**DATASET FOR RESEARCH ARTICLE**

**Literature review about**

**Entertainment Education health campaigns, 1992-2022**

**Code Book**

**Unit of analysis:** The unit of analysis will be each article published in the main collection of Web of Science and Scopus between 1992, the year in which publications in this thematic and research line began, and 2022, whose object of study is “Entertainment-Education,” specifically, those publications related to health communication. This keyword must be identified in the title, summary, keywords, and metadataavailable on each platform. In addition, the recording of complementary information in the database should be considered, as it is useful for the first section of the coding called “Identification data.”

**Codebook variables**

To analyze the *metadata* of each article, the following codebook was used (prepared from Bryant & Miron, 2004; Kamhawi & Weaver, 2003; Li & Tang, 2012; Piñeiro-Naval & Morais, 2019; Singhal & Rogers, 2002; Sood et al., 2004), which integrates the variables cited below:

1. **Identification data**
   1. **Item number** (ID)
   2. **Name of the author or authors**
   3. **Title of the article** in the original language
   4. **Number of citations in WoS or Scopus:** Write the number of citations returned by the combined R-file.
2. **Analytical variables**

5) **Region of affiliation of the first author**

0. Don't know, can't identify

1. Africa
2. Latin America
3. Asia
4. Europe
5. North America
6. Oceania
7. Does not apply

6) **Theories related to Entertainment-Education[[1]](#footnote-1) (Sood, Menard, & Witte, 2004)**

**1. Steps/Stages Models:** Among them are McGuire's *hierarchy of effects (1969), the stages of change model proposed* by DiClemente and Prochaska (1985), *the steps for behavior change* (Piotrow et al., 1997 ), Rogers' (1995) *innovation and decision model,* Rovigatti's *circular communication model* (Rovigatti, cited in Televisa Communication Research Institute, 1981; Singhal & Rogers, 1999), and the Integrative Model of Behavioral Prediction (IMBP; Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010).

**2. Social Psychological Theories:** These types of theories address the psychological beliefs and perceptions of individuals about their social environment, including social learning theory (Bandura, 1977), the theory of reasoned action (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975), the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1991), the health belief model (Becker & Rosenstock, 1987), Rokeach's belief system theory (1968), the Positive Deviance (PD) approach (Singhal et al., 2010), and the Disclosure Processes Model (DPM) (Chaudoir et al., 2011).

**3. Psychological Models:** Cognitive processing models focus on the specific psychological processes that people experience when exposed to educational entertainment programs. Here, we review the social judgment theory (Sherif, Sherif, & Nebergall, 1965), the elaboration probability model (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986), the triune brain perspective (MacLean, 1973), narrative persuasion, identification with characters, the Narrative Transportation Model (Transportation-Imagery Model) of Green and Brock (2002), the Extended Elaboration Likelihood Model (E-ELM) of Slater and Rouner (2002), the Overcoming Model of Resistance through Entertainment Messages (Entertainment Overcoming Resistance Model, EORM) by Moyer-Gusé (2008), and Cognitive Load Theory (CLT) (Paas, 1992; Paas & Sweller, 2014).

**4. Drama Theories:** The roles that people play and/or the scripts they follow in their daily lives are examined in theories of drama, including Bentley's dramatic theory (1967), Jung's archetypes of the collective unconscious (1970 ), and Kincaid's (2002) conceptualization of drama theory.

**5. Audience-Centered Theories:** Audience-Centered Theories examine how audiences interact and react to entertainment and educational programmes. Examples include the uses and gratifications theory, parasocial interaction, audience participation, two-step flow model, and Affective Disposition Theory (Zillmann & Cantor, 1996).

**6. Contextual Theories[[2]](#footnote-2):** Contextual Theories represent diverse disciplinary epistemologies and include both humanistic and critical perspectives. These include theories of power (Mumby 1988), hegemony (Gramsci 1989) and social constructionism (Davenport-Sypher et al. 2002; Slack 1989), and agenda-setting (McCombs and Shaw 1972).

**7. Hybrid Models:** Many entertainment education scholars for several years have developed hybrid models that combine the elements of several theories. Examples of hybrid models are the Vaughan and Rogers six-stage model of communication effects (2000), the Soul City model of behavior change (2000), the Center for Communication Programs at Johns Hopkins University (JHU), ideation theory (Kincaid, 2000a, 2000b), and the Mariposa Project within the context of Intervention Mapping (IM).

**8. Other**

7) **Location of the research** (for example, if a study considers the Latino population in the United States, option '2' is marked)

0. Unknown

1. Africa
2. Latin America
3. Asia
4. Europe
5. North America
6. Oceania
7. Does not apply

8) **Media[[3]](#footnote-3) (Sood, Menard, & Witte, 2004):** The origin of the stimulus material is considered.

