**Walking the talk: an investigation of the
pedagogical practices and discourses
of an international broadcasting organisation**

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Abstract

Increasingly our knowledge of the world around us comes from the media, mediated by professional broadcasters. As the education and training of broadcasters has progressively become associated with educational institutions there has been more theorising about what broadcasters should know and how they should be educated, however the actual educational and training practices of broadcasting organisations remains under researched and under theorised. This research looks at the educational and training practices of an international broadcasting organisation and how they are sustained by the organisational ethos through a series of interviews with people directly involved in the organisation's training practices and an examination of a selection of the organisation's promotional and policy documents. From this comes a picture of an organisation committed to excellence and also a vision of broadcasting as an emancipatory activity. This commitment and vision is reflected in its in-house training practices and also its media development work. The interviews with trainers, project managers, administrators and researchers reveal broadcasters who are pragmatic idealists and reflective practitioners and whose passion and commitment to the transformative powers of education and training are undeniable.

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Chapter 1   Introduction

As the education and training of broadcasters has progressively become associated with educational institutions there has been more theorising about what broadcasters should know and how they should be educated, however the actual educational and training practices of broadcasting organisations remain under researched and under theorised.

1.1   Field of study

This research looks at the educational and training practices of an international broadcasting organisation: Deutsche Welle (DW). Deutsche Welle produces a multilingual media services for a global audience. It is acknowledged as a leading international broadcaster; for the quality of its news and current affairs; high production values; and diversity of its programmes. DW carries out in-house training in editorial, technical and managerial areas; offers several internship programmes. Deutsche Welle is also recognised as a significant training provider in the world of media development where it has been actively involved in education and training for over 40 years. Through DW-Akademie, the division of DW which manages external training, DW has recently become involved in the delivery of a post-graduate Masters programme in International Media Studies (IMS). Because of the diversity of its activities DW offers an exceptional opportunity to investigate broadcasting education and training and develop a better understanding of how broadcasting education is managed and sustained. The majority of this research was carried out in Bonn, Germany where Deutsche Welle and DW-Akademie are based.

1.2   Scope of study

The fundamental purpose of educational research is to develop new knowledge about educational phenomena (Borg & Gall, 1989). The purpose of this research is to find out more about the training and education practices of an international broadcasting organisation. This study is not intended to be a detailed or exhaustive description of the organisation's training practices nor should it be seen as any kind of evaluation of the organisation or its training practices. Rather, this study aims to provide some insight into how one organisation manages its educational and training practices and how people directly engaged in training and media development understand and talk about what they do and the ethos that sustains them.

1.3   Specific objectives

The mission statement of Deutsche Welle includes the goals to promote intercultural dialog; communicate the values of democracy; and pass on its know-how to partners throughout the world (Deutsche Welle, 2010). Fine sounding rhetoric about dialog and skill sharing can be found in the mission statements of many organisations but is not always matched by the practices of the organisation. This research looks at the question of how one organisation achieves its goals: how does Deutsche Welle 'walk the talk'?

The objectives of this study are:

- To present an overview of the educational and training practices of an international broadcasting organisation;
- To provide an insight into the values that inform and govern these practices;
- To place these practices within a wider educational and pedagogical discourse; and,
- To identify areas for further investigation and reflection.

Living in Germany for part of this study made it possible for me to make personal contact with people directly involved in different aspects of training at Deutsche Welle and DW-Akademie and thereby gain a better understanding of the organisation's training practice. My broadcasting background and training as a journalist as well as experiences as a peer educator in the community broadcasting sector gave me a valuable standpoint from which to understand the language and discourses encountered and also helped establish a rapport with the interview participants.

1.4   Structure of thesis

The training and educational activities of Deutsche Welle are grounded in three major fields or discourses: broadcasting, journalism and development. These discourses provide the background for this study and are explored in Chapter 2. Relevant literature and research is referred to through the study rather than presenting a separate literature review, as recommended by Evans and Gruba (2002). Chapter 3 describes the research methodology and strategies adopted to collect and analyse data, specifically the use of an interpretive phenomenological approach and a combined thematic and narrative analysis. In Chapter 4, I present and discuss the research findings from a series of interviews with people

directly involved in DW and a review of some of the organisation's policy and promotional documents. The decision to combine the findings with the discussion is based on a desire to take make best use of the rich resource provided by the interview participants. The findings are discussed in Chapter 4 using themes that emerged from the data. In Chapter 5 I present my conclusions and suggest areas for further research.

1.5   Theoretical framework

The theoretical framework chosen for any research influences the approach taken and provides the context in which the conclusions of the research are understood (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992). I have adopted a predominantly interpretivist approach for this study, influenced by a critical conception of social science which sees human action as historical, traditional, embedded and embodied (Fay, 1987). Knowledge and action are conceived as socially constructed and historically embedded; subject to interpretation and change and theory and practice are held to have a dialectical relationship. Critical theorists contend problematic situations are always in part dependent on the characteristics of the situation and the people involved. Further, solutions and understandings of problematic situations must be found in the context of the particular situation.

The aim of an interpretive phenomenological approach is to uncover the meanings and value of given phenomena by the participants involved in those phenomena: in this case, the educational and training activities of an international broadcasting organisation by people directly engaged in the organisation's training activities. This type of approach looks for how individuals perceive and make sense of their experiences before any interpretation by the researcher and encourages participants to provide detailed narratives of their experiences and their own interpretations. From these accounts emerge interpretations that are idiosyncratic, that is unique to the individual, and also interpretations or understandings that can be considered to be shared across a group of participants. Through interviews with people directly involved in some aspect of DW's education and training practices and a review of a selection of policy and promotional material produced by DW a picture is built up of the values and beliefs underlying those practices.

This study draws on the work of diverse theorists: Jürgen Habermas' conception of the public sphere and speculations about the role of normative theories (Habermas, 2006) backgrounds understanding the normative values associated with the discourses of broadcasting and journalism; Pierre Bourdieu's concept of habitus or disposition to act (Webb, Schirato, & Danaher, 2002), helps explain why broadcasters or journalists act in certain ways. Bourdieu wrote extensively about the field of cultural production and while his theorising about media is seldom concerned with specific media practices and issues (Berkeley, 2009), it nevertheless provides a useful resource for thinking about media practices (Schirato, Buettner, Jutel, & Stahl, 2009). Media is used throughout this work as both a plural and singular term; as a collective noun and an adjective, and in a technical and political sense, for example, digital media and global or independent media. Other juxtapositions clarify or specify the aspect of media referred to; 'mass media' refers to media specifically intended to reach a large audience; 'multimedia' indicates more than one type of media is involved; and 'news media' identifies a form of content.

Michel Foucault's argument that understanding contemporary discursive practices is at least partly based on knowledge of the historical circumstances (McHoul & Grace, 1993) led to an investigation of the history and traditions of broadcasting training (see Appendix A) which provides a background for understanding DW's educational and training practices. The work of two pioneers in the field of organisational studies: Mary Parker Follett (1868-1933) and Joanne Woodward (1916-1971) underlie my understanding of organisations. Woodward's studies found that what an organisation did, which she identified as its technology, was significant for its organisational structure (Tippett, 1992). Her theories were considered controversial because they challenged the notion that building given structures into an organisation was sufficient to control organisational behaviour and productivity. They are now recognised as a key element in contingency theories. Woodward's theory of organisations is discussed further in Chapter 2. Parker Follett wrote extensively on workplace relations, recognising the importance of negotiation and participation. She also developed the idea of an 'authority of expertise'; expanding on the three different kinds of authority identified by sociologist Max Weber: legitimate (related to societal position), traditional (cultural status) and charismatic (personal). This is relevant in relation to the professional identity of journalists and broadcasters, as well as in relation to education and training.

Other theorists informing my conceptual framework are Basil Bernstein whose studies of educational practices within conventional educational environments show how there is always more to educational exchange than the formal curriculum (Bernstein, 1990); the New London Group's (2000) whose proposed 'pedagogy of multiliteracies' addresses issues relevant to the education of broadcasters and linking pedagogy and discourse theories, sociolinguist James Gee (1996) who describes simply how social discourses are produced and maintained. Gee explains discourses in terms of roles: saying the 'right' sorts of things, in terms of a particular discourse, in the right way, while engaging in the right sorts of actions and interactions and appearing to think and feel the right way and have the right sorts of values.

All the theorists mentioned can to some extent be identified as critical theorists, in that they look at what is, in the light of what could be. They provide essentially value driven perspectives that seek not only to provide explanations for what is, but also tools to shape what may be which is appropriate for research looking at educational and training practices.

1.6   Terminology

Broadcaster and broadcasting are inclusive terms covering radio, television and the Internet, although the latter use is sometimes contested by purists who argue the Internet is not strictly a broadcast medium. A broadcaster can mean a public or corporate organisation that 'broadcasts' messages to an audience irrespective of medium. It is also used to refer to people engaged in the activity of broadcasting. The term is used in both ways in this study. Broadcasting encompasses multiple discourses from those associated with global media conglomerates to those associated with the media equivalent of cottage industry: community broadcasting.

'Broadcaster', 'journalist' as well as 'media practitioner' are used to describe people working with communication technologies. The term broadcaster is used more often than journalist or media practitioner because it is less cumbersome and because it encompasses a wider range of editorial, managerial and technical roles than journalist. 'Broadcasting education' rather than 'media education' is used to avoid confusion with media studies which tend to focus media industries and media products rather than media practitioners and to distinguish it from media literacy which is more often concerned with educating people *about* the media than educating media practitioners. The distinction between media training

and media development training is discussed in Chapter 4. The term development is used in several different contexts: in relation to the professional development of broadcasters; in relation to the development of skills and media systems; and, in relation to societal development. The sense in which development is used should be clear from the context in which it occurs.

1.7 Language and writing style

All writing constitutes some form of constructed narrative and is part of a meta narrative that gives specific meaning to the words used and determines what words are used and the order they occur in (Richardson, 1990). Different language is associated with different discourses, for example, discourse and pedagogy are comfortably used in academic discussions about education and society, but they are not part of most people's everyday language. Word choices and sentence constructions convey specific, and sometimes very different, meanings to different readers. Historically science and literature developed different writing genres; each creating and reflecting a particular view of reality. Writing in the social sciences has adopted literary devices and conventions drawn from both traditions.

Given all the contemporary critiques of written presentation, it is hard not to be self-conscious about writing style and word selection. I have adopted a style that acknowledges the author but avoids constant reference. New Zealand spelling conventions are used except when quoting work where the original author uses other conventions. The convention of using "they", "their", "them" as a singular non-gender specific pronoun, rather than, "he or she" and "his or her" is used unless the gender of the author is known. When something is commonly known by its acronym, the acronym is used after the first reference except where it improves comprehension to restate the full name. I have tried to avoid using excessive media jargon but some broadcasting terms and language is unavoidable. Where there is ambivalence about a term or meaning, I have discussed the words used in greater detail. Throughout this work I have tried to balance the demands of academic research with the journalist's desire to tell a good story.

Chapter 2   Ideological and organisational contexts

The training practices of Deutsche Welle take place in a specific organisational context and convergence of discursive fields. Identifying anything as a discursive field identifies it as something that is a product of specific social, historical and institutional processes which exists within a specific ideological and organisational context. Within any discursive field there are multiple discourses and each has varying degrees of power to give meaning to, and organise the social practices and institutions of the field (McHoul & Grace, 1993). When a discourse is dominant, its particular configuration of knowledge is accepted as common sense; the right way to do things, sometimes the only way to do things, although, while other discourses may be marginalised, they can never be completely suppressed because they are part of a shared field. The training and educational activities of Deutsche Welle are grounded in three major fields or discourses: broadcasting, journalism and development.

Broadcasting is a complex institutional field with competing organisational, ideological and economic discourses (Moran, 1992). Journalism is another complex and contested field (Zöllner, 2006). The discourses of journalism and broadcasting are closely related and sometimes a question can be framed in terms of either discourse. Digital technologies are changing our conception of a broadcaster and blurring the boundaries between the discourse of broadcasting and journalism. Development is by definition an interdisciplinary field in which "economic, political, technological, social and cultural factors interact" (Kingsbury, 2004 p. 12). These three fields meet as discourses in the field of media development.

2.1   Journalism

There has been on-going debate about whether journalism is a craft, a trade or a profession since the nineteenth century, when the processes of professionalization of journalism began (Høyer & Lauk, 2003; Tumber, 2006). The value placed on practical skills by working journalists and their employers, has tended to give prominence to the craft and trade aspects of journalism, however as journalist and broadcasting training is increasingly carried out by tertiary institutions (Frith & Meech, 2007), there is increasing identification of journalism as a profession and an assumption the theoretical aspects of journalism are understood.

There are competing visions of what journalism is and how it should be (Conboy, 2004). These relate directly to questions about what roles the media should have (De Beer & Merrill, 2004; Siebert, Peterson, & Schramm, 1963). The sustaining myths and traditional practices of journalism are being challenged and changed in the context of cultural and technological developments (Deuze, 2006). When a story can be broadcast by anyone with a mobile phone and access to the Internet, the definitions of a broadcaster and a journalist need to be re-examined (Hume, 2007). But new media represents only the latest revolution in Western journalism which began with the development of limited periodic news sheets in Europe in the 1600s (Ward, 2005). The changes taking place in contemporary journalism are driven by more than new technologies (Örnebring, 2010); different cultural perspectives have challenged the dominant ideology of journalism and economic and political issues such as media concentration, the corporate colonization of newsrooms, globalization and localization and questions of press freedom and media regulation can be seen as equally challenging (Deuze, 2005). Nor is the digital revolution restricted to the West; the accessibly and affordability of digital technologies have had a powerful influence on media systems and practices worldwide.

Media convergence represents both a challenge and an opportunity for broadcasters in countries with developing media systems focusing attention more broadly on the training of journalists and broadcasters. Media convergence is creating new conceptions of media work (Deuze, 2011), it is also replacing traditional workplace hierarchies with new ones (Erdal, 2009). "Convergence and citizen journalism require contemporary journalists to be more swift, nimble, intuitive and daring than their predecessors" (O'Donnell, 2008).

2.2   Broadcasting

Broadcasting arose as a cultural practice from a convergence of technical and social interests in the early 20th century and continues to evolve as a result of the interaction between technical, social and economic forces. It increasingly involves the digital encoding of audio and visual messages. Irrespective of delivery system the purpose of broadcasting is to send messages and it does so from a variety of organisational contexts (Bignell, 2004). There are three main organisational models of broadcasting: commercial or free market broadcasting; public or public service broadcasting and community broadcasting. The different organisational models of broadcasting that have evolved reflect different conceptions of the

purpose of broadcasting and produce different broadcasting contexts. Broadcasting following the free market model is profit driven, financed by commercial interests for commercial purposes. The audience represents potential consumers with information and entertainment supplied to attract that audience. Ironically, commercial broadcasting is sometimes referred to as independent. Public broadcasting stations are generally publicly owned and usually public funded. Advocates of public service broadcasting argue the quality of a programme rather than political agendas or size of audience should be the determining factor when making programming choices (Tracey, 1998). Community broadcasting combines elements of public service broadcasting and commercial broadcasting with an additional dimension of direct community participation in the editorial decision making process.

Deutsche Welle is modelled on the original BBC conception of an independent broadcasting service. Continuing the tradition established by Lord Reith (Briggs, 1985) most public broadcasters are committed, either by charter or custom, to producing programs which inform, educate and entertain irrespective of economic interests. In 1985 the British Broadcasting Research Unit identified eight principles that should characterise all public service broadcasting which included: universality of availability, detachment from vested interests, commitment to education, provision for minorities, concern for community and national identity, and competition for good programming (cited Comrie & Fountaine, 2005). Broadcasting organisations compete to provide news, information and entertainment to dissimilar demanding audiences in a media environment characterised by increased competition, globalisation, digitisation and technological convergence and new media.

2.2.1   Myths and mythologies of broadcasting

Barthes (1957) identifies myth as a type of de-politicised speech, which takes contested versions of history and purifies them by making them innocent of political intervention; it removes them from their inherently human and ideological social context by ignoring or rewriting history. In doing so, myth gives activities and practices based on myth "a natural and eternal justification ... which is not that of an explanation but that of a statement of fact" (p. 143). Lewis and Booth (1989) use Barthes' reading of myth as a legitimising device, to explain how different systems of radio justify their practices.

The myths and mythologies of broadcasting are perpetuated by the stories broadcasters tell themselves and others about broadcasting and sustain different broadcasting practices. Radio based on the free-market model cherishes myths of independence and public demand to justify its activities and ignores the fact commercial radio has never been independent, or that public demand for what commercial radio produces is often created by itself. In contrast, public radio uses myths of public service and public good to defend its practices, ignoring how public radio has been manipulated in the past.

Community broadcasting has its own myths; these cast community broadcasters as true representatives of the people and brave battlers in a constant struggle with outside forces. These myths undoubtedly sustain community broadcasters, who are generally unpaid volunteers with little of the infrastructure support that sustains conventional broadcasters, but they can also be used as an excuse not to engage in critical reflection about things like the quality of content, technical standards, and the degree to which community broadcasters do provide communities with a voice.

2.3   People, Technology, Organisation, Objectives

All organisations engaged in purposeful activity involve four dimensions: human resources (people); technology; organisational structure; and a task or objective (Woodward, 1958). They are also subject to the influence of external forces on organisational behaviour and outcomes; this can be expressed diagrammatically:
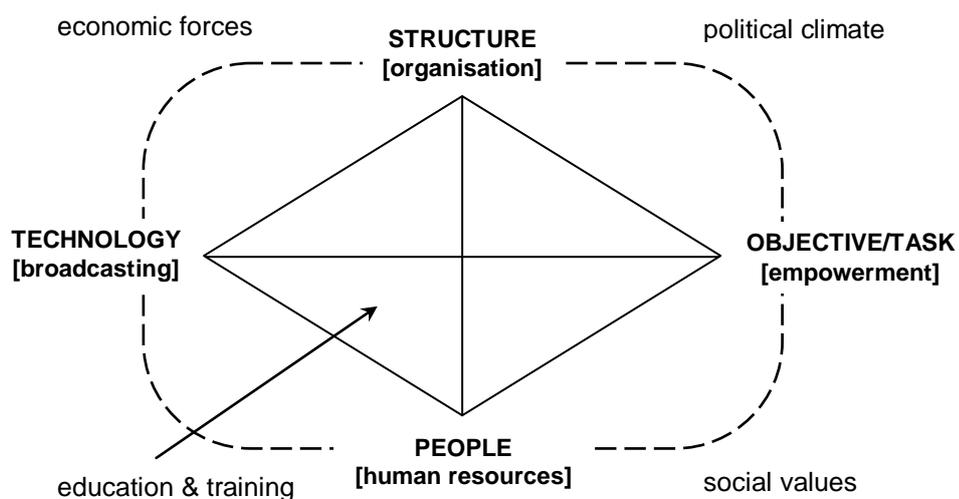
Figure 1 Organisational model (Tippett, 1997).

The dotted line in Figure 1 represents the environment in which an organisation operates. The unbroken lines show how the dimensions are inter-related; the strength of any dimension varies according to factors operating within the environment as well as factors operating on the environment such as political climate, social values and economic forces. Education and training is configured as an outside factor which is mobilised when needed to strengthen the relationship between people and technology in order to achieve the objective or task (Tippett, 1992). If the different dimensions and external elements are recast as discourses this model provides a way to see how different discourses are linked and influence each other.

Broadcasting is an activity where technology, organisational structure and human resources are combined to achieve the objective or task of broadcasting which is to communicate messages of one kind or another. The different organisational contexts of broadcasting define and shape the activities and practices of broadcasters (the people) involved in different broadcasting discourses. All broadcasting are subject to economic forces and differing political climates and social values and employ education and training to a greater or lesser extent to to achieve their objectives.

2.4   International broadcasting

International broadcasting, is broadcasting purposely directed to international audiences rather than domestic audiences. It developed soon after radio moved from being a point-to-point technology to a broadcasting media in the early 1920s. The Netherlands are credited with pioneering the first international broadcasting service with their shortwave service designed to reach what were the Dutch East Indies. Radio Netherlands Worldwide (RNW) continues to provide an international broadcasting service using the Internet. While, who is able to broadcast, and what is able to be broadcast, is generally governed by government regulation further filtered by the managements of broadcasting organisations, which may or may not be government controlled, international broadcasting is not limited by national regulation or borders.

International broadcasting is sometimes seen simply as a form of propaganda. In his 1983 comparative study of the newsroom practices of international broadcasters, Donald Browne concluded that international broadcasters either explicitly or tacitly operate as instruments of their countries (or owners) public diplomacy and foreign policy (p. 30 cited by Zöllner, 2006, p. 161). International

broadcasting became a key propaganda vehicle during the Second World War with governments in exile using radio to retain links with partisans and opposing sides using broadcasts to wage an information and misinformation battle. This use of international broadcasting continued throughout the cold war. The Voice of America, Radio Free Europe, and the BBC World Service in particular, are credited with using propaganda and other information to assist in bringing about the collapse of Soviet communism (Wood, 2000).

The ideological nature of media is indisputable (Martin-Barbero, 1987; Schirato et al., 2009; Siebert et al., 1963); "The use of the media to support political objectives is probably as old as the media themselves" (Franqué, 2009 p. 91). The political value of access to the media as a means of exerting power and social control is illustrated by the relationship both authoritarian governments and revolutionary forces seek to have with the media (Fiske, 1990); authoritarian governments generally try to control the media to maintain their power base, while revolutionary forces use the media to build a power base. Interestingly, the end of the cold war and the development of direct to home satellite technology proved that international broadcasters are more than propaganda vehicles, as the demand for news and information from countries with previously restricted media regimes led to requests for the right to rebroadcast programmes and the expansion of international audiences.

Propaganda has largely negative connotations in the Anglo-American world, but it is a less emotionally loaded term to broadcasters from other cultures who recognise information is seldom neutral, accepting that "[e]ither by choice of what material and views are to be presented, or by the way such material is presented, perceptions are shaped in the minds of the listeners" (Wood, p. 23). Deutsche Welle acknowledges its role as a vehicle for German public diplomacy and its association with German international development and aid policy (Zöllner, 2006) but it also acknowledges the tension between the representative role of international broadcasters and their need to be credible to their international audiences: "At all times international broadcasters have the difficult task of riding a fine line between retaining editorial freedom to report honest news and comment, whilst remembering they have a responsibility to broadcast in the interests of the government of the day" (Wood, 2000, p. 23).

