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## The animated video as a tool for political socialization on the intelligence services

### Abstract

**In secrecy for decades, the terrorist attacks of in 2001 in the heart of our cities have brought the intelligence services and their role in the fight against terrorism closer to a large sector of the population. Post 9/11 studies have shown how knowledge helps to mitigate stress. In this project, the process of preparing two animated videos is described. They offer material to parents and educators that will help to inform young people that, alongside the police and the military, there is another democratic institution with people in charge of protecting them. The field work was conducted with 455 students of between 8 and 16 years old from various Spanish cities. In all, 83% of students considered that the story was of interest as well as the way it was communicated. In conclusion, the animated videos were seen by the schoolchildren as an appropriate means of communicating the role of security institutions.**

### Keywords

**Communication, children, intelligence services, youth, school, democracy, animated video.**

### 1. Introduction

All children and adolescents with whom we speak will have been born after the 2001 terrorist attacks against the United States. Their age implies that ever since they have made use of reason, terrorism has indiscriminately attacked their cities –without the traditional “logic” of ethnic or religious groups targeting selective and symbolic objectives–. But beyond the traumatization of these young people, because of their direct exposure to terrorist attacks, we cannot lose sight of the impact that terrorism has as “toxin in the ecology of human development” of which Bronfenbrenner (1979) spoke; and, in particular, what it means to be born and to grow up in an age of terror for these new citizens.

Technological advances have substantially modified the environment in which our young children grow up. Television and social-media networks have been converted into long-distance eyes that project images before us, existing in worlds far removed from our biological vision; moreover, sound tracks have become long-distance hearing devices propagating sounds originally generated beyond our range of hearing. The Internet has enlarged what McLuhan (1964) called the “global village”, in that the limitations of the physical space are no

longer applicable in a village where we can interact with the other side of the world at the same speed as in a nearby geographic interaction. In this new world, what implied a threat for children and adolescents has been substantially modified. If in the 1930s, children feared wild beasts and thunder, since then, after having feared a nuclear war, what frightens them now are tsunamis, hurricanes, and terrorist attacks (Garbarino *et al.* 2015).

Verbal information and vicarious learning, known to have a role in succumbing to fear and in the anxiety of young children (Field & Lawson, 2003; Field & Schorah, 2007), may be added to the role of television in the development of the perceived personal vulnerability of children (Romer *et al.*, 2003). In fact, the evolution from “thunder” to “terrorism” is, without doubt, due to the notorious relation that exists between consumption of the communications media and the perception of threats and vulnerability that, although it exists in all individuals, is of particular concern in children. Although smaller children are in general more exposed and affected by the news than older children and adults, catastrophic events such as the attacks on New York, Madrid, London, Paris, and Barcelona can have an intense impact at all ages. One study completed with children from schools in the city of New York (Hoven *et al.*, 2002) brought to light a wide range of mental health problems, which included agoraphobia (15%), anxiety due to separation (12%) and disorder due to post-traumatic stress (11%) as consequences of the attacks. The children who reported greater exposure to the news showed higher ratios of Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD) than those children with less exposure to television. This observation was identified in children who were living both close and far away from zone zero (Saylor *et al.*, 2003) and has since been reinforced through the studies compiled by Pfefferbaum (2018).

The mental capability of children to imagine that they face a future threat arises before their capability to imagine future threats towards others. Moreover, given that they are developing a stable sense of security referring to their personal world and that the consumption of television has been associated with high perceptions of personal (not social) vulnerability, the need to analyze this impact is high. Children learn through observation and imitation (Bandura, 1986; Jennings *et al.*, 2009) and, therefore, the role of the intermediaries, such as parents or the school, with respect to which message arrives and how it arrives is fundamental (Comer & Kendall, 2007).

In the case of the intelligence services, parents may do little more than convey the stereotypes that are transmitted by the rest of society and that come from James Bond and the novels of John Le Carré (Shapiro, 2001). Parents may therefore do little more than recreate the stereotypes to which the children have already been exposed through the media and school is a territory where spies do not exist (Quintelier, 2015). However, while the information voids are easy to define, it is more complex to confront the stereotypes; the set of beliefs –positive or negative– which one group of people share, cognitive schemes that influence how a person processes the social information that they receive (McGarty *et al.*, 2002). The stereotypes surrounding the intelligence agencies have been generated and reinforced through different elements –that no other Public Sector organization shares– and which have meant that the population has a distorted view of them. In our opinion, these would be their low accessibility as public institutions for citizens, the lack of recognizable symbols that identify them, the invisibility of the installations that they possess throughout the land, and the very limited public knowledge in daily life that concerns people who admit to working for an intelligence service.

