literacy programed" versus 17 female high school sophomores who did not participate in

[24] Copies of the finished lab sheets are available upon request

the workshop. During the workshop participants watched and analyzed an excerpt from "Slim Hopes: Advertising and the Obsession with Thinness" (p. 119). The researchers measured body dissatisfaction, physical appearance state and trait anxiety due to weight, social attitudes toward appearance, media attitudes, and participants' emotional state at the time of the intervention. Body dissatisfaction was defined by items such as "I think that my stomach is too big" (p. 123). Physical appearance state and trait anxiety due to weight was defined by body-related items regarding "extent of feeling overweight, thighs, buttocks, hips, stomach, legs, waist, muscle tone" (p. 124). Social attitudes toward appearance was defined by items such as "attractiveness is very important if you want to get ahead in our culture…[and] photographs of thin women make me wish that I were thin" (p. 124). Media attitudes was defined as perceived realism, desirability, and positive expectancies, and represented by items such as "real women look like models in ads…I would like to have a body like models in ads…[and] being thin makes you happier" (p. 124). Participants' emotional state at the time of the intervention was defined by items that asked participants if/how significantly they are feeling "10 adjectives that reflect positive affect...and 10 adjectives that reflect negative affect" (p. 124). The control group's survey took around 20 minutes to administer. The experimental group was excused from English class and participated in the intervention in a separate classroom during that time. The sample was "24 female high school sophomores" who were "compared to 17 female high school sophomores who did not take part in the program" (p. 119). In the article the researchers refer to the participants as "female high school sophomores...adolescent females...female students" (ps. 119, 120, & 122). The participants are framed in the following manner on page 120: "girls and women need not be conceptualized as 'casualties' of the media; the can be seen as agents who actively resist and subvert the media." The researchers frame themselves in article as "we" and

the intervention was a "peer-administered" program, run by "a female high school student" (p.122).

"Comparison of Media-Literacy Programs to Strengthen College Women's Resistance to Media Images" by Irving and Berel in 2001 states "media literacy (sometimes referred to as media education) promotes adaptive behavior by teaching individuals, often children, to evaluate media critically and, consequently, to reduce the credibility and persuasive influence of media messages" (p. 103). 110 female college students were randomly assigned to an externally oriented, media literacy intervention, an internally oriented, media literacy intervention, a video-only intervention, or a no-intervention control condition. The externally oriented intervention focused on critical thinking and social action. The "internally oriented intervention taught women to challenge negative body-related cognitions" (p. 104). The video-only intervention watched the same video as the other two interventions but the following discussion was unstructured. The researchers measured participant's body image, media skepticism, intentions to engage in media activism, and affect. Body image was defined by three combined measures body dissatisfaction, physical appearance state and trait anxiety, and sociocultural attitudes toward appearance. Body dissatisfaction was defined as body dissatisfaction. Physical appearance state and trait anxiety was defined as "anxiety about weight-related aspects of physical appearance" (p. 105). Sociocultural attitudes towards appearance were defined as "awareness and internalization of sociocultural standards of physical appearance" (p. 105). Media skepticism was defined as media skepticism, Intentions to engage in media activism was defined as "media activism" (p. 106). Affect[25] was not defined (p.106). The interventions took about 45 minutes to administer and were administered in a "laboratory/classroom" (p. 106) at

[25] Irving and Berel did in fact measure "affect" in accordance with the "Positive and Negative Affect Schedule" (Irving and Berel, 2001, p.106).

Washington State University. The researchers referred to the participants as "college-age women...participants...female college students" (p. 103, 104). The researchers described the participants' interactions with media by describing that "exposure to media that promote a thin-deal of beauty is associated with body dissatisfaction, dieting, and unhealthy eating practices" (p.103). The researchers frame themselves as "investigator" (p. 105) and "experimenter" (p.106).

"A Program to Promote Positive Body Image: A 1-Year Follow-Up Evaluation" the 2002 follow-up study by McVey & Davis do not explicitly define media literacy though they do mention it on pages 97-98 "Media literacy training has been identified previously as an important component in eating disorder prevention work." This study was a follow-up survey of Canadian middle-school classrooms, during their regularly scheduled health curriculum (McVey & Davis, p. 99-100), which had been control groups of a body image media literacy intervention a year prior. Body image satisfaction, and eating problems were the factors measured. These factors were defined by such terms as "I am proud of my body" for the former, and by items such as "attitudes and behaviors associated with eating disorders" for the later. The researchers referred to the subjects as "young adolescent girls… students… girls… participants… respondents" (ps. 96, 99, 101). The subjects' interactions with media as: "unrealistic body shapes portrayed as ideal in the media and the ways in which that is related to girls' perception of themselves, and with the various methods that the media employs to create a perfect image of beauty" (p.99). The researchers framed themselves as "researchers" (p. 100), and distinguished between the "first author who facilitated the school-based intervention program [who] conducted the implementation of the surveys" (p. 105) and the other researcher credited with the article. The researchers also referred to themselves as "outside experts" (p. 105).

The 2003 article "A Preliminary Controlled Evaluation of a School-Based Media Literacy Program and Self-Esteem Program for Reducing Eating Disorder Risk Factors" by Wade, Davidson, and O'Dea defines media literacy as an "approach [which] empowers students to adopt a critical evaluation of media content so that they can identify, analyze, and ultimately challenge the thin ideal presented in the mass media (Levine, Piran & Stoddard, 1999)" (p. 372). The researchers sampled four classes of private school grade 8 students in Australia. The intervention consisted of five-class lesson, each lesson was around 50 minutes in duration. The control group participated in their normal religious education, the experimental groups covered evaluation of media messages, activism, and advocacy, as well as the thin-ideal advocated by advertisers. The researchers measured participants' risk factors for eating disorders, body dissatisfaction, and general risk factors of self esteem. Risk factors for eating disorders were defined as bulimia nervosa and anorexia nervosa. Body dissatisfaction was defined by silhouettes depicting differently sized individuals and asking participants which they looked like and which they would prefer to look like. General self-esteem was defined as self-perception. The researchers referred to the participants as "students" (p. 371) and stated "students need to be empowered to 'challenge the thin ideal presented in the mass media' (Levine, Piran & Stoddard, 1999)" (p.379). The researchers did not refer to themselves in the article. The interventions were administered in the following fashion: "[their] usual teachers, who were all men, a different teacher for each condition. One female Master of Clinical Psychology student assisted at both the media literacy and self-esteem interventions to ensure fidelity across both program" (p. 373).

"Media Literacy as a prevention intervention for college women at low- or high-risk for eating disorders" the 2004 article by Coughlin and Kalodner state media literacy "promotes independent critical thinking and helps media recipients become active, conscientious

consumers, rather than remaining passive and subservient to the images and values that dominate the media (Brown, 1998; Potter, 2004)" (p. 36). The study sampled 135 female undergraduate students, the experimental group consisted of 45 participants in 8 women's studies classes. The two sessions were 90 minutes in duration and administered one week apart. The intervention, ARMED, was administered in two sessions. Researchers measured cognitions and behaviors, presence of psychological and behavioral symptoms of eating disorders, awareness and acceptance of societal standards of attractiveness, and the level to which individuals make social comparisons related to appearance. The subscales used to measure these items were referenced but these measures were not defined. This study was conducted at an unnamed "rural university" (p. 37). The researchers refer to the participants as "college women… participants… college females… media recipients… female undergraduate students" (p.37). The researchers frame participants' interactions with media as "sociocultural pressure to be thin from the media, followed by peers and family (Irving, 1990)" (p. 36) and state "Media literacy, which promotes independent critical thinking and helps media recipients become more active, conscientious consumers rather than remaining passive and subservient to the images and values that dominate the media" (p. 36). The researchers do not refer to themselves, the only reference to an individual implementing the intervention is brief: "This topic is typically presented by an instructor during the third week of the semester and is followed by a discussion and activities led by a small group of students during week 4" (p. 38).

The 2005 study "Women's exposure to thin-and-beautiful media images: body image effects of media-ideal internalization and impact-reduction interventions" by Yamamiya, Cash, Melnyk, Posavac, Posavac only vaguely touches on media literacy stating on page 75 "Media literacy interventions involving critical analyses of contents of the media messages." This study

was conducted at Old Dominion University in Norfolk, Virginia in a laboratory setting. White, female students in small groups were shown 20 pictures of young, white, fashion models. The experimental group were conveyed facts about "artificial beauty" and "genetic realities" (p.75-76) to create cognitive dissonance between realistic body expectations and the thin ideal created by media. "Sociocultural Attitudes Towards Appearance" and "Body Image States Scale" (p. 76) were measured. The former was defined by items such as "I would like to look like" and "I compare my appearance" and the later being defined as "dissatisfaction-satisfaction with aspects of his/her physical appearance" (p. 76). The researchers refer to the participants in the article as "young college women… participants...white females students at Old Dominion University" (ps. 74, 76). The participants interactions with media were described as: "the media also explicitly instruct how to attain thin bodies by dieting, exercising, and body-contouring surgery, encouraging female consumers to believe that they *can* and *should* be thin. The researchers refer to themselves as "moderator" and "a female experimenter" (ps. 75, 77).

