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ABSTRACT

Histories of media research commonly assume that models of mass media effects have progressed from direct or hypodermic effect models to indirect or multi-step models. Recently, however, B. Reeves and E. Wartella have objected to this assumption. To evaluate their alternative hypotheses, 163 studies from over 88 sources, representing nearly a century of publications on children and the mass media, were submitted to meta-analysis. After information was collected on the year of publication; medium studied; samples; type of statistical analysis; and independent, dependent, or intervening variables, the studies were categorized under 10 main subject areas: attitudes, life conditions, viewing condition, media behaviors, media psychological factors, media content, behaviors, psychological variables, and advertising. The data showed support for Reeves's and Wartella's observation that indirect effects models are found throughout the history of research on children and the mass media. Findings do not, however, support their hypothesis that research topics recur cyclically with the introduction of each mass medium into the social system. (A list of the publications included in the sample and the indexing instrument are appended.) (Author/MM)

# A HISTORY OF RESEARCH ON CHILDREN AND THE MASS MEDIA:

# AN EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION

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# ABSTRACT

A common thread throughout the histories of research on mass media impact is the notion that models of mass media effects have progressed from hypodermic effect models to indirect models of mass media effects. Recently, however, Reeves and Wartella have suggested that the history of research on children and the mass media follows a different historical path. The present paper uses empirical methods to study the history of research on mass media and youth. Findings show support for Reeves and Wartella's observation that indirect effects models are found throughout the history of research on children and the mass media. The data do not, however, support their suggestion that research topics in this literature recur cyclically with the introduction of each mass medium into the social system.

A common thread throughout the histories of research on mass media impact is the notion that models of mass media effects have progressed from direct or hypodermic effects models to indirect or multi-step models of mass media effects (see, e.g., Weiss, 1969; DeFleur and Ball-Rokeach, 1975; McLeod and Reeves, 1980; Davis and Baran, 1981; and Lowery and DeFleur, 1983). Weaver and Gray (1980) state that the major emphasis of mass media research can be classified by three time periods. In the first period (early 1800s-1930s), according to their classification scheme, one finds mainly "descriptive histories" of the print media which focus on the lives and influence of major editors and publishers. During the 1930s-1950s, they state, research followed a hypodermic model of undifferentiated mass media effects; and from the 1950s to the present, research models tend to follow Katz and Lazarfeld's (1955) conceptualization of the twostep flow theory, incorporating an indirect or multi-step effects model in mass media research. It is also in this later period that Katz (1959) argued for the need to concentrate less on what media do TO people and more on what people do WITH media, and Klapper and Merton influenced the development of middle range theories in mass communication research.

More recently, however, Reeves and Wartella (1982) have suggested that this conventional history does not describe research on children and the mass media. Two claims made by these authors will be examined in the present study. Reeves and Wartella state that contrary to what would be expected if models progressed from hypodermic to indirect effects models (as described in traditional histories of mass media research), conditional and individual difference studies Reeves and Wartella based their observations on a thorough review of the literature which was partially conducted in a seminar on the history of research on mass media and youth. As participants in this seminar, the authors wish to thank Professors Reeves and Wartella for the opportunity to explore and discuss this literature. Ideas which emerged from the seminar and from discussions with Reeves and Wartella provided the groundwork for this study. Thanks is also extended to Professor Baughman whose historical expertise was often tapped in identifying and



of mass media effects are common throughout the history of research on mass media and youth. In addition, these authors suggest that research questions relating to children and the mass media are cyclical and follow a predictable pattern with the introduction of each new medium into the social system. They state,

Thus, there appears to be a cycle recurring in the literature of research on film, radio and television effects on children and youth: research on children's use of the medium gives way to research on the health effects of the medium and lastly, effects of media content on knowledge, attitudes and behavior are addressed. (p.22)

In this paper, the history of research on children and the mass media will be treated as an empirical investigation. Particular attention will be given toward examining the hypotheses suggested by Reeves and Wartella that (1) conditional and individual difference studies of mass media effects occur throughout the history of research on children and the mass media and (2) research topics in this literature recur cyclically in a predictable pattern.

# The Sample

A total of 163 studies from over 88 sources, including journal articles, books, book chapters, and magazines are included in this study and represent nearly a century of publications examining the mass media and children (1911 to 1980). As Glass, McGaw and Smith (1981) point out, a major problem in any meta-analysis is in devising a sampling frame which is representative of the population under study (in this case, research on children and the mass media). The present study used a multiple search method in order to develop an adaquate sampling frame. A frame for literature dating from 1950 to the present was constructed through the use of a library computer search of literature on children and the mass media. These computer searches accessed Psychological Abstracts, Sociological Abstracts, and ERIC, 2 yielding about 1,000 studies for the sampling population. Fifty-three additional post-1950 studies were identified through searching early (pre-1960)

The authors wish to thank Professors Reeves and Wartella for making the computer listing of post-1950 publications available for sampling purposes in this study.

bibliographies of research on television, and these were added to the computer listing for sampling purposes. One hundred and fifty studies were drawn at random from this combined list to represent post-1950 research on children and the mass media.

A sampling frame for pre-1950 research on mass media and youth was constructed following a somewhat different sampling scheme, more analogous to "snowball" sampling methods. In this case, frame construction began by consulting the appropriate card catalogue headings at the University of Wisconsin's Memorial Library, Journalism Reading Room, and the Wisconsin State Historical Library. ings provided books, pamphlets, and journal articles dealing with the subject. The bibliographic references of these sources were then checked. In addition, journals which were sources for studies in the post-1950 sample and which were published prior to 1950 were searched for any pre-1950 studies on children and the mass media. These procedures yielded approximately 300 studies on children and the mass media published before 1950; radio and motion picture studies are nearly equally represented in number. These 300 studies were then combined with the £50 studies systematically sampled from the post-1950 listing in order to complete the sampling frame for the present study. Table 1 shows a complete listing of journal sources which were included in the study, and a complete list of all publications included is shown in Appendix 1.

# Methods

Data gathered on cach publication (N=163) included information concerning the year of publication, medium studied, samples, use and type of statistical analysis, independent variables, dependent variables, and intervening or "other" variables (see Appendix 2).