1. Television   
2. Radio   
3. Printed   
4. Interpersonal Communication  
5. Music   
6. Theater   
7. Internet (social networks; apps; forums; VOD platforms such as Netflix, Hulu, web series on YouTube, blogs)   
8. Multimedia/Transmedia   
9. Cinema   
10. Video game/Online game

11. Another way (digital graphic pieces, sound pieces, audiovisual pieces, written pieces, animations; *all are unitary and not serialized*)   
12. Does not apply

9) **If the study includes media content, select one of the following formats (Singhal, Rogers, & Sood, Menard, & Witte, 2004); otherwise, mark 8 (not applicable).**

1. Telenovela: This is based on Latin American melodrama. This content has a limited duration.
2. *Soap Opera (TV or radio)*: It is based on the melodrama of Anglo-Saxon narrative. This corresponds to a series that can last for several years.
3. Television Series (sitcoms, dramas)
4. Music Video
5. Audiovisual Documentary (whether a feature or a short film).
6. Theater Play
7. Book, Magazine or Brochure
8. Fiction Feature Film or Short Film (complete or fragmented by sequences or scenes)
9. Video or Interactive Video
10. Newscast/News
11. Comic
12. Reality Show
13. Photo Novel
14. Written Microhistory (may include photography)
15. Press Articles
16. Web Content (sites, social networks, blogs, web series, e-book, educational resource)
17. Animation (can be manga)
18. Video Game or Online Game
19. Traditional Media Advertisements (social good campaigns, spots)
20. Other Television Formats (magazine, interviews)
21. Newsletter
22. Other, which: \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ (eg. augmented/virtual reality content, songs, audio books, manipulated photographs).
23. Does not apply

10) **Research Approach**

1. Qualitative
2. Quantitative
3. Mixed

In the *coding form,* there are three columns to fill out each of the two variables that follow below to register a maximum of three methods per approach. If you do not use all the columns, mark the “Does not apply” option with the corresponding number according to the variable (7, quantitative methods or 11, qualitative methods) in the empty cells.

11) **Quantitative research methods.** According to Kamhawi and Weaver (2003) and Li and Tang (2012), the main ones are as follows:

1. **Experiment.** This is one of the research methods in which greater active control is required by the researcher (Samse, 2001, cited by Igartua, 2016). It entails the active participation of researchers, given that its two main characteristics are the manipulation and control of the variables. For example, research has been conducted on the effects of audiovisual messages. Igartua (2016). It can be said that it is used for causal investigations in which three types of questions are answered:1. Identification of the causes (when something happens, and then we seek to know its cause, that is, why it occurred. 2. Evaluation of the It aims to answer the questions "what would have happened if...?" and "What would happen if...?" Generally, these types of questions are used to evaluate the effectiveness of an intervention; for example, two identical groups are compared (homogeneous and equivalent), one exposed to an experience (intervention), and the other not exposed (control group).
2. **Content analysis.** It is a research method that allows exploration of any type of message: the answer to an open question, a questionnaire, letters written by a psychiatric patient, the speeches of a group of politicians, literary texts, and the media. Likewise, it can be defined as any systematic procedure designed to examine the content of archived information (Igartua, 2006).
3. **Survey.** It constitutes one of the techniques for obtaining data on objective aspects (facts) and subjective aspects (opinions, attitudes) based on the information (oral and written) provided by the same subject (D’ Ancona, 1992 cited by Igartua (2006, p. 231). One of the main uses of the survey is the measurement of audiences and analysis of media consumption (Adams, 1989; Gunter, 2000; Igaurtua and Badillo, 2003; Slater, 2004; Wimmer and Dominick, 1996). The questionnaire is the basic instrument for obtaining data in survey research (Cea D’ Acona, 1992), which is an instrument for collecting information and a protocol for asking questions (Bosch and Torrente, 1993, cited by Igartua, 2006).
4. **Systematic review.** This is a documentary and a bibliographic compilation. Systematic reviews are scientific investigations, in which the unit of analysis is the primary original study. They constitute an essential tool for synthesizing available scientific information, increasing the validity of the conclusions of individual studies, and identifying areas of uncertainty where research is necessary. It is used preliminarily in the process of developing the theoretical and conceptual framework of the research, as it is possible to gather the most important studies, investigations, data, and information on the formulated problem.

1. **bibliometric analysis.** This was used for the analysis of scientific publications. It provides information on the results of the research process and its volume, evolution, visibility, and structure. It allows the assessment of scientific activity and the impact of both the research and sources. Using this technique, scientific publications are evaluated using indicators such as the number of citations, number of articles, publication frequency, and impact, among others.
2. **Another, which \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_**
3. **Does not apply.**

12) **Qualitative research methods. In light of this, Tomás J. Campo y Aranda and Elda Gomes Araújo (2015), Martínez (2011), Escobar** and Bonilla (2011), Feixas (1996) are taken as reference.