"The Effectiveness of Media Literacy and Eating Disorder Prevention in Schools: A Controlled Evaluation with 9th Grade Girls" the 2007 doctoral dissertation by Dysart states "media literacy, which, in its basic form, is the ability to critically evaluate and analyze media messages, particularly recognizing persuasive influences of a variety of media constructions (Irving, DuPen, & Berel, 1998)" (p. 7) and "media literacy aims to help young people learn ways to recognize, avoid, combat, and resist contributing to- or becoming victims of- any media bullying behavior" (p. 140). The sample "consisted of 9th grade students enrolled during the 2006-2007 school year and 10th grade students enrolled during the 2007-2008 school year at an all-girls, independent boarding and day school in the Southeast" (p. 62). The interventions took place in eight, weekly, 40-minute sessions. The media literacy intervention focused upon

encouraging girls to become more critical consumers of appearance-related media images in an effort to prevent the development of eating disorders. Course materials were sourced from "a variety of sources" (p. 73). The researchers used the following measures: self-perception profile, eating disorder inventory, drive for thinness scale, bulimia scale, body dissatisfaction scale, sociocultural attitudes towards appearance questionnaire, internalization, information, Rosenberg self-esteem scale, physical appearance state and trait anxiety scale, media attitudes questionnaire, realism, similarity, and substance use and resistance questionnaire. The self-perception scale was defined as "perceived competence in nine domains: scholastic competence, social acceptance, athletic competence, physical appearance, job competence, romantic appeal, behavioral conduct, close friendships, and global self-worth" (p. 62). Eating disorder inventory was defined as "psychological constructs and behaviors with clinical or conceptual relevance to eating disorders" (p. 63). Drive for thinness scale was defined as "an individual's' preoccupation with thinness and parallel fear of gaining weight" (p. 64). Bulimia scale was defined as "tendencies to engage in and think about binge-eating or eating when distressed" (p. 65). Body dissatisfaction scale was defined as "displeasure with the size of certain body parts often of substantial concern to individuals with eating disorder" (p. 66). Sociocultural attitudes towards appearance were defined as "societal appearance ideals" (p. 66). Internalizations was defined as "adoption of the cultural thin ideal" and represented by items such as "I would like my body to look like the models who appear in fashion magazines" (p.67). Information was defined by items such as "Famous people are an important source of information about fashion and being attractive" (p.68). Rosenberg self-esteem scale was defined as "self-esteem in children, adolescents, and adults" and represented by items such as "I take a positive attitude towards myself" (p.68). Physical appearance state and trait anxiety scale was defined as "appearance-

related anxiety… asks respondents to indicate their immediate level of anxiety about various body parts (i.e. thighs, hips, ears, feet) as well as 'the extent to which I look overweight'" (p. 69). "Media attitudes were defined as "children's perceptions of alcohol advertisements and their intentions to consume alcohol" (p. 69). Realism was defined by items such as "typically women look like models in ads" (p. 70). Similarity was defined by items such as "most women could be as thin as the models in ads" (p. 70). Substance abuse and resistance was defined as "behavioral frequencies associated with alcohol, tobacco, and marijuana use and resistance" and represented by items such as "in the last 3 months, I drank beer or wine" (p. 70). The researcher referred to the subjects as "9th grade students… participants… 9th grade female adolescents" (ps. abstract, vi, 7). Participant's interactions with media were thinly framed. The researcher describes the prevalence of eating disorders, and that the media has a thin-ideal, there should be more interventions targeting the persuasive messages of the media, and that participants are in participating in "psychoeducation programming" (p. 8) but she does not connect dots between these statements. The researcher refers to herself as "the researcher" (p. 7). The intervention was administered by "classroom teachers" to determine if "with relatively brief training, [they] can be effective in the delivery of psychoeducation programming" (p. 8).

The 2009 article "Is *BodyThink* an efficacious body image and self-esteem program? A controlled evaluation with adolescents" by Richardson, Paxton, and Thomson states "media literacy is the provision of education on the media's promotion of unrealistic standards of 'beauty' so that people learn to critically analyze media messages" (p. 75). The sample consisted of "277, grade 7 students from four public secondary schools in Melbourne, Australia" (p. 76). The *BodyThink* curriculum, which aims to address risk factors for the development of body dissatisfaction (p. 75), was administered. The intervention was administered in four, 50-minute

sessions in classrooms. The researchers measured media literacy, risk factors for body dissatisfaction, and body image and eating disorder symptoms. Media literacy was defined as "knowledge about digital manipulation of images, lighting, camera shoots, and the effect of media images on feelings" (p. 76). Risk factors for body dissatisfaction was broken down into self-esteem, internalization of the thin-ideal for girls, internalization of the muscular ideal for boys, body comparison tendency, and appearance teasing. Self-esteem was defined by items such as "Overall, I have a lot to be proud of" (p. 77). Internalization of the thin ideal was defined by items such as "I believe clothes look better on thinner models" (p. 77). Internalization of the muscular ideal was defined by items such as "I believe that clothes look better on muscular men" (p. 77). Body comparison tendency was defined by statements such as "at parties or other social events I compare my physical appearance to the physical appearance of others" (p. 77). Appearance tendency was defined by items such as "people made fun of you because you are heavy" (p. 77). Body image and eating disorder symptoms were broken down into body satisfaction, dietary restraint, and bulimic symptoms. Body satisfaction was defined by items such as "I think my hips are too big" for girls, and "I think my biceps are too small" (p. 78) for boys. Dietary restraint was defined by items such "on how many days out of the past 28 days have you been deliberately trying to limit the amount of food you eat to influence your weight or shape" (p. 78). Bulimic symptoms were defined by items such as "I stuff myself with food" (p. 78). The researchers referred to the participants as "participants… students… girls… boys… adolescents" (p. 75, 76). The participant's interactions with the media were framed within the scope of the conveyance of a thin-ideal by the media to which adolescents compare themselves which media literacy can reduce. (p. 75-76). The researchers do not refer to themselves except in the following disclaimer:

> The evaluation of *BodyThink* was conducted by SR and SP with no financial or other support from The Butterfly Foundation or Dove, with complete independence and no conflict of interest. JT and DW, who facilitated the program in classrooms, are both employees of The Butterfly Foundation.
>
> (p. 78)

Tobacco In the 2004 article "Media Literacy and Public Health: Integrating Theory, Research, and Practice for Tobacco Control" by Gonzales, Glik, Davoudi, and Ang state:

> media literacy practices include taking into account how the media influence youth and how youth can actively negotiate the meaning of message by questioning and challenging assumptions and assertions portrayed in media.
>
> (p. 190)

The study was conducted in an independent high school district in Los Angeles County, California. The intervention was administered to 10th-grade students during their health classes. Lessons lasted 45-minutes and were presented once a week for 8 consecutive weeks. A third of the curriculum focused upon tobacco use and social norms. The media literacy component comprised of "media analysis, media production, product presentation, and media advocacy" (Gonzales et. al., p. 192). The third component of the program "focused on peer influence and resistance skills" (Gonzales et. al., p. 192). The researchers measured "knowledge inventory, attitudinal scale, [and] behavioral scale" (p. 191). Knowledge inventory was defined by the items "perceived norms of tobacco use" and "a range of health consequences related to tobacco use" (p. 192). Attitudinal scale ranged from pro-tobacco attitudes versus anti-tobacco use. Behavioral scale was defined by the items "age of first tobacco use, overall lifetime use, past-30-

day use, reasons for initial use, tobacco brand preferences, [and] use of other tobacco products" (p. 192). The researchers referred to the participants as "youth… young people… adolescents… students… participant" (ps. 189, 190, 191, 192). The researchers framed the participants' interactions with media by explaining:

> Youth are unquestionably overexposed to media advertising and media depictions with substance use-related content… 15- to 24-year-olds are most susceptible to these [tobacco advertisements] influences, the mass media are potent ways to market tobacco, alcohol, and illicit substance to youth… Research shows that advertising plays a stronger role in adolescent smoking initiation than exposure to peer and family smoker or sociodemographic variables.
>
> (p. 189, 190)