In 2003, also aware of the lack of information on its activities and of the existing stereotypes, the Spanish intelligence service, National Centre of Intelligence (*Centro Nacional de Inteligencia*) (CNI), launched its project on the Intelligence Culture. As it states on its webpage, “this is a policy of public awareness [...] with the aim of raising the awareness of society with regard to the purpose and the functions of the intelligence Service, as an institution that forms part of a democratic State and that acts within the scope

of the legislation to which it is subject. It also seeks to demonstrate the importance of analysis and Intelligence as a key instrument for taking strategic decisions, both at the level of the state and in the private sphere, in an increasing globalized and uncertain environment”.<sup>1</sup> It is necessary, in order to develop the objectives of the intelligence culture –as Díaz (2013) indicated– “to promote knowledge of the mission, the functions, the legislation and supervision of the intelligence services by society” (p. 100). This view fits in with the proposal of van Deth *et al.* (2011), whose field work was directed at obtaining information that distinguished between *Political Awareness* (awareness of institutions) and *Functional Knowledge* (what they do). We used both dimensions in this investigation, because they comprehensively define the institution and the profession.

We employed the model developed by Schwartz and Bilsky (1990) to organize the value system of an individual, so as to analyze the values that we seek to transmit with explicit and implicit messages. In our case, we are only interested in security that they identified as “physical survival and avoiding threats to personal integrity”, but the most characteristic are the values that they attributed to it and that encompass all the dimensions that the videos seek to cover: internal harmony, family safety, national safety, and a world at peace. Therefore, based on the generalized unawareness of the basic premise of the project, the six initial messages that, in our opinion, had to compose the story that was to be told, were as follows: i) the CNI is an entity that informs government decisions; ii) those who work for the CNI are agents, not spies, of which there are two types: analysts and operative agents; iii) the operatives obtain information through different paths (infiltrating in terrorist groups, organizations conspiring against the State...), and the analysts analyze that information; iv) they have three forms of control: political, judicial and parliamentary; v) the CNI has its headquarters in Madrid; and, vi) any Spanish citizen can work for the CNI as easily as in any other State institution. Together with these points, the project searched for and detected other information gaps (the children were unaware that CNI agents worked in a particular building) as well as stereotypes (the children thought that the agents, as they were undercover, could enter their houses at night) that complicated the understanding of what the intelligence services are and what their mission is in a democratic State.

The central objective of the educational system is from very early ages to transmit common values such as human rights and the freedoms that characterize democratic societies (Starkey, 2012). As is known through the studies of Gardner (1991) on children’s perceptions of the police, the world of security represents a struggle for children between the goodies and the baddies. If we follow DiSessa (1982, p. 465) who sustained that appropriate opinions on the police needed to be established during the first years of infancy, it means that we have to convey the existence of institutions –the intelligence services– to new citizens in a democracy whose work is to prevent terrorist attacks and to search for the guilty parties.

As Dalton (2004) sustained, the challenge to present-day democracies is not from the enemies within or outside; the principal challenge is public mistrust of politicians, skepticism shown towards democratic institutions, and disappointment because of the functioning of democratic processes. In this scenario, the constant appearance of “secret” agencies in the television news combating terrorism in the heart of the city, terrorist alerts, simulated evacuations, telephone surveillance... does nothing to improve the situation. The studies by Klein *et al.* (2009) and Carpenter *et al.* (2012) on the reactions of young children following terrorist attacks shows how those informed by their careers expressed greater anxiety. Therefore, if we wish children to participate in a democratic way, free from fear, it

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<sup>1</sup> In greater detail on the first steps of the culture of intelligence, see the monographic edition of *Revista Arbor* CLXXX, 709 (January 2005).

is important to work with them in these initial phases of their lives, because this period of their life, as Sapiro has demonstrated (2004), is essential for the development of their points of view and their commitment as citizens.

The process of political socialization is either understood from the macro-social perspective, which is how “companies and systems inculcate the appropriate norms and practices in citizens, residents and members”, or from the micro-social perspective of the “particular patterns and processes through which individuals participate in political development and learning” (Sapiro, 2004, p. 2). Political socialization is fundamentally concerned with the mechanisms that create and maintain democratic institutions and practices. As McLeod (2009) pointed out, the research that was defined over half a century ago in the sub-field, has centered on infancy and adolescence as critical periods of socialization, often at the expense of the following stages of life, particularly, early adulthood.

From the point of view of democratic theory, it is desirable to rely on citizens who are politically well informed. Political knowledge is therefore a prerequisite for a perceptive evaluation and an understanding of political life. The very relevant question of Almond and Verba (1963), “from where and in what way are the different political attitudes and practices developed that transform the design of democratic constitutions and institutions into the creation of real policies that function in democratic ways?” found its answer in the studies on early political socialization, such as those of Hess and Torney (1967), Greenstein, (1965) and Easton and Dennis (1969): the acquisition of political facts and information starts in infancy.

