

Dual journalism education Recommendations for the reform of journalism education at state universities in Afghanistan

— in particular for the
Faculty of Journalism and
Public Communication at
Nangarhar University

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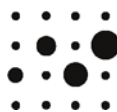
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Preamble



This handbook presents some results of the research project “Reform of Journalism Education at Universities in Afghanistan”. The task was to develop a proposal for a dual training programme for journalists based on current international research and a needs and feasibility assessment (i.e. interviews with Afghan university lecturers in the disciplines of journalism and mass communication, as well as representatives of media and journalism and tertiary education policy in Afghanistan).

A dual training programme for professional journalism, as has long been practised in various European and non-European countries, does not yet exist in Afghanistan. It aims to combine theory *and* simulation of practice at institutes of tertiary education through a vocational training course with an integrative design but which is completed externally in an editorial office (following the model of journalism programmes, for example, at German universities). This dual training programme aims to qualify as an academically certified journalist, recognised by professional associations and media fields. The proposal also set out to recommend further academic qualifications for journalism lecturers and professional training for practising journalists in Afghanistan, as well as recommendations for the legal, administrative and practical and/or administrative steps required for the medium-term establishment and trials of the model.

The core part of this project, which was funded by the Volkswagen Foundation, was carried out between 2015 and 2018. On the Afghan side, the Faculty of Journalism and Mass Communication at Nangarhar University was our contact and cooperation partner. Central starting points and reference points for our proposal were: structural conditions, personnel resources and the academic profile of the lecturers of this faculty, which do not differ fundamentally from the structures of this discipline at other state universities in the Afghan provinces, as well as a decree issued in autumn 2017 by the Ministry of Higher Education in Kabul, regarding bachelor’s programmes in journalism at state universities in Afghanistan.

Our project work was guided by various premises, as follows:

- the values and framework conditions of Afghanistan as a multi-ethnic, Islamic developing country should be taken into account
- religion and tradition decisively influence the self-image of journalists in Afghanistan and in Islamic societies in general, which is why fostering religious and traditional values plays a dominant role in the perception of the job of a journalist in these countries
- linking journalistic values to the teachings of Islam should be considered in the training programmes for journalists.

The process of the project followed a participatory concept, which we implemented in the following three steps:

- In spring 2016, we invited a group of representatives in the faculty of journalism from Nangarhar University and one other Afghan university, as well as the owner of a media corporation and a representative of a journalist's association, to visit Germany to learn about dual journalism training and listen to the experiences of local experts (e.g. educational objectives, content and relevance of programmes, changes, opportunities for or the necessity of development) at the universities of Dortmund, Eichstätt and Leipzig.
- From summer 2016 to May 2017, we carried out a needs and feasibility assessment in the form of guided interviews. Key issues were, on the one hand, educational objectives, areas and content, and tertiary education teaching, and on the other, structural conditions at Afghan universities (including the requirement of admission restrictions for students, the academic profile of lecturers and spatial and technical investments). Forty people were interviewed (representatives: 1. of journalism and mass communication at the universities of Herat, Kabul, Khost, Mazar-e-Sharif and Nangarhar; 2. of the university and faculty management of Nangarhar University; 3. of the Ministry of Higher Education and the National Commission of Curricula, Kabul; 4. of the field of media). The inter-

views, which were due to take place in Afghanistan, were conducted via Skype from Leipzig due to security risks. The answers were evaluated based on a strengths and weaknesses/opportunities and risks matrix.

- a conference was planned at which we wanted to present and discuss the proposals to our Afghan colleagues. This conference was originally supposed to take place in Afghanistan, but also had to be relocated to Leipzig for security reasons and was organised for the beginning of October 2018 with a smaller group of academic Afghan opinion disseminators and decision-makers from the Ministry of Higher Education and the National Commission of Curricula, Kabul; Unfortunately, however, it had to be cancelled due to the adverse political climate. Our Afghan university colleagues were refused visas for the Federal Republic of Germany, so the event had to be cancelled a few days before the planned start. Nevertheless, our Afghan guests were briefed about the core results of our project via the papers sent to them in advance to prepare for the conference.

These core results were presented in Leipzig in November 2018 to Zubair Sediqi, the Director for Academic Development of the Ministry of Higher Education in Kabul and we were able to discuss them with him. In the meantime, the Ministry had agreed to accept our recommendations as a basis for the medium-term introduction of a dual journalism training at Afghan state universities in a declaration of intent and to provide the necessary financial measures.

We hope that this online publication will provide all our colleagues in Afghanistan with an easy way to access the findings and recommendations of our project. Furthermore, we hope that this publication will provide conceptual suggestions and relevant information for the representatives of journalism and communication science who are engaged in reforming journalism training in other developing countries.

We are indebted to the Volkswagen-Foundation for the generous support of our project. The constructive and understanding advice and support provided by the expert speakers of the Foundation, Dr Astrid Bothmann, Dr Wolfgang Levermann and Dr Matthias Nöllenburg, will remain in our thoughts with gratitude. Special thanks must be given to Mr Zubair Sediqi, Ministry of Higher Education, Kabul for his interest and commitment and not least the time he has taken to inform himself about our suggestions in extensive joint conversations and to discuss these with us. Our Afghan colleagues, as well as the Afghan journalists and media corporations involved, deserve our thanks for the exchange and their commitment. As representatives, we want to name: Babrak Miakhil (Chancellor of Nangarhar University), Sayed Samiullah Saeedi (Deacon of the Faculty of Journalism and Public Communication of Nangarhar University), Basir Ahmad Daneshyar and Hamdullah Malal (lecturer at the Institute for Journalism and Public Communication of Nangarhar University), Shafiq Khaja Zada (professor for Journalism at the University of Herat) as well as Shallah Shaiq and Asif Shinwari (journalists) and Shafiqullah Shaiq (Shaiq-Networks, Nangarhar). A special thanks goes to Basir Hamidy for his valuable support during the whole project period and translation work.

Arnulf Kutsch and Kefa Hamidi

Leipzig, February 2020

The project, its task and the procedure

DR KEFA HAMIDI



The media system in Afghanistan has experienced an exceptionally dynamic development since 2001, ushered in by its political opening and furthered by the commitment of international stakeholders. In the last two decades, a veritable ‘media boom’ has taken place, accompanied by the rapid expansion and differentiation of media institutes and services, which can be seen as one of the greatest successes of the post-Taliban periods.

The ‘media boom’ has resulted in an enormous expansion and differentiation of the professional journalism market. In the past few years, journalism has gained extensive status as a profession in Afghanistan, especially among the younger generation. The social status of the currently approx. 10 000 professionals (as of 2019) has improved considerably in general terms (KHALVATGAR 2020).¹ Due to this expansion and differentiation, many insufficiently qualified people have entered the profession of journalism; that said, experienced journalists, even academic graduates, are often hardly able to meet the modern demands of the profession’s norms and ethics. Journalism as a profession is increasingly suffering from a loss of credibility within society and thus a partial loss of functionality (KHALVATGAR 2020, HAMIDI 2010; 2012; 2013a; 2013b). For this reason, reforms and improvements in expert and ethical journalism training have been in demand for a while.

At first glance, these demands seem to contradict general developments. The interest in academic studies has been rising rapidly in Afghanistan for a few years, whereas journalism has advanced to one of the most popular disciplines: in 2020 approx. 2 500 students (15 per cent of which female) were enrolled in faculties of journalism at state universities in Afghanistan (KHALVATGAR 2020, ALTAI 2010).² Due to the commitment of foreign stakeholders (e.g. the non-governmental organisation Nai-Supporting Open Media), additional academic and non-academic training and education programmes have been created alongside conventional academic courses at state universities (20 other institutions countrywide) in Kabul, Herat, Khost, Mazar-e-Sharif

1 In 2015, it was still 8 000 (see Altai 2015)

2 It is important to be wary of figures as exact statistics do not exist to date in Afghanistan. In 2010, Altai wrote that around 2 500 students were enrolled in the Faculty of Journalism at the state University of Kabul alone (Altai 2010, p. 123).

and Nangarhar (see more information in KHALVATGAR 2020, among others). Due to their differing goals, entrance requirements and participants, this has led to a confusing and uncoordinated situation of journalism training and entrance into the profession. There are several private universities (10 institutions countrywide) and an independent journalism college in Kabul (with branches in Herat, Kandahar, Jalalabad and Mazar-e-Sharif) (ibid.). Besides, there are numerous part-time programmes for junior researchers and further training courses for practising journalists. This co-existence of university and non-university journalism training in Afghanistan has profound structural weaknesses. Just a few fundamental problems are listed here:

- All educational programmes suffer from a lack of concept in course content and teaching (see KHALVATGAR 2020);
- The university education programmes predominantly aim to teach professional skills (theory of law and the organisation of the media, journalistic work processes and journalistic types); in contrast, discussions surrounding social, cultural-political and economic values as well as ethical foundations and the challenges of an increasingly economised form of journalism are barely touched upon (see KHALVATGAR 2020);
- specialist education at *state* universities is criticised because their syllabi do not include any practical elements (e.g. simulated work and decision-making at an editorial desk, external internships or traineeships). Instead, they are arranged in the absence of any practical work. *Private* university and journalism college programmes, on the other hand, mainly concentrate on the practice of individual practical skills to rapidly “produce” journalists;
- A clear functional differentiation between education and professional development programmes for journalists is missing;
- There is a lack of research in communication science that examines changing social requirements and needs of journalism in Afghanistan and publishes the results for the academic

journalism training, nor is there a specialist debate on quality assurance in journalism.

The professional field of journalism, and with it, the requirements of journalism, change constantly – partly due to a continuously progressing differentiation and specialisation that puts new demands on the profession. Modern academic journalism training has to adapt to these processes of change (JOSEPHI 2005; WEISCHENBERG ET AL. 2006; 2011; DUMBBELL 2006; DERNBACH/LOOSEN 2012). It demands a combination of professional competencies that could or should be gained on a *dual* education programme at university, integrating training elements that combine theory with the simulation of practice (i.e. lectures, seminars, editorial training desk, writing workshop exercises) alongside an *external* professional internship at an editorial desk (newspaper, magazine, radio, television, online service, news agency). These competencies are:

- Specialist competencies (professional knowledge of the discipline and journalistic skills),
- Expertise (expert knowledge of a special editorial area),
- Technological competencies (media technical knowledge),
- Communication competencies (presentation, articulation),
- Normative competencies (professional ethics) and
- Social orientation (ability to reflect, awareness of function and autonomy).

Besides, a sustainable model for education in the profession of public communication also needs to consider that, alongside journalism, the field of public relations has also gained much traction. Both fields are not just closely interlinked because of professional reality (occupation of journalists, i.e. professional migration into both fields) (JOSEPHI 2005; WEISCHENBERG 2006) but also due to the professional expectations and prospects of the students. Education programmes that meet these demands, even if only approximately, currently do not exist either inside or outside Afghan universities.

The uncontrolled growth of educational opportunities for journalism as a profession in Afghanistan over the last decade cannot be coordinated in a simple administrative or structural way. As a long-term sustainable solution, the *reform and harmonisation* of journalism training at *state* universities according to the model of the dual journalist training lends itself as a model, as has been proven at western universities (e.g. Germany, U.S.A.) to produce a well-qualified new generation of journalists in both theory and professional praxis. Therefore, the following *goals* can be ascertained for the project:

1. to create a model (variation) of the above-mentioned dual education for the new generation of leading positions in Afghan journalism, developed on the foundation of current international research and a demand and feasibility study (interviews with Afghan experts);
2. to create a manual with models, i.e. model variations, and guideline for the legal-administrative and practical-organisational steps for the planning, introduction and trial of this model as a pilot project, and
3. to explain this model or manual at a *conference for Afghan experts of journalism training* as well as show the need for a reform of journalism education at the state universities of the country.

The work here presents, describes and accompanies the development of a concept for the reformation of journalism training in Afghanistan.

In the **first part**, a detailed theoretical part offers insights into the current situation of journalism research and explains the fundamental concepts that are relevant to the reform of journalism training. Besides, models are presented that contain a possible structure of the reformed education programme. In doing so, the various partial areas of theoretical and practical journalism training are considered.

In the **second part**, a demand and feasibility study will follow, which is meant to ensure that the implementation of the model is possible in Afghanistan. To meet these requirements, 40 interviews (list in the appendix) were conducted with Afghan experts from the field of media, politics and education regarding the reform of journalism training. As a result of the expert interviews, we present an analysis of strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and risks for reform plans. This part incorporates in total the presentation of the “procedure for interviewing experts”, “the current state of journalism training at Nangarhar University” and the “the procedure for evaluating matrix and expert interviews”.

In the **third part**, the results of the study and the concrete target models for dual journalism training at Nangarhar University are presented. Thus, we introduce the recommendations for the implementation of a bachelor’s programme in Journalism as well as a master’s programme in Communication Science. Furthermore, a recommendation for a further training programme for professional journalists in the whole of Afghanistan follows. Also, two models for the courses Development Communication and Public Relations are roughly outlined. Furthermore, this part formulates the guidelines for the legal-administrative and practical-organisational steps. These guidelines describe the most important steps, concrete approach and a timely transformation plan for the reform of journalism training at Nangarhar University.

In the **fourth part**, you will find the appendix. First, there is a glossary, in which the most important terms concerning media, journalism and journalism training are defined and explained. Then some exemplary foreign courses of dual journalism training are presented as well as the discipline of Development Communication. There are also important sources for further input and reading. Lastly, there is a detailed bibliography that contains the sources used as well as secondary literature dealing with a range of topics in journalism training.

Part 1

Academic journalism training: theoretical foundation Depiction and results of current international research

DR KEFA HAMIDI



This project is based on insights and findings of comparative international research into journalism. The step is necessary because academic Afghan representatives of journalism generally lack knowledge about the current state of comparative international research into journalism. Hence this step also fulfils the function of supplying information.

Thus, the following theoretical part forms the basis of this manual. Its function is to systematically review the current international research regarding aims, content, forms and structures of journalism training programmes and public relations at universities. This includes, first of all, the general clarification of basic principles and basic concepts as well as the social significance of media and journalism, especially in Islamic and developing and/or emerging countries. The second step is about the core questions of journalistic training: What does journalism need to be able to do and what content should be taught? A third step is the question: what specific qualifications and competencies make a good journalist and how can they be taught?

1 Media and journalism: position and function in society

First, mass media, journalism and their position and function in society are examined to classify the subject matter. This question is of central importance for journalism training since its answer specifies general education objectives.

Mass media and society

The approaches of system theory are the most important prerequisite of any social system, where “adaptability to specific changes in the environment” is the defining characteristic (BURKART 1998: 371). These deliberations are discussed under the title “functions of mass media”, implicating that certain achievements of major importance are expected by the media in a society for the “continuity of the societal system” (IBID.: 369). Following this train of thought,

every social system has the purpose of solving several problems, some of which are phrased as tasks. The functions of the mass media are, therefore, “intellectual operations, which are judged from the social system in society to what extent they fulfil needs and expectations” (IBID.: 373). The mass media make the social, political and economic contexts accessible to people and thus enable the active participation of citizens. An essential and central function of mass media is information transfer (BURKART 2000: 370 et seq.). This circumstance results in some normative demands addressed to the mass media that it should provide those for the survival of society. It should strive for thoroughness and for all stakeholders in society to have a chance to speak. Also, mass media should report objectively and comprehensively, so that events and problems are presented in a way that can be understood by “non-expert citizens” (BURKART 1998: 392).

Political functions of the mass media are those functions that the media should perform in relation to a social environment as a political system for society. A central political function of the mass media is the “production of the public” (see RONNEBERGER 1987). This is achieved by making media information “publicly” accessible. Mass media, which addresses the expectations of citizens as well as the decisions of the political system, enables an exchange between the state and citizens (forum function). Thus, the media conveys the knowledge for the formation of opinions and therefore enables the participation of citizens in the political process (political participation). Thereby, it contributes to political education. Finally, a very important achievement for the political system in democratic societies is indicated: the “criticism and control function” of mass media. It criticises the state, society or organisations, eg. through investigative research or commentaries on current topics. The publication of criticism leads to “control over the criticised conditions” where additional possibilities for sanction do not exist. Publication alone or the fear of it can lead to behavioural changes (BURKART 1998: 345).

Another important function is the integration function of the mass media. As social and cultural processes of differentiation

advance, so does the need for social integration (see RONNEBERGER 1987). These thoughts are based on the assumption that a differentiated society consists of very different groups with diverse interests and is, therefore, “constantly threatened by the danger of dissociation and disintegration” (IBID.: 5). Based on these social developments, a “normatively justified demand” results in an “integrating authority”. For this reason, the mass media is attributed to the task of performing the “integrating function”. In a society organised by differing (interest) groups, mass media should convey “socially accepted behaviour and norms of behaviour” as well as “mass loyalty” for the “validity of these social, political and legal norms”. This function is seen above all in what one feels to be beyond one’s “own horizon of experience as part of society, which in turn he perceives as a whole” (MALETZKE 1984: 139 cit. BURKART 1998: 392).

Journalism and society

Journalism is – under a “consistently system-oriented” perspective – not the sum of “journalistically active persons”, but rather a “complexly structured social system, connected to other social systems in many ways” (SCHOLL 1998: 12). Reality designs of the media are in this understanding not primarily the work of individual journalistic personalities, but rather the result of actions in the context of the system (WEISCHENBERG et al. 1993: 23). For the exact determination and demarcation of the term journalism, a “four-stage operationalisation” could be applied (see SCHOLL/WEISCHENBERG 1998: 468 et seq.).

On the *first level*, journalism is a functional system in a society that is characterised by “specific communication mechanisms” and thus differs from other social functional systems (public relations, advertising, literature, art, etc.): Through “professional external observation” of various social topics, journalism enables “public communication” that is “new and relevant” and is based on facts and experiences (ibid.).

On the second level, journalism as the “organised production of public statements” is divided into different “sub-systems”. These

distinguish the segments of newspapers, magazines, radio, news agencies and online media.

On the third level (journalism as a profession), “vertical” and “horizontal” journalistic work roles are differentiated (SCHOLL 1997: 289 et seq.). These roles are the components of the system “journalism” when they are linked to the production of journalistic media output full-time in either permanent or freelance collaboration (ibid.). A full-time journalist is someone who earns more than “half of his or her income from journalistic work or works for journalistic media for more than half of his or her working hours” (see SCHOLL/WEISCHENBERG 1998: 468 et seq.).

On the *fourth level*, formal roles and core journalistic activities (research, selection, writing and editing) are differentiated. From a systems theory perspective, five problems of journalism are diagnosed: Journalism takes on “a changed role” on the social level. It has irrevocably lost its exclusive function of contributing to public self-understanding through up-to-date and relevant information. Professional PR stakeholders also shape social communication. On an economic level, the historical business model of journalism is debated, which has made it possible to re-finance journalistic services through advertising for more than a century. On a structural level, the Internet is a “communication channel as an everyday medium” that challenges the exclusive capacity of journalism. Journalism loses reputation on the content level. Journalists are no longer the only ones who provide up-to-date and relevant topics for public discussion. Journalism, with its normative ideal of providing the public with the information necessary for citizens to act socially and responsibly, obviously only makes up the smaller part of the total supply (WEISCHENBERG 2002; HANITZSCH 2010; MEIER 2014).

This elicits the question as to whether these problems can be solved by improving the education of journalists. Möller and Popescu (2004: 4) refer to a “cross-societal solution” in which journalism training is only part of the equation: “The interaction of the rule of law, economic security, guaranteed editorial independence and profound education of journalists provide the basis for a democra-

tizing press as well as for the diversity of opinion, which is not only true for transition states.”

It appears that the profound education of journalists can only be one piece of the puzzle to solve structural problems. For journalism training in transition countries, the requirement to set high “quality standards” under the given conditions remains (ASSENMACHER 2009: 75). Part of this is accepting and knowing ethical guidelines governing the media and societal norms and boundaries. Discourses of responsibility reach their limitations under the daily pressure of the editorial department or through invisible censorship. It is the responsibility of politics and the public, therefore, to stand up for their demands and needs concerning structural problems and their elimination as well as to create favourable framework conditions for journalism (ibid.: 72).

Professional attitudes in journalism in an international comparison

According to WEISCHENBERG et al. (1994: 160), the role of self-image aims exclusively at professional perception, i.e. the concept referring to “the self-defined frame of action.” In communication science, assumptions that the professional role of self-image are “the driving force in reporting” (DONSBACH 1987: 118) has led to the examination of “professional conditions” being pushed into the background (WEISCHENBERG et al. 1989: 289). Many studies about the professional role of self-image create different typologies regarding the perception of professional roles and the personal beliefs of the journalists. In this tradition, a journalistic role typology has been derived here and operationalised from the above-mentioned findings. This is a foundation of Shoemaker and Reese’s “hierarchy of influences” model, which posits that mass media content – and the journalists who produce it – are shaped by a multitude of internal and external forces (1996). The theory provides a framework for examining journalism on the international stage (DONSBACH/KLETT 1993; MCQUAIL 2005) and has led to proposals for a “universal theory” of journalism culture, which has attempted to explain why various journalistic values “seem to play out differently around the globe” (HANITZSCH 2007; HANITZSCH et al. 2010) and the

concept of “glocalization” – a “global-to-local” theoretical matrix that its authors say explains the “two-way relationship between global and local epistemologies and practices” (WASSERMAN/RAO 2008: 164; PINTAK 2014: 486). Weaver’s empirical study conducted in 31 countries suggests significant differences as far as the professional identity of journalists around the globe is concerned. While journalistic role perceptions seem to be “determined primarily by political and cultural factors”, the research results indicate similarities concerning the main functions of journalism consisting of the task to instantly inform the public about current events. Notably, other common perceptions of the journalism field could only be identified for specific countries rather than universally. As a consequence, the empirical findings do not confirm the existence of so-called “global journalism” which has been “propagated by globalisation advocates” in recent years.