Ironically while some international broadcasters became stronger at the end of the cold war, others like Radio Australia and Radio Canada International were subject to domestic budget cuts once they were no longer seen as critical to maintaining the balance of power. Interestingly, New Zealand's small and relatively under-resourced international broadcaster Radio New Zealand International has maintained a strong presence in its target region, the Pacific, while other services have been reduced.

The four main players in the international broadcasting field are the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) originating in England; Radio France International (RFI) broadcasting from France; the Voice of America (VOA) originating in the United States and Deutsche Welle (DW); each operating with its own national mandate. There are numerous other country based services as well as commercial conglomerates such as CNN and Sky. The most recent player is Al Jazeera, an Arabic and English language service based in Qatar with news and information originating in the Middle East.

2.5   Media for development and Media development

Media development, as distinct from media *for* development where the media's contribution to development is as a means of promoting specific development goals such as health or agrarian education through the dissemination of information, is a complex concept (Berger, 2010). "the process of understanding development, what it means, and how it should apply is, undoubtedly, continuing to undergo substantial change and revision" (Kingsbury, 2004 p. 5). Early theories of development and social change defined the main problems of the post-colonial world in terms of their lack of development equivalent to Western countries and that "the post-colonial world could eventually "catch-up" and resemble Western countries" (Waisbord, 2001). Irrespective of other reasons for rejecting this view, this view now seems naïve.

For much of the 20th Century development assistance was used as a means of persuading developing countries to support one or the other of the existing dominant ideological discourses. Industrialisation and modernisation were seen as synonymous with progress and economic development. Wilbur Schramm (1964) is generally credited with linking the spread of communication technology with socio-economic development and remains an enduring influence on perceptions of the role of mass media development.

Because to use the media to encourage development requires relatively developed media systems as well as a developed understanding of how media works as a communication medium, media development rapidly became part of the broader development discourse.

The idea that building the capacity of mass media organisations enables them to play a constructive role as agents of change is accepted by organisations as diverse as the International Labour Organisation (Olming & MacFarquhar, 2007) and the U.S. State department. Media training in the context of development generates its own literature with work looking at the impact of international media training on radio professionals (Muchtar, 2009) and discussions of media training in different development contexts and studies of journalist training needs in developing countries (Gaunt, 1992; cited Josephi, 2008, p. 45). Berger (2010) argues for the media to play its role as it should be there needs to be investment in training to improve the standard of reporting generally and more attractive staff conditions. From this comes the motivation for training as part of the media development discourse.

Media development has been associated with international broadcasters since the 1960s. Radio Netherlands Worldwide, Deutsche Welle, the BBC World Service Trust, the Commonwealth Broadcasting Association and the Voice of America have all carried out media management and technical training in various parts of the world. Media development is also carried out by small non-governmental organisations and community groups.

The perceived link between journalism and democracy is a major reason for the growth of media development programmes: "most media assistance activity today is embedded in democracy-promotion programmes" (Franqué, 2009 p. 92). The estimate of funds for worldwide media assistance between 1992 and 2002 was one billion U.S. dollars. The donor group includes multilateral institutions such as the European Commission; foreign governments through different agencies including embassies and private foundations such as the Soros Foundation and the Open Society Institute. Implementation organisations include agencies such as USAID, the Department for International Development (DFID), and to a lesser extent public foundations like the German Friedrich Ebert Stiftung. At the contractor level there are government sponsored agencies such as Deutsche Welle but there are also non-governmental organisations.

The work of smaller NGOs is seldom documented unless by the trainers themselves, such as Janice Reid's description of an intensive five-day workshop called "Introduction to Radio" (ITR) delivered to a group of beginning announcers at an Indonesian community radio (Reid, 2007) or unless it is part of the documentation of research funded by bodies such as the World Bank Institute (Girard, 2007). Franqué notes an interesting difference between European and American donors; while European donors often focus on minority media and public broadcasters "as providers of diverse and inclusive content" (2009 p. 94), American donors give precedence to funding and supporting the development of commercial media. He also identifies 'positive' and 'negative' kinds of media assistance: positive actions include financial, technical and consulting assistance usually directed to local media organisations such as radio stations or newspapers or to related industry associations or educational institutions engaged in media training or research. Negative actions can range from political pressure on media organisations to influence content to active suppression.

2.6 Normative theories of the media

The relationship between democracy and the news media is complex; Scheur argues that "news without its democratic function is a mere curiosity (and a mere commodity), and democracy without news is inconceivable" (2008, p. 107). The multiple interests and expectations of those working in or for media organisations, as well as those looking at media organisations, make it impossible to put together any definitive statement about what the main tasks of media institutions should be or what are the appropriate norms for carrying them out (Christians, Glasser, McQuail, Nordenstreng, & White, 2009). Christians et al. argue normative approaches to the media among professionals "have usually been taken for granted without questioning their foundations. Thus the prevailing professional and philosophical assumptions have remained unchallenged and even legitimized by theories of the press" (ibid., p. ix) Rather than simply update *Four theories of the Press* (Siebert et al., 1963) which first discussed in detail different normative views of the media, Christians et al. look at the premises underlying contemporary media practices and different conceptions of the role of the media relating them to contemporary understandings of the world. Their approach is a critical one and includes challenges to the dominant neo-liberal paradigm of development and the media. They identify four contemporary roles for journalism in society: a *monitorial* role; a *facilitative* role; a *radical* role and a *collaborative* role.

In educational contexts, the normative aspects of journalistic practice are usually included as part of professional practice along with media law and ethics. The idea of professional distance and objectivity is still a powerful normative value but there are multiple interpretations of objectivity and what should be journalists' relationship to the world they report. Like objectivity, autonomy still has a normative value in relation to freedom of the press, but it is less easy to maintain the notion of journalistic autonomy in the face of the economic imperatives of many news rooms or the need to work collaboratively demanded by new technologies. Immediacy, which was once one of the overriding considerations of news reporting, no longer has the same value when everybody has the technology to be 'immediate' and some of negative consequences of an overemphasis on immediacy, such as a failing to recognise or understand the subtleties and complexities of events because of existing journalistic practices are increasingly considered. Ethics remains the most controversial and debated of all journalistic values.

2.7   Broadcasting and journalism education

"In the particular context of journalism as a profession, ideology can be seen as a system of beliefs characteristic of a particular group, including – but not limited to – the general process of the production of meanings and ideas (within that group)" (Deuze, 2005, p. 445). There is sufficient evidence of an occupational ideology of journalism, even if it is interpreted differently by journalists in different cultures, to talk about there being a dominant ideology of journalism. For most of the past century the role of a journalist was to "find information, shape it into an accurate story and transmit it as quickly as possible to a mass audience via a mass medium" (Mensing, 2010). From this grew what Deuze calls the "modernist bias of telling people what they need to know" (2005, p. 442) with its accompanying confidence that journalists know what that is. In his attempt to answer the perennial question 'what is journalism?' Deuze identifies five key components of journalists' professional identity and ideology: public service, objectivity, autonomy, immediacy and ethics. All five values are subject to contestation and critique; the idea of what constitutes public service is changing; there is a move away from telling people what they 'should' know to being part of a conversation about what they 'want' or 'need' to know; there is still a great deal of interpretation by journalists but it is less a one way process.

Deuze (2006) suggests the relevance of new media and multiculturalism to journalism can be framed in terms of three central issues: knowledge of journalists about different cultures and ethnicities, issues of representation and inclusion, and perceived social responsibilities of journalists in a democratic and multicultural society. As broadcasting training increasing becomes a tertiary activity there has been more theorising about broadcasting education although research into the media's educational practices overwhelming concern the education and training of journalists (see Lind & Danowski, 1999) and academic research has been a marginal activity even in this field (O'Donnell, 2002).

Discussions about what are appropriate curriculum for teaching aspiring journalists dominate the literature although there is no consensus on the direction journalism education should take (Brynildssen, 2002). The relative merits of theoretical and practical knowledge and appropriate curriculum have been part of the pedagogical discourse since the 1940s although there is some evidence that traditional dichotomy between theory and practice is no longer viewed as a central concern (Kelley, 2007). Reflecting that historically the main mode of learning to be a broadcaster was experiential and largely atheoretical (see Appendix A) there is no recognised pedagogy of broadcasting. David Kolb's (1984) model of experiential learning is the theoretical framework most often mentioned by broadcasters although research into how this relates to broadcasting practice is minimal (Steel, Carmichael, Holmes, Kinse, & Sanders, 2007). Donald Schön's (1983) descriptions of how professionals think in practice accurately portray the practices of experienced broadcasters although the extent to they can be considered reflective practitioners is debatable. One consequence of the professionalization of broadcasting training is that more research is being carried out, often by journalists who have become educators; this has generated a more grounded and interdisciplinary approach to journalism studies (Zelizer, 2004). An example of this is Ruth Thomas's (2008) PhD thesis on how New Zealand journalists have been trained and reflections on the nature of that training which combines an understanding of journalistic practice in context and educational theory.

Adequate training is recognised as a crucial component of developing media systems and also of marginalised voices (Coulibaly, 1997; Forde, Meadows, & Foxwell, 2002; Puddephatt, 2007; Robie, 1995). New media and digital technologies provide a new imperative for training. While broadcasting schools

are a growth industry worldwide, UNESCO's country by country review of professional journalistic standards and code of ethics reveals the rationale for international training to support media development (UNESCO, 2010). In many countries there are no training or qualification criteria to be a journalist because there are no journalism schools. Even when journalism schools exist there is still a demand for international training programmes, indicating that "the level of graduating communication students is considered to be low" (UNESCO, 2009, p. 10). To overcome this UNESCO developed a model curriculum for journalism education in developing countries and emerging democracies which is aimed at assisting media training institutions to create quality training programmes. However, the model has been critiqued as 'ambitious in theory but unlikely in practice' (Freedman & Shafer, 2008). However, no curriculum by itself can fill a training chasm.

2.8   Digital technologies and new media

The Internet and new digital technologies have had a profound effect on the context in which journalism is practised and the practice of journalism (Pearson, 1999) although Plesener (2009) argues it is important to refrain from 'essentializing' the impact of new technologies. Taylor (2009) cautions in the rush (sometimes panic) to keep up with new media, broadcasters should not 'throw the baby out with the bathwater' or overlook historical practices that remain valuable. Other thinkers in the field focus less on the impact of technology on practice and more on how it affects the role and purpose of journalism in a wider context: "new media – like other media – is dynamically related to the overall societal context as regards press freedom dispensations" (Berger, 2007). The need to develop new skills and knowledge to work with new media has provided the impetus for training broadcasters and journalists.

2.9   Pedagogy

Educational practices are social practices and every practitioner is guided by "a set of beliefs about what they are doing, the situation in which they are operating and what it is they are trying to achieve" (Carr, 1995, p. 41). The more coherent and systematic these beliefs are, the more closely they resemble theories. The simplest definitions of pedagogy equate it with teaching, but as a result of critical examinations of teaching practices in a wide variety of contexts, not least the liberation pedagogy of Paulo Freire (1972; Freire & Shor, 1987), pedagogy has come to be understood as something more.

The concept of pedagogy as an underlying philosophical framework governing all aspects of teaching and learning has to some extent been reclaimed although it remains contentious (Donahue, 2003). In a paper called: 'Why pedagogy?' Lusted (1986) makes the case for using the term pedagogy in relation to teaching media studies arguing the pedagogy implies more than how something is taught; it includes consideration not only of what is taught but how people learn and attitudes toward teaching and learning. Translator of Bourdieu and Passeron's (1990) *Reproduction: in education, society and culture*, Richard Nice, argues pedagogy "is no wilful Gallicism" but represents a break with psychological accounts of the teacher-pupil relation (p. xxvi). Pedagogy is used here in the sense of "educative practice, whose principles may or may not be explicitly formulated" (p. xxii).

It can be argued that good teaching necessarily involves critical reflection but in practice the seemingly simple act of instruction often overlooks the social cultural context of those on the receiving end of that instruction (Henderson, 2000). Diverse educational and social theorists have suggested appropriate pedagogy is the basis for successful educational practice (Giroux, Lankshear, McLaren, & Peters, 1996; Luke & Gore, 1992; The New London Group, 1997) and the need to develop critical pedagogies which include critically reflexive practices to realise the emancipatory potential of any teaching and learning exchange. Irrespective of subject area, it is not enough to for a teacher or trainer to be knowledgeable if they fail to recognise and take into account the sociocultural context of the learners.

Chapter 3   Research methodology

Educational research is a complex and sophisticated field that incorporates diverse theoretical frameworks and a wide variety of quantitative and qualitative methods. The question of appropriate methodology to research educational questions has concerned educational practitioners since John Dewey (1859-1952) and led to the development of research methodology specific to a wide variety of educational contexts (Borg & Gall, 1989). Educational theorists and practitioners have adopted strategies consistent with positivist and interpretivist theoretical perspectives to study educational phenomena (Carr & Kemmis, 1986). Others have rejected both approaches in favour of critical research methodologies which recognise a dialectical relationship between theory and practice in education.

3.1   Research approach

Critical approaches offer a way to benefit from evidence gathered by empirical-analytical methods and insights arrived at through hermeneutic methods without the limitations of purely positivist or interpretivist methodology (Young, 1990).The scientific orientation of quantitative research practices may appear to convey more certainty than qualitative methods, but most scientists would agree science is not as exact as it is often portrayed in popular culture. Further, quantitative methods frequently fail to convey the complex and sometimes contradictory details of human experience that are revealed through qualitative methods. Irrespective of whether you prefer qualitative or quantitative methodology "there is a strong common ground between the two" (Yin, 1994, p. 15). At the heart of both interpretivist and positivist discourses about appropriate research design is a desire for better knowledge and understanding. For these reasons I adopted a phenomenological interpretivist approach grounded in a critical conception of social science for this study.

To look at the pedagogical discourses and practices of Deutsche Welle, I initially considered a classic qualitative research design: the case study. Case study research evolved as a way of developing valid inferences from real world experiences "through direct interpretation of the individual instance and through aggregation of instances until something can be said about them as a class" (Stake, 1995, p. 74). Case studies generally involve using multiple sources; interviews, documentary and observational data are key strategies. Case studies describe what is done in a particular case, addressing questions of 'how' and 'why' something is done. This is often framed as a narrative report by the

researcher. Case studies are a common organisational research method and have also been used for exploratory research and theory building (Flyvbjerg, 2006). However, there are also limitations to the case study approach; it has been criticised because it is an artificial intrusion and sometimes uncontrolled intervention into the lives of others (Walker, 1986). Case studies also provide an incomplete picture of the ways things are because "the nature of the case study is to embalm what is established practice simply by describing it" (ibid., p. 113). They are necessarily limited to an analysis of the data collected and the interpretation and values of the researcher; this may not be all the information available or the only interpretation of the data.

Researchers "have certain protocols that help them draw systematically from previous knowledge and cut down on misperception" (Stake, 1995, p. 72), that may arise from a case study approach. And, other types of research are intrusive; some such as action research make intervention an intentional part of the research process. But, while case studies can be successful in revealing some of the complexities of social or educational situations, representing those complexities can be difficult using traditional case study protocol (Hodkinson & Hodkinson, 2001). So although this research uses participant interviews, documentary evidence and observational data like a case study it is more explicitly interpretive, adopting a broader narrative approach to present the data.

3.2   Research design

Authenticity and trustworthiness have been identified as criteria for evaluating qualitative research (Bryman, 2008); trustworthiness involves four criteria: credibility, transferability, dependability and the ability to be confirmed. These criteria parallel the traditional scientific criteria of internal validity, external validity, reliability and objectivity (ibid.). One way to improve authenticity and trustworthiness is to use a variety of data collection methods and multiple sources. Mason (2006) advocates mixing methods of data collection and analysis in a qualitatively driven way. This process is referred to as triangulation. Triangulation generally involves combining quantitative and qualitative methods and different research strategies to corroborate research findings although within a purely qualitative approach it may also refer to gathering data from more than one source. In this study interviews with people involved in some aspect of the organisation's training are used with information gathered from a variety of documentary sources to identify the organisation's practices and discover the discursive practices associated with training.

The fact a claim is made does not guarantee the claim is trustworthy unless it can be verified in some way. Documents alone cannot be regarded as providing an objective account of a given situation but "have to be interrogated and examined in the context of other sources of data" (Bryman, 2008, p. 522). No document is value neutral; all documents exist in context. The assumption that documents generated by an organisation are necessarily an accurate representation of the reality of the organisation is inherently flawed; nevertheless these documents are interesting for what they reveal about the culture of an organisation. Bryman points out documents are generally written to convey an impression that will be favourable to the authors or those they represent. Documents are therefore significant "for what they were supposed to accomplish and who they are written for" (p. 527). The manner in which a document is biased or distorted can reveal the world view of the producers of the document and their underlying values. What a document reveals is also dependent to some extent on the knowledge and understandings of the reader. As well as illustrating the organisation's educational practices, the interview data is used as a means of verifying claims made or implied by the documentary data while the number and range of interviews provides a limited degree of triangulation which also improves the reliability of the research findings.

3.2.1   Issues in organisational research

Some degree of organisational support was crucial to this project, first, to gain access to potential participants and second to overcome the initial barrier between outsider and insiders. Organisations have been called "delicate webs of relationships" (Bryman, 1989, p. 4). Researching any organisation can be problematic. Bryman identifies some recurring problems or issues in organisational research: one is the question of the level of analysis. Organisational research involves decisions about the appropriate level of analysis in at least two senses: first, the level at which the research is conducted in an organisation and second, the level or levels at which the data collected by research is interpreted and distributed. A second issue is the definition and determination of organisational effectiveness; organisational effectiveness is a broad concept which can generally only be demonstrated by reference to a large number of indicators of which productivity, efficiency and the achievement of organisational goals are only a few (ibid.). Other indicators include flexibility and adaptability, the degree of conflict/cohesion, planning and goal setting, information management and communication, the training and development emphasis, and external evaluation. These indicators change over time and within

an organisation. Third, there is a tendency for organisational researchers to focus on a single indicator at the expense of other equally valid variables.

Many organisations are reluctant to be studied because they are suspicious of the aims of the researcher and fear of the purposes to which research may be put. This is in part because organisational research is frequently directly or indirectly related to assessments of organisational effectiveness. This research avoids most of these issues because it is not concerned with organisational effectiveness but how one aspect of the organisation's activities is perceived by people directly involved in those activities. As an independent research project, carried out by a student researcher from another country, support from the organisation was limited but was enough to make the project feasible.

3.2.2   Ethical considerations

Truthfulness, confidentiality and respect for persons are three of the most important ethical principles underlying research. Research that is not based on the principle of truthfulness is worthless while confidentiality and respect are essential foundations for any research relationship. The major principles in the conduct of research are:

i.   informed consent (of the participants)

ii.   confidentiality (of the data and the individuals providing it)

iii.   minimising of harm (to all persons involved in or affected by the research)

iv.   truthfulness (the avoidance of unnecessary deception)

v.   social sensitivity (to the age, gender, culture, religion, social class of the subjects) (Massey University, 2010, p. 35)

Research involving human participants is potentially harmful; there can be unacknowledged imbalances of power between researchers and researched and conflicts of interest between a researcher's desire for information and a participants' privacy or professional position. The aim of an ethical researcher is to reduce or minimize the possibility of harm as a result of their actions. It is naïve to assume that the intent of the researcher is enough to guarantee no harm is done which is why specific research protocols are developed and followed. Using the screening questionnaire developed by Massey University to determine the level of risk of research involving human participants, and appropriate ethics approval procedure, I determined the risk of harm in my proposed research was minimal, that is, no more than is normally encountered in daily life before submitting my research proposal.

After submission of the original proposal to Massey University's College of Education, the proposed research protocol was discussed in detail with my supervisors. Because I was in Germany and they were in New Zealand, this was necessarily an email discussion. Based on consideration of potential risks and the steps taken to minimise harm, it was concluded there was no conflict of interests involved and this research had a low risk of causing harm to participants or researcher. It was decided that it was not necessary for the project to be reviewed by one of Massey University's Human Ethics committees[1] so after minor modifications to the data collection procedures, the interview phase of the research was able to proceed. It should be noted that this research did not involve a typically vulnerable research population; all potential participants were professional educators, broadcasters or administrators.

To ensure informed consent, potential interview participants were given an information sheet with a general outline of the proposed research its scope and purpose and confidentiality arrangements; participants were given control over whether their recorded material is available for other purposes (see Appendix C). People who agreed to be interviewed were asked to complete a participant consent and transcript release form (ibid.). All except one participant completed these forms giving personal written consent to have their recording used instead. To minimize the possibility of harm, no personal identities are revealed in this research. Although several participants said they were happy to have their words attributed, the names of the research participants have been kept confidential and identifying features, such as specific project country or project references, that might lead to identifying the interview participant removed. It was initially planned not to name the broadcasting organisation being studied but it soon became obvious that it was neither practical nor feasible to do so because there were too many organisation specific identifiers in the data.

3.2.3 Cultural considerations: "Sie und Du"

As previously noted there are many different manifestations of culture in this research. Culture in the sense of ethnicity is not the focus of this study but as it specifically involves a German organisation and most of the data collection was done in Germany, it was reasonable to expect there would be some cultural implications for conducting and understanding this research. Contrary to movie stereotypes there is no typical German; on the contrary as anyone spending any

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[1] This decision was confirmed by the chair of the College of Education Ethics committee.

time in the country soon learns there are a wide range of traits and practices related to regional traditions, historical circumstances and personal preferences. There is however one generalisation that it is reasonable to make: that things usually start off formally. This is reflected in the language. "Sie", (pronounced 'zee') is the formal form of you, used with people you don't know and in formal situations. "Du" (rhymes with zoo) is the familiar form of you and used with families and friends and with children in informal situations. It is generally considered inappropriate to use "Du" with people you don't know. The use of either form of you varies widely but the rule of thumb, you "Sie" until someone says it is okay to "Du". This can happen ten minutes after you meet or it can never happen. Before going to Germany I was aware of the "Sie und Du" distinction and also the importance of personal introductions. With most of interview participants it was clear we had a "Du" relationship straight away. With one I never did, and with a couple the "Du" came about half way through the interview.