Therefore, faced with the traditional importance that was attributed to the family as the principal actor of socialization among children and youth when conveying a vision of institutions, more recent studies on political socialization have underlined the importance of experiences at school, the communications media, the peer group, and other experiences of socialization (Sapiro, 2004). Therefore, if the perceptions of the political setting, political orientations and behavioral patterns are generated at an early age (German, 2005, p. 6), then that is where action should be taken to explain the information on the security institutions.

The differences between well informed and poorly informed citizens are dramatic (Delli Carpini & Keeter, 1996, p. 272). Therefore, transmitting a better and a more complete image of the intelligence services to younger citizens, when they are still forming their opinions on the concept of democracy, and transmitting what this political form of governance implies, will have two positive consequences. On the one hand, its consequence will be greater legitimacy and trust among citizens; and, on the other, it will imply increased decision-making capacity and informed opinions on the actions carried out by the intelligence services. The idea —simple but of great relevance in a democratic context— is that the logical-rational process, through which it is supposed that an individual forms an opinion on a social matter (institution, person, idea, etc.), means that the individual, in the first place, has information on that social matter and knows of its existence (Díez Nicolás, 2012, p. 162). Our project is inspired by this logic; it contributes to solving the information gaps and the existing stereotypes on the intelligence services through the development of teaching material in such a way that the impact on historic events —greater when they occur at earlier ages (Schumann & Scott, 1989)— can be mitigated.

## 2. Methodology

The objective of this project was to prepare two animated videos for children between 8 and 11 years in age and for adolescents between 12 and 16 years in age<sup>2</sup> through which to explain the role of an intelligence service to them—in particular the Spanish CNI—in a democratic society.<sup>3</sup> The complex concepts and messages that these videos attempt to transmit, the low level of maturity of the target population, their poor knowledge of basic aspects of security and politics and the associated stereotypes have been detailed in the preceding section. They all imply that the researchers were unable to move directly to the preparation of the story-line and the final edition of the video, before they had previously established the ideal discursive strategy and before they had identified the stereotypes and mistaken ideas that the children and the adolescents held. Hence, the final design of the project was structured into four phases: F1: *investigation* (confirmation of the hypothesis and discursive strategy); F2: *preparation of the script and the storyboard*<sup>4</sup> (drafting of the messages that would give coherence to the script, preparation of the script and the storyboard); F3: *evaluation* (adjustment of the script and the storyboard to the conclusions arising from the research); and, F4: *final edition* (recording the narration and animation of the storyboard). The methodology that was chosen was later to be used by Jiménez *et al.* (2018).

The use of different formats was considered during the design of the project: comic, animated video and story. However, directing the project at the generations that fit within what Palfrey and Gasser (2008) have baptized the generation of “digital natives” led us to select the animated video rather than the comic or the story. In particular, the video was justified as a format in that: i) it permits a combination of verbal, visual, textual, graphical and musical mediums, thereby achieving a greater capacity for the transmission of the final message; ii) audiovisual channels are the principal on-line format that the target population—children and adolescents—consume; hence their greater receptivity towards this type of material; and, iii) it can be reproduced on different channels (television, Internet) and devices (mobiles, computers, tablets, etc.), permitting individual screenings or as part of educational programs for citizenship.

## 3. Participants

A total of 1,092 children and adolescents of both sexes participated throughout the whole project. They were drawn from eight Spanish colleges and institutes in the cities of Cadiz, Jerez de la Frontera, Seville and Mairena del Aljarafe and Gines: 44.8% were boys (n=489) and 55.2% girls (n=603). They were aged between 8 and 16 years old (average=12.14 years; standard deviation=2.54). Among them, 45.3% (n=495) were students in Primary Education (Prim. Ed.) and 54.7% (n=597) in Compulsory Secondary Education (Sec. Ed.). A total of 545 students participated in this testing phase of the research, of whom 90 [8.2% of the total sample; boys=46% (n=41), girls=54% (n=49)] in the pre-test and the remaining 455 [41.7% of the total; boys=40.2% (n=219), girls=59.8% (n=236)] in the post-test. The sample is of an average size among those usually employed in studies on knowledge and evaluation of

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<sup>2</sup> The Spanish Educational System is organized in its obligatory phase in Primary Education (Prim. Ed.), between 6 and 12 years in age and Compulsory Secondary Education (*Educación Secundaria Obligatoria*) (Sec. Ed.) from 12 to 16 years in age.

<sup>3</sup> Although the videos were initially planned in Spanish, the interest generated by the project led to the preparation of a version in English with a view to expand potential studies about the impact of animated videos in communication with children. The videos are available from the following link <http://bit.ly/2BMmvTF> to the University of Cádiz.