According to one result from the data, seven journalistic types of professional role self-perception can be constructed and defined:

1. Information journalism (*neutral informant*) is today seen as the central professional role in journalism (HANITZSCH 2010: 123; WEISCHENBERG et al. 2006: 356). Representatives of this type see themselves as neutral and passive arbiters or observers who pass on information objectively, preferably true to the facts and unadulterated. Current international research shows that, on the whole, the role that self-image plays among journalists (in the sense of information journalism) is dominant across the globe.
2. The critical controller journalist type (*critic*) is the direct opposite of the neutral reporter. For him or her, an active and subjective evaluation in the form of criticism and control is the central task of his or her journalistic practice.
3. Opinion journalism, in close conjunction with the critical controller, can take the form of advocacy journalism (*attorney*), a professional who sees him- or herself as the spokesperson and mirror for the opinions of the underprivileged.

4. Active professional understanding, which defines mass media not just as a carrier of information and opinion but as an instrument for guidance and education, is the framework for the pedagogue journalist type (*teacher*).
5. In service journalism (*service provider*) the journalist's role draws in particular on elements of popular media cultures and is mainly characterised by the communication aims of diversion and entertainment (HANITZSCH, 2004:150).
6. Missionary journalism (*missionary*) describes a concept that can be especially observed in Islamic countries (KHAN 2005: 123; HAMIDI 2015: 129). Here, the central elements are similar to an educational mission, by conveying social and religious values as well as social control (RAMAPRASAD/HAMDY 2006).
7. Finally, mediation-oriented journalism (*mediator*) should also be mentioned; it is especially prevalent in developing countries and contains many elements of development journalism. It sees its main task as putting integration into practice in which the defining role of the journalist is a "mediator or moderator" (RAMAPRASAD 2001).

Journalists in many countries may aspire to certain values, such as objectivity, but their ability or willingness to abide by them is determined by the practicalities of their unique socio-political situation. Religion and culture mean that many journalists, "particularly in the developing world", modify western ideals to fit their values. While journalists may, in some but not all cases, share certain objectives (HANITZSCH et al., 2010), or aspire to a "global ideology of journalism, they each interpret its values and mores through their cultural prism" (DEUZE 2005: 445; PINTAK 2014: 485).

Mass media in developing countries

For some years now there has been a discussion on how to organise the media in developing countries and what role it should have.³ The debates were based on different approaches of *Development Communication* (DC) and *Development Journalism* (DJ) – independent

directions of research within communication science, which have been observed in literature since the 1970s.

Hallin and Mancini's *Comparing Media Systems*, published in 2004, has become a classic in comparative media studies. These four comparative dimensions do not sufficiently summarise the media systems beyond Western countries (SHEN 2012) or a fragile state (SCHULZ/HAMIDI 2016). The reason for this is that comparative cross-national or intercultural research too often starts from an "implicit Western bias" and "models and frameworks developed in a Western context are used as templates for evaluation and comparison" and "implicitly disregard[...], apart from proverbial lip service, the importance of cultural dimensions in media systems and societies" (SERVAES 2015).

For some years now, there has been a discussion about how media should be organised (and described) in so-called developing countries and what functions they should include. According to this understanding, mass communication should not only report the most up-to-date, neutral and objective events but, primarily, journalism should assume a kind of "mediation function" and not only inform, but "educate", "mediate" and "convince" the population. The common denominator of these approaches could be summarised under the following normative view: the mass media should contribute to "national development" (KUNCZIK 1985; 1988) and "social harmony" (MASSEY/CHANG 2002; see also BANDYOPADHYAY 1988; MENON in 1996). The central assumption of the first notion is that mass media (newspapers, radio, television and ICT) not only have a programmatic, but also an extraordinarily important role as facilitators of development policy programmes for the formation and consolidation of social change (or of nation-building).

CHRISTIANS et al. (2009) argue that journalism tends to fulfil four core nor-

3 Developing or Third World countries refer to those extra-European nation states which have emerged in the course of global political reorganisation after 1945 in their present form. This reorganisation led to the division of the world into the so-called First World (western industrialised countries connected to Japan, Australia), so-called Second World (former socialist countries) and so-called Third World (countries of South and Central America, Asia, Africa). Thus, developing countries are politically sovereign states that were mostly former colonies (see SOCIOLOGY LEXIKON, 4th ed., Munich, 2000: 146).

mative roles, namely, a monitorial, a facilitative, a radical and a collaborative in society:

1. The monitorial role refers to the classic liberal role of a neutral and objective media watching the authorities;
2. The facilitative role refers to the need for more independence from power structures as this refers to the media's role to provide a platform to citizens (ordinary citizens);
3. The radical role is fulfilled by oppositional forces that challenge those in positions of power.
4. The collaborative role is taken by those media and journalists who operate and act unequivocally to protect and safeguard the interests of those in power.

HANITZSCH (2011: 275) refers to three central areas in which journalism cultures reveal the perception of journalism's institutional roles, epistemologies and ethical ideologies. He states that these three domains together constitute "the basic elements of difference between journalism's cultures and the domain of institutional roles refer[ing] to the normative and actual functions of journalism in society". His key empirical findings on role perceptions from a comparative survey of 1 800 journalists from 18 countries show "that journalists across the globe pay high regard to the normative ideals of detachment, providing political information and acting as a watchdog of the government". But journalists from non-western contexts, tend to be "more interventionist in their role perceptions (...) for particular values, ideas and social change" (HANITZSCH 2011: 273). Journalists in developing countries point out that they pursue an "active, interventionist role" (ibid.) and emphasise their understanding of "social change" as an elementary goal (see also HAMIDI 2016; RAMAPRASAD 2007; 2006; 2004). Such a function, which can be placed in the context of the idea of "development journalism" (HANITZSCH 2011: 273) is much more endorsed among journalists in developing societies and transitional contexts.

In another paper, HANITZSCH (2011: 278) pinpointed four global professional milieus: "populist disseminator", "detached watch-

dog”, “critical change agent” and “opportunistic facilitator”. He points out that the “detached watchdog milieu” clearly dominates the field of journalism in most western countries, while the milieu of the “opportunistic facilitator” is dominant in several “developing, transitional and authoritarian contexts”. As to the main characteristic of journalists in the milieu of the opportunistic facilitator group, he describes “their relatively strong opportunistic view of journalism’s role in society, namely as constructive partners of the government in the process of economic development and political transformation” (286). Many theorists and practitioners in developing countries argue for a “mass media development model” that should be in line with key concerns in their countries, particularly “nation-building” (see MCQUAIL 2000; JAYAWEEERA 1987). MCQUAIL (1983: 95) speaks in his approach of “a specific media model for the developing world” as an important common feature, considering “the acceptance of economic development per se” and the “emergence of a nation as the ultimate goal”. The mass media can play a crucial role in social progress, as any transitional society will encounter new attitudes, a new mindset and a new value system (NAMRA 2004: 17). It is assumed that the mass media can influence social development by reporting on development programmes (ibid.; GROSSENBACHER 1988) because only the mass media might reach the vast rural population and give them a voice in debates affecting their lives. In this context, HEDEBRO (1982: 16) attributes the potential for conveying the meaning of “nationhood” (in the sense of nation-like qualities) to the mass media. He justifies this by arguing that “many developing countries are mixtures of different cultures, languages, political systems and religious beliefs. This is regarded as a serious obstacle to social change on a national level”. For LOZARE (2015), the key roles of communication in the “building of a nation” foster “meaningful dialogue among different sectors of society”, “nurture a shared vision for the country’s future and harness non-material and material resources to realise the national shared vision”. It is particularly desirable to have reports on national projects that could “constructively” contribute to the development and improvement of living standards (KUNCZIK 1992). Of

course, one cannot attribute omnipotence to the media, as modernisation theorists believed. The media system should be considered as a reflection or indicator of progress, freedom, the state of development and the modernisation of a country rather than a determinant of these aspects. They can be factors among others that can achieve national development and harmony (ibid.).

The second view purporting that the media and journalists have a “social responsibility” and are therefore responsible for the preservation of “social harmony” is represented in the context of so-called “Asian values”. The “classic models” for describing the media systems are based on a “too restrictive (Western) description of concepts like ‘freedom,’ ‘democracy,’ ‘objectivity,’” etc. which allow little or no generalisation (SERVAES 2015), for example, to explain journalism in the context of Asian values. In the context of “Asian values”, journalists and the media are also expected to maintain “social harmony” through “sensitive reporting” and to be constantly aware of the effects that the impact of coverage may have on society (XU 1998). Therefore, GUNARATNE (2000: 15) states that the concept of “social responsibility” is understood differently in Asian societies compared to western countries. While the Western approach is defined by the individual’s political, social and economic freedom, the Asian approach refers to “collective social security and economic prosperity”. This means that above all, the mass media has to generate “nation-building”, “national consciousness” and “unity”, as well as the “encouragement of co-operation and peaceful co-existence between diverse and sometimes hostile communities” (MASSAY/CHANG 2002: 991).

These two views are interlinked with the definition of ‘development communication’, which is mainly used by researchers from countries in the Global South, emphasising the aspect of “societal consensus” enabled by ‘development communication’ (QUEBRAL 2012). Nora Cruz QUEBRAL (2012: 14) from the Philippines, an important representative of this view of development communication, explains in detail what the usual tasks of communication media in developing countries are. She states four basic items:

1. Circulate knowledge that informs people about significant events, opportunities, dangers and changes in their community, the country, the region and the world;
2. Create and maintain a consensus, based on or which discusses community life; to achieve a better life needed for the stability of a state;
3. Provide a forum where issues affecting national or community life may be discussed;
4. Teach the ideas, skills and values that people need.

First, QUEBRAL (2006) sees “development communication” as “an art and science of human communication applied to the speedy transformation of a country and mass of its people from poverty to a dynamic state and the larger fulfilment of human potential.”

Second, she reacts to the question of “how can communication media help create and maintain consensus?” and argues that “[l]ike a marriage, a nation is founded on a bedrock of common experiences and shared values. Conflicts among groups in a nation cannot be avoided, but with a wide enough base of agreement, the answers are sought not in secession but in accommodation and compromise. It is communication through the mainstream and new media that can project this national identity to the people and that can demonstrate to them that a united nation can be fashioned out of diverse cultures.”

Third, she describes what ‘providing a forum’ means. Discussion through communication media is one of the basic features of a democracy. There must be an agora where ideas and opinions on public issues may be heard, answered or exchanged. How to give a voice to the voiceless is a concern for the development communicator, as well as reporting events as they happen, which is certainly not a new task for communication media.

Fourth, she considers the question of why communication media should assume the role of teacher and argues that a country’s development depends on its citizens being exposed to progressive ideas, skills and accompanying values. Formal education that happens in schools cannot do this yeoman task alone. It must be supplemented

and reinforced by other social institutions, not the least of which is a country's communication system. Therefore QUEBRAL (2012: 7) defines 'development communication' as a phenomenon that "circulates useful information and knowledge; provides a forum where problems and issues may be aired, teaches needed ideas, skills and values; and creates a base of consensus that stabilises the state.

A similar discussion has taken place around the concept of development journalism. It has been a subject of discussion for years and investigates the connection between national development and mass media (KUNCZIK 1986: 84). Development journalism focuses attention on situations in less-developed countries and insists that reporting of and commenting on events by journalism must be constructive and committed to the improvement of people's lives. Accordingly, journalism takes up the duty of supporting national development through its output (AGGARWALA 1979: 181). This understanding of journalism differs from the classical understanding in its objective to contribute to active social "development of the country" (KUNCZIK 1986: 262; WIMMER/WOLF 2005: 1). Development journalism means, above all, "nation-building", i.e. the creation of national consciousness and unity, the encouragement of cooperation and peaceful co-existence between diverse and sometimes hostile communities. Contrary to the principles espoused for development journalism, most African and Asian governments have tended to use the media as a sedative rather than a stimulant. There is a consensus regarding the integral role of journalism in the process of creating sustainable development; this belief rests upon the assumption that journalism can transfer content, including norms and values, relevant to the development of a country or region.

This orientation differs from that of Western journalism which states that news reporting should not take any stand one way or the other but should merely present the facts and allow the people to make up their minds – the classic objectivity principle. Development journalism does not, of course, reject objectivity per se, but its "approach to news reporting is based on the assumption that development is a desirable objective serving the full support of the

mass media”. It represents the viewpoint that the journalist has a “social responsibility to promote development” (EDEANI 1993: 126 et seq.)⁴. The journalist should be more of a “guide dog” than a “watch-dog”⁵ and content should be interpreted from above by those in power (KASOMA 1999: 3). This argument, for the media as nation-builder, usually assumes that the media, both press and broadcasting, should be supportive of and not adversarial to ‘national interest’. A more positive ‘spin’ on this is a media ethos which focuses on national and developmental goals, on the need for autonomy from major news purveyors and which shows solidarity with other nations in similar situations, in which social responsibility comes before media rights and freedoms. A responsible press is essential in any democratic society regardless of its level of development. The needs of public interest clearly demand unfettered information and a space in which the interests of ordinary citizens are promoted (TOMASELLI 2003: 430).

Development, journalism and education

The challenge to develop curricula and do research based on the realities in developing countries and which is steeped in contextualised theory is one acknowledged by several journalism lecturers. Apart from creating the appropriate political and economic environments for an independent media system, it is crucial to educate journalists to the highest ethical and professional standards possible (SERVAES 2015). The professional education of journalists should be based on local or national parameters (ibid.). Journalism that ignores a community dimension can end up being used as a tool to divide people by interests, rather than build relationships critical for functioning communities (MENSING 2010).

Journalism education in developing countries must contend with defining a new academic identity for itself, extri-

4 Development news should critically examine, evaluate and interpret the relevance of development plans, projects, policies, problems, and issues. It should indicate the disparities between plans and actual accomplishments and include comparisons with how development is progressing in other countries and regions (EDEANI 1993: 132).

5 The “watchdog” function, according to TOMASELLI (2003: 429), involves duties and responsibilities in scrutinising governments to ensure public accountability, not in misusing press freedom by going wild and “barking at, charging and biting everyone in sight, including those who have not provoked it”.

cating itself from any dependency on Western-oriented models of journalism training and education in general (ibid). Many feel that the Western or “libertarian” model of journalism had not fully contributed towards national progress because of its emphasis on the entertainment function of the mass media and its treatment of information as a “marketable commodity” (see ALI 2011). Western news values of timeliness, prominence, proximity, conflict and the bizarre exclude the ordinary people in the news unless they are involved in accidents, violence, or catastrophes (ibid.) For very different reasons, journalists in developing countries are dissatisfied with the Western model of journalism and have been trying to develop models they feel would better serve their needs. Development journalism stems from the dissatisfaction with the Western news values that do not serve the cause of national development (ibid.).

Development journalism is an important part of development communication that can be conducted by professional or lay journalists. In the first case, one speaks of “constructive journalism”, in the second case of “citizen journalism”. Accordingly, community journalism is often associated with this type of journalism (READER/HATCHER 2012). In all cases, reporting on answers to social problems and shedding light on the effectiveness of approaches to solutions is the aim, thus helping its recipients learn from or be inspired by it. In contrast to Western watchdog journalism, the concept of development journalism has been developed and tailored to the needs of countries in the Global South, especially in Asia since the 1960s, but is currently also being adapted to Western countries. According to XU (2009: 358), the main components include: to focus not only on current affairs, but long-term development processes; to work independently of the government and criticise it constructively, but to place the focus on news about economic and social development and to engage constructively in nation-building with the government; and to empower “normal” people to improve their lives and those of their communities. Here communication not only refers to the transfer of information; it also includes participation in society and the community (NAMRA

2004) and a focus on the educational function of the news, stories about social needs, self-help projects and obstacles to development (GUNARATNE 1990). Each journalist's role (creator of forum and consensus, teacher or advocate) could be associated with a specific set of competencies (skills and values), which the journalist (fragile states) of the future needs to acquire to do his or her job adequately.

WIMMER and WOLF (2005: 8) analysed 19 journalism curricula from DC and found that the programmes were largely Western in their outlook: "There is a latent core curriculum showing a distinctive Western structure almost everywhere." They did, however, find that development journalism in different forms existed in most journalism programmes, demonstrating a local adaptation to journalism teaching. The challenge to develop curricula and do research based on the realities of DC journalism and steeped in contextualised theory is one acknowledged by several DC journalism instructors. Journalism education in DC must contend with defining a new academic identity for itself, extricating itself from dependency on Western-oriented models of journalism training and education in general. Maintaining harmony in this culturally diverse community is of great national importance. It requires journalism students, journalists and the general public to acknowledge and understand the cultural beliefs and practices of all ethnic communities in the country. The media handling of this diversity and culturally sensitive issues in DCs has, however, fallen short of this goal at times (HESS/WALKER 2010: 138).

FIELDS	TOPICS	SOLUTION
<i>Development communication</i>	Developing countries Nation-building National development plan Sustainable development	Social responsibility to promote development Constructive reporting Social harmony National Development
<i>Development Journalism</i>	Creation of: National consciousness unity, cooperation, peaceful co-existence Transfer content, including norms and values, relevant to the development of a country	Guide dog: information and education, convincing

TABLE 1: Journalism and Development, Own illustration (2015)

Journalism in Islamic Societies

For scientists who seek to engage with journalists in Muslim countries, an understanding of how “the norms and values” of journalism are taught within the context and culture of Islam is essential (STEELE 2007). Using SHOEMAKER and REESE’S (1996) notion of a hierarchy of influences concerning the news, this study examines the relationship between tenets of Islamic faith, the political, economic and historical contexts of Islamic-majority regions and journalists’ conceptions of professional values. Studies (RAMAPRASAD/RAHMAN 2006; KHAN 2005, HAMIDI 2014) regarding the professional attitude of journalists in countries defined by Islam allow us to conclude that religion impacts decisively on the professional role of self-perception, which is why the promotion of religious values plays a dominant role for journalists in these environments. In a study examining the professional role of self-perception of Egyptian journalists, journalists were asked directly how important the promotion and enforcement of Islamic societies, traditions and values was for them.⁶ They evaluated the function as the second

6 The researchers operationalised this dimension via the following items, among others, to “defend Islamic societies, traditions and values” and “strengthen spiritual and moral values” (RAMAPRASAD/HAMDY, 2006: 175)

most important media function after the most important of “impart[ing] exact and timely information”. The authors even referred to the promotion of these values as a “basis of the journalistic profession” in this country (RAMAPRASAD/HAMDY 2006: 175).

Other findings arise if the question is not restricted to the issue of finding a connection between religious and journalistic attitudes, but the journalists are, in an additional step, asked directly whether these cultural values play a role in their work. Based on an analysis of surveys involving 1 596 journalists in the Arab world, Pakistan and Indonesia (PINTAK/GINGES 2008; PINTAK/NAZIR 2013; PINTAK/SETIYONO 2011), the authors argue that, while a variety of political, economic and social factors shape the unique worldviews of reporters and editors in three of the largest regions of the Muslim world, a common thread that binds them is the degree to which – consciously or not – Islamic values shape their approach to the mission of journalism as they struggle to: (1) report the truth in societies where information has long been suppressed; (2) achieve social justice and political rights; and (3) balance international professional standards with the values of their religion and culture⁷. This is “not to suggest that Muslim journalists in those regions, or in general, are on a religious crusade with journalism serving as their ideological sword”. Rather, they hold a “belief in the morality and righteousness of journalism” and “an almost sacred commitment” to the watchdog functions of the press (BRENNAN 2000).

The survey results indicate that, in the three largest Islamic regions, Islamic values are the prism through which journalists view what are generally accepted in the West as “universal” values of journalism. Most fundamentally, the shared goal of improving society, whether through radical change or gradual social reform, “mirrors the Qur’anic quest for truth and justice; and the way these journalists approach their job is heavily influenced by a variety of other Islamic values, such as the need for balance, moderation and respect” (ibid.: 500). These journalists admire the professionalism of their Western counterparts, but

7 Journalists in the surveys were asked how they viewed themselves: did they identify first with nation, religion, ethnicity, region or profession? As noted above, more than 90 percent of the journalists in all three surveys were Muslim (PINTAK 2014: 489).

they shape and adapt “global journalistic ideal-types to fit their own unique local realities and beliefs” (ibid.: 501). This argument builds on the qualitative work of Steele (2011: 533), who found that journalists in Indonesia and Malaysia “express the universal values of journalism, but do so within an Islamic idiom and, more generally, see and understand the significance of their work through the prism of Islam” (ibid.: 534). Her conclusion (ibid.: 533 et seq.) is that justice (*‘adl*) is “the overarching ideology of journalism in Islam” and that other journalistic values mirrored in Islam include the quest for truth (*haqq*), independence (*nasihah*) and balance (*l’tidal*). These findings expand those values to include the promotion of good and the prevention of evil (*hisbah*) and working for the public interest (*maslahah*) and indicate that the Islamic value of “moderation” (*wasatiyyah*) “plays an important role in governing how journalists in Muslim societies approach their reporting”. Those who compiled the *hadith*, the collections of words and deeds of the Prophet Muhammad and other prophets recognised in Islam, are considered to have been the first reporters and, in establishing the truth (*haqq*) of the tales passed down through the ages, they were advised to consider the veracity of each *Rasool* (messenger) or *Nabiy* (news giver) (AL-SEINI 1986: 288), providing a template for modern journalists in the effort to confirm the facts of news accounts (HASSAN 1994).