### Table 1 A List of Journals Included in the Sample

ADVERTISING AND SELLING AMERICAN BEHAVIORAL SCIENTIST AMERICAN PSYCHOLOGIST AMERICAN SCIENTIST AMERICAN SOCIOLOGICAL REVIEW AMERICAN TEACHER ANNALS OF THE AMERICAN ACADEMY OF POLITICAL AND SOCIAL SCIENCE AUDIO-VISUAL COMMUNICATION REVIEW AUDIO VISUAL INSTRUCTION CENTRAL STATES SPEECH JOURNAL CHILD DEVELOPMENT CHILD STUDY CHILD WELFARE CHILDHOOD EDUCATION COMMUNICATION QUARTERLY CONTEMPORARY EDUCATION COUNSELING AND VALUES CRIMINOLOGY EDUCATION EDUCATION ON THE AIR GAZETTE GENETIC PSYCHOLOGICAL MONOGRAPHS
INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF GROUP
TALKS
TEACHERS COLLEGE RECORD INTERNATIONAL REVIEW, OF EDUCA-TIONAL CINEMATOGRAPHY JOURNAL OF ADVERTISING RESEARCH JOURNAL OF ABNORMAL AND SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY JOURNAL OF APPLIED PSYCHOLOGY JOURNAL OF BROADCASTING JOURNAL OF COMMUNICATION JOURNAL OF CONSUMER RESEARCH JOURNAL OF EDUCATION JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY JOURNAL OF EXPERIMENTAL EDUCATION JOURNAL OF EXPERIMENTAL SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY JOURNAL OF JUVENILE RESEARCH JOURNAL OF PERSONALITY AND SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY JOURNAL OF PSYCHOLOGY JOURNAL OF SOCIAL ISSUES JOURNAL OF SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY

JOURNAL OF VOCATIONAL BEHAVIOR JOURNAL OF YOUTH AND ADOLESCENCE JOURNALISM QUARTERLY MOTION PICTURE MAGAZINE PERCEPTUAL AND MOTOR SKILLS PHAEDRUS
PHI DELTA KAPPAN PRINTERS INK PRINTERS' INK MONTHLY PSYCHOLOGICAL BULLETIN PSYCHOLOGICAL REPORTS PUBLIC OPINION QUARTERLY RADIO RESEARCH RECREATION RELIGIOUS EDUCATION SCHOOL AND SOCIETY SCHOOL RECORD SCIENTIFIC MONTHLY SECONDARY EDUCATION SOCIALIST REVIEW STUDIES IN PUBLIC COMMUNICATION SURVEY TELEVISION QUARTERLY
THE AMERICAN CITY
THE ENGLISH JOURNAL
THE PSYCHOLOGICAL RECORD

As mentioned above, each independent and dependent variable was recorded in the coding process. "Other" variables were also recorded and include any variable the authors discussed in the study as affecting the relationship between independent and dependent variables. Other variables were recorded whether they were introduced as controls in the analysis or were simply mentioned as possible intervening or conditional variables. A variable classification and coding scheme was then devised, clustering a number of categories under ten main subject areas: attitudes, life conditions, viewing conditions, media behaviors, media psychological factors, media content, behaviors, psychological variables, and advertising. The complete classification scheme and examples are listed in Appendix 3.

# Results: Sample Characteristics

# Medium

Eight forms of mass media were mentioned in the studies: television (76); motion pictures (55); experimental films (5); radio (46); books (10); newspapers (10); comic books (5); and magazines (5). Figure 1 shows the distribution of studies published by year. As shown, the distribution is bimodel with peek periods occurring first from about 1925 to 1947 and again from 1969 to 1979.

It is interesting to speculate why these peeks occur, and one is tempted to explain the relative abundant periods in terms of the availability of of funding and governmental policies toward the mass media. For example, the period from 1925 to 1947 is historically associated with Congress establishing the Federal Radio Commission (FRC) in 1927 and later the Federal Communication Commission (FCC) in 1934. In addition, CBS began investing money in mass communication research in the 1930s, leading to the establishment of the Bureau of

Figures here total more than 163, since many studies examined more than one

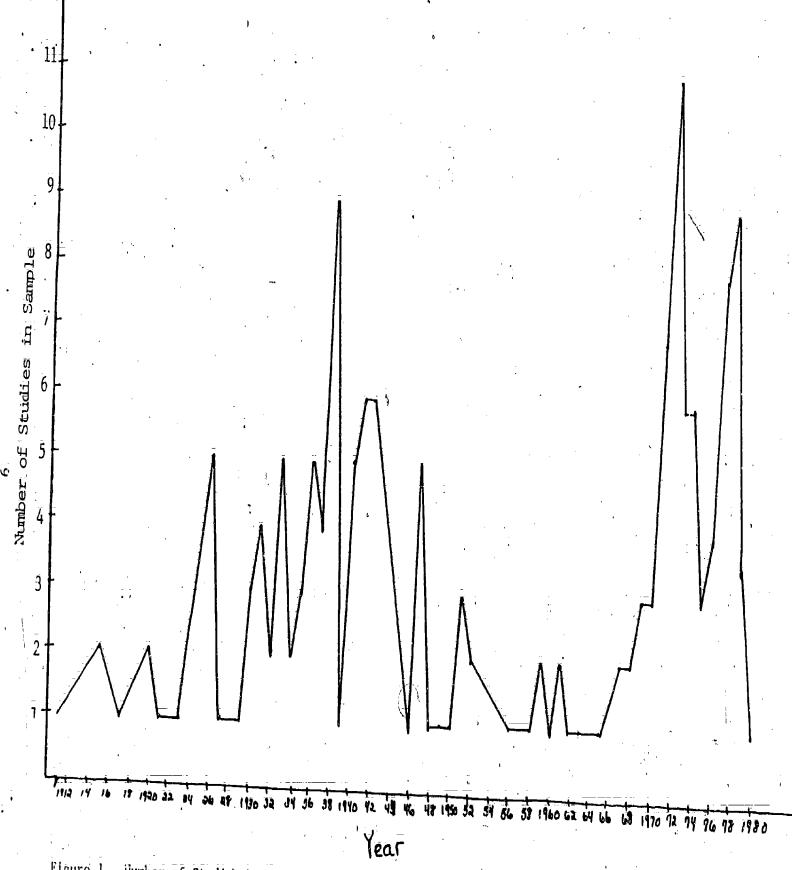


Figure 1. Humber of Studies by Year

7

Applied Social Research at Columbia University in 1937 and the collaboration of Stanton and Lazarsfeld. In 1929, another influential research center was established, Social Sciences for the Rockerfeller Foundation, and 1932 marked the publication of the first Payne Fund Studies of motion pictures and children. From 1969 to 1979, the influences which might be associated with an increase of mass media research appear to be more directly a result of influences stemming from governmental interest in mass media effects: the formation of the Commission on Obscenity and Pornography in the late 1960s; President Johnson's 1968 National Commission on the Causes and Prevention of Violence and his 1967 National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders; the 1968 National Commission on the Causes and Prevention of Violence; and research which resulted from petitions by Action for Children's Television (ACT) to the FCC in 1970 and to the FTC in 1972 to regulate television advertising designed for children. Although such speculation is an interesting and important issue, this study does not directly address these relationships. The reader interested in these issues, therefore, is referred to Reeves and Baughman (1982) for a discussion of the relationship of communication research to mass media regulation and to Weaver and Gray (1980) for a discussion of the relationship between mass media research and funding.

