Measuring Media Literacy: Youngsters, Television, and Democracy

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Chapter 1. Introduction

The discussion about whether or not the media directly affect people remains as equivocal as it was fifty years ago, with media critics arguing that the media indeed cause certain behaviors, and their opponents proclaiming that people are smarter than that. Regardless of which side one supports, one cannot deny that the media are omnipresent in people's day to day existence. Over the years, studies have shown that people are not only avid media users, but that the media have become intricately entwined in people's daily lives. It is this overwhelming presence that has led the proponents of media literacy to argue that just as people need to learn how to read the alphabet, they should also learn how to read the media. In short, a media literate audience is a necessity. This introduction will further delve into the role played by the media, and outline why media literacy is deemed a prerequisite in contemporary society. Next, it will describe existing research into media literacy, and present the aim of this study, as well as its specific focus. Finally, I will present the outline of the remainder of this dissertation.

1.1 The presence of the media

Although the media play a role in many different facets of people's lives, their presence boils down to two levels: individual and societal.

On an individual level, the media are undeniably important. First of all, research has shown that people spend a large amount of time using the media; people are bombarded with thousands of mediated messages every day, and children grow up in a world saturated with media messages (Dorr, Browne Graves, & Phelps, 1980). A recent American survey showed that people spend an average of 11.7 hours a day dealing with the media (Papper, Holmes, & Popovich, 2004), and a survey carried out in the U.S. on behalf of the Kaiser Family Foundation found that children between the ages of 8 and 18 spent 6 hours and 32 minutes each day using the media (Roberts, Foehr, Rideout, & Brodie, 1999). In Europe, people spend an equivalent amount of time with the media. Huysmans, de Haan, and van den Broek (2004) discovered that people in the UK, the Netherlands, France, Germany, and Italy spend between five and six hours per day watching television, reading the newspaper, and/or listening to the radio.

Second, people are likely to obtain most, if not all, of their knowledge about aspects of the world not directly accessible to them from the media (Alvardo & Boyd-Barrett, 1992), a notion which leads to the assumption that the media have the power to socialize people, i.e., to shape people's ideas about and opinions on subjects with which they have had no direct experience (Tuchman, 1978). Additionally, research has discovered that the portrayal of people, events, and situations in the media is usually far from unbiased and objective (Entman, 1989). Hence, one can conclude that the media are capable of leaving people with an image of (a part of) reality which is biased and, at times, incorrect (Brookfield, 1986).

Third, the media serve various functions in people's lives, for not only do they provide people with information and entertainment, but they also aid in the creation of

people's personal identity. According to Winnick (1988), the media function as a user's friend, clock and minister by providing punctuation and the opportunity for para-social interaction. Additionally, the media and particularly television serve at least two cultural functions. First, the media teach people about their own culture, as well as others, through the stories they tell. In oral cultures, the values, norms, laws and history are passed on by the recounting of society's myths and stories. In contemporary Western societies, television has been described as the reviver of this tribal transmission of myths and stories, as it reinforces norms and values through the messages it presents (Brown, 1998; Fiske & Hartley, 1978; Gerbner, Gross, Jackson-Beeck, Jeffries-Fox, & Signorielli 1978; McLeod, 2000). Hence television can be described as an important socializing agent, on a par with traditional socializing agents such as the family and church. Second, television has an additional cultural function as a bard; i.e., it contributes to the maintenance of one's cultural identity by making media users feel that their way of seeing and structuring reality really does work, and that other people share this reality with them (Fiske & Hartley, 1978; Berry, 1988).

On a societal level, the media also play an important role, for there appears to be an organic link between communication and democracy. Keane (1991), who described this link in great detail, explained that direct democracy is only possible in small states, whereas in modern, larger states, a democracy requires mechanisms that help connect people and their representatives; i.e., the mass media. Taking the increasing pervasiveness of the media into account, Keane concluded that the public sphere, defined by Habermas (1989) as the forum of public discussion, has moved into the domain of the media. As a result, it is often argued that the media play a substantial role in shaping most democratic processes (Potter, 1998; Silverblatt, 1995). This raises the question what the consequences of this development will be for the quality of democracy. Entman (1989), who examined the relationship between communication and democracy, noted that the latter is definitely affected by the power and performance of the media. How the media affect democracy will be explained in the following paragraphs.

A "true" democracy has two basic requirements. As Bagdikian (1985) pointed out, in order to maintain a democracy, the media must, first, sustain a plurality of voices where both the majority and the minority can be heard. He added that in a modern, dynamic and rapidly changing society, a lack of diversity in the media leaves people partially blinded and thus unable to fulfill their role as participating citizens. Additionally, a lack of such diversity could lead to a population becoming apathetic and disinterested which could in turn weaken the democracy. The second prerequisite for a well-functioning democracy is a competent citizenry which has access to and is fed by information relevant to issues on the political agenda (Brants & Neijens, 1998: p.149; Hobbs, 1998b).

Recent developments in the media suggest that the diversity in the content offered by media institutions is threatened by the commercialization of the mass communication industries. Although advocates of market sovereignty claim that economic competition between different newspapers, television or radio stations will meet the needs of the audience, Entman (1989) has argued that the increasing importance of financial gains within the media has led to less diversity in media content. First, the budget available

for the production of news has, in the case of a large number of television stations, been decreased, since audiences are known to prefer entertainment. This is an important development since, in terms of democracy, news programs are of vital importance for they are one of the sources of information that people use when reflecting on, and making decisions about the future of their society (Robinson & Levy, 1986, 1996). Since this focus on financial gains means that news producers will try and cut back expenses, it also means that journalists are more likely to spend as little money as possible on finding information. In practice this implies that reporters have come to rely more and more on the political elite for most of their information, which has resulted in the news being more one-sided and superficial than when reporters relied on more than just one source (Entman, 1989). Secondly, Keane (1991) suggested that the profit-oriented attitude of most media institutions works against the opinions of minorities and promotes those of the majority. This development appears to be caused by the fact that program content is adapted to the lowest common denominator in order to attract the largest possible audience. Keane (1991), like Bagdikian (1985), noted that the increasing importance of media advertising actually appears to restrict the listening, reading and viewing choices of many media users as well as the quality of media content.

The suggested decline in the quality of the information provided by the media, as described above, suggests that citizens need to be more than merely engaged in order to uphold a democracy. Citizens can only obtain a more or less complete picture of societal developments, if they know how to access and select a wide variety of sources of news, and are able to critically evaluate media content.

1.2 The need for media literacy

The media thus play a large role in both people's personal lives, as well as in maintaining democracy. In order not to be caught unaware, people therefore need to know about this large role; i.e., they need to be media literate. The need for media literacy is further increased by the fact that the media do not always supply perfectly unbiased, complete, and correct information.

If people want to actively shape the role the media play in their lives, they need to, first of all, be aware of the socializing potential and other possible influences of the media. Various authors have pointed out that this awareness could help reduce the influence of the media on people's lives (e.g., Irving & Berel, 2001; Potter, 2004a). Furthermore, if one wishes to sustain a well-running democracy, media users need to be able to assess the value of the information presented to them, i.e., they must be media literate (Hobbs, 2005). As Brookfield (1987) claims: "In a democratic society in which television is the single most important source of information […] the possession of some degree of media literacy by citizens is an unavoidable necessity for any kind of effective participation" (p.192). Media literacy enables citizens to evaluate the abundance of information they receive (Covington, 2004). Moreover, unless people learn how to read, interpret, analyze and understand the day's events, there is the risk of raising a generation of uncritical consumers vulnerable to all kinds of manipulation and misleading information (Dennis, 2004).

1.3 Existing research into media literacy

Concern about the large role that the media play in people's lives, as underlined by the previous paragraphs, is nothing new. Since the mid-1960s, large numbers of scholars have concerned themselves with media literacy; they have written about what people need to know in order to be considered media literate (see chapter 2 for a more complete literature overview), and they have spent time and effort developing programs which could help media users become more critical (e.g., Brown, 1991; Court & Criticos, 1998; Criticos, 1997; Dorr, Browne Graves & Phelps, 1980; Greenaway, 1997; Hall & Whannel, 1964; Hobbs, 1998b, 1998c; Hobbs & Frost, 2003; Murdock & Phelps, 1973). The amount of research conducted by these researchers is impressive. However, even though researchers such as Kline (2005) and Mansess (2004) actually claim that children are media savvy and are capable of using the media in a critical manner, the fact is that these claims are based on assumptions, while very little is factually known about how media literate people are, as testified by Buckingham, Hey, and Moss (1992). Most empirical media literacy research is concerned with testing the effectiveness of various media literacy programs (cf. Gonzales, Glik, Davoudi, & Ang, 2004; Hobbs & Frost, 2003; Vooijs & Van der Voort, 1989, 1990) and little research has been concerned with measuring the so-called entry condition; i.e., the level of media literacy that pupils possess before entering a media education project (Alvardo & Boyd-Barrett, 1992; Bouwman, 1989; Duncan, 1996; Fuenzalida, 1992; Hobbs, 1998b; Piette & Giroux, 1997).

As early as 1989, two Dutch researchers suggested that the development of an instrument to measure the level of media literacy of the general population would be very useful (Vooijs & Van der Voort, 1989), and in 1992 Hart noted that effective learning in media education depends, among other things, on knowing about students' current state of knowledge and understanding regarding the media. After all, it is highly unlikely that media literacy education is effective without first finding out what students already know about the media (Maness, 2004), a notion previously brought up by Brown (1991) who suggested that a media program should be evaluated for its effectiveness with subjects through time. Scharrer (2003) added that in order to move towards an increasing implementation of media education programs, one needs to create national standards regarding media literacy assessment (see also Christ & Potter, 1998; Potter, 2004a). Thus, the aim of this study is to develop a standardized instrument to measure the level of media literacy of media users.

1.4 Benefits of an instrument to measure media literacy

Constructing a media literacy measurement instrument could be advantageous because of several reasons. First, the results obtained with this measurement instrument could provide information about the extent and type of media-related knowledge and understanding people have, which determines whether or not they are able to adopt a critical attitude towards the media. It could supply answers to questions such as: what do consumers know about the media, are they aware of their possible impact, and how do they use the media themselves? In the future, the amount of information directed at

media users will only increase, while this does not necessarily mean that this information will be complete and unbiased. Hence, knowledge about the extent to which people are capable of critically approaching the media will only become more important, because it can provide insight into what people do with the information they gather through the media, how seriously they take it, to what extent they let this information influence their lives, and whether or not media education is needed to aid people in dealing with the media.

Secondly, the information received from this measurement instrument could render future media education projects more effective, because these projects can be adapted more adequately to students' abilities. Van der Voort and Vooijs (1989) noted that the problem with most media education projects is that because of the lack of information on the entry behavior and/or knowledge of the participants, they are not based on what students already know about the media, but instead on what researchers feel media consumers should know about the media. This point was echoed by Aufderheide (1998), who alleged that although many teachers believe their media education programs are effective, there is no evidence to prove this claim. Furthermore, Buckingham's (1998) account of the history of media education in the UK demonstrated that the emphasis of the various media education projects is usually based on the dominant theoretical paradigm in the social sciences, thus changing with the birth of each new school of thought. For instance, many recent media education projects have started to focus on teaching adolescents and young adults about the association between media use and body images and other health-related issues (Hobbs, Broder, Pope & Rowe, 2006; Wilksch, Tiggeman, & Wade, 2006). Thus media education goals and the focus of media literacy change quickly, yet without having been adapted to what students do or do not know. This in turn could mean that the aims set by media education may not be realistic or appropriate. A measurement instrument aimed at measuring media literacy could be used to assess the level of media literacy of the students before the start of any media education project, which implies that the program could then be adapted to the students' abilities, thus becoming more effective.

1.5 Investigating media literacy levels: Previous research

Three studies have so far looked into the possibility of measuring children's levels of media literacy. First, McMahon (2003) describes an instrument meant to monitor students' progress regarding the development of a "critical framework for engaging with the media" (p. 8). This framework addresses students' understanding of the text, the context, and the reader. The different levels of understanding of each of these aspects is outlined in detail, and includes a description of what students need to be able to do to achieve each level of media literacy. It is then up to the educators to classify their students. Although this proposal for a media literacy scale provides a very detailed description of what media literacy entails, it is especially suited for a constant monitoring of the same group of students over a longer period of time by the same person. Its qualitative design is such that it would be very difficult for different people to assess the same group of students, mainly because everyone would interpret the

criteria differently. Furthermore, McMahon does not specify how one should assess when students have met the criteria of the different levels. One assumes that this is left to the discretion of the educator, which again implies that if this same scale is applied by different teachers, the outcomes could be different. Additionally, because of the detailed nature of the criteria, McMahon's instrument is not really suited for a teacher or researcher who wants a quick impression of how media literate a group of students are. Conversely, the purpose of the study presented in this dissertation is to design a measurement instrument that could be applied at any time, by any one person, and which will immediately provide insight into how students compare on their knowledge about certain aspects of the media and their use.

Secondly, Buckingham (1993) used a qualitative technique to establish the extent to which and the manner in which children between the ages of 7 and 12 understood and interpreted television content. Buckingham carried out open interviews with small groups of children on topics such as genres, narrative, television characters, level of reality, and enjoyment.

The third study was conducted in Australia (Quin & McMahon, 1993) among 15-year old students. The students were asked to analyze three print advertisements, as well as an introductory segment of a television comedy. The analysis included both closed and open questions which assessed students' understanding of the media codes and conventions, narrative, production and circulation of media texts, audiences, and values of the producers.

Although these last two studies do provide some insight into how media literate students already are, they have several shortcomings. First, both studies rely (in part) on qualitative measurement. This implies that it would be inefficient and difficult to replicate this kind of measurement among large groups of people. The advantage of the standardized measurement instrument developed in this study is that it is easy to replicate and use and can be administered to large groups of people at different times. Second, neither study tested the reliability and validity of their measures. This study aims to overcome this by extensively assessing both the reliability and validity of the instrument. Third, the two studies are very similar to other media literacy investigations in that they appear to spend little effort on explaining their views on media literacy. In a number of studies, the definition of media literacy is only briefly outlined before the researchers move on to the description of the study (e.g., Anderson & Ploghoft, 1980; Hobbs & Frost, 1999; Scheibe, 2004). Little attention is paid to why media literacy is defined the way it is, and what each aspect specifically entails. In many cases, researchers use different definitions. As a result of this lack of unanimity about how to define media literacy there is no clear idea of what it is that people need to know in order to be considered media literate. Consequently, it has been very difficult to create a common body of knowledge from which media literacy research can more forward and explore new areas of media literacy research. Conversely, this study will construct a clear and detailed definition of media literacy by summarizing existing notions of media literacy into one overarching concept of media literacy.

1.6 Focus of the study

As evidenced by the literature overview presented in chapter 2, media literacy is a rich, vast, and multi-facetted concept; it can concern every medium, genre, and topic covered by the media. Measuring this concept in its entirety is simply not possible. Hence in order to successfully develop a measurement instrument, it is necessary to make several decisions regarding the focus of this study.

As described above, there are two good reasons why the general population needs to be critical of the media; namely the size of the role the media play on an individual and on a societal level. Either reason would require a very different focus of the measurement instrument. When one approaches media literacy from the perspective that the media act as socializing agents who teach people not only about the dominant norms, values, rules, and expectations in their society, but also about parts of the world they have never seen, an instrument to measure media literacy would need to look at both fiction and non-fiction programs, the messages disseminated by these programs, to what extent people pick up on these messages, and whether they are aware of the large role that the media play in informing them about the world. On the other hand, when media literacy is seen as instrumental in promoting a democratic society, an instrument to measure media literacy would need to focus more on non-fiction programs, what they teach people about current events, political developments, and so on, and to what extent people realize that the media shape their perception of the world. Although these two perspectives are definitely not exclusive, a decision regarding the focus of the measurement instrument needed to be made since measuring media literacy from both perspectives in one measurement instrument would have rendered the instrument far too long for practical implementation. Hence the decision was made to approach media literacy from the perspective that the media play a vital role in maintaining democracy.

Additionally, the decision was made to focus on television. This decision was based on two reasons. First, because it is presently the most pervasive medium of all; i.e., of all the time spent with the media, people, in Western societies, spend between three and four hours per day with television (Papper, Holmes, & Popovich, 2004). Second, many people perceive television as a reliable and accurate source of information about reality (Glasser, 1998; Claussen, 2004). These two facts combined suggest that of all the media, television is probably most capable of influencing its users in some way relevant with respect to democracy.

In light of the focus on media's role in democracy, the decision was made to focus on non-fiction programs. Non-fiction programs such as the news, documentaries and talk shows are instrumental in informing people about the world in general. When people need to form opinions about issues concerning society and their government, they will be more likely to rely on non-fiction programs, as opposed to fiction. Moreover, because non-fiction is presented as being real, i.e., as reflecting reality, it is a possibility that people are less likely to be critical of its content. Therefore it is especially important to asses how critical people actually are of non-fiction programs.

Finally, in this study I will focus solely on youngsters attending middle and high school, i.e., between the ages of 11 and 18. This choice was made because if this study

is to aid in the development of media education projects, it should be directed at those audiences at which media literacy projects are usually targeted, which are mainly children in middle and high school.

Thus, the expression 'a measurement instrument to measure media literacy' is not entirely correct, since the focus will be on the relationship between the media and democracy, a specific medium, specific genres, and the instrument will be geared towards a specific group of people. However, this expression will be used throughout this dissertation basically because it is a simpler term. To summarize, the specific aim of this study is the following:

> The development of a standardized instrument geared towards 11 to 18 year olds, designed to measure media literacy regarding non-fiction television programs and defined from the perspective of the link between media and democracy.

In order to achieve this aim, three steps will be taken. First, media literacy needs to be clearly defined. As mentioned in section 1.5, many media literacy researchers do not clearly explicate their definition of media literacy. Conversely, this study aims to construct a clear and fairly complete notion of what media literacy entails before developing a measurement instrument. This definition will be an amalgam of existing definitions, and will thus encompass the majority of the definitions used in past and current media literacy research. This means the instrument will be based on an extensive and fairly complete conceptualization of media literacy, one that most scholars of media literacy should recognize as reflecting the essentials of media literacy. Second, once media literacy has been thus conceptualized, it needs to be geared towards the link between media and democracy. In other words, the definition will be tailored to answer the question what people need to know about the media in order to be able to understand the connection between media, democracy, and the government, and to function as well-informed, critical citizens. Third, this definition needs to be translated into a questionnaire which measures how much people know about the media in terms of the role they play in maintaining democracy and informing society. This questionnaire needs to then be tested for its validity and reliability.

After the development of the measurement instrument, I will delve into the usefulness of the instrument. This analysis will show how the results from the questionnaire can be used to compare the respondents' scores, and to infer which factors influence the respondents' scores on the questionnaire.

1.7 Organization of content

To develop a measurement instrument for media literacy, one first needs to determine what exactly is meant by media literacy. This will be established in chapter 2, where a literature overview will be used to distill the basic aspects of media literacy. Chapter 3 will then describe how these aspects are specified towards the link between media and democracy. In chapter 4, I will describe how the questions, after they were derived from the specified aspects of media literacy, were developed and tested through various

studies. In chapter 5, I will describe how the questionnaire developed in chapter 3 and 4 was tested in a final survey, and how its results were used to establish the reliability and validity of the questionnaire. Chapter 6 is concerned with the results of the survey; it shows how the results from the measurement instrument could be used in future projects to make statements about the level of media literacy of the participants. This chapter describes how media literate the participants were, and which factors seem to influence the participants' scores on the questionnaire. Finally, in the conclusion I will address how the questionnaire developed in this study contributes to the field of media literacy research, and what recommendations for future research can be deduced from this study.

Chapter 2. Defining media literacy: An overview[1]

The fact that media literacy, i.e., one's ability to critically appraise the media, is considered an important issue has become apparent through the steady increase in both the media education curricula used in schools as well as the media literacy research conducted in Western societies. But what exactly should people know about the media and their usage in order to be considered media literate? This chapter aims to answer that question by creating a structured overview of how numerous authors in the field of media literacy and media education have answered this question.

The number of definitions of media literacy is overwhelming; large numbers of scholars on either side of the Atlantic Ocean have been creating a wide variety of definitions since the 1970s. Because of the size of the field, the importance of a well-structured and thorough overview should not be underestimated. Various scholars have already created overviews which summarize a part of the ideas about media literacy. However, while acknowledging that these overviews do provide interesting and valuable insights into the current ideas held by media literacy scholars, these overviews fall short in one respect, namely that these reviews restrict themselves to a mere listing of who defined media literacy in which way. They limit themselves to either a historical account of definitions (e.g., Buckingham, 1998), a description of media curricula (e.g., Brown, 1991, 1998; Bazalgette, Bevort, & Savino, 1992), or a description of how media literacy is conceptualized in different countries (e.g., Hart, 1998a; Piette & Giroux, 1997). As a result, they are unable to create a structured view of the field, comparing the different themes that various definitions touch upon, and pointing out the possible bias in the current definitions of media literacy.

The aim of this chapter is thus to structure the multitude of opinions about the concept of media literacy according to the themes they discuss. The overview presented here will not only list who said what about media literacy, but, more importantly, it will provide an idea of what the dominant themes are in the media literacy arena. Additionally, this overview will illuminate which notions regarding the media and their usage receive less attention, and which could thus be further elaborated. In order to attain this goal, a schematic representation of media production and use is utilized to organize what has been written about the concept of media literacy so far. This schematic representation will help answer the question: How is media literacy defined? Furthermore, it will allow for a description of how the definitions relate to media production and use. In the creation of this encyclopedic rather than critical overview, the decision was made that each aspect of media literacy had to be mentioned and explicated by at least one publication from a peer-reviewed source in order to be taken into account.

In order to collect relevant literature, the databases ERIC and PsycInfo, as well as the Social Sciences Citation Index and Communication Abstracts, were searched, using the keywords "media education" and "media literacy". These searches were conducted at

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[1] This chapter has been submitted for publication. An earlier version of this chapter was awarded a Top Student Paper Award at the 2003 ICA conference.

regular intervals between March 2002 and March 2007. In addition, relevant literature was selected using the reference lists of articles found through the database-search.

2.1 Structuring the field

Media literacy centers on knowing how media messages are constructed and received. A quick glance at any of the major contributions to the field of media literacy will confirm this statement. In spite of the large numbers of different definitions of media literacy, they all seem to agree on this one fact, namely that media literacy entails an awareness of one or more aspects of the use and production of media messages. Therefore the best way to structure the wide variety of definitions is to create a schematic representation of media production and use in which all of these definitions can be classified.