There is no value more fundamental to Western-style journalism than truth. It is equally central to Islam. “Cover not Truth (*haqq*) with falsehood (*baatil*), nor conceal the Truth when you know (what it is)”, says the Qur’an (2:42). The overwhelming majority of journalists agreed that “a journalist must always be objective”. But that aspiration was tempered by the fact that more than half also said “a journalist must balance the need to inform with the need to show respect” toward those about whom she or he is writing. The final concept is participation, which he characterises as “having empathy towards victims.” (STEELE 2007). The comment reflects the fact that journalists in all three regions aspire to Western journalistic values of independence and freedom of expression, but “they do this within the constructs of emerging ownership patterns,

political pressures, the complexion of their audience and their own religious and cultural values (PINTAK 2014: 490).

SELF CONCEPT	AIM	IMPLEMENTATION
Balance international professional journalistic standards with the values of religion and culture	Impart exact and timely information even if it refers to the promotion of Islamic values	Balance, moderation and respect Empathy towards victims Truth with restraint

TABLE 2: Journalism and Religion, Own Table (2016)

2 Journalism education: history, form, content and implementation

After having discussed the social role of journalism, we are now going to turn to the core question of journalism training: what does journalism need to be able to do and what content should be taught? To answer this question, we are going to illustrate and analyse some models for journalistic education from some exemplary Western countries (Germany, USA) and countries informed by Islam (Indonesia, Pakistan, Arabic countries). Especially for the Federal Republic of Germany, where academic journalism training began in the early 1970s through model study programmes, there is a great deal of literature of both accompanying and evaluating research on the development of the last four decades, its strengths and problems (cf. inter alia HARNISCHMACHER 2010; NOWAK 2007). While in Germany and other European countries, university journalism training is public and focuses on academic and scientific achievements (BARRERA 2012), the focus in the USA is on practical and applied training, which is largely offered and financed by the private media industry (WEISCHENBERG 1999). Since both theory and practice are fundamental to good journalism training, it will be necessary to clarify how the gap between the two areas can be bridged in Afghan journalism training.

The previous chapter showed that journalists working in predominantly Muslim societies have a similar professional ethic to their Western colleagues. Reporting truthfully and contributing to justice is a high priority in their work. Also, journalists in Islamic countries have the task of standardising international professional standards with religious and cultural values (PINTAK/GINGES 2008; PINTAK/NAZIR 2013; PINTAK/SETIYONO 2011). This special feature must also be taken into account concerning journalism training in Afghanistan when weighing up the advantages and disadvantages of the models presented.

Social orientation

To understand journalism training, it is necessary to recognise it as a product of larger social and political conditions. The challenge for the future is to increasingly integrate these contextual conditions into the very epistemological assumptions upon which theories of journalism and curricula for journalism training are based (BANDA 2010: 157). FRÖHLICH and HOLTZ-BACHA (2003: 319) believe that “the most powerful influences for journalist education are the factors of the social sphere or the system including the historical and the cultural background of a country, as well as the media structure with its normative and economic background variables” (HANUSCH 2014: 1161). WEAVER (1998) and SHOEMAKER and REESE (1996) also indicate that societal influences are more decisive for media professionalism than formal education. Journalism education in various countries generally reflects the differing traditions and norms of journalistic practice associated with those countries (GRIEVES 2011).

EHINDERO (1986) makes it clear that every education programme should be socially relevant and culturally sensitive. REESE (1999) holds that academics must concentrate on nurturing in their students the analytical abilities to comprehend growing social problems, rather than focusing on a set of skills that would only serve the industry in a limited sense. In other words, the application of learning outcomes should benefit the immediate community of the learner and suit and impact on the learner’s cultural background. This strand of research should primarily be informed by one key

assumption: journalism is not and never should be disconnected from (the idea of) community which concretely means that any conceptualisation of journalism must always be framed in terms of journalism and society, as only then can it be situated in specific technological, economic, political and social contexts. To this can be added that decisions regarding the content of a curriculum are never value-neutral, but are based on the choices made within the other categories as identified here, as well as limited by the evaluations and considerations made earlier in the school's history (DEUZE 2006). Any educational programme that seeks to isolate the learner from his or her cultural background should be treated with strong caution. After all, as EHINDERO (1986: 13) notes, the aims of education and the curriculum⁸ are to serve society in some important ways, which include: preserving, rediscovering and critically transmitting its cultural heritage; and contributing to the improvement of the society by helping to refine and redefine national aims and techniques (indigenous and contemporary) through the use of the best and most relevant, currently available knowledge. Every curriculum should, therefore, strive to be sensitive to and reflect this important value (SALAWU 2011: 2).

Another continuing debate in the field of journalism and journalist training consists of two opposing perceptions: for and against global approaches. Whereas one side argues that journalism training and education should consider the specific cultural context, time and location, other scholars call for a global perspective. They refer to the growing influence of Western journalism training standards and the rise of related formal educational models. Issues common to journalism training on a global level, for example, should include an analysis and discussion of how the various ways to organise journalism training can be interconnected with developments in society at large. This understanding is based on the assumption that journalism cannot exist independently of communities (DEUZE 2006). Just as a news organisation cannot maintain itself in a way that is completely dis-

8 A curriculum, as we know it today, means a structured plan of action that guides the process of education. A curriculum entails all the learning opportunities that are planned and offered to the child during the process of education (SALAWU 2011: 3).

tanced or independent from society, a school of journalism also has to define ways to contextualise its programme culturally and thematically. In light of the developments in cross-national journalism training as outlined above, a meaningful context for all courses and pedagogies could be the global-local nexus, including but not limited to a distinctly international teaching agenda. Students would be introduced in all matters to the cross-cultural or transnational nature of what they are learning (ibid.) The occupational ideology of journalism is indeed largely similar across the globe: journalists readily agree on shared values like working quickly to deadlines, being ethical, championing editorial autonomy, and so on (DEUZE 2005; 2006). Research in journalism training should identify different ways to translate global trends in the industry to the local particulars, orientation and direction of the school or programme in question (ibid.).

Historical development:

Journalism education in the USA and Germany

Western models of journalism training, although revitalised, remained reluctant to adopt the American model, and each country followed its own schemes for many years (BARRERA 2012). The United States opted to grant universities the responsibility of educating would-be journalists. On some occasions, American journalism schools were deemed too practical. European views of American journalism training have been somewhat contradictory. Germany, for example, emphasised a strong academic and research tradition cultivated in university institutes or departments but that do not provide practical experience for journalists. European journalism training has often ignored the internal battles that American schools have undergone in the course of their existence: it has searched for a balance between liberal arts background and practical education, tending to oversimplify the so-called “American model” (ibid.). To gain clarity, here the focus is on two different examples: the United States and Germany. Their origins, nature and development are diverse. The guiding principle of the German system is to put into practice a “social educational necessity”. The

guiding idea of Anglo-American is the provision of “educational opportunities for the self-realisation of the individual”. While courses in media and communication science in Germany have been trying to gain a greater practical relevance for years, there is a tendency in the US to make the programmes a bit more “academic” (STREITBÖRGER 2014: 199).

Journalism education in the USA

The US higher education institutions of journalism training are dominated by two types of higher education institutions. These are, on the one hand, integrated schools and, on the other, more specialist programmes with greater practical relevance (WEISCHENBERG 1999: 77). Integrated schools have the greatest importance, offering a variety of programmes both horizontally and vertically: undergraduate, graduate and doctoral programmes; practical courses with press and radio, public relations and advertising as well as specialities such as science journalism. specialised programmes with a particularly wide practical relevance also enjoy a good reputation. A third group aims at the direct vocational preparation of students. However, the first two types have always been characteristic for the image of North American journalism training because of the large student numbers they attract. The curricula are usually dominated by the “liberal arts” in a proportion of three quarters (“75-25 rule”) of the total study volume; the remaining quarter is reserved for teaching technical and journalistic skills. University journalism training in the USA puts great importance on practical relevance – although it is proven that many of the graduates do not want to or simply do not enter the field of the media. This is predominantly because most journalism schools follow the “75-25 rule” to cater to their clientele, giving the highest priority to the liberal arts, especially in undergraduate programmes. “Liberal arts” is understood here not only as students taking humanities courses but, more broadly in the sense of “liberal education”: students are expected to acquire a good general education, improve their language skills and acquire sufficient reflectivity to solve ethical problems in their professional lives as journalists (TEETER 1985).

In general, there is a three-way curricular division that focuses on the following topics: communicative competence, knowledge and professional elements. Communicative competence includes the model curriculum, general language skills, visual skills, general computer literacy, information-gathering methods (research) and specific writing skills for the media. Knowledge – knowledge of the media, which is taught in addition to the liberal arts for professional activity – includes the fields of mass media and society, the history of mass communication, media economics, philosophy and ethics of media, media law, media technology, communication theory and international mass communication. Finally, special professional elements are offered that contain information about the media industry, further enhance the basic skills of research, writing and editing and that link theory and practice of the media in some way.

Early practical experience is not only taught through internal editorial training desks (print and radio stations), which many institutions already have, but also through (voluntary) internships in the media. The dependence of the media industry on the predominantly private education institutions of financiers has been a critical issue for many years. “The rapid infusion of new knowledge and the pace of technological change will push journalism/mass communication schools away from industry-oriented sequence programmes and toward more generic mass communication study” (WEISCHENBERG 1999: 164). Only recently has something like a “critical social mission” been recognised in journalism training at places of tertiary education. Critics of the system in the USA demand that the teaching of primarily technical skills should in the future be supplemented by understanding the social function of the media to increase the responsibility of journalists (KOSZYK 1975: 125; WEISCHENBERG 1999: 148).

TYPES	CONTENT	CRITIQUE
Integrated schools	Impart exact and timely information 75-25	Dependence on private financiers
specialised programmes	rule: Liberal arts or liberal education The teaching of journalistic, technical and communication skills	Lacking a critical and social mission

TABLE 3: Journalism education in the USA, Own table (2016)

Journalism education in Germany

Establishing journalism training at universities in the United States has been closely monitored and extensively commented on in Germany from the very beginning (KUTSCH 2010: 441 et seq.). There have always been reservations against this type of “journalism education”, which have continued in Germany to this day: namely, that education in the US is too hands-on and has no place at university. In contrast to the American situation, the main Western European countries have followed different professional traditions in journalism and higher education systems that do not fit the American university-based model of instruction (BARRERA 2012). European universities have “tended to regard their role as the perpetuation of academic excellence and the enhancement of academic knowledge” (ibid.).

The *Institut für Zeitungskunde* (Institute of Newspaper Science) which was founded at the University of Leipzig in 1916, was the first modern milestone in journalism education in Germany (ibid.). That theoretical background was indeed useful for future journalists but unlike the American schools, it did not provide any practical skills for the profession (ibid.). The German system, known as the *Volontariat* (internship), consisted of a two-year training in newsroom offices and was formally established in 1913. Following the example of Leipzig, other universities created their own institutes, although the denomination changed toward the more appropriate “study of journalism” instead of “study of the press”.

Academic journalism programmes do exist at German universities (generally with more emphasis on theory), as well as stand-alone private schools of journalism (more skill-oriented), so there is a relative lack of uniformity in journalism education (GRIEVES 2011). German journalism training on a tertiary level focuses on three special features (HARNISCHMACHER 2010: 351 et seq.; see STREITBÖRGER 2014: 199 et seq.).

The first is on integrating theory and practice, which is most likely to take place at an institution of higher education, as this focus is based on the concept of coordinating vocational preparation, support and education. After completing a degree, the graduate should not only possess excellent craftsmanship but also have acquired critical-emancipatory and communicative skills to fulfil the social functions of journalism. This is why curricula in Germany generally combine four basic elements: practical journalism (practical subjects within the scope of study and internships in various media), basic social studies (e.g. psychology, sociology, pedagogy, politics), communication science and specialisation in one elective subject (depending on the specific career goal).

The second feature is the “guiding idea” of the “unity of research and teaching” as well as “freedom of science” for German universities, which has “developed into a kind of export hit”.

Finally, a third feature is important for the German higher education system: the connection of the higher education sector to the state and its regulatory requirements. “Freedom of science” is understood in this context as the “disconnection of universities from professional practice, from work-related requirements, from the labour market and economic dependencies” (for example, in contrast to the USA). Accordingly, it can be regarded as a special feature of the German higher education system that, on the one hand, it has produced the “essential principles” of “free research and teaching” that are essential for the modern understanding of science but are always “rooted in a strong dependence on the state” (HARNISCHMACHER 2010: 351). Ultimately, the result of this connection is that, according to “German understanding”, the state bears the responsibility for the “provision of educational opportunities”

(LEIPOLD 2006: 259). Although research and teaching are, in this sense, the task of the universities, the “enabling of education is a social obligation and a contribution to social justice” (HARNISCHMACHER 2010: 351).

In contrast to the USA, for example, where starting a career is almost exclusively possible through a university degree, preferably journalism and media studies, Germany has not yet established one definitive path towards journalism. Today, the German education system in the field of journalism opens many possibilities and diverse job openings in international comparison. The degree programmes that prepare media professions at universities in Germany are formally divided into three groups:

- Full degree programmes in journalism
- Postgraduate studies in journalism, which require a university degree
- Degree courses in journalism and communication science, with differently weighted practical components

TYPES	CONTENT (CENTRAL IDEA)
Full degree programmes	Integration of theory and practice
Postgraduate studies in journalism	Communicative social function
Publishing and communication science	Unity of research and teaching
	Connection of the higher education sector to the state

TABLE 4: Journalism education in Germany, Own table (2016)

The Dortmund journalism study programme claims to be the first attempt to “combine theory and practice in the curriculum itself. The central element of the Dortmund study programme is the integrated “Volontariat” (internship), which has the function of a “brace between university and practice” (KRAFFZICK 1990: 309 et seq.). With its combination of academic studies and integrated internship, the Dortmund model of journalism education is so far unique. The claim is that in these courses, both theory and practice are taught, albeit with different weighting. Here it is assumed

that for the integration of theory and practice, the change from the place of learning theory (university) to the place of experiencing professional journalistic practice during the practical course component, has crucial meaning. The reason for this is the fact that “on-site practical education is most effective” and it is “to be realised in the real occupational field of action”. Only the internship enables “education by participation in the execution of work” (FREIMANN 1980: 220). And only during internships are journalism students able to experience the “specific quality of practice” as evoked by university professors and practitioners and the university can at best “simulate it in its beginnings”. Practice phases in the media are an integral part of the journalism programme in Dortmund. They have a total duration of 14 months. Of these, 12 months are completed by doing a “Volontariat” (internship) with a newspaper or broadcaster. In the remaining two months, the student goes to a second medium. The degree programme gains access to internships through an agreement with publishers and several broadcasters. In Dortmund, internships form the centre of the acquisition of practical skills, but in the subject area of “Editorial Action”, one of the three “pillars” of the programme, the students are familiarised with instrumental requirements and standards of the profession through exercises and seminars. Projects and compact courses serve the “simulation of practice”. They form the framework for the research of topics, the examination of individual production steps and the development of standards for the quality of journalistic products. At least in part, such events should resemble everyday life at an editorial desk. Through “teaching assignments”, practice is directly present on the journalism degree programme. Practitioners of journalism as instructors at the college provide students with work experience, practical requirements and instrumental knowledge standards. They introduce “the practice into the degree programme” (KRAFFZICK 1990: 145).

PECULIARITY	PRAXIS TRANSFER (THROUGH)	CONTENTS
Theory and practice in the curriculum (as well as)	Education editorial departments Integrated traineeship internship lecturers	Exercises and seminars with instrumental requirements and standards of the profession Cooperation with the media industry

TABLE 5: Journalism education at Dortmund University, Own table (2016)

Education programmes: University and non-university u

There are 1 859 journalism education institutions around the world, according to the preliminary findings of the World Journalism Education Census (HUME 2007: 24). It certainly seems that schools and journalism education programmes all over the world are changing fast, trying to keep up with industry and academy, accommodating increasing student numbers, while at the same time trying to develop “some kind of coherence in the curriculum”. Using the cross-national comparative work of GAUNT (1992) and FRÖHLICH and HOLTZ-BACHA (2003; see also 2007: 28; DEUZE 2006), can define five distinct types of journalism education worldwide:

1. Education at schools and institutes generally located at universities (see e.g. Finland, Spain, United States, Canada, South Korea, Egypt, Kenya, Argentina, the Gulf States, increasingly in Great Britain and Australia; this is becoming the dominant mode of education journalists to be worldwide; some instructors, particularly in Africa and Latin America, resist this model because it has neo-colonial features, making local programmes increasingly dependent on global Western ideas and economies).
2. Mixed systems of stand-alone and university-level education (France, Germany, India, Indonesia, China, Brazil, Nigeria, Turkey, South Africa).

- 3. Journalism education at stand-alone schools (Netherlands, Denmark, Italy).
- 4. Primarily on-the-job education by the media industry, for example through apprenticeship systems (Austria, Japan; Great Britain and Australia started this way, as this is a typical feature of the Anglo-Saxon model).
- 5. All of the above, and particularly including commercial programmes at universities as well as in-house education by media companies, publishers, trade unions and other private or government institutions (Eastern Europe, Cuba, North and Central Africa, the Middle East).

Although one should not reduce regional and local complexities too much, the literature does suggest that most, if not all, systems of journalism training are moving towards the first, second or third model, indicating increasing levels of “professionalisation, formalisation and standardisation” worldwide (HUME 2007; DEUZE 2006). Whatever its shape or size, journalism training everywhere traditionally covers the teaching of practical skills, on the one hand, and general contextual education and liberal arts courses, on the other. Although the specific needs and demands of the media system differ from region to region and are largely determined by (and are a reflection of) the particular culture and foundation in law and his-

PROGRAMMES (WORLDWIDE)	TYPES	TENDENCIES
1859 institutions	Education at universities Mixed systems of stand-alone Stand-alone schools Primarily on-the-job education All of the above	Towards the first, second or third model, professionalisation, formalisation and standardisation

TABLE 6: Journalism education programmes, Own table (2016)

tory, the delicate balance between practical and contextual knowledge has always been the main area of attention within journalism programmes worldwide (DEUZE 2006).

University-based journalism training

University-based journalism training first emerged in France, Germany and the United States around the beginning of the 20th century and quickly expanded to China, Australia, and, by the 1930s, into Latin America. Many African countries followed suit after World War II (HANUSCH 2014: 157).

Journalism education at universities has historically been linked to the notion of journalism as a profession, defined as “a group organised to perform a public service” (MACDONALD 2006). Meanwhile, there has been widespread popular criticism of newspaper chains’ profit-driven “yellow journalism” (BOYLAN 2003: 19). In this context, Pulitzer advocated the novel idea of professional education for journalists, akin to that offered to future lawyers and doctors, as a means of “sav[ing] journalism from subservience to business interests,” and preserving the “moral power” of the press (PULITZER 1904: 658). He described the journalism schools as a vehicle for morally uplifting the standards of the profession of journalism “to better serve the public” (ibid.: 678). The journalism schools was to educate prospective journalists in both the practical side of journalism and in a wide array of “subjects in the liberal arts and sciences” (ibid.: 663-77). Pulitzer was adamant that, in the spirit of professionalism’s goal of independence, “journalism education should not have any commercial dimensions” (MACDONALD 2006). He noted that “one of the best ways of dealing with these realities is for journalism to embrace a stronger sense of being a profession, with stronger standards and values that will provide its members with some innate resistance to other competing values that have the potential of undermining the public responsibilities of the press” (ibid.).

In this aspect, Pulitzer’s objective was similar to that of the German scientist Karl Bücher (KUTSCH 2010: 441 et seq.). Karl Bücher also claimed that the “profession of the journalist requires first and

foremost a full academic degree.” Bücher saw an important starting point in academic education for journalists, which was aimed at creating a new “professional self-image and sense of responsibility”, based on the ethical values of “truth” and “honesty”. “Science-oriented journalistic education was intended to provide a significant part of the autonomy of journalistic action that shielded, if not immunised, journalism from both economic pressures in the press sector and the influence of informants and, not least, public expectations, thus ultimately raising its social status and status of the profession.”

The role of the university is to prepare students not only to be employed but also to participate effectively and critically in the democratic community. This challenge especially needs to be met in journalism, whose value lies in developing the liberal arts (reading, thinking, civic participation) in a context of their application (REESE/COHEN 2000). In short, a professional education would equip journalists with the ethical standards that are a bulwark against commercial pressures toward the bottom line (MACDONALD 2006). In sum, commercial pressures were placed on journalistic practices and as a solution, higher standards and universal professional values for individual journalists were prescribed, as well as a more cohesive intellectual project for journalism educators (ibid.).

The ultimate objective of journalism training should be to improve the practice of journalism not only by educating skilled practitioners but also by teaching how journalism impinges on other areas of public life and illustrates critical social issues. Partnerships can be productive relationships and necessary in tackling complex problems and joint ventures are a common fixture of corporate life. It must be clear, however, what can be gained from the relationship. Academia may be a genuine partner, but it should not become a mere client of the corporate world or professions. Educators must think through what they entail, especially in fields like journalism with so many constituencies (ibid.). For all its faults, the university provides a valuable source of leadership for society and journalism that cannot be replicated elsewhere. The value of the academy lies in providing an analytical distance in addressing so-

cial issues within an intellectual ethos and in providing a counter-vailing influence against short-term and parochial interests (*ibid.*; DEUZE 2006; HUME 2007). Essentially, three forms of academic journalism education can be differentiated (see NOWAK 2007: 115):

1. Study of journalism, partly with integrated traineeship or semester internship.
2. Study of publishing, communication or media studies with accompanying internships.
3. Study of another subject with accompanying internships and/or freelance work.