3.3 The research process

While the steps taken to gather information are often presented as if they occur in an orderly linear progression, this is seldom an accurate portrayal as decisions about what and how to research are affected by wide variety of factors and modified by experience and discovery. Few research interests arise out of nowhere and mine is very firmly grounded in my broadcasting background and experiences as a peer educator in the community broadcasting sector. The same background led to a fortuitous association with the international broadcaster Deutsche Welle. A casual conversation with friends in DW Distribution about my desire to experience living in Europe led to combine my research interest with further study. Through my association with DW Distribution, I was familiar with some of the organisation's training activities and after additional investigation gained a better idea of the extent of those training activities.

My experience of the differences between the espoused value of training and actual training practices in the community broadcasting sector (Quade, 2009), influenced my research strategy. I knew relying on published material and policy documents would not necessarily give me an accurate picture of the actual extent of training or, much insight into the thinking of broadcasting educators. For this I needed to talk to people directly involved in training, both to get a better idea of the organisation's training practices and because I was interested in learning what people actually involved in training did and how they described their

practices. After receiving a general expression of interest in my research topic from DW-Akademie, I took myself and five year old son to Germany, a country whose language and habits I had little experience of, to continue my investigations of the organisation's training practices.

3.3.1 Gaining access to key informants

To gain access to the people I hoped would be my key informants, I again used my connections in DW Distribution to make contact with DW-Akademie. This was followed up by a by a direct email introduction requesting a meeting. Contact was managed this way for several reasons; both DW and DW-Akademie receive literally hundreds of requests for research cooperation and work experience annually, they cannot oblige them all. Based on my knowledge and understanding of the research population, I knew that a personal introduction was more likely to get me a foot in the door than the most beautifully composed letter.

Gaining access to sufficient people with relevant knowledge and experience, in a manner consistent with accepted research practices, was not easy. I underestimated the time it would take to arrange meetings even when contact had been established and also failed to take into account the possibility of procedural delays. While the research interests and needs of the researcher may be of primary importance to the researcher, they are generally peripheral to the interests of the researched population who have other needs and commitments; and may also not want to be researched. Some research populations, particularly groups marginalised by society, have had negative experiences of research involving ignorant or arrogant researchers and inconvenient and intrusive research methods and consequently have no interest in participating in any research effort irrespective of its intent. Other populations have been so researched they suffer 'research fatigue' and have an automatic negative reaction to the prospect of answering another question or giving another opinion. The various codes of ethic and research approval procedures developed by most universities are a response to justifiable concerns about inappropriate research practices and an effort to protect the researched as much as a way to encourage ethically sound research practices.

During this phase of the research I also discovered my first significant 'cultural bump'[2]; in Germany everything takes more time, especially in the early stages. My first face to face meeting took over a month to arrange even though it had

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[2] A phrase coined to describe small unexpected cross-cultural differences (Archer, 1986)

been signalled in advance. This meeting confirmed my access to the sample population albeit through an intermediary and my access was limited to people willing to take part in the research. It was agreed to inform colleagues in DW-Akademie of my investigation and then to pass on to me the names and contact details of anyone who agreed to participate for me to follow up, no other conditions were imposed. Excluding the interviews, the interaction I had with DW and DW-Akademie staff was limited, although the few conversations I was able to have were helpful in identifying areas for further consideration such as the media development theories of Wilbur Schramm (Schramm, 1964) and the recently conducted evaluation project (CEval, 2010). Like many researchers I found that even after key informants have expressed a willingness to share experience and perspectives, it can be difficult to reconcile the needs of the researcher with those of the researched; people are busy and have other priorities.

3.3.2 Sampling strategy

The typical sampling process is to identify the target population; determine a sampling frame; decide on the sample size and select a sampling procedure. Sampling techniques range from the random sample and probability methods commonly used in quantitative studies to various purposeful sampling techniques more often used in qualitative studies; the question of sampling method and size is contentious but conventional probability sampling techniques are often not feasible or appropriate for qualitative research projects (Marshall, 1996). The least rigorous sampling technique known as convenience' sampling, chooses the research sample is based on the most accessible or convenient participants. Other purposeful sampling methods use a combination of strategies to improve reliability and validity.

The sample population was limited to people directly involved in some aspect of training in the organisation. I choose as my sampling frame, people with direct or recent experience of training. I initially planned to use snowball sampling as my main sampling strategy. Snowball sampling involves identifying one or two key people either with the desired characteristics, in this case direct experience of training within the organization as potential research participants or with close contact with the target population. Snowball research strategies provide a means of accessing difficult to reach or hidden populations using a technique of personal referral from people in or related to the desired research group.

Snowball sampling has been found useful for researching both socially stigmatised populations and elites (Atkinson & Flint, 2001). Data is collected from the initial participants, who are asked to identify other people with relevant experience, who in turn are asked to identify people with relevant experience. This process continues until a target sample size has been reached, or until additional data collection yields no new information. The main value of snowball sampling is as a method for obtaining respondents where they are few in number or where some degree of trust is required to initiate contact. Initial respondents can be invaluable resources for gaining the trust or time of potential respondents. The biggest disadvantage of snowball sampling is selection bias, as the researcher is dependent on the quality of the referrals which is why it is not considered as objective as other sampling techniques.

The choice of snowball sampling was based on my knowledge of broadcasters and the cultural context; although broadcasters are not a marginal group in any typical sense, they can be as impenetrable as any tribe if they choose to be. Cultural considerations were also a factor, I knew that as an outsider with no official status and without previous acquaintance with the research population, a personal referral and being able to say "so and so suggested I talk to you" would make a huge difference in the willingness of potential interview participants to make time for me. My experience of academics and educators also suggested that even while supporting the principle of research, they always have other priorities and a referral is one way to move up the priority list. The eventual sampling procedure was a combination of purposeful, as opposed to probability, sampling methods: chain or snowball sampling, deliberative sampling and opportunistic sampling. This was partly because the interview process did not start as early as I had originally planned, and partly because as the interviews progressed it became clear where additional data was needed and additional interview opportunities presented themselves.

I directly asked two people I knew had relevant experience to participate; three interviews were arranged by taking advantage of the unexpected; one originated from a conversation started while walking to DW from the Straßenbahnhaltestelle (tram stop) which led to an authorized interview with someone from personnel and also gave me access to the company's annual personnel training report; another came about at the conclusion of my first interview when someone with relevant experience who offered to participate; the third through conversations with someone who was temporarily sharing a telephone who I spoke to when checking the progress of my more formal requests to participate. Coincidentally

two other interview participants suggested this person as a useful resource. Two of the initial referrals were also suggested by other participants as important resources. An additional six people with relevant experience were approached by email after opportunistic contact or a referral and from the lack of response it was assumed they did not wish to or were not able to participate in the study.

All requests to participate in the research, whether made directly or not, were accompanied by the option to decline, introducing an element of self-selection into the process. The issue of selection bias can be raised as a result of the sampling methods used; however the eventual sample of 10 people provides a comprehensive insight into different aspects of the organisations pedagogical practices and is significantly diverse to be credible. The fact none of the actual interview participants came about without some form of referral tends to validate reasons for considering snowball sampling in this context.

Table 1 Source of interview participant referrals[3]

referrals from the initial contact	4
referrals from participants	5
participants as a result of deliberative or opportunistic contact (includes original contact)	4
referrals or contacts that did not eventuate in an interview	6
total number of people interviewed	10

The small size of the sample means that the findings of this research are not intended to be generalised.

3.3.3   Participants

As a result of the sampling strategy and serendipity (on which all successful research depends) the interview participants of this study covered the entire spectrum of the organisation educational activities and provided a comprehensive range of perspectives (see Appendix D). Participants' length of experience with the organisation ranged from two years to over 20 years. Most had experience of other media industry organisations. All of the interview participants spoke English, however, most but not all participants were German. Gender was not a consideration in participant selection but six participants were male, four were

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[3] The total is greater than the number of participants because some interview participants were both referrals and opportunistic contacts.

female giving the study a degree of gender balance. Seven participants had post-graduate qualifications to Masters level and five had Doctoral qualifications. Four of the participants are contributing authors to DW-Akademie's recently published first volume of German-language *Handbuch International Media Studies* (Schmidt & Arnold, 2011) which looks at changes in media and professional practice, journalism ethics, and correlations between media and development. All the participants have experience of the organisation's internal training through involvement in the delivery or management of training and from being recipients of job related training including experience as interns or apprentices with the organisation.

Table 2 Participants' expertise relevant to the study[4]

Journalism and broadcasting experience	7
Training administration	6
Training project management	4
Directly involved in training as trainers	8
Involved in related research	1

Because of the narrative approach to presenting the data, interview participants are identified by code rather descriptors. These numerical codes are based on the codes assigned to each interview when they were transcribed. As a result there is an anomaly because while there were only 10 interview participants there were 11 interviews. The code key for participants is in Appendix D, which also identifies their different areas of expertise in greater detail. Because different participants had different areas of expertise, they appear as a dominant voice in relation to some topics, for example, in discussion of in-house training and the discussion of evaluation include comments from participants involved in administration more than participants involved in field training. To some extent the specific interests as much as the experiences of the participants dictated the contribution of the participant to the different themes. Some participants simply had more to say.

3.4   Data collection

There were two principal data collection instruments:

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[4] The total is greater than the number of participants because most participants are involved in more than one area relevant to the study.

1. face-to-face semi-structured in-depth interviews with open-ended questions.

2. review of a selection of organisational publications

A small amount of relevant observational data was gathered as a result of attending a Deutsche Welle Global Media Forum 21-23 June 2010. The data gathered from the interviews are the focus of this study although the data from the documentary sources is important.

My documentary data collection began before I arrived in Germany with the official Internet portal of Deutsche Welle www.dw-world.de. This was an iterative process as I became more familiar with the site and was able to refine my searches. The documentary data examined includes annual reports, mission statements, public relations material and advertisements, some of which was available in print form although the accessibility and extent of the Internet makes it an ever-increasing source of documentary data, much of which only exists in the form of virtual documents. Some of the Internet material examined can be identified as official company documents such as DW-Akademie 2008 Annual Report: *Promoting Media around the World* (DW-Akademie, 2008), other material, while official, is more in the realm of public relations (see Appendix B). For information about DW and DW-Akademie's training practices I had two additional documentary data sources: *Personalbericht* 2009/2010 (DW Personalabteilung, 2010), an annual report detailing DW's internal training; and *Evaluation der Deutsche Welle-Akademie* (CEval, 2010), an evaluation produced by the independent Centre for Evaluation (CEval). All the material examined is to some extent in the public domain although the CEval report and the Human resources report obtained through personal contact do not have wide public distribution and are available only in German.

3.4.1   Language and translation

"We are all mediators, translators" said Jacques Derrida (Smith, 2005) but the research process is one that involves the researcher in more translation and mediation than is usual in everyday life. In this research some actual translation was required. As a result of my time in Germany "Ich verstehe ein bisschen Deutsch", (trans. 'I understand a little German'), but I do not speak or read it with any proficiency, therefore I relied heavily on two on-line translation services: LEO Deutsche-Englisches Wörtbuch and Linguee.com to get a sense of different word usage. For longer amounts of text I used Google translate but because of its

inherent limitations I used an accredited translator to provide an accurate translation of some documentary material.

All of the interview participants spoke English fluently although only one of the participants was a native English speaker. The degree of fluency varied from participant to participant, this made some of the interviews more interesting but did not prevent communication. In *Keywords*, Williams (1983) shows how following the evolution of word usage gives an insight into the concepts the word is meant to convey. Because English has strong Germanic influences, the same or a very similar word is sometimes found in both languages but this can be deceiving because how the word is used can differ. For example while "kompetent" translates as competent, in German it also means professional and qualified, and unlike English where it can have grudging overtones, in German, to call someone competent is a compliment implying they have a high level of knowledge and performance; the colloquial equivalent of 'on the ball'. 'Die Kompetenz' implies expertise and authority.

Qualified is another word with subtle nuances, 'to be qualified' is used in the sense of to have appropriate knowledge and experience rather than simply to have professional status or certification. To qualify someone, means to make sure they have needed knowledge and skills. Other words like 'realisation' translate as implementation and sometimes execution. A frequently used term: 'trainings', was perfectly comprehensible but has no English equivalent. 'Trainings' is used to refer to a training workshop, seminar or course, and also specific training to acquire necessary new skills and understanding, for example, in the phrase 'Trainings- und Ausbildungsmöglichkeiten' which is translated as 'possibilities or opportunities for training and further education'. When in doubt about a word; either English or Deutsch, clarification was sought.

3.4.2   Interview procedure

The interviews took place in June, July and August 2010. After an exchange of emails, in most cases after the initial approach had been made by a third party, arrangements were made to meet. All but one interview was conducted in Bonn, where DW and DW-Akademie are based. In email communication before the interview, participants were given the choice of venue; all but two participants chose to be interviewed at DW. Most interviews were conducted in private offices but three were conducted in semi-public places; two in DW's large staff cafeteria and one in a café. One interview was conducted at the participant's home.

In the context of social research the purpose of interviewing is to discover the interview subject's perspective on something. This can be done by asking very specific questions or by taking a more unstructured approach. Research interviews have advantages and disadvantages; they are time consuming and because of this the sample size is usually small; they are subject to both interviewer and respondent bias and the quality of information obtained is largely dependent upon the interviewer (Bryman, 2008). At the same time they allow the researcher to learn about things that cannot be directly observed. All interviews are a social interaction in which the interviewer initiates and more or less controls the exchange.

Interviews are a standard part of journalists' repertoire; the journalist's aim is the same as any researcher's; to get quantifiable and comparable information relevant to an emerging or previously stated assertion. In journalism there are a whole range of different interview genres ranging from the confrontational interrogatory approach to a more collegial style. I adopted a semi-structured approach and created an interview schedule to act as a guide during the interview but the questions asked each interview were not identical. There was an element of interaction in each interview through the questions and the occasional brief comment. Interactive interviews require the researcher to have at least some knowledge of the subject and the context. My background in broadcasting, experience as a peer educator in the community broadcasting sector and familiarity with the organisation through my association with DW Distribution provided this knowledge. It also allowed me to establish a working rapport with the interview participants relatively quickly.

In most cases after a brief mutual introduction and confirming permission to record the interview, the interview was begun. As most participants were broadcasters they were comfortable with the use of recording equipment. Only one participant was reluctant to be recorded and this had more to do with reservations about their ability to communicate in English than any reluctance to answer questions. One participant chose to have a colleague present during the interview to help with translation if needed.

All participants were given the opportunity to review the original transcript produced from their recorded interview and amend them if they wished. Two participants declined to check transcripts from their interviews and the two participants who had a second joint interview, said they did not feel any need to check the transcript from that interview (both had already reviewed and approved

transcripts from their individual interviews). Only four participants chose to make any amendments, none made any significant changes and most changes concerned corrections to language rather than meaning. Three participants requested that the researcher correct any obvious English errors. The original recordings were preserved to provide another reference during data analysis and for future examination if required for verification.

I had originally hoped to have more than one interview with the same participant but this proved to be an unrealistic plan. With three of participants I had preliminary discussions about my research interests and approach. Serendipitous timing allowed me to record a second interview with two participants who elaborated some aspects of their earlier individual interviews. An interview summary sheet recording the time, date and location of interview, whether a participant consent form and transcript release authority had been signed, as well as brief notes about the interview, was completed after every interview

3.4.3 Transcription

Qualitative research does not make a clear distinction between data collection, data analysis and theory building and decisions which affect how the data is analysed are made throughout the collection phase. This is especially true when transcription is part of the process: "the process of transcription is not just a process of transmitting words to paper but is, itself, a construction of one version of reality" (Roberts, 2009, p. 3). A reflexive view of transcription assumes the researcher will be explicit about their role in the transcribing process and the decisions they make while transcribing because transcribing is part of the process of analysis. Because the transcriptions were not intended to contribute to a formal linguistic discourse analysis, the more detailed techniques of transcription involving various accepted notation conventions were not used. The interviews were played repeatedly until an accurate but not exact transcription was made using ordinary punctuation.

All but two interviews were transcribed within a week after the interview took place. This was done to give participants a chance to remove any material or amend any statements before making a detailed study of the transcripts. The interviews contributed to my knowledge and understanding of some of the finer points about the organisation's training practices. They also influenced the direction of my background reading particularly in relation to the field of media

development. How a researcher chooses to analyse their data influences what information is derived from the data.

3.5   Data analysis

A combination of thematic and narrative analysis is used to analyse the data. Thematic analysis involves the creation and application of 'codes' to data while narrative analysis involves identifying stories. With a thematic analysis the data collection and analysis take place simultaneously. Background reading, especially when it contributes to explanations of the emerging themes is considered part of the analytic process. Narrative analysis begins after the data is collected although it is very strongly grounded is the inherent narratives of the data. My primary reason for taking a narrative approach is because individual narratives can provide insights into the relationship participants have with the subject being studied, in this case how the training practices of the organisation are sustained in a less reductionist manner than thematic analysis.

Story telling in one form or another is characteristic of all human societies and has long been recognised as one of the ways in which social values are perpetuated, but it is relatively recently that the stories people tell each other about their lives and experiences have been recognised as revealing narratives which can be used to make sense of experiences and reveal the values underlying practice. With a narrative approach there is sometimes a danger in getting carried away by the story and forgetting the purpose of the narrative, which is why I have combined it with a thematic analysis. Although a general thematic analysis is consistent with grounded theory (Strauss & Corbin, 1990), I did not follow a strict grounded methodology partly because I had neither the resources or experience required and partly because it was not needed. I did adopt one of the guiding principles of grounded theory which is let the data suggest themes rather than trying to fit the data into predetermined categories.

Transcribing the interviews myself was integral to my understanding of the data and identifying the emerging themes: "at no other stage in the research process does the researcher spend more time with their nose to the data" (Roberts, 2009, p. 4). The background reading was another important part of the analysis process as my reading expanded to include the field of development and my understanding of what was said changed as I developed a broader frame of reference than journalism education or traditions of broadcasting training.

The initial intention was to use the documentary data only as background information and a possible basis for comparison with the participant interviews, however while reviewing the data it became clear that the published material, especially some of the material published on the Internet was a more active part of the organisation's pedagogic discourse than I had first assumed. The same themes emerging from the interview data could be found in the documentary data which is why it has been treated as part of the organisation narrative about training.

3.5.1 Learning from narratives

Narratives do not begin with the individual "rather, they circulate culturally to provide a repertoire (though not an indefinite one) from which people can produce their own stories" (Lawler, 2002, p. 242). Lawler identifies narratives as "social products produced by people within the context of specific social, historical and cultural locations" (ibid.). Within an organisation there are individual narratives and organisational narratives. These narratives constitute the narrative knowledge of the organisation. Schein (2004) compares an organisation to a language system with its own specialised symbols and vernacular: "People who comprise this language system produce a set of typical actions or normative procedures, and a set of explanations for those actions and procedures. Often, these take on the form of stories or myths about how work is done or what it means to work here" (p. 36). Narrative knowledge is both explanatory, providing reasons why something is as it is, and also legitimating, justifying actions.

Narrative analysis often takes the form of constructing a single story from the raw data, but a narrative approach can also be used to make sense of the different stories being told by the data (Wadham, 2009). With documentary data, a narrative approach recasts static text as part of an on-going story (ibid.). The research literature, documentary data, and interview transcripts in this study are treated as contributions to a general narrative about training. The interview transcripts are used as sources for constructing this narrative whenever possible using the interview participants' own words. Examining the narratives of people working in the field of broadcast training helps to reveal the discourses and discursive practices that govern and underlie their actions. In his excavation of the language associated with mental illness, Foucault showed that: "a discourse is much more than a language as such: it is constitutive of the social world that is a focus of interest or concern" (Bryman, 2008, p. 499); how something is described comes to determine how something is understood.

The use of computer assisted qualitative data analysis software (CAQDAS) is increasing common; with the right software it is possible to combine codes in complex searches and conduct multiple searches much more quickly and efficiently than a human researcher. On the other hand software programs cannot understand the meaning of text and are not a substitute for thinking about the information revealed by the data or interpreting the data in a meaningful way (Tere, 2006). To use computer software for data analysis effectively also requires some degree of expertise and experience. Because I lacked any experience of CADAS, I did not use any specific software program to analyse my data although my analysis is computer assisted to the extent I used basic file management to juggle my data sources, notes and conclusions and key word searches and heading styles within MS Word to identify different topics and to develop different categories, renaming and resorting the categories over the research process. Because most of my data is in electronic form (including the interviews which were digitally recorded) my lap top computer (with external back-ups) became the main repository of my data.

To identifying the different themes, data was first grouped into broad analytical categories. The first two categories were:

1. Descriptions
2. Normative references

Descriptions covered accounts of personal experience and explanations of the organisation's practices in the participant interviews as well as background information from the documentary data. Descriptions were then further categorized as:

a. internal training
b. external training

Statements were identified as a normative reference when they explicitly or implicitly revealed values held by the interview participant (or the organisation) about training, broadcasting and journalism as well as broader issues such as the relationship between media and democracy and the rationale for media development.

3.6   Recurring themes

The various descriptions and normative statements were then analysed for content and initially placed under four broad headings or themes:

- Organisational practices

- Pedagogical practices (explicit and implicit)

- Values and beliefs

- Organisational imperatives and constraints

Reviewing the data I looked for acknowledged and unacknowledged assumptions; explicit and implicit references to pedagogical philosophy, evidence of trainer expectations and assumptions; how the relationship between teacher and learner is conceived and what the desired outcomes of the teaching/learning exchange were as well as evidence or awareness of the different discursive fields. Inevitably this process involved a lot of overlap as many descriptions of organisational practice were descriptions of pedagogical practices which revealed values held by participants and the organisation about journalism and media development.

At this point to help identify and develop the themes I began to construct individual narratives from each interview. In some cases this involved re-listening to the recordings to clarify language and intent. Constructing the narratives involved editing but not changing the words from the original transcripts. When an edit was made the convention of three dot points '…' was used to indicate something had been removed or the order of words changed. While some words and repetitions were edited out to improve the flow and comprehension of a sequence, there was no attempt to 'clean up' the discourse or eliminate characteristic expressions, even if they were sometimes ungrammatical. Square brackets [   ] are used to indicate modifications by the researcher and provide translations. To maintain the integrity of the interview participants' intent, both the original transcript and recording were referred to while constructing the narrative.

From this process it was possible to identify dominant themes. These are:

- Organisational training

- Partnerships

- Values

- Pedagogy

- Trainers and training

- Organisational policy

Within each dominant theme there are related themes but to keep the analysis to a manageable size the number of categories was limited. Discussion of the organisation's internal training practices has been kept as a discrete category, however external training is considered through the themes of Partnership, Values and Pedagogy. There is inevitably a lot of cross over between themes; for example, in relation to trainers and training there are issues of pedagogy and values as well as perspectives on training.