The data do show that once a medium is introduced into society, research on that medium appears to continue well past a period of "initial interest," (see Table 2). For example, although research on children and radio peaked from 1938 to 1942, studies on children and radio are still being conducted in the 1970s. A closer look at these later publications shows, contrary to what one might expect, that radio was the focus of study in all but two cases where radio was looked at as part of the child's overall media use patterns.

Table 2
Frequency of Studies in Sample on Children and Motion Pictures, Radio, and TV by Year

#### Research Methods

Seventy percent of the studies in the sample employed some type of statistical analysis, ranging from simple percentages to more complex methods associated with panel designs. Eight studies reported conducting content analysis of the media; 15 lab experiments, 31 school experiments, 2 field experiments, 32 general surveys, 30 school surveys, and 3 observational studies were reported. Fifty-eight studies employed no statistical analysis but gave expert opinion about mass media and children, and 11 publications reviewed the work of others.

It is interesting to note that this pattern changes, however, when each medium is looked at individually (see Table 3). For motion pictures, the most frequently mentioned methods were expert opinion (36%), school experiments (16%), general survey (14%), and school survey (14%). For radio studies in the sample, the most frequently mentioned were expert opinion (32%), general survey (22%), school survey (21%), and school experiments (13%). For television, the four most frequently mentioned methods were school survey (21%), school experiments (19%), general surveys (16%), and expert opinion (16%). Over time, methodological changes seem to occur as new methods are introduced into the field. In this sample, school experiments were introduced in 1930; content analysis in 1940; laboratory experiments in 1946; field experiments in 1971; and observational techniques in 1972. Once introduced, the methods continue to be utilized over-time.

### Samples

Of the 113 studies which reported using samples, 84% used local samples, 8% used national or regional samples, 4% used several local samples, and 4% didn't mention the sample origins. Forty-two of these studies reported special characteristics of the sample: emotionally disturbed children (1);

Table 3

Data Collection Methods by Type of Mass Medium

Method	Motion Pictures	Radio	Television	
Content Analysis	. 0	3 (6%)	5 (6%)	
Laboratory	6	0	9	
Experiment	(10%)		(10%)	
School	9		16	
Experiment	(16%)		(19%)	
Field Experiment	(2%)	2 (4%)	(1%)	
General :	8_	12	14 (16%)	
Survey	(14%)	(22%)		
School	8	(21%)	18	
Survey	(14%)		(21%)	
Observation	0	: 0	3 (4%)	
Expert	- 21	17 (32%)	14	
Opinion	(36%)		(16%)	
Review of	5	1 (2%)	6	
Research	(8%)		(7%)	
To tals	58	53	.86	
	(100%)	(100%)	(100%)	

juvenile delinquents (2); socially disadvantaged children (5); minorities (5); class rooms (14); all boys — typically aggression studies — (12); all girls — for a study of perceived importance of beauty and beauty advertisement exposure — (1); and two studies used the child's age as a surrogate measure for specific mental skills or stages of development.

One hundred and five studies included children as the unit of analysis in their samples. The childrens' ages ranged from 3 years to 23 years old, and the mean age was 12. Other units of analysis include: motion picture theaters located within a half block of saloons, mothers, childrens' programs, parent-child pairs, families, network programming, and criticisms of programming. Sample sizes ranged from 12 to 37,505. Twenty-eight percent included less than 200; 40% less than 400; 46% less than 700; and 50% less than 1,000. (Additional findings describing the sample are discussed in Appendix 4).

# Historical Trends: Testing the Reeves-Wartella Hypotheses

Conditional Propositions Throughout: As stated earlier, Reeves and Wartella (1982) suggest that conditional propositions and psychological explanations of mass media effects are common throughout research on children and the mass media. In order to test their hypothesis, the studies in the sample were broken down into the three eras defined by Weaver and Gray (1980). The first era spans from 1911 to 1929 and is traditionally thought to be dominated by descriptive histories of mass media effects. The second era, from 1930 to 1949, is thought to be characterized by research based on an hypodermic or undifferentiated model of mass media effects. The third era is from 1950 to the present, and research in this era is thought to be based upon indirect or conditional models of mass media effects. If conventional accounts of the history of mass media research describe studies on children



and the mass media, one would not expect other (intervening or contingent) variables to be mentioned in the literature until the third era, post-1950. If, however, Reeves and Wartella are correct in stating that such variables appear throughout the history of research on children and the mass media, then one would expect little differences across the three eras.

Table 4 shows support for the Reeves-Wartella hypothesis. There are little differences between eras in the percentage of studies which mentioned other variables, indicating adherence to an indirect effects model throughout the history of this literature. In era 1, 60% (9) of the studies mentioned other variables; in era 2, 55% (34); and in era 3, 65% (56). A chi-square test confirms that differences between eras are, indeed, not significant. The evidence, therefore, supports the Reeves and Wartella observation that the conventional history does not tend to describe research on children and the mass media; rather, indirect models of mass media effects are dominant throughout the history of research in this literature.

It seems, however, that the Weaver and Gray (1980) claim that pre-1930 research on the mass media is mainly descriptive in nature is supported by the

Although this conclusion can be critized on the grounds that "other variables" are operationalized both as variables actually included in the analysis and as variables simply discussed as having an impact on the phenomenon under study, the authors do not consider the operationalization problematic. Direct and indirect effect perspectives are looked at as world views which guide not only analysis selections, but also the researcher's conceptualization of the relationships under study. A researcher endorsing the direct effects perspective would be quite surprised to find evidence of indirect influences, as were Lazarsfeld, et al. (1948) in their study of the 1940 presidential election in Eric County, Ohio. Indeed, one of these authors (Berelson, 1959) was so affected by the realization that the field could no longer embrace a direct effects model that he later wrote that studying the media was no longer worthwhile and declared the field dead (Lowery and DeFleur, 1983). Research conducted from an indirect effects perspective, on the other hand, would necessarily discuss other variables affecting the relationship under study, but would not, however, necessarily include all these variables in the analysis. Therefore, the fact that a researcher mentions indirect influences is considered evidence that an indirect model of mass media effects provided the conceptual basis for the study.

Table 4 Other Variables Mentioned By Era

ERA 1	<del></del>	ERA	2	ERA 3	
9 (60%) N=15	<u>.</u>	34 (55%) N=62		56 (65%) N=86	

data. Sixty percent of studies in era 1 offered expert opinion (as opposed to conclusions based on systematic quantitative or qualitative methods), compared with 36% expert opinion in era 2 and 11% expert opinion in era 3. As noted earlier, however, the diversity of empirical methods employed in the study of mass media and youth appears to be a function of time; as new techniques appear, they are utilized in the research.