At the same time, there has been a thematic differentiation since the 1990s: programmes offered at higher education institutions have become specialised and this differs from a general educational approach. Technical specialisation, for example in study programmes for sports, technical or other specialist journalists, can be observed, as well as differentiation on the level of “professional roles and job descriptions” (HARNISCHMACHER 2010: 359). A large number of new degree programmes are devoted to areas such as public relations and newly emerging vocational fields such as media management, web or media design. On the other hand, there is a progressive establishment of study programmes primarily at universities of applied sciences. Overall, it can be stated that journalism is currently undergoing a fundamental process of change, triggered among other things by information processes and a massive increase in knowledge, the commercialisation of media systems, other forms of intelligence gathering and journalistic roles. Only university journalist training seems to be resistant to problems of adjustment and external constraints (WEISCHENBERG 1990: 31; HAN-ITZSCH 1999: 19). University journalism programmes have some significant advantages over independent journalism training centres and workshops (HUME 2007: 43; DEUZE 2007):

- Studying within a standard period of study of at least three years that offers more room for reflection and the development of expertise.
- Long-term education on a university journalism programme provides “systematic and comprehensive exposure for trainees both to the theory and practice of journalism”.
- Universities may have institutional authority or influence on the government to help shape media policies. Journalism schools are often underutilised as sources of policy research and activism.
- Universities may have a better political status and infrastructure to handle education contracts and grants than a non-governmental organisation (NGO).
- Universities are established local entities, which addresses the need for education to have a strong local component.
- Journalism faculties can influence the rest of the university and thus the society, to value open media, good journalism and public expression. “This is the place to influence young people, to build a constituency”.

Non-university journalism training

Non-university journalism training includes both full-time education (journalism schools) and seminars parallel to study programmes of varying quality (NOWAK 2007: 113). In recent years, a model has been established that reflects the preference of many major media companies to take on graduates who either completely or partially studied at an external journalism school rather than just doing a *Volontariat* (internship). The term can stand for very different concepts because the schools have different forms of organisation. However, these different concepts of journalism school have one thing in common: they are usually technically oriented towards craftsmanship (ibid.: 118).

In general, non-academic journalism training can be divided into two groups: internships (*Volontariat*) in private or public media companies; and journalism schools (including providers of re-education or qualifying courses). The internship (*Volontariat*) – the

oldest and still dominant educational route – has hardly changed in structure over the years. ‘Volontär’ in German is defined as a “volunteer, an employee who is employed for his or her education free of charge or mostly for a negligible remuneration (expense allowance or pocket money). [...] The performance of the employer lies in the education and in the possibility of acquiring knowledge and experience through operation in the company” (*Brockhaus Encyclopedia*, 1974, entry under ‘Volontär’). The principle according to which journalists are trained in editorial offices is thus “learning by doing”. Education in the sense of a systematic transfer of job-relevant knowledge, professional skills and abilities is not part of the internship (*Volontariat*). Instead, volunteers undergo an “apprenticeship”, a ‘preparation for the editorial profession’. A fundamental criticism has long been directed against the use of volunteers as “cheap substitutes” for journalists: above all, the complaint is that this is a common practice of “exploitation instead of education” and that it cannot be stopped by any kind of sanction. In addition to immunisation against external criticism, the “informal” form of “education on the job” means that the professional reality outside of the respective editorial department usually remains hidden from the volunteer (NOWAK 2007: 144; WEISCHENBERG 1998: 129).

In addition to internships, journalism schools are the oldest form of journalism training. As with voluntary work, there is no clear type of education here: deviations from school to school are very large and consensus can only be reached on a very general level. Essentially, they consist in strong practical orientation on the one hand (in contrast to higher academic education) and, on the other, in the relatively large proportion of systematic education (in contrast to the internship). However, individual schools differ in terms of the extent of school education, as well as the degree of media-specific education (and thus the mobility of graduates) or the financing of education. In general, schools already established in the market give a solid education in the craft (MICHEL 1990: 90⁹).

9 Cf. Michel, Lutz (1990): *Von Freiwilligen und Flanellträgern. Betriebliche und schulische Journalistenausbildung in der Bundesrepublik*. In: Weischenberg, Siegfried: *Journalismus und Kompetenz. Qualifizierung und Rekrutierung für Medienberufe*. Opladen, Westerdeutscher Verlag, p 71-107.

Media law and the media system are also regularly mentioned as topics, as are internships in editorial offices, which usually make up at least half of the study programme (NOWAK 2007: 114). Criticism is aimed at the fact that representatives of journalism schools focus on “requirements of employers and contractors, but less on the journalistic function of the media and the further development of journalism” in their curriculum discussions (ibid.; DEUZE 2006). Education structures in internships (“Volontariate”) and journalism schools therefore often develop according to traditional patterns and/or in a more or less spontaneous reaction to changes and external demands (NOWAK 2007). Media companies have a natural and legitimate interest in educating their staff according to their own ideas. Interns learn roles in a specific journalistic milieu – that of the respective media company and that of the respective editorial team (ibid.: 141). The same applies to the media-owned journalism schools because even those trained in them are only trained within a media company for a media company, although often in various publications or media. Nevertheless, journalism schools enjoy a good reputation in the media industry. They usually have an extremely helpful network for the next generation and thus strengthen their chances in the industry and opportunities in the labour market (ibid.: 114).

PROGRAMMES (WORLDWIDE)	DEGREE COURSE	SPECIAL FEATURES AND ADVANTAGES
Academic	Journalism Publishing, communication or media studies Other subjects	Journalism as a profession Perform public service/responsibilities Analytical distance Intellectual ethos
Non-academic	Journalism schools Internship	As a rule, craft-oriented Helpful network for the next generation

TABLE 7: Academic and non-academic journalism training, Own table (2016)

Educational fields: Journalism, public relations and cross-media

There are a handful of current issues and changes in the media industry, which are taken up across organisations. These include issues of ethics, especially the relationship between PR and journalism, cross-media and research. Demands on journalists are changing as a result of this development as they should be able to produce content for various forms of media and respond more intensively to topics and editorial roles.

Huge differences between journalism and public relations

Historically, danger to the freedom of the press and journalists has come from two sources of power: political stakeholders and financiers. The war on press freedom has been, to a great extent, a long chain of battles against these traditional enemies (ASSENMACHER 2009: 142). What's more, another danger to media freedom and journalistic quality has appeared in modern societies: the ever-growing number of public-relation practitioners and companies which are also interested in media content and outlets. PR officers and agencies are generally interested in any form of mass media able to disseminate ready-to-use messages about their clients. They do not interfere with general editorial policy, but only with sections and programmes that deal with areas of the client's social activity. (ibid.: 173).

Publicity is the precise category where journalism and PR activity contradict each other (ibid.). Journalism deals with members of society via concepts of citizenship, electorate and public consent. Furthermore, media and journalists have an unwritten mandate to criticise and control all public institutions on behalf of the public. They recreate, direct and sometimes manipulate what is plausibly called public opinion. In contrast, PR agents treat members of society as individuals who possess potential free time to pay attention to something or someone. The main concept of PR agents is that all citizens together form an attention-giving society (ibid.: 175). Because of these sharp distinctions between journalism and PR in publicity, the profession of journalism and that of PR have also to be separated distinctly. Both groups of communication experts

must establish separate professional organisations and adopt their own codes of ethics, as well as accepting different social responsibility and modes of financing. If someone leaves one profession for the other, he or she has to change their job philosophy completely. Consequently, a clear difference in professional education must exist.

The European school of thought tends to favour a sharp distinction between journalism and public relations and argues that the roles of the journalist and PR officer cannot be mixed, which in turn ought to affect education. The other major school of thought – the American one – argues that the knowledge and skill requirements for journalists and PR officers are largely the same and they can, therefore, study in the same department (SKJERDA/NGUGI 2007: 182).

In many countries in transition, there is no clear separation between education curricula for journalists and PR officers at university level. As a rule, journalism departments prepare communication experts with a single profile and all are referred to as ‘journalists’. It is up to the student or depends on life circumstances, what job he or she later opts for. Many journalism graduates prefer to go into public relations instead of journalism, and this accounts for some of the increase in enrolments at journalism schools. The percentage of journalism graduates who enter the field of public relations differs widely from university to university, but it is highest at universities where public relations classes are only offered in journalism departments and in countries with a politically- or economically-challenged media sector (HUME 2007: 15).

In general, learning about PR makes sense for upcoming journalists so that they can recognise the working methods of public relations workers and thus promote their independence (NOWAK 2007: 69). A completely joint study programme makes no sense for the reasons mentioned. This would not sufficiently develop an understanding of roles and special journalistic skills. However, there are undeniably overlapping areas of competence. If they are studied together in a foundation programme, followed or run parallel with specialisations in separate courses, there should be no objection to

this relatively small intersection of commonalities (ibid.). However, some general recommendations seem to be necessary if an analysis is to be convincing. There is a set of principles, which should be included in curriculums (ASSENMACHER 2009; HUME 2007):

- Journalists must approach the PR profession with caution
- Journalists should not mistake PR for journalism
- Journalists must be resistant to any form of corruption
- Journalists must not sell their integrity for any benefit offered

Cross-media: an integral part of journalism

Multimedia education was already a prerequisite in the discussion of journalism training in the early 1970s, and in the main, it was part of curricula back then. “Multiple uses” of topics for various media is common for freelance journalists. A new aspect of cross-media is the systematics and changes in editorial organisation, which are linked to the modern development of multi-media work. The term “cross-media” appears where there is “some kind of connection between different media” (SCHWEIGER 2002: 125). Experts do not always agree on the definition of the term, but it means “the connection of different channels” stemming from one institution. To realise such a project, you have to have training in cross-media and be familiar with the presentation possibilities and restrictions of each media to connect channels in an optimal way (BRUNS/LUQUE 2014¹⁰). Cross-media in education is reflected in various competence dimensions (BRUNS 2013)¹¹:

- On a technical level, cross-media competence includes the ability to use multiple channels, become skilled at editing and editorial systems and produce all forms of media.
- In the area of media competence, it is important to be able to use specific presentation techniques and link media to new forms of presentation,

10 Bruns, Barbara/Javier Luque (2014): Teachers. How to Raise Student Learning in Latin America and the Caribbean. Latin American Development Forum. World Bank Group Washington, D.C

11 Bruns, Friederike (2013): Crossmediale Journalistenausbildung in Deutschland. <http://www.fachjournalist.de/crossmediale-journalistenausbildung-in-deutschland/> (accessed 06.09.2019)

while also paying attention to audience and target group-oriented preparation.

- Editorial management and the development of cross-media concepts, on the other hand, are closely linked to organisational and conceptual competence. In this case, it is not only done by linking channels but journalist/reporter have to cooperate more decisively.

In journalism training, preparation for this requirement of the “labour market means a convergence of media education” (NOWAK 2007: 68). Degrees with a focus on content have to be developed or new content incorporated into old curricula to prepare graduates for the future. Traditionally, education is firstly aimed at print media, then at online, radio and television, with these sections neatly divided. But to be able to work on a multimedial basis, the preparation of topics for different media takes place at the same time and issues of the requirements for topic selection, research, presentation are part of the training, based on knowledge of the respective production conditions, media usage and impact (NOWAK 2007). Overall, it seems that the “dichotomy ‘generalist’ versus ‘specialist’”, which marked the breaking point in journalism training a few years ago, is considered “outdated”. Instead, generalists and specialists need to be combined in one person (DEUZE 2006; NOWAK 2007; HANITZSCH 1999: 20).

Integration of theory and practice: But how?

The current situation – characterised by sustained changes in journalism, on the one hand, and the restructuring of the academic field, on the other, makes a new positioning seem necessary (LÜNENBORG 2012: 446). In general, a distinction can be made in education between practical and theoretical disciplines. The relationship between the analytical and the practical dimensions of journalism per se is considerably tense. This relationship, known as the “industry-scientific dichotomy”, is also the subject of considerable international controversy (ibid.: 449).

Ongoing discussions in this field raise the question of the nature of journalism education¹². On one hand, some argue that journalism should be regarded as a trade which may only require vocational training while others maintain that journalism is an academic profession which demands comprehensive and theoretical knowledge. According to DEUZE (2006: 23), “the delicate balance between practical and contextual knowledge has always been the main area of attention within journalism programmes worldwide.” This dichotomy between the balance of theoretical and practical disciplines is reflected in the debate and development of academic curricula for journalism education. In this context, JOSEPHI (2010) and DEUZE (2006) emphasise the influence of the media industry which tends to prefer hiring graduates who hold a university degree in disciplines other than communication sciences or journalism studies since academic journalism training often conflicts with the expectations of potential employers.”The dual role of journalism education as both “a preparation for and corrective to journalism” can be viewed as both an opportunity and an obstacle, especially considering the specific academy and the industry (DEUZE 2006: 28). While any journalism programme stresses independence as a precondition for quality journalism and teaches that the profession bears a significant level of social responsibility, journalism is also influenced by media corporations and commercial players (SCHMIDT 2015: 13).

The integration of theory and practice is the key to acquiring empowerment. Without the experience of corresponding action contexts, specific competence cannot be acquired (NOWAK 2007: 142). Journalism education can therefore not be completely independent of the job market but must train for the existing journalistic labour market in a vocationally adequate way. Practice is given integrative meaning when it is reflected in theory. Even the concept of theory is interpreted differently. Theory is important for journalism training in cases where it is application-oriented and relates to journalistic practice and the

12 The choice for the praxis approach, in which the three elements of theory, research and practice are interlinked and mutually constitutive, should be seen against the background of debates about journalism education internationally as well as locally (WASSERMAN 2005; MACDONALD 2006).

media system. University-bound journalism training does not mean teaching and learning theory, independently of providing an opportunity for (professional) practice, but relating and integrating both in the application (NOWAK 2007). BLÖBAUM (1996: 339 et seq.) sees three areas of journalistic practice in journalism education at a tertiary level:

- *Journalistic practice as a teaching task*: not, however, as a “simulation of existing practice”, but as the acquisition, expertise and mediation programmes. It is important to use the free space of the university and to promote the reflection of experience and knowledge.
- *Journalistic practice as a research task*: Here, BLÖBAUM (1996: 340 et seq.) is interested in cooperating with media companies to solve problems of these companies through research. “The university offers the appropriate scope to develop new forms beyond the constraints of everyday routines and to test them experimentally in the field”.
- *Journalistic practice as an experiment*: In the context of the social task of providing information to the public, the university offers the opportunity to experiment without risks. Even the failed experiment is instructive if it is sufficiently reflected upon.

Blöbaum sees the peculiarities of university practice orientation as an opportunity to change journalism – to improve it. “Leaving changes in journalism solely to media companies, which usually act according to economic imperatives, means squandering opportunities for better journalism” (ibid.: 342).

KLAUS (2015: 148) also examines the questions of what exactly is meant by the practical relevance of studying. And what is the relationship between theory and practice at universities today? In a first step, it differentiates between “practice” and “practical relevance” and takes this distinction into account, especially concerning education. To examine the practical relevance of her studies, she draws on a model by the educational scientist Johannis WILDT

(2007). He differentiates between five levels to determine the **range of praxis**: *qualification, professionalism, key competence, employability* and *citizenship*.

The shortest range is determined by the view that a study programme has to *qualify* the student for a specific occupation.

The greatest range is characterised by the position that higher education should generally empower students to adopt an informed and critical social position. Wildt calls this *citizenship* – by which he means “the ability to participate in politics, society and culture” (ibid.: 66).

Between the core and the outermost ring, there are three more levels. Far more important than the orientation towards a vocational qualification (traditionally taught through an apprenticeship) is the orientation towards a profession. According to this, a degree should focus on imparting *professional skills*, such as research or writing skills, as well as providing systematic insights into communication processes, genre competencies, etc. (professionalism).

Even beyond that, other ideas focus on the development of key competencies which are not significant for a specific profession or professions, but for an entire field of activity. Key competencies empower students to “engage in a wide range of occupations” (WILDT 2007: 65; 2015: 150).

The fourth level of practical relevance, according to Wildt, is employability. “This is not to be understood as adaptability to the given structures of the working world but includes the independent design of work and the transformation of working and employment conditions” (WILDT 2007: 65). *Employability* is controversial: employability does not depend exclusively on graduates and their education. Rather, a central role is played by external conditions of the labour market and social structures, over which universities and graduates have no influence. Critics also note that employability in the sense of vocational preparation can only be a goal of academic education. Wolter and Banscherus (2012: 33, 35) therefore recommend replacing the concept of employability with that of empowerment (KLAUS et al. 2015: 150).

The key competencies employability and citizenship are those which a university education should contribute to. These are the areas in which students can acquire organisational and research skills, project work, presentation skills or also business management knowledge; but above all, commitment, critical thinking and independence.

Different target groups – lecturers, graduates, students and employers – have different views concerning practical relevance (ibid.: 163). However, what they have in common is a desire for stronger practical aspects in university education, while the actual meaning of ‘practical aspects’ in this context is disputed (ibid.: 162). Consequently, the design of practical aspects in a study programme could be varied: they might include internships as well as the inclusion of practitioners in teaching, joint research projects and a reflection on case studies, practical trials within seminars, case-based teaching and empirical work on practice-related topics (ibid.; SCHUBARTH 2012: 52). Equally, all these forms of practical training as academic programmes at a university require a theoretical grounding and scientific reflection (KLAUS et al. 2015: 162). It therefore seems important to address the practical relevance of various study plans and, firstly, explain their understanding in the respective degree programme to make it clear to potential students from the beginning which practical references they can expect and which they are responsible for themselves. On the other hand, teachers are also required to explain their understanding of practice and the respective relevance of their courses to make the relevance of the content visible to students (ibid.: 163).

Applied research: a new approach

According to the guiding principle of integrating theory and practice, universities and colleges have developed, scientifically reflected on and improved a variety of didactic concepts and methods. The mission statement of journalism – namely the production of contemporary public space – does not correspond to the model of social science journalism research – namely the theory-based and methodologically reflected observation, description and expla-

nation of journalism (MEIER 2015). Simply put, these are observations of the first and second order, which do not automatically go together. This raises the question of “a complementary third path”, which is closer to the goal of designing “journalism as an integrative teaching and research area” (ibid.). According to MEIER (2015), the aims and tasks of journalism are no longer seen as a study programme that integrates theory and practice, but also as “integrative research,” which recognises the systemic differences between science and practice, which, however, precisely for this reason “develops, tests and evaluates methods of transfer” to “lay the foundation for evidence-based strategic decision-making in newsrooms.” Journalists in editorial offices constantly have to make not only “routine publication decisions” but also “strategic and conceptual decisions” that require “a factual, scientifically sound basis” (ibid.). This “head work” now outweighs the “craft” of journalism (ibid.). Journalists and editorial directors now recognise this and also increasingly recognise that cooperating with journalism researchers is important for their editors. Journalists are increasingly calling for innovation and journalistic quality support from the university.

According to MEIER (2015) “application-oriented journalism research” should not be mistaken for a compliant assistant of any journalistic practice, but has a dual role: It is a critical opponent of journalism, describing “deficiencies and aberrations, but does not leave it at criticism, revealing instead facts and arguments for new paths, while exploring innovations to improve journalistic quality” (ibid.). The methodological approach of “interactive innovation research” aspires to consciously addressing and, on a case-by-case basis, bridging the gap between the two worlds of journalism research and journalism in a dialogical and cyclical research process (ibid.). Based on an extended mission statement, the understanding of journalism as an integrative teaching and research area can also be increased to include education. Then, it is no longer “about the integration of theory and practice, but of theory, transfer research and practice.” If the logic of journalism was first implemented in the concept of science textbooks, now the logic of research should enable evidence-based journalistic practice (ibid.;

ALTMEEPEN 2014). The results of such research could not only serve scientific progress but also be put into practice with a variety of transfer experiments. The results could provide the impetus for a well-founded media policy that increasingly cares about the future of journalism (MEIER 2015). Students should become acquainted with, work on and reflect upon the transfer problem during their studies – because they develop competencies which they later, when working “on the other side” in the editorial offices, “connect to applied research and open to decisions based on empirical evidence.”

These could be consciously created as cooperations with editorial desks – based on the above-mentioned theoretical and methodological preparatory work for the transfer (ibid.). If a university

FIELDS	TOPICS	SOLUTION
<i>Public relations</i>	Differences Separation Manipulation Conflict of interest	Clear difference/separation in the professional education of journalists and PR Recognising the working methods of PR workers
<i>Cross-media</i>	Multiple use Connection of the channels	Cross-media education Convergence of media education Generalists and specialists in one person
<i>Theory and practice</i>	The dichotomy between the balance of theoretical and practical	Integration practice and theory Journalistic practice as a teaching task Journalistic practice as a research task Journalistic practice as an experiment
<i>Applied research</i>	Theory, practice and research: Journalism as an integrative research field Transfer research and practice	Transfers research findings into practice as the basis for evidence-based strategic decision-making in newsrooms

TABLE 8: Journalistic education fields , Own table

offers a major in journalism in its bachelor's and master's degrees, a different focus should be placed in each one: for the bachelor, the integration of theory and practice in a reflective sense and for the master's, research and development and quality promotion.

Interim conclusion

Journalists do not only have a role to play in a media company but also in society. Special rights are justified in connection with this social task. This includes obtaining, selecting, editing and publishing up-to-date and relevant information to contribute to opinion-making, to provide guidance and to exercise control over economic and political power. To perform these tasks adequately, journalists must have a clear ethical attitude, a sense of responsibility towards the public, the ability to analyse and evaluate issues.