The emphasis of this research is on perspective on practices, rather than providing detailed descriptions of those practices, and on evidence of overarching and underlying values. Within this theme, evidence of normative values of journalism and media development are discussed. Organisational policy is discussed in relation to public and strategies as well as external constraints.

I originally intended to merge the narratives from the documentary data with the narratives from the interview participants but on reflection kept them mostly separate under the heading of Public images. The identification of evaluation as a theme is ambiguous because, questions about evaluation arose as a theme from the interviews and there was also frequent specific reference to the evaluation of DW-Akademie's activities carried out in 2009 (CEval, 2010). For this reason Evaluation is presented as a separate topic. The findings from the data are presented and discussed in relation to these topics in Chapter 4.

3.7   Research limitations

All research is subject to limitations; my resources as a student researcher meant that it was beyond the scope of this project to explore in detail many aspects of DW's pedagogical practices; in particular, how trainers were trained and how DW's approach to training worked in practice. It was not possible to follow the process of planning, designing and executing 'a training' which would have provided a frame of reference for the descriptions of practice. Some themes have not been explored such as the impact of digital technologies and new media on media development, and issues surrounding professional identity. It was also not possible to make any significant comparison of DW's training practices with those of other training organisations.

Being in Germany made it possible for me to collect data and gain insights into DW's training ethos that I could only get from face-to-face contact, but it also isolated me from the interaction with peers and academics that can enhance and sustain a post graduate research effort. While the Internet makes communication across continents and time zones possible, it is no substitute for conversations which can provide answers for questions not asked and maps for territories not yet explored. As a self-funded student researcher operating in an unfamiliar environment I was unsure of the level of organisational support I could reasonably expect from DW-Akademie. In retrospect I think I could have been more assertive about my research needs and asked for more support.

There are undoubtedly people within the organisation with relevant experience I did not speak to. It is not possible for me to know how many people within DW-Akademie knew of the research project and had reasons for not wishing to participate. It is also possible that I failed to get relevant data about the organisation's training practices from the people I spoke to because I failed to ask the right questions, or because I did not look in the right places, however within the limitations of this research, from the data emerges a detailed picture of the organisation's training practices and the ethos that sustains them.

Chapter 4   Discussion

In their Annual reports and web pages (see Appendix B.) Deutsche Welle and DW-Akademie promote the idea of an inclusive and democratic future in which the media plays a key role and give a commitment to share knowledge but how is this manifested in the organisation's educational and training practices and in the language and discourses of the people involved in training?

4.1   Organisational overview

Set up in 1953 to be the international broadcasting service of the post Second World War Federal Republic of Germany, Deutsche Welle's statutory obligation is to "convey Germany as an established European nation of culture and democracy under the rule of law as laid down in a constitution formulated in freedom" and "provide a forum for German and other perspectives on essential issues both in Europe and other continents with the goal of promoting understanding and exchange between cultures and peoples" (DW-Akademie, 2008, p. 40). Deutsche Welle fulfils its statutory obligations through the production and transmission of a variety of programming on television, radio and the Internet which are broadcast internationally via digital satellites and the Internet.

In developed countries the target audience for Deutsche Welle are people with an interest in Germany and Europe, especially those who have influence on development and policy. In developing and/or authoritarian countries, programmes are aimed at people actively involved in promoting democracy, freedom, human rights and progress. Together with its coverage of relevant German and European events, DW's reporting focuses on events within those target countries. Although its intended audience lies outside Germany, DW is a member of the Arbeitsgemeinschaft der öffentlich-rechtlichen Rundfunkanstalten der Bundesrepublik Deutschland, more commonly known as the ARD, a consortium of the public service broadcasting organisations in the Federal Republic of Germany.

At its centres in Bonn and Berlin, Deutsche Welle employs over 1,500 people including hundreds of freelance workers from 60 countries who sustain its diverse broadcasting activities. DW-TV broadcasts in German and English, Spanish and Arabic, while DW-Radio and Internet content is available in 30 languages. Its programming content is broadcast via a global satellite network, partner broadcasters and Internet, where audio and video content is available as live

streams; video or audio on demand; podcasts and mobile services. In regions where satellite or Internet coverage is not possible, radio programs are broadcast via medium wave and short wave, and occasionally on FM. The other way in which DW fulfils its mandate is through its training activities.

Deutsche Welle has been an international training provider almost as long as it has existed as an international broadcaster. The DW Fortbildungzentrum (trans. Training Centre) was founded in 1965 specifically to provide German media support for countries in Africa, Asia and Latin America. For more than four decades DW's Radio and Television Training Centre based in Cologne, trained broadcasters and media specialist from countries in with developing media systems in Germany and abroad. It has been estimated that more than 20,000 journalists, technicians and managers have taken part in DW's training and consulting projects (DW-Akademie, 2010b). In 2003 Deutsche Welle relocated from Cologne to neighbouring city Bonn. In 2004 DW-Akademie was established, replacing the Fortbildungzentrum (DWFZ). DW-Akademie and Deutsche Welle operate side by side, literally as well as figuratively; the offices, seminar rooms and computer laboratories of the Akademie are adjacent to the broadcasting operations of the DW in Bonn, connected by corridors and walkways. DW-Akademie also has offices at DW-TV in Berlin.

4.1.1   A Training company

To fulfil its mandate Deutsche Welle relies on a motivated and qualified staff who identify with the goals and values of the organisation. The skills and motivation and commitment of the staff are seen to make an essential contribution to the success of DW (DW-Personalabteilung, 2010). In a business environment of reducing budgets and unavoidable increases in expenditure in all areas, the organisation still has an obligation to ensure the production of quality programming. In this context, good human resources management and effective strategies and mechanisms for staff development within DW are essential.

Like many large German companies, Deutsche Welle has a well developed in-house apprenticeship system:

> We have apprenticeships for office clerks … for IT clerks, that's a mixture between business administration … different technical craft skills, maintenance [and] catering [11]

DW's in-house training is managed by its Personalabteilung Aus- und Fortbildung (trans. Personnel department). Personalabteilung co-ordinates all training

activities affecting all employees with the exception of the Volontariat, an 18-month internship scheme managed by DW-Akademie.

Apprenticeships are funded by the company and apprentices receive a salary and other staff benefits. The apprenticeship intake is small, usually only one a year in each area. The positions are competitive:

> We have assessment centres and workshops that we do every year, it's a real process. They have to apply several months in advance because it's very popular … We get hundreds of applications [11]

The apprentice assessment centres[5] are run by Personnel who have other agendas than just getting a candidate who presents well; attitude, for example, is an important factor:

> It is more important to have someone who has the right attitude but needs skills, skills you can learn, but if the attitude is wrong, then it's hard to change that [11]

Completing an apprenticeship does not guarantee a job at Deutsche Welle but it is considered that someone with a DW apprenticeship has more chances on the job market:

> We cannot employ everyone after the apprenticeship because we train so many people, more than we can employ afterwards, but we want to offer this to them [11]

The company has recently introduced a programme of part time apprenticeships for single mothers.

The basis for entry level and on-going training and education is a collective contract between employees and employer, represented by the company's Director General and employee unions. A crucial component in the implementation of this contract is the Fortbildungausschuss (trans. training or continuing education committee or board). This is made up of representatives from the different broadcasting areas: radio, television, on-line and technical services, DW-Akademie and from the Personalrat (trans. staff or employee committee). The Personalrat consists of representatives from all the unions active within the company and supports employees' rights on the board.

Staff development is linked to the need to provide training to improve productivity and to support staff motivation (DW-Personalabteilung, 2010). It focuses on extending the skills of individual staff members and providing support as changes

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[5] Assessment centre refers to any organised process set up for the purpose of assessment rather than a physical location.

occur in people's job descriptions and in individual jobs, by providing what are called further training offerings, that relate to workplace and real-life requirements.

The Fortbildungausschuss is responsible for all education strategies and activities within the company, with the exception of the responsibilities of DW-Akademie, including the education and training of executives and journalists as well as all other company employees, based on priorities identified by the Director General and other directors:

> At first they decide, which organizational structure is the right one, and then which people do we need … they decide 'okay, what is our strategy, how many people should be educated, how many people are part of this process, and then they have to write a concept, and give it to the top management, and they decide, okay 'let's start'. That's the process [03]

Training may be initiated by the company or by individual employees:

> If someone wants to take part in a leadership seminar, for example, he or she will have to speak to the board, or will have to write a paper and hand it to the board, and they decide if it's okay [03]

DW-Akademie's role on the Fortbildungausschuss is predominantly consultative, providing expertise in relation to training, specifically in relation to training journalists:

> They are not journalists and they don't know exactly how to train [them] [03]

While there is no structural connection between the Akademie and the Personnel department, there appears to be a good working relationship between them and there are usually monthly talks between the people responsible for the Volontariat and the education service.

Within the company the Akademie has a specific responsibility for the Volontäre or journalist trainees and ensuring that they meet the professional demands and standards of the organisation:

> That is our task … to give them a basis of journalism and of skills that they will be able to apply this, professionally in a department [03]

The Akademie also collaborates with the Personalabteilung to support continuing and further education within the organisation. This support is not confined to providing or developing programmes for specific technical skills but is also used to manage and support employees through organisational change. When radio

and online departments were combined, the Akademie was involved in the selection and subsequent professional development of the departmental heads:

> We had to select at first, and then to support the new executive, so that he would be able to be responsible for both media forms [03]

Training is an integral part of the organisation's adaptive strategy, particularly in relation to company restructuring as a result of media convergence. DW-Akademie was mobilised to support major training exercises arising from the restructuring of editorial departments which represented a major educational challenge because it involved a significant change in practices for many people:

> In the past we had Radio and On-line departments and … now, since two or three years we have 'multi-media' departments and they are responsible for radio and online and this was a very challenging process to qualify the people to work for both, parallel, for radio and on-line … now they work as multi-media technicians [03]

The current challenge is to 'qualify' or re-train television editors as video journalists or 'VJs':

> We educated more than one hundred and fifty people in the last five [months]. They are able not only to work as a journalist, and to tell stories, but they also … edit the film and are responsible for the sound ... They are responsible for the whole process [03]

Training is organised to provide meet specific organisational demands; it may be provided by trainers who work for the organisation or through contracts with independent trainers and training providers. Specific seminars or workshops are arranged on request:

> If a head of a department comes and says I need this and that, we organise it for him … [sometimes] we send people to other companies who offer seminars [11]

Because external training 'offers' are considered part of staff development and paid for by the company there is evaluation of their effectiveness and a consideration of the costs:

> We want to offer … trainings that the people really need and not … where they sit there and say, 'oh it was nice, but I cannot really use it' and we paid 3000 euro for two days. That's a waste of money [11]

The need for training to be effective reflects Deutsche Welle's position as a publically funded broadcaster as well as the company's training priorities:

> we have to be effective because we have not so much money, the budget gets less and less over the years … we really want to go for

developing people for their work; we don't like trainings … that are not really useful [11]

Internal training is driven by Deutsche Welle policy although it is also influenced by social and political trends. A study of further training in private sector firms in Germany from 1989 to 2008 shows a general trend of rising training rates indicating an increased importance of training in the German labour market (Grund & Martin, 2010) and the need for occupationally relevant knowledge:

It's not like in earlier times that you have a job and it's all okay, once you learn the profession then nothing changes for twenty years… that's gone … people have to learn, they have no choice … we get more IT systems and more new things the journalists have to learn and it's not only the technical things but also the soft skills [11]

In addition to developing work place skills, the need for workers to learn new skills and adapt to meet the demands and challenges of new technologies and work place practices is seen to have other benefits:

That's also quite good also when you look at things like age management, if they stay fit because they learn all their life [11]

Life-long learning is linked to professional development: "These days, most people consider lifelong learning essential for professional success" (DW-Akademie, 2010f). There is evidence of an organisational philosophy that reflects an inclusive approach to learning:

we decided we don't want to offer trainings especially for older people or people above 50 because we found that a bit strange to say 'oh you're 51, you go into that training' and we decided to do, to stay at the mixed training groups because that's what they experience in their daily work … sometimes the older one is faster on the computer than the younger one [11]

While the competitive imperatives of the organisation are clearly the main impetus for training there is also an awareness of the vulnerability of adult learners operating outside of their familiar comfort zones and the need to support their learning:

With the multimedia there was a lot of fear of I'm not needed anymore … but that's not true. In these team workshops we tried to work that out, [so] they can see that the younger people need their experience … there needs to be an exchange and we try to communicate that [11]

General staff welfare is seen as an important aspect of internal training:

> For us it's quite important for us to offer the health trainings … for example how do I eat healthy … when I have night shifts, how do I handle that. It's a pity for us that those trainings are not visited [well attended] [11]

It is recognized that strategic action can be necessary to overcome resistance, particularly when challenging entrenched societal attitudes:

> if you want to offer a training [to] strengthen women … so they really can talk or persuade their male colleagues, things like that … you have to give it a clever name because otherwise the people won't say I want to go there, because then everyone will say 'oh you've got problems or you need it' [11]

Collaboration with departmental heads is one way in which training the organisation perceives as important is promoted:

> We talk to them [departmental heads] and they do it in a clever way like they say … 'oh let's put as a target or as a goal that you visit that training' [11]

Group learning is another strategy used to overcome learner resistance:

> We do specific training just for the department, so the people who know each other have the seminar, it's easier for them because they know their colleagues, Ja, we try to find some solutions for them [11]

At the departmental level there is support for one-on-one training which can be used to supplement specific training courses and workshops:

> Say someone didn't get everything in the training because it was too fast … we have some tutors here who just sit next to someone [11]

In each department there is someone designated as training officer, who provides colleagues, especially new staff with on-the-job support. This can be problematic because it can take time away from their other work-place duties and responsibilities but is seen as part of building the organisation's learning culture:

> We try to build up a culture where you know, you know where to ask if you have a question [11]

Providing employees, especially new employees with high quality training is seen as something that ultimately benefits the company. Provision for professional development training is generally built into employment contracts:

> the last page of the contract … there's a kind of training plan, what trainings he has to do, and after half a year or a year they check, has he done this training yes or no, why not [11]

There's a very clear relationship seen between the training and the quality of Deutsche Welle's programming:

> Deutsche Welle heads require very high quality of their employees, quality of the content of our programmes and therefore you need trained and educated people [11]

4.1.2 Praktikanten, Interns and Volontärin

In addition to in-house apprenticeships, and departmental training, there are a number of different intern schemes ranging from an intensive 18 month program to more informal attachments to one of the organisation's editorial departments:

> There have always been people who would come in from other countries … they might be coming from an African country or an Asian country to be attached to … a particular service, to a particular programme [02]

The majority of interns are German and the internships are graduates who have completed a first basic course; university in Germany often has a two-year "basic" course, followed by an exam, then a further two-year course, followed by the final degree exam. The internships represent an area where the organisation's media development and internal training activities overlap: Young foreign journalists, often funded in cooperation with foundations and tertiary institutes, are able to gain practical experience in DW's foreign language departments through the internships. In 2008, these interns most often came from south-east and central-eastern Europe and from African, Asian and northern American countries. The DW website carries information about the internship selection procedures and the dates for application.

Journalist internships range from three months to half a year. In 2008, most interns (377 out of 509) were assigned to programme departments (DW-Personalabteilung, 2010). Professional training of the next generation of journalists is seen to create the preconditions for high-quality programming and responsible reporting. And also serves to attract young people to the company thereby ensuring that DW will have good staff in the future. These internships are distinguished from Praktikanten which are essentially work experience job placements lasting only of a few weeks for high school student which are available in all departments of DW. A Prakticant is either not paid or receives only a minimal allowance.

There is no formal training associated with these journalism internships although training is sometimes given:

> there may be the odd extra course for them on using … editing equipment, or perhaps speech training or something but it is not formal training of any sort, it is really on-the-job training, basically they're working as junior reporters – always under instruction but that is not in any way comparable with the Volontäre [02]

Although journalist interns are expected to have previous professional broadcasting experience their actual skill levels often vary:

> You will find that people don't have online skills, although you'd think these days that would be you know, selbstverständlich (trans: understood or taken for granted) … also when it comes to, you know the ethics of journalism, not everybody who comes in via the intern scheme would have had, you know, thorough training in that [02]

As well as journalist interns there are 'guest editors'; often selected on the basis of specific country knowledge who are fully qualified journalists, usually from countries with which Deutsche Welle has rebroadcasting or training agreements. They are attached to different editorial departments on short term contracts. Guest editors are more likely to receive training:

> If it is needed really for the work, then he will get everything he needs … for example when someone comes from Africa, he needs a German course, and if he's a journalist he also needs to get to know all the IT systems he has to work with, so he needs training in that and so on, so there will be a lot of trainings at the beginning [11]

The same approach is taken when someone changes jobs within the organisation and needs training.

The system of guest editors is both practical, providing the company with expertise it needs and another manifestation the organisation's media development work:

> Sometimes they just want to collect some experiences because we have the very modern digital broadcasting station, they just want to get some experiences and Ja, bring them back to their country [11]

In 2007 and 2008, DW ran specific training and up-skilling courses for foreign language correspondents and guest editors from areas identified as target areas: the Middle East, Africa, south-east and central-eastern Europe. The training measures focussed on using digital equipment for reporting and recording and the options for digital transfer of data to DW's Bonn broadcasting centre (DW-Personalabteilung, 2010).

There is more than an element of self interest in the company sponsored intern programmes and guest editors employed on short term contracts:

> we are always looking for people who fill the gap as the older ones go … we need to get new people, so if someone does fine we offer him to do that Volontariat or, or to work here if he's already an editor [11]

For the last ten years the English language service has offered an annual journalist intern placement to Australian community broadcasters who met the criteria of being university graduates under 35, with broadcasting experience and a basic knowledge of German:

> Since we started that scheme in 2000, a lot of young Australians have come and gone, quite a few have stayed here for longer which meant that Deutsche Welle was gaining good journalists who had then also benefited from our training here [02]

DW trains its own future staff for its editorial departments and foreign language programmes. The foreign language graduate scheme is designed especially for young journalists from the areas that DW broadcasts to. Each year, the programmes for which young people will be trained are chosen based on programming and workforce age-structure information (DW-Personalabteilung, 2010).

The Volontäre or Volontärin, as graduate trainees are known, are part of the organisation's official journalism training scheme known as the Volontäriat. This is a type of cadetship and involves a full programme of theoretical study complemented by practical training and attachments to different departments. There is a formalised selection and assessment procedure for potential Volontärin, who usually have some form of media training and generally experience working in a media organisation. In addition to supplying curriculum vitae; which in Germany is expected to be detailed and extensive, and a portfolio of their work, applicants are asked to write something on a particular topic as part of the selection procedure. The best of these are invited to a two day assessment centre where they have a general knowledge test and are tested in news writing and reporting as well as doing a camera test, and an online test:

> it was always competitive [but now] ... we have actually created this selection process where you actually have to pass certain tests, or do certain things, rather than just have an interview although the final interview also plays a major part role in who ultimately gets the limited number of places [02]

In addition to the German Volontäriat there is what's called the Fremdsprachen-volontäriat for foreign language journalists who it is hoped will eventually work in

the language services of Deutsche Welle although employment with Deutsche Welle after completing a cadetship, is no longer automatic:

> It used to be that after the end of this year and a half training, you would have a year's contract in some department of Deutsche Welle, nowadays you may – and you may not [02]

During 2008, DW trained a total of 42 university graduates, 30 of them native speakers of languages other than German (DW-Personalabteilung, 2010).

The Volontäriat and Fremdsprachenvolontäriat are managed by DW-Akademie although their workplace training is handled at a departmental level. Personnel are involved in their orientation and administration. The different internship programmes, work experience and apprenticeships, are all ways in which the organisation seeks to ensure it has a sufficiently skilled workforce to achieve its organisational objectives.

Most but not all of the Volontäriat and Fremdsprachenvolontäriat become permanent DW employees although like many companies there is an increase in limited term contracts; some will find work with other broadcasting organisations and others will return to their home countries. The investment is significant. In practice it is recognised that the training investment does not always pay off when someone trained by DW leaves to work for another media organisation:

> You can't really change it, we were thinking about maybe doing a paragraph into the contract like if you leave after one year, just after one year, you have to pay back the training fees or something like that, but it hasn't happened yet. At the moment it's just upsetting for us. But of course we hope that people stay here or want to stay here [11]

Staff development training and other 'offerings' are part of the company's strategy to ensure a skilled and motivated staff. The training and development emphasis of an organisation is one of the indicators of organisational effectiveness (Bryman, 1989). By this measure Deutsche Welle is an effective organisation. A casual comment about DW's training practices indicate providing training and learning support is also seen as consistent with the company's media development philosophy:

> Deutsche Welle offers knowledge to other people, and so it has to be of course important to offer this knowledge also to employees [11]

4.1.3 Deutsche Welle-Akademie

DW-Akademie coordinates media development training in five regions: Africa, Asia, Eastern Europe/Central Asia, Latin America and the Middle East and North Africa. DW-Akademie regards itself both as "a teaching and a learning organization" (DW-Akademie, 2009). It works collaboratively with broadcasters in developing and transition countries, for example, Eastern Europe and the Middle East. These are countries with evolving political and media systems either through internal political development or as a result of a regime change. Details of current projects are given on DW-Akademie's web page accessed through Deutsche Welle's main Internet portal: www.dw-world.de. Current projects include training radio editors and reporters in Laos, the theory and practice of investigative journalism in Latin America, coaching public and community TV stations in Colombia and professional and cultural exchanges between German and Arab journalists.

DW-Akademie also trains journalists and media personnel within DW and supplies inter-cultural media training courses for management staff at German companies, non-governmental organisations and federal and state Government agencies. This training is not directly connected to the media development although sometimes it is related:

> We are sometimes qualifying [training] attaches from the Ministry of Foreign Affairs… who have the responsibility for the press activities in the German embassies, so you could say it's a kind of media development [03]

In 2008, DW-Akademie ran 213 projects and training courses with a total of 2,546 participants in the areas of media development (non-profit) and media training (profit). Thirty-seven per cent of those trained were women. Almost 80 per cent of all training courses and consulting activities were carried out on location in the various regions. The remaining courses were organized in Bonn and/or Berlin. A total of 3,127 people took part in DW-Akademie training in 2009, an increase of 23 % (DW-Akademie, 2008, 2009). The increase is attributed to more efficient use of funds; growing interest among financial backers of DW-Akademie in media development; and, the ability of broadcasters in some transition countries to pay for the DW-Akademie's consulting services out of their own budgets. The majority of training and consulting were carried out on location or 'in country'.