<sup>4</sup> A storyboard is a set of pictures and words shown in sequence that serve as a guide to understand a story, previewing an animated video or following the structure of a film before it is produced or even filmed.

police studies, such as those by Moretz (1980) with 137 participants, Hurst (2000) with 852, Nihart (2005) with 102, and Sindall *et al.* (2016) with 1500.

### 3.1. Phase 1. Investigation

#### 3.1.1. Pre-test and formulation of the hypothesis

Having found no previous research on which to base our work referring to the views that children and adolescents have of the intelligence services, the researchers turned to the numerous studies –as methodological support– existing on the perception that children have of the police. However, a pre-test was needed to obtain the initial data –in March 2016– in which 90 children and adolescents participated, with the objective of testing the best way of gathering information and detecting areas of greater unawareness. With the objective of obtaining information on *Political Awareness* (knowledge of institutions) and *Functional Knowledge* (knowledge of its functions) we organized various discussion groups of between 15 and 20 students, posing open questions such as the following: i) What is a spy<sup>5</sup>?, ii) What is the CNI?, iii) What is the work of a spy?, iv) Can spies have a family?, v) Do spies know each other?, and, vi) Where do spies work? While one of the investigators asked the questions, the other analyzed the speed, homogeneity and clarity of the responses in such a way that some topics were reintroduced and others were separated, either because they were clear, or because silence was evidence of complete unawareness.

The main aim of the researchers was to produce an audiovisual tool, to test where the animated video is an appropriate technique for transmitting the role of intelligence services in a democratic system to schoolchildren. Based on the previous knowledge of the authors and the results of the pre-test, the following hypotheses were advanced on the beliefs that children and adolescents have on spies that, if validated, would be turned into one of the central messages of the videos:

- H1. They are hidden in society, so that you cannot know who they are.
- H2. They do not identify the acronym CNI with the Spanish intelligence service.
- H3. The work of the CNI includes the use of arms.
- H4. They perform similar work to the police, the military, and private detectives.
- H5. They are in their majority men.
- H6. There is a belief that spies have no family.
- H7. They are of a young age.
- H8. They do not know each other.
- H9. It is not possible to know where they work.

#### 3.1.2. Compilation of information: instrument and procedure

Learning from the pre-test and the recommendations on working with children of Thomas and O’Kane (1998) and Punch (2002a) led us to employ three different techniques to gather the information: a drawing, a questionnaire of open and closed questions, and a debate. This specific model has been used in other studies on the perceptions of the functions of the police such as the one by van Deth *et al.* (2011). Each working session –which was developed between March and April 2016– started by asking participants to “draw a spy”. This technique of drawing has been used in other studies with young children (Gemmeke, 1994; Wright *et al.*, 1995; Sartain *et al.*, 2000; Morgan *et al.*, 2002; Barker & Weller, 2003; Leonard, 2006) and, in this project, due to the complexity of the concept that was worked, it was considered that sketching would permit the participants to reflect for a reasonable length of

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<sup>5</sup> Although the authors prefer the term “agent”, for the purposes of clarity, the more common term of “spy” was used with young children.

time on their own ideas and express them in the drawing, as Miles (2000) and Haug (2013) have pointed out.

When they had finished the drawing, they were administered the questionnaire with the following items: i) sex and age of the participant; ii) describe a spy with three adjectives; the number of three insofar as the first is the most automatic and generalized, while the second and the third require greater reflection (Punch, 2002b); iii) concept of CNI; iv) confusion with police, military and private detectives; v) sex of the spies; vi) family life; vii) age of spies; viii) relationship with spies; and, ix) place of work. In the closed questions, following the recommendation of Williams (1999) and Waterman *et al.* (2001), the participants were encouraged to include –very spontaneous– comments –due to their young age– in the margins, which were then processed, to interpret the drawings; a dynamic previously initiated in the classic study by Derbyshire (1968). Finally, before finishing each session, a small debate was opened that would bring content to the surface that had not been recognized, as recommended by Driessnack (2005).

### 3.1.3. Results

The results of the analysis of the hypotheses on the beliefs that children and adolescents have of spies are as follows:

H1) *They are hidden in society, so that you cannot know who they are.* Of the 455 drawings, we analyzed: i) the place where the participants picture the spy; and ii) the clothing the spies wear. In all, 67.6% students drew them behind something (a tree, a building, a newspaper, etc.), conveying the idea that the spy is a person who observes without being observed. Moreover, 89.7% included some accessory or clothing related to a concealed identity, such as sunglasses, gabardines, or high collars.