All education types presented here are very suitable for training good journalists. The structural characteristics, however, lead to a greater or lesser likelihood of a respective study programme producing a high proportion of good journalists. While the potential of independent journalism schools is high, they tend to focus on craftsmanship and the ethical side of education and also offer relatively short periods of training. By comparison, as stated above, internship-based and media-owned journalism schools offer the kind of organisation that has the lowest potential to guarantee the qualification goals mentioned. Theory only plays a subordinate role in internships as well as in many journalism schools, yet it forms the basis of journalistic analysis and the analysis of the media system. This can be achieved on all educational routes, but is systematically and comprehensively taught in university journalism training (NOWAK 2007; DEUZE 2006; WEISCHENBERG 1998; HANITZSCH 1999). A purely scientific education, however, cannot be adequate as a journalistic education. Journalism education needs operational experience, to be able to reflect on this, to experience journalism, analyse and develop.

The best journalism programmes offer a balance between theory (including ethics) and practice (including hands-on student work) (HUME 2015). Pragmatically speaking, journalism in the con-

text of professional education and education about the industry means preparing students for a career in news media organisations and studying the work of those editorially responsible for different types of storytelling in a wide range of news media (WEAVER/WILHOIT 1996: 4; DEUZE 2006). Journalism education, in other words, must negotiate rather essentialist self-perceptions of both industry and academy, while at the same time finding ways to navigate the inconsistencies of its own field (e.g. negotiating a tradition in both the humanities and the social sciences) (DEUZE 2006).

3 Goals for journalism training in tertiary education

This chapter concentrates on the question of what concrete qualifications and skills make a good journalist and how these can be taught in education. “Competence” in this context refers to the abilities that are made up of reflected thinking and acting (NOWAK 2007). On the one hand, this includes professional competence (i.e. professional knowledge and journalistic skills, such as theoretical knowledge of media law or journalistic work processes), but on the other hand, it also includes professional competence (i.e. in-depth knowledge in a specific editorial field, such as politics or religion). Added to this are technical competence (knowledge of media technology) and mediation competence (presentation and articulation of content) as well as normative competence (understanding of professional ethical issues, such as rights and duties in journalism) and social orientation (ability to reflect, functional and autonomy awareness). By “qualification” we mean the skills acquired during a study programme which enable graduates to do good journalistic work. This qualification is formed by the fact that the above-mentioned competencies are developed and promoted within the framework of the training. Thus, graduates are equipped with a

solid base of knowledge and skills that enable them to conduct reliable research and reporting (see KORN 2004; NOWAK 2007; WEISCHENBERG 1995).

Journalistic qualifications: how are they taught?

The motivation for journalism training is, at the very least, partly based on its function as the backbone for the journalistic profession. Journalism is generally considered to be a significant contributor to society's functioning and well-being. These fundamental arguments are reflected in the paradigmatic debate on journalism training: does such a programme or curriculum prepare journalists for future employment, or does it serve to educate "super citizens"? (DEUZE 2006: 45)

A focus on the first choice reduces teaching and education to helping young women and men internalise the occupational ideology and practices of journalism and does not seem to inspire much more beyond that (ibid.). Shifting the paradigm to the second option, the industry is kept under a constant critical eye, instilling historical awareness as well as future perspectives in the mode of instruction (ibid.). A critical perspective on (news) media can be a hands-on programme largely based on excessive media use, debate, praxis and reflection, preparing students to graduate as extremely well-informed citizens and thus practitioners every employer would love to have (ibid.).

A global journalism curriculum would be impossible to design. The content that journalists and other media professionals need to learn depends on the local cultural environment in which they (will) work (MORGAN 2000). All curricula reflect the needs and nature of the learners for whom they have been designed, the cultural environment in which students do their learning and what it is that they need to learn (ibid.). Several authors have identified two distinctly different positions for journalism training in society: the "follower" mode, where the mission of the school or programme centres on education as a reflection of the actual wants and needs of the profession; and the "innovator" mode, where journalism

training is seen as a development laboratory, preparing students for a changing future rather than a static present (DEUZE 2006).

As mentioned above, journalistic qualifications describe the functional requirements for successful journalistic work (see Kron 2004: 238). These requirements are translated into education goals which require specific competencies that have to be achieved. Journalism education aims should therefore enable aspiring journalists to fulfil their social task, carry out their job and meet job requirements (NOWAK 2007; WEISCHENBERG 1998). Both education goals are subject to change – the social task less so than the job and job requirements. Therefore, it is not possible to name concrete, unchanging details for this. Rather, it is necessary to develop the ability to react flexibly to these requirements in education and at work (NOWAK 2007). In sum (see *ibid.*: 101), the following qualification objectives can be distinguished between the claim of fulfilling a social task and the claim of meeting the job and job requirements in journalism:

1. recognise and produce journalistic quality;
2. deal with journalistic organisations;
3. become proficient at journalism programmes;
4. know journalistic action roles and can fulfil entry-level roles;
5. provide information in a media-appropriate and target group-appropriate manner;
6. have sector-specific expertise;
7. have media-specific expertise for multiple media;
8. ability to respond adequately in/to exceptional situations;
9. ability to act independently and an organised manner;
10. develop journalism;
11. be able to analyse facts and put these analyses into action;
12. ability to act ethically
13. preserve inner independence.

NOWAK (2007: 77) identifies the qualification objectives numbers 1 to 7 as the basic craft-methodical skills, numbers 8 to 10 as the requirements for the production of journalistic quality and num-

bers 11 to 13 as qualification goals, which are also important in other areas but play a special role in journalism. The Welsh Joint Education Committee (WJEC) issued a “statement of principles” for journalism training that add more detail, including (HUME 2007: 20):

- Journalism graduates should work with “high ethical principles” and be “able to fulfil the public interest obligations that are central to their work.”
- Journalism educators should have links to media industries, critically reflecting on their practices and offering advice.
- Journalism is a “technically intensive field,” so practitioners will need to master “a variety of computer-based tools” and, “when practical”, journalism training should “orient students to those tools.”
- Students should be exposed to a global perspective, including press practices in different countries.
- Journalism education is an appropriate course of study at the undergraduate, graduate and postgraduate levels.
- Faculties should always include a mixture of academics and practitioners who have experience of working as journalists.
- The curriculum should cover media structures, critical analysis of media content, the role of media in society, and, in some cases, media management and business practice.

HONNIGFORT (1990: 272, cited in NOWAK 2007) sums up the discussion about the qualifications, which should especially offer a university-based journalism training.

- *Practical relevance:* It’s not about education scientists, but journalists. The journalistic craft plays a major role, but always in conjunction with thorough reflection.
- *Social science and interdisciplinary orientation:* In addition to a foundation in social sciences, knowledge in the fields of economics, political science, law and sociology should be taught.

- *Specialisation:* Departmental knowledge should be developed through intensive study of a discipline outside journalism, publishing or communication science.
- *Communications studies focus:* This is intended to strengthen journalists’ independence, both vis-à-vis employers and political stakeholders.
- *Integration of theory and practice:* Both should complement and enrich each other.

AIMS	
Practical relevance	Strengthen craftsmanship and practice reflection
Specialisation	Strengthen departmental knowledge
Social science and interdisciplinary orientation	Strengthen further expertise
Communication studies focus	Strengthen autonomy awareness
Theory and practice	Strengthen integration

TABLE 9: Journalistic Qualification

Journalistic competencies: the core of journalism training

Today, there is increasing diversity within the field of journalism with different job profiles that have different requirements. Models of journalistic skills and competencies have to be taken into account here. The goal of education is the acquisition of competencies that enable successful action.¹³ The ability to perform is therefore the focus of journalism training. Common to most perceptions of competence is that it relates to the abilities of a person that arise through the interaction of action and thought (NOWAK 2007). Competence is not static, but the individual develops it dynamically and independently by analysing his or her environment and actions, linking these analyses to concepts and translating them into functional action (ibid.: 82). Accordingly, competence is

13 The competences should enable the achievement of qualification goals (SCHOBEL 2005: 106).

acquired, learnable and requires reflection, because mere imitation does not allow responsible action.¹⁴ Journalistic skills are a much-discussed topic in journalism research.

In 2007, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) published the “Model Curricula for Journalism Education for Developing Countries and Emerging Democracies.”¹⁵ In 2007, UNESCO published a model curriculum for journalism education (UNESCO 2007). This move, in particular, was intended to give impetus to countries that were still in the early stages of their democratic development. We know that journalism and educational programmes that enable individuals to practice and improve their journalistic skills are essential tools to underpin important democratic principles that are fundamental to the development of any country. The competencies are very strongly oriented towards technical demands, and reflection is less important than in other competence sets: research skills, writing skills, skilful handling of the tools of journalism, familiarity with current and past examples, the understanding of journalism ethics, workplace competence, journalism and society, knowledge.

Skills that students should have when they have completed their journalism education vary according to the level of the programme. The UNESCO model stresses the following competencies for all students (HUME 2007: 21):

- Writing skills: Ability to write accurately, clearly, concisely and engagingly in journalism story forms, with attention to the subject matter and intended audience, always making clear the source of a disputable item of information, idea, or direct or indirect quotation;
- Skilled use of journalism tools: Skills in editing, designing, and producing materials for print, broadcast and online media, with an understanding of and ability to adapt to convergence and technological developments in journalism;

14 Innate abilities, sometimes referred to as competence, are grouped under the term “prerequisites” (NOWAK 2007: 82).

15 The proposed curricula, unveiled at the WJEC, were designed to offer “inspiration and assistance” to journalism faculties (HUME 2007: 21).

- Research skills: An ability to comprehend, analyze, synthesize and evaluate unfamiliar material quickly; News judgment; An ability to ask questions and understand answers in national and local languages; Observation skills; Ability to take accurate notes; Techniques for checking and corroborating information; Arithmetic skills and basic knowledge of statistics and survey methods;
- Workplace competencies: working to a deadline, independently or as part of a team;
- Knowledge of journalism and society, including its role in developing and securing democracy; history of journalism in one's own country and the world; news media ownership, organisation and competition; and laws of one's own country and the world¹⁶.

In contrast to this unsystematic way of ordering competencies by the UNESCO, WEISCHENBERG (2001) offers one of the most complex and articulate approaches to what he calls the “ideal-typical journalistic competence.” Within the project “Journalism and Competence”, WEISCHENBERG (1990e: 21 et seq.) developed an analytical grid of journalistic competence together with Sigrid Schneider and Lutz Michel. Despite some shortcomings, this competence model has become an important basis for later competence and curriculum discussions (NOWAK 2007: 82). He divides journalistic competence into mediation, material and professional competence as well as social orientation.

Professional competence: According to Weischenberg, professional skills and competencies include the instrumental skills of research, selection, editing and organisational engineering, often referred to as “craft” and specialist media knowledge of media studies, media economics, – politics, law, history and technology. This media knowledge should “provide the theoretical basis for the fields of competence” ‘functional awareness’, ‘re-

16 The professional competencies the model outlines also emphasize the importance of knowledge of the national language and the language students will use in their work, as well as knowledge of foreign languages for those aspiring to work beyond national borders (HUME 2007: 23).

Journalistic Competence		
PROFESSIONAL COMPETENCE	PRESENTATION COMPETENCE	SPECIALISED KNOWLEDGE
Instrumental skills: investigation selection editing editorial organisation	Ability to articulate Presentation Theme-oriented Recipient-oriented Knowledge of the forms of representation	Basic social science knowledge Knowledge of sources Knowledge of the techniques of scienti- fic work and social science methods English skills Knowledge of the cultural environment
Journalistic expertise: Media studies		
Specific knowledge: Media management Media policy Media law Media history Media technology		
Social Orientation		
Functional awareness		
Reflectivity		
Autonomy awareness		

TABLE 10: Journalistic competence model (WEISCHENBERG 1998: 123)

flective capacity’ and ‘autonomy awareness’ in the presentation process.” (NOWAK 2007).

Special competence: In terms of expertise, Weischenberg attaches great importance to the fact that the requirements in this area are constantly increasing. First, he demands the study of a special subject to acquire specialised and departmental knowledge. Second, aspiring journalists are encouraged to acquire orientation knowledge to classify their knowledge in “social, political and economic contexts.” (ibid.).

For Weischenberg, knowledge of social sciences is also an orientation knowledge so that students can assess empirical research results and process them in a journalistic way. The middle pillar of this competency model includes a general ability to articulate (presentation competence), the ability to present content in a thematic and recipient-oriented manner and knowledge of the forms

of presentation. According to Weischenberg and seen analytically, this can only be separated from technical competence. Consistent with Weischenberg, social orientation differs significantly from other offers of academic education. The focus here is on “thinking about journalistic action.” Functional awareness, the first component of “social orientation”, is designed to help journalists use their influence responsibly while assuming their role as critics and controllers of politics and society. Not all classifications in Weischenberg’s competence model are easily comprehensible; some elements could be supplemented (*ibid.*: 82). The rapidly increasing mechanisation of the journalistic working environment – not only of the means of work but also of the sources of information – therefore demands a high level of technical skills (HANITZSCH 1999: 119). HANITZSCH and MEYER (2017) add technical competence to the four fields of competencies proposed by WEISCHENBERG (1999: 119). This refers to a knowledge of commonly used tools such as the Internet or basic computer software. Journalism particularly requires functional knowledge in dealing with special technologies such as electronic editorial systems and – depending on the field of activity – tape recorders, cameras, audio/video editing, newspaper editing, photo editing, graphics and more. HANITZSCH also proposes corrections (1999: 123) concerning journalistic expertise. While, on one hand, it is not possible to determine how more specific knowledge in the field of media history determines the professionalism of journalistic practice, on the other hand, knowledge of media effects, journalism research and the strategies of public relations are eminently important.

Klaus MEIER (2007; 2011: 220 et seq.) also extends Weischenberg’s competence grid (WEISCHENBERG 1998: 123) by another area: organisational and conceptual competence. He points out that it strengthens the journalist’s ability to innovate if he or she knows how media is used and which concepts best reach which target groups. Optimal organisation of editorial work and quality management all depend on journalistic concepts.

Journalistic Competence			
PROFESSIONAL COMPETENCE	PRESENTATION COMPETENCE	TECHNICAL COMPETENCE	DEPART-MENTAL/ SPECIALIST KNOWLEDGE
<i>Instrumental skills:</i> Investigation Selection Editing Editorial organisation	<i>Articulation skills</i> <i>Presentation:</i> theme oriented recipient oriented <i>Proficiency:</i> Forms of representation	<i>General technical competence:</i> Computer, Internet <i>Specific technical competence:</i> Editorial Production Systems, Equipment	<i>Orientation knowledge:</i> Basic social science knowledge Knowledge of sources Knowledge of the techniques of scientific work and social science methods English skills Knowledge of the local cultural environment
<i>Professional knowledge:</i> Media studies			
<i>Specific Knowledge:</i> Media industry Media policy Media law Media effects Public relations strategies Journalism studies			
Organisation and Conception Competence (MEIER 2007; 2011)			
Editorial organisation Quality management Project management Teamwork Usage research: public and target groups, editorial marketing			
Social Orientation			
Media ethics and journalistic professional ethics Functional awareness Reflectivity Autonomy awareness			

TABLE 11: Journalistic Competency Model (HANITZSCH 1999: 123)

Eva NOWAK (2007: 83) sets out other “basic competencies” that are necessary to become proficient at a competence. The terms basic and key competence¹⁷ refer to these as basic competencies for subject-specific and job-specific competencies (ibid.). These competencies create the opportunity to acquire subject-specific competencies (ibid.: 83). Basic competencies play their part in achieving the qualification objectives.

The acquisition of *expertise* ensures that journalists have a background in the functions of the media and the media system. This enables them to classify and evaluate developments in the media market, journalistic production, their work and the media environment in which they work. To gain *professional skills*, sector-specific knowledge is required that will provide the basis for subsequent specialisation, including scientific methods and professional knowledge of the subject. However, journalists only have to cover this area of expertise by reporting on the area (ibid.: 127).

Action competence is the ability to apply professional and specialist skills. These include journalistic work techniques and key journalistic skills. Eva NOWAK classifies the basic competencies and skills into the following parts (2007: 90):

- *Learning competence*: Production processes and the media market are changing and with them, demands on journalists. Without learning skills, they will not be able to respond to these changes.
- *Social and communicative competencies*: These include the ability to communicate appropriately, to get on and cooperate in a group, to empathise with others, the ability to deal with conflicts appropriately, as well as linguistic and creative expressiveness.
- *Reflection, analysis and organisational skills*: For almost all of the above qualification goals, these skills are essential.
- *Creativity*: Creativity does not only refer to artistic competence in a

17 The terms “core competency” and “key competence” are treated here as largely identical, as they are treated similarly in the literature. These competences are not specific to journalism, but are relevant to the practice of other occupations and other areas of life management. Only their characteristics are professionally related to journalism (NOWAK 2007: 84).

broader sense, which is necessary for the design of media products, but also to analytical creativity and problem-solving competence.

- *Value orientation and responsibilities:* Ethical demeanour, which meets the social requirements of journalism, can only be achieved with value orientation and a sense of responsibility for individuals and society.
- *Personal competences:* Personal competencies are part of a person’s personality. To achieve the aforementioned qualification goals, personal competencies require inner independence, determination, conscientiousness and political-social interest. The latter permits a willingness to reflect.

Journalistic Competence		
PROFESSIONAL COMPETENCE	ACTION COMPETENCE	SPECIALISED COMPETENCE
The function of the media and the media system	Methodological and instrumental Competences, “hands-on work”	Departmental knowledge Contextual knowledge
Basic competencies		
Learning competence, personal, social and communicative competencies, creativity, reflection, analysis, organisational skills, value orientation, willingness to take responsibility		

TABLE 12: Journalistic competencies model (NOWAK 2007: 123)

Other models offer a systematisation of competency models (for more details, see JOSEPHI 2010; SCHMIDT 2015: 15). It is decisive, however, that four or five-dimensional structures can be drawn from these different approaches to arrive at theoretical models of journalistic competencies, which derive largely from the competence model of WEISCHENBERG (1990) and characterise journalism training: professional competence, specialised competence, presentation competence, key and basic competencies and social orientation.

Walter HÖMBERG (2002a: 28) writes that it is particularly important “in times of change” to acquire key qualifications. He mentions critical ability, problem-solving abilities, creativity, the ability to cooperate. In connection with the education concept, Barbara ESCHENAUER (2002: 33 et seq.) talks of “personal qualifications”, which are more important than the mastery of technology. She includes social and socio-political responsibility, logical and analytical thinking, linguistic expressiveness and security, empathy, creativity, ability to relate to one another, willingness to cooperate, ability to deal with conflicts, critical ability.

For DEUZE (2006), the first domain consists of instrumental skills (such as reporting, writing and editing) and knowledge about journalism: media economy, law and history. In the second domain, the student learns articulation skills: how to present information and news (genres, formulas, conventions, design and so on). Thirdly, the curriculum includes elective and required courses on a variety of special topics like sociology, political science, financial economy, but also social-scientific research methods: reflections on the role and function of journalism in society.

4 Conclusions: Elements of academic education programmes for journalism and recommendation for their practical implementation

Having presented in detail the current state of research in the theoretical part, this chapter deals with how theoretical findings can be put into practice. For this purpose, models are developed for various sub-areas of journalistic training. For a better understanding, it makes sense to first reflect briefly on the concept of models. A model is a simplified, abstract representation of a realm of reality to highlight and make manageable aspects relevant to a certain problem. Models are abstractions of human thought. In modelling, the selection and abstraction processes are consciously and sys-

tematically completed. The factors and structural correlations of the research field that are relevant are worked out strategically (see MALETZKE 1999: 123).

The model will, whenever possible, be presented in the form of a schema or a graphical representation. In the process, a model should by no means be regarded as a theory – a notion that needs to be emphasised – but rather as an aid to create order and further understanding. Social science models generally refer to the (re-) construction of actors, courses of action, social constellations or expected results of social processes. In other words, its role in social science is to structure and systematize complex facts and processes to make the actual object of investigation more clearly visible. A model fulfils several functions in this sense, the most important ones being:

- The organisation function: it integrates individual aspects into an overall context;
- The heuristic function: it enables or stimulates new general insights;
- The prognosis function: it allows predictions to be made, and
- The measurement function: it allows accuracy-based, possibly qualifying information. (BURKART 1998: 379)

By creating a model, the following processes can be differentiated:

- *Distinction*: disregarding irrelevant objects
- *Reduction*: omitting irrelevant details
- *Decomposition*: resolution into individual segments
- *Aggregation*: unification, combining segments into a whole
- *Abstraction*: concept or class formation

The result of the systematic evaluation of the relevant international research literature on journalism and journalism training (monographs, scientific journals, joint publications) [1. Task] is the distinction between three core elements for the model to be developed for a dual journalism study programme at Nangarhar University:

1. The subjects of theoretical education (knowledge transfer and qualification). Subject areas of the international (western) standard are as follows:
 - a) Professional competence or journalistic or communication scientific competence (such as media structures, media law, politics, economics, media effects);
 - b) Specialised competence (department-specific, normally in a minor subject to acquire knowledge, such as politics, society/culture, business, social science fundamentals including social science methods, foreign languages, especially English).
2. The objects of practical education and their reflective accompaniment (acquisition of practical skills, experience and applications). Here we should be distinguished between:
 - a) University-internal education: practical courses to practice individual skills such as selection and research of journalistic topics and materials; journalistic forms of presentation such as message, report, interview, documentation (lecturers from the practice, editorial training desks);
 - b) Subsequent university-external education: practice acquisition in the context of collective editorial actions such as research, selection, editing and presentation; journalistic forms of presentation (see above); (internships in different media [e.g. newspaper, radio, television, online] and editorial offices [e.g. politics: regional, national, international; society, culture, religion; economy; entertainment]; Editorial organisation and management).
3. The necessary structural, legal, technical and human resources requirements. These are among others:
 - a) The classification of existing university education structures (bachelor-/consecutive), Graduate programme (minors; compulsory/elective Modules), university regulations (among others admission restrictions, study and examination regulations; examinations), contractual arrangements

between university/faculty and professional associations (among others recognition of the degree) or media facilities (e.g. university-external practical education places and fields);

- b) University/faculty internal technical equipment (e.g. computer pool; editorial training desks [press, radio, television, online]);
- c) Education staff (e.g. budgeted positions, qualifications, teaching assignments).