As a publicly funded body DW-Akademie is subject to internal and external auditors. In 2008, including revenues from its commercial media training operations, its total budget was € 8,562,396. This is approximately 16 million New Zealand dollars using a rough conversion rate of one Euro to two New Zealand dollars. In 2009, DW-A's overall budget rose by 4%. About two thirds of their budget comes from the German Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development (BMZ). Additional funding comes from the German Foreign Office, the Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit (GTZ) and the European Union (EU). Deutsche Welle funds in-house journalist training.

4.1.4 International Media Studies

In 2009 the DW-Akademie introduced an International Media Studies (IMS) Master's Programme in cooperation with the University of Bonn and the Bonn Rhein-Sieg University of Applied Sciences. The two-year course of study is designed for future journalists and media managers from developing countries and focuses on journalism, media management, communications and media studies. The IMS programme represents a new direction for DW-Akademie's media development training[6]:

> We need a lot a different tools to address media development and that can be a the trainer level, that can be on a workshop level but the programme itself … I think this [the IMS Masters programme] is due to the requirements of the whole media system, the complexity and the landscape [09]

> It's a different approach to the one we follow in our usual courses we do in Laos and elsewhere, but the target group, international journalists from developing countries, is the same as the one we intend to reach when we work in the South of Sudan and we train journalists from the national radio station … it is our strategy that this programme is a complementary offer to our usual regional activities [03]

The IMS programme is a much more consciously academic pathway than the co-existing workshops and workplace training opportunities which are the main vehicles for DW's media development training efforts. There is some crossover between people involved in external training projects and the IMS programme but it tends to be on a sessional basis as guest lecturers and as trainers in specific

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[6] Because this research took place at the end of the first year of the programme there was an initial reluctance to discuss the IMS programme.

skills workshops. This reflects the requirements for academic accreditation in Germany which also affects the curriculum:

> Academic institutions really have this very strict curriculum. But then how you really transform it and say 'this is my course' and what tools I use, this is … [dependent on] the experience of the lecturers that are involved [09]

The IMS programme is taught in English and German; candidates need to demonstrate a level of proficiency in German and English and like Volontärin have a professional media background:

> We have journalists and media professionals coming from all over, from mainly developing and transitional countries, that what they learn here is about a democratic system, how the role of media in a democracy [works] [09]

One of the goals is for the students to be able to understand mass communications especially in different political systems:

> The idea is to have really broader background later to also be able to lead [09]

.There is a strong emphasis on a mix of theoretical and practical which is referred to as 'the didactic' of the course (DW-Akademie, 2010d):

> The main focus is … journalism and to have the students trained in practical journalism experience but we have a very broad field of media economics, we have the field of political communication, we have a field of academics, academic writing, research methods … that's the basic idea to give them skills in the whole media and communication area … practical skills as well as kind of management and theoretical thinking and understanding how the whole system works [09]

The IMS programme is organised in a system of modules, including media economics, media communication science, leadership and media management. The generalist approach is linked to the anticipated future of careers of graduates as managers and leaders of media organisations. The ideological role of the media and the normative values are explicit:

> [We] discuss very intensively what's the role of media in a democracy [09]

The normative values of a democratic vision of journalism are important but the course is not seen as an opportunity to indoctrinate:

> That's not, absolutely not, what I want to teach them. I want to show our system, the public broadcast system, as a very elaborate good

example, as a system that, where it can function for example, where different types of media, especially the plurality of opinion, the values of freedom of expression etcetera, where this works. But, no student should then have the impression that we say … you come to Germany and that's really the solution and the final [*goal*] you have to reach in your media landscape [09]

This attitude was repeated by all the Field trainers spoken to. The IMS course intake is currently limited to 20 students. This allows for an individually based approach motivated by the diverse backgrounds of the learners.

If there is a student where we feel … there is kind of a link missing because the course starts at this level, then we have tutorials or we have the office hours where we really then have the students coming and really discuss and explain and give them as much backing as we can [09]

The IMS programme has elements of the Germany based training that was once a major part of DW's media development support but is no longer feasible. This training provides journalists and broadcasters the opportunity to experience working in a democratic media environment:

experiencing it here, is still something very different than being told about it in their respective home countries … I've tried to explain why I think we should continue with these workshops here in Germany and invest lot of money into them, but management decided otherwise [01]

4.2   International partnerships

DW-Akademie's media development work involves a wide range of countries and participants. In some countries DW-Akademie works with universities, training students of journalism rather than professional journalists but the core focus is providing training for professional journalists working for radio and television stations. But most training partners are broadcasting stations or nations with whom DW-Akademie has training agreements; these are often, but not always countries where Deutsche Welle has other broadcasting agreement. The majority of DW-Akademie's partners contribute something themselves to the training course. This contribution may be financial or logistical, in the form of organisational and/or human resources support in implementing the training at the training location (CEval, 2010). The training and courses offered are aimed at strengthening the competence and independence of journalists, technicians, managers and trainers and modelling a democratic conception of journalism. Training partners are not selected according to any specific criteria, although

selection is based on a number of different factors including historic relationships with Deutsche Welle and Germany; the relative maturity of the media structures in the partner countries; and, their strategic importance both in terms of media development and international relations. Only training carried out in countries which fit BMZ identified criteria for media assistance is funded by the BMZ, although the Akademie carries out a limited amount of training with partners outside these criteria.

The idea of partnerships is fundamental to DW's training practices at a number of different levels, including how DW trainers see themselves in relation to these partners. Implicit in the idea of partnership is a degree of equality and joint endeavour:

> We do not believe that only our philosophy is the right one and I think for this reason that we work only with people as trainers who have internalized this idea, that they have this participative approach and say okay 'I am not on top of the hill and you are at the bottom of the hill, we are partners and we want to work like partners'. Otherwise I think it doesn't work [03]

In addition to its own media development training activities, Deutsche Welle is involved in supporting the development of sector organisations such as the Asia-Pacific Institute for Broadcasting Development (AIBD, 2011). And in cooperation with other international broadcasters, DW-Akademie is involved in UNESCO sponsored training activates aimed at capacity building of media professionals through training and promoting professional journalism practices (UNESCO, 2009). The training is aimed at encouraging investigative journalism and reflection and debate on ethical issues; and strengthening civic journalism to promote citizens' participation in communication processes. These are seen as strategies for fostering free, independent and pluralistic communication and universal access to information raising awareness of diversity and tolerance.

4.2.1   Global Media Forum

Another way in which it supports media development is through an annual Global Media Forum. The Global Media Forums provide an opportunity for journalists and managers from partner countries to meet, listen and talk to media specialists in Germany. They are also an opportunity for Deutsche Welle to be explicit about its normative values. The quoted comments of DW's Director General, Erik Betterman in a special edition of *Weltzeit* (literal translation World time) published in the run up to the second Global Media Forum in 2009 titled 'Fighting wars 2.0 with smart mobs and twitter', which is a play on the media 2.0 label sometimes

used in reference to new media, reveal strong normative judgements about what is important in journalism. Betterman argues that in the context of conflict simply providing high-speed journalism using new media is insufficient; instead the media needs "to advocate an awareness of how to solve conflicts with well-researched stories" (Bettermann, 2009, p. 8). Deutsche Welle's normative stance about media responsibility are recurring themes: "The media industry has a huge responsibility and can especially play an important role when it comes to conflict prevention" (ibid.). This sense of social responsibly combined with critical reflection on the role of the media, are characteristic of DW policy statements.

The themes of the forums: Media in Peace building and Conflict Prevention (2008); Conflict Prevention in the Multimedia age (2009) and the diversity of participants attending the Global Media Forums which encompass world leaders and community broadcasters are seen as strategies to "reflect our self-image worldwide as the German voice for human rights" (p. 9). The topic for the 2010 media forum: Climate Change and the Media and the next forum to be held in 2011: Human rights in a Globalized world: Challenges for the Media are both consistent with this image. The value placed on consultation is demonstrated in comments about how the forum is structured: "we have taken into account suggestions from our partners, participants and journalists. That has led to changes like having smaller panels, more workshops, more translation and more opportunities for interaction" (p. 8). There is also explicit critique of insular approaches to new media: "People in Germany think far too often in media boxes – public broadcasters and newspapers in one and Twitter and Co. in the other. Instead of pitting them against each other, we need to combine them and make use of their strengths" (Bettermann, 2009, p. 8). DW's approach to new technologies is inclusive, treating the emerging media platforms including social media such as twitter and its practitioners, citizen journalists and bloggers as participants in debates about the future of journalism. This attitude is based in part on DW's experience of social media and citizen journalism which has often been responsible for distributing DW produced content.

4.2.2   Cross cultural awareness

Within DW-Akademie, the management of international training is regionalised to establish closer contacts with training partners and to develop a level of trust and mutual understanding and promote continuity:

> On our side we need to know what's possible in that country; what's possible with that partner; what's the level of education; [and] the

level of journalistic proficiency of the trainees we're likely to encounter in that country or at that partner station or partner organisation [01]

The CEval report found that partners appreciated DW-Akademie's early planning, which allows them to coordinate other events with DW-Akademie training.

Continuity is seen as vital to develop country knowledge and trust, a lack of continuity was seen to adversely affect project planning and delivery:

If somebody else organises every new project you're always starting from scratch and there'll be tons of misunderstandings – which there usually are the first time you work with a new partner or in a new country – but over the years you learn and you become more familiar with each other and it just gets more professional after a couple of visits or encounters [01]

Building relationships, participation and the importance of consultation were recurring themes. The relationship with partners begins at the design phase of a training project

Together with our partners we design it, we fix the objectives, we see what kind of methods are included …or let's say with what kind of methods we will achieve the objectives … [then] we fix the budget, we find the persons, first of all the project manager who will be responsible for the whole process and then the different trainers, which is not the same [10]

There is no set formula for training projects which depend strongly on the project, the country and project partner:

If they are good partners, if the infrastructure is working well, things like that …. We have projects, like … we are doing a diploma on journalism, it's still taking us time and we started with the idea two years ago. And you have other projects like environmental journalism in Nicaragua, which is as well a three years project, but it was planned in a period of … six months [10]

Because DW-Akademie operates in cooperation with in-country partners it is often dependent on their partner's ability to negotiate their domestic politics:

in some countries where it is very hard to work, for example China … we have the task to find the right partners [03]

When a good match is made it can be a mutually beneficial relationship. Increasing DW-Akademie works with tertiary organisations but it is a country to country decision:

A university has more liberty of sorts … in Vietnam, we worked with Hanoi television, it's the state television but it was okay [03]

It is the role of the regional managers to signal if there is a problem with the training partner and if necessary recommend a change:

> We have this situation in Sudan for example … that is the task of the regional managers to speak to different people and to different partners. And the worst case scenario would be … to say 'okay we will not work anymore in this country'. We had this in Zimbabwe. There was this kind of struggle between …Mugabe and the media freedom we didn't work in Zimbabwe for years, now we are working there again [03]

Cross cultural awareness was a recurrent theme from all interview participants involved in international training; it appeared to be the product of personal reflection rather a prescribed position although it was part of a conscious policy as well. Several participants made reference to different cultural realities and different learning styles linked to different cultures

> Every culture is different and sometimes you have to be very careful, things I do, you do, may offend people in other countries, cultures and so that you have to be careful and take this in mind … things we can do over here as a journalist, other people in other cultures you cannot do [04]

> In Latin America they love playing … it's not only that they are being participants, that's the way that they learn … it is a lot of games … they like theatre … drama and social drama … in Eastern Europe, it's completely different, they like it a lot more, let's say not theoretically, but from my experience they didn't like too much participation, and not so much the games [10]

Cultural awareness is regarded as a crucial factor in training delivery:

> In order to do a programme … to do a workshop … you have to know a little bit about the mentality and a little bit about the culture …It is very, very difficult if you … don't keep in mind the differences … as far as [things like] criticism … even things you can say, you cannot say. Problems you can discuss, you cannot discuss. Which sometimes has to do with the culture [and] sometimes to do with religion so you have to be careful [04]

It was assumed the trainer needed to adapt not the learner and different cultural reactions were linked to identifying appropriate approaches with learners:

> People in each country they have a different mentality and you really have to be very careful that you adapt to it … [for example] when you go to the Middle East, then it is very important, that you really point out first of all the positive points, then just somehow go around and

tell them, not what they have done wrong. They have done nothing wrong, but what you could [do] better [04]

Deeper knowledge of the training recipients learning styles influence teaching approaches:

The more you get to know a country, a partner, a culture, the more you see 'okay, this recipe doesn't work for this environment, so I've got to come up with something new for this case' [01]

There were other challenges and frustrations particularly 'getting the message across' and getting evidence learners had understood and assimilated new knowledge:

Very often, we as trainers will feel like we've covered a certain topic, we've explained it, they've all nodded, they've done the exercise, they know how to do it now. And then, when we come back to that topic a couple of days later, they're just as clueless as they were before or they seem to be … it's kind of frustrating for you as a teacher when you think 'we spent half a day on this exercise, why didn't anyone integrate natural sound now?' [01]

This apparent lack of comprehension could undermine trainer's confidence:

you start thinking – what am I doing wrong here, why don't they remember what we talked about two days ago, or why can't they make that transfer of an exercise that we did, putting that into practice [01]

At the same time it was seen as part of the reality of teaching:

That's just the way it is. You've got to remind them, 'mmm well how about a little nat [natural] sound? What kind of sounds can you think of for that story?' And then hopefully it will sink in [01]

The frustrations of teaching were balanced by feelings of satisfaction from vocation experience and the feeling that

Sometimes I ask myself when we do our [training] … what have you been doing for the past two weeks, why don't they understand it, why don't they do it the way you want them to do it, but that is only one side of the matter, the other side is … after two weeks there's a special kind of relationship. And I think that is worth it, just to talk to people and give them the feeling that we are equals [04]

Working with interpreters and language were seen as more problematic than cross-culture questions:

I think most of the people we work with at the Akademie are pretty sensible for cultural differences and stepping on people's toes. I think

there's a large degree of intercultural competence here, so hopefully it doesn't happen too often that we step on people's toes or touch upon taboo topics or subjects [01]

Although there was frustration expressed about participants there was also clear admiration:

People in a lot of the countries where we work, often don't get paid, or get paid very little compared to someone working for an NGO, or someone who's got equal qualifications but is doing a different kind of job [01]

We are privileged that we get our salary regularly …I've been to countries where I've thought … if this happened to me, I would leave, I would go somewhere else, I would find another job and they stay there, they do their programmes, they haven't been paid for I don't know, three of four months and still [*they keep working*] I mean of course they complain but it doesn't come to the point where they say no this is enough [04]

A background in international broadcasting with its exposure to different cultural perspectives and as well as a journalist's perspective were both cited as contributing to an inclusive world view:

I had contact with colleagues from I don't know how many different countries every day, and of course as journalist you discuss political issues, you discuss political developments and not only in your own country but in other countries as well. … It has an influence definitely [04]

Although DW-Akademie staff determines the selection criteria for participants, it is usually the partners who select participants to be involved. Some of the difficulties experienced in workshops were attributed to poor selection procedures. The CEval survey found 40% of trainers saw room for improvement in the actual composition of training groups and that when groups are too varied they undermine the effectiveness of the training and can also be frustrating for the participants (CEval, 2010).

Most of the time [we] only very positive reaction, there are sometime people who say oh this was boring or I knew all this before, of course that happens and but on the other side this is the fault of our partners who haven't chosen the right participants … and it is sometimes difficult to get … the atmosphere you want [04]

At the same time, anticipated challenges were accompanied by expectations of positive learning outcomes:

It is always very exciting because you don't know who you will meet there. You don't know which group of participants will sit there and either look at you, either they are enthusiastic or they are sceptical or they, sometimes they don't even want to go there but their bosses said you have to, so there's a mixture of everything and you can't prepare for that because you don't know what is going on [04]

More specific criteria for selection of participants and a greater involvement in the selection process are now being considered.

While political imperatives may influence in which countries the BMZ is prepared to fund media development, the Akademie is not obliged to organize and carry out training if it does not consider training to be feasible or sustainable. External political considerations relate mainly to the conditions of partner countries. Working in countries with repressive regimes can be problematic. There can be conflict between the DW-A's commitment to promoting democratic media practices and the political realities of partner countries, particularly in countries considered problematic like China or Sudan, where government representatives can object to course content:

[They] don't like to have too much about liberty in our seminars [03]

The official line can be at odds with private conversations:

Years ago, when we first started out, we were confused because if you speak within a closed room then they are very, very open minded, and they tell us 'okay we want to learn from you, how do you see journalism? What do you see as the principles? … Out in the open, this is not always possible [03]

As a result project planners and planners have learnt to take strategic action:

You have to be very diplomatic, you should not write down you want to work on democracy. You should write 'we will work on journalistic topics'. Sometimes you have to be very sensitive about specific topics but we learned in our courses that there is a great openness about all things [03]

Political climate can result in the cancelling of training even after DW-Akademie has received positive feedback about earlier training:

In the last year … two weeks before we wanted to start, they told us 'no you are not allowed to come to us. We were invited and then the invitation was cancelled [03]

But it can work the other way and DW-Akademie has declined to offer training when unacceptable conditions have been imposed; editorial independence extends to the content and design of training programmes:

> Usually they know exactly that they can't bargain with us … if they say we would like you to do a feature [workshop] and not news or current affairs, that's okay, but as far as the content is concerned, no there is no discussion [compromise] [04]

A lack of media freedom can be frustrating for participants, the CEval report revealed that some journalists were frustrated because they were unable to work in the ways modelled and advocated by DW-Akademie trainers:

> sometimes we got the feedback, you told us to do this, but I'm not able to do this, otherwise I'm not in the job any longer [03]

This is recognised as a problem by the DW-Akademie but it has been decided that it is better to continue to promote

> Our opinion is we should go on in this way and we can give the journalists special skills but they have to see what they can use or what they are not allowed to do [03]

Trainers showed a sense of responsibility toward training partners and an awareness of the risks some face; balancing ideals with social and political and political reality:

> I can train you to be a good journalist but … if I make you walk out here as a critical journalist, I have to take responsibility for your, for your head to be chopped off, if you do what you want to do, and I don't want to do that [05]

> In a lot of the countries where we work it's absolutely a dangerous job … you're always walking that tightrope of reporting the truth, or what you feel or see as the truth … or risk losing your job, being harassed by your employer, the government, the country's authorities [01]

> We tell them listen we don't want you to be a hero. You have to assess the situation, you have to know your own limits … You can't expect that things will change overnight. Sometimes it takes a long, long time. It's like, we say in German, it's like drilling into very thick planks; it's always a little bit and a little bit [04]

4.3 Evaluation

In 2009 DW-Akademie underwent a comprehensive evaluation to gauge the extent to which it achieved its media development goals. Prompted by the BMZ, its main funder, DW-Akademie commissioned a wide-ranging independent study

to evaluate and assess the impact of its activities since 2003 (see CEval, 2010). Using a mixed method approach that aimed to include everybody involved in training, DW-Akademie canvassed feedback from former course participants, instructors, and partner broadcasters using online surveys. CEval researchers then collected data for the three country case studies on location, conducting interviews and group meetings with partner broadcasters and former participants evaluating a total of 37 DW-Akademie projects.

The evaluation project needs to be seen as part of an overall trend to better evaluation practices in the German development aid sector. An earlier study of Germany's development funding and strategies, commissioned by the BMZ and also conducted by CEval found the diversity of evaluation systems reflected the fragmentation of German development aid and called for a common and independent evaluation method for Germany's various aid programs currently scattered across several ministries and sectors (DW-Media, 2009). To quantify the quality and success of its services the Akademie has begun introducing a quality management system using the international standard ISO 9001 to demonstrate its ability to consistently provide a product that meets partner, statutory and regulatory requirements, as well as address questions of participant satisfaction through the application of the system. While this is no doubt partly because in the words of DW-Akademie Managing Director, Gerda Meuer: "Participant satisfaction levels are an important indicator of the quality of our services" (DW-Akademie, 2009, p. 36) it is also because in the competitive world of media development the ability to supply partners and funding agencies with an independent seal of quality in the form of ISO certification is desirable.

The 2009 Annual report identifies DW training as based on being "professional, practical and tailored to the needs of the respective target group". Karl Lippe, a project manager in the African division, who was instrumental in introducing a quality management system and is responsible for refining it, confirms that the introduction of a QM system and ISO 9001 certification is seen as "our way of making sure that we maintain and improve this standard" (DW-Akademie, 2009, p. 37). DW-Akademie received its first certification in September 2010 (DW-Akademie, 2010g).

4.3.1 Training evaluation practices

All DW-Akademie projects are evaluated after their completion. At the moment this evaluation is based primarily on feedback from the participants. Using questionnaires drawn up specifically for their training course, they evaluate aspects such as the presentation of subject matter, the practicality of what they learned, working materials and instructors. The results of these evaluations are analysed by the project managers and trainers and taken into account for future planning. DW and DW-Akademie place a strong emphasis on evaluation of programmes as a means of ensuring projects can be systematically checked and if necessary improved for their long-term success. Evaluation is seen as an essential component of the organisation's training practices:

> Evaluation can bring you forward, can show you how good your course is, your trainings are, and what you can improve and what you shouldn't change and the second important feature of evaluation is that you can give standardised and objective feedback to the ones who train people outside [06]

It is recognised that simply carrying out evaluation in the form of feedback from participants is not enough:

> if you have a training of two weeks and after that they give you that evaluation sheet, normally the people are happy because it was a good time and things like that but I think we would like to have some more and I personally believe that it would be very good for us to have more the external view on our projects, like we had in our case studies, that was very good [10]

There is recognition that evaluation is essentially an instrument of control and people can be defensive about their practices and resistant to evaluation because they fear someone will be critical of their work from insecurity and because they do not like the idea of being controlled

> One feature of evaluation is that you standardize, when you standardize things in a questionnaire then you make it comparable from one country to the other and you make it comparable from let's say from 2008 to 2010. And this a narrow code course and it doesn't correspond to the wish of our teachers to 'breath free' [06]

To be successful course evaluation needs to be accepted and not imposed:

> To have compliance, you don't use [evaluation] as an instrument of power … It's not a question of Herrschaftwissen [trans: authority or domination by knowledge] [06]

And, there needs to be a willingness to change

> If you have people who don't, who really don't want to change things, just to do their job, then evaluation is not the right tool [06]

While there were some defensive reactions to the evaluation project, a positive consequence was the validation given to trainers, many of whom have no formal educational training, as a result of the positive feedback from training partners.