Historical Trends: Cyclical Topics: Reeves and Wartella also suggest that topics of research on the mass media occur in predictable patterns: as each new medium enters into the social system, research concerns follow a specific order, beginning with research on children's use of the medium, turning to research on health effects of the medium, and finally to effects of media content on a child's knowledge, attitudes, and behaviors. In order to test thishypothesis, independent and dependent variables were clustered into three topic areas: (1) children's use or the medium; (2) health effects; and (3) knowledge, attitudes, and behaviors. Because only three studies addressed health effects of the mass media on children (one in 1938--motion pictures; one in 1939--radio; and one in 1942--motion pictures and radio), this topic was excluded from subsequent analysis. The frequency of topics was then plotted by year for each medium (motion pictures, radio, and television). According to the hypothesis, one would expect: (1) topics to be introduced in an invariant order across medium (use of media, health effects, and, lastly, media effects on knowledges, attitudes, and behaviors) and (2) as a new topic is introduced, research on other topics declines "giving way" to research on the more recent topic.



These general topics were made up of the following variable categories which are defined in Appendix 3. Children's media use = 15 + 16 + 17 + 18 + 21 + 22; knowledge, attitudes, and behaviors = 1 + 25 + 26 + 27 + 28 + 29 + 30 + 35 + 36 + 37 + 38 + 39 + 45 + 46 + 47 + 48 + 49 + 50 + 58 + 59 + 65 + 66 + 67 + 68 + 69. Because health effects were not coded as a separate category, all code sheets were reviewed in order to retrieve this information.

Figures 2, 3, and 4 show the topic trends by year for each medium. It is clear from these figures that the data do not support the cyclical trend hypothesis. For motion pictures and television, studies of the effects of the medium and of the child's use of the medium occur simultaneously in the literature, and there is no evidence that research topics "give way" to newer topics over time. For radio, studies of the child's use of the medium preceed studies on the medium's influence on the child's knowledge, attitudes, and behaviors by about two years. However, the hypothesis as stated by Reeves and Wartella requires such patterns to occur for research topics in each medium. Since the pattern does not occur across medium, the cyclical trends hypothesis is rejected.

Suspecting that the null findings discussed above may have been due to too large topic categories, a similar procedure was followed to attempt to tease out any cyclical topic trends. In this case, 15 different topic categories were constructed: (1) attitudes and interest; (2) home and peer; (3) individual characteristics of the child; (4) good behaviors; (5) bad behaviors; (6) displacement effects; (7) medium characteristics; (8) viewing conditions; (9) media content; (10) learning; (11) prosocial-psychological; (12) antisocial-psychological; (13) other psychological; (14) unhealthy mental effects; and (15) advertising. Again, the results do not support the hypothesis that topics are cyclical and that early topics "give way" to latter ones. Once a topic is introduced, it tends to be prominent in the literature for a number of years, even as other topics enter the field.

These general topics were made up of the following variable categories which are defined in Appendix 3: Attitudes and interest = 1 + 46; home/peer = 2 + 4 + 5 + 6 + 7; individual characteristics = 8 + 9 + 10 + 70; good behaviors = 35 + 36; bad behaviors = 38 + 39; displacement = 59; medium characteristics = 11; viewing conditions = 15 + 16 + 17 + 18 + 19 + 20 + 21 + 22 + 56; media content = 25 + 27 + 28 + 26 + 30; learning = 39; prosocial-psychological = 45; mental effects = 49; and advertising = 65 + 66 + 67 + 68 + 69.