Objects of theoretical journalist training

The classification of objects and dimensions of the theoretical education of journalists, i.e. for their own model, is based on the Weischenberg model (1998: 123), Hanitzsch (1999) and Nowak (2007: 123). Based on the models presented above, which are formed in the literature, a division of competencies into six areas for the journalistic model is decided here:¹⁸

- a) Professional competence
- b) Specialised competence
- c) Presentation competence
- d) Organisational competence
- e) Social orientation
- f) Mediation competence

18 This competence model can be implemented especially in academic or university journalism education. This could train a "future functional elite in journalism" (KUTSCH 2010: 449), whose "professional role model" could guide journalists long-term.

EDUCATION FIELDS	OBJECTS
(a) Professional competence	Instrumental skills (research, selection, editing, reporting patterns) <i>Professional knowledge</i> Media industry; media policy; media law; media im- pact; journalism research; PR strategies
(b) Specialised competence	<i>Specialist knowledge, expertise and skills</i> Departmental/specialist knowledge (orientation knowledge) Social knowledge (law, politics, sociology and eco- nomics), basic social science knowledge; scientific work, social science methods, knowledge of sources, English skills
(c) Presentation competence	<i>Professional knowledge, expertise and skills</i> Rhetoric (articulation, argumentation, presentation) Forms of presentation: media-specific, topic-oriented, recipient-oriented New journalistic occupational fields; cross-media/on- line journalism; serving multiple channels
(d) Organisational competence	<i>Professional knowledge, expertise and skills</i> Editorial organisation and management; quality management <i>Expertise</i> Economic foundations of journalism in Afghanistan
(e) Social orientation	<i>Professional knowledge, expertise and skills</i> Media ethics and occupational ethics, functional con- sciousness, autonomy consciousness Afghanistan: history, culture, society
(f) Mediation competence	<i>Professional knowledge, expertise and skills</i> Development communication, intercultural communi- cation, conflict management Sociocultural framework (Afghanistan)

TABLE 13: Subjects of theoretical education in Afghanistan, Own model 2016
(based on WEISCHENBERG 1998; HANITZSCH 1999; NOWAK 2007; MEIER 2014)

The subjects of theoretical education correspond to competencies found in the international literature; they are those a journalist has or should acquire during a professional study. The international standard consists of (a) professional competence, (b) specialised competence, (c) presentation competence, (d) organisational competence and (e) social orientation.

a) *Professional competence*: This includes instrumental skills and specific journalistic knowledge that rely primarily on communication science knowledge and insights. The area of “instrumental skills” has four main foci:

- *Investigation*: collection of relevant information on given topics;
- *Selection*: selection of information concerning recipients’ needs and media conditions;
- *Editing*: correction and preparation for publication;
- *Organisation and technology*: coordination of work steps and handling of technology.

The acquisition of “communication science knowledge” (specialist knowledge) ensures that journalists have background knowledge regarding the function of the media and the media system. This enables them to classify and evaluate developments in the media market, journalistic production, their own work and the media environment they work in. Only then can they make career decisions and develop their work. Responsibility for their own work can only be assumed by those who know the conditions and effects of this work. Knowledge about media impact (audience) and the proceeds of journalism research forms the theoretical framework for the emergence of ethical, functional, reflective and autonomous journalism. Here, students should deepen their knowledge of empirical methods of applied journalism research and learn to develop and use tools of empirical data collection themselves. As regards theory, they should develop their own research questions on current journalism research topics in integrated re-

search projects. Own research questions could then lead to students' final master's theses.

For this they need knowledge and expertise about:

- *Communication and media science and studies*: communication-scientific theories and methods, current research results (audience, communicator, media impact research, media system, media operation, production process)
- *Media system*: media history, media policy, media economics (economic perspective), media law, media ethics
- *Media operation and production process*: work and production processes, media technology, media economics (business perspective), editorial management and quality assurance

Specific knowledge and profound expertise in public relations communication strategies are important because they help to make journalists resistant to their potential communication goals in their (ever-frequent) encounters with press officers and PR departments.

- b) *Specialised competence*: To obtain specialised competence, sector-specific knowledge is required which later forms the basis for specialisation, including scientific methods and professional knowledge of the subject. However, journalists only need to examine this area of expertise to the extent of personally covering it. Sociological methodological knowledge is also part of the orientation knowledge required to be able to judge empirical research results and be able to process them in a journalistic manner (see Weischenberg 1990e: 25). Students of the journalism degree programme should, therefore, be able to choose between the various complementary subjects: for example, sociology, political science, law, history or religious studies.
- c) *Presentation competence*: This competence includes general knowledge about articulation and rhetoric (articulation, argumentation, presentation), knowledge of the forms of presenta-

tion, the ability to present content thematically and recipient-oriented. Also, this includes expertise and skills in technology and cross-media:

- *Knowledge of commonly used tools* such as the Internet or basic computer software
- *Practical knowledge* in dealing with special technologies such as electronic editing systems and tape recorders, camera, audio/video editing newspaper break, photo editing, graphics
- The *cross-mediality* of education is reflected in various competency dimensions. Especially at the beginning of a student's journalistic career, it is important to be able to act in different areas, at least to have a basic understanding of the possibilities of different media forms. This includes the following skills:
 - *Operating multiple channels*, becoming proficient in the use of editing channels and editorial systems and acting as a producer of all forms of media.
 - *Being able to use specific presentation techniques* as well as to link the media to new forms of presentation, while also paying attention to public and target group-oriented preparation.

d) *Organisational competence*: organisational competence strengthens a journalist's ability to innovate when he or she knows how different forms of media are used and which concepts optimally reach target groups through quality journalism. Optimal organisation, the editorial department and quality management all depend on journalistic concepts. First, subjects of organisational competence constitute specialist knowledge of editorial organisation and quality management and, second, there is specific expertise on the current economic structures and fundamentals of journalism in Afghanistan.

- e) *Social orientation*: the competence of “social orientation” is above all about “thinking about journalistic action” (WEISCHENBERG 1999: 23). It is precisely here that journalists in societies with strong traditional structures and worldviews are required to consider and critically reflect on their cultural environment, which ultimately includes the public and sources of information (HANITZSCH 1999: 123). The first component here is expertise on functional awareness, then comes media ethics and professional ethics, and lastly autonomy awareness. Together these describe *social behavioural phenomena* and therefore belong to this field. *Functional awareness* should help journalists to use their influence responsibly, while at the same time assuming an important role in society. The critical study of the economic, political, technical and organisational conditions of the media should encourage a journalist’s sense of autonomy so that he or she can make a realistic determination of their professional role. During journalistic training, contradictions between the conditions of production, on the one hand, and the democratic-theoretical postulate of the production of the democratic public by the media, on the other hand, need to be addressed (WEISCHENBERG 1999: 26). Another component of this area is expertise in the history, culture and society of Afghanistan. This also includes analytical thinking, empathy and responsibility.
- f) Mediation competence as a (new) journalistic competence in Afghanistan

In international comparison, attitudes to competencies in journalist training of respondents in Afghanistan (HAMIDI 2016) compare well to those of the competency models presented by NOWAK 2007, WEISCHENBERG 1998, HANITZSCH 1999 and MEIER 2015. The similarity among interviewees is particularly evident in the fact that professional competence, specialised competence, presentation and cross-media competence, organisational competence as well as social orientation are described as the most important skills in jour-

nalistic education. The journalistic competencies suggested by WEISCHENBERG 1998, HANITZSCH 1999, NOWAK 2007 and MEIER 2012, which ought to be taught in education, are also largely shared by the participants in the study. However, statements made by respondents in this Afghanistan study suggest a correction of the above model of journalistic skills is necessary.

Respondents agreed that in addition to these areas of competence, another area of journalistic education should be added and taught. This competence can be summarised in a memorable way as “mediation competence”. This competence field, which emphasises a journalist’s dedication to the public good in a fragile state like Afghanistan (national development and harmony) falls under the umbrella of ‘mediation’. Mediational journalism techniques include being a creator of a ‘forum’, aiming for ‘consensus’ and acting as a ‘teacher’. This involves reporting on stories that foster hope, healing and resilience, as the interviewed strongly believe that this style of reporting can contribute to the country’s future positively. Overall, the respondents’ statements regarding this area of competence can be divided into eight clusters or dimensions. To date, mediation competence is not offered in academic journalism training in Afghanistan.

In addition to the areas of competence mentioned above, an additional area of (e) *mediation competence* is added, as, according to the literature review, it can be assumed that the societal framework conditions in developing countries (Afghanistan) demand a high degree of mediation competence from journalism (HAMIDI 2015; RAMAPRASAD 2006; MCQUAIL 2001 and others).

MENSING (2010) argues that journalists would serve communities best by acknowledging their own participation as citizens and responsible partners in and with communities. This configuration would emphasise the needs of the community first and make the journalist part of a network of relationships. It would re-emphasise journalism’s natural connection to the community. Journalism is about identifying and making clear the common aims and stakes we all share within our various communities (ibid.). Journalism that ignores a community dimension can become a tool to divide people

by interests rather than a tool to build relationships that are critical for functioning communities (*ibid.*). The challenge to develop curricula and conduct research based on the realities of developing countries steeped in contextualised theory is one acknowledged by several educators in the field of development communication journalism. Journalism education in developing countries must contend with defining a new academic identity for itself, extricating itself from any dependency on Western-oriented models of journalism training and education in general.

Mediation may still be a marginal topic in classical journalism training, but the main points of contact are inherent in journalism in developing countries: journalists in developing countries see “social harmony” and “national development” (HAMIDI 2014; RAMAPRASAD 2006; PINTAK 2014) in their professional role of self-understanding as a vital goal. They have fewer problems with the concept of mediation than their counterparts in western industrialised countries because “they themselves are affected by these crises.” The common normative denominator of this concept is that journalism should contribute to national development (see KUNCZIK 1986: 262 et seq.) and to social harmony (MASSEY/CHANG 2002: 989). This “ultimate goal,” which can be called “a constructive contribution to national development,” is consistently seen and expected as an important responsibility and main function of mass media in developing countries (GUPTA 1996: 12; HAMIDI 2015). That means that, more than anything else, media and journalism have to create “nation-building” “of national consciousness” and “unity”, and the “encouragement of co-operation and peaceful co-existence between diverse and sometimes hostile communities.”¹⁹ This definition implies the culturally sensitive ideology of journalism in Islam, too (PINTAK 2014).

The problem has been recognised by examining journalistic attitudes in developing countries; it is expected to normatively “promote national development and harmony” (RAMPASAD 2011) by journalism, but it is barely explained

19 Maintaining harmony in this culturally diverse community is of great national importance. It requires journalism students, journalists and the general public to acknowledge and understand the cultural beliefs and practices of all ethnic communities in the country (MASSAY/CHANG 2002: 991).

what exactly this “concept” means for journalism training. To an even lesser extent, so far this concept has been substantiated in the models of journalism training in developing countries. This presents a gap that needs to be closed.

Findings from journalism research give the impression that this concept of *mediation competence* should be systematically integrated into journalism training. Mediation competence can help meet journalistic responsibilities in a process of development. Of course, it cannot be a patent remedy for all education, as journalists need to adapt its application to the local situation. If this connection is also consolidated in education, it can make an important contribution to the formation of constructive *nation-building*. This area of competence does not represent an additional concept but offers a basic orientation: how should we report on national development, how should conflicts be reported and how should we be interculturally sensitive in a multicultural and multi-ethnic society?

Mediation is understood as a kind of negotiation between parties based on idealistic and democratic starting points (HAFT 2002: 375). The voluntariness of the “participating mediators,” who decide using an impartial or neutral person – the mediator – to work constructively on the settlement or avoidance of a conflict in a structured procedure is indispensable for the success of the negotiation (ibid.: 379). The principle of neutrality is of fundamental importance to the mediator. Since a mediator, in contrast to a judge, is not assigned to a state-recognised authority, “impartiality” is guaranteed (ibid.: 368).²⁰ Central to the negotiation is that there is “a direct exchange between the parties involved.” The mediator acts on the principle of “confidentiality supporting the communication exchange.” Mediation aims to solve an existing conflict through mutual communication and the median’s solution-oriented action and reach a binding and lasting agreement, which ideally gives both parties an advantage (see ibid.: 386). The goals of this field in journalism training should instil a passion for journalism in

20 Hajo Schmidt comments critically on the neutrality of the mediator. Based on the hypothesis that mediators are part of society, he believes that one must assume a relative but not exclusive, neutrality of the mediator (see SCHMIDT: 2000: 70).

students that helps to transform communities, a critical sense of being a mediator of community development, and develop a sense of moral obligation and professional duty to represent the interests of the masses.

The mediation system used is a multi-level process and could include professional knowledge concerning the following three components: *approaches to development and communications, communication and conflict* and *intercultural communication*. These fields introduce the students to issues of development and the specific role played by the media in development support communication, communication and conflict, and intercultural communication. In the process, journalists use findings from development communication, intercultural communication and conflict management to describe a situation.

This first field investigates the conceptual and practical relationship between *journalism and development*. As part of its focus on demonstrating how the structures, processes and ends of development can become amenable to journalistic practice, it makes a critical analysis of different journalism typologies and how these can cultivate human development founded on the basic principles of democracy and human rights. The notion of human rights is thus itself critically assessed as an integral aspect of the discourse of human development and journalistic mediation. The fundamentals of development description are:

- Concept of development and issues in development (demographic trends; poverty and employment; health, nutrition and food security; peace and conflict; natural resources management; disaster management, etc.)
- Approaches to development and communications
- Communication and national development planning and implementation
- Role of communication in political, social, economic and cultural development.

Intercultural communication, for its part, is underpinned by cultural diversity. It teaches the kind of intercultural competence required to handle stories in a culturally diverse manner, enabling journalists to acquire skills of interaction and discovery that promote the acquisition of cultural practices and the ability to use them to operate under constraints of real-time communication and collaboration (DAVIS 2005). While it addresses these contemporary management tools, the education module is also aimed at journalists who may have to deal intellectually with interculturalism as a subject and engage social responsibility, in all its dimensions, in this area. This competence aims in particular at preventing journalism from becoming bogged down, voluntarily or unwillingly, in the intricacies of the mosaic of culture (MOLES 1979). Thus, the module opens up theoretical, conceptual and methodological approaches to the greatest extent possible which may contribute to assisting the participants practically and introspectively, once back in the field of information practices (DAVIS 2005: 43). Journalism students and educators reporting on cultural diversity programmes recognise the importance of learning to include relevant cultural information as routine journalistic practice and express a need for relevant cultural information in an easy-to-use format to assist students. (HESS/WALKER 2010: 139). This journalism seeks to reflect the diversity of the social milieu in which it is practised. It allows for a multiplicity of voices to be heard and creates awareness in the media audience about the wealth and diversity of the social environment.

Intercultural cross-cultural communication description:

- Impact of intercultural and cross-cultural communication;
- Appreciation of cultural diversity;
- Cultural borrowing;
- Cultural roots and continuities.

The field of communication and conflict shapes the capacity of journalists to explore and analyse the dynamics of violent conflict in their community. It encourages them to be aware of the influ-

ence their reporting can have on inflaming or moderating violent conflict. Training in this area presents journalists with techniques with which to report conflicts that avoid contributing to conflict and include exploration of conflict resolution possibilities for the community. It encourages journalists to recognise that reporting on conflict resolution is an integral part of objective reporting, strengthens reliable journalism and does not require radically changed practices in journalism. Communication and conflict description are:

- Theories of conflict; communication and conflicts;
- Meaning and classification of conflict;
- Characteristics of failed states;
- Conflict management and resolution;
- Peacekeeping operations
- Strategies for conflict resolution: win-win, win-lose, compromise;
- Techniques for negotiation, arbitration, enquiry, conciliation, mediation, good offices and judicial settlement.

The following list, drawn from various publications, summarises some of the attributes of public service journalism. It is journalism that:

- Promotes democracy, pluralism and tolerance;
- Strives for quality;
- Is accurate, balanced and honest;
- Looks for solutions;
- Recognises many voices;
- Helps society understand itself;
- Investigates issues of public interest;
- Promotes issues important to all citizens;
- Is responsive to citizens' needs;
- Builds trust with readers, listeners and viewers.

The need for mediation competence is seen as urgent by respondents in Afghanistan, alongside other areas, namely: professional, special, presentation and cross-medial, organisational and social orientation competence. They argue that, firstly, Afghanistan has suffered from a protracted war; secondly, different ethnic groups have been fighting each other for several years; and thirdly, that there is no social understanding among the groups. In this respect, respondents believe that “every journalist” in Afghanistan should have the job of mediating between different social groups and thus possibly foster peace in the long term. Respondents believe that Afghanistan is undergoing a process of transformation resulting in economic, social and political problems. For this reason, it is important for respondents that journalists assume a leadership or orientation role in the transformation process. It is also important that they promote national and cultural identity and sensitise people to these factors.

All respondents agreed that this area of expertise should be systematically integrated into the curriculum of academic journalism training, enabling journalists to acquire a qualification or adapt it for later use in professional life. In this respect, it is important to integrate the concept of “mediation competence” systematically into journalism training (competence model), since journalistic responsibility in fragile contexts can only benefit from it when social cohesion is seen as the most important solution. If these foundations are laid in basic and advanced education, they could provide a crucial contribution to constructive nation-building. This area of competence represents an additional concept in the competence model of academic journalism training, which offers a basic orientation: how should we report on national development, how should conflicts be reported and how should we be interculturally sensitive in a multicultural and multi-ethnic society? The aim of study programmes with this competence model could be to train journalists who are qualified to work in current reporting media. The focus should be on a wide range of qualifications. The training should be multi-medial, i.e. cover newspapers, agencies, radio, television and

online journalism. The journalism study programme could convey a mixture of knowledge and abilities:

1. Basic knowledge in communication science, so that the students can deal with the media and journalism, the functioning and legal/political conditions of media systems as well as ethical questions concerning media;
2. A foundation in journalistic presentation and production for print and electronic media;
3. The ability to understand complex issues and make them accessible through journalism to an audience;
4. Scientific skills and techniques that enable students to apply them to a research topic by combining, analysing and interpreting methodological-analytical tools, as well as mastering documentation and presentation skills;
5. Communicative and social skills to work successfully in editorial offices including those of mass media;
6. Knowledge of a given social context to report competently and critically on current events in different event fields from different perspectives;
7. Reflection and ethical competence to work as a journalist on the backgrounds and contexts of events and to develop a critical attitude to one's actions in the journalistic profession;
8. Mediation literacy skills to enable journalists to fulfil their journalistic responsibilities in a development process, thus making an important contribution to constructive nation-building.

Objects of practical education in journalism training

A sound academic journalism training needs a systematic practice model. No educational institution can dispense with the practical elements of journalism training, but it is also inappropriate to promote an “unreflective, self-sufficient craft” (RÜHL 1987: 76). However, advanced criteria for the integration of theory and practice have not yet been developed in journalism studies (see HONNIGFORT 1990). Therefore, integration is less evident than a juxtapo-

sition of different elements: lecturing practitioners, collaborations with journalism schools and media companies, teaching offices and laboratories, simulations and internship colloquia – the range of different forms and methods of practice placement is wide – and they are commonly not cohesive but attached to individual education programmes. The establishment of compulsory internships, the reflection of editorial experiences in colloquia and the simulation of practice in teaching editorials are rather shaky bridges, which serve the practical aspect of education and the accumulation of experience more than the reflect formalistic work, the meaningfulness of journalistic action and its social expectations. Overall, there is a growing trend to include simulations and practice phases at this level. The integration of theory and practice remains a central goal. Study and research projects are also a tried and tested means for getting closer to this goal (ALTMEEPEN 2010: 23).

LEVELS	TYPE	PLACE
<i>Establishment of obligatory Internships</i>	Internships (Volontariat)	Media industry: print, radio, TV and online
<i>Reflection of editorial experience</i>	Accompanying colloquia and seminars	At university
<i>Simulation of the practice</i>	In teaching offices, laboratories and media workshops: print, radio, TV and online	At university
<i>Lecturers from the field</i>	Experienced journalists, media managers	At university

TABLE 14: Objects of practical education and their reflection

In an international comparison, there are many coexisting elements of how the practice can be integrated into journalist training at tertiary level, which can be summarised as follows:

- a) establishing compulsory internships (or traineeships),
- b) refining editorial experience in colloquia,

- c) simulating practice in the classroom and
- d) teaching practice.

All elements can be combined to attain the goal of “theory and practice combination.”

Necessary resources and requirements for academic journalism training

Apart from questions confronting journalism in general, developing countries face some unique challenges in terms of availability of staff, out-of-date equipment, the lack of research as to questions driven by local imperatives and the lack of education in new media. To deal successfully with these and other challenges, those institutions that offer education on a formal or informal basis, need to expand and develop the theoretical elements as well as the practical foundation of their programmes (HUME 2007: 34). A UNESCO²¹ model highlights the balance between theoretical and practical subjects as the main criteria for quality journalism training curricula. It highlights the need for educators to provide practical expertise for which they should receive adequate remuneration. Moreover, the integration of internships and collaboration with local media companies form an essential element within the UNESCO curricula, emphasising that “(s)uch partnerships may serve to narrow the gap between academic journalism programmes and the industry.”