This analysis is congruent with the most widely used adjectives by the participants to describe a spy, which are compiled in Table 1, where it may be confirmed that four of the six adjectives first used by participants have a direct relation with the characteristic of “hidden”. However, this opacity would not necessarily imply negativity; of the ten adjectives, there are only two with negative connotations –“wicked” (8.8%) and “cold” (5%)– and they are placed very much in the background. It may be highlighted that the Prim. Ed. students described the spies as “wicked” more frequently than the Sec. Ed. students (12% as against 5.8%), perhaps because of their more fantasized viewpoints, far removed from the reality and the real functions of a spy.

**Table 1.** Adjectives used to describe a spy

Position	Adjective	% Prim. Ed.	% Sec. Ed.	Total num.	% total
1 <sup>st</sup>	Stealthy	41.9	43.7	195	42.9
2 <sup>nd</sup>	Infiltrated	36.3	35.4	163	35.8
3 <sup>rd</sup>	Observer	35.4	32.5	154	33.8
4 <sup>th</sup>	Discreet	24.6	30.8	127	27.9
5 <sup>th</sup>	Intelligent	22.3	23.3	104	22.9
6 <sup>th</sup>	Secret	15.8	15.8	72	15.8
7 <sup>th</sup>	Wicked	12	5.8	40	8.8
8 <sup>th</sup>	Agile	5.6	6.3	27	5.9
9 <sup>th</sup>	Cold	4.6	4.4	23	5
10 <sup>th</sup>	Armed	1.9	3.7	13	2.9

H2) *They do not identify the acronym CNI with the Spanish intelligence service.* Of the 455 children and adolescents who composed the sample, only three knew how to answer what the meaning of the CNI acronym stood for. The remainder responded that it was the “*Centro Nacional de Investigación*” or variations on this theme and that it was the place where the policed analyzed crime. The results therefore validated H2.

H3) *The work of the CNI includes the use of arms.* This hypothesis was analyzed through the adjectives and the drawings. According to the results of the analysis of the adjectives, only 2.9% defined the spy as “armed”. However, when the presence of arms was analyzed in the drawings, it was found that 56.2% of participants had drawn the spy carrying at least one type of arm (pistol, laser sword, bombs, etc.). H3 was therefore confirmed.

H4) *They perform similar work to the police, the military, and private detectives.* The results made it clear that the main confusion arose between spies and private detectives, as 79.8% of participants considered that both professions were similar. In contrast, there was less confusion with the police and the military (29.7% and 16.7%, respectively). The analysis of the responses on the similarities between spies and private detectives showed the roots of that confusion in the uncertain knowledge of the participants relating to the functions of both professions, unlike the functions of the police and the military. Thus, they answered that spies and private detectives are similar because they “monitor people and investigate many things, “are almost identical”, “always move around silently”, “both are private” or “they are both secret”. In consequence, the hypothesis was partially confirmed, given that the confusion only occurred in a significant way with the private detectives.

H5) *They are in their majority men.* The results rejected this hypothesis, because the participants chose the egalitarian option (a similar proportion between male and female spies) in 47% of cases and 7.9% thought that there were more women than men. While the majority option among men was that there were more male than female spies (49.3%), the female participants selected the existence of spies in the same proportion (49.6%) (Table 2).

**Table 2.** Proportion of male and female spies by gender

	Men (%)	Women (%)
Equal	42.9	49.6
More men	49.3	38.6
More women	6.4	9.3
Don't know/No answer	1.4	2.5

H6) *There is a belief that spies have no family.* The results indicated that even though the participants understand that the spy is an undercover figure, spies can have a family life (78.1% in Prim. Ed. and 77.5% in Sec. Ed.). Those children who believed either that they could not have children (12.1% in Prim. Ed. and 10% in Sec. Ed.) or that they could not have any type of family life (9.8% in Prim. Ed. and 12.5% in Sec. Ed.), added that it was to avoid exposure to risks. So H6 was therefore rejected.

H7) *They are of a young age.* The results confirmed that the majority of students believed that spies are between 20 and 40 years old (81.9% in Prim. Ed. and 70.8% in Sec. Ed.), and less than 1% (0.9% in Prim. Ed. and 0.8% in Sec. Ed.) believed that they can be over 50 years old. So, the results confirmed H7.

H8) *They do not know each other.* The participants of Prim. Ed. and Sec. Ed. were in agreement, at around 60%, that spies can know each other. The reasons that they found



were “to help each other out” and “so that there are no fights between some of them”. These answers reflect that they do not consider spying to be a solitary profession, but a team effort, and they reaffirmed the view that they are hidden from society for operational, but not for conceptual reasons. In consequence, the results rejected H8.