The 2007 article "The Desirability Paradox in the Effects of Media Literacy Training" by Austin, Pinkleton, and Funabiki defines media literacy as "broadly in terms of a person's ability to access, analyze, evaluate, and communicate messages in a wide variety of terms (Aufderheide, 1993)" (p.484). The first lesson, in a series of 6, presents students with statistics on tobacco, discuss techniques used by advertisers, and watch and critically analyze commercials. The second lesson focuses upon myths perpetuated by the tobacco industry. The third lesson focuses upon counteradvertising and students create a counter-advertisement. In the fourth lesson participants learn about marketing tools, and how smoking is glamorized in movies. In the fifth lesson discusses anti tobacco efforts by youth all over the world. The sixth lesson encourages students to engage in greater anti-smoking activism. The six-lesson program, designed to be presented by teen presenters, each require about 45 minutes to teach. The study was conducted in Washington state. The setting of the intervention is never explicitly stated or explained,

however the article does discuss that teen presenters and adult coaches who administered the intervention travelled between schools in the state. The researchers measured desirability, realism, perceived similarity, perceived peer norms, identification, expectancies, efficacy, susceptibility to peer influence, and attitudes towards tobacco advertising. Desirability was defined as "the extent to which participants find smoking portrayals in the media enticing" (p. 16). Realism was defined as "perceptions of mediated tobacco portrayals as realistic or accurate in a general sense" (p. 16). Perceived similarity was defined as "how closely people in tobacco ads reflect various people in the participants' lives" (p. 16). Perceived peer norms was defined as "the extent to which study participants perceive that other adolescents engage in risky behaviors" (p. 17). Identification was defined as "the degree to which participants' want to emulate people in tobacco ads" (p. 17). Expectancies was defined as "participants' beliefs about the results of smoking" (p. 17). Efficacy was defined as "the desire of the American Legacy Foundation to increase adolescents' sense in their ability to counter tobacco advertising and related marketing efforts effectively" (p. 18). Susceptibility to peer influence was defined as "the likely effect friends who use tobacco products have on study participants" (p. 18). Attitudes towards tobacco advertising were represented by questions such as "some tobacco ads are cool" (p. 18). The researchers referred to participants as "adolescents… young people… children" (p. 483, 486). Participants interactions with media were framed in the following way: "Research suggests that individuals build resistance to specific persuasive message strategies as they become aware of marketers' strategies and tactics" (p. 484). The researchers referred to themselves as "investigators" and "researchers" (p. 483). The intervention was administered by "experimental education staff" and trained "teen presenters" (p. 489).

Smita C. Banerjee and Kathryn Greene's 2006 "Analysis Versus Production: Adolescent Cognitive and Attitudinal Response to Antismoking Interventions" defines media literacy as advocating for "an understanding of various kinds of mass media available in contemporary society, and identification of the functions of the media, and an engagement that allows students to critically and consciously examine media messages" p.774. The researchers divided 260 participants from the 6th, 7th, and 8th grades of "two northeastern U.S. schools" (p.778) into three groups: an analysis workshop, a production workshop, and a control group of no workshop. The first analysis workshop, in which both experimental groups participated, introduced students to the persuasive techniques of tobacco advertisements, and refutation strategies against those advertisements. The second analysis workshop, in which only the analysis experimental group participated, students further analyzed antismoking advertisements, and then compared them to smoking advertisements. The production workshop, in which only the production experimental group participated, participants created antismoking ads. The intervention took place once a week over a 4 week period, with each workshop taking 40 minutes. The researchers measured participants' attitude toward smoking, attention to workshop, workshop comprehension and recall, and workshop perceptions. Attitudes towards smoking was defined as "behavioral beliefs but not belief strength" and represented by items such as "I believe smoking is bad" (p. 778). Attention to workshop was defined by items such as "the workshop made me think" (p. 789). Workshop comprehension and recall was defined by items such as "which of the following activities did you do today?" and questions on the content of the workshop, which varied (p. 780). Workshop perceptions were defined by items such as "the messages in these workshops caught my attention" (p. 780). The researchers referred to the participants as "adolescents… participants.. junior high students… children…" (p. 773). The participants interactions with

media were framed as "consistent messages about cigarette smoking from different media channels may have an amplified effect on adolescent smoking… media literacy programs could be developed to inoculate adolescents against tobacco marketing strategies" (p. 774). The researchers refer to themselves as "we" (p. 789) in the article. The intervention workshop was presented by an individual referred to as "the speaker" (p. 778, 779), and later referred to as a "a researcher for conducting the workshops" (p. 782).

The 2007 article "Antismoking Initiatives: Effects of Analysis Versus Production Media Literacy Interventions on Smoking-Related Attitude, Norm, and Behavioral Intention" by Banerjee and Greene defines media literacy as an implied understanding of:

> both content and form of many different media (Geertz, 1983; Heath, 1983) … Consumers should be able to comprehend, analyze evaluate, and make reasoned choices about advertising jingles, public service videos and news reports (Quesada, Miller, & Armstrong, 2000) … media education allows students to critically examine media messages by describing 'what's going on' in detail (p. 38-39).

260 students, 156 of them female, were assigned to a control or experimental group by classroom to experimental group 1, 2, or control group. The control group did not participate in either workshop, experimental group 1 took part in a production workshop and an analysis workshop, experimental group 2 only took part in the analysis workshop. In the analysis workshop students analyze cigarette ads, in the production workshop had students created counter cigarette advertisements. The amount of time the intervention took to administer is not stated in the article, however the workshops did take place "during regular class time" (Banerjee & Greene, p. 40). The researchers measured students' behavioral intention to smoke, attitude toward smoking,

and subjective norms. Behavioral intention to smoke was defined by the items "how likely are you to smoke… how likely are you to smoke occasionally at parties… how likely are you to stay away from smoking" (p. 40). Attitude toward smoking was defined by items such as "I believe smoking is bad… I believe smoking occasionally at parties is bad… I believe staying away from smoking is good" (p. 41). Subjective norm was split into two components: normative beliefs of others, and motivation to comply. Normative beliefs of others were defined by items such as "my parent(s) think smoking is bad" (p. 41). Motivation to comply was defined by items such as "when it comes to cigarette smoking, I want to do what my parent(s) think I should do" (p. 41). The researchers refer to the participants as "young children… adolescents… students… participants" (p. 38, 40, 43). The researchers frame the participant's interactions with media in reference to the tobacco industry's advertisements: "many messages about health (specifically about smoking) are portrayed in the media… [and there are] misleading tactics of the tobacco industry"(p. 38, 39). The researchers do not refer to themselves or any individual administering the intervention. On page 41 there is reference to "the authors" when discussing a development of a measure.

"Evaluation of an American Legacy Foundation/Washington State Department of Health Media Literacy Pilot Study" the 2005 article by Austin, Pinkleton, and Hust states "scholars generally define media literacy broadly in terms of a person's ability to access, analyze, evaluate, and communicate messages in a wide variety of forms (Aufderheide, 1993)" (p. 78). The study sampled 119 students. The intervention consisted of an experimental education unit developed at the University of Washington, entitled *Teens, Tobacco, and Media*. The intervention contained six lessons, advertising techniques were discussed, students viewed commercials, and critically analyzed them, developed counter advertisements, and learned about anti-tobacco activism and

activities on the global and local levels. Each lesson ran around 45 minutes in length and the intervention was administered by teen student presenters during summer. The researchers measured knowledge, desirability, skepticism, efficacy, perceived peer norms, behavior, peer influence, peer discussion, similarity, identification, and perceived realism. Knowledge was defined as "basic knowledge of specific aspects of companies' marketing and manufacturing efforts concerning cigarettes" (p.81). Desirability was defined as "the extent to which smoking portrayals in the media included elements enticing to audience members" (p. 81). Skepticism was defined as "decision making regarding risky behavior" (p. 82). Efficacy was defined as "reflected adolescents' sense of their ability to counter tobacco advertising and related marketing efforts effectively" (p. 82). Perceived peer norms were defined as the perception that "other adolescents engage in risky behavior" (p. 82). Behavior was defined as "respondents' tobacco use" (p. 85). Peer influence was defined as the effect of "friends who use tobacco products" (p. 85). Peer discussion was defined as "how many times in the past week [respondents] had talked with friends about preventing tobacco use 'besides in this class'" (p.85). Similarity was defined as the perception that "people they see in the media, including in advertising, are similar to people they know, such as their friends and family members" (p. 85). Identification was defined as the "wish to emulate people they see in the media" (p. 86). Perceived realism was defined as perceptions of media portrays as "true to life" (p. 86). The researchers referred to the participants as "participants… students… young people" (p. 79, 80). When describing participants' interactions with media the researchers state "mass-mediated tobacco advertising consistently attracts criticism for luring adolescents to smoking" (p. 76). The researchers refer to themselves as "researchers" (p. 79). Teens, recruited from throughout Washington state, worked to create the media literacy curriculum under adult guidance (p. 80). Student presenters who

were trained by adults presented the curriculum. Student presenters were "paired together and also had an adult coach who helped them prepare and who traveled with them to presentations" (p.81).