As far as teaching resources and equipment is concerned, UNESCO suggests measuring the education and skillsets of teachers as well as the adequacy of technology and internet access, and the integration of practical elements into coursework. That said, having access to the Internet and media technologies are still important in every region. The UNESCO-model curricula posit that computers are “essential.” Further research is warranted to evaluate what media developers should consider when making grants for equipment available. “It is impossible to train journalists now

21 In recent years, certain international bodies have tried to define global standards for journalism education. UNESCO also stresses as a “guiding principle (...) to develop a strong core educational structure with a balance between the practical and the academic.” In terms of the content of journalism education and education offered by a variety of institutions, UNESCO has taken on a leading role. By 2012, the UNESCO Model Curricula had been adapted by more than 70 journalism schools in 60 countries.

without equipment” (ibid.: 17). This problem is exacerbated by the swiftly changing technologies and equipment used by journalists. Student publications, which often serve as an educational foundation for emerging journalists, are rare in other countries. They could serve as an excellent avenue for hands-on internships during which journalism students gain enough practical experience for more demanding internships or jobs in the media sector. Teachers would need to have experience as journalists, however, since supervising the tradecraft would involve skills that are practical and professional rather than theoretical (ibid.: 18), i.e.:

- Formal mechanisms for interaction within the profession (for example, advisory board, external examiners, consultation on curriculum);
- Support for continuing education for journalism professionals;
- Symposia, lectures and other events; involvement of teachers in journalism projects for the media industry;
- The proportion of graduates employed within the media industry;
- Guest speakers/industry experts lecturing on specialist subjects;
- Participation of journalism alumni in the classroom;
- Level of engagement in journalism and education networks and associations, links with the private sector and community organisations.

In general, UNESCO claims that journalism training cannot be an isolated field of education and study, but must include related disciplines of arts and sciences. To promote the intellectual development of future journalists, they “propose that journalism students in university programmes qualify not

22 As an outcome of intensive discussions between the members of 28 journalism education associations from six different continents at the first World Congress of Journalism Educators in Singapore in 2007, 11 principles have been defined. These principles include standards for journalism education curricula and content, requirements for educators and aspects of institutional collaboration.

only in journalism but also in a separate academic field.” (SCHMIDT 2015: 18).

This outline already shows that there are many overlaps with the World Journalism Education Council (WJEC) principles of journalism training. The efforts of the WJEC to formulate journalism training standards have been regarded as an important milestone by various scholars and organisations²². Considering the educational goals and learning outcomes, this set of standards emphasises the frequently discussed balance between theory and practice as a central element of journalism training. The WJEC recommends an interdisciplinary approach including a wide range of topics such as historical, ethical and professional aspects of journalism, the role of media in society, politics, culture contexts as well as media economics and management. They also point out that journalism training has to adapt to new technology and integrate computer-based skills education. From a value-based perspective, the WJEC principles also emphasise the importance of ethical and social responsibilities for future journalists.” Concerning journalism educators, a mix of practitioners and theorists is ideal in the classroom since journalistic work experience and close relations to the media industry are viewed as essential. Also, the role and responsibility of journalism educators goes beyond the classroom as teachers and trainers are expected to promote media literacy within their institution and to the general public. Furthermore, they are expected to enhance exchange and cooperation between educators around the world to establish journalism training as an academic field and to enhance the overall professionalisation of journalism. In a similar vein, another WJEC principle refers to the integration of international perspectives in journalism training, acknowledging both a common set of professional values and cultural differences by calling journalism a “global endeavour.”

Assistance to universities aims to improve the educational curriculum, improve technical capacities and enhance the expertise of the faculty. Experience has shown such assistance does not produce immediate results. A self-audit may be a useful first step in

determining whether a university will be able to reform itself to offer best-practice journalism education (HUME 2007: 28).

A well-founded academic education of journalists could hardly be implemented unless paralleled with necessary structural, legal, technical and personnel requirements. As an outcome of an intensive review of the literature about journalism training, we can define the following resources model: human resources (manpower), material-technical resources, contractual-institutional resources and legal regulation.

Human resources in journalism training

The most apparent challenge for journalism training in developing countries is the lack of *qualified teaching staff*. Many of them have hardly any experience and are self-taught (HUME 2007: 23 et seq.). The faculty and staff in the journalism programmes generally come from other backgrounds, such as language or literature studies. There are a few PhD candidates on the programmes. The lack of qualified teaching personnel is remedied by falling back on expatriate teachers. However, the low pay offered by colleges and universities is often inadequate to attract highly trained and experienced journalists currently working in the private sector where pay is better. Journalism education needs a mix of academically trained teachers and practitioners with actual professional experience as journalists (ibid.: 28).

The implementation of a competency model could only succeed if university lecturers in departments of journalism receive further training on how to make teaching more practice-oriented in their degree and study programmes. The qualification and orientation of journalism lecturers decisively influence the content of university-based journalistic education; more professionalisation and qualifications are therefore an important indicator and factor for reforming and improving the education structure of the various study programmes (HANITZSCH 1999: 104). This should be accompanied by a greater willingness on the side of the lecturers to use al-

RESOURCES	AFFECTED	TOPICS	PROBLEMS	SOLUTION
Staff	Lecturers	Competence; qualification; didactics	Lack of qualification	Qualification (summer schools)
Material-technical	Infrastructure	(Technical) equipment, books, editorial training desks;	Personnel, financial, technical, problems	Better equipment
Contractual-institutional	State University Media	<i>Internal:</i> Interdisciplinary cooperation Classification into existing university education structures (bachelor / (consecutive) master's degree programme (minor subjects, compulsory / elective modules) <i>External:</i> Contractual arrangements between university and professional associations (including recognition of graduation) Media facilities (including practical education places and fields external to the university) external lecturers	Lack of internal and external cooperation, contracts and teaching assignments Lack of networks between involved actors	Cooperation: <i>Internal:</i> interdisciplinary law, politics, sociology etc. <i>External:</i> Partnerships with the media industry, internships external lecturers Openings for <i>Volontariat</i> Networking of those involved: professional societies
Legal regulation	Universities, associations, state	University law regulations (including capacity determination / admission restrictions, study and examination regulations, examinations)	Lack of internal and external legal regulation and conditions	University law regulation; restricted access

TABLE 15: Necessary structural, legal, technical and personnel requirements

ternative forms of instruction (project seminar, simulations, role examples, etc.).

The education of journalists is determined by the general conditions and guidelines that regulate and structure the study programme as well as by its lecturers, who determine the content, its methods and functions. While curricula and study regulations determine the general learning objectives and the organisational form of higher education, *teachers* occupy the key positions for the concrete implementation and communication of the curriculum. Their educational achievements ultimately shape the professional skills and orientation of future journalists. The performance of lecturers when addressing and reflecting on the functions and conditions of professional activity determines the ability of future journalists to review professional norms and values critically and develop professional role awareness. Another important task for journalism lecturers is to determine future learning objectives and learning content. Part of the curriculum must be their analysis of current developments in the media system and adapting education content and teaching programmes to the changing skills requirements in the professional field. The academic and journalistic qualifications of professors also shape the aspired integration of theory and practice in journalism training at a tertiary level.

Material and technical resources in journalism training

The problem starts with the lack of *infrastructure and equipment* necessary to help familiarise students with real-life work processes and generation of story cycles. Some of the informants point to the lack of equipment as one of the weaknesses of journalism programmes. Indeed, many programmes are challenged by the lack of computers, cameras, recording equipment and editing suites; however, there are also a few examples of schools and programmes that are very well equipped thanks to Western aid. There are quite a few institutions that advertise certificate courses for specific forms of media like radio, TV or photojournalism, but most of these colleges do not even have studios or cameras for students to practice in or on and the curricula have not been updated to incorporate classes

that teach the students how to work with new technology. Most of the colleges, do not even have good libraries. Resources are another important area that has explored. Most textbooks and reference works used in the country are written in English. The quality of existing books is mostly very poor.

The prerequisite for successful practical work is the good technical equipment of each degree programme. Without proper tools, journalistic work is impossible. Students should learn and practice in their own television and radio studios as well as a cross-media laboratory and a teaching editorial desk. Supported by experienced journalists, they should gain experience in producing their own newspapers and magazines, online offers, radio and television magazines. Teamwork and organisational skills are just as important as creativity and journalistic competence, especially in the field of cross-media.

Better educational materials (books) reflecting the mission, current practice and ethics of journalism are needed. Student publications, an excellent source of hands-on education, do not exist at many universities and should be established, with proper supervision. At *editorial training desks*, and in *laboratories* and *media-practical projects*, professional action should be simulated at the university. To maintain competitiveness on the journalist education market, a university-specific form of journalistic practice should exist. This includes media projects in which students work in journalism, organise themselves in a real environment, including the media market, in cooperation with media companies in the field of journalism research – to develop new forms, review structures and develop solutions to problems – and gain experience in developing their own practice.

Contractual and institutional resources in journalism training

For the integration of theory and practice, the change from the place of learning ‘university’ to the place of learning ‘journalistic professional practice’, which takes place with the internship or traineeship (*Volontariat*), is of crucial importance. The reason for this is that practical education is most effective on the ground in

the real occupational field of action. Only an internship can facilitate education through participation in the execution of work. The central element of the degree programme could be an *integrated traineeship (Volontariat)*, which could function as a “clamp between university and practice”. As part of the integrated traineeship (*Volontariat*), students should gain practical experience in a journalistic editorial office. During the traineeship, journalists could go through various fields of activity, in particular news production and various specialist departments. The integrated traineeship (*Volontariat*) should span several months, during which a student can complete the internship for a few months at a newspaper or broadcaster and be placed at a second medium for the remaining months. Intra-disciplinary cooperations and partnerships with media internships or other hands-on work are a vital part of successful university-based journalism training. These partnerships improve the standing of journalism programmes within universities. University partnerships with media businesses may benefit both sides, but may not work well if they limit studies to the particular needs of one business and focus only on one sector, such as print or broadcast. It is important to integrate the requirements of the media industry and journalist associations into curriculum development to ensure future employability. The aim should be a sustainable, dually-oriented network between the university and media industries (‘Dortmund model’), which meets both spheres of interest through contractually guaranteed internships, and thus creates a win-win situation.

Degree programmes should provide access to internships or traineeships through *agreement* and *collusion* with the *media industry* and *journalists’ associations*. Applications to media partners should be possible. The different goals and interests of the university, the media and students or interns should be coordinated. It is important that practical work is followed up, evaluated and reflected on by *accompanying seminars*. Another key role is occupied by the *lecturers* from the working practice in this category. Journalism education should be a mix of academically trained teachers and those with professional experience as journalists (HUME 2007:

34). Lecturers are considered “indispensable” because a certain level of exchange with the practice would not be otherwise possible. Honorary professors and *external lecturers* could secure a wide range of courses, coming as they do from journalistic practice and media partners, and they could give a lively insight into their work during the programme. Besides, they can provide backgrounds and reflection. Lecturers could be directly part of the practical degree programme for journalism. Practitioners of journalism as teachers at the college should teach practical work experience, practice requirements and instrumental knowledge in a *hands-on way* to students. Conversely, the lecturers can put suggestions that they receive during teaching assignments at university into practice, therefore making it mutually benefitting. However, lecturers must be aware of their role in the context of the curriculum. This can be achieved through a systematic exchange, the participation of lecturers in the planning and *institutional integration*. It is therefore very important that lecturers are systematically and intentionally involved in the study programme.

In concrete terms, these networks could be set up by creating a *working group* in which representatives from universities, journalists’ associations, politics and the media industry exchange views regularly. A steering committee should regularly exchange experiences and discuss the contents and implementation of dual journalism training with all parties involved.

Practical cooperation also needs to be agreed, and the development and implementation of target group-specific education and further training concepts need to be discussed. This intensive involvement of politics, journalists’ associations and the media industry could increase the *general acceptance* of such a model in society, secure the maximum project output in the interest of the project idea in the long term and strengthen administrative competencies at the operational level of the project. Based on networks and successive communication between science, politics, journalistic associations and the media industry, a structure could emerge to mediate between graduates and the media. Successful graduates could be accepted and, according to their qualification and special-

isation, present themselves to media companies. In addition to the advisory role, making contact and the recruitment of members and cooperation partners could be at the centre of agency tasks. In this context, information events and work projects could be carried out as part of vocational orientation. At universities, mailing campaigns and participation in university job fairs could be envisaged. Besides, information events by the media industry could take place in the form of symposia/conferences for students to explore career prospects.

Another important institutional resource for such a dual study programme includes the task of establishing a *specialist* organisation (expert association). This specialist organisation should be able to articulate and enforce the interests of the subject of communication and journalism studies at public and private universities and other existing education institutions in discussions with the state (university policy), universities and professional practice (including professional organisations). An important goal of the project is to anticipate the consequences of the introduction of a dual journalism training at Nangarhar University and, prospectively, at other state universities in Afghanistan for existing structures (e.g. the issue of the existent BA course in the faculty for journalism and mass communication).

In addition to the identified requirement of subject-specific cooperation beyond university level – at least at a state university – the need to define the importance of an intended dual academic education of journalists is essential, for example, concerning access to the profession. This is particularly important due to the proliferation of various institutions of journalism training which have emerged in Afghanistan.²³ A professional organisation (for example, modelled on the German Communication Association or Deutsche Gesellschaft für Publizistik

23 The founding (and activity) of such a scientific society represents a considerable challenge in the centralised Afghan education system with its center in Kabul. Not only does this raise the question of whether such a start-up initiative can be successfully and efficiently taken on by the subject at Nangarhar Provincial University, but whether it is actually possible (and desirable) for representatives of all existing journalism education institutions (such as foreign consultants and trainers) to organise this in the form of a professional society.

und Kommunikationswissenschaft (DGPuK) could among others deal with such questions.

Legal regulations for journalism training

One important finding of the project will be to anticipate what is required beyond a university course for and via the introduction of a dual journalism training (for example, the introduction of a consecutive master's degree in communication/journalism studies for the prospective education of specialist teaching staff). Firstly, the envisaged introduction of a degree programme that consistently integrates theoretical and practical elements (dual journalism study programme) requires clear and narrow admission restrictions – on the one hand, because of the existing education capacities in the faculties, and on the other, because of the long-term limited number of obligatory attainable, adequate education places (*Volontariat* internships) in journalistic practice.²⁴ As for the introduction of a dual journalism study programme, first of all, a *legal basis* has to be created by the institution responsible, the Afghan Ministry of Higher Education, which includes *regulation of the admission restrictions*, and possibly also statements on the recognition of dual journalist training as a fully-fledged vocational education.²⁵

Secondly, for the introduction of a study programme, a fundamental new regulation of the legal framework in universities must be made possible by a *double degree regulation*. This step seems to be particularly useful for the academic degree courses because students can choose the necessary knowledge for a possible specialisation (here: departmental/special knowledge) according to their preferences. In the context of a more highly-qualified vocational education, the possibility of reorganising study regulations to a department-specific focus (such as economics, politics or science) should be provided. Therefore, the

24 In Afghanistan in particular, journalism studies are extremely attractive among first-year students and they have seen steadily rising numbers of students at state universities (especially in Kabul) for more than ten years. Moreover, Nangarhar University has received an increase in students from the Central Ministry of Higher Education in recent years. Those students were admitted without significantly increasing the number of courses or teaching staff numbers through newly created positions.

25 Another challenge that has arisen as a consequence concerns the question of what should happen to the existing undergraduate degree programme at the Faculty of Journalism and Mass Communication at Nangarhar University.

study programme content should be coordinated more consistently. This can be done by introducing joint courses by participating faculties or in seminars with a specific topic. In journalism, programmes should develop cross-disciplinary partnerships within their universities – including joint projects or degrees in subjects such as science, law, economics and political science – to prepare journalists better for covering complex issues of importance to society.

Part 2

Needs and feasibility assessment for a reform of journalism training at Nangarhar University

PROF. DR ARNULF KUTSCH /
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1 Procedure for interviewing experts

Based on the theoretical part, some models were developed in the previous chapter, for example, what a practical realisation of journalism training in Afghanistan could look like. The following needs and feasibility assessment is aimed at ensuring that the planned reform for journalism training at tertiary level is attainable and can be implemented. To that end, 40 interviews with Afghan experts of media practice, media policy, media studies and higher education policy were conducted to determine which journalistic skills should be taught to students on journalism programmes at tertiary level in a fragile state such as Afghanistan. They were specifically asked for their ideas and how the people concerned should proceed with the reform.

For the project, the premise was to derive the model for an academic journalist training not just from the scientific theory or Western academic models and to introduce it from a “foreign” perspective. A sustainable reform of academic journalist training will only succeed if the intended reform takes the social and cultural value orientations into account as well as the structural conditions, or the interests, expectations and opportunities of the actors involved in this reform process. An essential prerequisite for success is, therefore, to seek opinions and assessments of the theoretical and practical education objects from the experts involved in this reform, and experience and recommendations for the steps regarding their coordination and sequences, which are necessary at different levels to develop and test the model successfully.

To achieve this goal, the “*participatory action research*” (PAR) strategy was applied. The PAR approach differs in some key points from other empirical social science methods. Characteristic to PAR is not a concrete method, but the underlying understanding of how and by whom research is to be conducted. ‘*Participation*’ and ‘*action*’ are the key aspects here. The term “*participatory*” means that persons in the field are not only included as research objects in the research – that is, researched according to the data collected – but

actively participate as “*co-researchers*” (WÖHRER/ARZTMANN 2017: 29). It is generally required that persons, groups and institutions involved are those affected by the research topic and the expected results. For this study, 40 interviews were conducted with stakeholders from journalism training at a tertiary level over a period from mid-February to late May 2017 via Skype. This sample included:

- 30 university and college teachers;
- 4 representatives of regional and national higher education policy;
- 10 heads of regional media organisations (press, radio, public relations, news agency, online services);
- 3 executive boards of regional and national professional associations of journalism.

The second important term in PAR, namely ‘*action*’, means that a change, in the sense of problem-solving, is sought. The PAR research process often starts with a problem that causes a stage of ‘pausing’ or ‘stopping’ followed by a stage of reflection. This reflection leads to a research question for which answers are sought. For the substantive and methodological concept of the survey, the results of the concluding discussion with our Afghan colleagues on March 18, 2017, in Leipzig were important for this step, in addition to theoretical findings (on methods and in literature, e.g. on previous national or international surveys on journalistic education). Three detailed discussions have led to the following changes and extensions to our project proposal result:

- the technical organisation of the survey: the guided interviews are to be conducted online via Skype
- extension of the expert group: at the journalistic/mass communication level, the questionnaire should not be limited to colleagues at Nangarhar University but should focus on the foreseeable and extended above-mentioned cooperation above university level, on the one hand, and on the consequences of

- a future introduction of dual journalism training at Nangarhar University, on the other;
- given a foreseeable legal basis for the admission restriction of a dual journalism study programme at Nangarhar University, one or two representatives from the Central Department of Education in Kabul should also be included in the survey at the university level.
 - central topics and the questionnaire need to be differentiated according to different expert groups

The three core elements of the model need to be developed:

1. subjects of theoretical education,
2. subjects of practical education and
3. the structural, legal, technical and personnel requirements form

Accordingly, the survey instrument is divided into three parts, each of which contains a detailed explanation and a guide with 35 to 55 items. We decided to differentiate the survey according to the group of experts as follows:

1. the scientists are interviewed on all three topics;
2. the representatives of the media in practice and university politics are predominantly questioned, especially on the third topic.

The purpose of this study, with the help of the experts interviewed, was to first assess the current state of academic journalism training in Afghanistan (problem), and secondly, to identify the needs and expectations for improving (the approach to) journalism training in Afghanistan both inside and outside of state universities. The survey instrument was accordingly divided into two parts, each accompanied by a detailed explanation and a guide with 35 to 55 questions. The first part of the survey asked questions about the general function of the media and journalism in Afghanistan. In the second part, we asked co-researchers which journalistic skills (theoretical and practical skills) should be offered to stu-

dents in academic journalism training. Specifically, we asked co-researchers with reference to WEISCHENBERG (1998) and other co-researchers about the items that form theoretical skills in journalism training and asked whether they should also be offered in journalism training in Afghanistan, as well as what additional skills should be taught. Each interview took about two to three hours and was conducted either in Pashto or Dari. Each interview was recorded, transcribed and translated first into German and subsequently into English. The survey instrument (guideline) was examined in a pre-test in three to four interviews from mid-December 2016 on. The answers were evaluated with a qualitative data analysis (MAXQDA) software.

2 The current state of journalism training at Nangarhar University

Lecturers at the Faculty of Journalism and Mass Communication at Nangarhar University

The Faculty of Journalism and Mass Communication of Nangarhar University currently employs 13 *lecturers* (as of 2017), three of whom have administrative functions (Dean, Deputy Dean). Of the 13 lecturers, two have master's degrees. Four lecturers are currently abroad to complete their master's degrees. Two are in China, one is in Pakistan and one in India. The latter two will return within the next six months and resume their work. Another three lecturers have received a scholarship for next year: two of them are going to China and one to Iran. This means that, during this period, there will be seven lecturers abroad and only six lecturers (as of 2017) will remain in Nangarhar, who will supervise up to 600 students. This release of lecturers is nevertheless made possible because the law stipulates that all lecturers with bachelor's degrees must start their master's degrees within five years of taking up their post, otherwise they will lose their job. Negotiations are currently underway with the MHE to hire substitute lecturers. However, this will be very

difficult, as only students with a very good final grade (80 per cent) can be employed as lecturers. Finding such personnel is almost impossible in Afghanistan. For this reason, universities are in fact forced to hire staff with bachelor's degrees, who then complete their master's within five years, which is equally impossible.