H9) *It is not possible to know where they work.* Both groups (Prim. Ed.=57%; Sec. Ed.=65.4%) believed that it was not possible to know where they worked; in other words, the workplace of spies would be as secret as their profession. Some students justified their responses, insofar as knowing where they work “would be dangerous”, others because the workplaces “are secret because of the particular profession of spies” and others argued that “they cannot reveal their place of work to protect their identities”. Around 7% of the participants –all from Prim. Ed.– thought that they work in “abandoned factories”, “secret workplaces”, “hideouts”, or “in their own home”. A small percentage (1.4%) of participants from Prim. Ed. answered that the place of work may be known, depending on whether they are contracted by secret organizations, individuals, or by the police, which is an indirect indicator of their confusion with private detectives (H4). In conclusion, the results confirmed H9.

### 3.2. Phase 2. Preparation of the script and storyboard

This phase took place between June and September 2016. A further eight messages were added to the six initial messages established by the researchers, generated as a result of testing the hypotheses in the investigative phase. H8 (“can know each other”) was the only hypothesis that was discarded and not included as a message, as the participants appeared to be clear about the information. The final list of messages is covered in Table 3 and encompasses all those that the investigators wished to transmit plus those generated from the hypotheses that were confirmed during the investigation –emphasized in italics–. There were differences in the internal layout of the script, if those messages were: i) explicit (they would be conveyed through explicit sentences in the text) or implicit (they would be conveyed through images), or if they were ii) transversal (they would appear throughout the video) or specific (they would appear at a specific time in the video).

**Table 3.** List of messages by order of appearance and condition

Messages to transmit	Condition
<i>1) CNI is the acronym of the Centro Nacional de Inteligencia</i>	Explicit, Specific
2) CNI is an entity that supports the decisions of the Government	Explicit, Transversal
<i>3) Men and women work for the CNI in equal numbers</i>	Implicit, Transversal
<i>4) CNI employees are of all ages</i>	Implicit, Transversal
5) They are agents, not spies, and there are two types: analysts and operative agents	Explicit, Transversal
6) The operatives obtain information through different mediums, and the analysts analyze it	Explicit, Specific
7) The intelligence report is the document where they express their conclusions	Explicit, Specific
<i>8) Their work is different from the work of the police, the military, and private detectives</i>	Explicit, Specific
<i>9) They use no arms</i>	Explicit, Specific

<i>10) They have families and children, but sometimes they might not know their profession</i>	Explicit, Specific
11) They have three forms of supervision: political, judicial and parliamentary	Explicit, Specific
<i>12) They have their headquarters in Madrid</i>	Explicit, Implicit, Transversal
13) Anybody can work for the CNI	Explicit, Specific
<i>14) They are not secret, but discrete</i>	Explicit, Specific

The scripts of the two videos –“Do you want to know about the CNI?”– were drafted on the basis of the final list of 14 messages. The high levels of unawareness of the intelligence services that the young children expressed during the pre-test meant that the contents had to be sequenced in a way that would supply the information needed to understand the reasoning that was followed when unable to trust in the assumptions based on their knowledge. As Samaniego and Pascual (2007, p. 10) proposed, the intention was to create a vertical thought process through the videos: thoughts organized in hierarchy that would permit inference and deduction. In addition, motivated by the different degrees of maturity of both groups, some differences were established between both videos: i) a simpler language with short sentences for the children; ii) simplified messages for the children (for example, instead of the three forms of control, only judicial supervision was explained to them, as it was the one they knew best); and, iii) the use of simpler drawings in the video for the children with fewer details than in the video for the adolescents.

Even though 100% of the decisions concerning the design of the project were taken by the researchers, as a courtesy, the final versions of both scripts were forwarded to CNI, so as to hear its opinion on whether any specific aspects did not properly reflect its reality. The design of the video by the investigators received its whole-hearted support. After confirming the content of the scripts, they were sent on to the firm that had been contracted to prepare the storyboard.

### 3.3. Phase 3. Evaluation

Between September and October 2016, a video animation firm prepared both storyboards. Once approved by the research team, a screening was arranged with children and adolescents to evaluate their suitability. In concrete, the objective was to test: i) whether the end-users of each of the videos –children and adolescents– assimilated the messages that it was intended to convey through the narration and the images; and, ii) if they found it attractive.

Each evaluation session began with the screening of the storyboard images while the text was read out aloud, moving immediately to the administration of a questionnaire with 12 questions (10 on the content of the videos and 2 on the evaluation of the images) to the students. The content-related questions had three possible responses where only one of them was the correct one: i) concept of CNI; ii) difference between an analyst and an operative; iii) how CNI is controlled; iv) sex of the spies; v) family life; vi) work that they do; vii) who can work at CNI; viii) place of work; ix) not secret but discrete; and, x) confusion with detectives.