Although the processes of media production and use have been conceptualized in a variety of different ways, all of these conceptualizations include a reference to the following three elements: the producer, the user, and the media (e.g., McQuail, 2000). Therefore these three make up the central elements of the schematic representation used in this overview. The 'producer' refers to any individual who is involved in the creation of media products, while the 'user' refers to anybody using the media. These two players interact with the media through four different processes, which are signified by four arrows.

```
                      ┌─────────────┐
                      │  Producer   │
                      └─────────────┘

Arrow A -        ↑            ↓           Arrow B -
Influence                                  Production

                      ┌─────────────┐
                      │    Media    │
                      └─────────────┘

Arrow C -        ↑            ↓           Arrow D -
Influence                                  Handling

                      ┌─────────────┐
                      │    User     │
                      └─────────────┘
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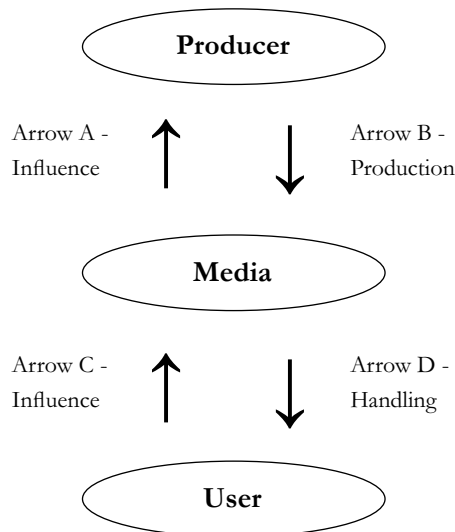
Figure 2.1. A schematic representation for understanding media literacy.

The first arrow (arrow A) in the schematic representation refers to how the media influence a producer. It focuses on the manner in which the media can influence the producer's ideas about media production. The second arrow (arrow B), which runs from the producer to the media, refers to those processes through which both media content and channels are constructed. The third arrow (arrow C) is all about how the media influence a media user. Finally, the fourth arrow (arrow D) centers on how people deal with the media. When using this schematic representation as a starting point, media literacy can be seen as an understanding of these four arrows.

2.2 Literature overview: Aspects of media literacy

In this section of the chapter, the different conceptualizations of media literacy used in the field are organized by relating them to the arrows of the schematic representation of media literacy presented in Figure 2.1.

2.2.1 Media influence on producers

Media exert influence on the producers of media content and channels, a notion captured by arrow A in Figure 2.1. Media producers not only produce the media, but they also use them, both as professionals and as private individuals, and they can thus be affected by the content and style of media representations. An example of this is when a television news producer sees a breaking story on another news channel, and considers running the same story. Another example would be the make-over of one television station giving the producers of another station ideas about how to alter the image of their own station.

Although it is relevant for media users to be aware of this line of influence of the media, only one author fleetingly refers to it when she describes media literacy as including the ability to recognize the complex nature of authorship (Quin, 2003). Producers are generally not described as anything other than people who construct messages in a certain context. The notion that media producers themselves also use and may thus be influenced by other media content appears to be largely ignored in the field of media literacy.

2.2.2 Production of media content

The fact that media content is created by producers, as implied by arrow B in Figure 2.1, implies that media content is a construction. Within media literacy research this is deemed an essential dimension of media literacy, and literature indicates that scholars deem the way in which media content is constructed the result of two factors: 1) professional activities and 2) production context. Although most literature discusses either one or both of these factors as aspects of media literacy, some authors focus on the concept of construction in its entirety.

Generally, authors argue that awareness of the constructed nature of media content is essential to a valid evaluation of media content. Aufderheide (1997) noted that people need to be media literate because they need to understand how reality is constructed through the media. Thoman and Jolls (2004) agreed with this idea, positing that people

need to understand that the media are not windows on the world (see also Hobbs, 2005). Criticos (1997), as well as various others (Aufderheide, 1997; Brookfield, 1986; Greenaway, 1997; Hobbs 1997, 1998c), further expanded on this notion by positing that media education should teach people to see the human agency and manufactured nature of the media. Hobbs (1998b) claimed that understanding that media messages are constructed means people will better appreciate and interpret media content. Masterman (1997, 1998) added that people needed to know about production, because it will teach them to challenge the 'naturalness' of media images.

Furthermore, various authors argue that the best way to learn about the constructed nature of media content is through being involved in its construction. Consequently, they claimed that people should also learn how to produce media messages. Tyner (2003) described how teaching students to create their own interactive multimedia, such as an online digital archive, helps them to improve their general problem-solving skills and the complexity of their knowledge structures. In Australia, learning how to produce media content was for a long time the foundation of many media education programs, and remains an essential part of media literacy teaching (Quin, 2003). Several other researchers alleged that the production of media messages is an essential aspect of media literacy (e.g., Brookfield, 1986; Alvermann & Hagood, 2000; Collins, 1998; Davison, 1992; Dennis, 2004; Gaudard & Theveniaut, 1992; Hart, 1998b; Hobbs, 1998a, 1998c, 2005; Livingstone, 2003; Lund, 1998; Minkkinen, 1978; Scheibe, 2004; Stafford, 1990; Thoman & Jolls, 2004; Tufte, 1992; Vande Berg, Wenner, & Gronbeck, 2004; Vargas, 2006).

Professional activities
Professional activities play a central role in constructing media messages. This aspect of media literacy captures the fact that these messages are, in part, the result of the activities undertaken by the producers. Buckingham (2003) insisted that media literacy includes an awareness of who the people are that make the messages, while Covington (2004) described how students should be made aware of the creative processes that take place during media production. Most authors agree with this, and their definitions describe two more specific aspects: the selectivity of the producers, and the codes and conventions used during the construction of media content.

Selectivity of the producers. This aspect focuses on the fact that producers make conscious and subconscious decisions about what to include and how to include this in fictional and non-fictional media messages. Various authors, when outlining media literacy, mentioned that it includes knowing about the selectivity which is part of the nature of a mediated message. Some focused on the ability to understand that media products are not a neutral reflection of reality, but the result of professional choices (Considine, 1997; Covington, 2004; Greenaway, 1997; Hobbs, 2005; Lemish & Lemish, 1997; Livingstone, 2003; Masterman, 1983; Primack et al., 2006; Thoman & Jolls, 2004). Furthermore, several scholars claimed that media education should teach students that television constructs reality, i.e., that what is shown on television may seem like reality, but that it

depicts a selected and transformed part of reality (Brown, 1991; Lloyd-Kolkin, Wheeler, & Strand, 1980; Potter, 2004a; Primack et al., 2006; Tufte, 1992; Vooijs & Van der Voort, 1990). Brookfield (1986) concurred with this notion and added that; "If adults begin to speculate on how and why television emphasizes certain views and messages, they will be more likely to ask why other views and messages were excluded and how apparently 'neutral' events might have been presented from a different perspective" (p. 162). Finally, Masterman (1983) pointed out that people need to understand that a reporter's task; "is not to seek out the truth of a particular situation, but to seek evidence which supports an angle which will have been pretty well set before the reporter leaves the office" (p. 208), a notion which is echoed by various other researchers who claimed that recognizing the author's point of view is an essential part of media literacy (Hobbs, 2005; Primack et al., 2006). One study that specifically looked into how teenage girls' interpreted weight loss advertisements defined media literacy as including the ability to recognize the author's purpose, goals, motives and point of view as this increases critical thinking skills regarding media messages that might influence body image, eating disorders, and nutrition (Hobbs, Broder, Pope, & Rowe, 2006).

Codes and conventions. In the literature on media literacy, numerous authors mention the awareness of the codes and conventions used by producers to construct media messages. The authors distinguish between two types of conventions: (a) production procedures, and (b) dramatic and/or narrative codes. Anderson (1983) argued that an awareness of the conventions is essential for it decreases the chance that people will make "reality errors in assessing behaviors presented in television content" (p. 307).

   In their definition of media literacy, a large number of authors included recognizing and understanding the meaning of the production procedures that are used in media messages. Production procedures include sound, camera point of view, lighting techniques, framing, special effects, and the use of props. For instance, Alvarado and Boyd-Barrett (1992) claimed that students should know what kinds of technology are used in the production of media messages, because it will reveal to them that media technology plays a major role in the creation of the meaning of a text. Moreover, a number of media education programs that focus on rendering respondents critical towards advertising include teaching how to recognize the persuasive techniques used in commercials. Recognizing these persuasive techniques ranges from being able to recognize special effects, visual and verbal elements, and symbolism, recognizing the persuasive intent underlying a commercial, to an awareness of the role of the actors in advertisements (Desmond & Jeffries-Fox, 1983; Feshbach, Feshbach, & Cohen, 1982; Hobbs, 2004; Livingstone & Helsper, 2006). Thoman (1999) as well as Thoman and Jolls (2004), and Piette and Giroux (1997) argued that an awareness of the technical conventions used in a message helps people be "less susceptible to manipulation" (Thoman, 1999, p. 51). Vande Berg et al. (2004) argued that media literacy included knowing that technical and conventional codes "work to position viewers to 'see' the 'preferred' meanings and to create 'oppositional' meanings" (p. 222). A large number of media literacy scholars agree that the knowledge of these production procedures is

a part of media literacy (Alvardo & Boyd-Barrett, 1992; Anderson, 1983; Aufderheide, 1997; Brookfield, 1986; Brown, 1991, 2001; Bazalgette, 1997; Buckingham 1990, 1993, 1998, 2003; Buckingham, Fraser, & Mayman, 1990; Buckingham & Sefton-Green, 1997; Collins, 1998; Considine, 1997; Davies, 1997; Davison, 1992; Desimoni, 1992; Desmond, 1997; Desmond & Jeffries-Fox, 1983; Gray, 2005; Greenaway, 1997; Hobbs, 1997, 1998a, 1998b, 1998c, 2005; Hobbs et al., 2006; Hobbs & Frost, 1999; Hobbs, Frost, Davis, & Stauffer, 1988; Livingstone, 2003; Lloyd-Kolkin, et al., 1980; Masterman, 1983, 1997, 1998; McClure, 1997; McMahon, 2003; Messaris, 1998; Meyrowitz, 1998; Piette & Giroux, 1997; Potter, 2004a; Primack et al., 2006; Quin & McMahon, 1997; Rapaczynski, Singer, & Singer, 1982; Scheibe, 2004; Singer, Zuckerman & Singer, 1980; D.G. Singer & J.L. Singer, 1983; J.L. Singer & D.G. Singer, 1983; Swinkels, 1992; Thoman, 1999; Thoman & Jolls, 2004; Vooijs & Van der Voort, 1989, 1990; Zetl, 1998).

The second category includes those definitions of media literacy that focused on the knowledge of codes which are not technical in nature, but include knowledge about issues such as genre, narrative structures, and the distinction between fiction and fact. An example of these kinds of codes is, as pointed out by Hobbs (2005), the ability to distinguish a commercial from regular programming. Alvardo and Boyd-Barrett (1992) made a more general claim when they mentioned that media literacy should entail the identification and understanding of different genres, a notion which was expanded upon by Potter (2004a) in his definition of media literacy which includes an understanding of the different formulas that are typical to certain types of programs such as the news and entertainment shows. Another example of dramatic and/or narrative codes is provided by McMahon (2003), who argued that media literacy should include the ability to identify narrative elements such as character, plot, and setting. Numerous other media education researchers discussed the awareness of dramatic and/or narrative codes as well (Abelman & Courtright, 1983; Alvardo & Boyd-Barrett, 1992; Anderson, 1983; Aufderheide, 1997; Brookfield, 1986; Brown, 1991, 2001; Buckingham, 1990, 1993, 1998, 2003; Buckingham et al., 1990; Buckingham & Sefton-Green, 1997; Considine, 1997; Davies, 1997; Desmond, 1997; Dorr, Browne Graves, & Phelps, 1980; Feshbach, Feshbach, & Cohen, 1982; Greenaway, 1997; Hobbs, 1997, 1998a, 1998b, 1998c, 2005; Hobbs et al., 2006; Hobbs & Frost, 1999; Hobbs, et al., 1988; Livingstone, 2003; Lemish & Lemish, 1997; Lloyd-Kolkin, et al., 1980; Masterman, 1983, 1997; McClure, 1997; McMahon, 2003; Meyrowitz, 1998; Piette & Giroux, 1997; Potter, 2004a; Primack, 2006; Quin & McMahon, 1997; Rapaczynski et al., 1982; Roberts, Christenson, Gibson, Mooser, & Goldberg, 1980; D.G.Singer & J. L. Singer, 1983; J.L. Singer & D.G. Singer, 1983; Singer, Zuckerman, & Singer, 1980; Swinkels, 1992; Thoman, 1999; Vande Berg et al., 2004; Zetl, 1998).

Production context
Besides the professional activities described in the previous section, the second factor which influences how media messages are constructed can be best described as the production context. A large amount of media literacy literature mentions an awareness

of the institutions that produce mediated messages. As Brown noted: "Critical viewing is one major component of media literacy, referring to the study of media industries and of economic, political and ethical contexts to learn about forces shaping media content, including advertising economics and government regulation and public interest groups"(2001, p. 684). This idea is also mentioned by various other researchers (Buckingham, 1998; Desimoni, 1992; Lloyd-Kolkin et al., 1980). One media education project, described by Covington (2004), actually involved media producers coming into class and explaining about the various influences that help shape the process of media production. Researchers focus on one or more of the following aspects of media institutions: 1) the social and cultural context of media production; 2) the economic context; and 3) the political influences.

Social and cultural context. In his summary of critical viewing skills, Brown (1991) found that a number of media education projects taught students about the role that social and cultural aspects play in the production of media content. McMahon (2003), for instance, pointed out that media literate people should be able to make "the connection between the construction of texts, their contexts, and the societies in which they are produced and consumed" (p.12). Various other media literacy researchers also presented this awareness as part of media literacy (Alvarado & Boyd-Barrett, 1992; Anderson, 1983; Bazalgette, 1997; Brown, 1998, 2001; Buckingham, 1993, 2003; Considine, 1997; Desimoni, 1992; Hart, 1998b; Hobbs, 1998a, 1998c, 2005; Lewis & Jhally, 1998; Livingstone, 2003; Masterman, 1983; Meyrowitz, 1998; Scheibe, 2004; Vande Berg et al., 2004). Masterman (1983), when outlining his definition of television literacy, mentioned knowing about the conservative nature of media institutions and the middle-class biases of their staff. The Catholic Education office in Australia claimed that people need to know about the structure of media institutions in order to become "discriminating truth-seekers" (Brown, 1991, p.74). Furthermore, Thoman and Jolls (2004) claimed that what is shown in the media is a reflection of the values, attitudes, and points of view of the ones doing the constructing. The ability to identify these values as they are expressed through media content will render people, "more tolerant of differences and more astute in [their] decision making to accept or reject the message" (p. 26).

Economic context. Some authors, in their description of media literacy, focused on the economic context of media institutions (Anderson, 1983; Brown, 1991, 1998; Buckingham, 1993; Dennis, 2004; Desmond & Jeffries-Fox, 1983; Hart, 1998b; Hobbs, 2005; Hobbs et al., 2006; Livingstone, 2003; Masterman, 1983; McMahon, 2003; Messaris, 1998; Meyrowitz, 1998; Piette & Giroux, 1997; Primack, 2006; Vande Berg et al., 2004; Vargas, 2006). Masterman (1983) explained that because the media are owned and controlled by rich and powerful corporations, the views they present are most likely to reflect the ideas of capitalism and consumerism. In his opinion, this is why people need to be aware of the economic factors that shape media production. Rapaczynski et al. (1982) added that children have to understand the nature of commercial TV and the purpose of commercials. Others claimed that in the current commercial media

environment, media literacy included the awareness of the commercialization of the media. A media literate person must understand that the primary function of commercial media is the 'packaging' of audiences to sell to advertisers in order to make a profit (Aufderheide, 1997; Bazalgette, 1997; Buckingham, 2003; Dorr, et al., 1980; Hobbs & Frost, 1999; Masterman, 1998; Thoman, 1999; Vande Berg et al., 2004). Additionally, both Branston (1992) and Potter (2004a) noted that in order to be considered media literate, people have to realize that the media tend to objectify their audiences into measurable, predictable identities in order to predict the success of a show. Hobbs et al. (2006), in her study into the relationship between media literacy and the understanding of weight-loss advertisements, expanded this notion by claiming that media literacy includes the ability to describe the intended audience of a media message. Primack et al. (2006), when researching the relationship between smoking and media literacy included the exact same aspect in their definition of media literacy. Also considering knowledge about targeting audiences an important aspect of media literacy, Potter (2004a) argued that media industries are guided by a profit motive, and that therefore they will only turn out messages that will attract considerable audiences. Furthermore, he added that media users need to realize that mass media market to niche audiences. On a related note, Thoman and Jolls (2004), as well as a few others (Buckingham 2003; Lewis & Jhally, 1998) posited that much of the world's mass media were developed as moneymaking enterprise, and that if one wants to evaluate a message, one has to know if profit is its purpose. Additionally, Lewis and Jhally (1998) reasoned that students needed to know about the mainly commercial nature of media institutions in the US, because only then would they be able to critically approach the media and appreciate alternative, and possibly more diverse, media forms.

Political context. Several definitions of media literacy focused on the need to understand the political influences and allegiances that play a role in shaping the media content turned out by production organizations. Various media literacy scholars claimed that students need to understand the processes through which texts are produced and circulated, which includes the political allegiances that can affect the content of a media message (Aufderheide, 1997; Bazalgette, 1997; Brown, 1998; Buckingham, 1993, Hart, 1998b; Hobbs, 2005; Hobbs et al., 2006; Masterman, 1983; McMahon, 2003; Meyrowitz, 1998; Vande Berg, 2004). Thoman and Jolls (2004) concurred with this idea and added that; "With democracy at stake almost everywhere around the world, citizens of every country need to be equipped with the ability to determine…ideological spin" (p. 27). According to Alvarado and Boyd-Barrett (1992), if students understand the political influences on media content, they will be more likely to see how media institutions can be changed for the better. Moreover, Buckingham (2003), as well as Anderson (1983), alleged that people need to know about the regulations that guide media production. In a similar vein, Potter (2004a) argued that people need to understand both the advantages and disadvantages of the regulations that govern the consolidation of media industries. Finally, Vargas (2006) described transnational media literacy as including the ability to understand "the political economics of global conglomerates" (p.269).

2.2.3 Media influence on its users

The third arrow (arrow C) presented in Figure 2.1 captures a dimension of media literacy mentioned by numerous authors, namely that people should be aware of the impact that media can have on society and individuals. Generally, media literacy scholars argue that it is essential for people to understand the role that media play in shaping their perceptions and directing their behavior (Lloyd-Kolkin et al., 1980), or, as Piette and Giroux (1997, p.116) put it, in order to shield people against "…the highly developed manipulative powers of television". Definitions of media literacy that refer to the influence of media focus on two different levels: societal and individual.

Influence on society

When discussing the influence that media messages can have on society at large, media literacy scholars focused on a number of dimensions on which this influence could be exerted. In her description of the 1992 National Leadership Conference on Media Literacy, Aufderheide (1997) outlined media literacy as including the awareness that media messages can have ideological, political, and social implications. This notion of media literacy has been expressed by various others (Brown, 1991, 1998; Buckingham et al., 1990; Buckingham & Sefton-Green, 1997; Masterman, 1997, 1998; Messaris, 1998; Piette & Giroux, 1997; Vande Berg et al., 2004). Vargas (2006) noted that people need to understand that the media function as socializing agents. Furthermore, Greenaway (1997) alleged that one of the core concepts of media education is knowing that the media can influence one's culture. Various authors argued that media literacy includes an awareness of the impact that televised messages could have on society at large; i.e., politics, cultural and artistic activities, and social customs and attitudes (Desmond, 1997; Meyrowitz, 1998; Piette & Giroux, 1997), while Lemish and Lemish (1997) remained more general when they remarked that media literate students should be able to evaluate the role of the media in a democratic society.

Influence on the individual

Some authors, in their description of what media literacy entails, focused on the impact that mediated messages can have on an individual. This impact has been described in three different ways. First, various authors claimed that media literacy included knowing how the media can shape people's view of reality. Second, others argued that media literacy entailed knowing how the media can affect a person's opinions, feelings, and notion of self. Finally, media literacy is said to include an understanding of those factors that can mediate the influence that the media can have on people.

   First, according to Aufderheide (1997), media educators share the belief that media literacy entails knowing that media messages help shape people's perception of reality. Various other researchers also included this notion in their definition of media literacy (Brown, 1998; Buckingham, 2003; Piette & Giroux, 1997; Swinkels, 1992). Rapaczynski et al. (1982) elaborated on this idea by explaining that children need to understand that television "is a source of information (and stereotypes) about other people, countries and occupations" (p.48), an idea which is echoed by D.G. Singer and J.L.

Singer (1983). Furthermore, several media education programs teach students about the stereotypes presented in the media and their effects on the media users (Anderson, 1983; Buckingham & Sefton-Green, 1997; Piette & Giroux, 1997). An awareness of how stereotyping occurs in media content is regarded as important because the media have the capability to determine how people think about the groups they stereotype (Piette & Giroux, 1997), a notion with which Desmond (1997) concurred in his definition of television literacy. Irving and Berel (2001) argued that people have to be able to critically evaluate the media in order to "reduce the credibility and persuasive influence of media messages", so that people would consequently be less likely to accept the media's beauty ideals (p. 103). Thoman and Jolls (2004) noted that if people see how the media shape what they know and understand about the world around them, they will also understand that media content is not a window on reality, but a carefully crafted construction. According to Thoman (1999) this understanding is imperative in helping people "to navigate their lives in a global, technological society" (p. 51). Finally, Alvermann and Hagood (2000) posited that: "Popular cultural texts function to produce certain relations of power and gendered identities that students may learn to use or resist" (p. 194).

Second, various scholars pointed out that media literacy includes an awareness of how the media influence feelings, behavior, ideas, and one's self concept (Anderson, 1983; Messaris, 1998; Potter, 2004a; Primack et al., 2006; Rapaczynski et al., 1982; J.L. Singer & D.G. Singer, 1983; Singer, Zuckerman, & Singer, 1980). In the development of their own media literacy curriculum, Lloyd-Kolkin et al. (1980) included understanding the psychological implications of commercials, and the impact of television on one's daily life, while Vargas (2006) specifically noted that media literacy also meant understanding the role that the media play in shaping one's identity. Scharrer (2003), in her study into the effect of media education on critical attitudes towards media violence, noted that besides questioning the effects of the media, media literacy also included recognizing the positives roles the media can fulfill for its users. Moreover, three scholars (Brown, 1991; Desmond, 1997; Buckingham, 2003) contended that people also need to understand how the media can affect their ideas about specific issues and people.

Finally, one media literacy scholar contended that knowing how to curb the effects of the media is also an aspect of media literacy. Potter (2004a) claimed that media literacy included an awareness of the factors that decrease or increase the risk of being influenced by the media. He claimed that media literacy meant being able to control these factors, and thus, "reduce the probability of a negative effect occurring well before it has the chance to manifest itself" (p. 85).

2.2.4 Handling the media
The fourth and final arrow presented in Figure 2.1, arrow D, concerns a dimension of media literacy that various authors touch upon, namely that media users are not just consumers of the media, but actively use the media for their own purposes. Although numerous definitions of media literacy all agree that people should be aware of their active role, the authors differ on which aspect of this role people should know about. These aspects range from the ability to locate and select media content, to the ability to

manage one's media use, to the ability to mobilize the media, to the awareness that media users may differ in how they interpret the media.

Locating and selecting
Numerous authors have defined media literacy to include a reference to the ability to locate and select media content. Some definitions focused on the ability to find and select information, while others added the ability to assess the quality of that information.

When discussing media literacy, Potter (2004a) mentioned that people should know where to find specific information. Dennis (2004) echoed this idea by arguing that people need to be able to search for information online, and be aware of the new developments in equipment and other information technologies. Specifically focusing on new media, Tyner (2003) pointed out that the digital media differ from print media due to the sheer volume and speed with which information can be obtained, and therefore require special strategies for browsing and searching. She added that if people are to benefit from the digital media they must learn how to "creatively…research, and select" (p. 374). There appears to be a general consensus that in order to be media literate regarding new media such as the Internet, people need access to these new media (e.g., Livingstone, 2004). However, the question has also been raised whether or not access to new media in fact guarantees a higher level of digital literacy (Tyner, 2003). Several other authors also focused on this ability to find and select information through the media (Alvermann & Hagood, 2000; Anderson, 1983; Brown, 1991, 1998; Buckingham, 1993, 2003; Dennis, 2004; Hobbs, 1997, 1998a; Lloyd-Kolkin et al. 1980; Masterman, 1998; McClure, 1997; Meyrowitz, 1998; Scheibe, 2004; Thoman, 1999; Vooijs & Van der Voort, 1990). The North Carolina Department of Publication Instruction (Considine, 1997) asserted that people need to know how to select media messages because of the vast amount of information they are surrounded with every day, and Considine added that people need to be able to access alternative sources of information. Furthermore, other authors alleged that media literacy included the ability to be more selective about the kind of media messages one chooses to watch and/or read (Brown, 1991, 2001; Lloyd-Kolkin et al. 1980).

In a few cases, the above-mentioned definition was extended to include the ability to assess the quality of the selected information. Potter (2004a) added that people need to be able to assess the accuracy of the information they receive, a notion also held by Covington (2004) and Considine (1997), who argued that media literate people should be able to separate "policy from personality, issue from image" (p. 260). Furthermore, Dennis (2004) pointed at the importance of evaluating the information received from the media. He specified this to "evaluating their sources, mode of presentation, accuracy and interpretation" (p. 209). Several media literacy scholars claim that the media have grown increasingly less pluralistic. They argued that in order for people to obtain a complete picture of events, and to detect the bias present in every mediated version of an event, they need to know how to access, as well as compare and contrast, different sources of information (Conside, 1997; Dennis, 2004; Hobbs, 1997, 1998a; Masterman, 1998; Potter, 2004a; Thoman, 1999). Hence, according to Thoman (1999) media literacy

also includes the ability to verify information by checking multiple sources (p. 52). Tyner (2003) extended this notion by adding that the new media, because of the sheer amount of information and the speed with which it can be provided, requires particular strategies when it comes to evaluating online content and "verifying the authenticity of the sources, and placing specific content within the context of other information sources" (p. 373).

Managing media use

This section includes those conceptualizations of media literacy that encompassed an awareness of when one uses the media, the ability to manage this media use, and an awareness of the reasons for one's media use.

Numerous definitions of media literacy alleged that media literacy training includes teaching people how to evaluate when they use the media. For instance, according to some authors, media literacy training included teaching people to evaluate their own television viewing patterns, e.g., having people evaluate their media use during one week and assess the patterns they discover (Anderson, 1983; Brown, 1991, 1998; Hobbs & Frost, 1999; Kline, 2005; Lloyd-Kolkin et al., 1980; Masterman, 1997; McMahon, 2003; Piette & Giroux, 1997; Rapaczynski et al., 1982; D.G. Singer & J.L. Singer, 1983; Singer, Zuckerman, & Singer, 1980; Vargas, 2006). Others noted that media literacy education entailed rendering people more sensitive regarding the extent of their exposure to the media, i.e., for how long they use the media during a given period of time (Branston, 1992; Desmond, 1997; Desimoni, 1992; Hobbs, 1998a, 2005; Vooijs & Van der Voort, 1989).

Furthermore, various authors contended that people's ability to manage their use of the media in a well-considered manner is a part of media literacy (Anderson, 1983; Brown, 1991; Rapaczynski et al., 1982; D.G. Singer & J.L. Singer, 1983; J.L. Singer & D.G. Singer, 1983; Singer, Zuckerman, & Singer, 1980; Vooijs & Van der Voort, 1990). Other authors included the ability to create a "media use schedule" in their definition of media literacy (Hobbs, 1998a; Vooijs & Van der Voort, 1989). Another aspect of media literacy that some authors touched upon was the ability to watch less television; Kline (2005) described how media education can be used to curb child obesity by teaching children how to limit their use of the media, since media consumption has been shown to increase the risk of unhealthy eating habits and a sedentary lifestyle (see also Desimoni, 1992). Finally, some scholars also include the ability to select programs of a higher quality in their definition of media literacy (Brown, 1991; Vooijs & Van der Voort, 1989).

An awareness of the motives and purposes that provide the incentive for media use is also deemed an aspect of media literacy. In the Swiss canton of Vaud, for instance, media education includes developing students' insights into their own motivation for using the media (Desimoni, 1992), a notion which has also been picked up by various others (Anderson, 1983; Brown, 1991, 2001; Vooijs & Van der Voort, 1990). Moreover, McMahon (2003) argued that media literacy should include the media user being aware of their reasons for using the text, for these could influence the meaning they make of it. Piette and Giroux (1997) supported this notion and further elaborated on it by adding

that if people are more aware of how and why they watch television, they are better able to evaluate media content in terms of their expectations and needs.

Mobilizing the media

Some definitions of media literacy included a more activist aspect of handling the media. They refer to the ability to not only take action in regard to specific media content (Brown, 1991, 1998; Criticos, 1997; D.G. Singer & J.L. Singer, 1983; Singer, Zuckerman, & Singer, 1980), but also the ability to attract media attention. As Means Coleman (2003) put it; "the principal goals of media education are to create media consumers who… work to influence and inform media" (p. 413). In her description of media literacy, Hobbs (1998a, 2005) included the ability to use the media to attract press interest, build coalitions, shape policy decision making and change political practices in regard to certain social issues. Rapaczynski et al. (1982) specifically referred to people's ability to influence networks, producers, and television stations. Two decades later, Vande Berg et al. (2004) noted that becoming media literate entailed the ability to share one's insights regarding the meanings of television content with policy makes, program creators, and industry decision makers (p. 222).

Interpreting media content

Definitions of media literacy also include the awareness how audiences interpret media content. Branston (1992) pointed out that when teaching media literacy, a focus on both textual analysis and audiences is essential, for only when both are understood will people understand how meanings are made, understood, and enjoyed by audiences. Various definitions of media literacy included the awareness of the process through which people come to an interpretation of media content. Many of those same definitions also claim that people need to understand how and why other people may interpret the same message differently.

First, there are those descriptions of media literacy which focus on the extent to which people understand the process through which they give meaning to media content. For instance, Quin and McMahon (1997) argued that although textual analysis is essential to media literacy, it will not completely reveal how the user interprets media content, and therefore people need to learn that their positions, attitudes, and values influence the meaning they make of the texts. Furthermore, Brown (2001) claimed that recent critical viewing skills projects focus on helping people understand how they interpret the media. This interpretation depends, according to Brown, on people's individual cognitive processing. This process includes psychological and affective considerations, selective perception and interpretation (p. 684). Other authors' description of media literacy included this same allegation (Alvardo & Boyd-Barrett, 1992; Alvermann & Hagood, 2000; Anderson, 1983; Aufderheide, 1997; Bouwman, 1989; Brown, 1991, 1998; Buckingham, 1993, 1998, 2003; Buckingham & Sefton-Green, 1997; Davies, 1997; Desimoni, 1992; Desmond, 1997; Hobbs, 1998c; Hobbs et al., 2006; Masterman, 1983; McClure, 1997; McMahon, 2003; Thoman & Jolls, 2004; Zetl, 1998).

Secondly, there are those authors who contended that understanding that people from

a range of socio-economic backgrounds may interpret the same media message differently is a part of media literacy (Alvarado & Boyd-Barrett, 1992; Alvermann & Hagood, 2000; Branston, 1992; Brown, 1991, 1998; Buckingham, 1990, 1993, 1998, 2003; Buckingham & Sefton-Green, 1997; Considine, 1997; Criticos, 1997; Desimoni, 1992; Dorr et al., 1980; Greenaway, 1997; Hobbs, 1998a, 2005; Hobbs et al., 2006; Masterman, 1983; Meyrowitz, 1998; Primack, et al., 2006; Swinkels, 1992; Thoman, 1999; Thoman & Jolls, 2004). When describing this aspect, Thoman and Jolls (2004) explained that understanding other people's interpretations will enhance respect and understanding of different cultures. Furthermore, Masterman (1997) alleged that if people understand how audiences respond to texts, they will gain a greater critical autonomy when it comes to media content. In Australia, Quin and McMahon (1997) noted that students need to understand that audiences are not passive recipients of media messages, but that they each bring their own social positions, race, gender, and age to bear upon their interpretation of the media. This understanding is essential if people are to "make comparisons and judgments about their own and wider community values"(p. 313). Finally, Vande Berg et al. (2004) noted that media literacy included the ability to "systematically and rigorously interrogate and evaluate the social, cultural, political, and ethical meanings and import of television texts and to share those insights with other television viewers" (p.222).

2.3 Conclusion

The large variety of definitions outlined in this overview indicates the richness of the field and the concept of media literacy. This chapter is the first attempt to use a schematic representation to categorize the realm of media literacy. Since media literacy has been widely identified as the knowledge of media use and production, it seemed a logical step to use a schematic representation of media use and production to review and categorize existing definitions of media literacy. All the literature that was examined for this study could be placed into one or more of the four arrows that make up the schematic representation (please see Appendix 1 for an overview of the different aspects); therefore this attempt to categorize the field of media literacy in this manner can be called successful. But considering that several authors have already created overviews of the media literacy field, how does this particular overview benefit the field?

First, as opposed to other reviews of the media literacy field, this overview used a schematic representation of media production and use to classify the definitions from a large number of publications on media literacy. Once the definitions had been assigned to a particular arrow, they were grouped together to form the aspects that further specified the schematic representation. Therefore this overview does not merely list a thematic selection of all the different definitions, or describe them in chronological order, which is how previous overviews operated. Instead, through the use of a schematic representation, this categorization shows which areas of media use and production are deemed important by media literacy scholars, and which have received little attention. This overview revealed, for instance, that understanding the production of media messages is considered an essential aspect of media literacy by the vast majority of media literacy scholars. Conversely, understanding the influence that the media can

have on media producers is pretty much ignored; only one author very briefly refers to the nature of authorship, yet no scholar points out that producers are not isolated from the media surrounding them, but are influenced by them in various ways. Reasons for these differences will be discussed in chapter 7.

Secondly, this overview shows that every aspect of the schematic representation of media use and production was already considered a part of media literacy some twenty years ago. So although the field of media literacy is often perceived as ever-changing and fast-paced, it actually appears that the essence of how people define media literacy has changed very little over the years, and that scholars have instead been concerned with the elaboration of existing ideas.

Third, because the aspects identified in this overview are the reflection of the majority of the existing definitions of media literacy, it is possible to use this categorization of media literacy aspects as a checklist for media education curricula. However, this is not to suggest that all media education projects must reflect all the ideas about media literacy. If anything, this overview has shown that the field of media literacy is far too vast for any project to be absolutely complete. Notwithstanding, it is possible for teachers or others scholars involved in media education to use this overview to check whether their media education project covers what are deemed to be the basic aspects of that part of media literacy that makes up the focus of their project. Furthermore, this overview can also be used to help media education scholars generate ideas about what could be included in their next media project.

Additionally, the development of a schematic representation of media production and use that encompasses and has been further specified by existing definitions of media literacy is a first step on the way to developing an instrument to measure media literacy. The majority of the prior attempts at measuring media literacy were related to specific media education programs and their effectiveness, while this schematic representation opens up the opportunity of measuring media literacy independent of any program or curriculum. Moreover, the aspects that make up the four arrows in Figure 2.1 are a reflection of what media literacy scholars over the years have defined as media literacy, and using them to develop an instrument to measure media literacy means this measure will reflect the general opinion of what media literacy should entail.

Finally, the schematic representation created in this overview allows for the construction of a definition of media literacy that encompasses all previously presented notions of what media literacy should entail. According to this overview, media literacy is the awareness of the different aspects of the production of media content, the influence of the media on its users and its producers, and the way in which users deal with the media. Any critical attitude and/or behaviors towards the media, as well as any abilities regarding the media that are the result of this awareness are, according to this overview, also deemed a part of media literacy.

In short, this literature overview provides a conceptual structure, in the shape of a schematic representation, through which one can view the wide array of ideas and opinions about media literacy. This hopefully provides a new angle on the field of media literacy, one from which future research can benefit.

Chapter 3. Media and democracy: Tailoring media literacy

This chapter will describe how the concept of media literacy is tailored towards the focus of this study; i.e., media and democracy. The literature overview presented in the previous chapter made it clear that media literacy could be perceived as an awareness of the interaction between the media, producers, and users. This interaction was captured by four different arrows (see Figure 2.1), and using media literacy literature, each arrow was then further defined into several aspects (see Appendix 1 for an overview of the different aspects of media literacy).

As explained in the introduction, the reasons for investigating media literacy in this study are related to the notion that the public sphere has shifted to the domain of the media, implying that the media are the people's main source of information regarding their government as well as their dominant means for expressing their opinion towards the government. In the previous chapter, I provided an overview of the different aspects that make up media literacy, and in this chapter, these aspects will be tailored specifically towards the focus of this study; i.e., I will delineate what people need to know about each aspect in order to do well as citizens in a mediated democracy. This will help construct a more concrete definition of all the aspects, a necessity for the development of the questions. Before tailoring each aspect, the relevance of this aspect in terms of increasing people's understanding of the relationship between media and democracy will be described. If an aspect is not relevant from this perspective, it will be excluded from further conceptualization and subsequently, from the operationalization.

3.1 Tailoring media literacy
3.1.1 Media influence on producers
The media can influence the people who produce media content in numerous ways. In this section, this notion will be further specified into two aspects. The first outlines the influence that the media can have on the producers of media content. The other, closely related to this first one, describes how the organization that a producer works for can affect a producer's media use and thus possibly also influence the effects that the media can have on a producer.

These aspects are relevant in light of the discussion surrounding media and democracy because they reveal that the events presented in the news are not always directly taken from reality by the people who made the programs. Instead news items are, at times, taken from other media, and in most cases, influenced by other media. Since these media add their own filter and bias to these events, it is impossible for these items to form an unbiased representation of reality. If people realize this they will be less likely to view media content as a window on reality, and more likely to approach media content in a critical, more media literate, manner.

Media influence on producers

An awareness of the influence that the media can have on producers includes knowing how the media used by producers can influence the creations that these producers turn out (Ehrlich, 1997). An example of this aspect would be when someone responsible for putting a news broadcast together sees an important story on another television station, and decides to run an item on that same story (Dunwoody, 1978).

Media organizations and media influence on producers

People should also be aware of the fact that the media used by producers is largely determined by the organization they work for. Hence, the organization that producers work for will also, albeit implicitly, determine which media influence these producers (MacManus, 1994). Reporters who work for CNN International will, for instance, be very likely to use and be influenced by news stories presented on the Arabic news station AL-Jazeera, since they will most likely be monitoring them for any interesting stories on the Middle East. Conversely, reporters who are employed by a local US television station will not have to closely watch international news, since they will not be producing their own international news stories. Additionally, reporters working for a large commercial station such as CBS will closely watch their competitors, such as NBC, ABC and FOX, for any new types of programs or news stories to ensure that their station is not missing out on anything and thus possibly losing viewers.

3.1.2 Production of media content

When discussing the production of media content, one refers to those aspects that capture the processes through which media content is created. First of all, the content and "look" of media messages are the result of the producers' professional activities. Second, the media messages encountered by the media user are not solely the product of a producer's actions; they are also influenced by the context in which the media messages are produced.

The literature overview also includes references to the ability to produce one's own media content. Various media literacy scholars deem the ability to produce media content essential to increasing children's level of media literacy. In light of the purpose of this study, which was to develop a standardized questionnaire, it was decided that it was not possible to measure youngsters' ability to do so. The ability to produce media messages can only be measured through a practical test, one which falls outside the scope of this project. Hence the ability to construct media content was excluded from the remainder of the study.

Furthermore, one can also raise questions regarding the assumption that the ability to produce media content is in fact an aspect of media literacy at all. After all, the ability to produce media content is a pedagogical tool that can be used to render students aware of all the facets involved in the production of media content. By teaching students how to produce media content, one sensitizes them to aspects of production such as the use of production procedures, dramatic/narrative codes, or the important role played by the context of the production. In this respect, people's ability to produce media content is

not an aspect of media literacy, but an ability that will increase people's understanding of certain aspects of media literacy. Since the measurement instrument developed in this study aims to measure students' understanding of the different aspects of media literacy, there is no reason to include the ability to produce media content.

Professional activities

The professional activities through which media content is produced can be subdivided into two aspects. First, it includes the process through which a producer selects the content to be shown through the media. Second, professional activities also refer to the codes and conventions involved in the production of media messages. These codes and conventions can be split up into two different kinds: production procedures and dramatic/ narrative codes.

These aspects are relevant in light of the discussion surrounding media and democracy because they reveal that what audiences experience through the media is the result of human planning and intervention. Once people are aware of this, i.e., that the content and style of a program are carefully orchestrated, they will be less likely to accept what they see, hear, or read through the media at face value, and better capable of adopting a critical attitude.

Selectivity of the producers. In order to be considered media literate, people need to realize that media content is created through a process of selection where producers decide which events/ situations/ people their media message will focus on (Schudson, 1989). Next to selecting the topic(s) of their production (Berkowitz, 1990), the producers also select the images, information, and spokespeople they will use to portray the topic (Shoemaker, 1997).

Codes and conventions. Media literacy also includes knowledge about two types of conventions: production procedures and dramatic/ narrative codes.

For starters, the content and "look" of media messages is influenced by the production procedures used in the production of those messages (Tuchman, 1973). Production procedures cover a wide array of technical and practical conventions. An example is the fact that many people are involved in the production of a news story, not just the people who read out the news. Another production procedure would be the time limit a news editor may set to a specific story. This means that journalists can only present whatever will fit into the time slot given to them, and need to make choices from the material they have. Production procedures also refer to the fact that in many cases a story is picked up from a press agency such as the AP, and rewritten for the news program, and that only in a few cases do reporters actually talk to a person involved in the story (Bantz, McCorkle, & Baade, 1980). Another example is the kinds of camera angles that are used in a specific program, the lighting techniques used to convey a certain mood in documentaries or talk shows, or the fact that there are certain accepted ways of portraying a situation or person which help convey the story, such as, using an American flag in the background of the shot to convey patriotism (Silverblatt, 1995).

Dunwoody (1978) pointed at yet another example, namely the availability of equipment such as cameras, or technicians, needed to shoot a story.

Second, dramatic/narrative codes also play a role in shaping the nature of media messages. These codes refer to the following three facets of media production activities. For starters, an awareness of the distinction between fiction and non-fiction is deemed an important part of media literacy. Next, media literacy also includes knowledge regarding the extent to which a non-fiction program contains fictionalized aspects (Masterman, 1983). An example of this is when documentaries contain scenes which were re-enacted specifically for that program, or when reality programs script certain actions undertaken by their participants. Moreover, media users should also be aware of the fact that news editors never merely present the facts, but always embed them in a story (McQuail, 2000; Rutherford Smith, 1979; Zelizer, 1993). Bird and Dardenne (1988) explain that although news is not fiction, it is comprised of stories which describe reality through a series of culturally-determined symbols. The same applies to documentaries, talk shows, and other non-fiction genres. Bantz (1997) called this the "daily creation of nonfiction drama" (p.133). These programs present events and situations as stories with a beginning, a middle, and an end, as well as a cast of characters. Media content is thus presented to people as pre-interpreted packages, complete with matching images and vocabulary (Edelman, 1988).

Production context
Besides professional activities, the production of media content also includes an awareness of the context in which media messages are created and how this can influence the nature and content of the media. This context consists of three different aspects: social-cultural, economic, and political.

Social and cultural context. In terms of the social-cultural context of media production, the producers of media content can be seen as the ones who internalize the social norms dominant in the context in which they operate. Although producers will aim for neutrality, they will be influenced by their own values (Van Dijk, 1988; Van Ginneken, 1998), or the values that are held by their audience (Breed, 1955). Moreover, producers will also be influenced by the values held by their organization. For instance, Soloski (1989) describes an example where the conservative nature of a newspaper led to controversial stories being edited to match those values (p.149).

Knowledge about the social and cultural context of media production is relevant in terms of media and democracy because if people know that media messages are influenced by the norms and values of the people who create them, they should be more likely to look for those parts of a news item that, for instance, have been influenced by certain norms or opinions. As a result, they should be less likely to accept these messages as an unbiased and complete reflection of reality.

Economic context. The economic context that influences the media is captured by two different aspects; namely the economic nature of media channels (profit or non-profit),

and the type of audience that is targeted by a channel or specific program.

Regarding the economic context of media production, media literacy, first of all, includes the awareness of whether a broadcasting company is non-profit or profit-oriented. Although right now, research regarding the differences in news content between European commercial and public television stations is equivocal (Hviftfelt, 1994; Hendriks Vettehen, Nuijten, & Beentjes, 2005, 2006), the fact remains that these two types of stations do not have the same background, and one can safely assume that the desire to make a profit will probably at some point influence the content of non-fiction programs (MacManus, 1994; Paige, 1996; Soloski, 1989). Therefore, people should be aware of this difference, and understand the effect it might have on the information presented on television. This awareness is relevant in terms of the relationship between media and democracy because if people are aware of the motives of the producers creating the news, talk shows, or documentaries, whether these are profit-driven or have a different background, they will be better able to decide for themselves to what extent they will accept and trust the information presented to them.

Secondly, the type of audience a television station or program aims at will influence the media content they produce and broadcast. Soloski (1989) described a case where the fact that a newspaper was aimed at a family audience meant that stories were edited for the use of offensive words and images (p. 152). A news program such as BBC's Newsround, which is aimed at children will, for instance, be less likely to broadcast graphic images than a news station aimed at adults. This aspect is relevant in terms of media and democracy because it reveals that what people see on television is not a perfect, unbiased, and complete reflection of reality, but is carefully shaped and selected to, among other things, meet the expectations and needs of the audience to which that station caters.

Political context. Although the media are usually not associated with political parties, all stations do, albeit unwittingly, advocate a specific political and/or ideological perspective on the world (Breed, 1955; Fridkin Kahn & Kenney, 2002; Page, 1996). Research has shown that the political preferences of those who own media outlets, such as television, do become apparent in the content of those media outlets, especially through the news, talk shows, and other non-fiction programs (Page, 1996; Street, 2001).

This aspect is relevant in terms of media and democracy because it reveals that what people see on television, or read in the paper is not a perfect reflection of the reality that is out there, but is presented through the filter formed by the political ideas held by the people who construct media messages.

3.1.3 Media influence on its users

The media can influence media users in various ways. First, the media influence society as a whole on three different levels: political, social-structural, and cultural. Awareness of this influence is relevant in light of the discussion surrounding media and democracy for if people know that the media's role in their lives is similar to the one played by institutions such as school and the church, they are less likely to underestimate the

media's influence, or dismiss possible media influence as non-existent. Subsequently, people might become more serious in thinking about what the media tell them about society's values. This in turn could have a beneficial effect on their ability to participate in democracy as well-informed citizens.

Secondly, using the media can affect an individual user in various ways, and an awareness of this is also relevant in light of the role that the media play in the democratic processes. The media are instrumental in the shaping of opinions, not only through the information they provide, but also through the provision of the terms and ideas people use when thinking about or discussing these subjects with others. So by framing a subject matter in a certain way, the media are capable of shaping people's opinions on that topic. Subsequently, the media are also capable of influencing people's behavior or activities. In addition, the media can also impact how people feel about a certain topic, person, or event. If people are aware of this process, as well as those factors that help determine how much and to what extent they are influenced by the media, they could be rendered more critical of the media that they use, more aware of how the media attempt to, and at times do, influence their ideas, actions, and feelings and possibly more capable of curbing the influence that these media have on them.

Influence on society
The aspect 'influence on society' refers to political, social-structural and cultural implications that the media can have for society as a whole

First, the media have the ability to influence the political system that governs a society. Page (1996) explains that in modern democracies, public deliberation occurs via the media, and people obtain the majority of their information regarding politics through the mass media. This can have serious consequences. As Street (2001) puts it; "The media determine the fate of politicians and political causes, they influence governments and their electorates" (p. 231). More specifically, the media can influence the outcome of elections and referenda, they can shape the legislation considered by the governing body, and determine the issues which are considered important by the government. For instance, during election time, the media can, through the amount and manner of coverage they give to one or more candidates, influence the outcome of the election. Moreover, by presenting political ideas from a certain angle, the media can shape the public's opinion regarding these issues, and indirectly influence how these ideas will be dealt with by reigning politicians (Brookfield, 1986).