Violence The 2008 article "Children and Terrorism-Related News: Training Parents in Coping and Media Literacy" by Comer, Furr, Beidas, Weiner, and Kendall do not define media literacy though they utilize a technique they call "coping and media literacy" as a study condition. The intervention took place in a 2-hour appointment at Temple University. The sample "consisted of 90 youth" ages 7-13, 43 of them girls, and their mothers. The child-mother dyad co-viewed a 12-minute video clip describing potential terrorist threats, the experimental group was given instructions on how to discuss the clip with their child, and the control group was told to act how they would at home. The researchers measured child state anxiety, maternal state anxiety, child threat perceptions, and maternal threat perceptions. Child state anxiety, and maternal state anxiety were defined by perception of tension and apprehension (p. 574). Child threat perception was defined by items such as is terror events definitely will not happen/definitely will happen (p. 575). Maternal threat perception was defined by how likeness, percentage-wise, of a future terror attacks, hurricane, flash flood, etc. (p. 575). The researchers refer to the participants as "mother… with children" (p. 568), "youth… modern youth… audience… American youth aged 8-14 years… average viewer… viewers… mother-child dyads… participants" (p. 568-574). The participants interactions with media were not mentioned explicitly but the work of Gerbner and others in Cultivation Theory were referenced stating: "heavy TV viewing cultivates distorted perceptions of the world as more dangerous and threatening than is actually is for the average viewer. Indeed, research shows news exposure is associated with perceptions of problematic crime, even after controlling for crime rates in

viewers' neighborhoods" (p. 569). The researchers refer to themselves in a number of ways including "study personnel… personnel… graduate student… undergraduate assistant… assistant" (p. 572, 573, 574).

The 2009 article "Media Literacy Interventions: What makes them Boom or Boomerang?" by Sahara Bryne does not define media literacy. Instead "media literacy interventions" is defined at length:

> Media Literacy interventions can influence children's interpretations of violent media as measured by a significant reduction in their aggressive thoughts and behavior (Huesmann, Eron, Klein, Brice, & Fischer, 1983; Nathanson, 2004; Nathanson & Cantor, 2000, Rapaczynski, Singer & Singer, 1982) ... The growing body of research on media literacy indicates that certain types of interventions are more effective than others (Potter & Byrne, 2007; Huesmann et al., 1983; Nathanson, 2004)... The term 'media literacy intervention' refers to an experimental treatment that introduces specific concepts to respondents with the aim of increasing awareness and promoting deeper understanding of the meaning contained in media messages. The goal is to provide people with the initial tools of media literacy. As people apply these concepts to media experiences, they will build the cognitive skills require to process media messages in a more active way (Potter, 2004). The most recent research is directed toward changing the human cognitions involved in processing media messages as a defense against the potential negative effects. Under the umbrella term of interventions, there are more formal media literacy 'programs' such as those that might run in a school

> curriculum, and less formal 'mediations' that include commentary from coviewers, such as parents.p. 1-2

156 participants, from grades 4 and 5 at 3 unnamed schools, were divided into three groups: basic, activity, and control condition. The "treatments" took place over a 10 week period in 4 total sessions from 20 minutes to 1 hour each (p. 7). The setting in which the treatments took place is not mentioned beyond "at school" (p. 12). In the basic condition PG rated violence movie clips were viewed and the children received a lesson on violence in the media and the real world, the effects of media violence, ways to avoid these effects and evaluating characters that use violence (p. 7). The activity condition was the same as the basic condition but the participants also wrote a paragraph about what they had learned, and then were videotaped reading it. In the control condition participants watched movie clips to learn about common jobs in movies, then wrote a short scene, and were videotaped reading it. The researcher measured knowledge of media, media effects, viewing habits, demographics, as as the primary dependent measure: willingness to use aggression" (p. 7). The measures were not defined. The researcher refer to the participants as "children… participants" (p. 1). The participants' interactions with media were described in the limited terms of being subject to "media induced aggressive behavior" (p. 1). The researcher referred to herself as the "current researcher" (p. 12) but there was no mention of who administered the treatment.

"Media Literacy as a Violence-Prevention Strategy: A Pilot Evaluation" the 2010 article by Webb, Martin, Afifi, and Kraus define media literacy as:

> a broad pedagogical discipline aimed at deconstructing (analyzing and assessing) the ubiquitous media constructions, (entertainment, news, advertisements, etc.), which have evolved into an integral part of life in the developed world today,

> media literacy has had as its goal to cultivate an audience capable of crucially viewing mass media (Thoman, 1995), Potter (1999) states that the primary purpose of media literacy education, also referred to as 'impact mediation,' 'inoculation,' or 'interventionism,' focuses on the issues and outcomes that affect physical and social well-being. As such, in addition to violence prevention, it has been employed in the areas of racial and sexual stereotyping, eating disorder, consumption behaviors, alcohol, drug and tobacco use.

The study states further:

> The core principles of media literacy include the idea that media messages are constructed and, importantly, construct our culture; that media employ identifiable techniques having to do with their own unique "language;" that media contain ideological messages and are embedded with values and points of view; and last that media messages can be deconstructed enabling viewers to gain a more critical understanding of its methods (Thoman, 2002; p 715).

The curriculum used was *Beyond Blame: Challenging Violence in the Media* created by The Center for Media Literacy. It is made up of eight lessons that run for approximately 45 to 50 minutes. The study took place in three middle schools in Los Angeles Unified School District. The interventions were administered during language arts, social studies, or health classroom setting. The researchers measured attitudes toward violence, attitudes toward media, engagement with media, exposure to violence perception of safety, and nonviolent behaviors (p. 716-717). Attitudes toward violence were defined by questions such as "In general, it is wrong to hit other people" (p. 716). Attitudes toward media were defined as media related behaviors (p. 717). Engagement with media was defined as exposure to violence and perceptions of safety (p.

717). Violent and nonviolent behaviors were defined by items such as "I helped someone stay out of a fight" (p. 717). The researchers refer to the participants as "students… males and females… classrooms… young people" (p. 714). The participants interactions with media are framed through the influence which TV, video games, and animated films depict violence when the researchers state "media literacy education seems to be one of the more hopeful solutions to the problem of media exposure to violence" (p. 714). The researchers refer to themselves as "researchers" (p. 717). The curriculum was delivered by six teachers who attended "a teacher-training seminar conducted by staff members at the Center for Media Literacy" (p. 717). These teachers were referred to as "intervention teachers" (p. 717).

"'I've Noticed More Violence:' The Effects of a Media Literacy Program on Critical Attitudes Toward Media Violence" a 2006 article by Scharrer states:

> media literacy is one way to encourage audiences young and old to actively question media practices, messages, and effects - about media violence as well as other topics - while also recognizing the potential for positive roles and relations with media (Cantro & Wilson, 2003; Hobbs, 2001) *Media Literacy* has been defined as the ability to use, analyze, access and evaluate media in a variety of forms (Aufderheide, 1997; p. 69-70).

The study samples 93 public school 6th-grade students compared to a control group of 34 fifth graders. The intervention consists five 1-hour visits wherein a small number of high-risk factors in the portrayal of television violence were analyzed and discussed with students. The five intervention sessions take place over a six-week period. The researchers measured pre existing comprehension of the concepts and critical thinking about ethical issues associated with the topic, development of the skill of critiquing or analyzing media content, and comprehension and

critical thinking about ethical issues. Development of the skill of critiquing or analyzing media content was defined by a number of "individual clause[s] in the response that represented a new idea" (p. 75). Comprehension and critical thinking about ethical issues was defined as the ability to learn "a definition of violence and were able to apply it to different contexts" (p. 76). The researcher refers to the participants as "public school 6th-grade students… students" (p. 69, 72). The participants' interactions with media were as an ethical issue: "the creation and distribution of various mass media messages that have the potential to negatively influence children has long been considered an ethical issue (Haefner, 1991)" (p. 69). The researcher states "media literacy is one way to encourage audiences young and old to actively question media practices, messages, and efforts - about media violence as well as other topics - while also recognizing the potential for positive roles of and relation with media (Cantor & Wilson, 2003; Hobbs, 2001)" (p. 69). The researcher refers to themselves as "me" (p. 73). The intervention was administered by "presenters" (p. 73), and "media literacy teachers" (p. 71). These presenters were undergraduate students. The presenters met with the researcher and another instructor on a weekly basis. Both the researcher and the other instructor observed the media literacy sessions.