1. **Observation.** It can be of 3 types:
2. **Nonparticipant observations.** As its name indicates, the observer remains oblivious to the situation he observes. Here, the observer studies the group and remains separate.
3. **Direct observation.** It refers to the method that describes the situation in which the observer is physically presented and personally manages what happens.
4. **Participant observations.** It involves direct intervention by the observer so that the researcher can intervene in the life of the group. It is one in which the observer actively participates within the group being studied; he identifies with him in such a way that the group considers him to be one of its members. Goetz and LeCompte (1998) state that participant observation refers to a practice that consists of living among the people one study, getting to know them, their language, and their ways of life through intrusive and continuous interaction with them. in daily life.
5. **Delphi.** The objective is to know the opinions of a group of people regarding a problem, without members meeting physically. Linston and Turoff (1975) define the Delphi technique as a method of structuring a group communication process that is effective in allowing a group of individuals, as a whole, to address a complex problem. The objective of this technique is to achieve a reliable consensus between the opinions of a group of experts through a series of anonymous questionnaires.
6. **Interview.** They can be of 4 types:
7. **Informal or conversational.** When the researcher interacts with the informant, the former generates questions according to the development of the conversation. Although it is supposed to be based on a general guide of questions, this ultimately does not comply, since what determines this modality is the flexibility and creativity of the researcher. A specific characteristic of this modality is that it is not necessarily aimed at collecting information but also at getting to know the other. In this sense, the researcher’s role lies with sharing. This type of interview was more valid in the context of participant research.
8. **In deep.** It can be said that there are repeated face-to-face meetings between the researcher and the interviewee, whose purpose is to know the opinion and perspective that a subject has regarding their life, experiences, or lived situations.
9. **Standardized open.** It begins with a questionnaire that contains the same questions for everyone.
10. **Semi-structured and schematic.** It starts from a pattern or guide of questions with the 30 themes or key elements that you want to investigate, or deepen from a previous exploration with the informant. The same questions can be asked in different ways or by several informants if applicable. This implies that there is no sequence in the order of the questions, and it depends greatly on the answers given.
11. **Focus group.** Focus groups are a data collection technique using a semi-structured group interview, which revolves around a theme proposed by the researcher. Different definitions of a focus group have been given; however, many authors agree that this is a discussion group guided by a set of questions carefully designed with a particular objective (Aigneren, 2006; Beck et al., 2004). It is made up of a small group of people who meet to exchange ideas on a topic of interest with the participants in order to solve a problem or address a specific topic. It is intended to produce a social discourse derived from the consensus of group members on a proposed topic or situation.
12. **Life story.** It focuses on an individual subject, community, collective, etc., and has as its central element the analysis of the narrative that this person or group makes about their life experiences.
13. **Kelly grid.** The grid technique was used to evaluate the dimensions and structure of personal meaning. It aims to capture the way in which a person makes sense of their experience in their own terms. It is not, therefore, a conventional test but rather a form of structured interview aimed at making explicit the constructs with which the person organizes their world.
14. **Patchwork quilt.** The patchwork quilt is a memory methodology that seeks to identify and obtain, in an organized and systematic manner, elements that rest in the collective imaginaries or symbolic world of the groups to reconstruct shared networks of meaning from them. This memory recovery technique consists of three elements: a scrap, made up of a drawing and an individual story that arises from each participant in a work session, and from a question evocative of an event or situation from the past.
15. **Vignettes.** Vignettes are a data collection technique that consists of a brief story, a short description of a situation, and hypothetical people that simulate real-life experiences and contain the information necessary for interviewees to make a judgment or make a decision about the situation described.
16. **Social cartography.** Social cartography is a participatory and collaborative research methodology that invites reflection, organization, and action around a specific physical and social space. As a fieldwork methodology and research tool, social cartography is conceived as a dialogic technique (Fals Borda, 1987).
17. **Another way, which \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_**
18. **Does not apply.**

13) **Level of Prevention** (Kisling & Das, 2022)[[4]](#footnote-4)

**1. Primary prevention:** The most recent addition to preventive strategies, primary prevention, was described in 1978. It consists of the reduction of risk factors aimed at the entire population through a focus on social and environmental conditions. These measures are generally promoted through national laws and policies. Because primary prevention is the earliest form of prevention, it is often targeted at children to decrease risk of exposure as much as possible. Primordial prevention focuses on the underlying stage of a natural disease by targeting the underlying social conditions that promote the onset of the disease. An example includes improving an urban neighborhood's access to safe sidewalks to promote physical activity; this, in turn, reduces the risk factors for obesity, cardiovascular diseases, and type 2 diabetes.