Second, the media can affect the nature of the institutions that make up the social structure of a society (Silverblatt, 2004). Examples of such institutions are marriage, the school system, religion, and the division of labor. The media can influence people's ideas about these institutions, thus instigating a change in behavior or laws that govern them. So if a television talk show host decides to discuss how husbands and wives divide up household chores, this could influence the viewers to change accordingly, which could eventually lead to a change into how the division of labor between men and women occurs in society as a whole.

Finally, the media can influence the cultural make-up of a society. Concretely, this means that by being "storytellers", the media not only inform a population of the norms

and values that dominate a society, but also give them a handle on how to view and use these norms. They are the "primary common source of socialization and everyday information" (Gross, 1985, p. 144), and as such shape people's lifestyles and outlooks. Currently seen as one of the dominant social institutions (Silverblatt, 2004), it is generally acknowledged that the media are equally powerful as institutions such as the church and the family in shaping a culture's norms and values.

Influence on the individual
In this section I will discuss the various ways in which the media can influence an individual: behavior, opinions, and feelings. Additionally, this section will also elaborate on those factors that can mediate the influence the media can have on an individual.

For starters, this aspect refers to the influence that media use can have on a person's behavior. As Bandura (1986) points out; "most human behavior is learned through modeling" (p. 47), and one of the sources of social learning is the modeling provided by the media (see also Bandura, 2002). An example would be when youngsters learn how to use a voting ballot or how to behave during a demonstration from watching people vote on the news. Furthermore, it is also possible that the media influence people's opinions, such as their political preferences, which in turn influence people's behavior, e.g., which political party someone will vote for.

Secondly, the media, through the messages they disseminate, can shape the ideas that people have about the world around them. The media can, among other things, set expectations which influence how people will interpret an event and influence the opinions people have of others (McQuail, 2000). Scheufele (1999) described this as framing, i.e., the process through which the interpretation given to an event by the media is adopted by the audience. An example of the way in which the media can influence people's opinions is the creation of so-called media hypes. This is when, according to Vasterman (2004), the media draw attention to a particular theme or event, and then actively select news that underlines the importance of this theme or event. Subsequently, the media play a role in defining popular sentiment, i.e., they help determine how people interpret an event or issue.

Moreover, the media are also capable of influencing how people feel (Silverblatt, 1995). Media literacy entails an awareness of how profoundly the media can affect the emotions they feel towards certain situations, people, ideas, or events. Hibbing and Theiss-Morse (1998) pointed out that the media are "uniquely capable of affecting reactions to political actors and institutions" (p. 480). Television especially is known to elicit emotional responses because of its visual nature (Graber, 1996).

Finally, media literacy also entails an awareness of the factors that determine to what extent the audience can be influenced by the media. Potter (2004a) identified six factors which could "exert influence on the effects process"(p. 89). The first factor he mentioned was developmental maturity, which refers to the extent to which someone has matured cognitively, emotionally, and morally. Secondly, Potter discussed a person's abilities, which refer to the extent to which people actively display and use the cognitive, moral, and/or emotional standard they have achieved. Although someone might have reached the formal operations stage as defined by Piaget, this does not necessarily

mean that this person will always employ formal thinking. The third factor described by Potter is called drives; i.e., the reasons why people take certain actions pertaining to the media. Additionally, so-called sociological factors play a role in whether or not the media influence someone. Potter explains these as follows: "the degree to which people are socialized by certain institutions influences the degree to which the media can have an effect"(p. 90). For instance, if the media present someone with a statement that is contrary to someone's beliefs they are less likely to believe it than when this statement matches what they have been taught to believe. A fifth mediating factor is people's emotional state. If a person is aroused, their attention is more focused, and thus people are more likely to remember what they, for instance, see on television. Finally, Potter mentioned that media content itself can affect how the media influence people. He described how the media can shape how people look at the world, and what they subsequently learn from the media.

3.1.4 Handling the media

As described in chapter 2, "handling the media" refers to how media users deal with the media content and channels presented to them. First, this entails locating and selecting media, which includes not only the ability to find and use media content, but also the ability to check the reliability of the information uncovered through the media. Secondly, handling the media includes an awareness of people's own media use. Additionally, it refers to the ability to mobilize the media, which includes knowing how to protest against actions taken by media organizations, how to influence media producers, as well as knowing how to acquire media attention for a specific topic. Finally, handling the media entails understanding how and why people interpret media content the way they do.

Locating and selecting
The aspect "locating and selecting" includes the ability to find and use media content, as well as the ability to check the reliability of the information people have located. This aspect is important in light of the discussion surrounding media and democracy because not only do people need to be able to acquire information in order to make decisions, they also need to be able to question the sources where the information they use comes from. The latter means that people realize that different sources have different backgrounds, and different perspectives from which they view reality, and subsequently are less likely to view the information presented to them as the absolute truth.

   First, of all the information seeking strategies people are able to employ (Donohew & Tipton, 1973), as far as media literacy is concerned, only the ability to locate and select media content is considered important. People not only need to know what content is available to them, they also need to be able to find that media content and then decide whether or not they want to use it. Media literacy involves an active attitude when it comes to finding media content, for in order for people to make informed decisions in regard to government-related issues, they need to be well-informed about what is going on in the world around them. As Brants and Neijens (1998) put it; "A prerequisite for a well-functioning democracy…is…a citizenry that has access to and is fed by relevant

information" (p. 149). Therefore it is essential that people know how to locate and select media content.

Secondly, people need to know how to check the reliability of the sources offering information. The ability to assess the quality of the information offered to them is imperative, not in the least because, as Considine (1997) pointed out, the media have become increasingly less pluralistic. One of the ways of assessing the quality of media content is by accessing, comparing, and contrasting different sources of information (Potter, 2004a), an activity that is essential if people are to detect possible bias and create a complete picture of an event or situation.

Managing media use
Media literacy also includes knowing when and for how long one uses the media. Research carried out in the US has indicated that people tend to underestimate the amount of time they spend with the media (Papper, Holmes, & Popovich, 2004), and that the average time people spend with the media is close to twelve hours per day, almost double the amount people think they spend with the media. The media thus play a much larger role in people's lives than people themselves realize. Media literacy entails being aware of the size of this role, and media literate users ought to be able to recount when and for how long they, for instance, watch television, listen to the radio, and use the Internet.

The aspect "managing media use" is relevant in light of the argument surrounding media and democracy because an awareness of how much one uses the media means that people are aware of the role that the media play in their lives; i.e., they would be more aware of the possible influence the media could have on them and their lives.

Mobilizing the media
Another aspect of handling the media is the ability to take action in regard to the media. This aspect includes the ability to voice one's opinion about media content to the organization that produced or aired it, and subsequently influence the people that create media content. This would include knowing what to do if one's favorite show is threatened with cancellation, and one wants to prolong it, or when one wants to change the time slot of a specific program. Research has suggested that viewers are able to reverse producers' decisions (Jenkins, 1992). Finally, this aspect also includes knowing how to attract media interest, which entails people knowing how to get the media to pay attention to a certain issue or event.

This part of dealing with the media is relevant in terms of the discussion surrounding media and democracy because it is important that people realize that they are more than mere receivers of information. People need to not only realize that they can influence media content, but also that they can access the media to proclaim their own ideas and opinions. This will increase their understanding that media content is not a perfect unbiased reflection of reality, but a construction that can be influenced by a variety of factors, including viewers. Moreover, if people know that they too can have their opinions covered by the media, they might be more likely to use the media as a platform for convincing other people of their ideas regarding a specific topic or issue. If many

people were to do this, it would render the media more democratic, a development which could only be considered beneficial.

Interpreting media content

Finally, next to finding and appraising media content, the awareness of one's media use, and the ability to mobilize the media, handling the media also refers to people's interpretation of media content. More specifically, media literacy entails understanding how one reaches a specific interpretation, and why other people may have different interpretations of the same media content.

Understanding how this works is essential if people are to comprehend the role that the media play in contemporary democracies. If people understand that different factors influence how they and others see media messages, they will understand why and how other people might interpret the same message differently. This understanding will help media users realize that media messages do not carry a fixed meaning, and are in fact open to all kinds of interpretations and opinions.

First, how one interprets a media message is the result of many personal factors such as one's age, gender, media preferences, cognitive development, and norms and values (Bandura, 2002; Berger & Luckman, 1966; McQuail & Renckstorf, 2004; Potter, 2004a). For instance, someone who is an ardent Bush-supporter will have a different opinion of an anti-Bush movie such as Fahrenheit 9/11 than someone who did not vote for Bush, while people who are allowed to vote might look differently at political campaign messages than someone who is not yet allowed to vote. Media literacy includes an awareness of the factors that could influence how people interpret media content.

Secondly, because the factors outlined above are different for everyone, different people can and will interpret the same media message differently (Berger & Luckman, 1966; McQuail & Renckstorf, 2004). People from different socio-economic or ethnic backgrounds will, for instance, have different opinions about a news item regarding the level of unemployment of immigrants.

3.2 Conclusion

In this chapter, media literacy has been tailored to fit the focus of this study, namely the link between media and democracy. Only those aspects of media literacy that are relevant from this perspective have been included in this specification. Five aspects that were described in the previous chapter were excluded because they are unrelated to the relationship between media and democracy. These aspects are: an awareness of the regulations that govern media content, awareness of one's motives for using the media, the ability to actively manage one's media use, the capability to use higher quality media content, and the ability to shape the government's decisions regarding the media. The fact that these aspects are excluded from the remainder of this study does not imply that they are less important than those aspects that are included, it merely indicates that they do not match the focus adopted in this study. Appendix 2 shows the different aspects of media literacy tailored towards the focus on the link between media and democracy adopted by this study.

Chapter 4. Developing and testing the measurement instrument

Tailoring the aspects of media literacy towards the link between media and democracy was the start of developing an instrument to measure media literacy. The next step was the development of questions which could measure this concept. This development occurred through a series of phases, and in this chapter I will describe how the questions were developed for each aspect and assessed in several rounds of pretesting. The questions which proved successful in the pretests were then tested in two pilot studies. In section 4.2 I will describe how the pilot studies were conducted, and how the results were used to optimize the questionnaire. At the end of this chapter, I will present the questionnaire as it was conducted in the final survey.

4.1 Pretests

Although I conducted an extensive review of existing literature on media literacy, I was unable to locate any questions used in previous studies that could have been re-used for my research. Therefore, all the questions used in this research were developed and tested solely for this study. The first step towards developing a media literacy measurement instrument was the development of at least three questions for each of the aspects described in section 3.1. To this end, each aspect was scrutinized and its main ideas were summarized in several, usually closed, questions. As discussed in chapter 1, the questions were solely about television non-fiction programs. In order to assess whether these questions make up a valid instrument, pre-testing is a necessity (Hunt, 1982; Snijkers, 2002), therefore the second step includes an evaluation of these questions in two rounds of pretesting. In this section, I will discuss how the pretesting was carried out, as well as its findings.

4.1.1 Pretest 1
Procedure
This first set of questions was tested among 63 12-13 year old children who were all native English speakers. The test included a combination of interviews and written questionnaires. The interviews were carried out using a method similar to both the so-called three-step technique, described by Van der Veer, Ommundsen, Hak, and Larsen (2003), and the cognitive interview (De Leeuw, Borgers, & Smits, 2004; Hunt, 1982). The three-step technique is used to assess the possible interpretations of the questions, and entails asking respondents to say what they are thinking as they answer the question, asking them to, after answering the question, describe exactly what they did, and to conduct an in-depth interview about the concepts measured by the questions. In the cognitive interview, the researcher attempts to find out what is going in the head of a respondent when answering the questions through the use of think-aloud procedures. In the interviews carried out in the first pretest, the respondents were asked to explain what

they were thinking while they thought about the question, and to afterwards explain why they answered the question the way they did.

   In this pretest, I conducted a total of 6 interviews this way, and administered 57 written questionnaires. The respondents who filled out the written questionnaires were asked to, on the front page of the questionnaire, list those questions they thought were hardest to understand, and underline any words they had difficulty comprehending.

Questionnaire

The questionnaire was made up of two kinds of questions which, taken together, covered all relevant aspects of media literacy (described in section 3.1). First, it contained a series of statements about television which were derived from the different aspects outlined in the previous chapter. The respondents were asked to read each statement, and indicate to what extent they agreed with the statement on the five-point scale that accompanied each statement. This five-point scale ranged from 'agree completely' to 'don't agree at all', and also included a 'don't understand the question' option. Second, the questionnaire contained various so-called 'action questions', which asked respondents to do something other than check a five-point scale. An example of such a question is where students were asked to place a series of news items in the order in which they were to appear in a news broadcast. Finally, the respondents were also asked to fill out some personal information, such as their age, grade, gender, and how much television they watched.

Analysis

The analyses used to assess the results of the first pretest were a combination of quantitative and qualitative techniques. The answers to the written questionnaires were used as a starting point for the analysis of the questions. This analysis was based on two assumptions. First, that the respondents' scores on media literacy, like any other concept, would be more or less normally distributed; i.e., a few respondents would get a question completely right, a few would get it completely wrong, and the majority of the respondents would score somewhere in between. Second, the assumption was made that the questions which measured the same aspect were in some way related, and thus that the answers to those questions should correlate. Hence, I looked at both the distributions of the respondents' scores on each question, as well as the crosstabs of the questions that referred to the same aspect. If a question did not produce a normal distribution, if a lot of respondents had scored 'don't understand', or if a question did not correlate with the other questions from the same aspect, it would be flagged for further consideration to assess what the problem could be. After having looked at all the questions this way, I scrutinized each flagged question using the interviews, the comments the respondents had written on the front of their questionnaires, as well as the comments and questions posed by the respondents during and after the administration of the questionnaire. The way in which the interviewed respondents had answered the questions helped determine if the question at hand had a specific problem, such as unclear wording. Additionally, if a question had been mentioned several times during the written administration of the questionnaire, this was also seen as a possible indication of a problem with that question.

Finally, the interviews were also used to assess if there were any questions that posed problems that the statistical scrutiny had missed. Combining all these outcomes, the next step was to cull and replace those questions that did not appear to measure media literacy, or that seemed to not discriminate sufficiently among the respondents, and to think of alternative versions for questions whose wording proved to be unclear or confusing. This in turn led to the creation of a new list of questions.

4.1.2. Pretest 2

Procedure

After pretest 1, the decision was made that more information was needed about how respondents interpreted the questions, and if they understood them all. Various researchers have presented focus groups as an appropriate way to assess and help develop questions, suggesting that focus groups provide more insight into how the respondents think and talk about a topic (De Leeuw, Borgers, & Smits, 2004; Snijkers, 2002). Since the extent to which younger respondents correctly understand all the questions in a questionnaire relies, for a great deal, on the extent to which the questions are formulated in a manner that matches the respondents' way of looking at a topic (Holoday & Turner-Henson, 1989), conducting focus groups seemed a logical next step. Hence I conducted a series of focus groups among 12-13 year olds, assuming that if the questions were understood by and related to the youngest participants in the target audience, the questions would also work for the older children in the target age group. In total I conducted 23 focus groups with 3 students each. The participants were all native English speakers.

During the focus group, the respondents were asked to answer each question, and afterwards answer the following questions: 'why did you answer the way you did', 'what does the question mean according to you', 'can you rewrite the question in your own words', and 'how would you explain the question to someone younger than you'. The respondents were asked to write their answers down individually first, and then discuss their answers with the group. Each focus group was tape-recorded. The purpose of these questions was to establish if a question was too easy or too difficult, and to assess the extent to which the respondents understood the question.

Questionnaire

This pretest used those questions from the previous pretest that were not removed or changed as a result of the analysis results, those questions which had been reworded, and the few newly developed questions. Because the interviews conducted during pretest 1 had provided sufficient insight into whether students understood the 'action questions', these were not included in this pretest. All focus groups received the same questions, but in a different order, so each question was discussed by at least three groups.

Analysis

The analysis that was conducted on the data from this pretest was more qualitative in nature than the analysis used in pretest 1. The data were used to answer two queries about the questions: first, which questions did the respondents not understand,

and secondly, which questions were too easy. Thus the respondents' answers were transcribed, and I looked for questions that the majority of the respondents answered incorrectly, and for questions which most respondents answered correctly. If most respondents had answered a question incorrectly, I would assess if this was because the question was difficult to understand, or if this merely indicated a gap in their understanding of television. To establish whether a question was difficult to understand, several steps were take. First, I looked at how the respondents had reworded the question, what they thought the question meant, and secondly, I read through the transcript to see if respondents had indicated that they did not understand the questions. When this revealed that a question had been hard to understand for the majority of the respondents, this question would be removed from the set.

4.1.3 General findings pretests
Although it is not feasible to list every single change made to the questionnaire during the pretest phase, there were six important changes that were made to the questionnaire, and which were a direct result of the findings of the two pre-tests.

First, some of the earlier questions used in the questionnaire referred to specific television stations or television programs. Since the intention was to create a questionnaire that would work for many different groups of respondents, it needed to be as generic as possible. Any references to specific programs or channels would increase the chance of a missing response due to lack of familiarity with the program, thus reducing the usefulness of the measurement instrument. Therefore, all specific references were removed, and in the two single cases where a question did refer to a specific television station and news program, these were both described in enough detail for respondents who were unfamiliar with either one to provide an opinion.

Second, the first versions of the questionnaire contained questions that used the word 'I'. These questions would refer to the influence of the media on an individual, or an individual's media use. The pretests showed, however, that these questions did not work because the respondents would take them to refer to them personally. This meant that it was impossible to establish a correct answer, because it is impossible to be aware of the specific situation of each individual respondent. Hence, all questions were de-personalized, and 'I' was replaced by words such as 'people'.

Third, the pretests also singled out questions that were too sensitive, either in a political, or in a cultural sense. For instance, it became apparent that any questions that mentioned the events of September 11, 2001 would not produce any useful responses. The interviews conducted in pretest 1 made it clear that the respondents were still so overawed and shocked by these events and all of their consequences, that they were unable to answer the question properly, and would instead focus on how they felt about what happened that day. Therefore, I decided to remove any questions that could possibly trigger an emotional response.

The fourth major change included the alteration of most negatively formulated statements. The pretests showed that negatively worded statements confused the respondents. They would know what the answer was, but they would not be sure of how

to mark it on the answer scale. This finding has been previously reported (De Leeuw, 2003; De Leeuw, Bogers, & Smits, 2004), and thus most of these statements were turned around into positive statements. In some cases, however, this was not possible, mainly because this would make its wording too unnatural. In the end, the questionnaire used in the first pilot only included seven negatively worded questions. In these few cases where I had to leave in a negatively worded statement, I attempted to make the statement as easy to understand as possible. This was accomplished by keeping the statement as brief as possible, and by making the negativity very obvious by using such terms as 'never' and 'nothing', so respondents were unlikely to misread the question as being positively formulated.

Fifth, I changed the five-point scale that was used to accompany the statements. The scale (a five-point scale, including the points 'agree completely', 'agree', 'don't agree/don't disagree', 'don't agree' and 'don't agree at all', and which also included a 'don't understand the question' option) turned out to pose several problems. For starters, although this five-point scale is utilized in many other studies, through the pretests it became apparent that an answer scale that would measure if the respondents thought the statement was true or not, would be more effective in establishing media literacy. The pretests showed that when asking respondents to agree or disagree with a statement, they would at times answer according to how they thought something should be done, not how they knew it was actually carried out. Hence, changing to an answer scale which asked respondents if a media-related activity does or does not occur appeared to be more useful. Additionally, the use of a midpoint posed several problems. For one thing, it was confusing for many respondents, especially since the answer scale was also accompanied by an option they could check if they did not understand the question. Furthermore, when respondents would check the midpoint, it was impossible to ascertain anything about their level of media literacy regarding this specific question. The midpoint indicates a neutral position, and thus it was not possible to draw any conclusions about whether or not they agreed or disagreed with the statement, which meant that it was not possible to infer whether or not they knew anything about the topic covered by the question. Moreover, Borgers, Hox, and Sikkel (2004) argue that the neutral midpoint is usually used by those who are undecided, and that children as well as adolescents are tempted to use the neutral midpoint in an attempt to please the researcher. Their research, where the same questionnaire was administered to the same group of children twice, showed that offering a neutral midpoint in an answer scale had a negative effect on the reliability of the question. According to their findings, four is the optimal amount of response options with younger respondents, i.e., the number that would produce the most consistent results.

Thus, a new answer scale needed to be developed. Besides meeting the requirements outlined above, this answer scale, for purposes of analyses, needed to contain options which ranged from 'most right' to 'a little right', to 'very little right', to 'least right'. The reason for this was that if I would have created an answer scale where answers on one end would both be correct, and answers on the other end would both be wrong, the variable would have been dichotomized, which in turn, could lead to problems later

on in the analysis. The answer scale that was developed for the pilots and the survey consisted of four points, namely 'unlikely', 'somewhat unlikely', 'somewhat likely', and 'likely'. Additionally, although some researchers (Shoemaker, Eichholz, & Skewes, 2002) have pointed out that the 'don't know' option could be used by unmotivated respondents as an easy way out, I did decide to include a 'don't know' option. This was based on three reasons. First, other researchers (Holaday & Turner-Henson, 1989) posited that in the case of children and adolescents, including this option prevents the respondents from resorting to the use of acquiescence response sets; i.e., from agreeing with the researchers in an attempt to please them. Additionally, in this research, including such an option does make sense. The questionnaire does not ask for a respondent's opinions, but it tests their knowledge, hence it is plausible that some respondents may not know the answer to some of the questions. Having them guess an answer would only decrease the quality of the results. Moreover, research has shown that the 'don't know' option tends to be abused more when the questions are cognitively too complex for the respondents (Shoemaker, Eichholz, & Skewes, 2002). Because the questions were extensively pretested, I was fairly confident that most of the questions would not be too complex. However, in order to reduce the chance that respondents would abuse this option anyway, there was a space between the four-point scale and the 'don't know' box, which was printed in a smaller font than the rest of the four-point scale. Additionally, during the introduction, and again with the introduction of each new topic, the respondents were told that they were to only use this option if they absolutely did not know the answer.

Finally, the results of the pretests also pointed to several problems in the wording of some of the questions. A few of the words used were too difficult or unclear. An example of unclear wording was the use of time-references such as 'occasionally'. As pointed out by De Leeuw and Otter (1995) using such terms leads to unreliable answers, since everyone will have a different interpretation of when something is occasional and when it is not. Hence these words were removed or altered, and every effort was made to make the questions understandable for the entire target group, and especially the youngest respondents (age 11).

4.2 Pilot studies
After the analysis of the second pretest had been completed, I was left with a list of acceptable questions which covered all of the aspects of the four arrows presented in Figure 2.1 (see Appendix 3 for an overview of the questions used per aspect). These questions were to be assessed one last time in two different pilot studies. Before I was able to carry out these studies, though, two things needed to be taken care of.

First, both pretests had made it clear that the questionnaire was far too long. Therefore the decision was made to, in the remainder of the project, focus on developing a questionnaire that was solely geared towards the production of media content and the influence of the media on its users (arrows B and C). The decision to do so was inspired by the fact that the main reason for focusing on media literacy in this study is the link between media and democracy. From this perspective, people's

awareness of how media content is created and can be biased, and how media users can be influenced by media content is of greater importance than knowledge about media influence on producers and people's dealing with the media.

Secondly, although the pretests had resulted in a list of questions that appeared to work well, all the culling had also left some of the aspects of the production of media content and the influence of the media on its users uncovered. Therefore, keeping all the lessons learned from the two pretests in mind, I developed additional questions to make sure that each aspect was at least covered by three questions.

4.2.1 Questionnaire

The style of the questionnaire used in the two pilots was very similar to the questionnaire used in pretest 1. The first page of the questionnaire contained an introduction which explained how the respondents were supposed to answer the different types of questions. The introduction also thanked the respondents for filling out the questionnaire, and points out that if they have any questions, they should raise their hand.

Types of questions

The questionnaire consisted of three types of questions. The majority of the questionnaire consisted of a series of statements regarding television, accompanied by the four-point scale described in section 4.1.3. Each page contained a maximum of eight statements, at least one of which was a response set breaker. This refers to a question where the correct answer is on the other side of the four-point scale from the correct answers to the other questions on that same page. Questions such as these are necessary to pinpoint those respondents who fall victim to using response sets, which occurs when respondents consistently give the same answer (Holaday & Turner, 1989; Wentland & Smith, 1993). This could be attributed to two causes. On the one hand, it could be the result of a strategy known as 'satisficing', whereby the respondents provide a superficial and/or socially desirable answer (Borgers, Hox, & Sikkel, 2003). On the other hand, response sets can also occur because respondents were bored or rebellious. Because in either case the questions do not serve as a test of the respondents' knowledge, such respondents need to be filtered out. Hence, these response set breakers allow the researcher to find and, if necessary, remove those respondents who constantly checked the same option. The response set breakers were either questions that just happened to have an answer that was the opposite of all the others on the page, or were so-called filler questions, i.e., questions which were specifically constructed for the purpose of preventing the occurrence of response sets.

Additionally, the questionnaire contained seven 'action questions' that measured knowledge which could not be measured using the four-point scale. Two of these questions asked respondents to list five fiction and five non-fiction programs. Another question asked respondents to place five news items in the order in which they would be broadcast on the BBC news and on CNN. One question presented respondents with four sets of two identical stills, where one technical aspect was different (medium shot

v. close-up, low angle v. high angle, focused on foreground v. focused on background, and lighting from above v. lighting from below). The respondents were then asked to describe the differences between each set. Another question asked respondents to indicate how real or acted certain television programs were. Furthermore, a question presented respondents with five statements from the news which were accompanied by five sets of two pictures. Respondents were then asked to identify the picture the news would use according to them, and explain why they had chosen this picture. The last action question asked respondent to name their favorite program and then describe different groups of people's personal opinion of this program. Finally, respondents were asked to fill out several questions that pertained to their media use, school performance, and personal characteristics such as nationality, gender, and age.

Order of questions
The order in which the questions were asked was, first of all, influenced by the fact that certain questions referred to the same aspect of media literacy, and that therefore the answer the respondents gave to one question could influence the answer they gave to the other question(s) (Dillman, 2000; Wänke & Schwarz, 1997). Consequently, questions which belonged to the same aspect were spread as far apart as possible. Instead of grouping the questions according to the aspects from the conceptualization, the questions were grouped according to more thematic topics such as 'documentaries', 'politics', and 'the news'. Each new topic was introduced using a few short sentences that explained to the respondents what the next topic was about and outlined what they were supposed to do (De Leeuw, 2003; Dillman, 2000).

Secondly, the order in which questions were posed was also influenced by the need to keep the respondents motivated enough that they would not resort to giving superficial answers (De Vaus, 1996). Therefore the questionnaire started off with three easy filler questions about with whom the respondents usually watched television, and two action questions which asked the respondent to write down five fiction and five non-fiction programs. The purpose of placing three filler questions right at the beginning of the questionnaire was to ensure that students could 'practice' and ask questions about the use of the four-point scale with questions that would not be utilized in the analysis. Additionally, these three questions were fairly easy, and according to Holaday and Turner-Henson (1989), starting the questionnaire off with easy questions will motivate the younger respondents and increase their collaboration. Moreover, the regular questions, which were accompanied by the four-point scale described above, were alternated with the seven action questions which asked the respondents to do something completely different (Holaday & Turner-Henson, 1989). The last two sections of the questionnaire contained a list of questions regarding the respondents' media use, as well as a list of questions regarding their age, nationality, the countries they had lived in so far, their parents' education, and school performance (see Appendix 4 for the questionnaire used in pilot 1, and Appendix 5 for the questionnaire used in pilot 2).

4.2.2 Procedure

As mentioned earlier, the pilot study actually consisted of two different studies. The first pilot was conducted among 153 11-14 year olds, while the second pilot was carried out among 68 16-18 year olds; i.e., a total of 221 respondents. All the respondents were native or near-native English speakers. The reason for working with two different age groups was to cover the extremities of the target age group of the measurement instrument. This way, the questions that proved to adequately measure media literacy would be applicable to both the younger as well as the older end of the age spectrum. The two studies were carried out a few weeks apart, which allowed for some minor changes to be made in the questionnaire before it was tested in the second pilot. Appendix 6 presents a list which compares the questions used in both pilots.

4.2.3 Analysis

First pilot

Once the first pilot had been carried out, it was possible to use its outcomes to tweak the questionnaire before it was tested in the second pilot. The following information was used to determine which questions did not do well in the first pilot, and deserved to be 'flagged' for further consideration: the comments made and questions posed by the respondents, and the frequencies of the scores on the different questions. First, I scrutinized the frequencies of the scores on each questions. Questions whose scores were not at all normally distributed or which had a large number of missings or 'don't know's' were flagged for further scrutiny and possible alteration or deletion. Second, I read through the notes I had taken while administering the questionnaire, which listed all the comments made and questions posed by the respondents. These pointed out those questions that the respondents had experienced as difficult or problematic, which were subsequently flagged as well. The combination of these two flagging procedures was used to assess which questions needed to be deleted and which needed to be altered and how. For instance, question 52 (see Appendix 4) asked the participants to respond to the statement "Television influences how younger children treat their parents". The notes taken during the administration revealed that a lot of the respondents were not sure what was meant by "younger children"; they doubted whether the question meant younger than themselves, or younger than the researcher (see also De Leeuw, 2003). To avoid further confusion, the question was thus changed to read "Television influences how children under the age of 12 treat their parents". Another similar example is question 56 which presented respondents with the following statement: "Television influences how children our age treat their parents". The analysis revealed that respondents had a hard time with this question, and that this was probably attributable to the vague descriptor "our age". Therefore, the question was altered to: "Television influences how children between the ages of 12 and 18 treat their parents".

In addition to the changes made in several questions, a few new questions were also added in before the second pilot (see Appendix 6 for a list of the questions used in pilot 1 and 2). Although these questions all fit with one of the aspects described earlier on in this chapter, their purpose was to serve as a response set breaker, i.e., to make sure the respondents who mindlessly fill out the same answer category could be filtered out.

Second pilot
Once the second pilot had been carried out, the data from the first and the second pilot were merged to enlarge the number of respondents, and thus increase the reliability of the results. The answers on the four-point scales were, where necessary, recoded so that the most correct answer scored a '4', the partly correct answer received a '3', the partly incorrect answer received a '2', and the completely incorrect answer was scored a '1'. The questions which had been changed in between the two pilots were analyzed using only the respondents from the pilot in which they were administered.

The purpose of the analysis of the data from both pilots was similar to the analysis of the first pilot, namely to assess which questions contributed little or nothing to the measurement of media literacy, and which could therefore be excluded from the questionnaire. To this end, a set of analyses was conducted which, in two separate steps, ascertained which questions deserved a 'flag', i.e., which questions needed to be singled out for further scrutiny. A question was flagged if it met one of two criteria tied to the two steps of analysis.

Reliability analysis. The first step of the analysis entailed reliability analyses conducted among three different samples: the combined sample of the two pilots, the sample of the first pilot, and the sample of the second pilot. The decision was made to carry out two separate reliability analyses for the questions that measured the respondents' knowledge of media production and the questions that assessed respondents' knowledge of media influence. This because they each focused on a different dimension of the relationship between producer, media, and user, and were measured using a different set of questions. These analyses revealed which questions did not fit either scale, i.e., which contributed little or nothing to the constructs represented by either the production of media content or the influence of the media on its users. Because the sample with the older students was considerably smaller than the sample of the younger students, the reliability analysis was, in the first analysis with the combined sample, carried out using a weighted sample. The reason for this decision was to ensure that the skewed distribution of age would not adversely affect the results of the analyses. Moreover, I assumed that the way in which the questions reveal people's levels of media literacy is not the same for both older and younger respondents. It is possible that some questions are more discriminating for older respondents, whereas other questions do a better job measuring media literacy among younger respondents. Therefore, in a second and third analysis I also looked at how the questions worked for the age groups separately. This also gave me the opportunity to check those questions which were specifically developed after the first pilot, and thus only used with the older respondents of the second pilot.

The results from this first step were dealt with as follows. If a question's item total correlation was below .10, it was singled out. This decision was based on the fact that the questions that made it into the survey had already been tested extensively. In this part of the analysis, the idea was to merely check if there were no anomalies among the questions included in the survey, and an item total correlation below .10 definitely indicated that the question did not contribute anything to the scale, and therefore

qualified as an anomaly. The reliability analysis carried out here thus served as a final check, hence there was no need to adopt extremely stringent statistical cut-off points.

Comparison of older and younger respondents. The second step of the analysis entailed a t-test (one-tailed, p<.05) to determine how the older respondents scored in comparison to the younger ones. This analysis was based on the assumption that children's knowledge and skills generally increase with age. Therefore, questions where younger respondents would significantly outperform older respondents in terms of media literacy required further consideration. So if the analysis indicated that the younger respondents performed significantly better on a question than older children, or if it showed that the younger respondents scored just as well as the older respondents, this question was assigned a flag indicating the need for further scrutiny.

Treatment of flagged questions. Once a question had received a flag, reasons for its less than optimal performance were determined as follows. First, I looked at the distribution of the scores on this question. The idea behind this was that questions had to be able to discriminate between people with a high and a low level of media literacy, and that therefore a good question would lead to a more or less normal distribution of scores; i.e., one that was not too skewed. If the distribution of scores showed that the majority of the respondents got a question either right or wrong, this indicated that the reason why the question performed poorly in either the reliability analysis or the t-test could be because it did little to discriminate between people with a high and a low level of media literacy. Second, if the distribution did not give any clues about the question's scores on either or both analyses, the comments made by the respondents regarding this question, as well as the wording of the question were also considered.

So, for instance, one question in both pilot studies consisted of a series of subquestions which asked respondents to indicate how real or acted several programs were (question 33 in the first pilot, and question 34 in the second pilot, see Appendix 4 and 5). This question was supposed to measure the aspect "professional activities" of the production of media content. One of these subquestions asked respondents to indicate how real or acted the news was. This question was flagged in both analyses. The reliability analysis (of the weighted sample) indicated that the item-total correlation of the question was -.06, which indicated that the question contributed little to measuring people's knowledge of media production. Additionally, younger respondents scored just as well on this question as the older respondents. The distribution of the scores revealed that the average score on this question was very high. The reason the question did not do well in either analysis can thus be attributed to the fact that it is probably far too easy. Hence, the decision was made to remove this question from the questionnaire. However, whenever a question was assigned a flag, this did not automatically mean the question would be removed from the questionnaire. For instance, in both pilot studies, a question read "differences in television content is one of the reasons why people in different countries think differently about issues such as gay marriages" (question 73 in pilot 1 and question 76 in pilot 2, see Appendix 4 and 5), received a flag because the question

did not appear to discriminate between older and younger respondents. However, the reliability analysis (of the weighted sample) showed that the item-total correlation for this question was .26. This suggests that the question does contribute to the measurement of how much people know about media influence on its users. Additionally, the distribution of the scores was fairly normal. So although this question, in this sample, appeared to not really discriminate between older and younger respondents, it did do well in other respects, and no reason could be found for the lack of discrimination. Therefore, it was decided that there was not enough reason to remove the question from the questionnaire, and it was retained.

Although the procedure used to single out questions for further scrutiny included two criteria, in the end it turned out that the reliability analysis was more of a determining factor than the comparison of older and younger respondents. Of the questions that were deleted from the questionnaire, the vast majority were removed because they had an item total correlation below .10. Several were removed after they did not meet both criteria, but no questions were removed solely because younger respondents scored better on a question than older respondents did. In the end, 27 questions were removed.

4.3 Final questionnaire
Once the above-outlined analysis had been completed, and questions which did not work were removed, the final questionnaire was drawn up. The style of the questionnaire did not change at all; the introductory questions, the introductions, the use of response set breakers, the four-point scales, the use of 'action' questions for certain aspects, and the list of personal questions at the end all remained the same. Appendix 7 includes an overview of how the different aspects described in section 3.1 were operationalized for the final survey, and Appendix 6 lists the questions posed in both pilots and the survey.

Chapter 5. Establishing the reliability and validity of the questionnaire

This chapter will outline how the questionnaire constructed during the pilot studies described in the previous chapter was tested regarding its reliability and validity. This testing occurred in two ways; first, the questionnaire was administered to 387 11-18 year old students. Second, a teacher validation study was carried out to further assess the content validity of the questionnaire.

In this chapter I will first discuss the sampling and the protocol of the survey. Next, I will discuss how the questionnaire's validity and reliability was analyzed, and describe the findings from the teacher validation study.

5.1. Survey: Sampling, questionnaire, and procedure
In this section I will describe how and with whom the survey was carried out. First, the sampling procedure and the respondents who participated in the study will be described. Next, I will discuss how the survey results were analyzed.

5.1.1 Sampling
The sample used for the survey was a nonrandom convenience sample of 387 students between the ages of 10 and 19 years old. Because the questionnaire was specifically developed for middle and high school students between the ages of 11 and 18 (grades 6 through 12), selecting this specific age group was imperative for an accurate testing of the questionnaire. The sample used in the study was not representative for all English-speaking youngsters in grades 6 through 12, but was based on the availability of the respondents which was the result of the willingness of schools to cooperate with the research. However, as pointed out by de Vaus (1996), non-random samples are satisfactory in research such as this, where the aim is to test questionnaires. Nunnally (1978) pointed out that having a minimum of five persons per item is acceptable when establishing the reliability of an item. The survey tested here used a total of 53 items, which would bring the acceptable minimum level of respondents to 265. The sample size used in this research (n=387) far exceeds this requirement.

Nearly all the participants were native or near-native speakers of English, and were enrolled in one of three English-language schools in France and the Netherlands. Two of the participating schools are international schools, the other school is an American school. The difference between the schools is in name only, for all three schools cater mainly to children of expatriates and offer both an American curriculum (e.g., Advanced Placement courses, SAT preparation and exams) and the International Baccalaureate, an internationally recognized curriculum for secondary school students. None of the participating schools had a media education curriculum in place. Of the 387 respondents, 195 were female, and 187 were male.
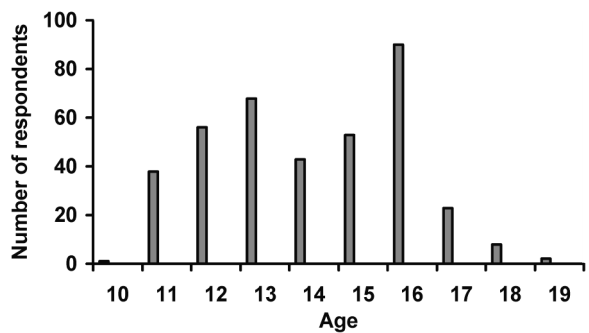
Figure 5.1. Distribution of age in the sample.

The division between middle school (grades 6, 7, 8) and high school (grades 9, 10, 11, 12) was equal: 193 participants were in middle school while 194 students attended high school. See Figure 5.1 for a more detailed view of the distribution of age in the sample.

A total of 116 respondents came from school 1, an international school in France, while 91 respondents attended school number 2, the one American school. Finally, 180 respondents attended school number 3, the second international school, located in the Netherlands (see Figure 5.2).
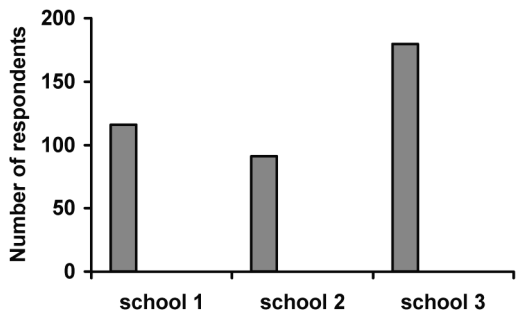
Figure 5.2. Distribution of respondents between participating schools (1=International; 2=American; 3= International).

Finally, as shown in the table in Appendix 8, the respondents came from a wide variety of countries. The respondents came from a total of 50 different countries, with the USA, the Netherlands and the UK in the lead. Many respondents also indicated to have dual, or in some cases even triple, nationality.

5.1.2. Questionnaire

The style of the questionnaire used in the survey was almost the same as the questionnaire used in the two pilots. As explained in chapter 4, after the pilot had been

completed, those questions that did not seem to measure media literacy were removed. In the end, a total of twenty-seven questions were removed, while eight were slightly changed, and two new questions were added in. One of the new questions concerned the respondents' personal media use, while the other new question was created solely as a filler question, i.e., a question created to render visible the occurrence of response sets. In total, respondents were asked to fill out seventy-eight questions. Besides removing, changing, and adding in some questions, the only changes made to the questionnaire for the survey was that the order of the questions was changed, while the style and layout of the questionnaire remained exactly the same. Again, the questionnaire was made up of three types of questions. The first type of question was a series of statements about television accompanied by the four-point scale described in chapter 4. Each page contained a maximum of eight statements, at least one of which was a response set breaker. Furthermore, the questionnaire contained five questions which required the respondents to do something other than check an answer scale, so-called 'action questions'. The final pages of the questionnaire were devoted to questions about the respondent's media use and other personal characteristics such as age, gender, grades in school, nationality, countries lived in, and whether or not they took extra English classes to improve their understanding of the language.

Similar to the pilot studies, the order in which the questions were asked was influenced by two requirements. First, the need to keep those questions where the answer on one question could influence the answer to another question as far apart as possible. Secondly, an attempt was made to keep the questionnaire as interesting as possible by evenly distributing those questions the respondents were expected to find enjoyable. This meant that after a few pages of statements, an 'action question' was inserted. The intention behind this was to keep the respondents motivated and have them refrain from giving superficial and rushed answers. A complete version of the questionnaire can be found in Appendix 9, while Appendix 7 lists the questions posed in the survey per aspect, as well as presenting the correct answer to each question.

5.1.3 Procedure
The questionnaires were filled out during class-time. Before the questionnaires were handed out, the researcher (who was present in each class where the questionnaire was administered) was introduced, and the respondents were given a brief explanation of the purpose of the investigation. Once every respondent had received a questionnaire, they were asked to turn to the page containing the introduction. Using an overhead sheet with a copy of the introduction, the researcher then read out the introduction, using examples to explain how the respondents should use the answer scales. Any questions about the four-point scales or any other aspect of the questionnaire were also answered at this time. When students had no more questions, and the researcher felt the students had understood the explanation, the students were then told to turn to begin filling out the questionnaire. The respondents were given approximately 45 minutes to complete the questionnaire, and once 40 minutes had passed, they were informed they had about 5 minutes left. If respondents needed extra time to finish the questionnaire, they were

given as much time as they needed[2].

In the case of the 6th grade participants, the procedure was slightly different. Instead of telling the respondents to fill out the questionnaire on their own, the questionnaire was read out to them. The researcher paused after each statement or question, giving the respondents time to answer the question. The reason this method was employed among the youngest respondents was because the first pilot had revealed that the youngest respondents sometimes had a hard time focusing on the material; i.e., they would get distracted and not finish the questionnaire before the end of the class. This method ensured they would all finish the questionnaire.

During the administration of the questionnaire, any questions from the respondents that could be dealt with without giving the answer to the statement or question away were answered. All questions and remarks made by the respondents were noted down and used during the analysis. When a respondent had finished filling out the questionnaire, the questionnaire was handed back to the researcher, and the respondent was asked to remain quiet until the other respondents had also completed their questionnaire. Once all the questionnaires had been returned to the researcher, they were placed in an envelope which was taped shut. The respondents were then, as a group, asked what they thought about the questionnaire, and if they had any comments. All their remarks were recorded as well.

5.1.4 Scoring

When all the data had been collected, the answers on the four-point scales were scored so that the most correct answer received a '4', the partly correct answer received a '3', the partly incorrect answer received a '2', and the completely incorrect answer received a '1'. Where necessary, answers to open questions, such as the 'action questions', or some of the personal questions, were recoded into quantitative scores. This meant that the answers were categorized, and each category received a number which was then deemed the respondent's score on that question. In some cases this was fairly straightforward, for instance, one question asked which country the respondent was from, in which case each country was assigned its own number. In other cases, this required more in-depth consideration. For instance, the question where the respondents were asked to explain why they thought the news would use a certain picture to accompany a statement required careful consideration of what could be deemed a correct answer, and what could not. For a more in-depth description of how this and other questions were quantified, please see Appendix 10. Additionally, an analysis was conducted to determine if any respondents had resorted to using response sets, that is whether respondents had consistently filled out the same score for each statement (Holoday & Turner-Henson, 1989; see also Wentland & Smith, 1993). The results showed, however, that this was not the case. Once the data had thus been prepared for analysis it was possible to start looking at the actual results of the study and the quality of the questionnaire.

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[2] However, if respondents were very behind in filling out the questionnaire, they would, when the end of the period was approaching, be told to skip question 56 and proceed to the questions about their personal characteristics. If a respondent was extremely behind, they would be told to skip question 42 as well, since these two questions usually took the longest to answer.