Extension of literacy "Benefits and Costs of *Channel One* in a Middle School Setting and the Role of Media-Literacy Training," the 2006 article by Austin, Chen, Pinkleton, and Johnson define media literacy as referring to "students' ability to analyze and evaluate messages in television, magazines, newspapers, and other media sources" (p. 425). The study sampled 240 middle schools students from a school in Washington state that regularly showed *Channel One* in the classroom. The intervention was a posttest-only experiment that was administered in the classroom. 15 classrooms were divided into 3 groups. Group 1 watched *Channel One*, completed a pencil-paper questionnaire, and then received a media literacy lesson of about 40-45

minutes. Group 2 received an logic-oriented, information-based media-literacy lesson which was delivered with neutral emotionality, then completed a pencil-and-paper questionnaire. Group 3 followed the same procedure as group 2 but "included more emotion in the materials" presented (p. 426). The researchers measured evaluation of media-literacy lesson, desirability, perceived realism, similarity, identification, materialism, liking of ads, skepticism toward advertising, usefulness of *Channel One*, political efficacy, recall of news content, recall of advertising, and product purchases. The researchers stated evaluation of media-literacy lesson measured students' perceptions of the usefulness of the lesson and was defined by items such as "Today's lesson about the media will be useful for me...today's lesson about media literacy was interesting...today's lesson about the media has taught me things I did not know before…[and] today's lesson about media made me think" (p. 436). Desirability was defined as the degree to which adolescents find media portrayals attractive and represented by items such as "the reporters on *Channel One* seem like people I'd like to have as friends… [and] I like the way the reporters on *Channel One* looked" (p. 427). The researchers stated perceived realism reflected "the extent to which students believe that media portrayals are true to life and was measured as part of the message interpretation process that could predict learning and persuasion from the programming" and were measured by items such as "TV is a good source of information on how my people my age act… [and] media provide good examples of what real teenagers do" (p. 427). Similarity indicated the extent to which respondents believe they are similar to those individuals portrayed in the media and was defined by items such as "the teens I see on *Channel One* are a lot like me…the teens on *Channel One* like the things I like... [and] the teens I see on *Channel One* do things that I do" (p. 427). Identification demonstrated the extent to which participants admire people in the media and was measured by the 2 items: "When I watch commercials, I

want what is shown… [and] People who have a lot of money are happier than people who have only a little money" (p. 427). Materialism indicated the extent to which participants desire money or things and was represented by items such as "When I watch commercials, I want what is shown" (p. 427). Liking of ads was defined as "participants' positive feelings toward advertisers and their messages" and was represented by items such as "The commercials on *Channel One* are more interesting than the other commercials I see" (p. 427). The researchers referred to participants as "early-adolescent viewers… student… young adolescent.. students… group" (p. 423, 425, 425-426). The participants' interactions with media were framed as:

> message content affect what they [children] learn and the decisions that they make. For example, children and adolescents are more likely to internalize messages that seem realistic and desirable and that portray individuals who seem similar to themselves or who represent ideals to which they aspire. (p. 424).

The researchers refer to themselves as "scholars and researchers" on page 424.

The 2008 article "Holistic Media Education: An Assessment of the Effectiveness of a College Course in Media Literacy" by Duran et al. discusses several definitions of media literacy. The researchers cite the 1993 Aufderheide and 1998 Hobbs definition, the definition given on the website of the Alliance for a Media Literate America, as well as one by Sholle and Denski in 1995. But the researchers go on to state their definition, "in opposition to" these others, as:

> in addition to be being able to skillfully deconstruct media texts, the person who is truly media literate is also knowledgeable of the political economy of the media, the consequences of media consumption, and the activist and alternative

> media movements that seek to challenge mainstream media norms and create a more democratic system (p. 51).

This study samples 380 undergraduate students, 205 female, 2 of undeclared gender. The control group consisted of 45 students selected from an auxiliary group of participants. The intervention consisted of five educational objectives: understand basic media economics, understand media impact, deconstruct the content of various media, influence media institutions, and create alternative media content. The same researcher to two sections of students administered the intervention and due to a 12 topic breakdown of the learning objectives presumably was administered over the course of a college semester. The researchers measured participants using a knowledge of media structures, a media influence, and three open ended questions analyzing a television commercial: "What about the ad attracts or holds a viewer's attention?...What could have been included in this message but was not?... What values or points of view were represented in this message?" (p. 56). Knowledge of media structures was defined as "students' awareness of media structures and issues" and was broken down into 5 items: "media economic structure, media activism strategies, media advocacy groups, involvement in media activism, and media reform concerns" (p. 54-55). Media influence was defined as "students' perceptions of media influence" and was broken down into 5 items: " general attitudes, attitudes about violence, attitudes about sexuality, desire to purchase, and perceptions of world events" (p. 56). The categories for the first open-ended question were "production features, character features, story features, uncertainty/mystery, values/feelings/emotional tone, or other" (p. 56). The categories for the second open-ended question were "product information, disclaimer/truth, storyline, production/aesthetic features, sponsor information, and other." (p. 56). The categories for the third open-ended question were "concern for child, story features,

exaggerated claims of use, family values, materialism/critical analysis, image/values of the sponsor, health/nutrition, and other" (p. 56). The researchers refer to the participants as "college students… participants in the media environment… respondents… young adults… college-age students" (p. 49, 52, 53, 54). The researchers frame participants' interactions with media as:

> The Western world, in the first decade of the twenty-first century, is a world saturated with media images and sounds. Television, radio, films, newspapers, magazines, the Internet - life without these mediated forms of communication has become virtually unimaginable for many individuals in the world today. Members of technological societies are dependent on these systems for the fulfillment of a diverse range of needs and desires: information entertainment, socialization, education and identity formation. For most, mediated images are their primary connection to other cultures, places in the world, and lifestyles (Kellner, 2003).

Children are exposed to television soon after their birth, and it remains a staple of their cultural diet throughout their lives. Programs are now being produced that are specifically geared toward capturing the attention of infants (Shanahan & Morgan, 1999). The pervasiveness of mass media in our lives has resulted in an environment where the media have emerged as perhaps the most powerful of socializing institutions … Recognizing the central role that media play in our lives, scholars, educators, parents, public health officials, and activists are leading a movement toward media literacy that seeks to empower media audiences to take more active roles in their media use. p.49-50. The researchers refer to themselves in only two instances: when noting that "the coding

categories were constructed inductively by three of the authors" (p. 56), and "the same instructor taught both classes" (p. 59).

"Media Literacy and Video Technology: Educational and Motivational Tools to Empower African-American Males in Special Education" the 1997 doctoral thesis by Harts references several ways to define media literacy. Leveranz and Tyner in 1993 defined media literacy as "the ability to access, analyze, evaluate and produce communication in a variety of forms" (p. 52) and Hobbs, also in 1993, stated media literacy is a way to teach students how to deconstruct images they see, and it helps students look beyond the obvious and become aware and critical of how messages are constructed. The sample consisted of 92 students in middle and high school. 31 of the students were special education students and 61 regular educations. This included 22 African-American males, 1 Latino male, 5 African-American females, and 3 Latino females. Students learned how to use video technology and submitted portfolios, a collection of in-class work and homework assignments. Video projects were centered on a news broadcast theme. "Video instruction was given for seven 45 minute sessions" (p. 55). The researcher measured student's knowledge of videographic terminology and camera technique, which were not defined, and completed an assessment on technical proficiency, which were not defined. The researcher refers to the participants "students…African-American males… Latino male… African-American females… Latino females… groups… participants " (p. abstract, 52, 104). Participant's interactions with media were framed specifically for the portrayals of African-Americans and how this affects African-American adolescent viewers, as such the author states:

> African-American males are often the victims of negative media images. They are depicted as funny, dumb and lazy; they are depicted as criminals, unemployed and deadbeat fathers (Fuller, 1992)... African-American males must become aware of

> these images and analyze the messages that they convey. This way they will become critical thinkers who are able to look beyond these images and decipher the messages which are most often stereotypical, hurtful and untrue. This is particularly important for African-American male students because research has shown that children often believe character portrayals on television are real (Adkins, Greenberg & McDermott, 1983). The researchers concluded that when stereotypical caricatures are portrayed, Caucasian children who have direct contact with people o f color are less likely to believe the portrayals (p. 5-6).

The researcher refers to herself as "this researcher" (p. 6) or "the researcher" (p. 30).