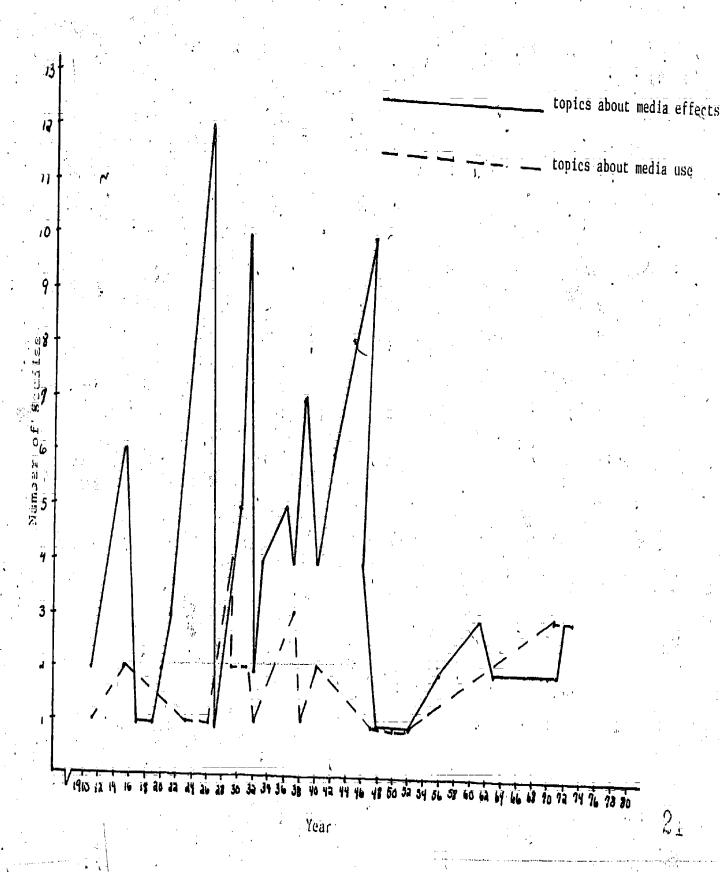


Figure 2. Topic Trends: Motion Pictures

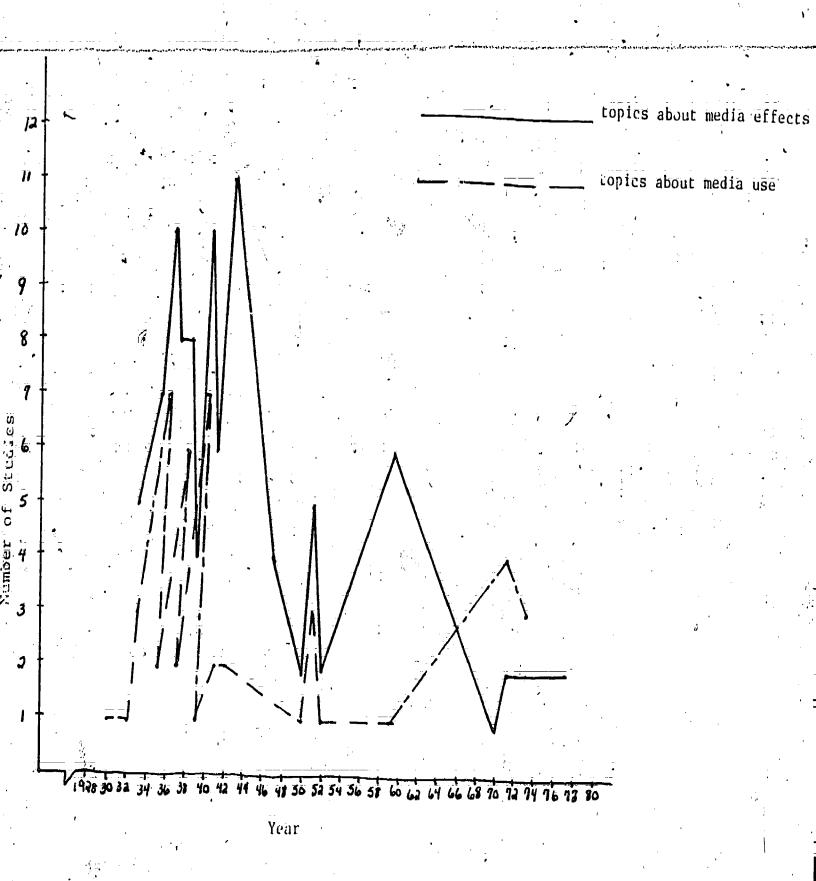
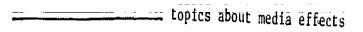
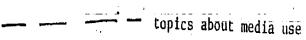


Figure 3: Topic Trends: Radio

22





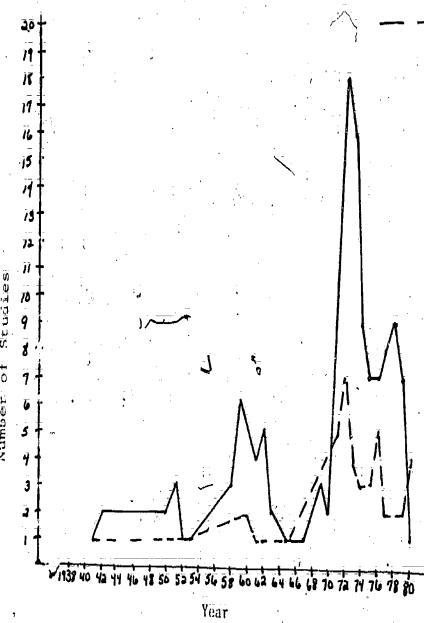


Figure 4. Topic Trends: Television

Therefore, the hypothesis of cyclical or recurring topics with the introduction of each medium is rejected. Rather, the data suggest that within the first ten years of research on any medium, research topics include: individual characteristics, viewing conditions, and media content (see Table 5). Three initial research questions seem to emerge, therefore, in the first ten years of research on children and an innovative medium. What is the content of this medium? How does the content affect different children? and (3) How do these effects vary, according to viewing contexts? Aside from this common beginning, research on each medium seems to address research topics independent of other medium topic agendas.

## Conclusions

This study has shown that the history of mass communication as it is typically discussed in the literature does not describe the history of research on children and the mass media. Support was found for Reeves and Wartella's (1982) observation that conditional propositions and psychological explanations are common throughout the history of research on the mass media and youth. This area of research, therefore, does not appear to have its beginnings in a direct-effects period typically assumed to represent initial efforts of naive mass media researchers. Support was not found, however, for Reeves and Wartelia's notion that a particular sequence of topics recurs with the introduction of each mass medium into the social system. Instead, each medium appears to have an initial set of research questions in common; however, there is not evidence that an invariant sequence of topics xists, independent of the medium under study.



Table 5
Motion Pictures, Radio, and Television by Variables
Mentioned During the Medium's History of Research\*

#### MOTION PICTURES

Variables

media content

			-	
1-5	individual characteristics			
	media content	. •		:
	viewing conditions	•		
: :	bad behavior	•		
•	antisocial-psychological	1	•	
	prosocial-psychological			
6-10	orher-psychological			
.11 <del>-</del> 15	displacement			
_ 1_ 1	attitudes and interests	•		•
<b>26</b> -30	good behavior			
31=35	unhealthy mental effects			
	: ·	•		
i - i	• •			
RADIO		•		
	. 111.5.11.11			
Years	Variables			
1-5	viewing conditions			
6-10	bad behavior			
•	advertising			
	home/peer			
	individual characteristics	•		
•	attitudes and interest			
	other-psychological			
-	antisocial-psychological			
:	bad behaviors	*	•	•
	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •			

#### TELEVISION

Years	Variables	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
1-5	media content	
	individual characteristics	
	viewing conditions	
	attitudes and interest	
11-15	home/peer	, .
16-20	advertising	•
36-40	other-psychological	
	bad behavior	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •
41-45	displacement "	
	media characteristics	•
56-60	antisocial-psychological /	•
6570	good behaviors	•
71-75	unhealthy mental effects	<b>^.</b>

\*Research topics for each medium are listed next to the years they first appear in the literature. Year 1 is defined as the first year research on the medium appeared in our sample.



The fact that research on children and the mass media does not fit the traditional history of movement from a direct effects model to an indirect effects model should be of interest to all mass media researchers. Perhaps, the history attributed to our field represents only the work of a few, prominent media researchers. It is also possible that media research at the social systems level is well described by the traditional history with progression from the hypodermic model to limited effects models, influenced, perhaps, by the successful propaganda campaigns in WW I. However, research which looks at the individual child as the unit of analysis appears to follow a different historical development, apparently never totally embracing the hypodermic effects model.

The results of this study point to the importance of questioning the conventional historical account of mass media research and to the value of examining this history through empirical methods. Only by such methods can we construct an accurate historical record of research in our field with confidence.

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Appendix 1

LIST OF PUBLICATIONS INCLUDED IN THE SAMPLE





#### ARTICLES INDEXED

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Appendix 2

CODE GUIDE

# Research on Mass Media and Children

PRINT ALL INFORMATION CLEARLY	Coder nameStudy Number	
1. List full reference:		
la. Source of Information (circle the appropri (1) book/(2) journal/ (3) book chapter/ (4 (5) pamphlet (6) other (specify)	ate number) ) thesis, dissertation	
2. Number of authors (If compilation, include	editor)	
2a. Author's full name: (1)	***	•
(2) (3)	·	
(+)	<u></u>	
(5) (6)		•
3. Year of publication		:
4. Number of media studied		
a. Type of media studied: (check all that app  Television  Motion pictures (film)  Experimental film (film produced es Radio  Books  Newspapers  Comic Books  Magazines  New technologies (computers, video Mass media vs. interpersonal commun	specially for the study)	•