5.2 Reliability

To be useful, a measurement must be both reliable and valid. A measurement instrument needs to measure what it intends to measure (validity), and it needs to do so in a manner that is consistent over time; i.e., it needs to be reliable (Nunnally, 1978; Wimmer & Dominick, 2003). In this section, I will discuss the analyses used to establish the reliability of the questionnaire.

Reliability is said to consist of three different components; stability, internal consistency and cross-test reliability (Wimmer & Dominick, 2003). In this study, reliability was assessed in terms of the internal consistency of the questionnaire. Internal consistency centers on the "consistency of performance among the items that compose a scale" (Wimmer & Dominick, 2003, p. 58). This study split media literacy into four independent constructs, namely the four arrows in Figure 2.1 which each focused on a different dimension of the relationship between producers, the media, and the user. Only two of these dimensions were measured in the pilot studies and the survey, namely the production of media content and the influence of the media on its users, and each arrow was measured by a separate set of questions. Therefore, the decision was made to establish the internal consistency per dimension by assessing the Cronbach's alpha of the two sets of questions, or two scales, separately. These analyses revealed how much, or how little, each question contributed to the measurement of the respective scale.

The procedure used to highlight problematic questions and decide whether or not they were worth keeping as part of the questionnaire was similar to the procedure used in chapter 4 (see section 4.2.3). Any questions whose item total correlations were below .10 were singled out for further scrutiny. Once a question had been singled out, I, like in the pilot studies, first looked at the distribution of the answers. Media literacy is expected to be normally distributed with a few people getting a question right, and a few people getting a question completely wrong. Therefore a good question would lead to a more or less normal distribution of scores; i.e., one that is not too skewed. If the distribution of scores showed that the majority of the respondents got a question either right or wrong, this indicated the reason why the question performed poorly in the reliability analysis. The comments made by the respondents were also scrutinized to ascertain whether that particular question had raised a lot of criticism. If a question did not seem to adequately measure media literacy, it was removed from the set.

This procedure was carried out for both arrows. The results will be discussed below.

5.2.1 Reliability analysis: Media production

The questionnaire tested in the survey contained 26 questions which measured the different aspects that made up media production. These questions were all entered into a reliability analysis, and the three questions that were removed were flagged because their item total correlation was below .10. The low item total correlation suggests that none of these questions really contributed to the measurement of people's understanding of media production. Hence it would seem that these questions were more filler questions than anything else.

The first two questions that were filtered out by the reliability analysis, were questions

3 and 4 (see Appendix 9 for a complete version of the questionnaire used in the survey). These two questions address the respondents' understanding of the difference between fiction and non-fiction. Question 3 asked respondents to name four programs or channels which show only real events. Question 4 requested that respondents name four programs which are acted. Regarding question 3, the item total correlation was -.01, and a histogram of the answers revealed that there was very little variance in the answers. A total of 128 respondents had filled out four correct programs or channels, 139 respondents had filled out three correct answers, while only 57 respondents had filled out two correct programs or channels, and 36 respondents had only written down one correct program or channel. Additionally, 33 respondents scored '0' on this question. It would thus appear that the vast majority of the respondents knew of at least three non-fiction programs, which indicates that the question was too easy for most respondents.

The second question to be flagged was question nr. 4. The item total correlation of this question with the scale was .06, and the histogram of the answers indicated that this question was too easy for the majority of the respondents. A total of 181 respondents were able to fill out four correct programs. Next, 59 respondents filled out three correct answers, while 25 respondents wrote down two correct programs, and 43 respondents filled out one program. A large number of respondents left this question blank; a total of 79. This large number of missing values could be due to the fact that the question demands that respondents list programs off the top of their heads, something they might not be able to think of at that moment. Thinking of a fiction program could take some effort, however, the inability to do so is not necessarily a sign that a respondent is not media literate. The reason why the number of missing values is lower for question 3 could be because there are several non-fiction programs and channels that come to mind fairly easily, such as the news or CNN. In short, this question appeared to be extremely easy for the majority of the respondents, while a large number of respondents were unable to think of a fiction program. Hence this question was also excluded.

Moreover, the analysis of these two questions revealed another important finding. When the answers given to these two questions were coded, it became apparent that a number of respondents had, for question 3, filled out reality programs which could be classified as both fiction and non-fiction. Programs such as MTV's Made or Meet the Barkers are presented as non-fiction, but do raise the question how scripted and planned they are. So although these programs are non-fiction in the sense that they are presented as a slice of reality, they cannot be accepted as fully non-fictional, on a par with, for instance, the news, because a number of events in these programs are scripted, rehearsed, and acted. This is an issue that was unforeseen, but one that does point to the importance of measuring whether students understand the distinction between fiction and non-fiction and how programs such as these blur that distinction. However, the questions used in this questionnaire are not an effective way to do so.

The third and final question that was flagged during the reliability analysis was question 28. This question presents respondents with a list of five news items, and asks them to place them in the order in which they would be broadcast on both CNN and the BBC news. The item total correlation was .03, and the frequencies of

the scores indicated 178 respondents gave a perfect answer to this question. A total of 157 respondents did place the items in a different order, but the order was incorrect. Only one respondent placed the items in the same order, and twenty respondents left this question blank. These results indicate that the question was neither too easy nor too difficult. However, the low item total correlation indicates that the question barely correlates with the other questions in the scale and contributes extremely little to the measurement of the respondents' understanding of media production. Hence, the question serves as little more than a filler question. Subsequently, the decision was made to exclude this question.

After these three questions were removed, the Cronbach's alpha was .74. The removal of any other questions would lead to either a decrease in the Cronbach's alpha, or in two cases, to an insubstantial increase. According to several researchers (De Vaus, 1996; Nunnally, 1978) an alpha of .70 is acceptable when determining whether an instrument is reliable. Therefore, it is possible to conclude that the questions developed to measure the understanding of media production make up a reliable scale.

5.2.2 Reliability analysis: Media influence on its users

The same procedure was applied to the scale that measured respondents' awareness of media influence on its users. Before the reliability analysis was carried out, the scale that measured the respondents' understanding of media influence on its users contained 27 questions. The analysis showed that only one question had an item total correlation below .10. Question 40, which asked respondents to assess if the statement "parents have the same opinion about television as their children do" is correct, had an item total correlation of .07. The distribution of the scores indicated that the majority of the respondents gave the correct answer (n=225), 102 respondents scored a '3', which is a somewhat correct answer. Only 50 respondents gave an incorrect answer; 8 respondents scored a '1', and 42 respondents scored a '2'. A total of 10 respondents did not answer this question. It would thus appear that this question does not discriminate sufficiently. The combination of the question contributing little to the measurement of the respondents' understanding of media influence on its users, and the fact that it was probably too easy for most respondents led to the decision to cut this question.

After this question was removed, the Cronbach's alpha for the questions that measure people's knowledge of media influence on its users was .81. The removal of any other questions would either result in a lower Cronbach's alpha, or in one case, to an insubstantial increase. This Cronbach's alpha is more than sufficient to state that the questions developed to measure people's understanding of media influence on its users make up a reliable scale.

In Appendix 11, a list of the questions that were left over after this analysis are presented per aspect of media literacy. As shown by this list, only the distinction between fiction and non-fiction is no longer covered by the questions left over after the reliability analysis. All media literacy research to date that deals with the distinction between fiction and non-fiction approaches it in the same manner as the questions in this study did, namely under the assumption that fiction and non-fiction are two distinct categories

that people must recognize. However, the findings from this study showed that due to developments in television programs, measuring the understanding of this distinction has become increasingly difficult. Questions that measure this distinction need to account for the current blurring of the boundaries between fiction and non-fiction, a notion new to the field of media literacy. However, this lack of questions to measure respondents' understanding of the distinction between fiction and non-fiction barely impacts the extent to which the measurement instrument measures the different aspects of the production of media content, since this distinction only makes up one of the sub-aspects of the aspect called "codes and conventions". This aspect, which includes two other sub-aspects, is still measured by a large number of other questions.

5.3 Validity

Validity is a concept that consists of multiple dimensions. Assessing the validity of an instrument establishes whether or not it measures what it intends to; "validity refers to the extent to which an empirical measure adequately reflects the real meaning of the concept under consideration" (Babbie, 1995, p. 127). There are several different types of validity, two of which will be used to assess the validity of the measure for media literacy, namely construct validity and content validity. The validity of the measurement instrument developed in this study has already been partly addressed, albeit implicitly, in chapters 2 and 3 where the concept of media literacy was explicitly defined, and the questions were derived from notions about media literacy found in existing literature. According to Nunnally (1978), this anchoring of questions in existing concepts and theory contributes to the first step in ensuring the validity of the measure. In the next section, I will address how the validity of the measure for media literacy was further tested.

5.3.1 Construct validity: Hypotheses

One way of testing construct validity is to assess the "predicted relations among observables" (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955, p. 300). Cronbach (1970) specified this notion by explaining that there are three parts to testing construct validity:

> Suggest what constructs might account for test performance…Derive testable hypotheses from the theory surrounding the construct…Carry out an empirical study to test one hypothesis after another (p. 145).

Hence, in order to assess the construct validity of the measurement instrument, I developed several hypotheses about media literacy and related variables, and tested whether these hypotheses held for the data collected in this study. When testing the hypotheses, the two scales that measured people's understanding of media production and the influence of the media on its users were tested separately. This was because one's understanding of the construction of media messages is different from one's knowledge about the possible influence of these messages. During this analysis, only those questions were included that were not removed in the reliability analysis. In addition, the decision

was made to only include those respondents who had filled out at least half of all the questions, and substitute their missing answers with their average score on the questions that measured the scale. A count revealed that regarding media production, only seven respondents had failed to fill out at least half the questions (12/23), while for media influence on its users, four respondents filled out less than half of the questions (13/26) (see the tables in Appendix 12). However, including respondents who filled out only half of the questions could affect the outcomes of the hypotheses. To make sure the analysis was not affected by this, I also tested all the hypotheses using only those respondents who had filled out all the questions for each scale. These results revealed that there were no real differences in terms of direction, correlation, or significance when the hypotheses were conducted using only those respondents who had filled out all the questions, or when they were carried out among respondents who had filled out at least half the questions.

Media literacy and parents' level of education
When considering media literacy, several variables that could influence one's level of media literacy come to mind. The first variable I would like to consider is the respondents' parents level of education. As pointed out by Gottfried, "environmental variables within the home correlate significantly with cognitive development" (1984b, p. 1). More specifically, children from families with a higher socio-economic status receive an "intellectually more advantageous home environment" (Gottfried, 1984a, p. 330). Although these findings apply specifically to the early cognitive development, i.e., infants and young children, one can surmise that these advantages continue to play a role in a child's cognitive development even beyond these first years. In fact, the classical research on the determinants of children's achievements carried out by Blau and Duncan (1967) found that parental educational levels do influence children's level of education. Additionally, Bourdieu proposed the theory that if parents possess a large amount of cultural capital, their children will have an advantage over other children in terms of access to cultural resources, and subsequently perform better in school (Driessen, Doesborgh, & Claassen, 1999). One of the indicators of cultural capital is one's acquired level of education (Bourdieu, 1984; Carrington & Luke, 1997), hence one could argue that people who have a higher education tend to create a more stimulating environment which could inspire their children into adopting a more inquisitive attitude towards their environment (which includes the media). Moreover, more highly educated parents also possess more knowledge in general and probably also about issues related to the media, which they could pass on to their children. This leads to the following hypothesis:

H1: The higher the level of education of the parents of a respondent, the higher a respondent's score on the scales that measure their understanding of media production and their knowledge about media influence on its users.

This hypothesis was tested separately for the two scales by calculating correlations. In this study, a finding is deemed significant if $p < 0.05$. The analysis showed that the

hypothesis was only valid for the questions that measured people's understanding of media influence on its users (r =.20; n = 371; p =.00 (one-tailed)), while it had to be rejected for the scale that assessed people's knowledge of media production (r =.06; n = 370; p =.12 (one-tailed). It would thus seem that higher parental education is only positively correlated to people's understanding of media influence on its users and not to people's understanding of media production. When one looks at the content of both scales, this finding can be explained. Knowledge about media production centers on the specific production processes that take place prior to the broadcasting of media content. The findings presented above seem to suggest that this type of knowledge is so specific that it needs to be taught. Knowledge about media influence on its users on the other hand, centers on a kind of knowledge that seems to be more about general social insight in and reflection about how people function. It seems that this is something that parents could stimulate in their children through discussions about, for instance, social issues.

Media literacy and living abroad
When people live in a country other than their native one, they will pick up on a large number of differences between their country of residence and their original home. These differences will include the media; i.e., if these expatriates watch the local media, they will be likely to observe differences in the media content between the two countries. An awareness of these differences could lead to an easier acquisition of the knowledge that is required to be aware of how media content is produced. The reason behind this is that if respondents are exposed to different media content, they will see that the same news is presented differently (Potter, 2004a). They could hence deduce that the news is not just a reflection of what is out there, but that it is created by people and differs depending on the social, economic, and cultural contexts in which these people work. Subsequently, one can assume that people who have lived in multiple countries will possess more knowledge regarding media production than people who have never moved to a different country.

This study was carried out among respondents who come from, and have lived in, a wide variety of countries, and the majority of whom were, at the time of this study, living in a country other than their own. The majority of the respondents (n =176) had lived in two countries, while 100 respondents had lived in three countries (see Table 5.1). In addition, when asked which news programs they would watch, some of the respondents who were at that time living in a foreign country indicated that they watch the local news. Although this study did not collect any data on the respondents' viewing behavior of other local media content, one can assume that children of expatriates are likely to be exposed to local media.

Table 5.1. The number of countries the respondents have lived in (n = 382).

Number of countries lived in	
1	45
2	176
3	100
4	45
5	16

Hence the second hypothesis is:

> H2: The more countries a respondent has lived in, the higher a respondent's score on the scale that measures his or her understanding of media production will be.

The analysis revealed that the number of countries a respondent has lived in is significantly related to that respondent's score on the scale (r =.11; n = 376; p =.01 (one-tailed)). Respondents who have lived in more countries thus do significantly better on the questions related to media production than respondents who have lived in fewer countries.

Media literacy and using different media sources
Another variable which is expected to influence what respondents know about media production is the use of different media as sources for news. If people use different media to inform themselves about the news, they will be likely to notice the difference in content and/or form between these different sources since the differences between different media are much more obvious than the difference between content of the same medium. Potter (2004a) pointed out that making comparisons "across vehicles reveals the editorial perspectives, business constraints, and vision of the audience" (p. 128). Thus, when people observe these differences, they will be likely to eventually realize that news is shaped by the organizations and/or the people who produce it. All the respondents who are included in this analysis indicated that they watch television. Additionally, two questions inquired after the respondents' use of other media (questions 66 and 67, see Appendix 9). It is thus possible to test the assumption formulated by Potter, namely that using media next to television is positively related to one's knowledge of the production of media content. This leads to the following hypotheses:

> H3: The more a respondent uses the Internet for news, the higher his or her score will be on the scale that measures his or her understanding of media production.

> H4: The more a respondent reads the newspaper for news, the higher his or her score will be on the scale that measures his or her understanding of media production.

The analysis showed that the hypotheses could not be rejected, and that the more people use the Internet and/or read a newspaper for the news, the higher their score is on the questions that measure their understanding of media production (Internet: r =.22; n = 369; p =.00 (one-tailed), newspaper: r =.12; n = 372; p =.01 (one-tailed)).

Media literacy and grades in social studies
Discussions about people and their understanding of the media usually refer to people's knowledge about the real world or the world around them (Huston & Wright, 1983). But what is meant by this knowledge, and how can it affect media literacy? Potter (2004a) argued that people who know more about events, places, and people in the real world, and whose knowledge is mainly acquired through nonmedia sources, will be more aware of the inaccurate picture presented by the media. In addition, people who know more about the world around them will also be more aware of how institutions such as the media are shaped, governed, and work (Lewis & Jhally, 1998). Both assumptions relate to knowledge about the production of media content.

Moreover, knowledge about the real world also includes an awareness of the different factors that can shape people's lives. Thoman and Jolls (2004) explained that each person has different life experiences and that these experiences contribute to how people deal with certain situations. They posited that an awareness of this can help people understand the diverse ways in which the media can affect different audience members. This assumption is closely related to the knowledge presumed by the scale that measures how much people know about the influence of the media on its users.

It can be argued that knowledge about the real world as described above is reflected by a respondent's grade in social studies, a section of the curriculum which focuses on teaching about the real world as described above, i.e., social institutions, different cultures and peoples, and other related topics. Social studies can include a large number of subjects, such as history, geography, economics, psychology, anthropology, and sociology, subjects which not only teach students about institutions out in the real world, but also about events taking place in the past or present, as well as about different cultures and perspectives. All the schools who participated in this study offered the International Baccelaureate (IB) program for middle and high school students. The aim of the IB social studies program, regardless of which subject one studies is: "a critical appreciation of: a) human experience and behavior, b) the varieties of physical, economic, and social environments that people inhabit, c) the history of social and cultural institutions" (IBO, 2005). Thus, respondents who do well in this class should possess more of the kind of knowledge needed to do well on both scales. This line of reasoning leads to the following hypothesis:

> H5: A respondent's grade in social studies will be positively related to his/her score on the two scales that measure understanding of media production and how the media can influence its users.

The analysis revealed that the better respondent would do in social studies, the higher his or her scores would be on the two scales (understanding of media production: r =.20;

n = 349; p =.00 (one-tailed); understanding of media influence on its users: r =.18; n = 349; p =.00 (one-tailed)).

Media literacy and age
In the 1980s, several authors conducted research into how a person's age could affect their understanding of television content and production. Dorr (1983), for instance, found that adults were more knowledgeable about the economics and the production side of the television industry than children and adolescents. From her research, she also surmised that knowledge about the economic motivations that guide television production begins to develop sometime during adolescence. Huston and Wright (1983) concluded that television literacy, defined as understanding the codes and functions of form on television (p. 45), improves with an increase in cognitive skills, linguistic competence, and world knowledge, all factors which generally increase as children progress through school. The factors which these two studies looked at reflect the factors described by the scale that measures people's understanding of media production. Thus, one can assume that children who are in higher grades will know more about the factors that play a role in the production of media content. This leads to the following hypothesis:

> H6: The higher the grade a respondent is in, the higher his or her score on the scale that measures understanding of media production will be

The analysis revealed that respondents in higher grades did do better on the questions that measured understanding of media production (r =.25; n = 380; p =.00), thus confirming the findings from the earlier studies.

In short, all hypotheses, save for one, were confirmed. It thus seems that, except for the relationship between parents' education and the respondents' understanding of media production, the expected relations between media literacy and various independent variables held true for the findings from this study. This would suggest that the questionnaire meets the standards for construct validity as specified by Cronbach (1970).

5.3.2 Content validity
Content validity has been defined as "the degree to which a measure covers the range of meanings included within the concept" (Babbie, 1995, p. 128), or as Nunnally explained it; "content validity depends primarily on the adequacy with which a specified domain of content is sampled" (1967, p.79) . The first step towards ensuring the content validity of the scale was taken in chapters 2 and 3, where every effort was made to ensure that the measurement instrument would reflect all the aspects that are considered part of media literacy by scholars in the field. The literature overview created a schematic representation of the relationship between media producers and users which captured all the different definitions of media literacy present in the field at this time. In chapter 3, these different aspects were then further defined and operationalized. Although the

measurement instrument developed in this study only measures two of the four arrows that make up the schematic representation (i.e., the production of media messages and their influence on media users), it does measure all of the concepts presented in the field of media literacy that are related to these two arrows and which bear a relationship to the link between media and democracy (with the exception of the sub-aspect regarding the distinction between fiction and non-fiction, as explained in section 5.2.2). Hence, in this respect, the measurement instrument tested in the survey can be said to meet the standards of content validity in the sense that it covers the vast majority of the meanings that are part of the concept of media literacy.

In addition to determining that a measure covers the range of meanings entailed by a concept, Nunnally (1978) pointed out that content validity should also be ensured through a positive external review. He posited (p. 92) that there are two standards for content validity; first, the collection of items used in the measure need to be representative, and second, the methods of test construction have to be deemed sensible. He suggested using either potential users of the test, or people in positions of responsibility to assess the quality of the construction and content of a test, thus deciding whether a questionnaire meets the standards of content validity. This notion was further specified by Litwin (1995) who pointed out that content validity can be seen as "a subjective measure of how appropriate the items seem to a set of reviewers who have some knowledge of the subject matter" (p. 35). Thus, in this study, content validity was also assessed through an evaluation of the questionnaire by middle and high school teachers, as well as college lecturers, who had experience in teaching about the media. By selecting teachers who work with media education programs, the questionnaire was evaluated by people who had some expertise regarding youngsters' knowledge about the media and/or lack thereof, their cognitive development, where young people's interest regarding the media lie, and what current media education programs look like. These teachers were thus able to indicate whether the questionnaire developed in this study matches the students' abilities, interests, and needs, as well as whether it is in line with current media education practices.

Evaluation form
In order to evaluate the questionnaire, I developed an evaluation form. This form asked various questions about the questionnaire. These questions were formatted according to the semantic differential technique (Ryan et al., 2001), where the teachers were presented with two opposing statements, and asked to indicate with which statement they agreed more using a five-point scale. Each set of statements was also accompanied by a space where the teachers could write down any comments or suggestions. The first set of statements addressed the level of difficulty of the questions, whether or not they were appropriate for the intended age group, whether the questions properly assessed if youngsters were critical about the media, and whether television was the logical medium to choose as the focus of this questionnaire. The teachers were then asked a series of questions about each of the aspects of media literacy addressed by the questionnaire. Per aspect, they were asked if they thought it was relevant and sufficiently represented. At

the end of the questionnaire, the teachers were asked if they thought the questionnaire could succeed in assessing how critical young people are towards television, and if they thought any topics should be included that were missing from the questionnaire. A copy of the evaluation form can be found in Appendix 13.

Participants

People were invited to participate in the survey through announcements regarding the questionnaire published in various Dutch newsletters and magazines dedicated to media and/or education between October 2005 and March 2006. Teachers who were interested in participating were asked to send an e-mail to the researcher, after which a copy of the questionnaire and the evaluation form would be mailed to them with the request to mail it back using the stamped envelope included in the package. In total, 16 teachers participated; 7 male, 5 female, and 4 who did not divulge their gender. Between them, the participants had an average of 11 years teaching experience.

In general, the following conclusions about the questionnaire can be drawn from this study (for a specific description of the responses to the different questions, please see Appendix 14). First, 12 out of 15 respondents felt that the questionnaire was successful in measuring how critical youngsters are of television. Additionally, the respondents indicated that all the topics covered by the questionnaire were relevant, and sufficiently addressed. Finally, 11 teachers noted that the questionnaire was appropriate for the age group it is intended for, both in terms of language and in terms of fitting with their perspective on the world around them.

Questions and criticism

Although the vast majority of the comments indicated that the teachers were convinced that this questionnaire would work for the target group, and meet its goal of measuring media literacy, several also raised some important questions and points of criticism. First, seven respondents mentioned that the Internet should have been included in this questionnaire. They indicated that they felt that youngsters nowadays are much more likely to use the Internet than any other medium, and that therefore a questionnaire on media literacy should also include this medium. Second, three respondents noted that non-fiction genres, the focus of the questionnaire, may not have been the most appropriate choice since the intended audience is much more likely to watch fiction programs. Therefore, the question was raised whether or not it would have made more sense to include questions about fiction programs as well. Furthermore, five respondents wondered if the questionnaire would not be too difficult for the youngest segment (11-15 years old) of the target group. However, five teachers noted that whether the questions would be too difficult or easy depended on the respondent's age, background, and abilities. All the respondents agreed that the questions would not pose a problem for respondents between the ages of 15 and 18. Additionally, the comment was made that the questionnaire should have also addressed how students find, use and evaluate information. Finally, two respondents noted that they felt that the questionnaire should have included questions about how students are influenced by the media; i.e., how much

they think the media influence them.

The first point I would like to address is the suggestion that the questionnaire might be too difficult for the younger segment (11-15 years old) of the intended age group. As indicated in chapter 4, the questions used in the questionnaire were extensively tested among the youngest respondents in the first pilot, and various steps were taken to ensure that the questions would not be too difficult for this age group, and yet still discriminate between students with a high and low level of media literacy. The analysis revealed that none of the questions were far too difficult for the respondents, and the respondents themselves did not indicate that they thought any of the questions were too hard either. These findings would suggest that although the teachers' worries are commendable, they are not applicable to this questionnaire. As one can see from Table 5.2, the younger age groups do not perform poorly at all.

Table 5.2. Average scores on both scales divided up by age group[3].

Age	Media production scale (n)	Media influence on its users scale (n)
10	3.7 (1)	3.9 (1)
11	2.9 (34)	3.2 (37)
12	2.9 (56)	3.2 (56)
13	2.8 (67)	3.2 (67)
14	2.8 (42)	3.1 (42)
15	3.0 (53)	3.2 (53)
16	3.1 (90)	3.2 (90)
17	3.2 (23)	3.2 (23)
18	3.1 (8)	3.2 (8)
19	3.2 (2)	3.0 (2)
Total	**3.0 (376)**	**3.2 (379)**

Secondly, the teachers are correct in mentioning that youngsters appreciate and watch fiction genres more than non-fiction genres. Their point that the Internet is a very popular medium among this age group is also a correct assessment. However, as explained in chapter 1, the decision to focus on television, and specifically on non-fiction programs, was in line with the focus on the link between media and democracy. Furthermore, the suggestion that media literacy also includes knowing how one locates and evaluates information is very accurate; these types of questions are part of how people handle the media, and this arrow was excluded after the pretests indicated the questionnaire had become too lengthy (see chapter 4). Moreover, two of the teachers made the suggestion that the questionnaire should have included questions regarding youngsters' awareness of the influence the media have on themselves. However, the practicality of such questions is debatable. During the early stages of the pretesting,

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[3] The answer scales used in the questionnaire ranged from 1 to 4, with '4' as the best answer, and '1' the worst. Where needed, the questions were recoded so that the answers would match this scale.

questions regarding this topic were included, but the analyses of these pretests revealed that it was impossible to assess if the answers respondents give to these questions were correct. There is, after all, no way of knowing how the media influence each individual respondent, therefore their answers would become useless. Overall, the criticism and questions raised by the participants did not impair the content validity of the measurement instrument.

5.4. Conclusion

In conclusion, this chapter has discussed which steps were taken to make sure the questionnaire developed to measure media literacy is valid and reliable. The findings from the analyses suggest that the two scales make up reliable measurement instruments. In addition, the construct validity of the measurement instrument was confirmed through the testing of several hypotheses, and the content validity of the two scales was established through a teacher validation study.

Chapter 6. Scores on media literacy and some of its correlates

Based on the results presented in the previous chapter, it is possible to conclude that the instrument developed to measure media literacy is reliable and valid enough that the data collected using the questionnaire can be utilized for further research into the concept of media literacy. Subsequently, this chapter will be dedicated to drawing conclusions about how the respondents performed on the two scales that focus on media production and the influence of the media on its users. and which factors affect one's performance on both scales. Hence, this chapter provides insight into the usefulness of the questionnaire, that is, it demonstrates how the results from the questionnaire could be used by educators in future projects to make statements about the respondents' level of understanding of media production and influence on its users. Additionally, this chapter provides a starting point for further research by providing some tentative insight into which factors influence one's understanding of media production and influence on its users.

As described in chapter 4, the measurement instrument focused on two of the four arrows presented in Figure 2.1, namely the production of media messages and the influence of media content on its users. These arrows refer to separate and distinct parts of media literacy, and they each make up a separate scale. Hence the two sets of questions that form the two scales will be analyzed and discussed separately. In this chapter I will first discuss how the respondents scored on these two scales. Next, I will describe the results of the multiple regression analysis used to determine which factors are related to one's performance on both scales.

6.1 Scores on media literacy
In this section, I will first discuss how the respondents scored on the two scales that make up the measurement instrument. When using this questionnaire in a classroom setting, educators will most likely be interested in which aspects of media literacy their students know little about, and those aspects on which they are well-informed, therefore I will also examine the variation in respondents' understanding of the different aspects of media literacy.

Figures 6.1 and 6.2 show the average score and distribution on each of the questions per scale.
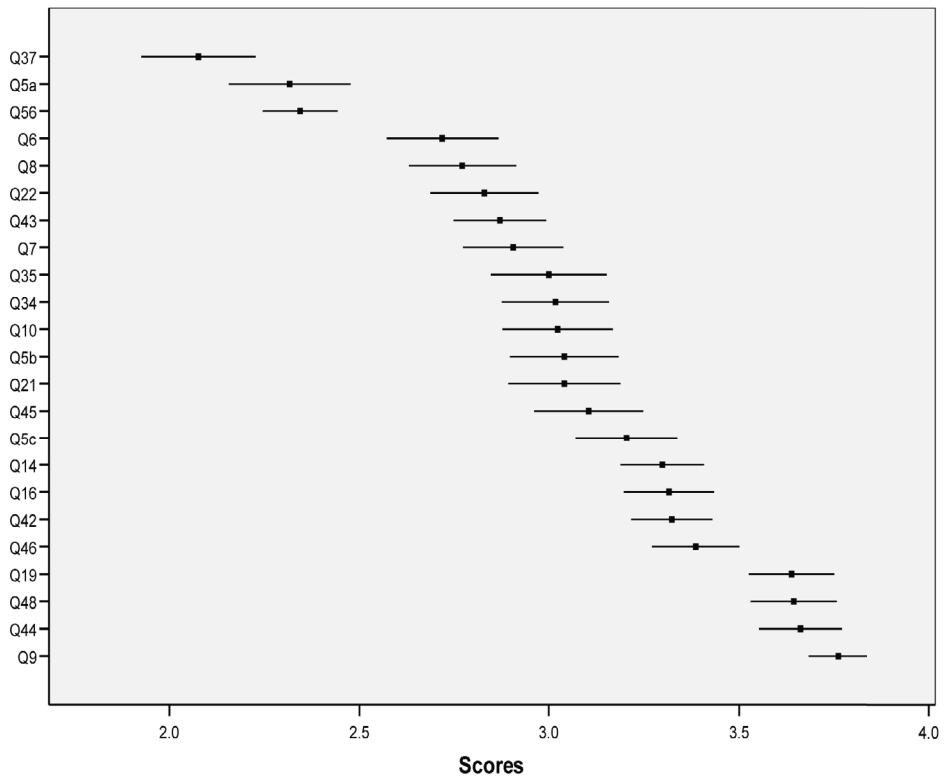
Figure 6.1. Average scores (minimum = 1; maximum = 4) and 95% confidence intervals on the various questions that make up the scale for media production (see legend for questions).

Legend	
Q37	Some television stations do not have to make a profit
Q5a	Which of the following activities always happen when reporters put together a news story – Talk to all the people involved in the event
Q56	Making the News: Action question where the respondents had to match one of two pictures with a statement from the news and explain their choice
Q6	A reporter's religious beliefs could influence what the news stories look like that s/he makes
Q8	Whether a news reporter is young or old, the news stories s/he makes will be the same
Q22	A reporter's political beliefs can influence how s/he presents a news story
Q43	The description of an event on the news is complete
Q7	Reporters often turn events into stories
Q35	The stories you see on the news are about the only important events that took place that day
Q34	Television news presents a complete picture of what is going on in the world
Q10	Sometimes, documentaries use actors
Q5b	Which of the following activities always happen when reporters put together a news story – Make a decision on whether or not to run the story
Q21	The news is filmed before a live studio audience
Q45	Whether a television station has to make money off its programs or not will never influence the kind of news programs it makes
Q5c	Which of the following activities always happen when reporters put together a news story – Hear from the editors how long their story is allowed to be
Q14	In talk shows, some events are staged
Q16	News stations can be different in how they present a story because of differences in their political preference
Q42	Filming Techniques: Action question where respondents had to describe the technical difference between two identical shots
Q46	When an event is presented on the news it looks the same as when you were there and saw it yourself
Q19	When newsreaders read the news, no other TV employees are in the studio
Q48	Every television station will present news on Islam in the same way
Q44	News about gay marriages is presented in the same way in different countries
Q9	Newsround is a news program for young children. When news reporters make a news story for Newsround, the stories will be presented differently than when they are made for the regular news.
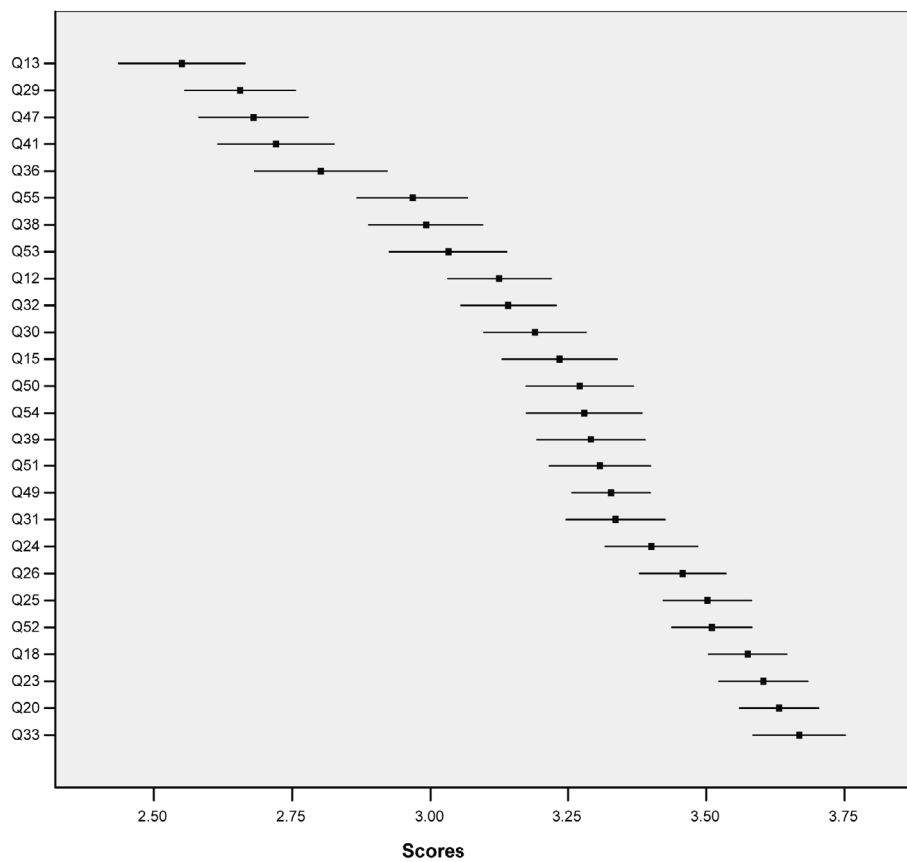
Figure 6.2. Average scores (minimum = 1; maximum = 4) and 95% confidence intervals on the various questions that make up the scale for media influence on its users (see legend for questions).

Legend	
Q13	Let's say the government is considering a proposal for a new law. If several popular talk show hosts call this proposal ridiculous, this proposal has a smaller chance to be made into a law
Q29	Television can influence whether men and women share chores in the home
Q47	The way in which stories about marriage are presented in the news can change how people behave when they are married
Q41	Television influences how children between the ages of 12 and 18 treat their parents
Q36	Television influences what young people wear to parties
Q55	Differences in television content is one of the reasons why people in different countries think differently about issues such as gay marriages
Q38	Television has something to do with how young people think about drugs
Q53	People with a lower education will understand the news just as well as people with a higher education
Q12	Because they want to know which issues are considered important, politicians keep an eye on talk shows that discuss current events
Q32	Television influences how people behave when they demonstrate against something that is important to them
Q30	Television plays a role in the political party people would vote for
Q15	Television influences which presidential candidate wins the US elections
Q50	People who live in the city react the same to news about the mad cow disease as people who live in the countryside
Q54	There are different reasons why people watch television. Sometimes you have to watch a program for school. Sometimes you watch a program because you want to. When you watch a news program because you have to for school, you'll have a different opinion of the program than when you watch it because you want to
Q39	Children who watch the news know more about politics than children who do not watch the news
Q51	The news can determine how people think about Iraqis
Q49	TV influences how people think about a political leader
Q31	People use the expressions that are used in television programs such as the news and talk shows
Q24	Sometimes television programs make people upset. When people are upset, they remember the program better than people who are not upset
Q26	Television news can change how people feel about a presidential candidate
Q25	Some people really get into a show they watch on television. They relate to the characters on the show and what happens to them. These people are more likely to be influenced by these characters than people who do not care about them
Q52	Television can influence people's opinions of issues such as politics, HIV medication, drug abuse, and the Middle East
Q18	People's ideas about politics can be influenced by television programs
Q23	Television news can scare people
Q20	Television news sometimes makes people angry
Q33	Television only influences very young children

6.1.1 Comparing the two scales

Analysis revealed that on average, the respondents scored better on the scale that measured their understanding of media influence than they did on the scale regarding their knowledge of media production. Only 114 respondents (or 29.5%) of the respondents got 75% of the questions regarding the production of media content right, while 249 respondents (or 64%) answered 75% of the questions on media influence on its users correctly; i.e., they scored either a '3' or a '4'. In addition, regarding the questions that measured the respondents' understanding of media production, on average the respondents got 15 of the 23 questions (65%) right, while respondents answered an average of 20 of the 26 (77%) questions on media influence on its users correctly (Appendix 15 shows an overview of the scores per question). Please see Table 6.1 for more information of how the respondents did on both scales.

Table 6.1. Distribution of correct answers, i.e., questions where respondents answered either '3' or '4'.

Questions regarding media production (23 questions)			Questions regarding media influence on its users (26 questions)		
Number of correctly answered questions	Number of respondents	Cumulative percentage	Number of correctly answered questions	Number of respondents	Cumulative percentage
1	2 (.5%)	.5	1	0	0
2	0	.5	2	2 (.5%)	.5
3	0	.5	3	0	.5
4	4 (1.0%)	1.5	4	0	.5
5	6 (1.6%)	3.1	5	1 (.3%)	.8
6	5 (1.3%)	4.4	6	3 (.8%)	1.6
7	6 (1.6%)	5.9	7	0	1.6
8	9 (2.3%)	8.3	8	1 (.3%)	1.8
9	11 (2.8%)	11.1	9	0	1.8
10	9 (2.3%)	13.4	10	1 (.3%)	2.1
11	17 (4.4%)	17.8	11	2 (.5%)	2.6
12	37 (9.6%)	27.4	12	4 (1%)	3.6
13	36 (9.3%)	36.7	13	7 (1.8%)	5.4
14	33 (8.5%)	45.2	14	11 (2.8%)	8.3
15	35 (9.0%)	54.3	15	13 (3.4%)	11.6
16	32 (8.3%)	62.5	16	12 (3.1%)	14.7
17	31 (8.0%)	70.5	17	17 (4.4%)	19.1
18	48 (12.4%)	82.9	18	26 (6.7%)	25.8
19	32 (8.3%)	91.2	19	38 (9.8%)	35.7
20	19 (4.9%)	96.1	20	37 (9.6%)	45.2
21	11 (2.8%)	99.0	21	33 (8.5%)	53.7
22	4 (1.0%)	100.0	22	45 (11.6%)	65.4
23	0	100.0	23	37 (9.6%)	74.9
			24	47 (12.1%)	87.1
			25	36 (9.3%)	96.4
			26	14 (3.6%)	100.0
Total	**387**		**Total**	**387**	

A paired-samples t-test showed that the difference between the average scores on media production and the average scores on the influence of the media on its users was significant (t(378) = -11.2; p =.00; r =.41). A correlation analysis showed that the scores on two scales were significantly related (r =.41; n = 379; p =.00), which indicates that if the respondents did well on one of the scales, they were more likely to do well on the other scale as well.

6.1.2 Comparing scores on the different aspects
The measurement instrument developed in this study is intended to be used in schools, and another finding that educators might be interested in, would be whether there was any variation in the respondents' understanding of different aspects of media production and influence. This information could be used to evaluate which areas of media production and the influence of the media on its users warrant extra or less attention in media education programs. Hence, I assessed if there were certain areas of media literacy that the respondents, on average, knew very little about, and if there were areas on which they were very well-informed. To that end, I looked at those questions on which the respondents, as a group, did very well and the questions where the respondents performed poorly. Two criteria were used to assess a respondent's performance on the questions. Questions where the respondents did very well were defined as those questions were at least 50% of the respondents gave a perfect answer, thus scoring a '4'. Questions were the respondents' performance was assessed as poor were those questions were the majority of the respondents got the question completely wrong, or a little wrong, i.e., where at least 50% of the respondents scored a '1' or a '2'. The reason why the calculation to decide whether students did very well is more stringent than the calculation used to determine if they did poorly is that it is more prudent to underestimate one's knowledge of an aspect of media production or influence on its users, than to overestimate it. After all, the decision to exclude an aspect from a media education program weighs heavier and could have more negative consequences than the decision to include something the students might possibly already be aware of. So if 50% or more of the respondents are absolutely perfectly aware of a specific aspect of media production or the influence of media content on its users, one can be fairly certain that there really is no reason to include this aspect in a media education program. On the other hand, if the majority of the respondents show just some doubts regarding a certain question, this could be an indication that this area of media production or influence requires extra attention in a media education program.

Scores: Media production
Regarding the questions that assessed media production, three conclusions can be drawn about the respondents' level of understanding. The high scores on several questions lead to the first conclusion that the respondents are well-informed about the fact that there are factors outside of the news that will influence what the news looks like. The results show that the respondents were especially well-informed about how the social-cultural context of television production can influence its content, and they also seemed to be very aware of the influence exerted by the presumed interests and abilities of a program's target audience. Regarding the social-cultural context of production, the respondents did very well on two questions that measure the awareness of the influence exerted by this context. The first question is question 44, which reads "News about gay marriages is presented in the same way in different countries" (see Appendix 9). Here, 63.6% of the respondents knew for certain that news regarding gay marriages would be presented differently in different countries, scoring a perfect 4. The second question,

number 48, read "Every television station will present news on Islam in the same way"; 65.4% knew that this is not true, and scored a 4. Another contextual factor which influences what the news looks like are the economic aspects of television production. The respondents seemed to be especially well-informed about how the audience that the news program is aimed at can influence the content of that program, as indicated by their scores on question 9. This question reads: "Newsround is a news program for young children. When news reporters make a story for Newsround, the stories will be presented differently than when they are made for the regular news"; 66.7% of the respondents scored a 4, and were absolutely convinced that stories would be presented in a different manner.

The second conclusion is that the results regarding the respondents' understanding of the production procedures are mixed; it seems that the respondents know a little about the very practical side of television production, but could definitely use more information about the procedures that shape the actual content of the news. The respondents did very well on a question that was focused on the practical codes and conventions of production, namely question 19; "When newsreaders read the news, no other TV station employees are in the studio". Here, 59.7% of the respondents scored a perfect 4. However, this question is but one of the many that tested the respondents' awareness of the production procedures used by television programs, yet it is the only one on which they did very well. Conversely, two other questions that assessed the respondents' understanding of the procedures that precede and shape the news broadcast received fairly low scores. First, question 5a, which reads "reporters talk to all the people involved in the event". Here 56.1% of the respondents did not know that reporters do not talk to everyone involved in the events presented on the news. Second, question 42 asks respondents to compare four sets of stills. Each set is similar except for one technical feature, and the respondents were asked to identify this feature. On average, 53% of the respondents did not answer this question correctly. As has become apparent from this brief discussion of merely a few of the questions that address production procedures, this is an aspect of media literacy that is very diverse. It appears that the respondents know more about the practical side of television production (i.e., who is in the studio when the news is shot) than they do of the procedures that help shape the content of a news broadcast (i.e., the consultation of sources and the selection of images).

The third conclusion that can be drawn is that the respondents in this study could also benefit from a media education program that focuses on the distinction between profit and non-profit television stations. The results from this study show that the respondents are barely aware of the existence of public non-profit television stations. The one question that addresses this issue was question 37 which reads "Some television stations do not have to make a profit"; 70% answer the question incorrectly.

Scores: The influence of the media on its users
It is possible to draw one conclusion based on the respondents' scores on the questions that address the understanding of media influence on its users, and that is

that respondents are very aware of the influence that television content can have on a person's emotions. Moreover, the respondents also realize that the emotions a viewer experiences while watching television will affect how much they are influenced by that program. This conclusion is based on the scores on three questions. First, question 20, which reads "television news sometimes makes people angry". Here 64.1% of the respondents were absolutely convinced that this is true, scoring a perfect 4. Second, question 23 reads "television news can scare people", where 65.4% of the respondent scored a 4. The third question, question 25, reads "Some people really get into a show they watch on television. They relate to the characters on this show and what happens to them. These people are more likely to be influenced by these characters than people who do not care about them". Here, a total of 53.2% scored a perfect 4.

Furthermore, the respondents did very well on two other questions, namely how much people's ideas about politics are influenced by television (question 18; 55.8% of the respondents scored a 4), and whether television only influences very young children (question 33: 71.8% of the respondents scored a 4), but it is not possible to infer any general conclusions based on these findings. Both questions touch upon different issues; namely the extent to which television can influence one's opinion, and the factors which determine how much television can influence a person. Various other questions also address the same issues, and the respondents' scores were not exceptionally high on those. Therefore it is impossible to conclude that respondents are well-informed about these issues, and any media education program would probably do well to address these aspects of media literacy anyway.

6.2 Factors influencing the level of media literacy

To date, little research has focused on ascertaining the relationship between media literacy and other variables. Some of this research, which centered on the relationship between understanding the production of media content and age, exposure to various media content, and the usage of different media, was discussed in chapter 5. Additionally, Potter (2004a) speculated on the possible links between media literacy and knowledge of the real world, media literacy and a person's cognitive abilities, as well as media literacy and the use of different sources of information. He argued that if people have a well-developed understanding of the world around them, they should be more media literate. Additionally, Potter reasoned that the greater one's cognitive abilities, the more likely one is to possess the skills and competencies necessary to be deemed media literate. Furthermore, Potter claimed that comparing media content would aid people in seeing the constructed nature of the media. This section aims to elaborate on this speculation by further investigating those factors and their relationship to a respondent's score on media literacy. To that end, a number of questions regarding media use, personal characteristics, and school-related or performance-related factors were included at the end of the survey. This section will look more closely at these variables and whether they are related to a respondent's understanding of media production and the influence the media can have on its users.

6.2.1 Analysis procedure

Multiple linear regression analysis was used to establish the relationship between the different variables and the respondents' scores on both scales. Multiple linear regression analysis reveals the relationship between an independent variable and the dependent variable while controlling for the influence of all the other independent variables (Berry & Feldman, 1985). Listwise deletion was used to deal with the missing data, a method which refers to the deletion of "any observations that have missing data on any variables in the model of interest" (Allison, 2002, p. 6). As argued by Allison, none of the methods that are currently in use for dealing with missing data is superior to listwise deletion. It is a very robust method, one that is even more robust than various imputing methods, especially when it comes to regression analysis. Because the analysis used listwise deletion, a total of n = 333 cases were used for both the scale that measured knowledge of media production and the scale that assessed respondents' understanding of the media's influence on its users.

In the previous chapter, bivariate analysis proved that certain variables were related to one's scores on both or either one of the scales. Because these variables play a role in how media literate one is, they will also be included in the multivariate analysis. The analysis was conducted separately for both scales.

6.2.2 Multivariate analysis: Understanding the production of media content

In this section I will discuss those findings that shed light on the respondents' understanding of media production and related predictors. Table 6.2 presents the findings from the multiple regression analysis for this scale.

Table 6.2. Results multiple linear regression analysis: Media production.

Variable	Beta
Personal	
Parents´ level of education[a]	.02
Number of countries lived in[a]	.10[*]
Media-related	
How much television do you watch every day[b]	-.05
How often do you read a newspaper[a]	.03
How often do you check the Internet for news[a]	.15[*]
How often do you watch the news[b]	-.19[*]
How often do you watch talk shows?[b]	-.02
How often do you watch documentaries[b]	.18[*]
School-related	
Which grade did you get for social studies[a]	.16[*]
Which grade are you in[a]	.24[*]

[a] Because hypotheses were developed based on these variables and media literacy, they were tested one-tailed.
[b] There were no expectations regarding these variables, hence they were tested two-tailed.
[*] These findings were significant at p<0.05, r^2=.17.

Personal variables

In terms of personal variables, the findings are similar to those of the bivariate correlations presented in chapter 5. The multiple regression analysis revealed that the number of countries the respondents have lived in is positively related to their scores on the media production scale (Beta =.10, p =.03). Similar to the bivariate analysis, this analysis also did not find any relation between the respondents' parents' level of education and the respondents' understanding of media production.

Media-related variables

Regarding the media-related variables, several findings stand out and require further discussion. First, the multiple regression analysis indicates that, contrary to the findings from the bivariate analysis, reading a newspaper is not related to one's score on the scale for media production (Beta =.03, p =.32). The bivariate analysis in chapter 5 indicated that newspaper reading was positively related to scores on this scale (r =.12; n = 372; p =.01). The reasoning behind the hypothesis was that if respondents used media sources besides television, they would be more aware of the constructed nature of the media.