"Measuring the acquisition of media-literacy skills" the 2003 article by Hobbs and Frost states "media literacy, defined generally as 'the ability to access, analyze, evaluate and communicate messages in a wide variety of forms' (Aufderheide & Firestone, 1993)" (p. 334). The study sampled Concord High School's 1999 11th grade students. The intervention was a yearlong "English media/communication course that incorporated extensive critical media analysis of print, audio, and visual texts" (p. 331). The intervention took place over a year and was administered as an English class. The researchers measured participant's reading comprehension, listening comprehension, viewing comprehension, writing skills, analysis: identification of construction techniques, analysis: identification of point of view, analysis: identification of omissions, analysis: comparison-contrast, analysis: identification of purpose and target audience, and reliability and validity. Reading comprehension was defined as a student's ability to "identify the main idea of a reading passage (Moore & Cunningham, 1986), skillful readers are able to distinguish between textually and contextually important information. Skillful readers recognize features of an informational text's structure to differentiate between

more important and less important ideas (Vacca & Vacca, 1999)" (p. 342). Listening comprehension was defined by the items "'put the main idea of this broadcast into sentences' and identify the 'who, what, where, when, why, and how' structure to explain the story.' A second question asked students to 'describe the most memorable specific detail' provided in the broadcast" (p. 342). Viewing comprehension was defined by "two open-ended questions designed to measure viewing comprehension used language identical to the reading and listening comprehension measures described earlier" (p. 342). Writing Skills was not explicitly defined. Analysis: identification of construction techniques was defined as "the ability to recognize and describe the constructedness of media messages" (p. 342). Analysis: identification of point of view was defined as recognizing "specific identification of points of view" (p. 342). Analysis: identification of omissions was defined as "recognizing omissions… [and a] dimension of strategic, higher order comprehension, because in identifying omitted information students must be able to generate new ideas connected to the topic" (p. 343). Analysis: comparison-contrast was defined as "a fundamental strategy to promote critical thinking" (p. 343). Analysis: identification of purpose and target audience was defined as identifying "the purpose of the article or audio or video segment by checking all that apply of the following: to inform, to entertain, to persuade, for self-expression, to make money, to teach." and identifying "'Who was the target audience for this message?'" (p. 343). Reliability and validity were not defined, as they are common jargon. The researchers referred to the participants as "students" (p. 330). The researchers framed the participants' interactions with media by explaining how media literacy is a necessary expansion of literacy that often goes ignored in the classroom:

> Support for expanding the concept of literacy is articulated by those interested in making classrooms sites for authentic learning in student-centered environments

> (Luke, 1997; Masterman, 1985) as well as those who see the value of recognizing reading and writing as practices that are socially and culturally constructed (Alvermann & Haygood, 2000; Buckingham, 1998; Nixon & Comber, 2001). Scholars who situate literacy within the contexts of culture and child development to include artifacts of popular culture. These scholars identify a range of potential outcomes, such as the following: (a) to increase learning by making the practices of literacy relevant to students' home cultures and ways of knowing (Bagzalegette, Bevort, & Savino, 1992; Ellsworth, 1997); (b) to accommodate diverse learning styles and meet the needs of multicultural learners (Cortes, 2000; Semali, 2000; Tobin, 2000); and (c) to develop creativity, self-expression, teamwork, and workplace skills (Brunner & TAlly, 1999; Considine & Haley, 1999; Masterman, 1985) … While visual and electronic messages are now central aspects of contemporary culture, they are still often ignored or treated superficially in the classroom.(p. 331-333)

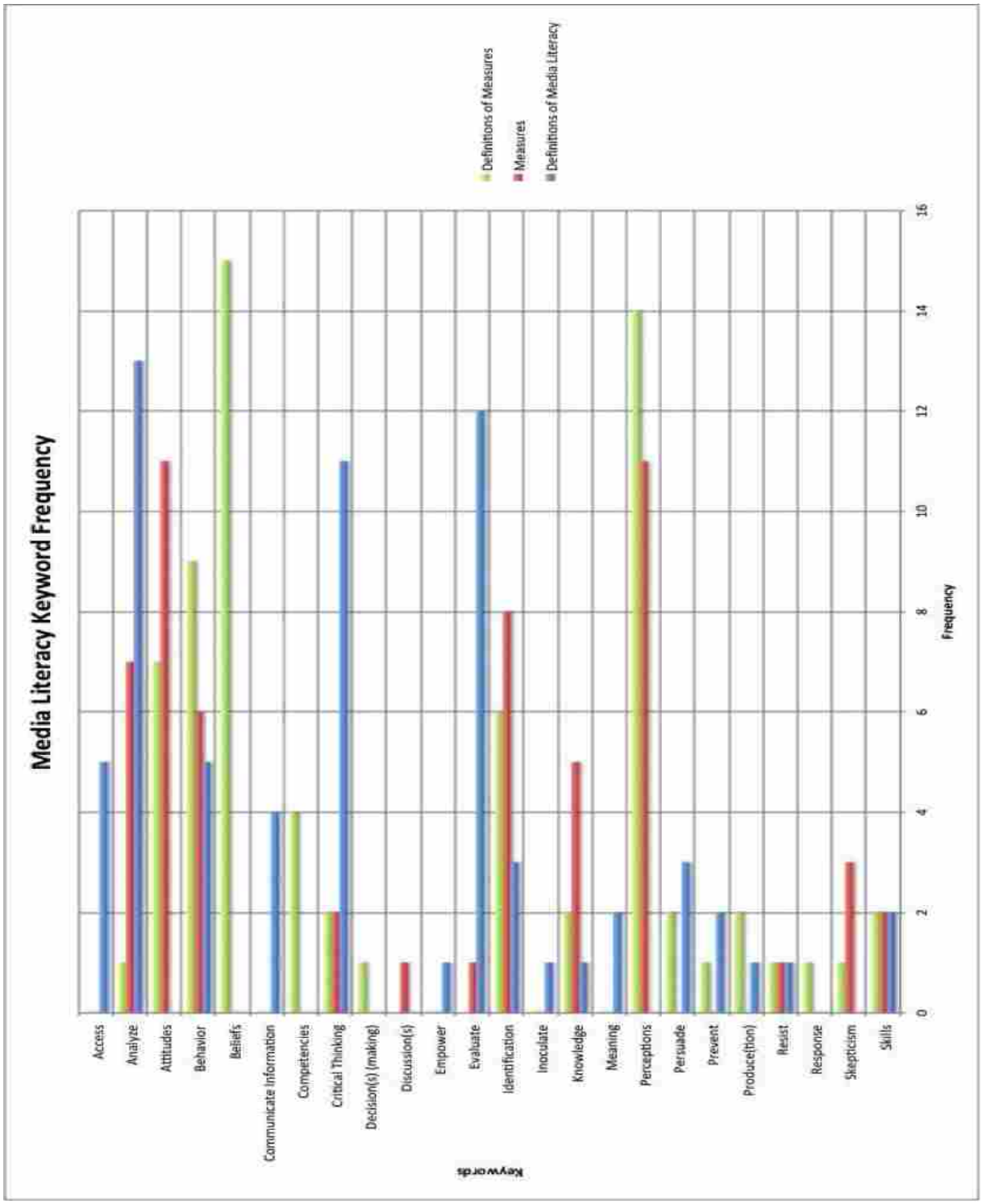
The media literacy "initiative was developed by a team of English teachers" (p. 335). The teachers who implemented the initiative were referred to as "faculty… teachers" (p.335, 338) and these teachers are discussed in the article, their backgrounds, media experience, comfort level with the new curriculum, etc. Three of the teachers from the grade 11 team that implemented the initiative attended a "1998 conference at Clark University in Worcester, Massachusetts, entitled Teaching the Humanities in a Media Age" (p. 336). A female experimenter introduced the study itself to the classrooms (p. 341).