5.	Did the study employ statistical analysis (e.g., percentages, table correlations, regression, etc.)?  (1) yes  (2) no	es,
6.	Type(s) of analysis: (check all that apply)	
	content analysislab experimentschool experimentfield experiment	
	general survey school survey observation expert opinion (includes parents' and teachers' estimate of	
***************************************	child's behaviors)	-
	NOTE: IF ONLY TYPE OF ANALYSIS CHECKED ABOVE WAS "EXPERT OPINION," THEN SKIP TO QUESTION #11	
7.	Are children in the sample? (1) yes (2) no	
8. 1	What ages of children are included in the sample?  youngest age oldest age	
	CNOTE: If only grades of children are reported, use the following table to convert grades to ages.	
	grade - Age         Grade - Age	Age 17
	What kind of sample is used in the study? (check all which apply)	
	authors don't say	_

. 10. Special characteristics of the sample (if applicable)LD (learning disabled)	
giftedemotionally_disturbedjuvenile_delinquentssocially_disadvantaged (e.g., low SES, broken families)age_differences in sample represent specific concepts (e.g., low SES, broken families)of_cognitive_development)minoritiesclass_roomsother (specify)	g., stages
11. Sample size (number of people)  NOTE: If more than one sample, give average number	<del></del>
12. Analysis Variables (THREE PARTS to this question)	•
A. INDEPENDENT VARIABLES (list them)	
B. <u>DEPENDENT VARIABLES</u> (list them)	· :
C. OTHER VARIABLES (mediating variables, e.g.)	
	<del>`</del>
	<del></del>
13. Topics covered in the study: (FIVE PARTS to this question)	
A. Behaviors: (Check all that apply, and specify each behavior)	
prosocial ("good") neutral antisocial ("bad") opinions use of the media	
frequency or amount of exposure to media juvenile delinquency other	
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	

B.	Psychological Factors: (Check all that apply,	and specify each behavior
	attitudes	<i>y</i>
	frustrations	
	knowledge already held or intelligence	
	learning	
	gratifications	<del></del>
	interest in places or events	
	content preferences	<del></del>
	enjoyment	<del></del>
	perceptions of reality	
	other perceptions	
	other	
C.	Media characteristics (check all that apply, and	specify)
Ċ.	Media characteristics (check all that apply, and content (e.g., violent content, sexy content,	etc.)
Ċ.	Media characteristics (check all that apply, and content (e.g., violent content, sexy content, medium characteristics (e.g., flickering light	etc.)
	content (e.g., Violent content, sexy content,medium characteristics (e.g., flickering ligh Social aspects: (check all that apply)family	etc.)
	medium characteristics (e.g., flickering ligh	etc.)

## END OF QUESTIONNAIRE

TAKE A MOMENT to record any problems you had with the coding or with decisions concerning the study. Make your comments in the space provided below.

COMMENTS:



## Appendix 3

## VARIABLE CLASSIFICATION SCHEME

#### CODING CATEGORIES FOR VARIABLES

#### **ATTITUDES**

- O1) Specific: (re:content): social attitudes, satisfaction with sexual selfimage, characters, models, school, drugs, women, minorities,
  homework, aging and dying, conservation and wildlife, discrimination, other activities, reading, violence, political authority,
  government effectiveness, desire to move, attitude change,
  "good" content, agreement with model, values of movies
- 02) Parents' Attitudes: toward kid's media use, toward children's shows, opinions of child's behaviors and attitudes, anxiety

## LIFE CONDITIONS

- 04) Home, psych: FCP, permissive conditions, parental attitudes toward child rearing, parental responsibility, parental guidance, parent-child interactions, year, ethics, verbal responses of mother, holiday season
- 05) Home, structure: Family size, father's presence, time father home while children are awake, violence in child's environment, family composition, number of parents living with child, foreign parents, nationality, home life, cultural standards, community traditions, number of children in family, sex of parent in one-parent homes.
- 06) Peer: Peer communication patterns, peer integration, peer interaction, interpersonal communication, companionship, social isolation
- 07) Demographic: SES, father's occupation, mother's education, rural-urban, population density, monthly rent, race, religion, income.
- 03) Individual characteristics: health, birth order, juy. delinquency, scouts, personality scores, sex, character, temperment, mental health
- 09) Development: grade, age, education
- 10) Intelligence: scholastic ability, verbal and nonverbal intelligence, moron, intellectual development, arithmetic scores, reading scores, grades, cognitive style, mental ability
- 11) Medium characteristics: admission price, camera zoom, program complexity, videotape, rate of presentation, TV-Intrp as news source, jittery images, subtitles (silent films), preferred theaters, number of words, number of syllables, imagery, sound effects, short flashes, narrator

#### Viewing Conditions

- 15) Who: with parents, with sibs, with peers, alone, with family, alone ys.
- 16) How: number of kids, number of adults, other activity while viewing, prestige of coviewer, home vs. school viewing, parental control, parsence/absence of audience, number of sets, topics of conversation

### Media Behaviors

- 17) Time spent: time spent, amount of exposure, high vs. low viewers, popularity of medium, introduction of television, program popularity, parents tv time, listening to radio, frequency of
- program choice, content preferences, use of other media, days and hours viewing, viewing style, media use patterns, movie appeal, news viewing, habits, educational show viewing, favorite actors, what's good to watch, time of day, addictio-, actractiveness of television
- 19) Other measures: attention to previous shot, involvement with shows, attention, intensity of viewing
- 20) Others: communicator, viewer, family filmed while viewing, family kept viewing diary

## Media Psych

- 21) Watch: liking character, factors audience likes, uses and grats, what's good to watch, taste in program selection, reasons for program selection
- 22) Viewing skills: identification with character, distinguish between reality and fantasy, reality cues

## Media Content

- 25) Bad: violent, aggressive, actor aggression, cartoon aggression, aggressive fantasy, poor role models, aggression against human clown, sexual content, characters negative about attending school, false values
- 26) Good: toothcare, prosocial content, educational, altruistic, helpful programs, social/moral/factuál value, model competence, good social attitudes, health, ethics
- 27) Specific content: specific films and programs, emotional content, excitement, action, music, novelty, attractions of content, emotional news items, sex appeal, news, local vs.nonlocal news content

- 28) Role models: expression of point of view, traditional sex roles, character attributes, characters, sex of models, credibility of characters, character and temperment of model, sexual pleasure of tv characters, model behaviors, attractiveness of character, sex appeal of model, traditional/nontraditional occupational roles, competency, lives of stars, movie star prestige
- 29) Learning: recall of broadcast items, recall of emotional content, number news items recalled, recall of central and peripheral content, knowledge gain, learning, complexity of recall, cultivation of intelligence, recall of aggressive acts, learning luck vs work ethic, knowledge of playing hookey, learning about places, stereotypes, learn content, world knowledge
- 30) Content types: programs, childrens' programs, neutral content, newscasts, program type, entertainment, fantasy, play and book dramatizations, kid's preferences, phoney sports, educational, give-a-way programs, general, funny papers, excitement, action, music, news