   This seemingly contradictory finding can be explained as follows. Although the multivariate analysis did not support the line of reasoning described above, the correlations between the questions about media use do. The correlations between the independent variables (which were calculated using the exact same cases that were used for the regression analysis) indicate that using different media sources is related to reading the newspaper (see Table 6.3); i.e., using the Internet for news (r =.32; p =.00), watching the news on television (r =.22; p =.00), and watching television in general (r = -.13; p =.01). Additionally, which grade one is in is also significantly correlated with reading the paper (r =.14; p =.00). It appears that the correlation between newspaper reading and one's score on the scale for media production (r =.08) is not just the result of the effect of newspaper reading on one's understanding of media production (Beta =.03); more than half of this correlation (.047) is due to the fact that newspaper reading is related to other variables, which in turn affect one's score on the scale (Internet = .32*.15 =.048; television news =.22*-.19 =-.042; television in general =-.13*-.05 =.007; grade = .14*.24 =.034; .048 -.042 +.007 +.034 =.047)[4]. A large part of the remainder of the correlation can be attributed to the direct influence of newspaper reading on the score on the scale for media production (Beta =.03). Moreover, these calculations indicate that using the Internet for news contributes more to the correlation between newspaper reading and one's score on this scale (.32 *.15 =.048), than the direct relationship between newspaper reading and understanding media production (Beta =.03). Thus, although the relationship between reading the newspaper and understanding media production is not significant, the correlation between these two is, for a large part, explained by the use of other media. This finding appears to back up the line of

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[4] Here, the contributions of internet [I], television news [TN], television in general [TG], and grade [G] to the correlation between newspaper reading and understanding the production of media content are calculated as the products of the correlation between I, TN, TG, and G with newspaper reading and the regression coefficient of I, TN, TG, and G on the production of media content; the final step is the addition of all of these contributions.

reasoning described in chapter 5, i.e., that using multiple sources of news will have a positive effect on one's understanding of media production.

Table 6.3. Correlations between independent variables and the scales for media production and media influence on its users (n=333).

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)
Media production (1)											
Media influence on its users (2)	.39*										
Parents' level of education (3)	.02[a]	.18*[a]									
Number of countries lived in (4)	.11*[a]	.06	.06								
How much television do you watch every day (5)	-.11*	.06	-.02	.00							
How often do you read a newspaper (6)	.08[a]	-.01	.05	-.09	-.13*						
How often do you check the Internet for news (7)	.21*[a]	.07	.09	.02	.02	.32*					
How often do you watch the news (8)	-.05	.05	-.03	.07	.2*	.22*	.33*				
How often do you watch talk shows (9)	-.06	.08	-.05	.04	.36*	.05	.06	.11*			
How often do you watch documentaries (10)	.10	.13*	.07	.08	.12*	.07	.13*	.37*	.06		
Which grade did you get for social studies (11)	.18*[a]	.17*[a]	.09	.05	-.14*	.04	.08	.02	-.01	.05	
Which grade are you in (12)	.24*[a]	-.03	-.23*	-.01	-.07	.14*	.31*	.10	-.07	-.17*	-.04

* significant at p<0.05 (two-tailed, except where the numbers are marked with an a, where the test was performed one-tailed).

The second interesting finding is that according to the regression analysis, how often one uses the Internet to read/watch the news has a positive effect on how one scores on the scale that measures one's understanding of the production of media content (Beta =.15, p =.01). This finding is similar to the results from the bivariate analysis, which were presented in chapter 5.

Furthermore, the regression analysis indicates that how often a respondent watches the news is negatively related to his/her score on the scale for media production (Beta =-.19, p =.00). Conversely, how often respondents watch documentaries has a positive effect on their scores on this scale (Beta =.18; p =.00). This raises the question what causes these opposing effects. There are two possible explanations for this difference,

one related to the differences between the two genres, and the other related to the characteristics of the viewers. First, one could argue that these opposing effects have to do with the nature of the genre. One could posit that the main premise of the news is to present "the world out there" in a clear and concise manner. The news will also point this out to its viewers, as becomes obvious from the example of Fox News, which presents itself as "Fox news channel: Celebrating a decade of fair and balanced news", and which claims "We report. You decide" (quotes from website www.foxnews.com). These characteristics of the news could leave viewers with the impression that the information they receive is unbiased and complete. Hence, people who watch a lot of news could have been trained by the news to accept it as a window on reality. This could explain why respondents who watch a lot of news do not score as well on questions that measure one's understanding of media production as respondents who watch less news, because watching a great deal of news decreases one's ability to regard the news as a construction.

How does this notion relate to the finding that people who watch more documentaries do better on the scale for media production? Do documentaries teach viewers how to critically analyze the media? Although the aim of most documentaries is not to teach people about the media, some of them, through their topic, inadvertently do. For starters, many of the documentaries aimed at 12-18 year olds focus on media-related topics such as the Making the Video documentaries presented by MTV. These documentaries give the viewers insight into how television content is made, knowledge which they could use when viewing other programs. Additionally, the aim of many documentaries is to reveal facts or findings that are usually unknown to most viewers. It is thus possible that watching documentaries gives respondents extra information about certain topics. This in turn could provide them an extra edge in terms of insight into non-fiction programs; i.e., it may provide them with information with which they can question the content they see in other non-fiction programs. Moreover, the aim of some documentaries is to make viewers think about a topic; a number of documentaries (e.g., Michael Moore's Bowling for Columbine) literally ask questions ("how could this have happened?", "who is responsible?"). If respondents watch documentaries more often, this inquisitive attitude might be something they pick up on and internalize, thus using it from time to time when they come across something they do not quite understand or agree with. As a result of these factors, it is possible that respondents who watch a lot of documentaries know more about the construction of media content, and are also more likely to question it, which would explain their higher scores on the scale that measures their understanding of media production.

The second explanation for the opposing relationships between news, documentaries and scores on the scale for media production is related to the viewers' characteristics. It could be that respondents who watch a great deal of news do so because they want to stay informed about the world and believe that the news is a trustworthy source of information, one that does need not to be critically scrutinized. Conversely, people who do not watch the news that often, could be doing so because they do not perceive the news as reliable. The latter group would thus outperform the former in terms of scores

on the scale for media production. Moreover, one could argue that watching the news is merely a part of a regular viewing menu; i.e., when one watches a lot of television, one will automatically see a lot of news, simply because it is broadcast on a large number of channels at least several times a day. Therefore, people who watch a lot of news may not always make the conscious choice to do so. This assumption is underlined by research conducted by Rubin and Perse (1987), who found that people who use television to pass the time or out of habit (so-called ritualization motives) were more likely to watch the news indiscriminately and as another time-filling activity. This passive attitude towards television in general could lead to a lesser performance on questions that are related to media production. On the other hand, documentaries are viewed by a far smaller amount of people, which implies that people who watch documentaries exhibit selective viewing behavior, where they actively chose which programs they wish to watch. This could point to a more critical attitude towards television, one which could also result in a high score on the scale for media production.

School-related variables
Both school-related variables are related to one's score on the scale for media production. First, a respondent's grade in social studies is positively related to how one performs on questions relating to the production of media content (Beta =.16; p = .00), a finding which is similar to the results from the bivariate analysis discussed in chapter 5. Finally, the finding that the grade a respondent is in has a positive effect on one's score on the scale for media production (Beta =.24; p = .00) indicates that respondents in higher grades do better on the questions related to media production than respondents in lower grades. This finding is in line with findings from earlier studies (Dorr, 1983; Huston & Wright, 1983), which were discussed in chapter 5.

6.2.3 Multivariate analysis: Understanding the influence of the media on its users
In this section I will discuss those findings that shed light on the predictors that are related to the respondents' understanding of media influence on its users. In Table 6.4, the findings from the multiple regression analysis for this scale are presented.

Table 6.4. Results multiple linear regression analysis: Media influence on its users.

Variable	Beta
Personal	
Parents´ level of education[a]	.16*
Number of countries lived in[b]	.03
Media-related	
How much television do you watch every day[b]	.05
How often do you read a newspaper[b]	-.04
How often do you check the Internet for news[b]	.03
How often do you watch the news[b]	-.01
How often do you watch talk shows[b]	.07
How often do you watch documentaries[b]	.11
School-related	
Which grade did you get for social studies[a]	.15*
Which grade are you in[b]	.04

[a] Because hypotheses were developed based on these variables and media literacy, they were tested one-tailed.
[b] There were no expectations regarding these variables, hence they were tested two-tailed.
* These findings were significant at $p<0.05$, $r^2=.08$.

Personal characteristics

Regarding personal characteristics, the outcome of the multivariate analysis indicates that parental education is positively related to the respondents' scores on the scale for media influence on its users (Beta $=.16$; $p =.00$). This finding is similar to the conclusions from the bivariate analysis which was discussed in chapter 5, and in line with the explanation that parents who have attended university are more likely to stimulate their children to think more about issues related to the possible influence the media could have on its users, although it could also be attributed to the fact that perhaps these parents have brighter children.

Media-related variables

The multiple regression analysis shows that none of the media-related variables influence the respondents' scores on the scale that measures one's understanding of media influence on its users. Apparently, in this study, how much or how little one uses the media is not related to understanding the extent to which people are affected by the media. Although it is likely that one does need to be aware of the kinds of media content that exists to be able to surmise how people might be influenced by it, being exposed to different media is apparently not going to increase one's insight into possible media influence. Instead, this type of knowledge is probably acquired through self-reflection and understanding of other people.

School-related variables

Regarding school-related variables, the following two conclusions can be drawn. First,

just as shown in the bivariate analysis, the multiple regression analysis reveals that a respondent's grade in social studies is positively related to their score on the scale for media influence on its users (Beta =.15; p =.00). It thus appears that the knowledge respondents need to do well in social studies; i.e., knowledge about the world around them, and how people function in this world, is related to the kind of knowledge one needs to understand the influence the media can have on people using them. Second, it is interesting that the grade one is in is not significantly related to one's score on the scale for media influence on its users (Beta =.04; p =.54). This result seems to indicate that growing older does not necessarily lead to the understanding required to do better on the questions related to how the media could influence its users. When combining these two findings with the fact that the respondents in this study did fairly well on the scale that measured the influence of the media on its users, one could draw the conclusion that the respondents in this study know a great deal of what there is to know about this dimension of media literacy. This could be the result of the fact that the acquisition of the kind of knowledge embodied by this scale (an understanding of people, institutions, and events) commences at a fairly early age with teachers and parents constantly pointing out the dangers of watching too much television, and elaborating on the large role television plays in children's lives. The discussion surrounding the media and the role they play in society and in children's lives is an ongoing one, one that is carried out by teachers, parents, as well as the media. It is possible that children pick up on this as easily as they learn about other "facts of life", a presumption which is in line with previous research (e.g., Buckingham, 1993; Desmond & Jeffries-Fox, 1983; Roberts, Christenson, Gibson, Moser, & Goldberg, 1980). However, as shown by the finding that one's grade in social studies does affect one's score on the scale for media influence on its users, it appears possible to improve one's knowledge of this dimension of media literacy through an extensive interest in the topic. It could be that respondents who are more interested in social issues will get higher grades in social studies. Respondents who profess an interest in these areas are possibly also more interested in the related topic of how the media can impact people's lives, and will thus pay more attention to things they hear, see, and read about this topic both in and outside of school. Subsequently, they will do better on the questions that measure their understanding of the media's influence on its users.

These explanations regarding the relationship between age, one's grade on social studies and the respondents' performance on the scale for media influence on its users are only tentative, and, just like the other relationships uncovered in this study, require further empirical investigation, an issue which will be touched upon in the next chapter.

6.3 Conclusion

The purpose of this chapter was to demonstrate the possible uses of the measurement instrument developed in this study. This chapter showed that it is possible to not only deduce the overall scores of the respondents, but to also isolate the areas that the respondents knew a great deal about, as well as those areas on which they could use extra instruction. Finally, the chapter revealed that it is possible to infer which factors influence

the scores on the questionnaire through two multivariate analyses.

First, the results showed that the respondents know more about the possible influence of the media on its users than they do about media production. Second, the analyses showed that the respondents' scores were impacted by several factors. Regarding knowledge of media production, respondents who, besides watching television, use the Internet, know more about the production of media content than respondents who use one source of information. Moreover, whether one watches the news or documentaries also impacts how much one knows about the production of media content. Respondents who watched the news more often scored lower on the scale that measured the understanding of media production than respondents who did not watch the news very often. Conversely, respondents who watched a lot of documentaries knew more about media production than respondents who did not spend a lot of time watching documentaries. Additionally, knowledge about media production is positively influenced by a respondent's grade in social studies and which grade a respondent is in. Regarding one's knowledge about the influence the media could have on its users, this is positively affected by a respondent's parents' level of education and the respondent's grade in social studies.

How do these findings relate to the assumptions made by Potter (2004a), which were presented earlier in this chapter? If one assumes that knowledge of the real world is somewhat equal to one's grade in social studies, one can conclude that knowledge of the real world does impact how one scores on both scales for media production and media influence on its users. Additionally, using different media can impact one's understanding of the production of media content. Potter also referred to "cognitive abilities", and speculated on how this could impact media literacy. To assess a respondent's cognitive abilities, extensive testing is required, and this fell outside of the scope of this survey. Therefore it is really not possible to draw any conclusions regarding this speculation. One could, however, make the assumption that older respondents have more developed cognitive abilities, and that therefore cognitive development does make a difference regarding knowledge about media production, since the grade on is in is positively related to one's score on this scale. Conversely, since one's knowledge about media influence on its users is not influenced by age, but only by one's grade in social studies, one could infer that this kind of knowledge is more affected by one's interest in the topic than one's cognitive capacities.

In short, both the understanding of media production as well as the understanding of the possible media influence on its users are influenced by different factors, implying that media literacy is far from being one conglomerate concept. This discussion shall be further elaborated on in the next chapter.

Chapter 7. Conclusion and discussion

In this final chapter I will once again turn to the main purpose of this study, which was to develop an instrument to measure media literacy, and discuss the main findings and conclusions.

The development of the measurement instrument was split up into three steps. The first step was conceptualizing media literacy, i.e., creating a notion of what media literacy entails. In the second step, this definition of media literacy was tailored towards the link between media and democracy. The final step encompassed the creation of the instrument to measure media literacy, as well as establishing the validity and reliability of the measuring instrument. In an additional analysis, I delved into the usefulness of the instrument. This encompassed an illustration of how the instrument developed in this study could be used to uncover which respondents knew a great deal about media production and media influence on its users, and which respondents, by comparison, knew far less. This analysis also showed how the information gathered by this instrument could be used to ascertain which factors are related to the understanding of media production and influence on its users. In this final chapter, I will discuss each step as well as the conclusions which can be drawn from each section of the study. Finally, I will discuss conclusions pertaining to the study in general, and make recommendations for future research.

7.1 Defining media literacy

When developing an instrument, a first step is to outline what exactly one is trying to measure. Thus, one of the sub-aims of this study was to create a clear definition of media literacy. The reason for this was that over the years, a large number of researchers have defined media literacy from a large variety of perspectives, which has resulted in an overwhelming multitude of differing definitions. The field of definitions was summarized and categorized using a schematic representation of media production and use (see Figure 7.1). This representation consisted of four arrows which each described one dimension of the interaction between the media, their producers, and their users. The definitions of media literacy, or parts of these definitions, were placed with the arrow they matched the best, and the arrows were further specified into aspects using existing definitions of media literacy. This led to the creation of the following definition: media literacy is the awareness of the different aspects of the production of media content, the influence of the media on its users and its producers, and the way in which users deal with the media. Any critical attitude and/or behaviors towards the media, as well as any abilities regarding the media that are the result of this awareness are, according to this overview, also deemed a part of media literacy.

In addition to creating an overarching definition, this overview revealed four interesting facts about the field of media literacy.
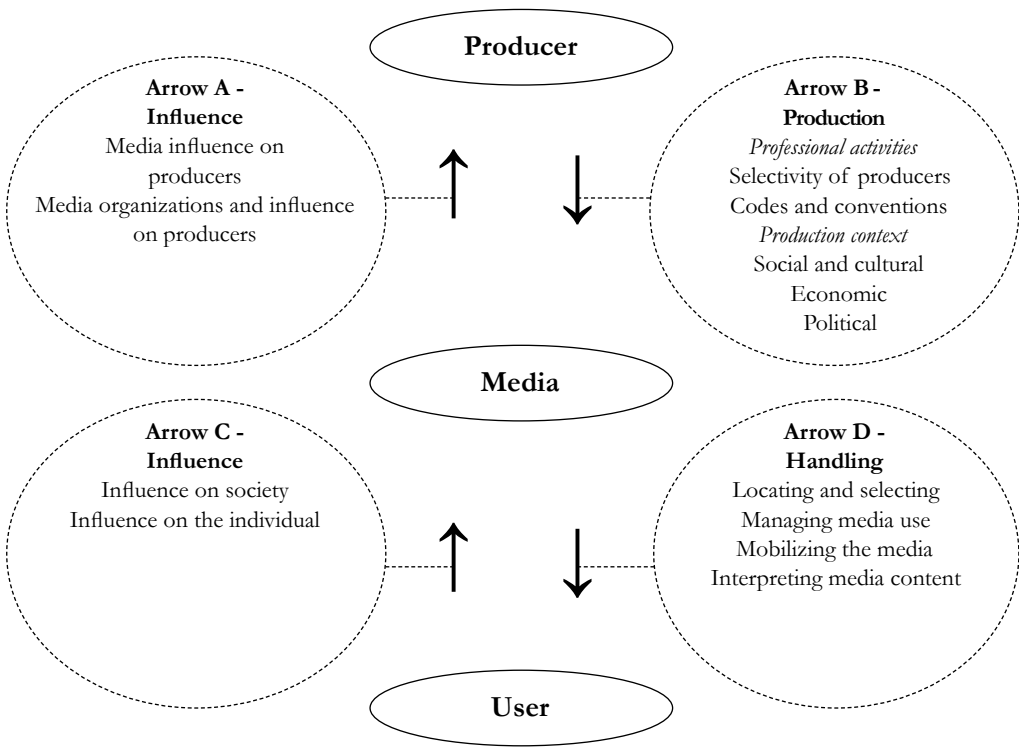
Figure 7.1. A schematic representation for understanding media literacy.

First, although as outlined above, the field of media literacy seems very broad and different authors use different theoretical and practical perspectives, all definitions of media literacy entail an awareness of one or more aspects of the use and production of media messages. All media literacy scholars, when outlining what media literate people need to be able to do, include knowledge about different aspects of the production of media content, as well as knowledge about various aspects regarding the relationship between the user and the media.

Second, in spite of the above-outlined agreement, the amount of attention the field of media literacy pays to the four different relationships depicted in the schematic representation varies widely. Understanding the production of media messages (arrow B) is considered essential for media literacy by the vast majority of media literacy scholars. The definitions of media literacy address a wide array of issues; from the practical side of media production to the more abstract discussion about the different codes in a message and their possible meanings.

Additionally, the influence that the media can have on its users (arrow C) is also

deemed a part of media literacy by a large number of media literacy researchers, although it does not receive the overwhelming attention given to the understanding of media production. This could be the result of a theoretical debate regarding the relevance of this awareness for media literacy, which will be further elaborated on in section 7.7.

Although understanding how people handle the media (arrow D) is deemed a part of media literacy, this understanding receives less attention from media literacy scholars than media production and the influence of the media on its users. This could be caused by the fact that many media literacy definitions arise from a practice-oriented context, i.e., they are rooted in an educational environment. Teaching students how to deal with the media in a constructive manner, and to understand their own interpretation processes is a great deal more complicated than teaching them about the production or influence of the media. The latter can occur in a fairly simple classroom setting where the teacher dispenses information, and the students learn the facts presented to them. Learning how to handle the media, however, would require a more diverse approach, which would incorporate practical activities such as keeping media diaries, exploring how to gain media attention, and investigating one's own interpretations of media content. These activities are less run-of-the-mill in an educational setting, which could be the reason why people's handling of the media is mentioned less often in media literacy literature. Another reason for this lack of attention could be that the key concepts used in the UK for several decades now (Bazalgette, 1992), have never paid any attention to the activities undertaken by the media users themselves. This lack of attention could have trickled through to other researchers who based themselves on these key concepts.

The fourth relationship depicted in Figure 7.1, understanding the influence that the media can have on media producers (arrow A), is ignored completely. The field of studies that focus on the producers as media users (e.g., MacManus, 1994; Breed, 1955) is excluded from the vast majority of media literacy definitions; only one author briefly points out that producers are not isolated from the media surrounding them, but are influenced by them in various ways. Considering the heavy focus that many definitions place on how media content is created, this gap is unexpected; why is the influence that the media have on producers not recognized? One possible explanation for this could be that this influence is considered implicitly included in the many references to the context in which the media messages are created. The media are, after all, a part of that context. However, the lack of explicit references to this specific line of influence seems to reveal that within the field of media literacy, this is overlooked by most researchers. This could be because it is so commonplace to talk about the media as influencing their users, that it is easy to forget that media producers use the media as well. The way in which many media literacy scholars discuss the production of media content seems to suggest that the fact that media producers are humans who are just as much a part of the ongoing interaction between the media and the people tends to be forgotten.

Third, this overview shows that, apart from the influence of the media on media producers, every aspect included in the schematic representation of media use and production was already considered a part of media literacy some twenty years ago.

So although the field of media literacy is often perceived as ever-changing and fast-paced, it actually appears that the essence of how people define media literacy has changed very little over the years. The fairly static nature of the field could be the result of the fact that a large majority of media literacy researchers seem to build on each other's work, incorporating previously developed ideas into newly phrased definitions. Moreover, the field of media literacy has a very practical orientation, and thus most research is concerned with the concrete applicability of the concept, i.e., how can media literacy be taught in different settings and with different topics, as opposed to developing new ways to define media literacy. A tentative conclusion that can be drawn from this finding is that media literacy researchers feel that the conceptualization of media literacy developed over the past few decades has provided ample opportunities for their research or education endeavors, and requires little change.

Finally, the most important conclusion that can be drawn from structuring the various definitions of media literacy into one schematic representation is that media literacy is a multi-facetted, very complex concept. This implies that because media literacy is such a rich concept, it requires, when measured correctly, multiple instruments. The number of aspects that were uncovered in the investigation of the field of media literacy attests to this fact. Not only have three out of the four arrows identified in Figure 7.1 been extensively described by many different researchers, the different aspects belonging to each arrow have also been applied to a large variety of fields, from health research (Primack et al., 2006), to gender studies (Irving & Berel, 2001; Vargas, 2006), to obesity programs (Kline, 2005), to research into the effects of advertising (Hobbs, 2004; Livingstone & Helsper, 2006), to the research into the link between media and democracy described in this study. The broad variety of aspects included in the schematic representation made it clear that it is impossible to develop a measurement instrument for the whole of media literacy. Even if an instrument would be restricted to one medium only, it would still not be possible to measure people's knowledge and understanding regarding all the aspects described in this overview. This is not only because of the large number of aspects, but also due to the great variety of perspectives from which these aspects were described; i.e., measuring media literacy from the notion that the media are a factor in child obesity or from the idea that the media teach people stereotypical thoughts and ideas leads to two very different instruments. Hence, when attempting to measure media literacy, a first step is to define the focus of the instrument.

7.2 Tailoring media literacy
As mentioned at the end of the previous paragraph, it is not possible to develop an instrument to measure media literacy in its entirety. Media literacy is a very rich, multi-facetted concept that can only be measured if one adopts a very specific focus from which to develop such an instrument. When choosing a focus for an instrument, one needs to decide on the purpose of media literacy; i.e., one needs to answer the question why people need to be media literate, and define media literacy accordingly. Thus, if for instance one wishes to develop a media education program that helps prevent eating disorders in teenagers, one will define media literacy so that it reflects what these

teenagers need to know or be able to do regarding the media in order to prevent them from acquiring an eating disorder. So, Wilksch, Tiggemann, and Wade (2005) developed a program whereby teenagers were taught to critically evaluate media content and propose alternatives to the ideals presented the mass media. A program such as the one developed by Kline (2005) which was intended to reduce obesity mainly interpreted media literacy as teaching youngsters to become aware of the extent of, as well as limit, their use of the media.

In the current study, the decision was made to approach media literacy from the perspective that the media play a central role in democracy. Understanding the relationship between media and democracy can be considered one of the primary functions of media literacy. As explained in chapter 1, the media are vital in informing both citizens and politicians about what is going in society. However, research has shown that the media are unable to provide complete and unbiased accounts of important events or developments. This suggests that people, in order to be well-informed about what is going on in the world around them and thus function as well-informed citizens, have to be media literate; i.e., they need to be able to adopt a critical attitude towards the information presented to them by the media, as well as know how to locate information about topics not necessarily covered by the mainstream media. This focus meant that the aspects of media literacy identified in chapter 2 had to be tailored to fit what people need to know about the media, its production and its use to function as critical, well-informed citizens.

The categorization of the literature, as described in the previous section, with the relationships between the three components of the schematic representation further specified into various aspects (see Figure 7.1), allowed for the tailoring of generic media literacy aspects into aspects that are relevant regarding the focus on media and democracy (see chapter 3). This tailoring was achieved in two steps. First, I determined if an aspect was relevant in light of the debate surrounding the role the media play in democracy. In some cases, people's awareness of an aspect would not aid them in functioning well in a mediated democracy, in which case that aspect was excluded from further consideration. Second, if an aspect was deemed relevant, the question was asked what people needed to know about this aspect of media production and use to become critical citizens; the answer would make up the tailored definition of that aspect. These definitions were then used to develop questions for the measurement instrument. Although this tailoring process was carried out for all four arrows, the final instrument focused solely on the production of media content (arrow B) and the influence the media can have on its users (arrow C). The reason behind this decision was two-fold; the questionnaire's length needed to be adapted to the attention span of the respondents, and these two arrows were deemed most relevant in light of the debate surrounding the role that the media play in a democracy

The categorization developed in chapter 2 is generic in the sense that it can be adapted to match any focus used in any media literacy study. Thus the tailoring process described above can be carried out for any perspective on media literacy, and is not limited to the focus on media and democracy used in this study.

7.3 Measuring media literacy: Reliability and validity

The final aim of this study was to develop a reliable and valid measurement instrument which would assess the extent to which 11 to 18 year olds were aware of media production and the media's influence on its users. Several steps were taken to ensure that this would be achieved successfully.

Regarding reliability and validity, the instrument was tested in a total of three pretests, two pilot studies, and one major survey, and the results of this study showed that the final instrument was both reliable and valid in several ways. Prior to commencing the analyses of the data collected through the two pilot studies, the decision was made to separate the questions which measured respondents' understanding of media production from the questions which measured the respondents' understanding of media influence on its users. This decision, which was also applied to the survey data, was made because both sets of questions measured two different dimensions of media literacy. When analyzing the data collected through the survey, the reliability of the two scales was assessed using a reliability analysis, which established the internal consistency of both sets of questions. After excluding those questions whose item total correlation was below .10, the Cronbach's alpha for the questions that measured the respondents' understanding of media production was .74, while the Cronbach's alpha for the questions that assessed the respondents' understanding of media's influence on its users was .81.

Once the reliability analysis had been completed, the next step was to assess the validity of the two scales. The construct validity of the questionnaire was assessed by developing several hypotheses about media literacy and related variables and assessing whether these held true for the data collected in the survey. Five out of the six hypotheses were confirmed, and the one hypothesis that did not hold true was only rejected for one of the two scales. Next, the content validity of the two scales was confirmed in two different ways. The first step towards ensuring the content validity of both scales was taken in chapters 2 and 3, where every effort was made to include all the aspects that are considered a part of media literacy in the literature overview and the subsequent tailoring of the concept of media literacy. Since these two chapters formed the foundation of the questionnaire, this then covered the vast majority of the meanings which are part of the concept of media literacy.

The second step entailed an external review of the questionnaire by media education experts. These experts, i.e., teachers in the field of media education, were asked to evaluate the questionnaire on the relevance of its topics, its appropriateness for the intended age group, and its ability to assess media literacy. The experts indicated that, according to their opinion, the scales sufficiently covered all the aspects in such a way that they were able to measure how media literate 11-18 year olds are regarding the production and influence of media messages.

7.4 Usefulness of the instrument

Additionally, the instrument has proven its usefulness as well. First, as evidenced by the findings presented in chapter 6, the two scales are capable of providing information

about respondents' understanding of media production and the influence of the media on its users. Chapter 6 showed how one can compare the respondents' scores on both scales, and the results from the survey revealed that the respondents knew more about how the media can influence its users than they did about media production. Additionally, it is possible to use the results from the questionnaire to make statements regarding the scores on specific questions. Thus, it is possible to use these findings to create a media education program that specifically meets the needs of the students taking the survey. Second, the measurement instrument is very easy to use in the classroom. It can be administered in one sitting, no additional materials (such as video clips) are needed, and assessing how respondents scored on the questions is relatively straightforward. In that respect, the measurement instrument developed in this study is ideal for a quick scan of the respondents' understanding of media production and the influence of the media on its users.

Another area where this instrument could be put to good use is the field of media education. The instrument could be used as a checklist for media education programs which focus on teaching about the link between media and democracy. Because the instrument is based on a fairly complete overview of what people need to know about media production and influence regarding the role that the media play in maintaining democracy, its questions cover all the aspects relevant in this respect. A media education program should thus address all of the issues raised by the instrument. Moreover, the instrument could be used to assess the effectiveness of a media education program. In this case, the questionnaire could be used in a pre-test/post-test design whereby the questions would be administered before the respondents take part in a media education program, and after they had completed the program. The results from both tests could then be used to assess the effectiveness of the media education program.

7.5 Media literacy and correlating factors

Besides developing a measurement instrument, this study provided insight into which factors influence respondents' understanding of the production of media content and its influence on its users. Potter (2004a) is one of the few media literacy scholars who made suggestions about links between media literacy and other variables. He reasoned that one's level of media literacy is tied to one's knowledge of the real world as well as one's cognitive abilities, whether or not one uses different media, and the extent to which one is exposed to various media content. Some of his suggestions were corroborated, while a few had to be rejected. Moreover, this study found that the links between personal, media-related, and school-related variables and one's understanding of media production and media influence on its users varied per scale in the case of some variables, a finding which further underlines the multi-facetted nature of the concept of media literacy discussed earlier in this conclusion.

In summary, the following claims can be made regarding the relationships between the personal, media-related and school-related variables measured in this study and the respondents' knowledge of the two different scales. For starters, this study found that the respondents' understanding of media production was positively related to the

respondents' grade, which confirms the findings from previous studies that as children get older they acquire more knowledge about media production. Furthermore, both the respondents' understanding of media influence on its users and their knowledge about media production was positively related to their grade in social studies. This finding was in line with the assumption that the more the respondents know about the real world, as evidenced by their grade in social studies, the more they will know about media production and influence of media content on its users. In addition, the analyses showed that the respondents' understanding of media production was positively related to the number of countries the respondents had lived in and their usage of the Internet for news next to watching television. These two findings are related to the assumptions that people's knowledge of media production is positively affected when respondents have the ability to compare media content, either through their exposure to media content from different cultural backgrounds, or their use of different media. Moreover, the respondents' scores on media production were positively related to the amount of time they spent watching documentaries. As outlined in chapter 6, this can be explained in two different ways. First, it could be the result of the topics of many documentaries, which provide viewers with information and facts with which they can question other non-fiction programs. Second, it is also possible that people who watch more documentaries are more critical of television content than people who do not watch documentaries that often. Conversely, the respondents' understanding of media production was negatively related to how often the respondents watched the news. This too can be the result of two different factors. For starters, it could be attributed to the tendency of the news to present itself as a window on reality, a perspective which heavy news watchers may adopt. Second, this finding could also be the result of the fact that people who watch a great deal of television in general also tend to watch a lot of news simply because there are many news broadcasts in a given day. People who watch a lot of television tend to do so out of habit or in order to kill time (Rubin & Perse, 1987), and thus they could be less likely to adopt a critical attitude when watching any television content, including the news. Moreover, the respondents' knowledge of the influence exerted by the media on its users was also positively related to the respondents' parents' level of education. This finding could be the result of highly-educated people having smart children, or of the fact that people with a higher education tend to create a more stimulating environment for their children, one which the children are encouraged to adopt a critical and inquisitive attitude towards their surroundings, including the media.

The finding that one's grade in social studies is a predictor of one's understanding of the influence of the media on its users, while the grade one is in is not related to one's understanding of this influence is surprising. As explained in chapter 6, this suggests that one's level of interest in the media plays a large role in how much one knows about its influence. If the grade one is in does not make a difference in one's level of awareness of the media's influence on its users, but one's grade in social studies does, a possible explanation could be that respondents already know a great deal about the influence of the media on its users. Nonetheless, those respondents who are more interested in institutions covered by social studies might also be interested in the media, and thus

score higher both in social studies as well as on the scale, than students who are not as interested in social institutions and the media. Future research could further explore this notion by asking more in-depth questions about respondents' interest in media-related topics, finding out how much they expose themselves to information about the media, and then attempt to link that to their performance on the scale that measures their understanding of media influence on individuals. Such research might also uncover a similar relationship between interest in the media and the scale that measures understanding of media production.

7.6 Sample: Limitations and opportunities
As indicated in chapter 5, the sample used in this study was a convenience sample, based on those European English-speaking schools that were willing to participate. This means that the participants are probably not representative of the average 11-18 year old media user, and that the findings are not applicable to the general population. The fact that this convenience sample is different from a random sample could have had various effects on the findings of this study.

For one thing, the use of this specific sample could have led to higher average scores in two different ways. First, the students at the three schools generally come from a higher socio-economic background than most students at local schools. The investigation addressed one indicator of socio-economic status, namely the parents' level of education. The findings show that respondents whose parents had attended university did better on the scale that addressed the production of media content than respondents whose parents had not attended university, which suggests that if the measurement instrument were to be administered to youngsters who come from more diverse socioeconomic backgrounds, they may not have scored as well as the current respondents on the questions that made up the media production scale. Second, the vast majority of the students live in a country other than their home country, meaning they are exposed to various cultural influences that youngsters living in their home country will not encounter. The findings in chapter 5 did indicate that the more countries respondents had lived in, the better they did on the questions that measured understanding of the production of media content. This suggests that had the questions been posed to youngsters who lived in their own country, the respondents might not have done so well on this scale.

In addition to an increase in the scores, this use of this specific sample could have affected the outcomes of this study in one other way. The respondents in this sample came from a wide variety of different cultures and countries, one that is probably far more diverse than any sample not drawn from international schools. This means that the questions were subjected to a more stringent reliability testing than when the respondents had come from a culturally homogeneous sample. The respondents who filled out the questionnaire did so from a wide array from perspectives, thus possibly subjecting the question to many different interpretations, which could have reduced the level of reliability currently attributed to the two scales. However, the fact that both scales still possess an acceptable Cronbach's alpha suggests that they are fairly robust,

and that the reliability of the scales might only improve among respondents who come from on single, or several similar, cultural backgrounds.

7.7 Discussion
Besides the conclusions outlined above, this study also added new insights to several issues that have been an area of debate within the field of media literacy for a number of years.

First, within the field of media literacy, various authors have raised the issue whether media literacy should be perceived as a set of skills, knowledge, or a series of abilities, or maybe an attitude. For instance, Christ and Potter (1998) noted that; "Besides arguing over which medium is central to literacy, the very notion of literacy is being debated. How broadly should literacy be conceptualized? Should it be regarded as a skill …, as an accumulation of knowledge …, or as a perspective on the world?"(p. 7). The overview provided in chapter 2 revealed that knowledge, abilities, and attitudes do not necessarily exclude one another, for all three are included in different arrows identified in Figure 7.1. Understanding media production, for instance, refers to both abilities and knowledge by including the ability to produce media messages as well as knowledge about media production. Additionally, awareness of how people handle the media mainly refers to abilities, as well as encompassing some knowledge about interpretation, as well as attitudes regarding when to use the media, and which programs one should or should not watch. In short, it appears that the distinction between knowledge, skills, and attitudes is interesting but not of utmost importance when it comes to creating a definition, where the focus lies on what people need to be media literate.

Second, media literacy is a field that has traditionally been approached from a variety of theoretical paradigms. Some definitions are based on a more cultural studies approach (e.g., Luke, 1997; Luke, 2003), others use a women's studies perspective (Merskin, 2004), while Potter (2004a), for one, adopts a cognitive approach, and a majority of the definitions used in contemporary media literacy research do not appear to utilize any theoretical perspective at all (e.g., Aufderheide, 1997; Thoman, 1999). Some authors have pointed to the apparent oppositions (Brown, 1998; Christ & Potter, 1998; Potter, 2004a, b) between the different theoretical perspectives and definitions, which especially appear to center around the question whether media literacy includes an awareness of the influence the media can have on its users. Within media literacy, there are two camps of scholars regarding this dimension of media literacy. The first group, mainly proponents of the cultural studies paradigm (Kubey, 2003), claim that studying the effects of the media is unnecessary, and that media literacy should instead focus on the pleasures and meanings that people derive from the media. However, large groups of media literacy scholars, especially in the United States, disagree and instead argue that it is essential for people to understand the role that media play in shaping their perceptions and directing their behavior (Lloyd-Kolkin et al., 1980), or, as Piette and Giroux (1997, p.116) put it, in order to shield people against "…the highly developed manipulative powers of television". The overview presented in chapter 2 made the attempt to include definitions as diverse as possible, and encompassed definitions regardless of perspective or

approach. This overview thus revealed that although not all media literacy scholars agree on which topics should be included in media literacy, all definitions can be categorized within the relationships between the media, their producers and/or their users.

In short, in spite of the apparent disagreement within the field of media literacy on the distinction between knowledge, attitudes, and skills on the one hand, and the variety in theoretical perspectives on the other, have not hampered the development of a successful measurement instrument.

7.8 Moving forward

The outcomes of this study have several implications for the future of media literacy research and the practice of media education. The findings presented here also give rise to suggestions for additional research into the assessment of media literacy levels.

7.8.1 Media literacy research: Future endeavors

This study provides two starting points for future research. First, this study has shown that the divergent collection of definitions of media literacy can be united into one schematic representation for media literacy, as evidenced by Figure 7.1. Future media literacy researchers could further elaborate on the different aspects identified in the representation, adapting them to different perspectives on the importance of media literacy, such as the 'media and democracy' one utilized in this study, or to different genres, or even different media. This could lay the groundwork for instruments to measure media literacy from different perspectives.

Second, this study has shown that it is possible to measure media literacy in a quantitative manner. Future research could further test and perfect the instrument developed in this study. The first thing that could be looked into is to further increase the validity and reliability of the scales. One way in which the validity of the instrument could be increased could be by conducting in-depth qualitative interviews with youngsters to establish their level of media literacy followed by an administration of the questionnaire, and comparing the findings from the two methods. The instrument developed here could also be applied to different populations to further assess its validity and reliably. Furthermore, using the instrument in different cultures and languages would also provide additional information on its validity. A second research initiative could be to render the research instrument applicable to both younger and older target groups. Children in elementary school are often the focus of media literacy projects, but no researcher has attempted to establish their level of media literacy yet. Additionally, as noted by Dennis (2004), the vast majority of media literacy and media education efforts focus on youngsters, while adults use the media to the same extent as youngsters do, thus requiring the same level of media literacy. Therefore, there is ample reason to test the scale to see if it is usable for these two age groups as well, and if necessary, adapt it to the target groups' characteristics.

7.8.2 Implications for media education practice

The scale developed in this study could aid in testing the effectiveness of media

education programs that focus on the news. Educators could use it as a pre-project measurement, and then utilize its outcomes to assess the needs of their students. These findings could then be used to adjust the media education project to pay more attention to those elements of media literacy the participants know little about, and to perhaps focus less on those elements with which they are already very familiar.

7.9 Concluding remarks
This study successfully completed the first attempt to develop an instrument to measure media literacy from the perspective of the mediated democracy. It revealed that media literacy is a complex and rich concept that will probably never be captured by one measurement instrument. In addition, this study showed that establishing how critical youngsters are of non-fiction programs on television is possible, and in fact, provides ample stepping stones for future research.

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Appendix 1. Aspects of media literacy

Arrows

Aspects

Media influence on producers

→ Media used by producers can influence media content

Production of media content

→ Professional activities → selectivity of the producers
→ codes and conventions → production procedures
→ dramatic/narrative codes

→ Production context → social and cultural context
→ economic context
→ political context

Media influence on its users

→ Influence on society → influence on the political system
→ influence on the social and cultural institutions
→ influence on the cultural make-up

→ Influence on the individual → influence on opinions and ideas
→ influence on behavior

Arrows

Aspects

Handling the media

→ Locating and selecting
  → information seeking strategies
  → assessing the quality of sources

→ influence on feelings
→ factors that mediate influence of the media

→ Managing media use
  → awareness of media use patterns
  → using the media in a constructive manner
  → motives for using the media

→ Mobilizing the media

→ Interpreting media
  content
  → interpretation is result of personal factors
  → interpretation is result of socio-economic factors

Appendix 2. Aspects of media literacy tailored towards media and democracy

Arrow	**Aspects**		
Media influence on producers	→ Media influence on producers		
	→ Media organizations and media influence on producers		
Production of media content	→ Professional activities	→ selectivity of the producers	
		→ codes and conventions	→ production procedures
			→ dramatic/narrative codes
			→ distinction between fact and fiction
			→ fictionalization
			→ news facts embedded in story
	→ Production context	→ social and cultural context	
		→ economic context	→ profit v. non-profit
			→ target audience
		→ political context	

Arrow	Aspects	
Media influence on its users	→ Influence on society	→ influence on the political system
		→ influence on the social and cultural institutions
		→ influence on the cultural make-up
	→ Influence on the individual	→ influence on behavior
		→ influence on opinions and ideas
		→ influence on feelings
		→ factors that mediate influence
Handling the media	→ Locating and selecting	→ information seeking strategies
		→ assessing the quality of sources
	→ Managing media use	
	→ Mobilizing the media	
	→ Interpreting media content	→ interpretation is result of personal factors
		→ interpretation is result of socio-economic factors

Appendix 3. Pilot studies: Operationalizing media literacy

This appendix shows how the different aspects of media literacy were operationalized by the questions used in the first and second pilot. This appendix also shows the correct answer to each question.
The √ indicates on which side of the scale the correct answer lies.

The production of media content

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
Television news presents a complete picture of what is going on in the world (pilot 1 and 2)	☑	☐	☐	☐

Professional activities

Selectivity of the producers

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
The stories you see on the news are about the only important events that took place that day (pilot 1 and 2)	☑	☐	☐	☐
The description of an event on the news is complete (pilot 1 and 2)	☑	☐	☐	☐
News programs are too short to show all the important stories of that day (pilot 1 and 2)	☐	☐	☐	☑
The spokespeople that appear on TV news are often the ones that the journalists could find the fastest (pilot 1 and 2)	☐	☐	☐	☑

Codes and conventions

<u>Production procedures</u>

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
Newsreaders are all alone in the studio when they read the news (pilot 1)	☑	☐	☐	☐
When newsreaders read the news, no other TV station employees are in the studio (pilot 2)	☑	☐	☐	☐
The news is filmed before a live studio audience (pilot 2)	☑	☐	☐	☐
Reporters determine how long a story on the news will be (pilot 1 and 2)	☑	☐	☐	☐
Of course, the content of a news program depends on what happened in the world. But, the content of a news program also depends on the number of reporters at work that day (pilot 1 and 2)	☐	☐	☐	☑
The length of a news program is only determined by the number of important events that happened that day (pilot 1 and 2)	☑	☐	☐	☐
The order of subjects on the news is random (pilot 1 and 2)	☑	☐	☐	☐

Production procedures (continued)

Which of the following activities always happen when reporters put together a news story?				
- talk to all the people involved in the event (pilot 1 and 2)	☑	☐	☐	☐
- make a decision on whether or not to run the story (pilot 1 and 2)	☐	☐	☐	☑
- hear from the editors how long their story is allowed to be (pilot 1 and 2)	☐	☐	☐	☑
- send a camera crew to the scene (pilot 1 and 2)	☑	☐	☐	☐
- pick up a lead on a story (pilot 1 and 2)	☐	☐	☐	☑

Production procedures (continued)

Below you will see sets of two pictures taken from a television news program. These pictures are also called shots. In television (and film as well), several techniques are used to create these shots. Examples of such techniques are: special effects, props, and costumes.
The pictures in each set look very similar. However, in each set one technique is applied differently. Look at each set, and, in the space provided below the two pictures, write down, in your own words, which technique is applied differently, and how.

> Set 1 (see page 140 for pilot 1 and page 169 for pilot 2) showed a difference in zoom.
> Set 2 (see page 140 for pilot 1 and page 169 for pilot 2) showed a difference in camera angle.
> Set 3 (see page 141 for pilot 1 and page 170 for pilot 2) showed a difference in lighting.
> Set 4 (see page 141 for pilot 1 and page 170 for pilot 2) showed a difference in focus.

(pilot 1 and 2)

(See Appendix 10 for coding scheme)

Below you will see a series of statements from different news programs. Each statement is accompanied by two pictures. Read each statement carefully. Then decide which picture would be used by the news to go with that statement. Indicate which picture would be used by the news by crossing (X) or checking (√) the circle below that picture. In the space provided below the picture, explain why you think they would use that picture.

	Correct picture
Statement 1 (President Bush addressing a conference)	1
Statement 2 (Professor West commenting on teen crime) [1]	2
Statement 3 (Mourning Boston mother)	1
Statement 4 (Peaceful demonstration turned violent) [2]	1
Statement 5 (Reporter on the scene) [3]	2

(pilot 1 and 2)

(See Appendix 10 for coding scheme)

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[1] For statements 1 and 2 see page 150 for pilot 1 and page 179 for pilot 2.
[2] For statements 3 and 4 see page 151 for pilot 1 and page 180 for pilot 2.
[3] For statement 5 see page 152 for pilot 1 and page 181 for pilot 2.

<u>Dramatic/narrative codes</u>

Distinction between fact and fiction

Q: Can you name five programs which only show real events? (pilot 1 and 2)
     Correct answer: See coding scheme (Appendix 10)
Q: Can you name five programs which are acted? (pilot 1 and 2)
     Correct answer: See coding scheme (Appendix 10)

Q: Below you will see a list of programs. Per program check (√) or cross (x) whether the program shows real events or is acted (pilot 1 and 2)

Program	Real events	More real than acted	More acted than real	Acted	Don't know this program
Gilmore Girls	□	□	□	☑	□
ER	□	□	□	☑	□
The weakest link	☑	□	□	□	□
The news	☑	□	□	□	□
Idols (American Idol, Pop Idol)	☑	□	□	□	□
Coverage European soccer championships	☑	□	□	□	□
Charmed	□	□	□	☑	□
America's next top model	☑	□	□	□	□

Extent to which a non-fiction program contains fictionalized elements

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
Sometimes, documentaries use actors (pilot 1 and 2)	☐	☐	☐	☑
In talk shows, some events are staged (pilot 1 and 2)	☐	☐	☐	☑
Occasionally, the producers of documentaries tell the people in their documentaries what to say (pilot 1 and 2)	☐	☐	☐	☑

News facts are embedded in a story

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
Reporters often turn events into stories (pilot 1 and 2)	☐	☐	☐	☑
When an event is presented on the news, it looks the same as when you were there and saw it yourself (pilot 1 and 2)	☑	☐	☐	☐
Documentaries present facts and pictures in such a way that together they make up a believable story (pilot 1 and 2)	☐	☐	☐	☑

Production context

Social and cultural context

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
A reporter's religious beliefs could influence what the news stories look like that s/he makes (pilot 1 and 2)	☐	☐	☐	☑
News about gay marriages is presented in the same way in different countries (pilot 1 and 2)	☑	☐	☐	☐