The initial impetus to carry out more extensive evaluation of the organisation's training may have been external but it has been embraced at a policy and practical level. The Akademie is now looking at expanding its evaluation strategies moving beyond predominantly retrospective 'ex post' evaluations. In addition to striving for greater consistency and the collation of the traditional types of evaluation, the Akademie is looking at broadening the scope of future evaluation:

> That is what we are doing now and we are discussing the tools and when the projects will change to more complex projects with several courses, the same people, other people, managers and so on involved in that complete project, with single parts of, then we have to think about different elaborated tools. We know if we only ask the participants of the trainings, then we will not have a real evaluation [06]

Even though there appears to be a strong commitment to maintaining on-going programme evaluation, there is a realistic appraisal of what is involved in carrying out evaluations terms of resources:

> Doing an evaluation with every project, with every course, is a lot of work so we are thinking about to draw a sample, let's say every second course by, at random [06]

The increased emphasis on evaluation within the organisation is part of a push at the political policy level for a more coordinated and integrated approach to German EZ or Entwicklung Zusammenarbeit (trans. development co-operation), particularly in relation to the work of federally funded agencies:

> More coordinated cohesion, cohesion is der Zauber word, the magic word [06].

While collecting quantifiable data about training is the goal, qualitative information is also wanted:

> You have numbers that you can rely on but on the other hand it is naked data, do you say naked? … you can fill with soul when you have in-depth interviews or you talk to people [06]

There is a perceived tension between the requirements of the Government funding agency and DW-Akademie administration and the people on the ground:

> On one hand we have the BMZ, on the other hand we have DW-Akademie and all [the] free thinking people who want [to stay free] who are very successful with what they are doing [06]

DW-Akademie Managing Director, Gerda Meuer is seen as both responsible for initiating the evaluation project and credited with getting support within the organisation for it:

> [She] did a very good convincing job … she explained how important evaluation is, so that we can improve our work, and she promised not to force with raw data, but always let's say what is the story behind the raw data, is it realistic, let's discuss it [06]

This kind of consultation appears to be both an organisational strategy for coping with change as well as a reflection of the role and purpose of evaluation in the organisation which is to both satisfy the requirements of the main funding body and to improve practice:

> of course we want the money from the BMZ, but we want to learn about it [the training], what is done. We will have a critical view on what is measured in evaluation, what are we doing. And this is a democratic process; it's the only way to do evaluation [06]

The CEval Report found that the rationale for DW-Akademie's activities was clearly set out and comprehensible as well as consistent with BMZ policy and planning goals. The report recommended that although there may be no immediately visible evidence that training and consultation projects were achieving the overarching development objectives, the evaluation results confirm that DW-Akademie measures are achieving their targets well at the level of participants and broadcasters. Based on current understandings of how media development works, that graduates and broadcasters who have been exposed to media training will be more able to make use of opportunities that arise in the context of the opening up of political processes and become more actively involved in democratic processes, there is sufficient justification that the activities be continued, especially in countries that lack high-quality journalism training or further training programmes.

The partners and graduates surveyed as part of the CEval stakeholder study generally evaluate the DW-Akademie activities very positively in respect to learning success, relevance to actual practice and professional usefulness. In addition, the trainers surveyed believe that the training courses meet the

expectation of participants to a great extent. The CEval data enable the generalisation that goals are being achieved well, even if the results of the country case studies do show some specific areas that can be improved and which need to be included in future plans.

The purpose of evaluation is to support the objectives of DW as much as it is to provide feedback to trainers. The evaluation process extends to the learning partners and identifying what is needed by the partner, which may not be the same as what is wanted, for example there may a demand for urban Internet training when there is a need for rural radio reporting.

Training project evaluations are generally well received:

> The project managers and even the teachers are glad that they have feedback … they get an overview and what is okay what is not okay [06]

Post evaluation interpretation and discussion of evaluations is seen as crucial. Sometimes evaluations only produce information at the logistical level of accommodation; the lecturer room; the hotel or transportation at other times in concerns skills. The evaluations are intentionally based on four to five training projects at a time:

> you have to think in cycles – you do evaluation, you have results, you discuss the results, you improve what you are doing, or you do not improve what you are doing, because you say okay it's contra productive when we do that [06]

4.4 Underlying and overarching values

The activities and practices of DW and DW-Akademie are products of a specific set of circumstances, one interview participant linked Deutsche Welle's philosophy directly to the experiences of the German people before and during the Second World War:

> The German people were so much manipulated by the third Reich … that after World War Two the whole philosophy [of broadcasting] changed [04]

In the post war period Germany's broadcasting systems were reconstructed:

> The British, they installed this system … people learned and people accepted it and people thought that it was a good thing. And the whole system still exists [04]

The philosophy of public service broadcasting and the origins of Germany's broadcasting system remain relevant to broadcasters within Deutsche Welle:

> I think people at Deutsche Welle are more aware of the fact that freedom of press is not followed everywhere … I mean if you talk to people in the street over here they don't think about freedom of the press in other countries and why should they. But since journalists at Deutsche Welle have such a broad spectrum of journalists from other countries and they talk to their colleagues from other countries every day so they have a different philosophy and they probably attach more importance to freedom of the press, to good journalism. And that's what Deutsche Welle Akademie follows and what they do as well [04]

Underlying all of the participants' comments is a normative view of media and journalistic practice linked to editorial freedom of the press and professional standards. This appears to have been a consistent values agenda:

> The main objective behind it is … if you strengthen journalism you strengthen democracy … that's sort of the hook line to the song that we sing [05]

> Our task is to bring democratic thinking [06]

> I would say that our basic philosophy, 40 years ago, was nearly the same, but we didn't have this explicit approach [03]

> There are certain journalistic qualities and ethical guidelines that transcend the medium, you know like fair and honest reporting and good research. These kinds of things that we try to teach in our workshops [01]

> I think the most important thing is that people trust you, that people believe you are telling the truth … what you are commenting on, is sound, is based on facts … It is the responsibility of a journalist to provide information, to provide correct information, and provide information which … the normal listener can understand [04]

Although it is common nowadays for broadcasters to have some form of higher education in many developing countries this may be very limited. In most developing countries professional knowledge is learnt from more experienced colleagues; however communities of practice do not necessarily promote good practice:

> It's just this vicious circle, you know. The older colleague he is respected because he has been in radio for 25 years [but] …he does his work in certain way, he makes mistakes, he doesn't even realize

that he makes them, and then younger people, he teaches younger people, they make the same mistakes and, and, and [04]

Being explicit about the ideology associated different media practices is seen as a manifestation of the normative values associated with the view of journalism as an emancipatory activity but it is not assumed it will necessary influence the views of participants:

We're not here to preach the gospel, we're here to start thought processes and to start thinking ourselves as well [01]

There is nevertheless a clear hope that exposure to journalistic practices associated with a particular normative view of journalism will have an effect:

We always hope that it will start thought processes which hopefully turn into some kind of action at some point. That doesn't have to be during the workshop, it doesn't have to be ten days after the workshop, but maybe it changes their outlook on life and their perception of how things are, how things could be, how they have to struggle to expand their freedoms even if they're living in a very restrictive society or media environment [01]

Communicating key public service values of European journalism was seen as one of the tasks of a trainer, in particular to think of the user or the listener:

Because that's a perspective that many of them are not taught … Especially if it's an authoritarian society where the media have a very clear focus of 'we've got to present the government's point of view and we've got to make our listeners understand that this is what's good for them' [01]

Training encounters are seen as much more than the acquisition of media skills and knowledge, they are also seen as an opportunity to present alternative value systems:

We're working in a lot of countries where the role of the media is very different from what we're used to here in a democratic system. A lot of the people that we work with, a lot of our trainees, have never had a chance to experience a different kind of media system … For me personally it's also very important to come as a sort of ambassador, or representative from a different culture, a different value system, and to personify that to a certain extent [01]

DW-Akademie works with many national broadcasting systems it considers to be 'not free media' and it is clear that they hope their involvement will change those systems:

We hope that we can help to change the media situation, that we can qualify journalists and that they can understand and internalise that free media is essential for the development of the country and that they have … a feeling that this is important and that they want to comment and edit in a free manner [03]

I think for me personally the most challenging thing is on the one hand … to make the people understand how media works. For sure, to really teach specific knowledge, but even more, to make them think critically, to get some reflections about their very, very important, their job where they really have a lot of responsibility [09]

There appeared little disagreement with the management defined goals for media development:

They do make sense: to increase good governance, to improve the people's rights to information, the people's right to have their say in the media of their respective countries [01]

While different in their individual expression, all the interview participants can be called 'true believers' in the importance of information, the value of good broadcasting practice and democracy:

I hope to achieve, and I still hope to achieve, when I go to do workshops like that to, that those people, or those young colleagues are able to do a good radio programme; that they understand how important it is to convey information to their listeners. … That they understand that being informed about everyday life subjects, about political subjects, are basically important for democracy. I mean this might sound a little farfetched but I still believe in it. I sometimes, when I come back from the workshops, have to think about my own goals and my own, own, is it really what you have achieved or can you achieve it at all, but nevertheless I still believe in it and I hope even if it's only a little bit [04]

A professional approach to broadcasting is seen in terms of the unspoken contract between journalist and audience but also in relation to the objectives of broadcasting organisations to attract an audience:

… for example, when you write a news story, the professional approach would be to do a clean clear, a clear story so you don't confuse your listener … you have a story that your listener understands right away … and if you have not learned how to do a news story like this … after 20 seconds, 30 seconds your listeners will lose interest because he cannot follow what you are saying. And when he loses interest he switches to another station, he switches your radio off altogether and you have worked for nothing [04]

Clarity is not synonymous with 'dumb-ing down' or imposing a perception of reality and making a clear distinction between information and commentary is essential, implicitly recognizing the power of the media:

> Your listener he must have the feeling that he [sic] can trust you, that he is not manipulated by you … I mean people turned away from state radio [in former communist countries] because they didn't trust them … they didn't leave any room for the listener, to think about, well to have their own ideas about certain subjects [04]

In countries used to the manipulation of information by authoritarian media, one of the goals of media development is to change the audience's relationship to the media:

> I never forget, this was in I think it was Uzbekistan or Kurgistan, I can't remember, we took a taxi and there was music on and we asked the taxi driver whether or not he liked his radio station and he said 'Yes beautiful music' and we said what about information? 'There is no information.' Do you miss information? 'Not really'. And then we had to make a detour because there was a traffic jam and we asked him, we said, well would you turn onto a radio station where they told where there was a traffic jam? Where there was speed control for example and things like that? And you know his eyes [*lit up*] and he said 'yes of course but we don't have that'. Well would you like it? 'Yes, yes of course'. I mean, this was a typical, a typical example for that [04]

4.4.1   Public images

There is clear evidence of the normative values that guide and sustain DW's training practices. For example, professionalism is explicitly linked to a normative view of the role of media: on DW's web page *Promoting Media Around the World* (DW-Akademie, 2010c) it is asserted that a "free and fair media ensure a functioning democracy and rule of law in a country" this is in turn linked to a normative view of journalists: "This places a great responsibility on journalists", which implies both that journalists are agents for democracy and that they have a responsibility to act. The concluding remark that "In many countries of the world, there are no free media and journalists are manipulated, persecuted and threatened" is both an observation of the subjective reality of many journalists and provides the motivating rationale for promoting professionalism. Implicit is the assumption that sufficient professionalism will promote a just and equitable society and in some way protect individual journalists.

In the *Yemen Times* (Al-Ghabiri, 2006) Carsten von Nahmen, head of DW
Akademie's Middle East regional Team confirms DW's commitment to mutual
respect as explicit policy and also its awareness of different cultural realities:

> It's a trademark of DW-Akademie trainings that we don't come to
> another country telling people, "This is the way we do it, this is the
> only way to do it and you must do it this way". That would be quite
> arrogant and also very naive because every country has its own
> history, culture and political reality. So, you can't simply take the
> German or European model and transplant it to another region of the
> world (von Nahmen in Al-Ghabiri, 2006)

In von Nahmen's comments there is indirect reference to DW-Akademie trainers'
pedagogic approach, which acknowledges the participants reality but also
challenges it by exploring possibilities of what could be:

> Very often, we then hear from our colleagues, the participants in our
> workshops, 'This is all very nice, but we can't apply that here'. For us,
> that's not the end of the discussion - it's the starting point. Then we
> can ask, 'Why isn't it possible? Has anybody ever tried? What would
> be possible in the context of your country's cultural and political
> situation?' (ibid.)

The training event is presented as a reciprocal opportunity; a dialogue between
media professionals about media ethics, journalistic principles and technical
standards and similarities and differences in daily work experiences:

> We're here to learn ourselves about how to deal with certain
> conditions in a political, material and cultural context, which is very
> different from our reality in Germany (ibid.)

While acknowledging each country must find its own model for both its political
system and the role media will play in that system, it is evident there are
normative values and standards. Credibility is identified as "the most important
currency of any journalist" and linked to the needs and interests of the audience:

> The main emphasis here is that we want to encourage our colleagues
> to try new things, look at unusual angles and not be afraid of difficult
> questions. After all, a journalist is doing an interview as the
> representative of his or her audience, so his or her main concern
> should be, "What does my audience want to know?" (ibid.)

And a confidence they have something to offer as broadcasters and trainers:

> We surely believe that we have the competence to teach our Yemeni
> colleagues some new tricks of the trade (ibid.)

While some references in relation to DW's role in providing training assistance appear to be occasionally patronizing:

> They [journalists in developing media systems] need help to do their job – to create an awareness of important issues in their home countries. This is especially true in the case of highly complex issues – such as climate change – on whose scale and urgency scientists cannot always agree. DW-Akademie is trying to address this need with special training and consulting services which cover all aspects of journalistic work (DW-Akademie, 2009, p. 37)

Most of these expressions can be seen as the result of 'German English' rather than any real evidence of a condescending approach to training. The interview participants and most of the literature reviewed showed little or no condescension to broadcasting partners from less developed media systems.

The 2009 Annual report identifies DW training as based on being "professional, practical and tailored to the needs of the respective target group". Karl Lippe, a project manager in the African division, who was instrumental in introducing a quality management system and is responsible for refining it, see the introduction of a QM system and ISO 9001 certification as "our way of making sure that we maintain and improve this standard" (DW-Akademie, 2009, p. 37)

Descriptions of the course content, programme structure and teaching approach accompanying the International Media Studies (IMS) Master's programme (DW-Akademie, 2011) show a strong dialectic approach to theory and practice is adopted; "theoretical knowledge is always applicable to pieces of work, radio reports and articles, and is applied to current topics and journalistic questions" (DW-Akademie, 2010d). At the same time as establishing that it is a university programme it is made clear it provides the skills of a professional broadcasting course: "Along with solid theoretical expertise, the Master's Program provides participants with direct application-oriented skills for the media" (DW-Akademie, 2010d)..

An excerpt from a brochure titled 'Media Development around the World' also reveals a strong learner orientation:

> Before a course begins, prospective participants are asked about their level of training and their expectations, and the results are then analyzed. A course can thus be tailor-made and the trainers can respond to a variety of requests. Different types of learners are taken into account, as well as the participants' respective cultural backgrounds (DW-Akademie, 2010f)

Although somewhat simplistic in their expression, references to underlying pedagogy are found throughout the promotional material produced to publicise DW-A's educational activities and opportunities:

> The Master's Program is characterized by its modern combination of methods. It is designed in such a way that the theoretical knowledge is always applicable to pieces of work, radio reports and articles, and is applied to current topics and journalistic questions" (DW-Akademie, 2010d).

The specific reference to relating theory to practice, grounds the programme in the traditions of broadcasting while also reflecting on-going debates in journalism education. There is an interesting comparison with a promotional reference clearly geared to a less academic audience:

> Practical training courses, workshops, coaching and on-site consulting or selected courses in Germany guarantee that, in the future, participants will not only possess the necessary standard knowledge but will also be familiar with the latest developments in their professions (DW-Akademie, 2010e)

It is evident whether referring to short or long term training that DW-Akademie is convinced that journalists can best fulfil their responsibilities as critical observers and reporters if they are professionally trained and committed to the ethical code of their chosen career (DW-Akademie, 2010c).

4.5   Pädagogik und Didaktik

These Greek derived terms are common to English and German but are used more generally in German. Pädagogik, translates as educational theory or education science and also simply as education. 'Didaktik' has a similar meaning but with a greater emphasis on method and intention; something is 'Didakticsh' when it is designed to teach or help learning. A 'methodisch-didaktisch' can mean a particular didactic method or a systematic approach to teaching. Didaktik does not seem to have any of the negative connotations that 'didactic' has in English.

There is clear evidence the people involved in training a DW share an at least partially developed pedagogy which incorporates a learner centred, participative approach with what can be describes as a dialectic approach which combines practice with discussion in an organised way:

> A lot of our teaching is discussion based … there are also presentations that we give and we do group work with the participants … and of course, there are a lot of exercises. The training is very practical, theory is only supposed to be a very small part of it [01]

Building trust with and between participants is both a strategy and a goal:

> We want our trainings to be a sort of platform. We want them to share their experiences, their tips, their knowledge, with each other and with us [01]

The trainer's role is to share skills but also encourage reflection:

> We give them ideas, and we tell them why we in Germany or in the west do things a certain way, and what benefits or what disadvantages that may have. And then we hope that they start thinking that they start developing a system that works and that functions for their culture, for their country, for their legal framework [01]

Validating participants as well as passing on skills was seen as one of the roles of a trainer:

> You have to give them the feeling that the job that they are doing is important, whether they are doing it brilliantly or not is another question, but they have to have the feeling that what they are doing is really important, not only to themselves, but to the audience and I think that that's why a trainers job is really something, it's worth it [04]

Although the approach taken to training is not specifically named as participative or learner centred by interview participants, descriptions of practice show that it is clearly recognized as being different from traditional teacher centred pedagogies. The approach may not initially been adopted as a conscious pedagogical strategy but it is now seen as a distinctive feature of DW's style which gives it an edge in relation to other media organisations in the media development.

> We have experienced that many times when we talked about training courses, quite a lot of trainees they had done training courses before with the BBC, with Dutch stations, with I think Danish stations as well. And, I mean everybody has different methods but they were all well - they were like teachers, you know standing there telling them what to do and this is right and this is wrong and this is what we didn't do. No we discussed things with them, how do you do it, don't you think it would be better to do it this way or the other way round [04]

4.5.1   A dialectical approach

From the descriptions and opinions of training from the interview participants, there is clear evidence of a normative pedagogical framework. Although even with prompting, few of interview participants could name any educational theories or theorists influencing their teaching practices. From the stress placed on using a 'mixed method' approach in the documentary data and the participative

approach to training adopted by Deutsche Welle a curriculum that takes what can be called a dialectic approach has been developed. Marxist influenced use of the term has overshadowed the older sense of dialectic as: "the investigation of truth by discussion" (Williams, 1983, p. 91) but it is in this sense that it describes the teaching approach used by DW trainers:

> there is a method …once a year, twice a year, they have courses for trainers … so they explain and teach the system, which you have to stick to more or less, I mean you have your freedoms … you can develop your own scheme. But nevertheless there is as we say in German, this "rote Faden" [trans. red thread] this line, this red line you know which you more or less stick to [04]

The attention to detail and programme structure is not seen an imposition but seen as part of the obligation to the learners to provide them with a carefully constructed programme:

> We do the theoretical part, which means, we have this meta plan method, visualizing where we put cards on the backboard and in between of course we have practical work. That means when we have done, for example, how to write the news, the theoretical part, then we send them out to do the news, to research, interview, newspaper and so on, they have to write a news story, they have to read it like they would on radio, and not only just have it on paper, and then of course we discuss it [04]

Encouraging critical self-reflection among learners was referred to by several participants and often linked to different cultural practices. Even when explicit permission to express opinions is given to learners, in some cultures it can be difficult to get people to participate:

> We listened to one piece of radio [and asked] 'now how do you think, what do you think about it?' [pause] Silence … Even at that level, no one dares to speak out, or …not be critical but something [to give] your own sharing, your own impression; 'I listened to this, I find it good or bad because' Hardly anything of that [07]

> Occasionally, people will speak out and you'll get that discussion, but unfortunately not too often … Maybe some of them are afraid to go out on a limb and to expose themselves, even if it's just in front of their colleagues in such a small workshop. Maybe some of them haven't thought things through for themselves so they don't feel ready to discuss this in public [01]

The reluctance to engage in critical discussion was attributed partly to different cultural practices and views of group cohesion and partly to the different cultures

of teaching in some partner countries. These are often top down and do not encourage the level of discussion and disagreement taken for granted in western schools and universities particularly in strongly hierarchical societies:

> I was confronted with an attitude and a way of thinking which was used to top down teaching and the teacher telling what has to be learnt and learnt by heart … something very different from European tradition [of] … independent thinking, critical thinking [07]

There was evidence of a strong learner orientation and also an understanding of the practical interests and needs of adult learners:

> We're in adult education, so we've got to motivate the people. The exercises should be close to their professional experience and close to what they can later use in their daily lives, in their departments or in their jobs [01]

4.5.2 Critical reflection

There was evidence of critical reflection by trainers on their understandings of their own practice. One account shows all the characteristics of Schön's critically reflective practitioner:

> I wanted to find out, what is it that … allows me to look at something and see the story … I worked on that, reflected a lot about that myself [05]

This reflection led to an interest in storytelling traditions and the personal realisation that they were from a story telling family:

> I come from a family of nine siblings, you can imagine we were 10, 11, 12 people … around the table eating dinner, which is usually between 30 and 45 minutes long which means your air time is limited to three minutes. Now if you don't tell a compelling story, over to the next one. So that's how I understood that my talent wasn't that much a talent, but rather a talent that I have sort of shaped and crafted and formed … Journalism and especially being a reporter is basically a cultural function … it's story telling [05]

These reflections led to a better understanding of both of personal practice and how to support learners:

> I started to understand what is it that I'm doing … and how am I doing it … and then I was able to give that out to people [05]

Critical reflection was not confined to personal practice but extended to questions of the relationship between partners and that irrespective of the commitment to

participation, there is still a power imbalance based on expertise, and the relationship with partners is not as reciprocal as it could be

> I'm the German coming to you … I carry the Deutsche Welle thing … the situation is still we're the ones in the know [05]

A further concern was that there was not enough reflection on experiences with training partners at the conceptual and organisational level:

> If we're doing it now, we're doing it still on a far too limited level … As we leave the table, what's going to go back into the Akademie? How much is that going to change, how much is that incorporated? Are we digesting what is happening here? [05]

This extended to reflections about the relationship between education and learning:

> We need to get into the learning thing because otherwise - otherwise we'll never get out of the situation where we, by the process of developing, create more dependency rather than independency … if learning doesn't empower but rather depowers people, we're on the wrong path … we have this saying 'Ratschläge sind auch schläge'. Ratschläge is … to give advice and Schlag means to beat. So … giving someone advice is similar to beating him and that's why I don't like the term education anymore … If we don't leave that education thing, we're never going to get into that learning thing [05]

Within the scope of this project it is not possible to explore these questions further but it was clear that they concern and interest the people involved in DW's media development training, and that they spend time discussion the issues and looking for solutions.