Consumerism The 2006 article, "Benefits and Costs of *Channel One* in a Middle School Setting and the Role of Media-Literacy Training" by Austin, Chen, Pinkleton, & Johnson, defines media literacy as referring to "students' ability to analyze and evaluate messages in television, magazines, newspapers, and other media sources" (p. 425). The research conducted surveyed 240 middle school students in 15 classes that were divided into three groups: one control group, and two experimental groups. In the intervention curriculum presenters gave a definition of media literacy, discussed the lesson's goals, had participants fill out a questionnaire about their media diets and compared that to national averages, discussed why media messages are created, and "the 5 core concepts of media literacy" developed by the Center for Media Literacy (p. 425). Each research intervention session lasted approximately 40 to 45 minutes. The researchers measured the desirability of media portrayals, the perceived realism of media portrayals, identification with characters portrayed in the media, materialism, liking of ads, usefulness of *Channel One*, political efficacy, recall of news content, recall of advertising, and students' product purchases. Desirability was defined as the "degree to which adolescents find media portrayals attractive" and was represented by items such as "the reporters on *Channel One* seem like people I'd like to have as friends" (p. 427). Perceived realism was defined as reflecting "the extent to which students believe that media portrayals are true to life" and was represented by items such as "TV is a good source of information on what is interesting to people my age" (p. 427). Similarity was defined as believing the "people portrayed in the media are similar to people whom [respondents] know" and was represented by such items as "the teens I see on *Channel One* are a lot like me" (p. 427). Materialism was defined as admiring "people who are portrayed in the media" and was represented by items such as "When I watch commercials, I want what is shown" (p. 427). Liking of ads was defined as "positive feelings

toward advertisers and their messages" and was represented by items such as "the commercials on *Channel One* are more interesting than other commercials I see" (p. 427-428). Usefulness of *Channel One* was represented by items such as "I feel I am better informed about current events as a result of watching *Channel One*" (p.428). Political efficacy was defined as "respondents' confidence in their ability to participate effectively in public affairs" and was represented by items such as "I believe voting is an effective way to influence what our government does" (p.428). Recall of news content was defined as "retention of program content" (p. 428). Recall of advertising was defined as "retention of advertising content" (p. 428). Students' product purchases was a list of products recently advertised on *Channel One* (p. 428). The researchers refer to the participants as "early-adolescent viewers… student… young adolescent… students… group" (p. 423, 425-426). The researchers framed the media as acting upon the participants, influencing them and their decisions (p. 424). The researchers refer to themselves as "scholars and researchers" (p.424).