#### Behaviors

- 35) Prosocial: helping, politeness, generosity, gracefulness, courtesy, altruism, consideration for others
- 36) Good: adopting children, social achievement, toothcare, posture
- 37) Neutral: autonomic responses, facial expressions, imitation audible response, conversation topics, activity levels, play types, behavioral changes, search for natural parents, adoption, sex behaviors, social learning, neutral behaviors, playing with dogs, imitation, emotional sweating
- 38) Bad: Bad sportsmanship, running away from home, going to saloons, addiction, meal interference, dirty play, smoking, sleepless-ness, poor grammar, indigestion, eating
- 39) Antisocial: Imitations of violent behavior, fighting, juv. delin., aggressive behaviors, aggression against human clown, last year's aggression, conflict with parents, disobedience, crime, burglary, murder, perjury, suicide, sexual promiscuity, conflict over program choice

## Psychological Variables

- 45) Prosocial: patriotism, empathy, increasing morality, social responsibility, decrease in prejudice
- 46) Interest: in topics, future aspirations, political interest, art for people, music appreciation, information-seeking, sexual interest, taste in program content, imagination

- <del>( )</del>

- 47) Dreams: dream intensity, vividness of dream recall, unpleasant dreams, dream content, day dreams
- 43) Bad: dreamy imagination, acceptance of violent behaviors, emotional reactions to content, sleeplessness, dormant emotions (sex), fears, excitation, arousal, social isolation, anger, psychic exhaustion, distrust, distraction, clutivation of "untrameled imagination"
- 49) Mental bad: (dysfunctions), tension, neuroses, nervousness, neuroticism, introversion, distraction, emotional disturbances, anxiety
- 50) Antisocial: moral injury, demoralization, corruption, anti-Americanism, immorality, disregard for law

#### Other -

- 55) Perceived reality: perceptions of reality, TV answers, perceptions of world, perceptions of humor, perceptions of cinema as true, learning about world, beliefs about way of life, impressions, acceptance of cinema as true, perceptions of government's effectiveness
- 56) Intervention-viewing: teacher instruction, teacher intervention, motion picture appreciation courses, preparing educational films
- 57) Intervention in industry: action to correct media, need for children's cinema, elimination of blind buying and block booking, censorship and control, criticism of children's shows
- 58) Perceptions of violence: reinforcement, vicarous reinforcement, acceptance of violent behaviors, reduction of inhibition against violence, perceptions of violent or good content, desentization to violence
- 59) Other: number of hobbies, relaxation, homework, leisure time, activity, day's experiences, desire to read, displacement of other "better" activities
- 60) Frustration: frustration

#### Advertising

- 65) Content: advertisment appeals, ad content, ad credibility, sex appeal, exposure to male/female in traditional vs nontraditional roles, type presentation, type conclusion, type appeal, type product
- 66) Ad psych: attitudes toward products, perceived product value, attitude toward program showing ad, expectation of receiving toys, mother's perception of product suitability, mother's perception of advertising quantity, interest in product premium, cognitive defenses against ads, distinguishing between ad and program, understanding ads, perceived importance of beauty and commercial themes (sex, beauty, youth) in social relations

- 67) Behaviors: Product requests, product purchases, effort (task persistence), use of product in household
- 68) Other-how to: marketing strategies, use of premiums, sources of information in ads (television, catalogues, friends, stores)
- 69) Ad learn: Product recognition, product knowledge, product recall, child's occupational knowledge/stereotyping/preferences

Appendix 4

SAMPLE CHARACTERISTICS: ADDITIONAL FINDINGS

## Results: Additional Comments on the Sample

#### Sources

Although the sources included in the sample are quite varied, it is interesting to note that only eight sources account for 46% of the studies in the sample: (1) Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, 9%; (2) Journal of Communication, 7%; (3) Child Development, 6%; (4) book chapters, 6%; (5) Journal of Broadcasting, 5%; (6) Child Study, 5%; (7) Education, 4%; and (8) Journal of Applied Psychology, 4%. Looking at these sources over time (see Table 4.1), it is clear that journals which were actively publishing studies of children and the mass media in the first half of the century have passed this role on to more recent and specialized journals.

#### Variables

For the sample overall, the most frequent independent variables studied were: content types, time spent with the medium, "bad" media content, viewing patterns, specific content, and role models in the media. Table 4.2 shows the frequency of independent variables in studies for motion pictures, radio, and television. What is surprising is the agreement across madium on the important independent variables to study. For television, there are four prominent variables which account for 50% of variables studied: content types (20%), time spent with medium (10%), psychological—watching (liking character, uses and gratifications, e.g.) (10%), and "bad" media content (10%). For studies on children and radio, two variables account for 53% of independent variables examined: time spent with medium (17%) and content types (36%). For motion pictures, four variables account

Table 4.1

Frequency of Studies in the Sample For the Top Eight Sources by Year

Year*	ANNALS OF THE AMER. ACADEMY OF POLIT. & SOCIAL SCIENCE	JOURNAL OF COMMUNICATION	CHILD DEVELOPMENT	BOOK CHAPTERS	CHILD Study	JOURNAL OF BROADCASTING	PDMCAIntou	JOURNAL, OF
1915		• •	,			DIVOUD-04911ING	EDUCATION	APPLIED PSYCH.
1926	3	,	•			·	1	•
1930		W.			-		1 .	<u>-</u>
1933		•				9	\· :	1
1935	2	. '.	•			1	1	
1936 1937			1	•		1	\.\.\.\.\.\.\.\.\.\.\.\.\.\.\.\.\.\.\.	ģ
1937		,	••;					<del>2</del> 9
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1947	4					4	1	. \.
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1971		•	,		1			\.
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1974	•	1	**************************************		,			:
1975	* · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·		````\`\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\		•		1	
1976		3	;		-			ī
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<sup>\*</sup>Only years with at least one study from these journals are included.

## Results: Additional Comments on the Sample

#### Sources

Although the sources included in the sample are quite varied, it is interesting to note that only eight sources account for 46% of the studies in the sample: (1) Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, 9%; (2) Journal of Communication, 7%; (3) Child Development, 6%; (4) book chapters, 6%; (5) Journal of Broadcasting, 5%; (6) Child Study, 5%; (7) Education, 4%; and (8) Journal of Applied Psychology, 4%. Looking at these sources over time (see Table 4.1), it is clear that journals which were actively publishing studies of children and the mass media in the first half of the century have passed this role on to more recent and specialized journals.