**2. Primary prevention:** Primary prevention consists of measures aimed at susceptible populations or individuals. The purpose of primary prevention is to prevent the occurrence of the disease. Thus, the target population consisted of healthy individuals. It commonly institutes activities that limit risk exposure or increase the immunity of people at risk to prevent a disease from progressing in a person susceptible to a subclinical disease. For example, immunization is a form of primary prevention.

3. **Secondary Prevention:** Secondary prevention emphasizes the early detection of the disease and targets healthy people with subclinical forms of the disease. Subclinical disease consists of pathological changes, but without obvious symptoms, that can be diagnosed during a visit to the doctor. Secondary prevention often occurs during the screening. For example, the Papanicolaou (Pap) test is a form of secondary prevention aimed at diagnosing cervical cancer in its subclinical state before its progression.

4. **Tertiary prevention:** Tertiary prevention focuses on both the clinical and outcome stages of the disease. It is applied to symptomatic patients and aims to reduce the severity of the disease as well as the associated sequelae. While secondary prevention seeks to prevent the onset of the disease, tertiary prevention aims to reduce the effects of the disease once it has been established in an individual. Tertiary prevention is a common rehabilitation effort.

5. **Quaternary Prevention:** According to the Wonca International Dictionary for General/Family Practice, quaternary prevention is: "action taken to identify patients at risk of overmedicalization, protect them from further medical invasion, and suggest interventions that are ethically acceptable." Marc Jamoulle initially proposed this concept, and the targets were mainly patients with disease but without disease. The definition has recently undergone modification as "an action taken to protect individuals (people/patients) from medical interventions that are likely to cause more harm than good."

**6. Does not apply.**

14) **Health-related issues and behavior.** Based on Shen and Han (2014) and the results of the bibliometric analysis.

1. Alcohol abuse

2. Stroke Literacy

3. Ethical and political issues in health

4. Doctor-patient communication

5. Knowledge and education about cancer

6. Natality control

7. Covid 19

8. Cardiovascular care

9. Diabetes care

10. cancer care

11. Breast cancer care

12. HIV care

13. Obstetric care

14. Cervical cancer screening

15. Colorectal cancer screening

16. Breast cancer screening

17. Skin cancer detection

18. Prostate cancer screening

19. Detection of cancer of the lymphatic system

20. Education for health

21. Pregnancy in teenagers

22. Sexually transmitted diseases

23. Mental illnesses and disorders

24. Sleep hygiene (SSA)

25. Soil-transmitted helminth (STH) infections

26. Influenza

27. Health related information

28. Body dissatisfaction

29. Carbon Monoxide Poisoning

30. Women's health and access to health care

31. Handwashing

32. Healthy literature for children and adolescents

33. Teenage mothers

34. Patients with arthritis and osteoporosis

35. Zombie pandemic

36. Family planning

37. Stroke and heart disease prevention

38. Sexual assault prevention

39. Obesity prevention

40. Prevention of obesity and heart disease

41. Prevention of obesity and smoking

42. Osteoporosis prevention

43. Cervical cancer prevention

44. Breast cancer prevention

45. Skin cancer prevention

46. Prostate cancer prevention

47. HIV prevention

48. Promotion of breastfeeding

49. Health promotion

50. Smoking promotion and prevention

51. Reduction of anemia

52. Reproductive health

53. Safe sex

54. Solutions for obesity

55. Maternal, Neonatal and Child Survival

56. Patient decision making

57. Arthritis treatment

58. Use of psychoactive substances (SPA)

59. Vaccination

60. Human Papillomavirus (HPV)

61. Does not apply

**References**

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Kamhawi, R., & Weaver, D. (2003). Mass communication trends from 1980 to 1999. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly* , *80* (1), 7–27.

Kisling, L.A., & Das, J.M. (2022). *Prevention Strategies* . Stat Pearls Publishing. https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK537222/

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Singhal, A., & Rogers, E.M. (2002). A Theoretical Agenda for Entertainment-Education. *Communication Theory* , *12* , 117–135. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-2885.2002.tb00262.x

Sood, S., Menard, T., & Witte, K. (2004). The Theory Behind Entertainment-Education. In A. Singhal, MJ Cody, EM Rogers, & M. Sabido (Eds.), *Entertainment-Education and Social Change. History, Research, and Practice* (pp. 117–145). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

1. For greater ease, it is suggested to search the “pdf” files for the following keywords: “theory” or “model” [↑](#footnote-ref-1)
2. Qualitative methods such as critical discourse analysis are usually used. [↑](#footnote-ref-2)
3. Normally, the authors present in the Method a section titled “Stimulus Material”, there you can easily identify the possible options for items 12 and 13. [↑](#footnote-ref-3)
4. Some examples can be seen here: <https://www.iwh.on.ca/what-researchers-mean-by/primary-secondary-and-tertiary-prevention> [↑](#footnote-ref-4)