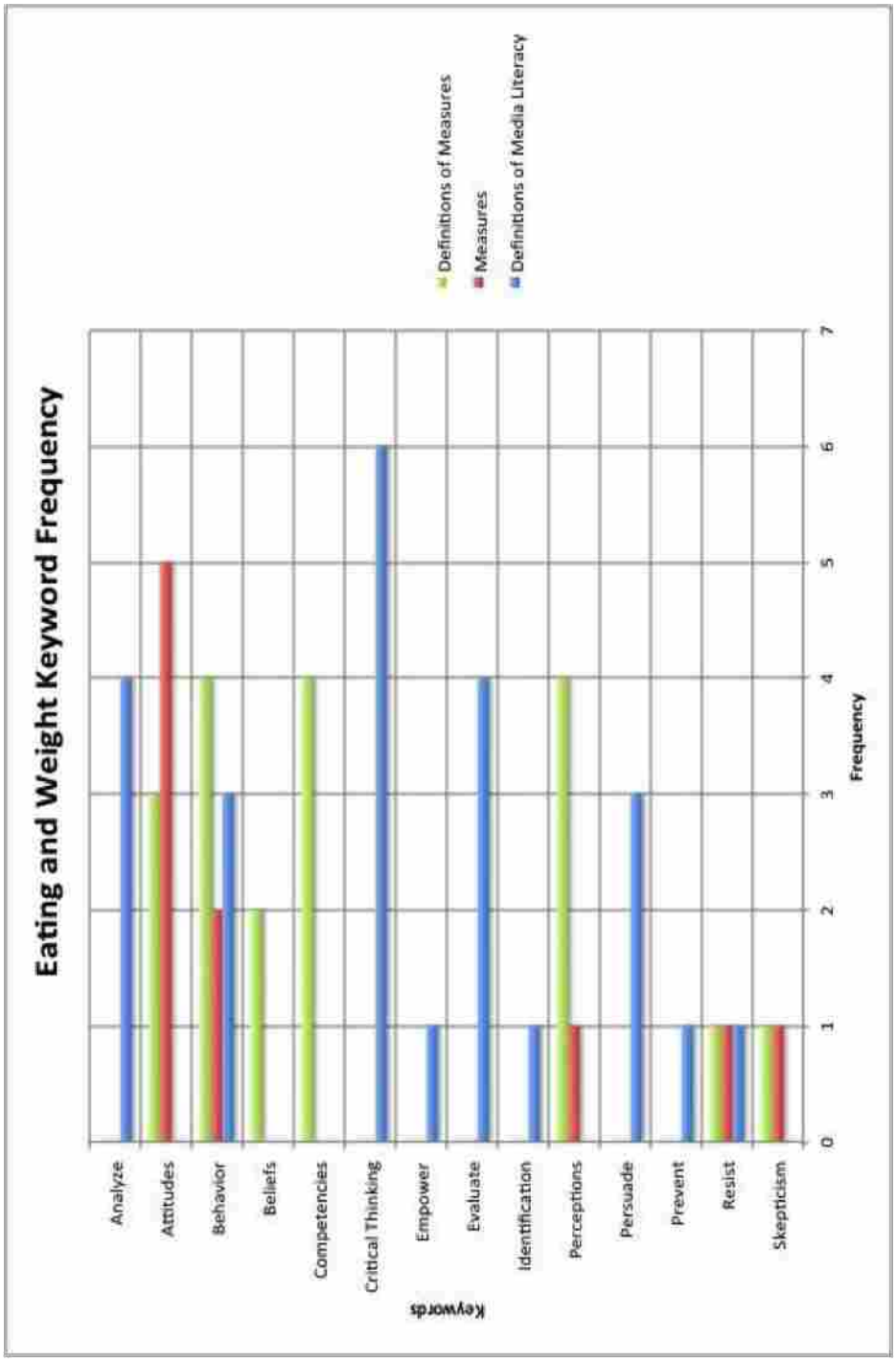
APPENDIX F

MEDIA LITERACY KEYWORD FREQUENCY BAR GRAPH



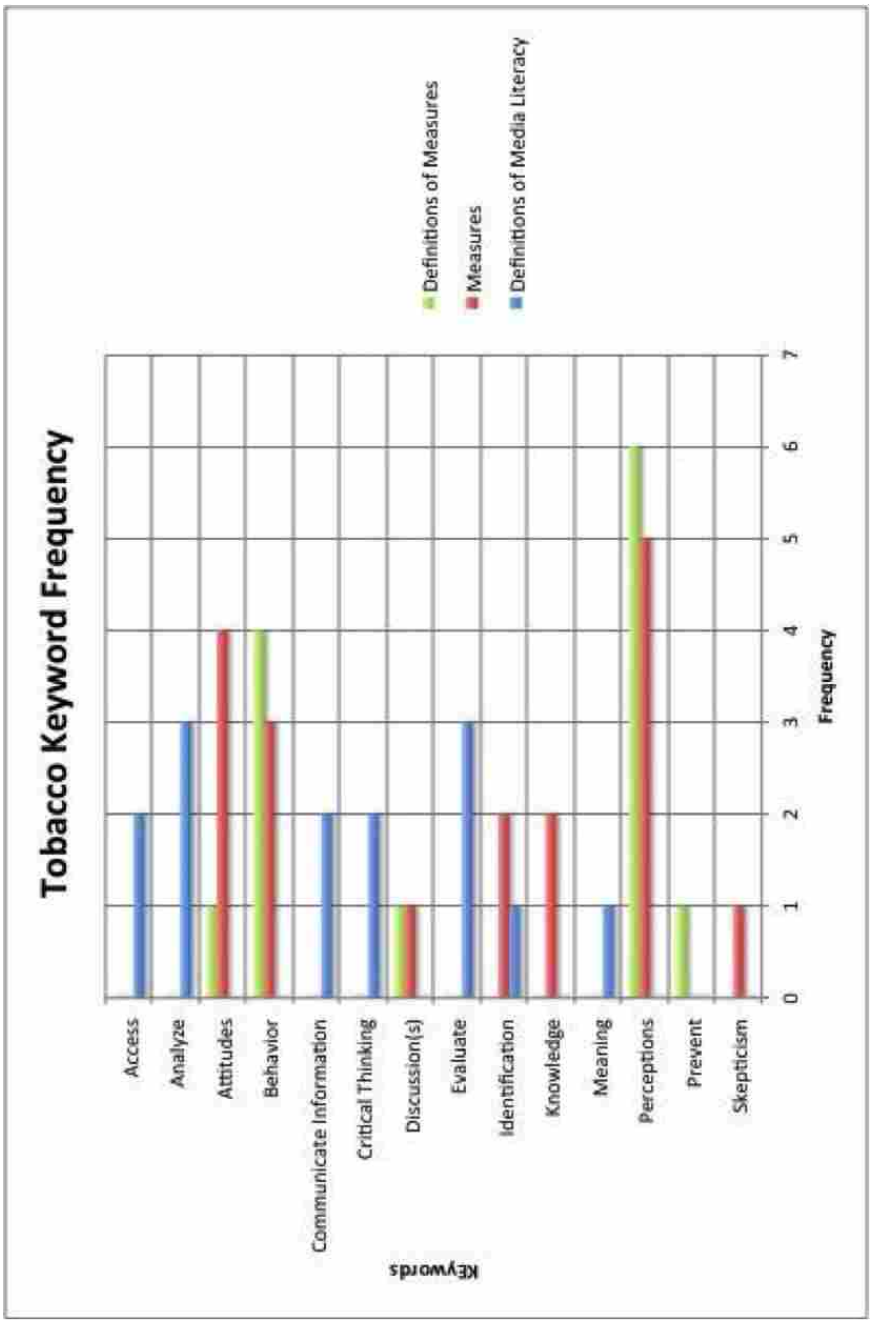
APPENDIX G

EATING AND WEIGHT KEYWORD FREQUENCY BAR GRAPH



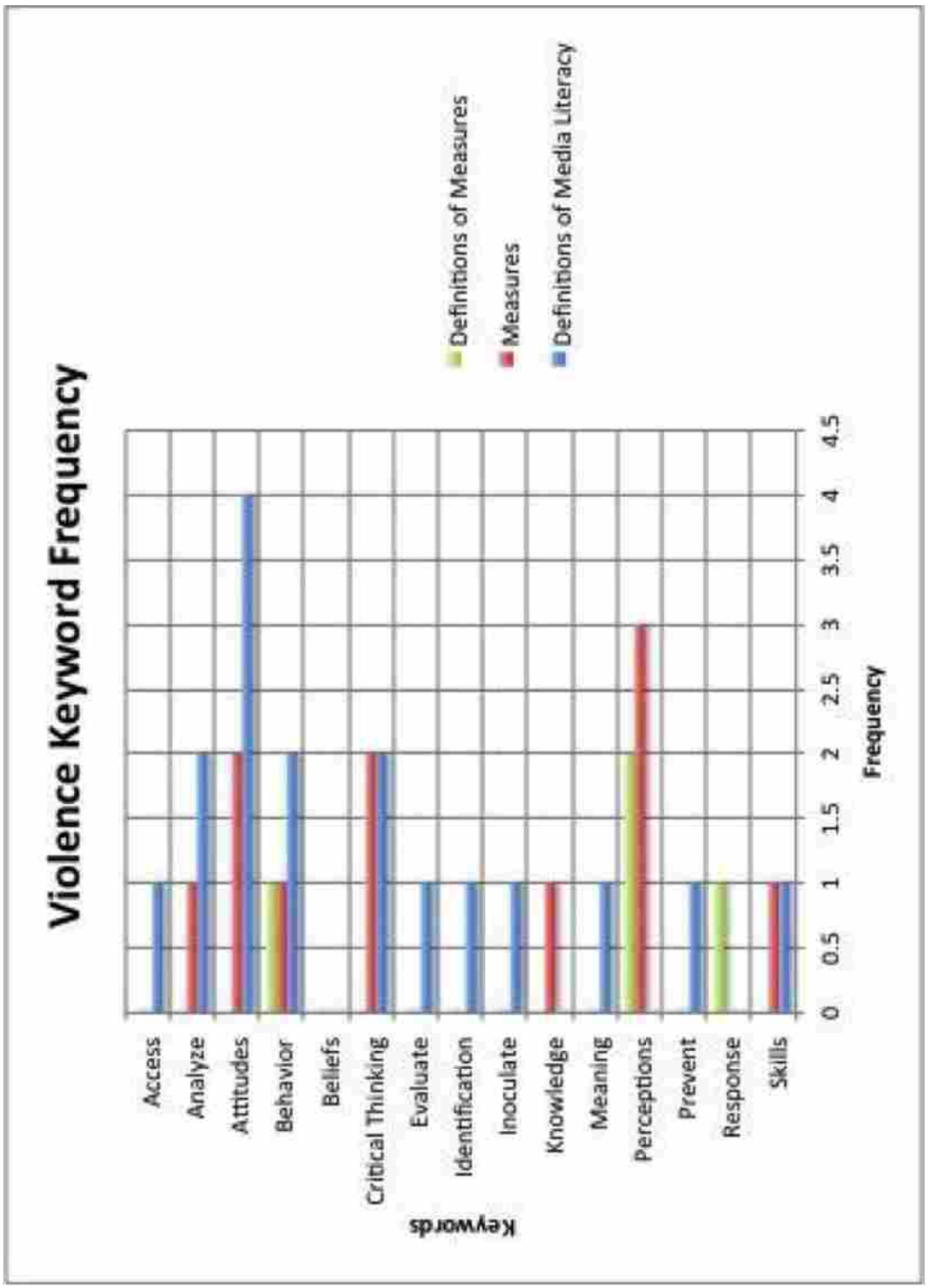
APPENDIX H

TOBBACO KEYWORD FREQUENCY



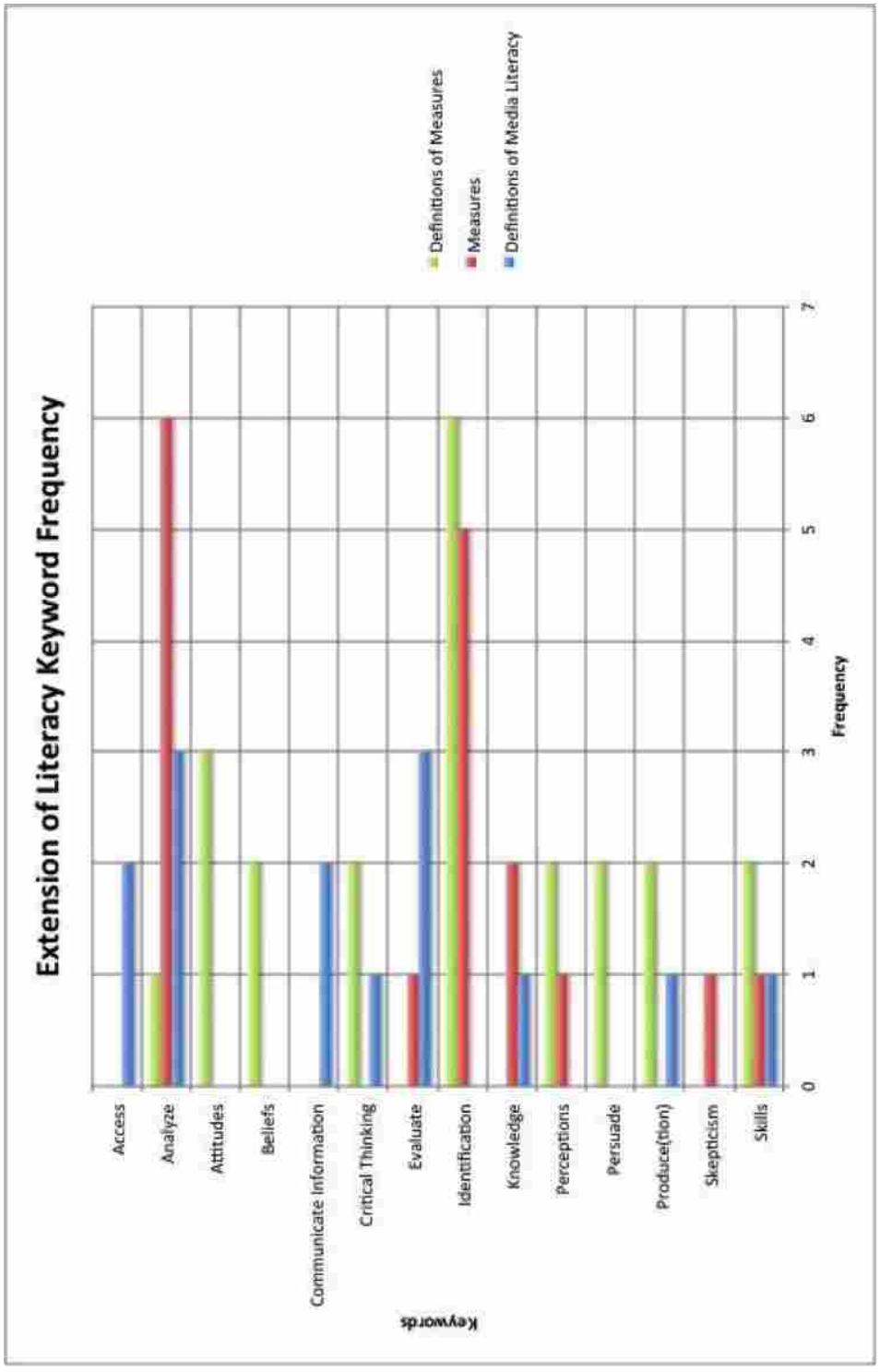
APPENDIX I

VIOLENCE KEYWORD FREQUENCY BAR GRAPH



APPENDIX J

EXTENSION OF LITERACY KEYWORD FREQUENCY BAR GRAPH



APPENDIX K

CONSUMERISM KEYWORD FREQUENCY BAR GRAPH