#### Variables

For the sample overall, the most frequent independent variables studied were: content types, time spent with the medium, "bad" media content, viewing patterns, specific content, and role models in the media. I Table 4.2 shows the frequency of independent variables in studies for motion pictures, radio, and television. What is surprising is the agreement across medium on the important independent variables to study. For television, there are four prominent variables which account for 50% of variables studied: content types (20%), time spent with medium (10%), psychological—watching (liking character, uses and gratifications, e.g.) (10%), and "bad" media content (10%). For studies on children and radio, two variables account for 53% of independent variables examined: time spent with medium (17%) and content types (36%). For motion pictures, four variables account See Appendix 3 for definitions of each category.



Table 4.2 Independent Variables in Studies By Motion Pictures, Radio, and Television

, 2 2 1 2 11 5	Television  3 3 2 4 3 6 1 1 1 3 13 13
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\*numbers here correspond to numbers shown in appendix 3 which provides definitions for each of the above categories.



for .74% of independent variables in the studies: content types (41%); "bad" content (13%); time spent with medium (10%); and specific medium content (10%).

For the sample as a whole, the most frequent dependent variables are: learning, viewing patterns, antisocial behavior, attitudes, time spent with the media, and "bad" psychological variables ( g.g., dreamy imagination, sleeplessness, dormant sexual emotions, arousal, fear, anger, etc.). Although there is more variation across media here, it is again the case that naming a few variables accounts for the majority of dependent variables studied for each medium (see Table 4.3). For television, the most frequently mentioned dependent variables are: viewing patterns (10%); learning (10%); antisocial behaviors (9%); time spent with medium (17%); attitudes (6%); neutral behaviors (6%); and advertising psychological effects (6%), accounting for 54% of dependent variables in studies of television and children. For radio, three variables account for 39% of all dependent variables studied: viewing patterns (18%); time spent with medium (9%); and learning (12%). For motion pictures, four variables account for 55% of dependent variables used to study motion pictures and children: role models (18%); antisocial behavior (15%); attitudes (11%); and viewing patterns (11%).

For the entire sample, the six most frequently mentioned "other" variables are: individual characteristics (e.g., health, birth order, grade, etc.), intelligence, demographics, home structure, home psychological environment, and viewing patterns. Table 4.4 breaks these variables by medium, showing an astonishing degree of agreement across medium concerning important other variables to be studied. For television, three variables accounted for 51% of all variables mentioned: demographic (17%); individual characteristics (17%); and development (17%). For motion pictures, four variables account for 49% of all other variables studied: demographic (9%);

Table 4.3

Dependent Variables in Studies

By Motion Pictures, Radio, and Television

Variablés*	Motion Pictures	Radio	Television
1. Attitudes	ii	· 6	
2. Parent's Attitudes	2	i	. 8
4. Home, Psychological	_	1	<u>.</u> .
5. Home, Structure	1 1	1	1
6. Peer		T	1
7. Demographic	İ		2
8. Individual Characteristic	s 2	<u>-</u> .	•
9. Development	4	<u> </u>	-
10. Intelligence	, 3	Ī	3
11. Medium Characteristics .	, ,	. 2	1
12. View with whom	•		,
16. How view	1	1	•
17. Time spent with medium	1 -	1	2
18. Viewing patterns	. <u>5</u>	9	2 9
19. Other media behaviors	11	17	12
21 Perchological	=		1
21. Psychological, watching 22. Viewing skills	; <b>3</b>	. 3	2
25. "Bad" content	-		2
26. "Good" content		•1	<del>-</del>
20. Good content		•	
27. Specific content		Ź	
28. Role models	ĺ	<del>-</del>	- 2
29. Learning	±7	12	2 13
30. Content types	i .	4	
35. Prosocial behavior			2
36. "Good" behavior	i	:	2
37. Neutral behavior	_	- 1	<u> -</u>
38. "Bad" Behavior	1	<u>.</u>	. 7
39. Antisocial behavior	14		2
45. Prosocial psychological	3	, <u>p</u>	11
46. Interest	3 ,	1 .	
47. Dreams	. · ·	4	2
48. "Bad" psychological	ž	4 2 6	2
49. "Bad" mental	<u>4</u> 1	6	5
55. Perceived reality	<u>.</u>	3	1
56. Viewing intervention	4	1	5
57. Industry intervention	2		4
58. Perceptions of violence	1		•
50. refreptions of violence			â ·
59. Kid's other activities	1	5	3
60. Frustration			1
65. Advertising content	•	•	
66. Advertising psychological			7
67. Advertising behaviors	•	2	7 5
68. Othe dvertising		_	<b>J</b> .
69. Adve sing learning	Í	ī	
71. General effects			4
TOTALS			

\*numbers here correspond to numbers shown in appendix 3 which provides definitions for each of the above categories.





Table 4.4
Other Variables in Studies
By Motion Pictures, Radio, and Television

Variables*	Motion Pictures		Television
1. Attitudes	3		
2. Parent's Attitudes	· i	2	1
4. Home, Psychological	3	<u>2</u> 1	1 7
5. Home, Structure	. <u>5</u>	r	6
6. Peer	J		6
7. Demographic	<u> </u>	5	2
8: Individual Characteristics	16	ر . و .	16
9. Development	. 12	7	16
10. Intelligence	12	, <u>11</u>	16
11. Medium Characteristics	4		$\frac{7}{2}$
12. View with whom	•		2
16. How view	$\bar{2}$	•	<b>.</b>
17. Time spent with medium	2 2 3 1	i	4 3 6 2 2
18. Viewing patterns	3 ~	2	. , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,
19. Other media behaviors	i	i	0 9
21. Psychological, watching	ī	1	4
22. Viewing skills		•	2
25. "Bad" content			
26. "Good" content	*		
27. Specific content		2	9
28. Role modēls	Ž	-	2 2
29. Learning		i	2
30. Content types			1
35. Prosocial behavior	•		1
36. "Good" behavior	•	•	
37. Neutral behavior	1		- 1
38. "Bad" behavior			- <b>-</b>
39. Antisocial behavior		•	i
45. Prosocial psychological			1
46. Interest		•	
47. Dreams		• •	· .
48. "Bad" psychological	•	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	
49. "Bad" mental	ī		•
55. Perceived reality		1	Ī
56. Viewing intervention	2	ī	9
57. Industry intervention	3	1	2 1
58. Perceptions of violence	i	. 1	1
59. Kid's other a tivities		-	į.
60. Frustration	4		1 2
65. Advertising content			1
66. Advertising psychological		i	4
67. Advertising behaviors			1
68. Other advertising		1	•
69. Advertising learning		•	1
71. General effects			•
TOTALS			
	88	49	111
•		A	

\*numbers here correspond to numbers shown in appendix 3 which provides definitions for each of the above categoreis.



individual characteristics (16%); development (12%); and intelligence (12%). For radio, three variables account for 54% of all other variables studied: individual characteristics (18%); development (14%); and intelligence (22%).