Every television station will present news on Islam in the same way (pilot 1 and 2)	☑	☐	☐	☐
Whether a news reporter is young or old, the news stories s/he makes will be the same (pilot 1 and 2	☑	☐	☐	☐
Talk shows in Europe will cover the same topics as talk shows in Asia (pilot 1 and 2)	☑	☐	☐	☐

Economic context

<u>Difference between and effect of profit or non-profit nature of television station</u>

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
Whether a television station has to make money off its programs or not will never influence the kind of news programs it makes (pilot 1 and 2)	☑	☐	☐	☐
Some television stations do not have to make a profit (pilot 1 and 2)	☐	☐	☐	☑
All television stations have to make money off their programs (pilot 1 and 2)	☑	☐	☐	☐

Target audience

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
Newsround is a news program for young children. When news reporters make a story for Newsround, the stories will be presented differently than when they are made for the regular news (pilot 1 and 2)	□	□	□	☑

Below you see a series of stories that are to be used in both the CNN and the BBC news broadcasts.
Imagine that you are the producer of the BBC news. The BBC is a British television station. Place these stories in the order in which you would want them to appear on your news broadcast in the column titled 'BBC'. You can do this by giving each story a number 1-5; 1 indicating the first story and 5 indicating the last story.
Now imagine you are the producer of CNN news. CNN is an American television station. In which order would you broadcast the stories below? Indicate the order in which these stories would appear on the CNN news in the column to the right called 'CNN'. You can do this by giving each story a number 1-5; 1 indicating the first story and 5 indicating the last story
- Unemployment in the US increases to 10%
- European summit successful
- Engineers on strike: no train services in Southern England this week
- Drug use in schools in US on the rise
- Bush and Blair to meet about situation Iraq
(pilot 1 and 2)

(See coding scheme in Appendix 10 for correct answer)

Political context

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
News stations can be different in how they present a story because of differences in their political preference (pilot 1 and 2)	☐	☐	☐	☑
A reporter's political beliefs can influence how s/he presents a news story (pilot 1 and 2)	☐	☐	☐	☑

The influence of the media on its users

Influence on society

Influence on the political system

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
Television influences which presidential candidate wins the US (pilot 1 and 2)	☐	☐	☐	☑
Let's say the government is considering a proposal for a new law. If several popular talk show hosts call this proposal ridiculous, this proposal has a smaller chance to be made into a law (pilot 1 and 2)	☐	☐	☐	☑
Because they want to know which issues are considered important, politicians keep an eye on talk shows that discuss current events (pilot 1 and 2)	☐	☐	☐	☑
If something such as crime is often discussed on television, the government will try to do something about it (pilot 1 and 2)	☐	☐	☐	☑

Influence on the social and cultural institutions

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
Television can influence whether men and women share chores in the home (pilot 1 and 2)	☐	☐	☐	☑
The way in which stories about marriage are presented in the news can change how people behave when they are married (pilot 1 and 2)	☐	☐	☐	☑
If soccer games were taken off television, less people would play soccer (pilot 1 and 2)	☐	☐	☐	☑

Influence on cultural make-up

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
Television has nothing to do with how young people think about drugs (pilot 1)	☑	☐	☐	☐
Television has something to do with how young people think about drugs (pilot 2)	☐	☐	☐	☑
Differences in television content is one of the reasons why in different countries people think differently about issues such as gay marriages (pilot 1 and 2)	☐	☐	☐	☑
Television influences how children between the ages of 12 and 18 treat their parents (pilot 2)	☐	☐	☐	☑

Influence on cultural make-up (continued)

Television influences how children our age treat their parents (pilot 1)	☐	☐	☐	☑
Television influences how children under the age of 12 treat their parents (pilot 2)	☐	☐	☐	☑
Television influences how younger children treat their parents (pilot 1)	☐	☐	☐	☑

Influence on the individual

Influence on behavior

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
TV plays a role in the political party people would vote for (pilot 1 and 2)	☐	☐	☐	☑
TV news influences how people think about a political leader (pilot 1 and 2)	☐	☐	☐	☑
People use the expressions that are used in television programs such as the news and talk shows (pilot 1 and 2)	☐	☐	☐	☑
Television influences how people behave when they demonstrate against something that is important to them (pilot 1 and 2)	☐	☐	☐	☑
Television has nothing to do with what young people wear to parties (pilot 1)	☑	☐	☐	☐
Television influences what young people wear to parties (pilot 2)	☐	☐	☐	☑

Influence on behavior (continued)

The way people talk about politicians is not influenced by television at all (pilot 1 and 2)	☑	☐	☐	☐

Influence on opinions and ideas

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
Television can influence people's opinions of issues such as politics, HIV medication, drug abuse and the Middle East (pilot 2)	☐	☐	☐	☑
Television has little to do with people's opinions of issues such as gay marriages, politics, HIV medication, drug abuse, and the Middle East (pilot 1)	☑	☐	☐	☐
The news can determine how people think about Iraqis (pilot 1 and 2)	☐	☐	☐	☑
People's ideas about politics can be influenced by television programs (pilot 1 and 2)	☐	☐	☐	☑
Television news and documentaries can make people take an event more seriously (pilot 1 and 2)	☐	☐	☐	☑
People's ideas about politics can be influenced by television programs (pilot 1 and 2)	☐	☐	☐	☑
Television will never change people's opinions (pilot 2)	☑	☐	☐	☐

<u>Influence on opinions and ideas (continued)</u>

TV doesn't really affect how Westerners think about Muslims (pilot 1 and 2)	☑	☐	☐	☐

<u>Influence on feelings</u>

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
Television news can change how people feel about a Presidential candidate (pilot 1 and 2)	☐	☐	☐	☑
Television news can scare people (pilot 1 and 2)	☐	☐	☐	☑
Television news sometimes makes people angry (pilot 1 and 2)	☐	☐	☐	☑
Television can make people cry (pilot 2)	☐	☐	☐	☑
Television never makes people cry (pilot 1)	☑	☐	☐	☐
Television never makes people happy (pilot 2)	☑	☐	☐	☐

<u>Factors that mediate influence</u>

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
Parents have the same opinions about television programs as their children do (pilot 1 and 2)	☑	☐	☐	☐
There are different reasons why people watch television. Sometimes you have to watch a program for school. Sometimes you watch a program because you want to. When you watch a news program because you have to for school, you'll have a different opinion of the program than when you watch it because you want to (pilot 1 and 2)	☐	☐	☐	☑
People who live in the city react the same to news about the mad cow disease as people who live in the countryside (pilot 1 and 2)	☑	☐	☐	☐
Some people really get into a show they watch on television. They relate to the characters on this show and what happens to them. These people are more likely to be influenced by these characters than people who do not care about them (pilot 1 and 2)	☐	☐	☐	☑
Sometimes television programs make people upset. When people are upset they remember the program better than people who are not upset (pilot 1 and 2)	☐	☐	☐	☑
People with a lower education will understand the news just as well as people with a higher education (pilot 1 and 2)	☑	☐	☐	☐
Children who watch the news know more about politics than children who do not watch the news. (pilot 1 and 2)	☐	☐	☐	☑

Factors that mediate influence (continued)

Name your favorite television program:

……………………………………………………………….

Check (√) or cross (x) which group of people holds which opinion about your favorite television program. Opinions can belong to more than one group, and a group can have different opinions at the same time.

	They will think your favorite show is boring	They will love your favorite show	They won't understand what your favorite show is all about	They will think it's a waste of time to watch your favorite show	They will think the people on your favorite show are weird	They will think your favorite show is not realistic
Your parents	□	□	□	□	□	□
College students	□	□	□	□	□	□
Your grandparents	□	□	□	□	□	□
Your friends	□	□	□	□	□	□

(pilot 1 and 2)

Appendix 4. Pilot 1: The questionnaire

On the next few pages you will find the questionnaire exactly as it was presented to the respondents in the first pilot.

Watching television: A questionnaire

Please do not open questionnaire until you are told to

Introduction

The following pages contain a list of questions about television.

How does this questionnaire work?
Most of the questions are made up of statements. You have to decide to what extent these statements are likely or unlikely. You can do this by using the scale that comes with each statement. The scale looks like this:

Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
☐	☐	☐	☐

Read each statement carefully. Then use the scale to indicate how likely or unlikely the statement is using a cross (x) or a check (√).

For example, you might be presented with the following statement:

Reporters watch the news every day

If you think this statement is unlikely, then check the scale as follows:

Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
☑	☐	☐	☐

If you think this statement is more unlikely than likely, then check the scale as follows:

Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
☐	☑	☐	☐

If you think the statement is more likely than unlikely, then check the scale as follows:

Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
☐	☐	☑	☐

If you think the statement is likely, then check the scale as follows:

Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
☐	☐	☐	☑

Each scale also includes a 'don't know' option. Please note that this option is meant as a last resort only. **Only** check this option **if you are absolutely certain you do not know the answer**.

There are some questions that are different. In these cases, please read the instructions carefully.

Please complete each question to the best of your abilities.
If you have any questions, please raise your hand.

Thank you for taking the time to fill out this questionnaire!

1

I – Watching television

The following statements all concern when you watch television, which programs you watch, and with whom. **Remember that you are only supposed to fill out 'don't know' if you truly do not know the answer!**

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely		
1. I will watch television tonight	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
2. This week, I will watch the news	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
3. Tonight I will watch television with my parents	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□

2

II – Television programs: Real events or acted
Below you will see one question which asks you to list five programs which show real events, and five programs which are acted. Please answer the question to the best of your abilities.

4. Can you name five programs which show real events?	5. Can you name five programs which are acted?
1.	1.
2.	2.
3.	3.
4.	4.
5.	5.

3

III – Reporters

The next series of statements concern television news reporters and their activities. Please read each statement carefully. Indicate how likely or unlikely each statement is using the scale beside each statement. **Remember that you are only allowed to use the 'don't know' category if you absolutely do not know the answer!**

6. Which of the following activities always happen when reporters put together a news story?	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely		
- send a camera crew to the scene	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
- pick up a lead on a story	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
- make a decision on whether or not to run the story	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
- hear from the editors how long their story is allowed to be	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
- talk to all the people involved in the event	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely		
7. A reporter's religious beliefs could influence what the news stories look like that s/he makes	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
8. News reporters who work for local stations watch foreign news programs as part of their job	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
9. The spokespeople that appear on TV news are often the ones that the journalists could find the fastest	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
10. Reporters often turn events into stories	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐

4

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely		
11. Whether a news reporter is young or old, the news stories s/he makes will be the same	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
Newsround is a news program for young children. 12. When news reporters make a story for Newsround, the stories will be presented differently than when they are made for the regular news	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
Of course, the content of a news program depends on what happened in the world. 13. But, the content of a news program also depends on the number of reporters at work that day	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐

5

	BBC	CNN
14. Below you see a series of stories that are to be used in both the CNN and the BBC news broadcasts. Imagine that you are the producer of the BBC news. Place these stories in the order in which you would want them to appear on your news broadcast in the column titled 'BBC'. You can do this by giving each story a number from 1-5; 1 indicating the first story and 5 indicating the last story. Now imagine you are the producer of CNN news. In which order would you broadcast these stories? Indicate the order in which these stories would appear on the news in the column to the right called 'CNN'. You can do this by giving each story a number from 1-5; 1 indicating the first story and 5 indicating the last story.	BBC	CNN
Unemployment in the US increases to 10%	……	……
European summit successful	……	……
Engineers on strike: no train services in Southern England this week	……	……
Drug use in schools in US on the rise	……	……
Bush and Blair to meet about situation Iraq	……	……

6

IV – Documentaries
This page is concerned with documentaries. Each statement says something about documentaries. Decide how likely or unlikely you think each statement is, and indicate your answer on the scale beside each statement. **Only fill out 'don't know' if you really don't know the answer!**

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely		
15. Sometimes, documentaries use actors	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
16. Television news and documentaries can make people take an event more seriously	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
17. Boys and girls have the same opinion about documentaries such as 'Choppertown' (a documentary about motorcycles)	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
18. Documentaries present facts and pictures in such a way that together they make up a believable story	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
19. Occasionally, the producers of documentaries tell the people in their documentaries what to say	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□

7

V – Politics

The statements on this page all refer to different aspects of politics, such as elections. Please read each statement carefully, and indicate how likely or unlikely you think it is. **Remember; only fill out 'don't know' if you really don't know.**

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely		
20. News stations can be different in how they present a story because of differences in their political preference	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
21. Television influences which presidential candidate wins the US elections	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
22. The government determines the content of a news program	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
23. If something such as crime is often discussed on television, the government will try to do something about it	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
24. People's ideas about politics can be influenced by television programs	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
25. A reporter's political beliefs can influence how s/he presents a news story	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐

8

VI- Filming techniques

26. Below you will see sets of two pictures taken from a television news program. These pictures are also called shots. In television (and film as well), several techniques are used to create these shots. Examples of such techniques are: special effects, props, and costumes.
The pictures in each set look very similar. However, in each set one technique is applied differently. Look at each set, and, in the space provided below the two pictures, write down, in your own words, which technique is applied differently, and how.

Set 1
The first set specifically concern differences in camera use. Try and spot the difference, and describe it in the space below the set.

picture 1   **picture 2**

Set 2
The second set also concerns a difference in camera use. Find it, and then describe it in the space below the pictures.

picture 1   **picture 2**

9

Set 3

In the third set, the difference concerns a technique other than camera use. Try to see what it is, and describe the difference in the space provided below the pictures.

picture 1

picture 2

Set 4

This final set of pictures again concerns a difference in how the camera was used. Try and find the difference, and then describe it in the space below the two pictures.

picture 1

picture 2

10

VII – Feelings

The statements on this page all refer to people's feeling when they watch television. Please read each statement carefully, and then use the scale to indicate how likely or unlikely you think the statement is. **Remember: Only use 'don't know' if you truly do not know the answer!**

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely		
27. Television news can change how people feel about a Presidential candidate	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
28. Television never makes people cry	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
29. Television news can scare people	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
30. Television news sometimes makes people angry	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
Sometimes television programs make people upset. 31. When people are upset they remember the program better than people who were not upset	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
Some people really get into a show they watch on television. They relate to the characters on this show and what happens to them. 32. These people are more likely to be influenced by these characters than people who do not care about them	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□

11

VIII – Television programs: more real or more acted
The following question is about two kinds of programs. Programs which are acted, and programs which show real events. Please read the question carefully and try to answer it as best as you can.

33. Below you will see a list of programs. Per program check (√) or cross (x) whether the program shows real events or is acted.

Example:

Program	Real events	More real than acted	More acted than real	Acted
Animal planet (documentary)	☑	☐	☐	☐
Buffy the Vampire Slayer	☐	☐	☐	☑

Program	Real events	More real than acted	More acted than real	Acted	Don't know this program
Gilmore Girls	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
ER	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
The weakest link	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
The news	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Idols (American Idol, Pop Idol)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Coverage European soccer championships	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Charmed	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
America's next top model	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

12

IX – Influence
The following statements are all about whether or not television influences people. Read each statement, and decide how likely or unlikely it is. Indicate your answer using the scale. **Only fill out don't know if you really have no clue about the answer!**

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely		
34. TV plays a role in the political party people would vote for	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
35. The way people talk about politicians is not influenced by television at all	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
36. Television can influence whether men and women share chores in the home	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
37. TV doesn't really affect how Westerners think about Muslims	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
38. If soccer games were taken off television, less people would play soccer	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
39. People use the expressions that are used in television programs such as the news and talk shows	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
40. Television influences how people behave when they demonstrate against something that is important to them	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
41. The way in which stories about marriage are presented in the news can change how people behave when they are married	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□

13

X – The practical side of creating television programs
The statements on this page all concern the practical aspects of making television programs. Use the scale to indicate how likely or unlikely you think each statement is. **Remember: Only check the 'don't know' option if you REALLY do not know the answer!**

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely		
42. Reporters determine how long a story on the news will be	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
43. Newsreaders are all alone in the studio when they read the news	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
44. The order of subjects on the news is random	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
45. The length of a news program is only determined by the number of important events that happened that day	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
46. Some television stations do not have to make a profit	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐

14

XI – Talk shows
The following statements are all about talk shows. Decide how likely or unlikely you think each statement is, and indicate your answer on the scale. **Remember: Only fill out 'don't know' if you really don't know the answer!**

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely		
47. Because they want to know which issues are considered important, politicians keep an eye on talk shows that discuss current events	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
48. Talk shows in Europe will cover the same topics as talk shows in Asia	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
49. In talk shows, some events are staged	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
Let's say the government is considering a proposal for a new law. 50. If several popular talk show hosts call this proposal ridiculous, this proposal has a smaller chance to be made into a law	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□

15

XII – Young people
The following statements concern young people and their use of television. Please read each statement carefully, and decide how likely or unlikely you think it is. Indicate your answer using the scale. **Remember that you are only supposed to fill out 'don't know' if you truly do not know the answer!**

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely		
51. Television has nothing to do with how young people think about drugs	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
52. Television influences how younger children treat their parents	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
53. Television has nothing to do with what young people wear to parties	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
54. Children who watch the news know more about politics than children who do not watch the news	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
55. Parents have the same opinions about television programs, such as the news, as their children do	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
56. Television influences how children our age treat their parents	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐

16

XIII – Presentation
The statements on this page are all about how television programs present people, things, and events. When you have read each statement, decide how likely or unlikely the statement is. Then fill out your answer using the scale. **Remember to only use 'don't know' if you absolutely do not know the answer!**

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely		
57. News programs are too short to show all the important stories of that day	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
58. The description of an event on the news is complete	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
59. Whether a television station has to make money off its programs or not will never influence the kind of news programs it makes	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
60. Every television station will present news on the Islam the same way	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
61. When an event is presented on the news, it looks the same as when you were there and saw it yourself	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
62. News about gay marriages is presented in the same way in different countries	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐

17

XIV - Television in general
The following statements all refer to television in general. Read each statement carefully. Then decide how likely or unlikely you think this statement is. Indicate your answer using the scale. **Remember that you are only allowed to use the 'don't know' category if you absolutely do not know the answer!**

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely		
63. Television news presents a complete picture of what is going on in the world	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
64. The stories you see on the news are about the only important events that took place that day	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
65. All television stations have to make money off their programs	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
66. Fans of a television program can influence what happens on that show	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐

18

XV – Making the news

67. Below you will see a series of statements from different news programs. Each statement is accompanied by two pictures. Read each statement carefully. Then decide which picture would be used by the news to go with that statement. Indicate which picture would be used by the news by checking (√) or crossing (X) the circle below that picture. In the space provided below the picture, explain why you think they would use that picture.

Statement 1:

Earlier today, President Bush addressed concern about rising gas prices while speaking at a Small Business Administration Conference.

O picture 1   O picture 2

Statement 2:

Professor West, an expert on juvenile delinquency, commented that teenagers today are more prone to crime than they were ten years ago.

O picture 1   O picture 2

19

Statement 3:
A Boston mother mourns after hearing her 8-year old son died in a school bus crash that killed five students earlier today.

O picture 1   O picture 2

Statement 4:
This afternoon, a peaceful demonstration turned violent as protestors clashed with the police.

O picture 1   O picture 2

20

Statement 5:
And now let's hear from our reporter on the scene.

O picture 1

O picture 2

21

XVI – Opinion
The statements on this page are all concerned with the relationship between people's opinion and television programs. Read each statement carefully and decide how likely or unlikely you think it is. Indicate your answer on the scale beside each statement. **Remember that you are only allowed to fill out 'don't know' if you really do not know the answer!**

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely		
68.TV news influences how people think about a political leader	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
69.The news can determine how people think about Iraqis	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
70.Television has little to do with people's opinions of issues such as gay marriages, politics, HIV medication, drug abuse, and the Middle East	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐

22

XVII – Watching television
The following questions are all about differences and similarities between people who watch television. Indicate how likely or unlikely you think each statement is using the scale. **Remember you should only use the 'don't know' category if you have absolutely no idea what the answer to the question is!**

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely		
71. People with a lower education will understand the news just as well as people with a higher education	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
72. People who live in the city react the same to news about the mad cow disease as people who live in the countryside	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
73.Differences in television content is one of the reasons why people in different countries think differently about issues such as gay marriages	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
There are different reasons why people watch television. Sometimes you have to watch a program for school. Sometimes you watch a program because you want to. 74. When you watch a news program because you have to for school, you'll have a different opinion of the program than when you watch it because you want to	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□

23

75. Name your favorite television program:

………………………………………………………………….

Check (√) or cross (x) which group of people holds which opinion about your favorite television program.
Opinions can belong to more than one group, and a group can have different opinions at the same time.

	They will think your favorite show is boring	They will love your favorite show	They won't understand what your favorite show is all about	They will think it's a waste of time to watch your favorite show	They will think the people on your favorite show are weird	They will think your favorite show is not realistic
Your parents	□	□	□	□	□	□
College students	□	□	□	□	□	□
Your grandparents	□	□	□	□	□	□
Your friends	□	□	□	□	□	□

24

XVIII –Television viewing
Below you will find a few questions about television viewing. Please fill out the questions to the best of your knowledge.

76. Which television stations do
you usually watch?

- ………..
- ………..
- ………..
- ………..
- ………..

77. How much television do you watch every day?	□ Less than thirty minutes
	□ Between thirty minutes and two hours
	□ Between two and three hours
	□ More than three hours

78. Do your parents ever watch television with you?	□ No
	□ Yes, less than once a week
	□ Yes, between two and three times per week
	□ Yes, every day

79. How often do you watch the news?	□ Never
	□ Less than once a week → go to question 81
	□ Between two and three times per week → go to question 81
	□ Every day → go to question 81

| 80. Have you ever watched the news? | □ Yes |
| | □ No |

81. How often do you watch documentaries?	□ Never
	□ Less than once a week → go to question 83
	□ Between two and three times per week → go to question 83
	□ Every day → go to question 83

| 82. Have you ever watched a documentary? | □ Yes |
| | □ No |

The questions continue on the next page.

25

XVIII–Television viewing (Continued)

83. How often do you watch talk shows?	□ Never □ Less than once a week → go to question 85 □ Between two and three times per week → go to question 85 □ Every day → go to question 85
84. Have you ever watched a talk show?	□ Yes □ No
85. How often do you read a newspaper?	□ Never □ Less than once a week □ Between two and three times per week □ Every day
86. How often do you check the internet for news?	□ Never □ Less than once a week □ Between two and three times per week □ Every day

26

XIX – Individual characteristics
The following questions are about yourself. The content will be kept absolutely private. That is why you are not asked for your name. Please fill out each question.

87. How old are you?	I am ……..years old

88. Are you a boy or a girl?
□ girl
□ boy

89. Which countries have you lived in so far?	- Germany
	- ……
	- ……
	- …….
	- ……

90. What is your nationality?   I am …………………

91. What is your parents' nationality?	My mother is………………..
	My father is…………………..

92. Did your father attend university?
□ Yes
□ No

93. Did your mother attend university?	□ Yes
	□ No

94. Are you an honor roll student?
□ Yes
□ No

95. Which grade did you receive in social studies on your last report card?	□ A □ D
	□ B □ F
	□ C

96. Which grade did you receive in English on your last report card?
□ A   □ D
□ B   □ F
□ C

97. Are you an EAL/ESL student?	□ Yes
	□ No

Thank you for filling out the questionnaire!

27

Appendix 5. Pilot 2: The questionnaire

In the next few pages you will find the questionnaire exactly
as it was presented to the respondents in the second pilot.

Watching television: A questionnaire

Please do not open questionnaire until you are told to

Introduction

The following pages contain a list of questions about television.

How does this questionnaire work?
Most of the questions are made up of statements. You have to decide to what extent these statements are likely or unlikely. You can do this by using the scale that comes with each statement. The scale looks like this:

Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
☐	☐	☐	☐

Read each statement carefully. Then use the scale to indicate how likely or unlikely the statement is using a cross (x) or a check (√).

For example, you might be presented with the following statement:

Reporters watch the news every day

If you think this statement is unlikely, then check the scale as follows:

Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
☑	☐	☐	☐

If you think this statement is more unlikely than likely, then check the scale as follows:

Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
☐	☑	☐	☐

If you think the statement is more likely than unlikely, then check the scale as follows:

Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
☐	☐	☑	☐

If you think the statement is likely, then check the scale as follows:

Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
☐	☐	☐	☑

Each scale also includes a 'don't know' option. Please note that this option is meant as a last resort only. **Only** check this option **if you are absolutely certain you do not know the answer**.

There are some questions that are different. In these cases, please read the instructions carefully.

Please complete each question to the best of your abilities.
If you have any questions, please raise your hand.

Thank you for taking the time to fill out this questionnaire!

1

I – Watching television

The following statements all concern when you watch television, which programs you watch, and with whom. **Remember that you are only supposed to fill out 'don't know' if you truly do not know the answer!**

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely		
1. I will watch television tonight	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
2. This week, I will watch the news	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
3. Tonight I will watch television with my parents	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□

2

II – Television programs: Real events or acted
Below you will see one question which asks you to list five programs which show real events, and five programs which are acted. Please answer the question to the best of your abilities.

4. Can you name five programs which show real events?	5. Can you name five programs which are acted?
1.	1.
2.	2.
3.	3.
4.	4.
5.	5.

3

III – Reporters

The next series of statements concern television news reporters and their activities. Please read each statement carefully. Indicate how likely or unlikely each statement is using the scale beside each statement. **Remember that you are only allowed to use the 'don't know' category if you absolutely do not know the answer!**

6. Which of the following activities always happen when reporters put together a news story?	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely		
- send a camera crew to the scene	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
- pick up a lead on a story	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
- make a decision on whether or not to run the story	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
- hear from the editors how long their story is allowed to be	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
- talk to all the people involved in the event	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely		
7. A reporter's religious beliefs could influence what the news stories look like that s/he makes	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
8. News reporters who work for local stations watch foreign news programs as part of their job	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
9. The spokespeople that appear on TV news are often the ones that the journalists could find the fastest	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
10. Reporters often turn events into stories	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□

4

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely		
11. Whether a news reporter is young or old, the news stories s/he makes will be the same	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
Newsround is a news program for young children. 12. When news reporters make a story for Newsround, the stories will be presented differently than when they are made for the regular news	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
Of course, the content of a news program depends on what happened in the world. 13. But, the content of a news program also depends on the number of reporters at work that day	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐

5

14. Below you see a series of stories that are to be used in both the CNN and the BBC news broadcasts.

Imagine that you are the producer of the BBC news. BBC is a British television station. Place these stories in the order in which you would want them to appear on your news broadcast in the column titled 'BBC'. You can do this by giving each story a number from 1-5; 1 indicating the first story and 5 indicating the last story.

Now imagine you are the producer of CNN news. CNN is an American television station. In which order would you broadcast these stories? Indicate the order in which these stories would appear on the news in the column to the right called 'CNN'. You can do this by giving each story a number from 1-5; 1 indicating the first story and 5 indicating the last story.

	BBC	CNN
Unemployment in the US increases to 10%	……	……
European summit successful	……	……
Engineers on strike: no train services in Southern England this week	……	……
Drug use in schools in US on the rise	……	……
Bush and Blair to meet about situation Iraq	……	……

6

IV – Documentaries
This page is concerned with documentaries. Each statement says something about documentaries.
Decide how likely or unlikely you think each statement is, and indicate your answer on the scale
beside each statement. **Only fill out 'don't know' if you really don't know the answer!**

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely		
15. Sometimes, documentaries use actors	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
16. Television news and documentaries can make people take an event more seriously	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
17. Boys and girls have the same opinion about documentaries such as 'Choppertown' (a documentary about motorcycles)	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
18. Documentaries present facts and pictures in such a way that together they make up a believable story	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
19. Occasionally, the producers of documentaries tell the people in their documentaries what to say	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□

7

V – Politics

The statements on this page all refer to different aspects of politics, such as elections. Please read each statement carefully, and indicate how likely or unlikely you think it is. **Remember; only fill out 'don't know' if you really don't know.**

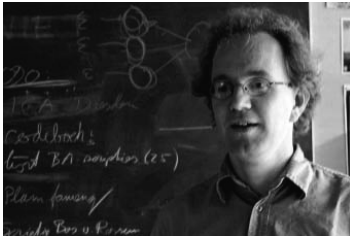|	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely		
20. News stations can be different in how they present a story because of differences in their political preference	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
21. Television influences which presidential candidate wins the US elections	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
22. The government determines the content of a news program	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
23. If something such as crime is often discussed on television, the government will try to do something about it	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
24. People's ideas about politics can be influenced by television programs	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
25. A reporter's political beliefs can influence how s/he presents a news story	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□

8

VI- Filming techniques

26. Below you will see sets of two pictures taken from a television news program. These pictures are also called shots. In television (and film as well), several techniques are used to create these shots. Examples of such techniques are: special effects, props, and costumes.
The pictures in each set look very similar. However, in each set one technique is applied differently. Look at each set, and, in the space provided below the two pictures, write down, in your own words, which technique is applied differently, and how.

Set 1
The first set specifically concern differences in camera use. Try and spot the difference, and describe it in the space below the set.

picture 1   **picture 2**

Set 2
The second set also concerns a difference in camera use. Find it, and then describe it in the space below the pictures.

picture 1   **picture 2**

9

Set 3

In the third set, the difference concerns a technique other than camera use. Try to see what it is, and describe the difference in the space provided below the pictures.

picture 1

picture 2

Set 4

This final set of pictures again concerns a difference in how the camera was used. Try and find the difference, and then describe it in the space below the two pictures.

picture 1

picture 2

10

VII – Feelings

The statements on this page all refer to people's feeling when they watch television. Please read each statement carefully, and then use the scale to indicate how likely or unlikely you think the statement is. **Remember: Only use 'don't know' if you truly do not know the answer!**

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely		
27. Television news can change how people feel about a Presidential candidate	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
28. Television can make people cry	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
29. Television news can scare people	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
30. Television news sometimes makes people angry	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
Sometimes television programs make people upset. 31. When people are upset they remember the program better than people who were not upset	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
Some people really get into a show they watch on television. They relate to the characters on this show and what happens to them. 32. These people are more likely to be influenced by these characters than people who do not care about them	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
33.Television never makes people happy	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□

11

VIII – Television programs: more real or more acted
The following question is about two kinds of programs. Programs which are acted, and programs which show real events. Please read the question carefully and try to answer it as best as you can.

34. Below you will see a list of programs. Per program check (√) or cross (x) whether the program shows real events or is acted.

Example:

Program	Real events	More real than acted	More acted than real	Acted
Animal planet (documentary)	☑	☐	☐	☐
Buffy the Vampire Slayer	☐	☐	☐	☑

Program	Real events	More real than acted	More acted than real	Acted	Don't know this program
Gilmore Girls	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
ER	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
The weakest link	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
The news	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Idols (American Idol, Pop Idol)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Coverage European soccer championships	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Charmed	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
America's next top model	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

12

IX – Influence
The following statements are all about whether or not television influences people. Read each statement, and decide how likely or unlikely it is. Indicate your answer using the scale. **Only fill out don't know if you really have no clue about the answer!**

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely		
35. TV plays a role in the political party people would vote for	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
36. The way people talk about politicians is not influenced by television at all	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
37. Television can influence whether men and women share chores in the home	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
38. TV doesn't really affect how Westerners think about Muslims	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
39. If soccer games were taken off television, less people would play soccer	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
40. People use the expressions that are used in television programs such as the news and talk shows	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
41. Television influences how people behave when they demonstrate against something that is important to them	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
42. The way in which stories about marriage are presented in the news can change how people behave when they are married	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐

13

X – The practical side of creating television programs
The statements on this page all concern the practical aspects of making television programs. Use the scale to indicate how likely or unlikely you think each statement is. **Remember: Only check the 'don't know' option if you REALLY do not know the answer!**

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely		
43. Reporters determine how long a story on the news will be	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
44. When newsreaders read the news, no other TV station employees are in the studio	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
45. The order of subjects on the news is random	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
46. The length of a news program is only determined by the number of important events that happened that day	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
47. Some television stations do not have to make a profit	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
48. The news is filmed before a live studio audience	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□

14

XI – Talk shows
The following statements are all about talk shows. Decide how likely or unlikely you think each statement is, and indicate your answer on the scale. **Remember: Only fill out 'don't know' if you really don't know the answer!**

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely		
49. Because they want to know which issues are considered important, politicians keep an eye on talk shows that discuss current events	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
50. Talk shows in Europe will cover the same topics as talk shows in Asia	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
51. In talk shows, some events are staged	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
Let's say the government is considering a proposal for a new law. 52. If several popular talk show hosts call this proposal ridiculous, this proposal has a smaller chance to be made into a law	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐

15

XII – Young people
The following statements concern young people and their use of television. Please read each statement carefully, and decide how likely or unlikely you think it is. Indicate your answer using the scale. **Remember that you are only supposed to fill out 'don't know' if you truly do not know the answer!**

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely		
53. Television has something to do with how young people think about drugs	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
54. Television influences how children under the age of 12 treat their parents	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
55. Television influences what young people wear to parties	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
56. Children who watch the news know more about politics than children who do not watch the news	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
57. Parents have the same opinions about television programs as their children do	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
58. Television influences how children between the ages of 12 and 18 treat their parents	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□

16

XIII – Presentation
The statements on this page are all about how television programs present people, things, and events. When you have read each statement, decide how likely or unlikely the statement is. Then fill out your answer using the scale. **Remember to only use 'don't know' if you absolutely do not know the answer!**

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely		
59. News programs are too short to show all the important stories of that day	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
60. The description of an event on the news is complete	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
61. Whether a television station has to make money off its programs or not will never influence the kind of news programs it makes	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
62. Every television station will present news on the Islam the same way	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
63. When an event is presented on the news, it looks the same as when you were there and saw it yourself	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
64. News about gay marriages is presented in the same way in different countries	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□

17

XIV - Television in general
The following statements all refer to television in general. Read each statement carefully. Then decide how likely or unlikely you think this statement is. Indicate your answer using the scale. **Remember that you are only allowed to use the 'don't know' category if you absolutely do not know the answer!**

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely		
65. Television news presents a complete picture of what is going on in the world	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
66. The stories you see on the news are about the only important events that took place that day	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
67. All television stations have to make money off their programs	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
68. Fans of a television program can influence what happens on that show	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□

18

XV – Making the news

69. Below you will see a series of statements from different news programs. Each statement is accompanied by two pictures. Read each statement carefully. Then decide which picture would be used by the news to go with that statement. Indicate which picture would be used by the news by checking (√) or crossing (X) the circle below that picture. In the space provided below the picture, explain why you think they would use that picture.

Statement 1:
Earlier today, President Bush addressed concern about rising gas prices while speaking at a Small Business Administration Conference.

O picture 1   O picture 2

Statement 2:
Professor West, an expert on juvenile delinquency, commented that teenagers today are more prone to crime than they were ten years ago.

O picture 1   O picture 2

19

Statement 3:
A Boston mother mourns after hearing her 8-year old son died in a school bus crash that killed five students earlier today.

O picture 1

O picture 2

Statement 4:
This afternoon, a peaceful demonstration turned violent as protestors clashed with the police.

O picture 1

O picture 2

20

Statement 5:
And now let's hear from our reporter on the scene.

O picture 1

O picture 2

21

XVI – Opinion

The statements on this page are all concerned with the relationship between people's opinion and television programs. Read each statement carefully and decide how likely or unlikely you think it is. Indicate your answer on the scale beside each statement. **Remember that you are only allowed to fill out 'don't know' if you really do not know the answer!**

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely		
70. TV news influences how people think about a political leader	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
71. The news can determine how people think about Iraqis	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
72. Television can influence people's opinions of issues such as gay marriages, politics, HIV medication, drug abuse, and the Middle East	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
73. Television news will never change people's opinions	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□

22

XVII – Watching television
The following questions are all about differences and similarities between people who watch television. Indicate how likely or unlikely you think each statement is using the scale. **Remember you should only use the 'don't know' category if you have absolutely no idea what the answer to the question is!**

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely		
74. People with a lower education will understand the news just as well as people with a higher education	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
75. People who live in the city react the same to news about the mad cow disease as people who live in the countryside	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
76. Differences in television content is one of the reasons why people in different countries think differently about issues such as gay marriages	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
There are different reasons why people watch television. Sometimes you have to watch a program for school. Sometimes you watch a program because you want to. 77. When you watch a news program because you have to for school, you'll have a different opinion of the program than when you watch it because you want to	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□

23

78. Name your favorite television program:

…………………………………………………………………….

Check (√) or cross (x) which group of people holds which opinion about your favorite television program. Opinions can belong to more than one group, and a group can have different opinions at the same time.

	They will think your favorite show is boring	They will love your favorite show	They won't understand what your favorite show is all about	They will think it's a waste of time to watch your favorite show	They will think the people on your favorite show are weird	They will think your favorite show is not realistic
Your parents	□	□	□	□	□	□
College students	□	□	□	□	□	□
Your grandparents	□	□	□	□	□	□
Your friends	□	□	□	□	□	□

24

XVIII –Television viewing
Below you will find a few questions about television viewing. Please fill out the questions to the best of your knowledge.

79. On the lines to the right, could you list which television stations you usually watch?	- ………..
	- ……….
	- ………..
	- ……….
	- ………..

80. How much television do you watch every day?
- □ Less than thirty minutes
- □ Between thirty minutes and two hours
- □ Between two and three hours
- □ More than three hours

81. Do your parents ever watch television with you?
- □ No
- □ Yes, less than once a week
- □ Yes, between two and three times per week
- □ Yes, every day

82. How often do you watch the news?
- □ Never
- □ Less than once a week → go to question 81
- □ Between two and three times per week → go to question 81
- □ Every day → go to question 81

83. Have you ever watched the news?
- □ Yes
- □ No

84. How often do you watch documentaries?
- □ Never
- □ Less than once a week → go to question 83
- □ Between two and three times per week → go to question 83
- □ Every day → go to question 83

85. Have you ever watched a documentary?
- □ Yes
- □ No

The questions continue on the next page.

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XVIII–Television viewing (Continued)

86. How often do you watch talk shows?	□ Never □ Less than once a week → go to question 85 □ Between two and three times per week → go to question 85 □ Every day → go to question 85

87. Have you ever watched a talk show?	□ Yes □ No

88. How often do you read a newspaper?	□ Never □ Less than once a week □ Between two and three times per week □ Every day

89. How often do you check the internet for news?	□ Never □ Less than once a week □ Between two and three times per week □ Every day

26

XIX – Individual characteristics
The following questions are about yourself. The content will be kept absolutely private. That is why you are not asked for your name. Please fill out each question.

| 90. How old are you? | I am ……..years old |

| 91. Are you a boy or a girl? | □ girl |
| | □ boy |

92. Which countries have you lived in so far?	- The Netherlands
	- ……
	- ……
	- …….
	- ……

| 93. Which country are you from? | I am from ………………… |

| 94. Which countries are your parents from? | My mother is from……………….. |
| | My father is from…………………. |

| 95. Did your father attend university ('college' in the US)? | □ Yes |
| | □ No |

| 96. Did your mother attend university ('college' in the US)? | □ Yes |
| | □ No |

| 97. Are you an honor roll student? | □ Yes |
| | □ No |

98. Which grade did you receive in social studies on your last report card?	□ A □ D
	□ B □ F
	□ C

99. Which grade did you receive in English on your last report card?	□ A □ D
	□ B □ F
	□ C

| 100. Are you an EAL/ESL (English as an Additional/Second Language) student? | □ Yes |
| | □ No |

Thank you for filling out the questionnaire!

27

Appendix 6. Pilots and survey: Overview of the questions

Below is a list of the questions from both pilots and the survey. The list indicates the question as posed in the pilot/survey, as well as whether it was changed or deleted between the two pilots or between the final pilot and the survey. If a question was significantly altered, the new version is included beneath a dotted line. The questions are placed in the order in which they were asked in the survey. The questions marked with an * were used as filler questions.

Questions	Pilot I	Pilot II	Survey
This week I will watch the news	√*	√*	√*
Tonight I will watch television with my parents	√*	√*	√*
I will watch television tonight	√*	√*	-
Action question: Can you name five programs which show real events	√	√	
Can you name four programs or channels which show only real events	-	-	√
Action question: Can you name five programs which are acted	√	√	-
Can you name four programs which are acted	-	-	√
Which of the following activities always happen when reporters put together a news story? - Send a camera crew to the scene	√	√	-
-Talk to all the people involved in the event	√	√	√
- Make a decision on whether or not to run the story	√	√	√
- Hear from the editors how long their story is allowed to be	√	√	√
A reporter's religious beliefs could influence what the news stories look like that s/he makes	√	√	√
News reporters who work for local stations watch foreign news programs as part of their job	√*	√*	-
The spokespeople that appear on TV news are often the ones that the journalists could find the fastest	√	√	-
Reporters often turn events into stories	√	√	√
Whether a news reporter is young or old, the news stories s/he makes will be the same	√	√	√
Newsround is a newsprogram for young children. When news reporters make a story for Newsround, the stories will be presented differently than when they are made for the regular news	√	√	√
Of course, the content of a news program depends on what happened in the world. But, the content of a news program also depends on the number of reporters at work that day	√	√	-
Sometimes, documentaries use actors	√	√	√
Television news and documentaries can make people take an event more seriously	√	√	-
Boys and girls have the same opinion about documentaries such as 'Choppertown' (a documentary about motorcycles)	√*	√*	√*
Documentaries present facts and pictures in such a way that together they make up a believable story	√	√	-

Questions	Pilot I	Pilot II	Survey
Occasionally, the producers of documentaries tell the people in their documentaries what to say	√	√	-
Because they want to know which issues are considered important, politicians keep an eye on talk shows that discuss current events	√	√	√
Talk shows in Europe will cover the same events as in Asia	√	√	-
Let's say the government is considering a proposal for a new law. If several popular talk shows hosts call this law ridiculous, this proposal has a smaller chance to be made into a law	√	√	√
In talk shows, some events are changed	√	√	√
News stations can be different in how they present a story because of differences in their political preference	√	√	√
The government determines the news content of a news program	√	√	-