As the final objective was to confirm that the messages in the videos had been correctly assimilated, the evaluation was conducted over two days, as this would permit the modification of the script, in case the results of the first day were not over the success rate of 80% established by the investigators to validate the contents. The evaluation questions were rated on a five-point Likert-type scale, where 1 was the lowest and 5 the highest value. The analysis of the data was done using the statistical measure of the mode for which

purpose the researchers set the optimal threshold for both items –interest in history and suitability of images for the script– when the mode was greater than or equal to  $4 \geq (M_04)$ .

During the first day, the average percentage success rates of the Prim. Ed. participants was 86.5%, higher than the figure of 80% established as the threshold, but in the case of the Sec. Ed. participants, it was 74.1%. The question that both the Prim. Ed. and the Sec. Ed. participants answered mistakenly most of all was “What is the Centro Nacional de Inteligencia?”, yielding a percentage success rate of 41.7% and 61.7%, respectively. In addition, this question was the only one in which the Prim. Ed. participants never exceeded 80% of successful answers. The responses of those who answered erroneously confused the work of CNI that is to inform the work of government with the specific work of the government, which is to take decisions. The Sec. Ed. participants obtained scores below 80% in the other two questions: the difference between analysts and operative agents (53.2%) and how CNI is supervised (51.1%). With these data, changes were introduced for the following working day. In the script for Sec. Ed. students, the sentences introducing the messages relating to the differences between analysts and operatives and on the types of supervisory control were modified, through the use of sentences that made the message more explicit and direct and by adding information. In Table 4, the modifications are listed for both videos.

**Table 4.** Changes to the video scripts

PRIMARY EDUCATION (Prim. Ed.)		
	Initial wording	Modified sentence
Concept of CNI	This is the National Intelligence Centre or CNI that is in charge of giving her information so that she protects us from terrorists, helps Spain achieve better relations with other countries, and improves our economy.	The <i>Centro Nacional de Inteligencia</i> or CNI is there to help her, by giving her information, for example, so that the President protects us from terrorists, helps Spain achieve better relations with other countries and improves our economy
SECONDARY EDUCATION (Sec. Ed.)		
Concept of the CNI	All countries have intelligence services, to help the Government take the best decisions. The Spanish intelligence service is called the <i>Centro Nacional de Inteligencia</i> .	All countries have intelligence services, to help the Government take the best decisions. The intelligence service is called the <i>Centro Nacional de Inteligencia</i> . The mission of the CNI is only to assist the Government to take decisions to protect us from terrorists and criminals, and to improve international and economic relations and the Spanish economy. ¿How do we do so? We only give the Government information.
Different types of agents	Two types of agents work in the CNI. The analysts speak different languages and are specialists at analyzing data using powerful software programs. The operatives are both in Spain and abroad. They obtain information from the press, relating it with the population and infiltrating dangerous groups.	In films, we are called spies but in reality we are “agents” and there are two sorts of us. The operatives are in charge of obtaining information from the press, mixing with the public and they infiltrate dangerous groups. We are in Spain and abroad. Some of us need to pass by unnoticed, so as to gather information. They send all this information to the headquarters in Madrid, where the analysts are in charge of its analysis. To do so, they speak different languages and are specialists at analyzing data using powerful software programs.
Control	For their important work, they have special powers and technologies,	For their important work, they have special powers and technologies, for which reason the

	<p>hence the need for controls to ensure they are using them correctly.                  (i) The first control point is the government.                  (ii) The CNI can only go into one house or tap a telephone, if a special judge gives them permission to do so and always with plenty of justification.                  (iii) And every six months, the director answer questions from the members of Parliament.</p>	<p>CNI has three controls.                  (i) The first control is when the government assigns the objectives that it should carry out.                  (ii) The CNI can only go into a house or tap a telephone, if a special judge gives them permission to do so and always with plenty of justification.                  (iii) And every six months, the director goes before a special parliamentary committee to answer questions from the members of Parliament.                  With these controls, the public can learn that the powers they give us to protect them are being used properly and are within the law.</p>
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The average percentage of correct answers on the second day was 8% higher among the Prim. Ed. participants –percentage of correct answers=93.5%– and 19.9% among the Sec. Ed. participants –percentage of correct answers=88.9%–. From the analysis of the data on the second day, it was concluded that the changes introduced to the script of the video for Prim. Ed. students represented an increase of 88.8% in correct answers among the participants to the question on the concept of CNI and its mission. The percentage of correct answers for this same question also increased, although less so –14.9%–, in the case of the script for students of Sec. Ed. With regard to the other two messages, it increased by 48.1%, on the question regarding the difference between agents and by 31.7% for the question on the types of control available to the CNI.