4.6 Trainers

Providing skilled trainers is at the centre of DW's media development strategy. To ensure there is sufficient field competence, that is the craft knowledge and experience, in a given training project, journalists and broadcasters from within the organisation are regularly involved in external projects as trainers. For some this is only an occasional involvement, for others it becomes an unexpected vocation:

> It was a coincidence basically, a colleague I knew who worked in this department … got me interested [01]

> My PhD thesis was about media development … they asked me if I could share some of my ideas … I got quite good feedback. So from time to time, I got again involved in training [07].

I never thought about doing seminars, doing courses for journalists because I'm a journalist myself … then one day a colleague from the English service, who did training once in a while … he asked me 'well wouldn't you like to do a training course with me?' I thought 'oh, no experience whatsoever' and he said well don't worry, just come with me; just tell people what you do, how you do it, how you learned it [04]

There appears to have been few formal guidelines involved in the selection of trainers in the past, rather it was a largely passive or negative process based on areas of expertise and success in the field:

A project manager would use someone like me in a training course in Cologne or Bonn and sort of check out what's going on with the trainees and so on and then would decide this is a good guy, we might even take him abroad for a three weeks workshop, a two weeks workshop. That's how I got in and that's how many people got in [05]

There was also an element of self-selection from potential trainers linked to their compatibility with other trainers and project managers and enjoyment of the learning exchange; there was little formal training:

It was assumed that you'd sort of grow into that. Or you'd have the talent [05]

Although the process seems to have been fairly ad hoc it laid the foundations for some of these broadcasters to full time educators:

By sharing and dealing with people, dealing with groups, international groups … I discovered a little bit of training skills in myself [07]

I sort of grew into it, teaching a couple of workshops as a co-trainer at first and then taking on more and more responsibility until I transferred into this department … and became a media trainer and project manager … it has meanwhile taken over as a passion, that's for sure [01]

The passion for sharing knowledge is not confined to the fulltime trainers:

Ever since that time I [did] … my normal work but twice of three times a year I went to other countries and we did workshops. About five years ago I retired from my original job but stayed with DW-Akademie … for me it's work and fun, which is a good mixture and makes me very happy, makes them happy, what else do you want? [04]

As well as a snapshot view of contemporary training practices and discourses, the collective experiences of the interview participants also give an historical picture of how the organisation's training practices have been refined over time

and the development of broadcasters into educators. It is this combination of broadcaster and educator that is the strength of DW's training practice.

> The mixture is so important that you have to be expert and at the same time - a good method expert and a topic expert [10]

4.6.1 The right mix

A review of the backgrounds of DW-Akademie staff shows that most have practical journalism and broadcasting experiences as well as research and academic qualifications (DW-Akademie, 2010a). The average training team consists of two journalistic trainers and a technician. Computers and digital technologies make it possible for trainers to take a production studio with them which enables demonstrations of how technical production, content and technical quality interact and can support each other in radio production. Two trainers allow for a trade-off of different parts of the programme making it more interesting for the participants. Getting the right combination of personalities in a training team is important:

> For the individual workshops, or projects, or measures that we do, it's usually a team of two or three people, usually coming from Germany and travelling to that country, and then training around 12 participants during one workshop [01]

> Usually the atmosphere is good, it has to be because those workshops are usually two to three weeks, and if you work close together with other people, the chemistry has to be right between the people. If there are tensions and you don't feel comfortable with somebody else, it is very, very difficult to go through two or three weeks and it also well I think reflects on the participants, I think they will sense it when a team works together well or not [04]

Getting the right team mix is seen as very important; largely because of the intensity of the training experience where DW-Akademie trainers may work 12 hour days.

> it is not easy; you are away from home, you work with different people … you are maybe … in countries where you have to get accustomed to certain things … And sometimes it's not as safe in your own country and you know so you have to have, in order to cope with all this, you have to have a certain enthusiasm of course [04]

4.6.2 Training the trainers

DW-Akademie continues to recruit broadcasters from DW to be trainers but the selection and training process is becoming more formalised:

> Everybody knows, that we have a lot of very good journalists but being a good journalist doesn't necessarily mean being a good trainer, it is, you need some skills as well [10]

DW-Akademie uses information days, designed to inform DW colleagues about its activities as recruiting opportunities:

> We did a lot of information days …and at nearly all such meetings there was a lot interesting discussion [and]… after this we told them that if somebody is interested we are offering a one day assessment centre and … if you are interested to work as a trainer then you can please join us [03]

The main purpose of 'assessment days' are to find out whether the people interested in becoming trainers have the skills and attributes that DW-Akademie is looking for. Six people to eight potential trainers are led through a series of exercises and after an assessment further training is offered to broadcasters with training potential:

> these people, who were chosen, they got a one week 'train the trainer' seminar, that was the first and then they … had further training about project management, about the administration tasks, and then they had the possibility to go out [03]

Core competency, that is, specific domain knowledge and experience and the ability to communicate, are regarded highly but charisma is also an important factor:

> We measure that our teachers have a high core competence, and this has two facets, the one is, is he competent, does he know what he is teaching about and on the other hand there is an emotional relationship sometimes, that when a teacher has a course for two weeks, we see that some of the people say 'we love you', so maybe in educational research you find that you better learn when you … 'love your teacher' [06]

> It's is very important for us, and the skills in the communication field, how to teach people [03]

> Do they really enjoy being in front of a group because you really need to have that feeling that it's fun for you. And, do they have the skills to see, to talk to a group, not only being in front of a group, to talk to a group [10]

Other factors are language skills and how someone works with a team. DW-Akademie holds five to six assessment days or workshops each year. These are often targeted looking for trainers for specific regions:

> We found out in the last year that it is important to include some intercultural aspects. It is different if you train in Latin America or you train in Asia, it is different … it changes the training setting completely [10]

Successful trainers are generally broadcasters with at least three years' experience with regional experience:

> They normally have some experience in the countries they are going to, in the regions, Latin America, Asia, in Africa. So what we do with them, is explain them some specific things that's got to do with our trainings in the specific region [10]

The trainer-the-trainer workshops are intensely practical involving a simulation of a training project from initial planning through to course design. This culminates in one to two hour training session in which the tutors and other potential trainers play the part of course participants followed by an evaluation:

> We are simulating a whole training process, from the planning, to the designing, the realisation and the evaluation. So in that four days we go with our trainers … [through] the whole training cycle … the same way they will do it, if they become trainers after that, involved in a project two months, three months, whatever later [10]

Pedagogical theory is not explicit but it is clearly present in talk of learning objectives, recognition of different training methods, and consideration of possible training resources. The simulation introduces problematic issues such as participant response with the evaluation encouraging critical self-reflections.

> it's completely practical … they are doing the whole plan for a three days workshop, and then they really realise [it] in front of the group, there is not a lot of theory in it but in the mind they are practicing it … we are talking a lot about, or evaluating a lot about, how would that be, in a specific cultural context [10]

Cultural awareness is an accompanying issue through the training process but the emphasis is on planning and delivery:

> They are all the time let's say on stage, you know like, small presentations, long presentations, and it all comes together at the end in the summary of a whole complete training session, they have to run, with participation, with presentations, with group works so, and at that specific moment, when they are simulating there is strong intercultural aspect, while they are simulating the situation [10]

Because of the practical emphasis of the train-the-trainer workshops there is little time for discussing or learning theory, although it is acknowledged that theory can support practice:

> I started realising that very late to be honest [small laugh] and I think it changed that way that I feel, I now feel safer, I feel more self-confident after almost 20 years of practice [10]

As well as technical knowledge or skills associated with undertaking a particular task; communities of practice involve relations and relationships over time (Lave & Wenger, 1991). There are no formal guidelines for trainers, but there is evidence of a strong community of practice among trainers:

> :there's no guide book for trainers, that everyone gets on his first day here, that says 'this is how you've got to do it and now you're on your own' [but] there's an exchange amongst the trainers and the employees of the Akademie … a lot of experience that we share, exercises or ideas for training, for instance … I'm always learning from my co-trainers, even "borrowing" their good ideas for exercises, or good explanations and examples [01]

Supporting this process are 'Trainer Tags' or 'Trainer Days', days when trainers are brought together to share experiences and discuss issues. Cost for the assessment centres, train-the-trainer training costs and trainer days are covered by the Akademie's budget. And a quality management system which is seen as a vehicle for improving practice as well as ensuring the quality of training is maintained:

> We've just introduced a quality management system, which tries to bundle all the resources we have, for example the hand-outs, the exercises and all of the training materials that each individual trainer has come up with so far [01]

The quality management system is not seen as a magic formula, rather the attitude appears to be to wait and see how it works:

> So far hasn't been any kind of structure and reporting and dialogue function … with the quality management system this could happen, but it doesn't have to, it doesn't have to … QM systems can do a lot for you, but … they're like a railway network, it's there, but if you don't … want to run a railway on them, if no one's unloading those cars coming in [interrogative pause] [05]

There is also some ambivalence about the new training practices, in particular the train-the-trainer workshops:

> Honestly for me it has not been made clear what exactly is going on there … what they are meant for … then there is a selection process after that [where] the train-the-trainer team would give recommendations about people or say 'no, I don't think we could work with this person' ... I don't really trust that process [05]

The process by which trainers are selected has been reviewed and "made clearer through transparent and objective criteria for each individual project" (DW-Akademie, 2009) This is a direct response to trainer views expressed in the CEval Evaluation where some trainers criticized the lack of a transparent selection process.

Domain knowledge and experience are highly valued qualities for trainers. Field experience is seen to be an important factor for teaching confidence:

> For me, that practical work as a journalist is the most important influence that I've had. I can speak from 12, 15 years of experience as a radio and online journalist … and editor, so I know what I'm talking about [01]

DW-Akademie staff and

> No one working here at the Akademie came straight from the university and started working as a media trainer. Almost everybody here either has a background in broadcast management or in broadcast journalism or broadcast technology [01]

Practical experience is also seen as a link between trainer and learner:

> I know what might be difficult for the trainees because I've gone through it myself [01]

Teaching experience is a factor determining teacher confidence:

> When I first started out; I had a very rigid schedule, because I needed that security or safety. Now I feel much more secure and can react better to the demands of the trainees in the actual classroom situation. Over the years, I've just acquired a certain repertoire of things that I can do and questions that I can answer if they happen to come up [01]

All the interview participants demonstrated a degree of reflection on their practices, the organisation's practices and, the values that inform those practices but the amount of introspection varied with personality

> I decided I want to do … further education on becoming a professional consultant, using a combination of the systemic and gestalt approach. And, that was completely, it was like a homecoming. Because all of a sudden, all of a sudden I'm now able to now able to build trainings and build curricular and consultancies and do it purposively, knowing what I'm doing. I've done it intuitively and I've crossed bridges once I got there, but it was always sort of insecurity and I didn't know how to do it [05]

I'm convinced about a strong participatory approach, but at the same time I'm more convinced than ever in my whole life, my trainer's life that the trainer must be an expert as well on the theoretical issues [10]

Different trainers clearly have different relationships to theory, for some it sustained their practice and for others it was just not that important:

I think some other people here are a little more into theory or into how-to books and things like that umm… personally I don't … I try to work a lot from experience … with what the people tell me in the workshops and to pick them up where they are [01]

This reveals a strong learner centred pedagogy although without any particular conscious pedagogical strategy. There are several factors which contribute to this: first, there is a general tendency to examine practices only when they demonstrably fail to achieve the goals set for them. Second, in spite of the strenuous efforts of educational theorists to overcome the antagonism between theory and practice, the idea that theory is opposed to practice prevails and "that very opposition is usually enough to arouse expectations of irrelevant jargon which has nothing to do with everyday practical problems and concerns" (Carr, 1990, p. 100). It ignores that educational theory can transform practice, not by being applied to practice in an artificial and instrumental way, but, by transforming the ways in which practice is experienced and understood.

4.6.3 Passing on the knowledge

The headings from one of the Akademie's web pages: 'Profiting From the Skills and Competence of Media Professionals' (DW-Akademie, 2010f) show the high value placed on expertise; the text is unambiguous: "Successful, long-term learning requires qualified trainers" says the copy, followed by the assertion that DW-A's training projects are managed "by project managers and trainers who know their trade". Professional expertise, intercultural sensitivity, interpersonal skills and teaching skills which include "the latest educational methods", are promoted as attributes of DW-Akademie trainers.

The pedagogical approach is explicit:

DW-Akademie's training courses have no room for long lectures by the instructors. The emphasis is on dialogue instead of monologues, and theoretical input combined with practical application. Topics are collectively developed in discussion, group work and role play, and then immediately put into practice (DW-Akademie, 2010f)

As well a clear endorsement of learning by doing, the reference to collectively developing curricula is strong evidence of the commitment to learner and partner participation which was repeatedly expressed by the interview participants.

4.7   Shifting priorities and changing strategies

Although skills based training continues to be an important part of Deutsche Welle's media development strategy, there is a strong move away from providing training without reference to other media development goals. This is driven both by internal thinking about media development and German government policy. The UN sponsored Millennium Declaration and Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) raised questions about donor funding and long term support and prompted a re-examination of Germany's development strategies, in particular questions of impact assessment (van de Sand, 2005). There are demands for accountability and proper evaluation, not only on the output rather on the outcome and impact level.

> all of a sudden the donors start to ask for evaluating projects, going away from the sole output saying 'okay, we're happy you guys delivered the training that we paid you for' … [to] … 'so you delivered the training, what did you achieve by that?' So we are looking into not only output but outcome, what comes out of your output is the question. And even beyond that what is the impact of what you are doing? [05]

Although seen primarily as a development grounded in practice the changing role of the organisation as a training provider is also linked to more sophisticated understandings of media development and the distinction between media for development and media development:

> If you want to do media development then you have a development objective and you make media development work towards achieving that goal, and then you have training to work toward that goal as well but only as a part of that whole development process [05]

The distinction between media for development and media development has direct implication for pedagogical practices:

> if we [want] media development then you can't possibly go round and hand out recipes 'cause that's completely counterproductive way of doing it [05]

While the shift to longer term projects is also the product of critical reflection, the emphasis on evaluation strategies and quality management systems is partly driven by the BMZ:

> They obviously want a return for the money, so to speak. They are investing a lot of money in DW-Akademie and they want to see sustainability, they want to see impact, they want to see change in the media landscape in the countries where we work [01]

There is a recognised overall trend from the donor community to pay greater attention to the mechanics of change and clear indicators of change that can be evaluated: This is linked to the general reduction of development aid budgets caused by global financial mismanagement as well as competing domestic priorities.

The CEval (2010) Evaluation of DW-Akademie found there are many factors that inhibit the impact and effectiveness of short term training measures on development levels and outcomes in the media systems of developing countries, although it concluded DW-Akademie contributes to building, maintaining and encouraging democratic structures and the freedom and independence of the media with the flow-on effects of good governance, democratisation and conflict prevention and hence to solving key issues in development policy, in the long term through its training and consulting activities, which encourage and strengthen democratic consciousness.

> The management here perceived our previous kind of training as useful, but somehow all over the place because there was no stringent, long-term strategy tying the individual projects together [01]

In the past DW would respond to requests for training support from partner country with relatively little investigation of the country's media needs:

> So far we've always asked our partner institutions to tell us what is your biggest training need right now? … They would basically send us a list of the priorities that they have and then we would write project proposals for the things that we thought were do-able and realistic [01]

Today in addition to determining if there is genuine need for media assistance; DW-Akademie looks to see who else is involved in media development:

> We have to see if there is a demand for us to support the media in this country … [and] we are not alone on this globe – is BBC World Trust working there, Radio France Internationale, or US Aid? [03]

The shift toward longer term projects is closely linked to the organisations media development goals and issues of impact and effectiveness. The aim is to be able to link training directly to media development:

> The training is only one part or one step to reach a bigger objective. If we have a project on changing a broadcasting institute from a state rule to public for instance they are different trainings, they are like in puzzles in the whole process … So the trainings we hope that we achieve the objective in that sense that they [the participants] can be one step concluded to go forward, to go further ahead [10]

> The objective is that if you start in 2003 and then you go back in 2010, there should be a change in the media field [03]

At the same time it is recognised that change often starts with small steps:

> We have perhaps new channels … other forms of media … a better programme. It often starts with very, very little steps [03]

> We need to take a holistic view of the life of people, and then you end up saying we might not be able to transfer the BBC model to a new market in West Africa. But we might be able to create something there that – sort of raises the ability for the community, for the members of the community, to talk to each other [05]

The shift toward longer term projects predates the CEval report and the more strategic emphasis of training is linked to the establishment of DW-Akademie and a pragmatic view of media development:

> Since we established DW-Akademie we have a stronger focus on providing a solution for our partners, not only to train … we are not going to Tanzania and say okay, we will execute a two-week current affairs training and then we go to Columbia and do a two-week economic affairs training or something else … that is not our task. That can be done by a lot of companies [03]

> If we don't start the process we're not going to be part of it, I mean if we don't start anything right now, right here with these partners, we're not going to be part of it [05]

Although seen primarily as a development grounded in practice, the changing role of the organisation as a training provider is also linked to a pragmatic understanding of media development:

> Time's up for the absolute solution 'let's build public service [broadcasting] in Africa'. Time's here for a relative achievements saying let's look into making this a little bit more participative, let's look into instilling, opening the media for a little bit more dialogue with

the audience and then, you know, the next thing's going to happen [05]

The shift away from traditional skills training workshops was generally supported by the interview participants:

> The workshops that we did may all have been very useful but since they were on many different topics, a little bit of training here, a little bit of training there … there was no common goal except for improving the radio programmes, the television programmes, and good governance [01]

As DW-Akademie's training strategy has changed to a focus on longer term projects the project planning process has changed:

> There's been a little bit more involved, like what kind of modules are we going to plan in the next one or two or three years? … How are we going to evaluate the process? [10]

The role of trainers is also changing; and that of a consultant is emerging:

> I speak of a consultant, not as in the 'expert consultant' who walks in and says you need to paint that door red otherwise you are going to be in big trouble, or like the doctor/patient thing, take that pill translates into if you buy this equipment everything's going to work out fine. I'll come back in a year and see how you are doing. Rather … a consultant as in 'what is your situation? How do you want to develop? Shall we go together? I have a couple of tools I can lend to you. In the way of I can help you moderate the process, but you, since you have the problem you also have the solution. That is, that's the kind of consulting that I mean, that I mean when I say consulting [05]

The change to an emphasis on longer term projects had also influence the process of planning training. The revised process still involves putting together project proposals, obtaining funding and making the necessary logistical arrangements but it occurs within a consciously broader framework of training objectives:

> Instead of asking them: what are your training needs for next year? we're asking them: how can we jointly develop a strategy for training for the next couple of years – what is your long term goal – where do you want to be in say five years – let's try to develop some sort of longer or larger training project [01]

The idea behind this is to increase sustainability and to increase the impact of the work done. It is hoped that moving from short term projects to longer term projects which they hope will have more of an effect than sporadic training and be

more sustainable. Longer term projects with clearly defined goals are seen as useful, particularly in relation to measuring the overall impact of training:

> with the more clearly defined large or long term projects that we have now, there's always a clearly defined goal, and there are markers on the way where we can see whether we're reaching the goal or not and whether we have to refocus or not [01]

An example of one of the longer term projects now being undertaken is the re-launching the Voice of Vietnam website which involves redefining what the website should be and do, who will contribute, how will everyone interact and how it will it all work.

> It's going to take around two years or so and it isn't going to just involve one two week or three week training course like before. We're aiming to develop a strategy for change with them: meeting with the different departments that are involved, getting the people together – designing the layout, getting the work flow straightened out, training the journalists on how to write for the Internet, training the technicians on how to develop the software [01]

Planning for related training, which will be delivered through different modules addressing different aspects of the project, is also being done in association with the partner organisation. On the whole trainers seemed to embrace the shift to a more integrated approach to training and the shift in emphasis to long term projects but there was also a more muted response:

> The term 'long term' project is used a lot but it's not defined, the paradigm shift is addressed in speech but it's not defined or not even, it's not even talked about properly … We are only starting this process … There is a lack of definition, where are we actually going … there's a lot of obstacles, there's a lot misunderstandings. And, there is a lot of resistance [05]

There is concern the shifting priorities and changed strategies are not sufficiently understood by training partners:

> They don't know what is in front of them. … do we get the same food [training] we have gotten the last 40 years, will they pay per diems or not …' what do they mean long term projects, and what's that whole consulting thing they're talking about all the time … That's pretty much the situation of the 25 year old walking into the wrong pub because they didn't see the signs, because there weren't any signs. We're creating that situation for our partners [05]

Chapter 5   Conclusions

5.1   Pragmatic Idealists and Reflective practitioners

The term broadcasting derives from an open handed method of sowing seeds used in agriculture. The image of casting seeds on the wind is a powerful metaphor for the activity of broadcasting and the activity of media development. In the context of journalism and broadcasting, knowledge can be seen as "an inventory and discussion of one's frames of reference, one's resources of information and life experiences" (Deuze, 2005, p. 453). DW's pedagogical practices and discourses represent one media organisation's conception of the role and responsibility of broadcasters. The trainers of DW-Akademie are clearly committed to casting seeds of knowledge as widely as possible. Without exception all of the interview participants demonstrated passion about doing a good job and appeared to have no doubts that what they were doing was worthwhile, even when being critical about some aspects of the organisation's practices.

This study set out to present an overview of the educational and training practices of an international broadcasting organisation and provide an insight into the values that inform and govern these practices. From the documentary data studied and the descriptions of the organisation's training given by the interview participants emerges a picture of a learning organisation and well developed community of practice who can be said to be 'walking the talk' when it comes to their educational activities and practices.