If something such as crime is often discussed on television, the government will try to do something about it	√	√	-
Television pays little attention to politics	-	-	√*
People's ideas about politics can be influenced by television programs	√	√	√
Newsreaders are all alone in the studio when they read the news	√	-	-
When newsreaders read the news, no other TV station employees are in the studio	-	√	√
Newsreaders are all alone in the studio when they read the news	√	-	-
When newsreaders read the news, no other TV station employees are in the studio	-	√	√
The order of subjects on the news is random	√	√	-
The length of a news program is only determined by the number of important events that happened that day	√	√	-
Television news sometimes makes people angry	√	√	√
The news is filmed before a live studio audience	-	√	√
A reporter's political beliefs can influence how s/he presents a news story	√	√	√
Television news can scare people	√	√	√
Sometimes television programs make people upset. When people are upset they remember the program better than people who are not upset	√	√	√
Some people really get into a show they watch on television. They relate to the characters on this show and what happens to them. These people are more likely to be influenced by these characters than people who do not care about them	√	√	√
Television news can change how people feel about a presidential candidate	√	√	√

Appendix 6 - Pilots and survey: Overview of the questions

Questions	Pilot I	Pilot II	Survey
Television never makes people cry	√	-	-
Television can make people cry	-	√	-
Television never makes people happy	-	√	√*
Below you will see a list of programs. Per program check (√) or cross (x) whether the program shows real events or is acted	√	√	-

Questions	Pilot I	Pilot II	Survey
Action question: Below you see a series of stories that are to be used in both the CNN and the BBC news broadcasts.	√	-	-
Imagine that you are the producer of the BBC news. Place these stories in the order in which you would want them to appear on your news broadcast in the column titled 'BBC'. You can do this by giving each story a number from 1-5; 1 indicating the first story and 5 indicating the last story.			
Now imagine you are the producer of CNN news. In which order would you broadcast these stories? Indicate the order in which these stories would appear on the news in the column to the right called 'CNN'. You can do this by giving each story a number from 1-5; 1 indicating the first story and 5 indicating the last story.			
Unemployment in the US increases to 10%			
European summit successful			
Engineers on strike: no train services in Southern England this week			
Drug use in schools in US on the rise			
Bush and Blair to meet about situation Iraq			

Questions	Pilot I	Pilot II	Survey
Below you see a series of stories that are to be used in both the CNN and the BBC news broadcasts. Imagine that you are the producer of the BBC news. BBC is a British television station. Place these stories in the order in which you would want them to appear on your news broadcast in the column titled 'BBC'. You can do this by giving each story a number from 1-5; 1 indicating the first story and 5 indicating the last story. Now imagine you are the producer of CNN news. CNN is an American television station. In which order would you broadcast these stories? Indicate the order in which these stories would appear on the news in the column to the right called 'CNN'. You can do this by giving each story a number from 1-5; 1 indicating the first story and 5 indicating the last story. Unemployment in the US increases to 10% European summit successful Engineers on strike: no train services in Southern England this week Drug use in schools in US on the rise Bush and Blair to meet about situation Iraq	-	√	-

Questions	Pilot I	Pilot II	Survey
Below you see a series of stories that are to be used in both the CNN and the BBC news broadcasts.	-	-	√

Imagine that you are the producer of the BBC news. The BBC is a British television station. In which order would you broadcast the stories listed below? Indicate the order in which these stories would appear on the BBC news in the column titled 'BBC'. You can do this by giving each story a number 1-5; 1 indicating the first story and 5 indicating the last story.

Now imagine you are the producer of CNN news. CNN is an American television station. In which order would you broadcast the stories below? Indicate the order in which these stories would appear on the CNN news in the column to the right called 'CNN'. You can do this by giving each story a number 1-5; 1 indicating the first story and 5 indicating the last story

Unemployment in the US increases to 10%

European summit successful

Engineers on strike: no train services in Southern England this week

Drug use in schools in US on the rise

Bush and Blair to meet about situation Iraq

Appendix 6 - Pilots and survey: Overview of the questions

Questions	Pilot I	Pilot II	Survey
Television can influence whether men and women share chores in the home	√	√	√
TV plays a role in the political party people would vote for	√	√	√
The way people talk about politicians is not influenced by television at all	√	√	-
TV doesn't really affect how Westerners think about Muslims	√	√	-
If soccer games were taken off television, less people would play soccer	√	√	-
People use the expressions that are used in television programs such as the news and talk shows	√	√	√
Television influences how people behave when they demonstrate against something that is important to them	√	√	√
Television only influences very young children	-	-	√
Television news presents a complete picture of what is going on in the world	√	√	√
The stories you see on the news are about the only important events that took place that day	√	√	√
All television stations have to make money off their programs	√	√	-
Fans of a television program can influence what happens on that show	√*	√*	-
Television has nothing to do with what young people wear to parties	√	-	-
Television influences what young people wear to parties	-	√	√
Some television stations do not have to make a profit	√	√	√
Television has nothing to do with how young people think about drugs	√	-	-
Television has something to do with how young people think about drugs	-	√	√
Television influences how younger children treat their parents	√	-	-
Television influences how children under the age of 12 treat their parents	-	√	-
Children who watch the news know more about politics than children who do not watch the news	√	√	√
Parents have the same opinions about television programs, such as the news, as their children do	√	-	-
Parents have the same opinions about television programs as their children do	-	√	√
Television influences how children our age treat their parents	√	-	-
Television influences how children between the ages of 12 and 18 treat their parents	-	√	√
News programs are too short to show all the important stories of that day	√	√	-
Action question: Respondents were asked to describe the differences between shots	√	√	√
The description of an event on the news is complete	√	√	√

Questions	Pilot I	Pilot II	Survey
News about gay marriages is presented in the same way in different countries	√	√	√
Whether a television station has to make money off its programs or not will never influence the kind of news programs it makes	√	√	√
When an event is presented on the news, it looks the same as when you were there and saw it yourself	√	√	√
The way in which stories about marriage are presented in the news can change how people behave when they are married	√	√	√
Reporters determine how long a story on the news will be	√	√	-
Every television station will present news on Islam in the same way	√	√	√
TV news influences how people think about a political leader	√	√	√
People who live in the city react the same to news about the mad cow disease as people who live in the countryside	√	√	√
The news can determine how people think about Iraqis	√	√	√
Television has little to do with people's opinions of issues such as gay marriages, politics, HIV medication, drug abuse, and the Middle East	√	-	-
Television can influence people's opinions of issues such as gay marriages, politics, HIV medication, drug abuse, and the Middle East	-	√	√
Television news will never change people's opinions	-	√	-
People with a lower education will understand the news just as well as people with a higher education	√	√	√
There are different reasons why people watch television. Sometimes you have to watch a program for school. Sometimes you watch a program because you want to. When you watch a news program because you have to for school, you'll have a different opinion of the program than when you watch it because you want to	√	√	√
Action question: Check (√) or cross (x) which group of people holds which opinion about your favorite television program. Opinions can belong to more than one group, and a group can have different opinions at the same time	√	√	-
Differences in television content is one of the reasons why people in different countries think differently about issues such as gay marriages	√	√	√
Action question: Respondents were asked to select the picture the news would use to accompany a specific statement	√	√	√

Appendix 7. Survey: Operationalizing media literacy

This appendix shows a list of the questions used in the survey, per aspect of media literacy, and includes the correct answer to each question.
The √ indicates on which side of the scale the correct answer lies.

The production of media content

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
Television news presents a complete picture of what is going on in the world	☑	☐	☐	☐

Professional activities

Selectivity of the producers

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
The stories you see on the news are about the only important events that took place that day	☑	☐	☐	☐
The description of an event on the news is complete	☑	☐	☐	☐

Codes and conventions

<u>Production procedures</u>

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
When newsreaders read the news, no other TV station employees are in the studio	☑	☐	☐	☐
The news is filmed before a live studio audience	☑	☐	☐	☐
Which of the following activities always happen when reporters put together a news story?				
- talk to all the people involved in the event	☑	☐	☐	☐
- make a decision on whether or not to run the story	☐	☐	☐	☑
- hear from the editors how long their story is allowed to be	☐	☐	☐	☑

Production procedures (continued)

Below you will see sets of two pictures taken from a television news program. These pictures are also called shots. In television (and film as well), several techniques are used to create these shots. Examples of such techniques are: special effects, props, and costumes.
The pictures in each set look very similar. However, in each set one technique is applied differently. Look at each set, and, in the space provided below the two pictures, write down which technique is applied differently, and how.
>   Set 1 (see page 223) showed a difference in zoom.
>   Set 2 (see page 223) showed a difference in camera angle.
>   Set 3 (see page 224) showed a difference in lighting.
>   Set 4 (see page 224) showed a difference in focus.

Below you will see a series of statements from different news programs. Each statement is accompanied by two pictures. Read each statement carefully. Then decide which picture would be used by the news to go with that statement. Indicate which picture would be used by the news by crossing (X) the circle below that picture. In the space provided below the picture, briefly explain why you think they would use that picture.

<div align="center">Correct picture</div>

Statement 1 (President Bush addressing a conference)	1
Statement 2 (Professor West commenting on teen crime)[1]	2
Statement 3 (Mourning Boston mother)	1
Statement 4 (Peaceful demonstration turned violent)[2]	1
Statement 5 (Reporter on the scene)[3]	2

(See Appendix 10 for coding schemes for both questions)

Dramatic/narrative codes

Distinction between fact and fiction

Q: Can you name four programs or channels which only show real events?
>   Correct answer: See coding scheme (Appendix 10)
Q: Can you name four programs which are acted?
>   Correct answer: See coding scheme (Appendix 10)

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[1] For statements 1 and 2 see page 228
[2] For statements 3 and 4 see page 229
[3] For statement 5 see page 230

Extent to which a non-fiction program contains fictionalized elements

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
Sometimes, documentaries use actors	☐	☐	☐	☑
In talk shows, some events are staged	☐	☐	☐	☑

News facts are embedded in a story

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
Reporters often turn events into stories	☐	☐	☐	☑
When an event is presented on the news, it looks the same as when you were there and saw it yourself	☑	☐	☐	☐

Production context

Social and cultural context

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
A reporter's religious beliefs could influence what the news stories look like that s/he makes	☐	☐	☐	☑
News about gay marriages is presented in the same way in different countries	☑	☐	☐	☐
Every television station will present news on Islam in the same way	☑	☐	☐	☐
Whether a news reporter is young or old, the news stories s/he makes will be the same	☑	☐	☐	☐

Economic context

Difference between and effect of profit or non-profit nature of television station

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
Whether a television station has to make money off its programs or not will never influence the kind of news programs it makes	☑	☐	☐	☐
Some television stations do not have to make a profit	☐	☐	☐	☑

<u>Target audience</u>

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
Newsround is a news program for young children. When news reporters make a story for Newsround, the stories will be presented differently than when they are made for the regular news	□	□	□	☑

Below you see a series of stories that are to be used in both the CNN and the BBC news broadcasts.
Imagine that you are the producer of the BBC news. The BBC is a British television station. In which order would you broadcast the stories listed below? Indicate the order in which these stories would appear on the BBC news in the column titled 'BBC'. You can do this by giving each story a number 1-5; 1 indicating the first story and 5 indicating the last story.
Now imagine you are the producer of CNN news. CNN is an American television station. In which order would you broadcast the stories below? Indicate the order in which these stories would appear on the CNN news in the column to the right called 'CNN'. You can do this by giving each story a number 1-5; 1 indicating the first story and 5 indicating the last story
  - Unemployment in the US increases to 10%
  - European summit successful
  - Engineers on strike: no train services in Southern England this week
  - Drug use in schools in US on the rise
  - Bush and Blair to meet about situation Iraq
(See coding scheme in Appendix 10 for correct answer)

Political context

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
News stations can be different in how they present a story because of differences in their political preference	□	□	□	☑
A reporter's political beliefs can influence how s/he presents a news story	□	□	□	☑

The influence of the media on its users

Influence on society

Influence on the political system

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
Television influences which presidential candidate wins the US	☐	☐	☐	☑
Let's say the government is considering a proposal for a new law. If several popular talk show hosts call this proposal ridiculous, this proposal has a smaller chance to be made into a law	☐	☐	☐	☑
Because they want to know which issues are considered important, politicians keep an eye on talk shows that discuss current events	☐	☐	☐	☑

Influence on the social and cultural institutions

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
Television can influence whether men and women share chores in the home	☐	☐	☐	☑
The way in which stories about marriage are presented in the news can change how people behave when they are married	☐	☐	☐	☑

Influence on cultural make-up

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
Television has something to do with how young people think about drugs	☐	☐	☐	☑
Differences in television content is one of the reasons why in different countries people think differently about issues such as gay marriages	☐	☐	☐	☑
Television influences how children between the ages of 12 and 18 treat their parents	☐	☐	☐	☑

Influence on the individual

Influence on behavior

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
TV plays a role in the political party people would vote for	☐	☐	☐	☑
TV news influences how people think about a political leader	☐	☐	☐	☑
People use the expressions that are used in television programs such as the news and talk shows	☐	☐	☐	☑
Television influences how people behave when they demonstrate against something that is important to them	☐	☐	☐	☑
Television influences what young people wear to parties	☐	☐	☐	☑

Influence on opinions and ideas

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
Television can influence people's opinions of issues such as politics, HIV medication, drug abuse and the Middle East	☐	☐	☐	☑
The news can determine how people think about Iraqis	☐	☐	☐	☑
People's ideas about politics can be influenced by television programs	☐	☐	☐	☑

Influence on feelings

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
Television news can change how people feel about a Presidential candidate	☐	☐	☐	☑
Television news can scare people	☐	☐	☐	☑
Television news sometimes makes people angry	☐	☐	☐	☑

Factors that mediate influence

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
Parents have the same opinions about television programs as their children do	☑	☐	☐	☐
There are different reasons why people watch television. Sometimes you have to watch a program for school. Sometimes you watch a program because you want to. When you watch a news program because you have to for school, you'll have a different opinion of the program than when you watch it because you want to	☐	☐	☐	☑
People who live in the city react the same to news about the mad cow disease as people who live in the countryside	☑	☐	☐	☐

Factors that mediate influence (continued)

Some people really get into a show they watch on television. They relate to the characters on this show and what happens to them. These people are more likely to be influenced by these characters than people who do not care about them	☐	☐	☐	☑
Sometimes television programs make people upset. When people are upset they remember the program better than people who are not upset	☐	☐	☐	☑
People with a lower education will understand the news just as well as people with a higher education	☑	☐	☐	☐
Children who watch the news know more about politics than children who do not watch the news.	☐	☐	☐	☑
Television only influences very young children.	☑	☐	☐	☐

Appendix 8. Number of respondents per nationality

Nationality	Number of respondents
USA	57 (14.7%)
The Netherlands	35 (9%)
UK	29 (7.5%)
France	27 (7%)
South Korea	23 (5.9%)
Japan	21 (5.4%)
Belgium	12 (3.1%)
Israel	12 (3.1%)
Sweden	12 (3.1%)
Germany	11 (2.8%)
Canada	10 (2.6%)
India	10 (2.6%)
Italy	9 (2.3%)
Australia	5 (1.3%)
Brazil	5 (1.3%)
Norway	5 (1.3%)
Denmark	4 (1%)
Russia	4 (1%)
South Africa	4 (1%)
Switzerland	4(1%)
USA/The Netherlands	4 (1%)
Monaco	3 (.8%)
Nigeria	3 (.8%)
Argentina	2 (.5%)
Curacao	2 (.5%)
Finland	2 (.5%)
Hungary	2 (.5%)
Malaysia	2 (.5%)
Mexico	2 (.5%)
Poland	2 (.5%)
Spain	2 (.5%)
Turkey	2 (.5%)
UK/The Netherlands	2 (.5%)
USA/Germany	2 (.5%)
USA/Lebanon	2 (.5%)
Armenia	1 (.3%)
Brazil/Japan	1 (.3%)
Brazil/The Netherlands	1 (.3%)
Canada/UK	1 (.3%)
Canada/USA	1 (.3%)
Colombia/Curacao	1 (.3%)
Costa Rica	1 (.3%)
Curacao/ The Netherlands	1 (.3%)
Denmark/UK	1 (.3%)
Estonia	1 (.3%)
Finland/Belgium	1 (.3%)
France/Israel	1 (.3%)
France/Italy	1 (.3%)
France/USA	1 (.3%)
Germany/Poland	1 (.3%)
Germany/The Netherlands	1 (.3%)
Germany/USA	1 (.3%)
Ghana/The Netherlands	1 (.3%)
Greece	1 (.3%)
Greece/The Netherlands	1 (.3%)

Appendix 8 - Number of respondents per nationality

Nationality	Number of respondents
Iran/USA	1 (.3%)
Ireland	1 (.3%)
Italy/USA	1 (.3%)
Japan/The Netherlands	1 (.3%)
Lebanon	1 (.3%)
Malaysian/Italian/Chinese	1 (.3%)
Morocco/The Netherlands	1 (.3%)
New Zealand	1 (.3%)
Paraguay	1 (.3%)
Philippines	1 (.3%)
Portugal	1 (.3%)
Portugal/Norway	1 (.3%)
Romania	1 (.3%)
Saudi Arabia	1 (.3%)
Spain/Sweden/Panama	1 (.3%)
Sweden/USA/Denmark	1 (.3%)
Switzerland/The Netherlands	1 (.3%)
Turkey/The Netherlands	1 (.3%)
UK/Australia	1 (.3%)
UK/USA	1 (.3%)
USA/Canada/Italy	1 (.3%)
USA/Colombia/The Netherlands	1 (.3%)
USA/Indonesia	1 (.3%)
USA/Italy	1 (.3%)
USA/Japan	1 (.3%)
USA/Peru/Italy	1 (.3%)
Venezuela	1 (.3%)
Missing:	6 (1.6%)

Appendix 9. Survey: The questionnaire

On the next few pages you will find the questionnaire exactly
as it was presented to the respondents in the survey.

Watching television: A questionnaire

Please do not open questionnaire until you are told to

Introduction

The following pages contain a list of questions about television.

How does this questionnaire work?
Most of the questions are made up of statements. You have to decide to what extent these statements are likely or unlikely. You can do this by using the scale that comes with each statement. The scale looks like this:

Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
☐	☐	☐	☐

Read each statement carefully. Then use the scale to indicate how likely or unlikely the statement is using a cross (x) or a check (√).

For example, you might be presented with the following statement:

Reporters watch the news every day

If you think this statement is unlikely, then check the scale as follows:

Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
☑	☐	☐	☐

If you think this statement is more unlikely than likely, then check the scale as follows:

Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
☐	☑	☐	☐

If you think the statement is more likely than unlikely, then check the scale as follows:

Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
☐	☐	☑	☐

If you think the statement is likely, then check the scale as follows:

Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
☐	☐	☐	☑

Each scale also includes a 'don't know' option. Please note that this option is meant as a last resort only. **Only** check this option **if you are absolutely certain you do not know the answer**.

There are some questions that are different. In these cases, please read the instructions carefully.

Please complete each question to the best of your abilities.
If you have any questions, please raise your hand.

Thank you for taking the time to fill out this questionnaire!

1

Watching television

The following statements all concern when you watch television, which programs you watch, and with whom. **Remember that you are only supposed to fill out 'don't know' if you truly do not know the answer!**

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely		
1. This week, I will watch the news	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
2. Tonight I will watch television with my parents	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐

2

Television programs: Real events or acted

The following two questions are about two kinds of programs. Programs which are acted, and programs which show real events. Please read each question carefully and try to answer them as best as you can.

3. Can you name four programs or channels which only show real events?	4. Can you name four programs which are acted?
1.	1.
2.	2.
3.	3.
4.	4.

3

Reporters

The next series of statements concern television news reporters and their activities. Please read each statement carefully. Indicate how likely or unlikely each statement is using the scale beside each statement. **Remember that you are only allowed to use the 'don't know' category if you absolutely do not know the answer!**

5. Which of the following activities always happen when reporters put together a news story?	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely	
- talk to all the people involved in the event	□	□	□	□	Don't know □
- make a decision on whether or not to run the story	□	□	□	□	Don't know □
- hear from the editors how long their story is allowed to be	□	□	□	□	Don't know □

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely	
6. A reporter's religious beliefs could influence what the news stories look like that s/he makes	□	□	□	□	Don't know □
7. Reporters often turn events into stories	□	□	□	□	Don't know □
8. Whether a news reporter is young or old, the news stories s/he makes will be the same	□	□	□	□	Don't know □
Newsround is a news program for young children. 9. When news reporters make a story for Newsround, the stories will be presented differently than when they are made for the regular news	□	□	□	□	Don't know □

4

Non-fiction programs
This page is concerned with two types of non-fiction programs: documentaries and talk shows. Decide how likely or unlikely you think each statement is, and indicate your answer on the scale beside each statement. **Only fill out 'don't know' if you really don't know the answer!**

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely		
10. Sometimes, documentaries use actors	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
11. Boys and girls have the same opinion about documentaries such as 'Choppertown' (a documentary about motorcycles)	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
12. Because they want to know which issues are considered important, politicians keep an eye on talk shows that discuss current events	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
Let's say the government is considering a proposal for a new law. 13. If several popular talk show hosts call this proposal ridiculous, this proposal has a smaller chance to be made into a law	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
14. In talk shows, some events are staged	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐

5

Politics

The statements on this page all refer to different aspects of politics, such as elections. Please read each statement carefully, and indicate how likely or unlikely you think it is. **Remember, only fill out 'don't know' if you really don't know.**

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely		
15. Television influences which presidential candidate wins the US elections	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
16. News stations can be different in how they present a story because of differences in their political preference	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
17. Television news pays little attention to politics	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
18. People's ideas about politics can be influenced by television programs	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐

6

News
The statements on this page all refer to different aspects of the news. Please read each statement carefully, and indicate how likely or unlikely you think it is. **Remember, only fill out 'don't know' if you truly don't know.**

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely		
19. When newsreaders read the news, no other TV station employees are in the studio	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
20. Television news sometimes makes people angry	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
21. The news is filmed before a live studio audience	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
22. A reporter's political beliefs can influence how s/he presents a news story	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐

7

Feelings

The statements on this page all refer to people's feelings when they watch television. Please read each statement carefully, and then use the scale to indicate how likely or unlikely you think the statement is. **Remember: Only use 'don't know' if you truly do not know the answer!**

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely		
23. Television news can scare people	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
Sometimes television programs make people upset. 24. When people are upset they remember the program better than people who are not upset	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
Some people really get into a show they watch on television. They relate to the characters on this show and what happens to them. 25. These people are more likely to be influenced by these characters than people who do not care about them	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
26. Television news can change how people feel about a presidential candidate	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
27. Television never makes people happy	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐

8

	BBC	CNN
28. Below you see a series of stories that are to be used in both the CNN and the BBC news broadcasts. Imagine that you are the producer of the BBC news. The BBC is a British television station. In which order would you broadcast the stories listed below? Indicate the order in which these stories would appear on the BBC news in the column titled 'BBC'. You can do this by giving each story a number 1-5; 1 indicating the first story and 5 indicating the last story. Now imagine you are the producer of CNN news. CNN is an American television station. In which order would you broadcast the stories below? Indicate the order in which these stories would appear on the CNN news in the column to the right called 'CNN'. You can do this by giving each story a number 1-5; 1 indicating the first story and 5 indicating the last story.	BBC	CNN
Unemployment in the US increases to 10%	……	……
European summit successful	……	……
Engineers on strike: no train services in Southern England this week	……	……
Drug use in schools in US on the rise	……	……
Bush and Blair to meet about situation Iraq	……	……

9

Influence

The following statements are all about whether or not television influences people. Read each statement and decide how likely or unlikely it is. Indicate your answer using the scale. **Only fill out don't know if you really have no clue about the answer!**

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely		
29. Television can influence whether men and women share chores in the home	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
30. TV plays a role in the political party people would vote for	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
31. People use the expressions that are used in television programs such as the news and talk shows	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
32. Television influences how people behave when they demonstrate against something that is important to them	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
33. Television only influences very young children	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□

10

Television in general

The following statements all refer to television in general. Read each statement carefully. Then decide how likely or unlikely you think the statement is. Indicate your answer using the scale. **Remember that you are only allowed to use the 'don't know' category if you absolutely do not know the answer!**

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely		
34. Television news presents a complete picture of what is going on in the world	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
35. The stories you see on the news are about the only important events that took place that day	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
36. Television influences what young people wear to parties	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
37. Some television stations do not have to make a profit	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐

11

Young people

The following statements concern young people and their use of television. Please read each statement carefully, and decide how likely or unlikely you think it is. Indicate your answer using the scale. **Remember that you are only supposed to fill out 'don't know' if you truly do not know the answer!**

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely		
38. Television has something to do with how young people think about drugs	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
39. Children who watch the news know more about politics than children who do not watch the news	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
40. Parents have the same opinions about television programs as their children do	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□
41. Television influences how children between the ages of 12 and 18 treat their parents	□	□	□	□	Don't know	□

12

Filming techniques

Below you will see sets of two pictures taken from a television news program. These pictures are also called shots. In television (and film as well), several techniques are used to create these shots. Examples of such techniques are: special effects, props and costumes.

The pictures in each set look very similar. However, in each set one technique is applied differently. Look at each set, and, in the space provided below the two pictures, write down which technique is applied differently, and how.

Set 1

The first set specifically concerns differences in camera use. Try and spot the difference, and describe it in the space below the set.

picture 1   **picture 2**

Set 2

The second set also concerns a difference in camera use. Find it, and then describe it in the space below the pictures.

picture 1   **picture 2**

13

Set 3

In the third set, the difference concerns a technique other than camera use. Try to see what it is, and describe the difference in the space provided below the pictures.

picture 1   **picture 2**

Set 4

This final set of pictures again concerns a difference in how the camera was used. Try and find the difference, and then describe it in the space below the two pictures.

picture 1   **picture 2**

14

Presentation

The statements on this page are all about how television programs present people, things, and events. Read each statement, and decide how likely or unlikely the statement is. Then fill out your answer using the scale. **Remember to only use 'don't know' if you absolutely do not know the answer!**

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely		
43. The description of an event on the news is complete	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
44. News about gay marriages is presented in the same way in different countries	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
45. Whether a television station has to make money off its programs or not will never influence the kind of news programs it makes	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
46. When an event is presented on the news, it looks the same as when you were there and saw it yourself	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
47. The way in which stories about marriage are presented in the news can change how people behave when they are married	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
48. Every television station will present news on Islam in the same way	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐

15

Opinion

The statements on this page are all concerned with the relationship between people's opinion and television programs. Read each statement carefully and decide how likely or unlikely you think it is. Indicate your answer on the scale beside each statement. **Remember that you are only allowed to fill out 'don't know' if you really do not know the answer!**

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely		
49. TV news influences how people think about a political leader	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
50. People who live in the city react the same to news about the mad cow disease as people who live in the countryside	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
51. The news can determine how people think about Iraqis	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐
52. Television can influence people's opinions of issues such as politics, HIV medication, drug abuse, and the Middle East	☐	☐	☐	☐	Don't know	☐

16

Watching television

The following questions are all about differences and similarities between people who watch television. Indicate how likely or unlikely you think each statement is using the scale. **Remember you should only use the 'don't know' category if you have absolutely no idea what the answer to the question is!**

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely	
53. People with a lower education will understand the news just as well as people with a higher education	□	□	□	□	Don't know □
There are different reasons why people watch television. Sometimes you have to watch a program for school. Sometimes you watch a program because you want to. 54. When you watch a news program because you have to for school, you'll have a different opinion of the program than when you watch it because you want to	□	□	□	□	Don't know □
55. Differences in television content is one of the reasons why people in different countries think differently about issues such as gay marriages	□	□	□	□	Don't know □

17

Making the news

Below you will see a series of statements from different news programs. Each statement is accompanied by two pictures. Read each statement carefully. Then decide which picture would be used by the news to go with that statement. Indicate which picture would be used by the news by crossing (X) the circle below that picture. In the space provided below the picture, briefly explain why you think they would use that picture.

Statement 1:
Earlier today, President Bush addressed concern about rising gas prices while speaking at a Small Business Administration Conference.

O picture 1   O picture 2

Statement 2:
Professor West, an expert on juvenile delinquency, commented that teenagers today are more prone to crime than they were ten years ago.

O picture 1   O picture 2

18

Statement 3:
A Boston mother mourns after hearing her 8-year old son died in a school bus crash that killed five students earlier today.

O picture 1

O picture 2

Statement 4:
This afternoon, a peaceful demonstration turned violent as protestors clashed with the police.

O picture 1

O picture 2

19

Statement 5:
And now let's hear from our reporter on the scene.

O picture 1 **O picture 2**

20

Television viewing

Below you will find a few questions about television viewing. Please fill out the questions to the best of your knowledge.

57. How much television do you watch every day?	□ Less than thirty minutes □ Between thirty minutes and two hours □ Between two and three hours □ More than three hours
58. Do your parents ever watch television with you?	□ No □ Yes, less than once a week □ Yes, between one and three times per week □ Yes, every day
59. How often do you watch the news?	□ Never □ Less than once a week → go to question 61 □ Between one and three times per week → go to question 61 □ Every day → go to question 61
60. Have you ever watched the news?	□ Yes □ No → go to question 62
61. On which channels do you occasionally watch the news?	□ CNN □ BBC □ SKY □ Other, namely:………. □ Other, namely:………. □ Other, namely:……….
62. How often do you watch documentaries?	□ Never □ Less than once a week → go to question 64 □ Between one and three times per week → go to question 64 □ Every day → go to question 64
63. Have you ever watched a documentary?	□ Yes □ No

The questions continue on the next page.

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Television viewing (Continued)

64. How often do you watch talk shows?	□ Never □ Less than once a week → go to question 66 □ Between one and three times per week → go to question 66 □ Every day → go to question 66
65. Have you ever watched a talk show?	□ Yes □ No
66. How often do you read a newspaper?	□ Never □ Less than once a week □ Between one and three times per week □ Every day
67. How often do you check the internet for news?	□ Never □ Less than once a week □ Between one and three times per week □ Every day

22

Individual characteristics

The following questions are about yourself. The content will be kept absolutely private. That is why you are not asked for your name. Please fill out each question.

68. How old are you?	I am ……..years old
69. Are you a girl or a boy?	□ girl □ boy
70. Which countries have you lived in so far?	- …… - …… - …… - ……
71. Which country are you from?	I am from ……………….
72. Which countries are your parents from?	My mother is from………………… My father is from …………………..
73. Did your father attend university (in the American school system, this is called 'college')?	□ yes □ no
74. Did your mother attend university (in the American school system, this is called 'college')?	□ yes □ no
75. Are you an honor roll student?	□ yes □ no
76. Which grade did you receive in social studies on your last report card?	□ A □ D □ B □ F □ C
77. Which grade did you receive in English on your last report card?	□ A □ D □ B □ F □ C
78. Are you an EAL/ESL (English as an Additional/Second Language) student?	□ yes □ no

Thank you for filling out the questionnaire!

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Appendix 10. Coding scheme open-ended questions

Several questions did not adhere to the four-point scale that was used throughout the survey. To facilitate the analysis of these questions, they were recoded into numerical codes. In those cases where this recoding did not produce a four-point scale, this scale was re-calculated into a four-point scale in SPSS.

Question 3: 'Can you name four programs or channels which show only real events?'
Any programs which were not immediately recognizable by the researcher were looked up online. The vast majority of programs were identified this way. In two cases it was impossible to ascertain if a channel showed only non-fiction. Since the channels seemed to be Italian, an Italian native speaker was consulted who was able to inform the researcher that the channels showed both fiction and non-fiction programs.

Coding scheme:

0	If the question had been left blank
	If the respondents indicated that they never watch TV
1	If the program/channel listed was incorrect
2	If the program/channel listed was correct.

Question 4: 'Can you name four programs which are acted?'
Again, any programs which were not immediately recognizable by the researcher were looked up online.

Coding scheme:

0	If the question had been left blank
	If the respondents indicated that they never watch TV
1	If the program listed was incorrect
2	If the program listed was correct.

Question 28: This question asked the respondents to place five items in the order in which they would be broadcast on the BBC news, and on CNN. The items were:
- *Unemployment in the US increases to 10%*
- *European summit successful*
- *Engineers on strike: No train services in Southern England this week*
- *Drug use in schools in the US on the rise*
- *Bush and Blair to meet about situation in Iraq*

There is no one order for either broadcast that is correct; there are several alternatives that would be acceptable, and these alternatives were all deemed correct. These alternatives were:

Items	*BBC news*	*CNN*
Unemployment in the US increases to 10%	4/5	2/3/1
European summit successful	2/1/3	4
Engineers on strike: No train services in Southern England this week	3/1/2	5
Drug use in schools in the US on the rise	5/4	3/2/1
Bush and Blair to meet about situation in Iraq	1/2/3	1/2/3

Coding scheme:

0	If the question had been left blank
1	If the items were placed in the same order for both the BBC and CNN
2	If the items were placed in a different order for BBC and CNN, but the order was not one presented above
3	If the items were placed in a different order for the BBC and CNN, and the order was one of the variants presented above.

Question 42: This question asked respondents to look at four sets of two very similar pictures, and describe the difference in techniques used in each set. The sets would show two pictures that were exactly the same, except for one change in a camera technique.
The first set of pictures focused on close-ups; the first picture showed a man by a blackboard; one picture showed him in a medium-shot, the other showed him in a close-up (see page 223). The second set showed a difference in camera angle (see page 223). The third set of pictures showed one picture where a light shined on a woman from above, and one picture where she was lit from below (see page 224). The final set showed a difference in focus; in the first picture the focus was on a man sitting in front of a window, in the second picture showed the man out of focus and what was on the other side of the window in focus (see p. 224).

Coding scheme:

0	If the question had been left blank/a question mark
1	If the answer was incorrect, i.e., if it did not refer to the techniques
2	If the answer was correct; i.e., if the respondent referred to the correct technique

When coding the questions, an iterative process was used, where by the coding scheme was adapted during the coding. So if one respondent gave an answer that was the first of its kind, its place in the coding scheme was noted, and the researcher went back to see if it would change the coding of any of the other answers that had already been coded.

Coding scheme for the first set:

1	If respondents talked about a difference in focus
	If respondents merely described the differences in what they saw (e.g., more of the man's face, more of the blackboard)
2	If respondents used the word 'zoom'
	If respondents used the words 'close up' or 'farther away/closer by'

Coding scheme for the second set:

1	If respondents describe how people would perceive the man
	If respondent say something about the man's expression or baldness or other physical characteristics
2	If the respondents said 'camera angle'
	If the respondent said the pictures were either taken from below or above

Coding scheme for the third set:

1	If respondents wrote lighting, but named the incorrect position of the light (e.g., in front/behind).
	If respondents said one picture was brighter than the other (because it is not)
	If respondents said one picture used flash, and the other one did not.
2	If respondents wrote 'lighting'.
	If respondents correctly described the different positions of the light

Coding scheme for the fourth set:

1	If respondents describe they can see man/wood easier, but don't explain why
	When respondents say one picture shows different details from the other
	If respondents just say 'blur'.
	If respondents say something like 'you can't really see the man in pic one' they need to describe why.
	If respondents merely say 'pic 1 is blurred, pic 2 is not'; this is not correct; different parts are blurry.
2	If respondents said something about face/background being blurry/clear, referring correctly to each picture.
	If respondents said something about the focus (or use the terms 'blurry/sharp').

Question 56: This question asked respondents to read a statement from the news, and decide which one of two pictures would be used by the news to accompany that statement. A total of five statements were presented to the respondents, and each statement was accompanied by two pictures[1].

For this question, the respondents were only coded on their ability to explain their choice, since the purpose of this question was to assess whether respondents knew about the conventions used by the news when selecting pictures. Thus, when a respondent picked the correct picture, but did not indicate why the news would use that picture, they would receive zero points.

The coding scheme:

0	If the question had been left blank/a question mark
1	If the answer was incorrect, i.e., if it did not refer to the techniques
2	If the answer was correct; i.e., if it included the correct difference that determines which picture is used.
3	If the answer was correct and showed more understanding: i.e., if it included the correct difference as well as an explanation why this difference would lead to the newsmakers choosing that picture.

Respondents who received a score '3'on any of the sets did not only point to the difference that determines which picture is used, but also explain why this difference is important. They are able to look beyond the content, and adopt the position of the newsmaker. The respondents who received a score '2' are aware of the difference, but from their answer it is impossible to determine whether they fully understand the meaning behind this difference. They are either unable or unwilling to verbalize their understanding which, in light of this questionnaire, makes them less media literate.

The same iterative process was used here as for question 42; i.e., the coding scheme was adapted during the coding. So if one respondent gave an answer that was the first of its kind, its place in the coding scheme was noted, and the researcher went back to see if it would change the coding of any of the other answers that had already been coded.

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[1] For statements 1 and 2 and the accompanying pictures, see page 228. For statements 3 and 4 as well as the accompanying pictures see page 229. For statement 5 and the accompanying pictures, see page 230.

Coding scheme for statement 1 (President Bush addressing a conference):

1	If respondents say something like: it gives the impression he is speaking to the world.
	If respondents merely describe the difference between the two shots.
	If respondents say the picture shows more (without specifying what).
	If respondents say that picture is easier to look at.
	If respondents say picture gives him a more presidential look, or makes him. look more formal – they need to be specific and say why (refer to seal).
	If respondents say picture 1 is more clear he is giving a speech.
2	Respondents who refer to the seal, they do not necessarily have to explain it underlines he is the President of the US (just mentioning it is enough).
	Respondents who say the picture 1 because it clearly states he is president (they need to claim the seal underlines something in order to qualify for 3).
	People who say the seal was used to make it clear that he is the president of the US.
	Respondents who say the picture shows a stand.
3	Respondents who mention the seal, and explain it makes him look more presidential, more important. These respondents thus go beyond the answers given by respondents in category 2.

Coding scheme for statement 2 (Professor West commenting on teen crime):

1	If respondents say that picture 2 is more attractive, or interesting.
	If respondents say it has a background, or because it has more atmosphere, or because it looks more important.
2	Respondents mentioned that one picture has books.
	If respondents say that picture 2 shows that he is a professor.
	If respondents say picture makes him look more like a professor, but do not explain why.
	If respondents say picture 2 looks more serious, makes West look smarter, but do not mention the books.
3	Respondents mention the books and explain they make the professor look more professional (they must say something about the background/props/books and professional to be coded (3)).

Coding scheme for statement 3 (Mourning Boston mother):

1   If respondents say something like 'a mother wouldn't mourn standing up'.
    If respondents say 'you can see her better' (it's not clear what they mean; her
    face, her body).
    If respondents say you get a better view of the mother.
    If respondents say something like 'face, full length', or 'creates more tension',
    'In picture 2 the mother looks like she is talking to someone', 'focus is more
    on the mother', or 'it looks more sad and powerful' (no clarity about what 'it'
    is).
2   When respondents merely say 'it shows her expression/sadness on her face'
    better; they need to specify what it is that does this.
    If respondents merely point to the 'face expression', or say something like 'her
    feelings are well shown on her face'.
    If respondents say 'it is a close up'. Although this is correct, it is not good
    enough to earn a 3.
3   Respondents here need to mention that the close-up allow the viewers to see
    her face more, experience her emotions more.
    If respondents say something like a close up is more personal.

Coding scheme for statement 4 (Peaceful demonstration turned violent):

1   When respondents say things like; 'Show protestors'
    When the respondents merely compare the two pictures.
    When respondents say something about how picture 1 makes the police look
    bad.
2   If respondents say something like 'audience wants to see the whole picture'.
    If respondents merely describe what they see, e.g., 'it shows the protestors
    fighting with the police', or 'shows the violence'.
3   If respondents say something like: because it shows what is going on, it
    captures the statement better. In order to receive a '3', respondents need to say
    something to the extent of this picture makes it easier to see what is going on.

Coding scheme for statement 5 (Reporter on the scene):

1   If respondents say something like 'it shows him better', or something about
    how it shows his face better.
    When respondents say something about how the picture is centered, or the
    reporter looks better
    When respondents say the reporter has a more serious perspective.
2   If the respondents mention that the reporter looks in the camera.
3   If respondents say something about how the reporter looks at the camera, and
    thus addresses the audience.
    If respondents say 'he is facing us', they are also rewarded with a '3'.

Appendix 11. Final cut: Operationalizing media literacy
Below is an overview of the questions that remained after the problematic questions had been culled in the analysis of the survey results. The questions are presented per aspect of media literacy.

The production of media content

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
Television news presents a complete picture of what is going on in the world	☑	☐	☐	☐

Professional activities
Selectivity of the producers

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
The stories you see on the news are about the only important events that took place that day	☑	☐	☐	☐
The description of an event on the news is complete	☑	☐	☐	☐

Codes and conventions
Production procedures

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
When newsreaders read the news, no other TV station employees are in the studio	☑	☐	☐	☐
The news is filmed before a live studio audience	☑	☐	☐	☐

Production procedures (continued)

Which of the following activities always happen when reporters put together a news story?

- talk to all the people involved in the event	☑	☐	☐	☐
- make a decision on whether or not to run the story	☐	☐	☐	☑
- hear from the editors how long their story is allowed to be	☐	☐	☐	☑

Below you will see sets of two pictures taken from a television news program. These pictures are also called shots. In television (and film as well), several techniques are used to create these shots. Examples of such techniques are: special effects, props, and costumes.
The pictures in each set look very similar. However, in each set one technique is applied differently. Look at each set, and, in the space provided below the two pictures, write down, in your own words, which technique is applied differently, and how.

      Set 1 (see page 223) showed a difference in zoom.
      Set 2 (see page 223) showed a difference in camera angle.
      Set 3 (see page 224) showed a difference in lighting.
      Set 4 (see page 224) showed a difference in focus.

Below you will see a series of statements from different news programs. Each statement is accompanied by two pictures. Read each statement carefully. Then decide which picture would be used by the news to go with that statement. Indicate which picture would be used by the news by crossing (X) the circle below that picture. In the space provided below the picture, briefly explain why you think they would use that picture.

<div align="center">Correct picture</div>

Statement 1 (President Bush addressing a conference)	1
Statement 2 (Professor West commenting on teen crime) [1]	2
Statement 3 (Mourning Boston mother)	1
Statement 4 (Peaceful demonstration turned violent) [2]	1
Statement 5 (Reporter on the scene) [3]	2

(See Appendix 10 for coding schemes for both questions)

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[1] For statements 1 and 2 see page 228
[2] For statements 3 and 4 see page 229
[3] For statement 5 see page 230

<u>Dramatic/narrative codes</u>

Distinction between fact and fiction

No more questions here

Extent to which a non-fiction program contains fictionalized elements

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
Sometimes, documentaries use actors	☐	☐	☐	☑
In talk shows, some events are staged	☐	☐	☐	☑

News facts are embedded in a story

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
Reporters often turn events into stories	☐	☐	☐	☑
When an event is presented on the news, it looks the same as when you were there and saw it yourself	☑	☐	☐	☐

<u>*Production context*</u>

Social and cultural context

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
A reporter's religious beliefs could influence what the news stories look like that s/he makes	☐	☐	☐	☑
News about gay marriages is presented in the same way in different countries	☑	☐	☐	☐
Every television station will present news on Islam in the same way	☑	☐	☐	☐
Whether a news reporter is young or old, the news stories s/he makes will be the same	☑	☐	☐	☐

Economic context

<u>Difference between and effect of profit or non-profit nature of television station</u>

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
Whether a television station has to make money off its programs or not will never influence the kind of news programs it makes	☑	☐	☐	☐
Some television stations do not have to make a profit	☐	☐	☐	☑

Appendix 11 - Final cut: Operationalizing media literacy

<u>Target audience</u>

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
Newsround is a news program for young children. When news reporters make a story for Newsround, the stories will be presented differently than when they are made for the regular news	☐	☐	☐	☑

Political context

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
News stations can be different in how they present a story because of differences in their political preference	☐	☐	☐	☑
A reporter's political beliefs can influence how s/he presents a news story	☐	☐	☐	☑

The influence of the media on its users

Influence on society

Influence on the political system

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
Television influences which presidential candidate wins the US	☐	☐	☐	☑
Let's say the government is considering a proposal for a new law. If several popular talk show hosts call this proposal ridiculous, this proposal has a smaller chance to be made into a law	☐	☐	☐	☑
Because they want to know which issues are considered important, politicians keep an eye on talk shows that discuss current events	☐	☐	☐	☑

Influence on the social and cultural institutions

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
Television can influence whether men and women share chores in the home	☐	☐	☐	☑
The way in which stories about marriage are presented in the news can change how people behave when they are married	☐	☐	☐	☑

Influence on the cultural make-up

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
Television has something to do with how young people think about drugs	☐	☐	☐	☑
Differences in television content is one of the reasons why in different countries people think differently about issues such as gay marriages	☐	☐	☐	☑
Television influences how children between the ages of 12 and 18 treat their parents	☐	☐	☐	☑

Influence on the individual

Influence on behavior

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
TV plays a role in the political party people would vote for	☐	☐	☐	☑
TV news influences how people think about a political leader	☐	☐	☐	☑
People use the expressions that are used in television programs such as the news and talk shows	☐	☐	☐	☑
Television influences how people behave when they demonstrate against something that is important to them	☐	☐	☐	☑

Influence on behavior (continued)

Television influences what young people wear to parties	☐	☐	☐	☑

Influence on opinions and ideas

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
Television can influence people's opinions of issues such as politics, HIV medication, drug abuse and the Middle East	☐	☐	☐	☑
The news can determine how people think about Iraqis	☐	☐	☐	☑
People's ideas about politics can be influenced by television programs	☐	☐	☐	☑

Influence on feelings

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
Television news can change how people feel about a Presidential candidate	☐	☐	☐	☑
Television news can scare people	☐	☐	☐	☑
Television news sometimes makes people angry	☐	☐	☐	☑

Factors that mediate influence

	Unlikely	Somewhat unlikely	Somewhat likely	Likely
Children who watch the news know more about politics than children who do not watch the news.	☐	☐	☐	☑
There are different reasons why people watch television. Sometimes you have to watch a program for school. Sometimes you watch a program because you want to. When you watch a news program because you have to for school, you'll have a different opinion of the program than when you watch it because you want to	☐	☐	☐	☑
People who live in the city react the same to news about the mad cow disease as people who live in the countryside	☑	☐	☐	☐
Some people really get into a show they watch on television. They relate to the characters on this show and what happens to them. These people are more likely to be influenced by these characters than people who do not care about them	☐	☐	☐	☑
Sometimes television programs make people upset. When people are upset they remember the program better than people who are not upset	☐	☐	☐	☑
People with a lower education will understand the news just as well as people with a higher education	☑	☐	☐	☐
Television only influences very young children	☑	☐	☐	☐

Appendix 12. Missing respondents

Below is a table which indicates how many respondents failed to answer how many questions.

Questions regarding media production (23 questions)			Questions regarding media influence on its users (26 questions)		
Number of missing questions	Number of respondents	Cumulative percentage	Number of missing questions	Number of respondents	Cumulative percentage
0	171 (44.2%)	44,2%	0	247 (63.8%)	63,8%
1	74 (19.1%)	63,3%	1	53 (13.7%)	77,5%
2	54 (14%)	77,3%	2	28 (7.2%)	84,8%
3	25 (6.5%)	83,7%	3	10 (2.6%)	87,3%
4	17 (4.4%)	88,1%	4	5 (1.3%)	88,6%
5	7 (1.8%)	89,9%	5	10 (2.6%)	91,2%
6	8 (2.1%)	92,0%	6	3 (.8%)	92,0%
7	9 (2.3%)	94,3%	7	7 (1.8%)	93,8%
8	3 (.8%)	95,1%	8	7 (1.8%)	95,6%
9	5 (1.3%)	96,4%	9	5 (1.3%)	96,9%
10	6 (1.6%)	97,9%	10	3 (.8%)	97,7%
11	1 (.3%)	98,2%	11	1 (.3%)	97,9%
12	0	98,2%	12	3 (.8%)	98,7%
13	0	98,2%	13	1 (.3%)	99%
14	2 (.5%)	98,7%	14	0	99%
15	2 (.5%)	99,2%	15	1 (.3%)	99,25%
16	0	99,2%	16	0	99,25%
17	0	99,2%	17	0	99,25%
18	1 (.3%)	99,5%	18	0	99,25%
19	0	99,5%	19	2 (.5%)	99,75%
20	0	99,5%	20	0	99,75%
21	1 (.3%)	99,7%	21	0	99,75%
22	1 (.3%)	100%	22	1 (.3%)	100%

Appendix 13. Teacher evaluation form

This appendix includes the evaluation form that was sent out to the teachers who participated in the evaluation study.