With regard to the level of their interest in the story that they had been told (script) and the pictures (storyboard), the Prim. Ed. participants expressed a very positive evaluation. In concrete, the responses to the question “How interesting did you find the story?” had a mode of 5, a value that was concentrated in 74% of the responses on the first day, 83% on the second day, and only 10 participants out of the total of 201 Prim. Ed. students rated their interest in the story with a score equal to or over 3. The Sec. Ed. participants also evaluated the story in a favorable way, although they were less enthusiastic than the Prim. Ed. students; a low number of Sec. Ed. participants –34 from among the total of 253 participants– rated their interest in the story with a score equal to or less than 3.

Finally, both the Prim. Ed. and the Sec. Ed. participants thought that the pictures “have helped me greatly” to understand the story; the mode for both groups standing at 5 (51% of the responses in EP and 46% of the responses in ESO), and the following most frequent value was 4 in both groups. These results meant we could validate both the script and the storyboard, allowing us to dispatch the final versions to the video producer for the production of the videos.

### 3.4. Phase 4. Edition

The last phase of the editing work took place between October 2016 and January 2017 when the final version of the video was produced. The images were complemented with emotive, affective, esthetic and musical elements, in accordance with the suggestions from Millerson (1988) and Meyer (2012), adopting the principles for the creation of didactic videos (Ortega, 1997; Chion, 1990; Cebrián *et al.*, 2008). The music was especially composed for both videos.







With regard to the range of colors, it was decided to use color with the children and, more specifically, bright shiny and shaded colors with only three tonalities. The forms were rounded. The style of the characters assumed simple and friendly forms. The backgrounds were very white to compensate the use of color in the characters. With regard to the adolescents, more stylized and larger forms were chosen with a color range of secondary

colors. The characters were closer to real people and the backgrounds were only clear with the highest volume of these people filling the scenes.

**Table 5.** Images from the Sec. Ed. Video

<p>Figure 1. Minute 0:37</p> 	<p>Figure 2. Minutes 1:05-1:36 and 2:55</p> 	<p>Figure 3. Minute 1:25</p> 
<p>CNI is the acronym of the <i>Centro Nacional de Inteligencia</i></p>	<p>Both men and women can be spies</p>	<p>They are of all ages</p>
<p>Figure 4. Minute 2:21</p> 	<p>Figure 5. Minute 2:35</p> 	<p>Figure 6. Minute 2:46</p> 
<p>Their work is different from the police, the military and private detectives</p>	<p>They do not use arms</p>	<p>They have families and children, but sometimes their families are unaware of their profession</p>
<p>Figure 7. Minute 0:49</p> 	<p>Figure 8. Minute 3:05</p> 	
<p>They have a recognized headquarters</p>	<p>They are not secret, but discrete</p>	

**Table 6.** Secondary Education Video Images

<p>Figure 1. Minute 0:34</p> 	<p>Figure 2. Minute 1:05</p> 	<p>Figure 3. Minutes 1:07-1:36</p> 
<p>CNI is an entity that supports the decisions of Government</p>	<p>They are agents, not spies, and there are two types: analysts and operatives</p>	<p>The operatives obtain information and the analysts analyze it</p>
<p>Figure 4. Minute 1:41</p> 	<p>Figure 5. Minutes 1:45-2:20</p> 	<p>Figure 6. Minute 2:22</p> 
<p>The intelligence report is a document where they express their conclusions</p>	<p>They have three controls: political, judicial and parliamentary</p>	<p>Anybody can work at the CNI</p>

After these finishing touches –ensuring that there would be no incoherencies, that the order of the sequences was correct, among others– it was sent to CNI, to make sure the story appeared coherent with its own view of reality, receiving its approval once again, as it had done for the script. In Tables 5 and 6, a selection of screen-shots are presented from both videos alongside the messages transmitted in the voice-overs. For explanatory purposes, as the complete videos are available from the links in footnote 3, some scenes that transmit the messages defined in the course of the investigation were selected from the video for the children. Likewise, other scenes that transmit the messages that the

researchers had, at the start of the project, devised from their starting premises, were selected from the video for the adolescents.

#### 4. Conclusions

Unawareness of the intelligence services is high among schoolchildren and they hold numerous stereotypes of them. The project has shown how the animated video is a valid teaching tool that shows the importance of security institutions to schoolchildren. It has also shown the importance of their participation through drawings and workshops to identify the messages, stereotypes, and principal attitudes. The aim with this dynamic has been to move away from the institutional message by following a top-down approach and to transmit the messages beginning with the views that the end-users, in this case the schoolchildren, already had. This study has advanced classic studies on political socialization by incorporating an often forgotten institution, the intelligence services, into the study of political institutions for young children. The process of preparing these materials is coherent with other fields and, therefore, opens the door to further advances in political socialization and communication.

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