The findings of this study are relevant and potentially instructive to anyone interested in broadcasting education on a community as well as country scale. Deutsche Welle is an organisation committed to a vision of media as an emancipatory agent which appears to work hard to realise that vision within the constraints of Government policy and funding. DW's commitment to media development connects a large public service broadcasting organisation with the practice of community broadcasting through the shared emancipatory aspirations of greater access and participation in media. While undoubtedly Deutsche Welle's resources as an international broadcaster are significant, the organisation's underlying values and commitment to education and training, and its efforts to ensure that its practices are consistent with its values and vision are also important. In particular the organisation's commitment to partnerships and participation at all stages and levels of the training process; its commitment to reciprocal learning, and to reflective practice.

This study shows that:

- DW is actively engaged in collective learning and situated practice through its internal training practices and the activities of DW-Akademie.

- The organisation takes a critically reflexive and reflective approach to its training activities and is concerned about their effectiveness from an organisational viewpoint and also a learner/employee perspective.

- The organisation's commitment to developing strong and sustainable communities of practice within a discourse of public service broadcasting is supported by its wide ranging and systematic training practices.

The media development activities carried out by DW-Akademie are not the primary task of Deutsche Welle but they are nevertheless an important part of the organisation's identity as an international broadcaster. This is reflected by the support given those activities by Deutsche Welle and how they are presented in the company's documents and promotional literature.

This study also sought to place the educational and organisational practices within a wider educational and pedagogical discourse. Given that most broadcasters, irrespective of whether they have had higher education or not, tend to be atheoretical about their practice, before speaking to any of the interview participants I had few expectations of the kind of language and discourses I would encounter but I suspected I was more likely to encounter competent practitioners as recognised by Schön (1983) than educational theorists. This is what I found. In spite of references to 'learning by doing' and 'mixed methods' there was a distinct lack of any developed theoretical understanding of the principles underlying the organisation's educational practices. But although few of the trainers and broadcasters I spoke to named theorists or discussed what they did in theoretical terms, they demonstrated an on-going commitment to praxis: informed action guided by the principle of acting justly.

The trainers and educators of DW appear to embrace the pedagogical challenge of passing on the skills and understanding they believe are valuable, and at the same time as encouraging a deeper critical reflection of media practices in a manner associated with critical pedagogies presented and promoted by Freire (1972), Giroux, Lankshear, McLaren and Peters (1996), Mayo (1999), and The New London Group (1997). The dialectic style of teaching and integration of practice into learning adopted by DW-Akademie is a modern educational practice embodying sound adult learning principles as well as reflecting social

psychologist Kurt Lewin's conclusion that learning is more effective when it is an active rather than a passive process.

5.2   Reflections

The limitations of this research meant that it was not possible for me to explore in detail as many aspects of DW's pedagogical practices as I would have liked; in particular how trainers were trained and how the dialectal approach to training worked in practice. Nor was it possible to follow the process of planning, designing and executing 'a training'. It would also be illustrative to make comparison of DW's training practices with those of other international broadcasting training organisations and also of the underlying ethos and motivations of other organisations and people involved in training. This paper only scratches the surface of the pedagogical issues that could be explored in relation to media development and broadcasting training. Although perhaps not as prejudiced as practitioners working in conventional educational environments, as noted, the essentially practical orientation of broadcasters and broadcasting educators means they tend to be atheoretical if not anti-theoretical. It could be argued that broadcasting educators do not need theory but quoting words attributed to Lewin "There is nothing so practical as a good theory" suggests that exploring appropriate pedagogy for broadcasters turned educators is an area for future research.

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Appendix A – An historical perspective on training[1]

Reflecting the predominant use of radio as a point-to-point method of communication with significant naval and military implications, references to training in the early years of radio are almost exclusively concerned with the development of radio technology. Broadcasting was such a new activity it was "a craft that had yet to develop a tradition and expertise" (Day, 1994, p. 74). As radio developed as a broadcast medium a demand was created for presenters and producers as well as operators and technicians. There was no specific training to become a broadcaster. Most, if not all, broadcasters came from some other job. They had diverse backgrounds; some were veterans of the First World War with experience in "wireless telephony"; many had theatrical or musical backgrounds; and, others had backgrounds in business and public administration (Briggs, 1985). Curnow (1961) notes that in the early days of radio the specialisation and stratification that later characterised broadcasting had not yet appeared and most people worked in several different areas. The task of the early broadcasters was to provide program content to a public intrigued and enthusiastic about a new medium of communication.

Anecdotal evidence suggests broadcasting was not considered a serious profession. This is demonstrated by advice allegedly given to an unemployed Hal Saunders, who became a prominent producer in Australian radio from 1922 to 1970: "Why don't you try radio? If you haven't any experience, try the worst station first" (Bridges, 1983, p. 48). This anecdote implies first, the only available training was on-the-job and second, reveals the relatively low status of broadcasting as an occupation. In New Zealand radio was initially considered a hobby for amateurs (Mackay, 1953). The country's first radio station in Dunedin was run by volunteers from the Otago Radio Association.

The BBC was the first broadcasting organisation to introduce formal systems of employment and training. In the late 1920s the BBC began to actively recruit former public school boys who possessed a suitable "wireless voice" (Briggs, 1985, p. 60). From the selection of radio voices, it was a short step to general training courses to assist new employees to fit into the desired and required criteria. Once recruited these potential broadcasters were introduced to the BBC way of doing things through a type of apprenticeship.

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[1] This account draws on work submitted to Massey College of Education for ED 187.720.

By 1941, in addition to its traineeships, the BBC had established the BBC Engineering Training School to train sound engineers and radio technicians (Briggs 1985:221). The distinction between the people who made work and the people who spoke on radio pre-dates the BBC's system of training; early radio equipment required constant adjustment to work creating a need for specialist operators and technicians. Compared to the variable amount of training received by presenters and producers, technical training was a much more formal and rigorous procedure. This gave rise to a historical division between those who produced or presented radio and those responsible for its operation. Cleary's (2008) study of attitudes to professional development among news directors and producers in broadcasting reveal different attitudes to training between occupational groups in the media suggesting that remnants of the presenter and technician split remain although Cleary found the availability of training affected how media practitioners viewed its importance and affected whether they considered it a factor in job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

The Australia's national broadcaster the ABC adopted a similar system to train promising young men to be broadcasters. The term, young men is used advisedly principally because a cadetship was seen as the first step of a career path that would ultimately lead to senior management; it was considered neither necessary nor desirable for women to apply (Inglis & Brazier, 1983). Women's participation in radio was generally limited to clerical and secretarial positions with a few women working specifically in women's or children's programming. Staff rules at the ABC actually required single women employees to resign if they married. This policy stayed in effect until the mid-1960s. From their inception ABC cadetships were highly competitive. The cadet system was more than an apprenticeship it was an entree into the magical world of broadcasting. After one or more interviews, which generally included a voice audition to determine candidates' on-air suitability, cadets were employed in junior positions attached to one of the ABC's four divisions: administration; programs and public relations, clerical and manual in order to expose cadets to all facets of the ABC's administration and organisation. From a job with a relatively low status, broadcasting rapidly became a desirable occupation. In New Zealand a similar system of training operated. Advancement and on-air opportunities involved a mixture of performance and patronage. There also appears to have been an element of luck or being in the right place at the right time.

Broadcasting standards in Australia and New Zealand reflected the dominant values of the time: English, middle-class and male. This essentially meant sounding "as like the BBC as possible" (Blain, 1977, p. 113). A good 'wireless voice', meant an English or English sounding voice which projected authority. A lot of emphasis was placed on voice quality and personality. A style of pronunciation known as Received Pronunciation (RP) and a style presentation referred to as BBC style, developed. Both became synonymous with radio. The BBC style of broadcasting was modified over the years, and eventually abandoned by commercial broadcasters in the 1950s. But, it was not seriously challenged as the standard until the 1970s.

The ability to sound authoritative was not solely a social judgement; it was also related to technical weaknesses of early radio which distorted and interfered with ordinary vocal delivery. From this was established two traditions; the so called 'radio voice' and 'radio personalities'', people who were able to overcome the limiting factors of the medium to reach and engage the listening audience. Bridges (1983) notes how now taken-for-granted tricks of broadcasting, such as increasing or decreasing distance from the microphone to add or reduce resonance, were discovered by trial and error by people with no previous experience of the medium.

Rather than a single activity broadcasting involves dozens of discrete activities. Audio production has been described as a complex and multi-disciplinary process which involves the management of resources to meet the production needs specified by a client or desired audience and the operational processes involved (Staples, 1990). The amount of training received by individual broadcasters appears to have remained extremely variable. Even in that bastion of broadcasting tradition, the BBC, there appears to have been a gap between ideal and actual training practices. A former head of the radio training section, notes the BBC's haphazard methods of selecting staff for training resulted in many producers escaping "instruction in the very elements of their craft" (E. Evans, 1977, p. 35). Interestingly, there is very little criticism in the literature of the training practices and activities of broadcasting. Some broadcasters interviewed by Learner (1994) imply it would have been helpful to have had training in areas they were forced to learn by the process of trial and error, there is an underlying acceptance broadcasting is a unique profession in which only the fittest deserve to survive, with the inference that, as they survived, they possess what it takes.

Education and training are recognised as important factors in the successful operation of established media organisations. Effective training practices are credited with enabling the BBC to survive the loss of nearly 500 hundred staff to commercial companies when television licences were granted in the mid-1950s (Briggs, 1985). Yet, in spite of the recognised value of training, in practice training is often an incidental and not a core activity for many media organisations. Training is also one of the first activities to be curtailed or even eliminated when an organisation is faced with recession or restructuring. New Zealand's national training centre was dismantled, as a result of sector restructuring, less than a year after a Royal Commission report recommended the broadcasting industry expand training and re-training to cope with the demands of increased competition and new technology (Chapman, 1986). As pressure to survive in a competitive market increases fewer broadcasting organisations are prepared to spend time training. A 1996 survey of training in the broadcast industry conducted by the now defunct New Zealand Film and Electronic Media (FaEM) industry training organisation found 65% (9) had some form of training policy and 71% (10) of the radio industry respondents claimed to conduct some form of on-the-job or work place training but it was acknowledged privately few actually carried out much training (FaEM, 1996).

The days of starting as a junior in a menial position, staying with the same company for twenty years and being promoted or not according to opportunity and talent, have largely disappeared. Opportunities to secure even entry positions are scarce and the expectation, taken for granted by earlier broadcasters, that all you needed to have a career was a good voice and a foot in the door, no longer exists. Today demonstrable skills and broadcasting experience are prerequisites. As the pressure to compete increases, fewer broadcasting organisations are prepared to spend time training. The management of most broadcasting organisations is no longer willing to spend time looking for and developing talent (Learner, 1994). Although some organisations like the BBC and DW maintain an in-house training capability, increasingly broadcasting organisations employ graduates with some form of media training.

There are a number of reasons for the shift to institutional training: the traditional practice of learning broadcasting skills by trial and error is time consuming and labour intensive: it requires more capable others to act as mentors and

supervisors. Although industry trained broadcasters often claim what is taught in media courses is too abstract to translate into practice and broadcasting school graduates think they know it all before they have had any practical industry experience, broadcasting schools and media courses have become the norm. Because practical experience continues to be highly regarded, conventional broadcasting organisations often employ people who have community broadcasting experience. Ironically, the community broadcasting movement's demand for greater public access to, and participation in, media which not only undermined the idea only a special few could make radio, also created an alternate training ground for broadcasters (Department of Communications and the Arts, 1997). A study of employment trends in Europe indicates the use of the community broadcasting sector as a training ground is an international phenomena (Lewis, 1994).

Adequate training is a crucial component of developing media systems and also of marginalised voices. The accessibility and type of training available to women has been identified as fundamental to gender equity in media (Gallagher & Quindoza-Santiago, 1993). Emberson (1994) links the low rate of participation by Pacific women in mass media to the relative lack of available training while Creedon (1993) credits the increased participation by women in the media in the United States to increased availability of training as a result of the introduction of National Public Radio in the early 1970s. The community broadcasting sector's emerging role as a training provider forges an on-going link between otherwise competing sectors. It is also problematic. Many community broadcasters take pride in their role as a training ground for commercial and public broadcasters providers (Forde et al., 2002), but others are critical that the sector does so without recognition or recompense (Whitford, 1992). Further, the quality of training in the community broadcasting sector is variable as few community radio stations have the infrastructure to provide adequate training for professional broadcasters, even if this is their objective. Their imperative for training stems from a desire for greater access and participation in the media not to fulfil the training needs of the conventional media industry. The training practices of broadcasting continue to evolve. The convergence of media as a result of the proliferation of digital technologies, and the blurring of lines between professional and citizen broadcaster have brought questions of who and what is a broadcaster from the edge of discussions about media to the forefront.

Appendix B – Documentary data sources

Annual Reports

DW-Akademie. (2008). *Promoting Media around the World, 2008 Annual Report*. Bonn: Deutsche Welle.

DW-Akademie. (2009). *Development and the media* 2009 Annual Report. Bonn: Deutsche Welle.

German only documents

CEval. (2010). *Evaluation der Deutsche Welle-Akademie.* Universität des Saarlandes: Centrum für Evaluation

CEval. (2010). *Tabellenband: Evaluation der Deutsche Welle-Akademie.* Universität des Saarlandes: Centrum für Evaluation.

DW-Personalabteilung. (2010). *Personalbericht 2009/2010.* Bonn: Deutsche Welle

These documents were obtained while in Germany. The following documents were accessed from Deutsche Welle's Internet portal www.dw-world.de

Web pages

Deutsche Welle. (2010). Deutsche Welle's Principles, Visions and Values from http://www.dw-world.de/dw/0,,8852,00.html

DW Akademie. (2010). Dedicated Media Professionals, from http://www.dw-world.de/dw/1,2692,12118,00.html

DW-Akademie. (2010). DW- Akademie - Promoting Media around the World from http://www.dw-world.de/dw/0,,12119,00.html

DW-Akademie. (2010). FAQ: Questions and Answers about DW-Akademie from http://www.dw-world.de/dw/0,,12114,00.html

DW-Akademie. (2010). Master's Program, Methods and Didactics, from http://www.dw-world.de/dw/article/0,,3764374,00.html

DW-Akademie. (2010). Quality Management Certification Retrieved from http://www.dw-world.de/dw/article/0,,6012270,00.html

DW-Media. (2009). German development aid policy needs more scrutiny, study says Retrieved from http://www.dw-world.de/dw/article/0,,4250758,00.html

DW document downloads

The following material is available through http://www.dw-world.de/dw/0,,13466,00.html

Annual Reports

2008 and 2009 Annual Reports are available by download from this site in German and English. The 2009 report is also available in Spanish.

Policy paper

Communication. Participation. Development. Policy Paper on Media Development Cooperation, (a bilingual German and English publication)

Brochures

Media Development around the world (available in English, Arabic, French, Russian and Spanish)

Media Training Brochure (available in German and English)

<u>Project flyers – Africa</u>

Eastern and Southern Africa: Election Reporting

Kenya: Environmental Protection and Nature Films

Nigeria/Germany: Intercultural Reporting

<u>Project flyers – Asia</u>

Vietnam: Digitizing VOV's Audio Archive

Pakistan/Germany: Intercultural Reporting

<u>Project flyers – Latin America</u>

Colombia: Local Television Reporting

Brazil: Environmental Journalism

Bolivia: Peace Journalism

<u>Project flyers – Middle East/North Africa</u>

Syria: New TV Business Magazine Program

Yemen: Planning TV Studio Facilities

Egypt: Video Journalism

<u>Project flyers – Europe/Central Asia</u>

Kyrgyzstan/Tajikistan: Journalism and the Internet

Germany: Democracy and the Media

Afghanistan: International Newsroom

<u>Handbooks</u>

Manual for Radio Journalists

Appendix C

You are invited to participate in a research study looking at values and practices in broadcast education.

The purpose of this study is to learn more about the points of view and experiences of people involved in the education and training of broadcasters.

This research is being carried out by Victoria Quade, a graduate student in the College of Education, Massey University New Zealand, as part of her Masters Research thesis. Victoria Quade is a former television editor and community radio broadcaster who has had an association with Deutsche Welle through its Distribution department.

INFORMATION FOR PARTICIPANTS

Project title

An investigation of the pedagogical practices and discourses of an international broadcasting organisation.

Project Description

This project seeks to discover how people in an international broadcasting organisation directly involved in the education and training of broadcasters and producers manage this process and their views and experiences of broadcasting education.

Information collected through an interview process and documentary sources will be used to develop a comprehensive survey of the training practices of Deutsche Welle and to illustrate the pedagogical practices and discourses identified by the study. Findings from the study will provide a documentary record of the training practices of a single organisation and an insight into the perspectives that inform the educational practices of broadcasters.

This research is independently funded as a student research project. The researcher has no financial interest or role dependent on the responses to the research.

Participant Identification and Recruitment

Participants are being recruited through their publically available profiles and by recommendation. You have been identified as someone who has specialized knowledge that would contribute to a greater understanding of broadcasting education and training broadcasters. You are under no obligation to accept this invitation. Your participation is completely voluntary and you may decline to participate at any time.

Because of time and resource constraints associated with this study, the number of participants is unavoidably limited and not all people with relevant knowledge will be approached or able to participate. At the same time I will seek to be as inclusive of viewpoints and experience as possible.

Project Procedures

Participation in the study will involve a recorded interview session. This should take about one hour. If desired the interview session may be arranged after a preliminary meeting. The venue and time of the interview are your choice.

During the interview, I will ask you some questions about your experiences of broadcasting education and your ideas about teaching and broadcast education. I am interested in your views on these topics and any other areas you consider relevant. If there are any questions that I ask that you would prefer not to answer, please feel free to tell me and we will move on to another question. There are no personal or professional risks to participants anticipated as a result of participation in this study. You may stop the interview process, amend any statements or withdraw from the study at any time.

Data Management

If you agree to participate in this research project you will be asked to sign a participant consent form allowing the collection of information from you. All recorded material and transcripts will be kept confidential by the researcher. No material will be used or released without the consent of participants.

To maintain anonymity and confidentiality pseudonyms and/or general descriptors will be used to identify participants and Deutsche Welle in any published material or presentations.

In association with her supervisor, the researcher will also be responsible for the confidential storage and eventual disposal of data.

Participant's Rights

If you decide to participate, you have the right to:

- decline to answer any question;
- ask for the recorder to be turned off at any time during the interview.
- ask any questions about the study at any time during participation;
- withdraw from the study at any time;
- provide information on the understanding that your name or role will not be used unless you give permission to the researcher;
- be given access to a summary of the project findings when it is concluded.

Thank you for your time in considering this invitation. You have the option of declining by not responding to this invitation. To accept please send the researcher your contact details.

If you do not want to participate in a recorded interview but are willing to contribute by providing information about your experiences of broadcast education please contact me. If you have already been invited to participate and declined, please accept my apologies at being approached again.

If you have any questions about this project or your rights as a participant in this study, please call or email the researcher. You are also able to contact the thesis supervisor if you wish to.

Project Contacts:

Researcher: Victoria Quade, Universitätsstr. 21, 50937 Köln, Germany, Telefonnummer: +49 221 78 94 83 13 Mobile: +49 15 20 26 95 293, Email: vntquade@gmail.com

Thesis supervisor: Gloria Slater, School of Educational Studies, College of Education, Massey University, Private Bag 11222, Palmerston North, New Zealand
Phone: 64 6 356 9099 x 8841 , Email: G.R.Slater@massey.ac.nz

This project has been evaluated by peer review and judged to be low risk. Consequently, it has not been reviewed by one of the University's Human Ethics Committees. The researcher and supervisor named above are responsible for the ethical conduct of this research.

If you have any concerns about the conduct of this research that you wish to raise with someone other than the researcher, please contact Professor John O'Neill, Director, Research Ethics, telephone 06 350 5249, email humanethics@massey.ac.nz

....

An investigation of the pedagogical practices and discourses of an international broadcasting organisation carried out by Victoria Quade as part of a Masters Research thesis.

PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM

I have agreed to be contacted for a possible interview about my experience and views of broadcasting education.

I have read the information supplied by the researcher about this project and have had the details of the study explained to me.

I understand that I may ask further questions about the project at any time.

[Please delete the wording you do not want]

I *agree / do not agree* to the interview being sound recorded.

I *do not wish / wish* to have my recordings returned to me.

I *allow / do not allow* my recordings and/or transcripts to be used for additional research purposes or publication.

I *agree / do not agree* the researcher may reproduce any documentary material I may supply provided any necessary copyright conditions are met.

I *consent / do not consent* to have data placed in an official archive.

I agree to participate in this study under the conditions set out in the information for participants supplied by the researcher.

Signature: .... **Date:** ....

Full Name - printed ....

Additional contact information
Phone number ....

preferred E-mail

An investigation of the pedagogical practices and discourses of an international broadcasting organisation carried out by Victoria Quade as part of a Masters Research thesis.

AUTHORITY FOR THE RELEASE OF TRANSCRIPTS

I confirm that I have had the opportunity to read and amend the transcript of the interview(s) conducted with me.

I agree that the edited transcript and extracts from this may be used in reports and publications arising from the research.

Signature: .... **Date:** ....

Full Name - printed ....

Appendix D – Interview Participants Code Key

Interview code	Participants	Date of Interview
IV 01	Project Manager Former Journalist / Programme producer	16 June 2010
IV 02	Specialist Reporter former Editorial Department Head Guest Lecturer International Media Studies programme	29 June 2010
IV 03	Senior Administrator Guest Lecturer International Media Studies programme	05 July 2010
IV 04	Field Trainer (casual) Radio Journalist (retired)	06 July 2010
IV 05	Project Manager Field Trainer and Consultant Former Journalist / Programme producer	07 July 2010
IV 06	Researcher / Administration Guest lecturer International Media Studies programme	27 July 2010
IV 07	Regional Manager Project manager former Field Trainer Former Journalist / Programme producer	03 August
IV 08*	*this interview was coded separately for transcription but because it involved participants [01] and [04] it was not used as an interview participant code	03 August 2010
IV 09	Senior Lecturer International Media Studies programme	12 August 2010
IV 10	Regional Manager Train-the-trainer Field Trainer Former freelance reporter	18 August 2010
IV 11	Personalabteilung Aus- und Fortbildung Human resources education and training	20 August 2010

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