Evaluatie

Dank u wel voor het doorlezen van de enquête. Nog even ter samenvatting: het doel van deze enquête is de mediawijsheid van leerlingen tussen de 11 en 18 jaar oud vast te stellen. Hieronder volgt een korte evaluatie van de vragenlijst.

I.

Als eerste wil ik u vragen uw mening over de enquête te geven door de volgende vragen te beantwoorden. Elke vraag bestaat uit twee tegenovergestelde stellingen die betrekking hebben op de enquête. Bij elk setje van stellingen staat een schaal. Hiermee kunt u aangeven met welke stelling u het meer eens bent. In de ruimte onder elke schaal kunt u, als u dat wilt, uw mening verder toelichten.

| De vragen sluiten aan bij de leefwereld van de doelgroep | 1 2 3 4 5 | De vragen sluiten *niet* aan bij de leefwereld van de doelgroep |

Eventuele opmerkingen:

| De vragen zijn te *moeilijk* voor de leerlingen uit de doelgroep | 1 2 3 4 5 | De vragen zijn te *makkelijk* voor de leerlingen uit de doelgroep |

Eventuele opmerkingen:

| Leerlingen uit de doelgroep zullen de vragen snappen | 1 2 3 4 5 | Leerlingen uit de doelgroep zullen de vragen *niet* snappen |

Eventuele opmerkingen:

| De vragen meten of leerlingen uit de doelgroep kritisch zijn over de media | 1 2 3 4 5 | De vragen meten *niet* of leerlingen uit de doelgroep kritisch zijn over de media |

Eventuele opmerkingen:

| De keuze voor televisie als centraal medium van de enquête is logisch gezien de doelgroep | 1 2 3 4 5 | De keuze voor televisie als centraal medium van de enquête is *niet* logisch gezien de doelgroep |

Eventuele opmerkingen:

| Ik kan het Engels in de enquête goed volgen | 1 2 3 4 5 | Ik kan het Engels in de enquête *niet* goed volgen |

Eventuele opmerkingen:

Hieronder volgen enkele vragen die gaan over de specifieke invulling van de enquête.

| Het is relevant dat er vragen in de enquête zijn opgenomen over het feit dat het nieuws een programma is dat door mensen gemaakt wordt | 1 2 3 4 5 | Het is *niet* relevant dat er vragen in de enquête zijn opgenomen over het feit dat het nieuws een programma is dat door mensen gemaakt wordt |

Eventuele opmerkingen:

| Het feit dat het nieuws een programma is dat door mensen gemaakt wordt komt voldoende aan bod in de enquête | 1 2 3 4 5 | Het feit dat het nieuws een programma is dat door mensen gemaakt wordt komt *niet* voldoende aan bod in de enquête |

Eventuele opmerkingen:

| Het is relevant dat de invloed die de televisie op mensen kan hebben aan bod komt in deze enquête | 1 2 3 4 5 | Het is *niet* relevant dat de invloed die de televisie op mensen kan hebben aan bod komt in deze enquête |

Eventuele opmerkingen:

De invloed die de televisie op mensen kan hebben komt voldoende aan bod in de enquête	1 2 3 4 5	De invloed die de televisie op mensen kan hebben komt *niet* voldoende aan bod in de enquête

Eventuele opmerkingen:

Het is relevant dat de routines die gebruikt worden bij het maken van het nieuws aan de orde komen in deze enquête	1 2 3 4 5	Het is *niet* relevant dat de routines die gebruikt worden bij het maken van het nieuws aan de orde komen in deze enquête

Eventuele opmerkingen:

De routines die gebruikt worden bij het maken van het nieuws komen voldoende aan de orde	1 2 3 4 5	De routines die gebruikt worden bij het maken van het nieuws komen *niet* voldoende aan de orde

Eventuele opmerkingen:

Het is relevant dat het verhalende karakter van het nieuws en andere genres aan bod komt in deze enquête	1 2 3 4 5	Het is *niet* relevant dat het verhalende karakter van het nieuws en andere genres aan bod komt in deze enquête

Eventuele opmerkingen:

Het verhalende karakter van het nieuws en andere genres komt voldoende aan bod in deze enquête	1 2 3 4 5	Het verhalende karakter van het nieuws en andere genres komt *niet* voldoende aan bod in deze enquête

Eventuele opmerkingen:

| De invloed van de sociaal-culturele omgeving van de makers van het nieuws op de inhoud van het nieuws komt voldoende aan bod in deze enquête | 1 2 3 4 5 | De invloed van de sociaal-culturele omgeving van de makers van het nieuws op de inhoud van het nieuws komt *niet* voldoende aan bod in deze enquête |

Eventuele opmerkingen:

| Het is relevant dat de invloed van de sociaal-culturele omgeving van de makers van het nieuws op de inhoud van het nieuws aan bod komt in deze enquête | 1 2 3 4 5 | Het is *niet* relevant dat de invloed van de sociaal-culturele omgeving van de makers van het nieuws op de inhoud van het nieuws aan bod komt in deze enquête |

Eventuele opmerkingen:

| Het is relevant dat de rol die het wel/niet hoeven maken van winst door omroepen en zenders aan bod komt in deze enquête | 1 2 3 4 5 | Het is *niet* relevant dat de rol die het wel/niet hoeven maken van winst door omroepen en zenders aan bod komt in deze enquête |

Eventuele opmerkingen:

| De rol die het wel/niet hoeven maken van winst door omroepen en zenders speelt komt voldoende aan bod in deze enquête | 1 2 3 4 5 | De rol die het wel/niet hoeven maken van winst door omroepen en zenders speelt komt *niet* voldoende aan bod in deze enquête |

Eventuele opmerkingen:

| Het is relevant dat de invloed die de televisie kan hebben op de politiek aan bod komt in deze enquête | 1 2 3 4 5 | Het is *niet* relevant dat de invloed die de televisie kan hebben op de politiek aan bod komt in deze enquête |

Eventuele opmerkingen:

| De invloed die de televisie kan hebben op de politiek komt voldoende aan bod in deze enquête | 1 2 3 4 5 | De invloed die de televisie kan hebben op de politiek komt *niet* voldoende aan bod in deze enquête |

Eventuele opmerkingen:

| Het is relevant dat de invloed die de televisie kan hebben op normen en waarden aan bod komt in deze enquête | 1 2 3 4 5 | Het is *niet* relevant dat de invloed die de televisie kan hebben op normen en waarden aan bod komt in deze enquête |

Eventuele opmerkingen:

| De invloed die de televisie kan hebben op normen en waarden komt voldoende aan bod in deze enquête | 1 2 3 4 5 | De invloed die de televisie kan hebben op normen en waarden komt *niet* voldoende aan bod in deze enquête |

Eventuele opmerkingen:

| Het is relevant dat de invloed die de televisie kan hebben op het gedrag van televisiekijkers aan bod komt in deze enquête | 1 2 3 4 5 | Het is *niet* relevant dat de invloed die de televisie kan hebben op het gedrag van televisiekijkers aan bod komt in deze enquête |

Eventuele opmerkingen:

| De invloed die de televisie kan hebben op het gedrag van televisiekijkers komt voldoende aan bod in deze enquête | 1 2 3 4 5 | De invloed die de televisie kan hebben op het gedrag van televisiekijkers komt *niet* voldoende aan bod in deze enquête |

Eventuele opmerkingen:

De evaluatie wordt vervolgd op de volgende bladzijde

II.
De bovenstaande vragen hebben uw mening over een specifiek aantal onderwerpen bevraagd. In dit onderdeel van de evaluatie wil ik u vragen aan te geven wat u mist in deze enquête.

Zoals eerder is uitgelegd is het doel van de vragenlijst om vast te stellen hoe mediawijs jongeren zijn ten opzichte van televisie.

Kunt u mij vertellen in hoeverre de enquête dit doel, volgens u, bereikt?

Dit doel wordt helemaal bereikt   1   2   3   4   5   Dit doel wordt helemaal *niet* bereikt.

Wilt u uw antwoord hieronder toelichten?

Zijn er bepaalde onderdelen/onderwerpen/vragen die volgens u wel in de enquête opgenomen hadden moeten worden, maar welke er niet in voorkomen?

      Ja   □   Nee   □

Indien u vindt dat er onderdelen/onderwerpen/vragen ontbreken, kunt u mij dan uitleggen welke onderdelen/onderwerpen/vragen dat zijn, en waarom u vindt dat deze opgenomen zouden moeten worden?

III.

Als laatste wil ik u verzoeken om de onderstaande vragen te beantwoorden.

1. In welke vakken geeft u les?

………………….

………………….

………………….

2. Hoe lang geeft u al les?

…………………. Jaar

3. Zou u eventueel bereid zijn om aan een vervolginterview mee te werken?

□ Nee

□ Ja (vul hieronder uw adresgegevens in)

Naam:……………………………………
Straat + huisnr.:…………………………
Postcode + plaats:………………………
Telefoon nr. (optioneel):………………….
E-mail adres (optioneel):………………….

Dank u wel voor uw medewerking!

U kunt de enquête en de evaluatie vragen retourneren met de bijgesloten enveloppe. Een postzegel is niet nodig.

Appendix 14 - Teacher evaluation study: Results

Appendix 14. Teacher evaluation study: Results

Question	Scores	Summary of comments
The questions are appropriate/are not appropriate for students from the target group	11 respondents: Appropriate 4 respondents: Not appropriate	Five respondents noted that the questions might be too difficult for the younger respondents (up to 15 year old). One respondent noted that respondents in this age group generally do not watch a lot of non-fiction.
The questions are too difficult/too easy for students from the target group	5 respondents: Difficult 9 respondents: Neutral 1 respondent: Easy	Five respondents noted this would depend on the respondents' background, cognitive abilities, and age. Four noted the questionnaire might be too difficult for the younger (up to 15 years old) students.
Students from the target group will/will not understand the questions	6 respondents: Will understand the questions 5 respondents: Neutral 4 respondents: Will not understand the questions	Seven respondents noted that the questionnaire would not pose a problem for older students, but that it might be too difficult for younger students.
The questions assess/does not assess if students from the target group are critical towards the media	12 respondents: Agreed 3 respondents: Neutral	Two respondents commented that they thought that internet should have included as well.

Statement	Results	Comments
Selecting television as the focus of the questionnaire is a logical/not logical decision considering the target group	6 respondents: Agreed 5 respondents: Neutral 4 respondents: Disagreed	Seven respondents pointed out that they would have also investigated the internet, because it is so important in the lives of youngsters.
Including questions about the fact that news is a man-made construction is relevant/not relevant	16 respondents: Relevant	
The fact that news is a man-made construction is addressed sufficiently/insufficiently	16 respondents: Sufficient	
Including questions about the fact that television can influence people is relevant/not relevant	16 respondents: Relevant	
The fact that television can influence people is addressed sufficiently/insufficiently	16 respondents: Sufficient	One respondent explained that this facet is important because youngsters should be able to 'see through the news', and not adopt the attitude that what they see on the news is true.
Including questions about the routines used when constructing the news is relevant/not relevant	13 respondents: Relevant 3: Neutral	
The routines used when constructing the news are addressed sufficiently/insufficiently	14 respondents: Sufficient 2 respondents: Neutral	

Statement	Results	Comments
Including questions about fictionalized nature of the news and other genres is relevant/not relevant	15 respondents: Relevant 1 respondent: Not relevant	The one respondent who thought this topic was not relevant, noted that he had not seen any questions on this topic at all.
The fictionalized nature of the news and other genres is addressed sufficiently/insufficiently	13 respondents: Sufficient 3 respondents: Neutral	
Including questions about the influence of the socio-cultural context of production on news content is relevant/not relevant	15 respondents: Relevant 1 respondent: Neutral	
The influence of the socio-cultural context of production on news is addressed sufficiently/insufficiently	12 respondents: Sufficient 4 respondents: Neutral	
Including questions about role played by the profit/non-profit nature of television stations is relevant/not relevant	14 respondents: Relevant 1 respondent: Neutral 1 respondent: Not relevant	The one respondent who claimed it is not relevant, commented that the students would probably not be interested in this topic at all.
The role played by the profit/non-profit nature of television stations is addressed sufficiently/insufficiently	11 respondents: Sufficient 4 respondents: Neutral 1 respondent: Insufficient	
Including questions about the influence television could have on politics is relevant/not relevant	16 respondents: Relevant	

The influence television could have on politics is addressed sufficiently/insufficiently	16 respondents: Sufficient
Including questions about the influence television could have on norms and values is relevant/not relevant	16 respondents: Relevant
The influence television could have on norms and values is addressed sufficiently/insufficiently	15 respondents: Sufficient 1 respondent: Neutral
Including questions about the influence television could have on viewers' behavior is relevant/not relevant	16 respondents: Relevant
The influence television could have on viewers' behavior is addressed sufficiently/insufficiently	14 respondents: Sufficient 1 respondent: Neutral 1 respondent: Insufficient

| The goal of the questionnaire is to determine how media literate youngsters are regarding television. This goal has been reached completely/not at all | 12 respondents: Goal has been reached
2 respondents: Neutral
1 respondent: Goal has not been reached | Eight respondents commented that they thought the questionnaire is definitely capable of measuring media literacy (if focus lies on television). One respondent noted that the questions are appropriate for the age group, and that they fit with how youngsters perceive the world around them. One respondent thought the visual questions were very good. Three respondents voiced their concerns about the questionnaire possibly being too demanding for the younger portion of the target group. Three respondents also noted that the questionnaire gave a lot of attention to the news, while this genre is not that popular among this age group. They felt that a focus on entertainment programs would be more appropriate. One respondent also noted that media literacy should extend beyond television. |

| Are there certain elements/topics/questions which should have been included in the questionnaire, but which were left out? Which ones? | Four respondents mention that the Internet should have been included as a medium as well. One respondent noted that questions should have also focused on music videos and soap operas (genres which youngsters are prone to watch often). One respondent felt the questionnaire should have included questions on where the youngsters get their information, how and if they evaluate this information, and what they have learned from the media. Two respondents also noted that the questionnaire should have included questions on how much children think they are influenced by television. Finally, one respondent wrote that the questionnaire should have also focused on how much youngsters know about the current Dutch media situation; e.g., how many commercial channels are available, and which other information sources are available. |

Appendix 15. Scores on survey questions

This appendix includes the frequencies of the scores on the different questions that make up the questionnaire. Please note that the most correct answer is a '4', and the most incorrect answer is '1'.

The influence of the media on its users

Question 12 - Because they want to know which issues are considered important, politicians keep an eye on talk shows that discuss current events

Score	Frequency	Percentage
1	10	2.6
2	53	13.7
3	181	46.8
4	103	26.6
Don't know	35	1.3
Left blank	5	9.0
Total	**387**	**100**

Question 13 - Let's say the government is considering a proposal for a new law.
If several popular talk show hosts call this proposal ridiculous, this proposal has a smaller chance to be made into a law

Score	Frequency	Percentage
1	53	13.7
2	101	26.1
3	148	38.2
4	50	12.9
Don't know	28	1.8
Left blank	7	7.2
Total	**387**	**100**

Question 15 - Television influences which presidential candidate wins the US elections

Score	Frequency	Percentage
1	17	4.4
2	41	10.6
3	134	34.6
4	173	44.7
Don't know	20	5.2
Left blank	2	.5
Total	387	100

Question 18 – People's ideas about politics can be influenced by television programs

Score	Frequency	Percentage
1	3	.8
2	10	2.6
3	151	39.0
4	216	55.8
Don't know	5	1.3
Left blank	2	.5
Total	387	100

Appendix 15 - Scores on survey questions

Question 20 – Television news sometimes makes people angry

Score	Frequency	Percentage
1	4	1.0
2	11	2.8
3	118	30.5
4	248	64.1
Don't know	4	1.0
Left blank	2	.5
Total	387	100

Question 23 - Television news can scare people

Score	Frequency	Percentage
1	6	1.6
2	13	3.4
3	111	28.7
4	253	65.4
Don't know	3	.8
Left blank	1	.3
Total	387	100

Question 24 – Sometimes television programs make people upset.
When people are upset, they remember the program better than people who are not upset

Score	Frequency	Percentage
1	4	1.0
2	27	7.0
3	157	40.6
4	187	48.3
Don't know	11	2.8
Left blank	1	.3
Total	387	100

Question 25 - Some people really get into a show they watch on television. They relate to the characters on the show and what happens to them.
These people are more likely to be influenced by these characters than people who do not care about them

Score	Frequency	Percentage
1	0	0
2	27	7.0
3	129	33.3
4	206	53.2
Don't know	21	5.4
Left blank	4	1.0
Total	387	100

Appendix 15 - Scores on survey questions

Question 26 – Television news can change how people feel about a presidential candidate

Score	Frequency	Percentage
1	4	1.0
2	18	4.7
3	168	43.4
4	186	48.1
Don't know	8	2.1
Left blank	3	.8
Total	387	100

Question 29 – Television can influence whether men and women share chores in the home

Score	Frequency	Percentage
1	29	7.5
2	116	30.0
3	161	41.6
4	44	11.4
Don't know	32	8.3
Left blank	5	1.3
Total	387	100

Question 30 – Television plays a role in the political party people would vote for

Score	Frequency	Percentage
1	7	1.8
2	39	10.1
3	187	48.3
4	123	31.8
Don't know	26	6.7
Left blank	5	1.3
Total	387	100

Question 31 – People use the expressions that are used in television programs such as the news and talk shows

Score	Frequency	Percentage
1	5	1.3
2	42	10.9
3	159	41.1
4	162	41.9
Don't know	14	3.6
Left blank	5	1.3
Total	387	100

Question 32 – Television influences how people behave when they demonstrate against something that is important to them

Score	Frequency	Percentage
1	7	1.8
2	48	12.4
3	199	51.4
4	112	28.9
Don't know	16	4.1
Left blank	5	1.3
Total	387	100

Question 33 – Television only influences very young children

Score	Frequency	Percentage
1	12	3.1
2	20	5.2
3	69	17.8
4	278	71.8
Don't know	4	1.0
Left blank	4	1.0
Total	387	100

Question 36 – Television influences what young people wear to parties

Score	Frequency	Percentage
1	55	14.2
2	82	21.2
3	154	39.8
4	85	22.0
Don't know	8	2.1
Left blank	3	.8
Total	387	100

Question 38 – Television has something to do with how young people think about drugs

Score	Frequency	Percentage
1	26	6.7
2	55	14.2
3	189	48.8
4	100	25.8
Don't know	12	3.1
Left blank	5	1.3
Total	387	100

Question 39 – Children who watch the news know more about politics than children who do not watch the news

Score	Frequency	Percentage
1	11	2.8
2	34	8.8
3	157	40.6
4	176	45.5
Don't know	3	.8
Left blank	6	1.6
Total	387	100

Question 41 – Television influences how children between the ages of 12 and 18 treat their parents

Score	Frequency	Percentage
1	33	8.5
2	102	26.4
3	171	44.2
4	64	16.5
Don't know	12	3.1
Left blank	5	1.3
Total	387	100

Question 47 - The way in which stories about marriage are presented in the news can change how people behave when they are married

Score	Frequency	Percentage
1	31	8.0
2	103	26.6
3	179	46.3
4	40	10.3
Don't know	21	5.4
Left blank	13	3.4
Total	387	100

Question 49 – TV influences how people think about a political leader

Score	Frequency	Percentage
1	3	.8
2	17	4.4
3	208	53.7
4	139	35.9
Don't know	7	1.8
Left blank	13	3.4
Total	387	100

Question 50 – People who live in the city react the same to news about the mad cow disease as people who live in the countryside

Score	Frequency	Percentage
1	13	3.4
2	48	12.4
3	149	38.5
4	150	38.8
Don't know	12	3.1
Left blank	15	3.9
Total	387	100

Question 51 – The news can determine how people think about Iraqis

Score	Frequency	Percentage
1	12	3.1
2	31	8.0
3	171	44.2
4	152	39.3
Don't know	7	1.8
Left blank	14	3.6
Total	387	100

Question 52 – Television can influence people's opinions of issues such as politics, HIV medication, drug abuse, and the Middle East

Score	Frequency	Percentage
1	4	1.0
2	13	3.4
3	158	40.8
4	188	48.6
Don't know	9	2.3
Left blank	15	3.9
Total	387	100

Question 53 – People with a lower education will understand the news just as well as people with a higher education

Score	Frequency	Percentage
1	30	7.8
2	64	16.5
3	158	40.8
4	116	30.0
Don't know	4	1.0
Left blank	15	3.9
Total	387	100

Question 54 – There are different reasons why people watch television. Sometimes you have to watch a program for school. Sometimes you watch a program because you want to. When you watch a news program because you have to for school, you'll have a different opinion of the program than when you watch it because you want to

Score	Frequency	Percentage
1	23	5.9
2	31	8.0
3	146	37.7
4	165	42.6
Don't know	7	1.8
Left blank	15	3.9
Total	**387**	**100**

Question 55 – Differences in television content is one of the reasons why people in different countries think differently about issues such as gay marriages

Score	Frequency	Percentage
1	19	4.9
2	61	15.8
3	178	46.0
4	86	22.2
Don't know	26	6.7
Left blank	17	4.4
Total	**387**	**100**

Media production

Question 5a – Which of the following activities always happen when reporters put together a
news story – Talk to all the people involved in the event

Score	Frequency	Percentage
1	89	23.0
2	128	33.1
3	98	25.3
4	63	16.3
Don't know	5	1.3
Left blank	4	1.0
Total	387	100

Question 5b – Which of the following activities always happen when reporters put together a
news story –Make a decision on whether or not to run the story

Score	Frequency	Percentage
1	21	5.4
2	70	18.1
3	126	32.6
4	136	35.1
Don't know	30	7.8
Left blank	4	1.0
Total	387	100

Question 5c – Which of the following activities always happen when reporters put together a news story – Hear from the editors how long their story is allowed to be

Score	Frequency	Percentage
1	30	7.8
2	45	11.6
3	121	31.3
4	159	41.1
Don't know	29	7.5
Left blank	3	.8
Total	387	100

Question 6 - A reporter's religious beliefs could influence what the news stories look like that s/he makes

Score	Frequency	Percentage
1	51	13.2
2	83	21.4
3	149	38.5
4	84	21.7
Don't know	13	3.4
Left blank	7	1.8
Total	387	100

Question 7 – Reporters often turn events into stories

Score	Frequency	Percentage
1	32	8.3
2	85	22.0
3	160	41.3
4	92	23.8
Don't know	15	3.9
Left blank	3	.8
Total	387	100

Question 8 - Whether a news reporter is young or old, the news stories s/he makes will be the same

Score	Frequency	Percentage
1	56	14.5
2	95	24.5
3	135	34.9
4	91	23.5
Don't know	7	1.8
Left blank	3	.8
Total	387	100

Question 9 – Newsround is a news program for young children.
When news reporters make a news story for Newsround, the stories will be presented
differently than when they are made for the regular news.

Score	Frequency	Percentage
1	5	1.3
2	15	3.9
3	82	21.2
4	258	66.7
Don't know	25	6.5
Left blank	2	.5
Total	387	100

Question 10 – Sometimes, documentaries use actors

Score	Frequency	Percentage
1	35	9.0
2	72	18.6
3	131	33.9
4	138	35.7
Don't know	10	2.6
Left blank	1	.3
Total	387	100

Question 14 - In talk shows, some events are staged

Score	Frequency	Percentage
1	7	1.8
2	36	9.3
3	163	42.1
4	142	36.7
Don't know	33	8.5
Left blank	6	1.6
Total	387	100

Question 16 – News stations can be different in how they present a story because of differences in their political preference

Score	Frequency	Percentage
1	11	2.8
2	46	11.9
3	151	39.0
4	156	40.3
Don't know	19	4.9
Left blank	4	1.0
Total	387	100

Question 19 – When newsreaders read the news, no other TV employees are in the studio

Score	Frequency	Percentage
1	14	3.6
2	28	7.2
3	62	16.0
4	231	59.7
Don't know	48	12.4
Left blank	4	1.0
Total	387	100

Question 21 - The news is filmed before a live studio audience

Score	Frequency	Percentage
1	38	9.8
2	81	20.9
3	98	25.3
4	133	34.4
Don't know	34	8.8
Left blank	3	.8
Total	387	100

Question 22 – A reporter's political beliefs can influence how s/he presents a news story

Score	Frequency	Percentage
1	36	9.3
2	82	21.2
3	164	42.4
4	85	22.0
Don't know	16	4.1
Left blank	4	1.0
Total	387	100

Question 34 – Television news presents a complete picture of what is going on in the world

Score	Frequency	Percentage
1	43	11.1
2	113	29.2
3	103	26.6
4	122	31.5
Don't know	2	.5
Left blank	4	1.0
Total	387	100

Question 35 - The stories you see on the news are about the only important events that took place that day

Score	Frequency	Percentage
1	42	10.9
2	100	25.8
3	101	26.1
4	137	35.4
Don't know	3	.8
Left blank	4	1.0
Total	387	100

Question 37 - Some television stations do not have to make a profit

Score	Frequency	Percentage
1	107	27.6
2	115	29.7
3	58	15.0
4	35	9.0
Don't know	68	17.6
Left blank	4	1.0
Total	387	100

Question 42 - Filming Techniques*

Score	Frequency	Percentage
1.00	9	2.3
1.25	20	5.2
1.33	4	1.0
1.50	53	13.7
1.67	8	2.1
1.75	110	28.4
2.00	115	29.7
Left blank	68	17.6
Total	387	100

* Please note that this question was coded from 0 to 2 (see coding scheme in Appendix 10 for more details). The final score on the total question is the respondent's average score on the four sets that made up this question.

Question 43 – The description of an event on the news is complete

Score	Frequency	Percentage
1	13	3.4
2	122	31.5
3	152	39.3
4	69	17.8
Don't know	20	5.2
Left blank	11	2.8
Total	387	100

Question 44 – News about gay marriages is presented in the same way in different countries

Score	Frequency	Percentage
1	13	3.4
2	19	4.9
3	88	22.7
4	246	63.6
Don't know	12	3.1
Left blank	9	2.3
Total	387	100

Question 45 – Whether a television station has to make money off its programs or not will never influence the kind of news programs it makes

Score	Frequency	Percentage
1	30	7.8
2	65	16.8
3	115	29.7
4	122	31.5
Don't know	42	10.9
Left blank	13	3.4
Total	387	100

Question 46 – When an event is presented on the news it looks the same as when you were there and saw it yourself

Score	Frequency	Percentage
1	14	3.6
2	50	12.9
3	132	34.1
4	172	44.4
Don't know	7	1.8
Left blank	12	3.1
Total	387	100

Question 48 – Every television station will present news on Islam in the same way

Score	Frequency	Percentage
1	11	2.8
2	18	4.7
3	80	20.7
4	253	65.4
Don't know	12	3.1
Left blank	13	3.4
Total	387	100

Question 56 - Making the News*

Score	Frequency	Percentage
1.00	22	5.7
1.20	6	1.6
1.25	1	.3
1.40	17	4.4
1.50	9	2.3
1.60	43	11.1
1.67	4	1.0
1.75	2	.5
1.80	44	11.4
2.00	58	15.0
2.20	34	8.8
2.25	2	.5
2.33	2	.5
2.40	24	6.2
2.50	2	.5
2.60	18	4.7
2.67	1	.3
2.80	3	.8
3.00	1	.3
Left blank	94	24.3
Total	387	100

* Please note that this question was coded from 0 to 3 (see coding scheme in Appendix 10 for details). The final score on the total question is the respondent's average score on the five sets that made up this question.

Summary

The importance of media literacy is directly linked to the large role that the media play in people's day to day existence. People are avid media users, and the media have become intricately entwined in people's daily lives. Although the media play a role in many different facets of people's lives, their presence boils down to two levels: individual and societal. On an individual level, the media's importance to people becomes apparent in different ways. Not only do people spend a great deal of time using the media, they also obtain most of the knowledge not directly accessible to them from the media. Additionally, the media aid in the creation of people's identity, as well as passing on society's norms and values. On the societal level, the media play an essential role as the link between the people and their government representatives. The media inform people of important current developments and the representatives' political views, thus playing a substantial role in shaping most democratic processes. The media thus play a large role in people's personal lives, as well as in maintaining democracy. In order not to be caught unaware, people therefore need to know about this large role; i.e., they need to be media literate. The need for media literacy is further increased by the fact that the media do not always supply perfectly unbiased, complete, and correct information.

Since the mid-1960s, large numbers of scholars have concerned themselves with media literacy; they have written about what people need to know in order to be considered media literate and they have spent time and effort developing programs which could help media users become more critical. Although the amount of research conducted in the field of media literacy is impressive, little is actually known about how media literate people are. Hence the aim of this study is to develop a standardized instrument to measure the level of media literacy of media users.

Constructing a media literacy measurement instrument could be advantageous because of several reasons. First, the results obtained with this measurement instrument could provide information about the extent and type of media-related knowledge and understanding people have, which determines whether or not they are able to adopt a critical attitude towards the media. Secondly, the information received from this measurement instrument could render future media education projects more effective, since these projects can be adapted more adequately to students' abilities.

In order to successfully develop a measurement instrument, it is necessary to make several decisions regarding the focus of this study. As described above, there are two good reasons why the general population needs to be critical of the media; namely the size of the role the media play on an individual and on a societal level. Either reason would require a very different focus of the measurement instrument. In this study, the decision was made to approach media literacy from the perspective that the media play a vital role in maintaining democracy, which means that the instrument focused on non-fiction programs, what they teach people about current events, political developments, and so on, and to what extent people realize that the media shape their perception of the

world. In addition, the decision was made to focus solely on television. Finally, this study focused on the target audience for most media education programs: youngsters attending middle and high school, i.e., between the ages of 11 and 18.

As the first step towards the development of a measurement instrument an attempt was made to create a definition of media literacy that was based on existing conceptualizations (chapter 2). To this end, a schematic representation of media production and use was utilized to categorize the different definitions (see Figure I). The three central elements in this figure are the producer, media, and the user, with the producer and the user interacting with the media through four different processes which are captured by four different arrows. The various definitions of media literacy found in literature were then related to the four arrows, and as a result each arrow was further defined into several aspects. Besides revealing that not all dimensions of media use and production receive an equal amount of attention in the field of media literacy, and that the field of media literacy has not changed a great deal in the last twenty years, this overview also produced the following definition of media literacy: Media literacy is the awareness of the different aspects of the production of media content, the influence of the media on its users and its producers, and the way in which users deal with the media. Any critical attitude and/or behaviors towards the media, as well as any abilities regarding the media that are the result of this awareness are, according to this overview, also deemed a part of media literacy.
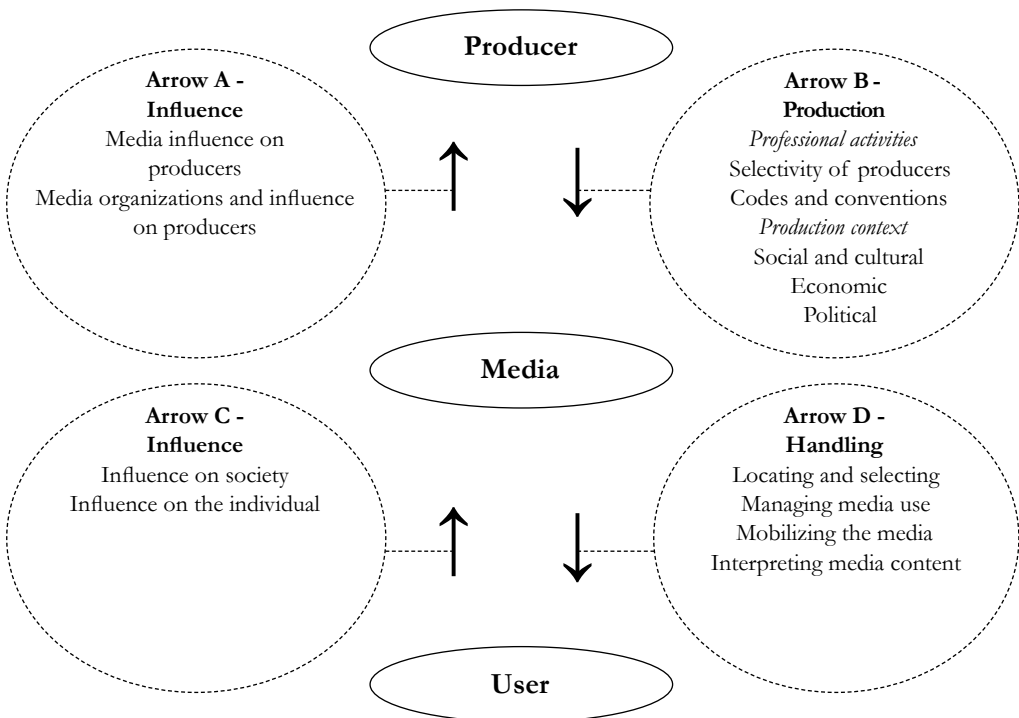

Figure I. A schematic representation for understanding media literacy.

As the second step towards the creation of an instrument, the concept of media literacy was tailored towards the focus of the study, namely media and democracy. To this end, in chapter 3, each aspect created in the literature overview was redefined in terms of what people need to know about it to do well as citizens in a mediated democracy. This resulted in a more concrete definition of all the aspects, which was a necessity for the development of the questions. Only those aspects which were relevant in terms of increasing people's understanding of the relationship between media and democracy were included.

The next step in the development of the measurement instrument comprised of the development of the questions that measured the different aspects, and the testing of these questions in several pretests and two pilot studies. This step was described in chapter 4.

The questionnaire developed for this study was made up of three kinds of questions. First, it contained a series of statements about television which were derived from the different aspects of media literacy. The respondents were asked to read each statement, and indicate to what extent they thought the statement was true on the four-point scale that accompanied each statement. Second, the questionnaire contained various so-called action questions, which asked respondents to do something other than check a four-point scale. An example of such a question is where students were asked to describe the difference in camera techniques used in two pictures. Finally, the respondents were asked to fill out several personal questions.

The two rounds of pretesting included the use of written questionnaires, open interviews and focus groups. The pretests were carried out among 132 12-13 year olds. The respondents were all native English speakers. The analyses used to assess the results were a combination of quantitative and qualitative techniques, and were aimed at weeding out those questions that did not appear to measure media literacy, or which were unclear and thus hard to understand. The results of the pretests led to changes in the questionnaire. In addition, the pretests revealed that the questionnaire was far too long. Therefore the decision was made to, in the remainder of the project, focus on developing a questionnaire that was solely geared towards the production of media content and the influence of the media on its users.

The pilot studies were carried out among 153 11-14 year olds and 68 16-18 year olds, effectively covering both ends of the questionnaire's target audience. The respondents were all native or near-native speakers of English. Minor changes were made to a few of the questions between the two pilot studies. The purpose of the analysis of the data from both pilots was to assess which questions contributed little or nothing to the measurement of media literacy, and which could therefore be excluded from the questionnaire.

The final step in the creation of a measurement instrument for media literacy was testing the questionnaire in a large-scale survey, which was described in chapter 5. The sample used for the survey was a nonrandom convenience sample of 387 students,

between the ages of 11 and 18, based on the availability of the respondents. All the participants were native or near-native speakers of English, and were enrolled in one of three English-language schools in France and the Netherlands. Because the vast majority of respondents were expatriates living in a country other than their own, these respondents were not only raised in a multi-cultural environment, they were also exposed to media from different countries. At the very minimum, respondents would use the media from their host country and their native country, but at times this was expanded by media from other countries where the respondents had lived, or international media, such as CNN or the BBC. This means that the respondents in this study were in the unique position that they could compare different media formats and content. The questionnaire consisted of seventy-eight questions.

After conducting the survey, the questionnaire was first evaluated using a reliability analysis which specifically focused on the internal consistency of the questionnaire. The reliability analysis was carried out twice; once for the set of questions that measured the respondents' knowledge of media production, and once for the questions that assessed the respondents' understanding of media influence. After weeding out those questions that did not correlate well with the other questions under scrutiny both sets of questions made up reliable scales (Cronbach's α was .74 and .81 respectively).

The questionnaire was also assessed in terms of its validity. The construct validity of the questionnaire was addressed by testing whether several hypotheses regarding the relationship between media literacy and related variables held for the data collected in this study. Again, when testing the hypotheses, the two scales that measured people's understanding of media production and the influence of the media on its users were tested separately. Except for the expected relationship between parents' education and the respondents' understanding of media production, all expected relations between media literacy and various independent variables held true for the findings from this study.

Besides addressing the construct validity, this study also assessed the content validity of the questionnaire. The first step towards ensuring the content validity of the scale was taken in the opening stages of this project, when every effort was made to ensure that the measurement instrument would reflect all the aspects that are considered part of media literacy by scholars in the field. The second step to ensuring content validity entailed the review of the questionnaire by experts in the field of media literacy. These experts (middle and high school teachers as well as college lecturers with experience in media education) were asked to assess the nature of questions, as well as the relevance and representation of the aspects addressed by the questionnaire. A total of 16 experts evaluated the questionnaire. The majority was of the opinion that the questionnaire was successful in addressing how critical youngsters are of television, and that the topics addressed by the questionnaire were relevant and sufficiently addressed. The majority of the experts also indicated that the questionnaire was appropriate for the intended age group.

After confirming the reliability and validity of the scales, the results from the survey were used to draw conclusions about how respondents performed on the two scales

that focus on media production and the influence of the media on its users; and which factors affect one's performance on both scales (chapter 6). Analysis revealed that on average, the respondents scored better on the scale that measured their understanding of media influence than they did on the scale regarding their knowledge of media production. Analyses also revealed that the scores on the two scales were related; i.e., if a respondent did well on one scale, s/he was more likely to do well on the other.

Additional analysis revealed that there was some variation in the respondents' understanding of the different aspects of media production and media influence on its users. Regarding media production, respondents appeared to be well-informed regarding the fact that there are factors outside of the news that will influence what the news looks like. Moreover, the results regarding the respondents' understanding of the production procedures were mixed; it seemed that the respondents knew a little about the very practical side of television production, but could benefit from more information about the procedures that shape the actual content of the news. The analysis also showed that respondents unaware of the existence of public not-for-profit television stations. Regarding understanding the influence the media can have on its users, analysis showed that respondents were very aware of the influence that television can have on a person's emotions.

Next, a multiple linear regression analysis was used to establish which factors influenced the respondents' scores on the two scales. Various factors positively impacted one's knowledge of media production: using the Internet, watching documentaries, a respondent's grade in social studies, and the grade s/he was in. Conversely, respondents who watched the news more often scored lower on the scale that measured the understanding of media production than respondents who did not watch the news very often. One's knowledge about the influence the media could have on its users, was positively affected by a respondent's parents' level of education and the respondent's grade in social studies.

Several conclusions can be drawn from this study, as outlined in chapter 7. First, although the field of media literacy is often perceived as diversified, the literature overview showed that all definitions of media literacy entail an awareness of one or more aspects of the use and production of media messages.

Second, in spite of the above-outlined agreement, the amount of attention the field of media literacy pays to the four different relationships depicted in the schematic representation (see Figure I) varies widely. Understanding the production of media messages (arrow B) is considered essential for media literacy by the vast majority of media literacy scholars. Additionally, the influence that the media can have on its users (arrow C) is also deemed a part of media literacy by a large number of media literacy researchers, although it does not receive the overwhelming attention given to the understanding of media production. Although understanding how people handle the media (arrow D) is deemed a part of media literacy, this understanding receives less attention from media literacy scholars than media production and the influence of the media on its users. Conversely, the fourth relationship depicted in Figure I,

understanding the influence that the media can have on media producers (arrow A), is ignored completely.

Third, media literacy can be considered a stable concept. The literature overview showed that, apart from the influence of the media on media producers, every aspect included in the schematic representation of media use and production was already considered a part of media literacy some twenty years ago. So although the field of media literacy is often perceived as ever-changing and fast-paced, it actually appears that the essence of how people define media literacy has changed very little over the years.

Fourth, one of the main conclusions of this study is media literacy is a multi-facetted, very complex concept. This implies that because media literacy is such a rich concept, it is not possible to measure media literacy in its entirety. Instead, media literacy requires, when measured correctly, multiple instruments. This is why in this study, the decision was made to look at media literacy from the perspective that the media play a central role in maintaining democracy; and focusing on television.

Finally, besides having revealed its reliability and validity, the instrument developed in this study could also prove useful for the field of media education. The instrument could be used as a checklist for programs which focus on increasing critical citizenship or teaching about the link between media and democracy, or as an instrument to assess the efficacy of a media education program through a pre-test/post-test design.

Regarding future research, one could further test and perfect the instrument developed in this study. The first thing that could be looked into is to further increase the validity and reliability of the scales. Future investigations could also look into elaborating on the different aspects of media literacy from different angles, or apply them to different genres or different media. Furthermore, another future research initiative could be to look into rendering the instrument applicable to both younger and older target groups.

This study successfully completed the first attempt to develop an instrument to measure media literacy from the perspective of the mediated democracy, and provides ample stepping stones for future research.

Samenvatting

Het belang van mediawijsheid is direct gerelateerd aan de grote rol die de media spelen in het dagelijks leven. Mensen maken veel gebruik van de media, en de media zijn een onontkoombaar onderdeel geworden van het dagelijks bestaan. De alomtegenwoordigheid van de media speelt een rol in veel facetten van het leven, maar kan worden samengevat als de invloed op twee verschillende niveaus: maatschappelijk en individueel. Op het individuele niveau zijn er verscheidene manieren waarop het belang van de media voor mensen zichtbaar wordt. Mensen besteden niet alleen veel tijd aan de media, ook komt een groot deel van hun kennis over zaken waar ze niet direct mee in aanraking komen van de media. Daarnaast spelen de media ook een belangrijk rol bij het creëren van iemands eigen identiteit, en geven ze dominante maatschappelijke normen en waarden door aan de individuen in een samenleving. Ook op maatschappelijke niveau spelen de media een rol; bijvoorbeeld als de schakel tussen burgers en de overheid. De media informeren mensen zowel over belangrijke gebeurtenissen, als over de visies en opinies van politici. Zodoende zou men kunnen concluderen dat de media meehelpen vorm te geven aan het merendeel van de democratische processen. Kortom, de media spelen een belangrijke rol in zowel het persoonlijke leven, als in het onderhouden van de democratie. Om goed te kunnen functioneren, moeten mensen op de hoogte zijn van deze rol, met andere woorden, ze moeten mediawijs zijn. Het belang van een mediawijs publiek wordt vergroot door het gegeven dat de media niet altijd objectieve en volledige informatie doorgeven.

Sinds de jaren zestig houdt een groot aantal wetenschappers zich bezig met het onderwerp mediawijsheid. Onderzoek in dit veld richt zich op wat mensen zouden moeten weten om mediawijs te zijn en het ontwikkelen van media educatie programma's die als doel hebben mensen meer mediawijs te maken. Ondanks het feit dat de hoeveelheid onderzoek naar mediawijsheid indrukwekkend is, is er weinig bekend over hoe mediawijs het publiek nu feitelijk is. Daarom is het doel van deze studie het ontwikkelen van een meetinstrument om vast te stellen hoe mediawijs de gebruikers van de media zijn.

Het construeren van een meetinstrument zou het onderzoek op het gebied van mediawijsheid op verschillende manieren vooruit kunnen helpen. Allereerst zouden de resultaten die verkregen zijn met dit meetinstrument inzicht kunnen bieden in de mate waarin mensen kennis hebben over de media, en dus in hoeverre ze in staat zijn een kritische houding aan te nemen ten opzichte van de media. Ten tweede zou de informatie die verkregen wordt met het meetinstrument gebruikt kunnen worden om bestaande en toekomstige media educatie projecten effectiever te maken. Zulke projecten zouden aangepast kunnen worden aan het uitgangskennisniveau van studenten.

Het ontwikkelen van een geslaagd meetinstrument verreist dat er een aantal besluiten genomen wordt omtrent de focus van het instrument. Zoals al eerder is uitgelegd zijn er twee redenen waarom het belangrijk is dat mediagebruikers mediawijs zijn; de invloed van de media op individueel en maatschappelijk niveau. Beide redenen vereisen

een andere insteek bij de ontwikkeling van het meetinstrument. In deze studie is het besluit genomen om mediawijsheid te benaderen vanuit het perspectief dat de media een belangrijke rol spelen in het onderhouden van de democratie. Concreet betekende dit dat het meetinstrument alleen gericht was op non-fictie programma's en wat zulke programma's mensen leren over politieke ontwikkelingen en belangrijke gebeurtenissen en de mate waarin mensen zich bewust zijn van het feit dat de media hun beeld van de werkelijkheid vorm geven. Daarnaast is er ook besloten dat het meetinstrument zich alleen op het medium televisie zou richten en dat het instrument gemaakt zou worden voor kinderen op de middelbare school. Dit laatste besluit is genomen omdat deze groep het vaakst de doelgroep is van media educatie programma's.

De eerste stap naar het ontwerpen van een meetinstrument was het ontwikkelen van een definitie van mediawijsheid die gebaseerd was op het merendeel van de bestaande definities (zie hoofdstuk 2). Om dit doel te bereiken is er een schematische representatie van media productie en gebruik ontwikkeld, die gebruikt werd om bestaande definities te categoriseren (zie Figuur I). De drie centrale elementen in deze representatie zijn de producent, de media, en de gebruiker. De gebruiker en de producent interacteren met de media in vier verschillende processen, die weergegeven zijn door de vier verschillende pijlen. De definities van mediawijsheid, of onderdelen daarvan, zijn ingedeeld bij de pijl waar ze uitspraken over deden, waardoor elke pijl weer opgedeeld is in verschillende aspecten. Uit deze categorisatie kond een aantal conclusies worden getrokken. Zo bleek dat niet alle dimensies van media productie en gebruik evenveel aandacht kregen, en dat het veld de afgelopen twintig weinig veranderd is, dat er de afgelopen twintig jaar bijna geen nieuwe definities of inzichten bijgekomen zijn. Als belangrijkste leidde dit overzicht echter tot de constructie van de volgende definitie van mediawijsheid: Mediawijsheid is het zich bewust zijn van de verschillende aspecten van media productie, de invloed van de media op de gebruikers, en de manier waarop de gebruikers omgaan met de media. Alle kritische houdingen en/of gedragingen die voortvloeien uit dit bewustzijn, alsmede alle media-gerelateerde vaardigheden die het resultaat zijn van dit bewustzijn, zijn ook onderdeel van mediawijsheid.
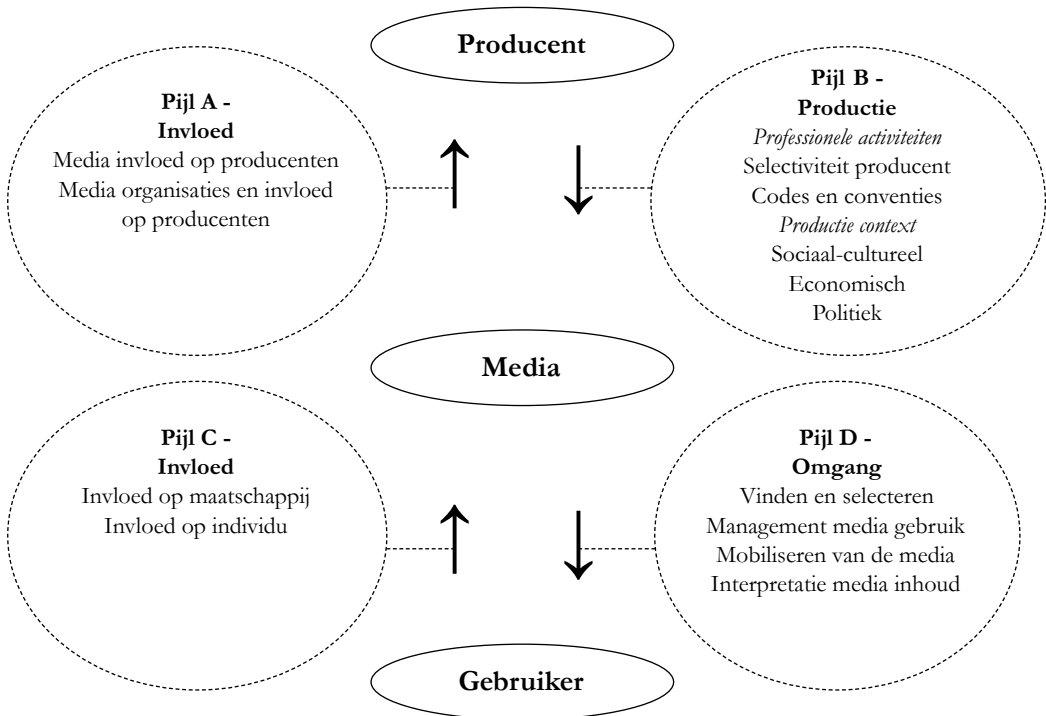
Figuur I. Een schematische representatie voor het begrijpen van mediawijsheid.

De tweede stap in het ontwerpen van een meetinstrument voor mediawijsheid was het toespitsen van het concept mediawijsheid op de focus van deze studie: media en democratie. In hoofdstuk 3 is daarom elk aspect van mediawijsheid uit het literatuuroverzicht gedefinieerd in termen van wat mensen erover moeten weten om als burgers goed te kunnen functioneren in een gemedieerde democratie. Dit leidde tot een meer concrete definitie van alle aspecten, hetgeen noodzakelijk was voor het ontwikkelen van een vragenlijst. Alleen die aspecten die relevant waren voor het begrijpen van de relatie tussen de media en democratie werden meegenomen in deze toespitsing.

De volgende stap in het ontwikkelen van de vragenlijst was het formuleren van vragen die de verschillende aspecten meten, en het testen van deze vragen in verschillende pretests en twee pilot studies. Deze stap is uitvoerig beschreven in hoofdstuk 4.

De vragenlijst die is ontwikkeld voor deze studie bestaat uit drie soorten vragen. Allereerst omvatte het een serie stellingen over televisie die afgeleid zijn van de verschillende aspecten van mediawijsheid. De respondenten werd gevraagd om elke stelling te lezen, en op een vier-puntsschaal aan te geven in welke mate ze dachten dat deze stelling juist was. De tweede soort vragen waren de zogenaamde doe-vragen, waar de respondenten gevraagd werd iets anders te doen dan een schaal in te vullen. Een voorbeeld van zo'n doe-vraag is de vraag om nieuws items in de volgorde te zetten

waarin deze volgens de respondent in het nieuws zouden verschijnen. Als laatste werd de respondenten gevraagd een serie vragen over hun persoonlijke kenmerken in te vullen.

De twee pretests omvatte gesloten vragenlijsten, open interviews, en focus groepen. De pretests werden uitgevoerd onder 132 12-13 jarigen die allemaal Engels als moedertaal hadden. De analyses waren zowel kwantitatief als kwalitatief van aard, en hadden als doel om die vragen aan te wijzen die iets anders maten dan mediawijsheid, of die onduidelijk waren en dus moeilijk te begrijpen. De resultaten van de pretests leidden tot een aantal belangrijke wijzigingen in de vragenlijst. Daarnaast maakten de pretests ook duidelijk dat de vragenlijst veel te lang was. Daarom werd er besloten om in de rest van het project een vragenlijst te ontwikkelen die alleen gericht was op de productie van de media and de invloed van de media op de gebruiker.

De pilot studies werden vervolgens uitgevoerd onder 153 11-14 jarigen, en 68 16-18 jarigen, waardoor zowel de jongste en oudste kinderen in de doelgroep van de vragenlijst vertegenwoordigd waren. Ook hier had het merendeel van de respondenten Engels als moedertaal. Het kleine aantal respondenten voor wie dat niet het geval was, bestond uit zogenaamde near-native speakers. Het doel van de analyse van de data van beide pilot studies was het ontdekken welke vragen weinig of niks bijdroegen aan de meting van mediawijsheid en welke dus uit de vragenlijst gehaald konden worden.

De laatste stap in het ontwikkelen van een meetinstrument was het testen van de vragenlijst in een grootschalig survey. Deze stap is beschreven in hoofdstuk 5. De steekproef die gebruikt werd in dit survey was een "nonrandom convenience sample" waarbij de respondenten die ondervraagd werden op scholen zaten die mee wilden werken aan het onderzoek. De steekproef omvatte 387 respondenten tussen de 11 en 18 jaar oud. Alle deelnemers hadden of Engels als moedertaal, of waren near-native speakers, en zaten op een Engels-sprekende school in Nederland of Frankrijk. Het overgrote merendeel van de respondenten woonde in een land waar ze niet oorspronkelijk vandaan kwamen, waardoor ze niet alleen opgroeiden in een multi-culturele omgeving, maar ook in contact kwamen met media uit verschillende landen. De respondenten maakten op zijn minst gebruik van media uit hun eigen land en media uit het land waarin ze woonden, maar in sommige gevallen werd dit uitgebreid met media uit andere landen waar de respondenten hadden gewoond, of internationale media zoals de BBC of CNN. Dit betekent dat de respondenten in deze studie in de unieke positie verkeerde dat ze verschillende media formats en inhouden met elkaar konden vergelijken. De vragenlijst die respondenten voorgelegd kregen bestond uit 78 vragen.

Nadat de vragenlijst was afgenomen, werden de antwoorden allereerst geanalyseerd middels een betrouwbaarheidsanalyse. Deze analyse werd apart uitgevoerd voor de vragen die kennis over media productie maten, en vragen die gingen over de invloed van de media op de gebruiker. Nadat de vragen verwijderd waren die niet goed correleerden met de andere vragen, hadden beide sets van vragen een goed betrouwbaarheidsniveau (Cronbach's α was respectievelijk .74 en .81).

Er is ook gekeken naar de validiteit van de vragenlijst. De begripsvaliditeit (construct validity) van de vragenlijst werd gemeten door het toetsen van verschillende hypothesen

over de relatie tussen enkele persoonlijke kenmerken en kennis over media productie en/of de invloed van de media op de gebruikers. Ook hier werden de twee schalen die kennis over media productie en de invloed van de media op de gebruiker apart onderzocht. Behalve de hypothese over de relatie tussen het opleidingsniveau van de ouders en kennis over media productie werden alle verwachte relaties gevonden.

Naast begripsvaliditeit is er in deze studie ook gekeken naar inhoudsvaliditeit (content validity). De eerste stap om inhoudsvaliditeit te garanderen is al genomen in het begin van dit project toen gepoogd is alle bestaande aspecten van mediawijsheid mee te nemen in het ontwerpen van de vragenlijst. De tweede stap omvatte een evaluatie van de vragenlijst door experts op het gebied van mediawijsheid en media educatie. Deze experts (docenten in het middelbaar en hoger onderwijs met ervaring in media educatie) werd gevraagd om zowel de inhoud van de vragen alsook de relevantie van en de mate waarin de aspecten aan bod kwamen in de vragenlijst te evalueren. In totaal hebben 16 experts de vragenlijst geëvalueerd. De meerderheid was het er over eens dat de vragenlijst kon vaststellen hoe kritisch jongeren omgaan met televisie, en dat de onderwerpen die in de vragenlijst ter sprake komen niet alleen relevant waren, maar ook voldoende aan bod kwamen. De meerderheid van de experts gaf ook aan de vragenlijst goed paste bij de doelgroep.

Nadat de betrouwbaarheid en validiteit van de vragenlijst bekeken waren, werden de resultaten van de survey gebruikt om conclusies te trekken over hoe de respondenten gescoord hadden op de twee verschillende schalen, en welke factoren van invloed waren geweest op hun score (zie hoofdstuk 6). Een analyse liet zien dat, gemiddeld genomen, de respondenten beter scoorden op de schaal die kennis over de invloed van de media op gebruikers mat, dan op de schaal die ging over mediaproductie. De analyse liet ook zien dat de scores op beide schalen gerelateerd waren, dus dat wanneer een respondent het beter deed op één schaal, hij of zij het ook deed op de andere schaal.

Aanvullende analyses lieten ook zien dat er enige variatie was in hoe respondenten scoorden op de verschillende aspecten van mediaproductie en de invloed van de media op de gebruikers. Met betrekking tot mediaproductie bleek dat de respondenten redelijk veel wisten over het feit dat er factoren zijn die niks met het nieuws te maken hebben, maar die toch van invloed zijn op hoe het nieuws eruit ziet. Daarnaast bleek ook dat de kennis over productie procedures gemengd was; de respondenten waren redelijk bekend met de hele praktische kant van nieuwsproductie, maar hadden nog veel te leren over de procedures die vorm gaven aan het nieuws. De analyse liet ook zien dat het overgrote merendeel van de respondenten niet op de hoogte was van het bestaan van publieke zenders. Met betrekking tot de invloed die de media kunnen hebben op de gebruikers werd duidelijk dat respondenten veel wisten over de invloed die televisie kan hebben op de gevoelens van de kijkers.

Daarnaast is er ook een multiple lineaire regressie uitgevoerd om te kijken welke factoren van invloed waren op de scores op de twee schalen. Verschillende factoren hadden een positieve invloed op kennis over media productie: gebruik maken van het Internet, documentaires kijken, het cijfer van de respondent in "social studies", en de klas waar de respondent in zat. Daarentegen bleek dat respondenten die vaak naar het

nieuws keken lager scoorden op de schaal over media productie dan respondenten die minder vaak naar het nieuws keken. Kennis over de invloed die de media kan hebben op gebruikers werd positief beïnvloedt door het opleidingsniveau van de ouders van de respondent, en het cijfer van de respondent in "social studies".

Deze studie leidt tot een aantal conclusies, zoals beschreven in hoofdstuk 7. Als eerste kan men stellen dat, ondanks het feit dat het veld van mediawijsheid vaak beschreven wordt als divers, alle definities van mediawijsheid een of meerdere aspecten van de productie en het gebruik van media benoemen.

De tweede conclusie luidt dat, ondanks het bovenstaande, de aandacht die geschonken wordt aan de vier verschillende relaties uit Figuur I nogal verschilt. Kennis over de productie van media (pijl B) wordt als een essentieel onderdeel van mediawijsheid gezien door de meerderheid van onderzoekers. Ook kennis over de invloed van de media op de gebruikers (pijl C) wordt vaak genoemd, alhoewel het niet de overweldigende aandacht krijgt die media productie krijgt. Daarnaast zijn meerdere onderzoekers het er over eens dat ook kennis over hoe om te gaan met de media (pijl D) onderdeel is van mediawijsheid, maar deze relatie wordt toch minder vaak genoemd. Daarentegen wordt de vierde relatie in Figuur I, namelijk kennis over de invloed van de media op de producent (pijl A) zo goed als helemaal genegeerd.

Ten derde kan mediawijsheid gezien worden als een redelijk stabiel concept. Het literatuur overzicht laat zien dat, met uitzondering van de invloed van de media op de producenten, elk aspect dat wordt genoemd, twintig jaar geleden ook al als onderdeel van mediawijsheid werd gezien. Dus ondanks het feit dat het onderzoeksgebied rondom mediawijsheid vaak gezien wordt als een veld dat continue in verandering is, blijkt dat de essentie van hoe men mediawijsheid beziet weinig is veranderd in de laatste jaren.

De vierde conclusie is tevens een van de belangrijkste conclusies van deze studie, namelijk dat mediawijsheid een heel rijk en veelvormig begrip is. Dit houdt in dat het onmogelijk is om mediawijsheid in één keer in zijn geheel te meten; dit zal altijd middels meerdere instrumenten gaan die zich richten op verschillende onderdelen van en perspectieven op mediawijsheid. Dit is tevens de reden waarom in deze studie het besluit is genomen om mediawijsheid te meten vanuit het perspectief dat de media een belangrijke rol spelen in het in stand houden van de democratie.

De laatste conclusie richt zich op het meetinstrument zelf. Dit instrument zou, nu zijn betrouwbaarheid en validiteit zijn onderzocht, ingezet kunnen worden in media educatie programma's. Het instrument zou onder andere gebruikt kunnen worden als checklist voor educatie programma's die zich richten op het ontwikkelen van kritisch burgerschap, of het lesgeven over de relatie tussen media en democratie. Ook zou het instrument gebruikt kunnen worden om de effectiviteit van media educatie programma's te meten middels een pre-test/post-test design.

Toekomstig onderzoek zou zich kunnen richten op het verder testen van de vragenlijst zoals die is ontwikkeld in deze studie. Men zou bijvoorbeeld stappen kunnen zetten om de betrouwbaarheid en validiteit verder te verhogen. Daarnaast zou men ook kunnen

kijken naar het meten van de kennis over media invloed op producenten en omgang met de media. Verder onderzoek zou zich ook bezig kunnen houden met het meten van mediawijsheid vanuit andere perspectieven, of het onderzoeken mediawijsheid ten aanzien van andere genres of media. Ook zou een poging gedaan kunnen worden om het bestaande meetinstrument geschikt te maken voor oudere en jongere respondenten.

Deze studie heeft een eerste, succesvolle poging gedaan een instrument te ontwikkelen waarmee mediawijsheid, vanuit het perspectief van media en democratie, gemeten kon worden, en biedt daarmee voldoende aanleiding voor toekomstig onderzoek.

Curriculum Vitae

Judith Rosenbaum was born on April 18, 1976 in Gouda, The Netherlands. After attending school in France, the Netherlands, and the USA, she received her Master's degree in Communication Science from the Radboud University Nijmegen in 2000. Having earned a Talent Award Scholarship from the Dutch Ministry of Education, Judith then pursued studies in the field of Radio-Television-Film at the College of Communications at the University of Texas in Austin. In 2001, she joined the Department of Communication at the Radboud University Nijmegen. Here she not only worked as a Junior Researcher, but was also involved in teaching activities, and served as the Editorial Manager for Communications: The European Journal of Communication Research. Her research centered on the field of media literacy, and led to various publications regarding the conceptualization of media literacy and media literacy and fandom. Judith currently works as an Assistant Professor at the Department of English, Modern Languages and Mass Communication at Albany State University and lives in Bonaire, Georgia with her family.