Qualifications and teaching areas on the study programme

The MHE has many partnerships with various countries offering scholarships. These scholarship places are distributed equally among the provincial universities. Many lecturers accept this opportunity to do their master's degrees because they cannot organise it personally. The *academic qualifications* and *status* of lecturers are therefore low: none holds a professorship, none has a doctorate, none has study or research experience at a foreign university or holds an academic degree obtained abroad. These characteristics do not substantially distinguish lecturers from specialist lecturers at the other state universities in the country. No *research* has been carried out yet in the relatively new specialist institution at Nangarhar University. The subject areas of the 13 lecturers are only generally designated according to two fields of media: press and broadcasting. The sub-discipline of journalism or a specialisation according to fields of work in journalism do not appear in the denominations. Therefore, the teaching areas do not correspond to the differentiation or specialisation of international communication science or its sub-area of journalism. Most teachers have no active or passive competence in a Western language, especially not in English.

Structure of the existing bachelor's degree programme in Nangarhar (Afghanistan)

The faculty offers an eight-semester bachelor's programme, which has recently been modified. However, the structure of the curriculum, subjects and forms of teaching and their sequence cannot be found in the corresponding 100-page brochure.

The length of the course, which is unusually long by international comparison, is not least because there is not yet a specialist mas-

ter's degree programme – neither at Nangarhar University nor at other state universities in Afghanistan. Staff, therefore, try to teach the entire course content (bachelor's and master's) on one study programme.

The *curricula* of the Institutes of Journalism and Communication Science in Afghanistan are based on the curriculum of the Institute of Journalism and Communication Science at the University of Kabul. Their curricula are organised uniformly, but the individual institutions can implement their own topics within a framework of 30 per cent. The curriculum has been reformed three times so far. In the first cycle, it was still organised annually and no credit points were awarded. The second and third cycles of the curriculum were organised by semester and credit points are now awarded. These are collected independently of grades and represent the workload required by a pre- and post-preparation study unit. A student can collect up to 18 credit points per semester – for an eight-semester bachelor's programme this makes a total of 136–46 credit points. The current curriculum is the result of three conferences held to develop the curriculum, organised by Americans. The current curriculum is as follows:

BA in Journalism and Public Communication

Current study programmes at Afghan universities

Characteristics

- This study programme aims to train professionals for journalism, who can work in the press and broadcasting sector after graduation.
- Required course (with or without compulsory electives) with 136–146 credit points (credit).
- The duration of the course is eight semesters (or ten semesters as an evening course).
- Focus: the first part of the course (1st–4th semester) applies to all students; in the 2nd part (5th–8th semester) the students must choose a focus on either journalism or public communication (public relations).
- Courses: lectures and seminars, 18 contact periods per week.
- Praxis: in the 4th year, the curriculum incorporates a year-long internship to be carried out at a media institution.
- Specialisation: political science or economics.
- Examination mode: Class examinations; mid-semester examinations; homework and practical work examinations and end of semester examinations.
- The number of admissions per enrolment year approx. 70–100 students.
- Formal entry requirements: having passed and received at least 230 points on the “Kankor” national examination.²⁶
- Study entrance: winter and summer semesters.

²⁶ Journalism is in 3rd place after medicine (about 300 points) and law (about 280 points), for which most points are needed.

GENERAL STUDIES				
1 st YEAR / 1 st SEMESTER				
No.	Subject matter	Credit	Credit Distribution	
			Theory	Praxis
1	Foreign Language: English 1	2		
2	Modern History of Afghanistan	2		
3	Media Science 1 (traditional broadcasting technology)	2	1	1
4	Language: Dari 1	2		
5	Language: Pashtu 1	2		
6	Religion 1	1		
7	Computer 1 (basics)	2	1	1
8	Fundamentals of Communication	2		
9	Mathematics (data and statistics)	2		
2 st SEMESTER				
1	Foreign Language: English 2	2		
2	Language: Dari 2 (syntax)	2		
3	Language: Pashtu 2 (syntax)	2		
4	Religion 2	1		
5	Fundamentals of Economics	2		
6	History of Journalism in Afghanistan	3		
7	Fundamentals of Journalism	2		
8	Fundamentals of Sociology	2		
9	Media Science 2 (Information and communication technologies)	2		

GENERAL STUDIES				
2 nd YEAR / 3 rd SEMESTER				
No.	Subject matter	Credit	Credit Distribution	
			Theory	Praxis
1	Writing News Reports for Online Media (<i>Theory and Praxis</i>)	3	2	1
2	Photo Journalism (<i>Theory and Praxis</i>)	4	2	2
3	Foreign Language: English 3	2	1	1
4	Religion 3	1	1	
5	Fundamentals of Law	2	2	
6	Computer 2 (<i>Cole Edit and Adobe Edition</i>)	1	1	
7	History of World Media	2	2	
8	Environment	1	1	
9	Language: Dari 3 (<i>Creative Writing</i>)	2	2	
4 th SEMESTER				
1	Media and Society	4	3	1
2	Writing News Reports for Broadcasting (<i>Theory and Praxis</i>)	3	2	1
3	New Information and Communication Technology	3	2	1
4	Foreign Language: English 4	2		
5	Religion 4	1		
6	Publishing (<i>Editing and News Management</i>)	2	1	1
7	Computer 3	2	1	1
8	Pashtu 4 (<i>Creative Writing</i>)	2		

FOCUS JOURNALISM				
3 rd YEAR / 5 th SEMESTER				
No.	Subject matter	Credit	Credit Distribution	
			Theory	Praxis
1	Production of Radio Programmes (Theory and Praxis)	4	2	2
2	Religion 5	1	1	
3	Law and Ethics in Media	4	3	1
4	Concepts and Presentation of Press Products (Theory and Praxis)	4	2	2
5	Principles of Commercial Advertising	3	2	1
6	Various Forms of Analysis (Theory and Praxis)	1	1	1
6 th SEMESTER				
1	Reportage in Broadcasting (Theory and Praxis)	3	2	1
2	Religion 6	1		
3	Online Journalism (Theory and Praxis)	3	2	1
4	Principles of Research in Public Communication	2	1	1
5	Investigative Journalism (Theory and Praxis)	2	1	1
6	Compulsory Elective: Broadcasting	2	2	
7	Production of Television Programmes (Theory and Praxis)	2	1	1
8	Computer 4 (Adobe Primer and Final Cut)	2		

FOCUS JOURNALISM

Specialist Subject: Political Science

4th YEAR / 7th SEMESTER

No.	Subject matter	Credit	Credit Distribution	
			Theory	Praxis
1	Monograph and Internship	4	2	3
2	Documentary Television (Theory and Praxis)	2	1	1
3	Religion 7	1	1	
4	Reporting on Crises and Development	2	1	1
5	Principles of Political Science	2	2	
6	Human Rights	2	2	
7	Political Reporting	3	2	1
8	Political Geography	2	2	

8 th SEMESTER				
1	Editorial Management	3	2	1
2	Monograph and Internship	6	2	4
3	Religion 8	1	1	
4	International Relations	2	2	
5	Issues of International Politics	2	2	
6	The Political System of Afghanistan	2	2	
7	Compulsory Elective: Journalism	2	2	

FOCUS JOURNALISM

Specialist Subject: Economics

4th YEAR / 7th SEMESTER

No.	Subject matter	Credit	Credit Distribution	
			Theory	Praxis
1	Global Economics	3	3	
2	Reporting about Economics (Theory and Praxis)	3	2	1
3	Economic Geography	2	2	
4	Journalism Covering Crises and Development	2	1	1
5	Documentary Film for Television	2	1	1
6	Religion 7	1	1	
7	Monograph and Internship	5	2	3

8 th SEMESTER				
1	Economic Policy	2	2	
2	Economic and Financial Reporting	3	2	1
3	Economic Issues in Developing Countries	2	2	
4	Media Management	3	2	1
5	Compulsory Elective from the field of Journalism	2	2	
6	Religion 8	1	1	
7	Monograph and Internship	6	2	4

FOCUS PUBLIC COMMUNICATION				
3 rd YEAR / 5 th SEMESTER				
No.	Subject matter	Credit	Credit Distribution	
			Theory	Praxis
1	Principles of Public Relations	4	3	1
2	Public Opinion and Advertising	3	2	1
3	Principles of Advertising	4	2	2
4	Types of Analysis	2	1	1
5	Law and Ethics in the Media	4	3	1
6	Religion 5	1	1	
6 th SEMESTER				
1	Public Relations for Media (<i>Praxis</i>)	2	1	1
2	Campaigns in Public Relations	3	2	1
3	Developing Strategies for Organisations	3	2	1
4	Modern Public Relations	3	2	1
5	Fundamentals and Principles of Research	2	1	1
6	Investigative Reporting	2	1	1
7	Computer 3 (<i>Access and SPSS</i>)	2	1	1
8	Religion 6	1		

FOCUS PUBLIC COMMUNICATION				
Expertise: Political Science				
4 th YEAR / 7 th SEMESTER				
No.	Subject matter	Credit	Credit Distribution	
			Theory	Praxis
1	Fundamentals of Political Science	2	2	
2	Political Geography	2	2	
3	Human Rights	2	2	
4	Public Relations in Political Organisations	3	2	1
5	Elective: Public Relations	3	3	
6	Religion 7	1	1	
7	Monograph and Internship	5	2	3
8 th SEMESTER				
1	Public Relations Management	2	1	1
2	One-sided Communication for Commercial Issues	4	3	1
3	International Relations	2	2	
4	Issues regarding International Politics	2	2	
5	The Political System in Afghanistan	2	2	
6	Religion 8	1	1	
7	Monograph and Internship	6	2	4

FOCUS PUBLIC COMMUNICATION

Specialist Subject: Economics

4th YEAR / 7th SEMESTER

No.	Subject matter	Credit	Credit Distribution	
			Theory	Praxis
1	Economic Geography	2	2	3
2	Global Economics	2	1	1
3	Public Relations in Commercial Organisations	3	1	
4	Issues of Economics in Developing Countries	2	1	1
5	One Elective Course in the field of Public Relations	3	2	
6	Religion 7	1	1	
7	Monograph and Internship	5	2	3

8 th SEMESTER				
1	Public Relations Management	2		
2	Public Relations in Commercial Organisations	3		
3	One-sided Communication for Commercial Issues	4	3	1
4	Economic Policies	2	2	
6	Religion 8	1	1	
7	Monograph and Internship	6	2	4

Individual Preparation

Admission rates for students in Nangarhar

There are 448 students at the faculty, including four female students (last updated December 2017). The admission rate per enrolment year is about 70 students. Last year 123 students graduated from the university. It is expected that another 150 students will be sent to Nangarhar in 2018. The core result of the interview is that the professionalisation of journalism training can only be attained by restricting admissions. It became clear from the interviews that there is a clear will and great interest in restricting admission to the course. There is a consensus among academics, politicians and journalists that admitting thousands of students every year cannot continue.

Spatial, library and technical equipment of the faculty in Nangarhar

The Faculty of Journalism and Communication Science at Nangarhar University does not have its own *building*. It holds its seminars in large rooms borrowed from other institutes. The *technical equipment* of the faculty with modern information technology (computer pool, Internet access) is extremely minimal, which is already evident from the fact that the necessary technology first had to be temporarily installed for our survey, with the aid of a media company. The media technology equipment required for practical university journalist training (editorial staff) and a *specialist library* do not exist. While the beginnings of a cooperation with media practice exist – and is also foreseen in the new curriculum – little is put into practice due to a lack of resources. There are some sporadic partnerships with media institutions, which are not systematic but rely on the initiative of individual lecturers.

3 Procedure for evaluating matrix and expert interviews

The third step was to determine the need and feasibility for the reform of university journalist training, which was carried out by interviewing experts in Afghanistan. The first part of this step consisted in developing specific guidelines for oral interviews with (1) representatives of the Faculty of Communication Studies / Journalism (Nangarhar, Herat, Kabul, Khost and Mazar-e-Sharif), (2) of Nangarhar University (University and Faculty Management), (3) of Higher Education and Administration (Ministry of Higher Education/MHE; National Commission of Curricula/NCC; Kabul) and (4) of media practice (companies, journalists and their professional associations; Nangarhar Province); the second part of the work were the interviews themselves. Due to the security situation in Afghanistan, these could not be carried out on-site as planned in our project application but had to be conducted via Skype. We interviewed the Deputy Minister and NCC Chair and his deputy in the Commission. The guidelines for the four survey groups each address specific problem areas and were examined by a pre-test in December 2016 and January 2017 and were subsequently specified or supplemented at different points. One of the main reasons for this were numerous technical problems of understanding. However, these also led to repeated questions in the interviews themselves and required constant explanations (see below). The additions made the guidelines more extensive and more complex than our original methodological concept originally envisaged. Despite the above difficulties and the geographical and cultural distance, the interviews, in our opinion, have proven to be an overall reliable tool for the goal of this work step to (a) the interviewees' ideas about the reform goals and (b) to deliver a realistic and differentiated picture of the requirements and feasibility of the goals. Detailed information on the strengths and weaknesses of existing journalism training at Nangarhar University (and other state universities in the country) was obtained as well as important and helpful assess-

ments of the conditions and requirements, opportunities and risks of reform, which cannot be found in publicly available documents.

This work step “Determination of needs and feasibility of a reform of university journalism training” was carried out with the help of a “SWOT analysis” (Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, Threats). A SWOT analysis consists of an environmental and a business analysis. The environmental analysis asks about the external factors that can present themselves as opportunities or risks for a project. (WELGE, AL-LAHAM, EULERICH 2017: 299 et seq.)

With regard to the reform of academic journalism training in Afghanistan, the aim here was to find out what structures exist, for example on the part of the government and the university, what interest there is in making changes to the current training and under what conditions these changes might take place.

The analysis of the enterprise, on the other hand, asks about the present and future strengths and weaknesses of the enterprise itself (ibid.: 360 et seq.). Here, for example, the requirements of the project participants are taken into account.

The results of the environmental and business analysis are then compared. In this way, it is possible to determine which opportunities or risks must be expected during implementation due to the strengths and weaknesses of the company, and strategies can be developed at an early stage to exploit the opportunities and avoid the risks. The SWOT analysis was carried out by means of a survey of experts in Afghanistan.

Strengths of the Afghan journalism training system

Because of the situation described above, strengths do not immediately come to mind. However, a few that can be mentioned here: a major advantage lies above all in the *attitudes* of everyone involved (especially the interviewees): in the interest, will and willingness to reform journalism training with an orientation towards international, i.e. modern professional standards and to look for ways for the course and its representatives to follow international professional development. This tenor was conveyed by all interview part-

ners – whether the dean and lecturers of the faculty, media entrepreneurs and journalists, or the MHE Deputy Minister.

In this context, the fact-finding mission of our Afghan partners in Germany in March 2016 and the information and impressions gained were of great importance. One expression of this interest is the agreement between Nangarhar University and the company Shaiq-Network (Jalalabad), which was intentionally signed in Leipzig at the end of the fact-finding trip and has since been implemented, regarding the introduction of short internships for journalism students in that particular media company. The agreement should also be a signal for the project regarding the willingness to approach and achieve reform through cooperation between the university and media practice.

Another strength to be mentioned is that Nangarhar University offers various subjects that are important for a reformed bachelor's programme in journalism (both in the form of a single-subject course and as a course made up of first and second or major and minor subjects) in as much as they form an essential prerequisite for teaching imports (e.g. from law, political science and history).

Weaknesses of the Afghan journalism training system

The subject Communication Studies/Journalism has been largely cut off from the international development of the discipline at Nangarhar University, as well as in Afghanistan as a whole: central international publications (textbooks) and scientific journals are unknown to the lecturers and also not accessible because most of them do not speak English; they are not represented in international professional societies. On the other hand, the subject itself is not well-organised in Afghanistan: professional associations and scientific journals are non-existent. No scientific conferences have been held to date and there are no regular inter-university conferences for the lecturers. No genuinely Afghan specialist literature on communication science exists – at best only to some extent via the country's media. The situation indicates that no scientific research has been carried out in Nangarhar to date.

Another weakness is the lack of technical literature regarding the media system in Afghanistan. The technical literature offered in the curriculum is outdated. This constitutes a very great weakness in the constellation and design of the curriculum. The particularly precarious weaknesses of the discipline and faculty (in a comparable form at the other Afghan state universities too), according to Western assessments, will be summarised here:

Training/existing bachelor's programme

1. As far as the interviews show, the curriculum of today's bachelor's programme does not contain any theory of communication science or methodological subjects which are currently part of the international standards of journalist training and are recommended in the research literature for the reform of such education in developing countries;
2. The curriculum lacks practical education elements that are systematically coordinated with or build on each other within the university (editorial staff) and outside the curriculum (internships);
3. The study programme includes differentiated education of prospective journalists according to two media groups (press/radio and public relations), but in a rather unspecific manner, which neither provides for a further differentiation according to certain functions or fields of work in journalism nor for academic depth (e.g. for training junior academics).
4. The curriculum offers some subjects (e.g. religion, computers, languages, advertising, publishing) which are not only irrelevant for journalism training and not to the international standard, but also occupy a lot of space in the curriculum. For religion, for example, one unit is planned for each semester (8 semesters).
5. Some courses are incorrectly named (e.g. mathematics), when they in fact mean something different: in this case, the course should not be called Mathematics, but "Empirical Research Methods".
6. Many subjects are missing in the curriculum that are relevant to journalism training and would meet the international stan-

dard. Examples include principles of communication science such as impact research, reception research, media system or development communication, etc.

7. In general, the contents of the curriculum are very theoretical, and the practical elements are not given much room. For example, it is recommended not to do an internship until the eighth semester, but this is rarely implemented for various reasons.
8. All these circumstances culminate in the criticism that the curricula of journalism training at tertiary level in Afghanistan are not only removed from society but also alien to the market.
9. Networks between universities are very weak. There is no systematic exchange between lecturers or students.

Teachers

1. The academic, didactic and foreign language competence of the lecturers is low compared to Western countries and does not fulfil prerequisites for the reform of university journalism training according to the parameters recommended by international literature.
2. The lecturers are active in university teaching but not in research and have no research experience.
3. Teachers are sometimes responsible for 50–100 students in one class, which makes reflected teaching, group work or other didactic methods impossible.
4. External lecturers or experts (active journalists, media professionals etc.) fall short of expertise and a system in which such lecturers can be hired barely exists. Overall, this system of external lecturers is viewed with scepticism, as “university lecturers fear the loss of power”.
5. Lecturers believe that a dozen of the staff must have several specialist competencies – e.g. practical, theoretical and research – to be able to teach these to the students. Therefore, the subjects taught on the courses are not extensive and one lecturer teaches several subjects at the same time. Lecturers

are usually generalists who teach students in many areas rather than specialists who are responsible for a particular area or professional competence.

Media technology equipment and experienced teaching staff

1. The technical media equipment required for systematic journalism training within the university sector as well as the technical and service personnel required for their operation and maintenance are not available at Nangarhar University, nor are there any lectureships for experienced and reflected journalists or editors to teach practical professional knowledge (e.g. exercises for journalistic forms of presentation; teaching and editing for the practice of collective-editorial action).
2. There is no cooperation between universities and media practice to provide internships for students. Some specific cooperation in this area can be traced back to personal initiatives of the lecturers, which are neither sustainable nor systemic.
3. In Afghanistan, journalist associations are very fragmented, do not have networks and have little understanding to date that they could play an important role in journalism training.

Opportunities for Afghan journalism training

The discussions regarding the necessity of a reform of the tertiary education sector in Afghanistan have started in the MHE (Kabul) as well as at the universities themselves. The modifications of the bachelor's course at the Faculty of Journalism and Mass Communication at Nangarhar University points to that. It seems that there is no real clarity as to the aims of the reform or how to implement them. There is no evidence of any long-term development or transformation concepts for the subjects of communication science and journalism. For this reason, our Afghan partners are awaiting our results and suggestions. But even in the MHE, the representatives are very interested to see them.

Firstly, Afghanistan has very *liberal legislation*, the framework of which would make it easy to implement the reform steps. There is a great *willingness* to reform all state structures in the country

and the state strongly supports this concern for reform. Academic education is also being reformed at all levels, but what is generally lacking is a guiding principle. Many structures still have to emerge from “zero”. It is therefore much easier to implement reform steps, as the structures are not deadlocked and are still in the process of being created. That is why this project comes at the *right time* as it represents an orientation for the reform of academic education in Afghanistan. All reform measures could be guided by these measures. This goes hand in hand with a strong aspiration for change within the MHE, which is not only interested in the project but also emphasises that the reform process should be oriented towards these measures (emphasised several times in the interview).

Another opportunity is represented by the *central structure* in Afghanistan. This fact makes the implementation of the reform steps easier because everything is organised in a top-down manner by the Ministry of Higher Education. Of course, this is an advantage for this project, at least in the short term, as it is not necessary to negotiate the reform steps with several partners. It is also very important that *media institutions* are highly interested in participating in such reform steps and measures. On the one hand, media practice is interested in professional employees. Their professionalisation in journalism has risen. However, there is also *a great willingness and interest within the universities* – i.e. between faculties – in cooperation and imports. In most cases, there is no precise pre-examination of how individual institutions could work together. This project provides for such a possibility.

Another opportunity that should not be underestimated is that most lecturers are still young, at the beginning of their professional lives, and are open to further academic qualification and reform of existing journalism training.

All in all, the following opportunities can be listed:

- Among all the groups involved and interviewed, there is a great deal of interest and openness to external and international advice and knowledge transfer to collect ideas for the reform of journalist training.

- If the media institutions were to receive financial resources for the allocation of traineeships, according to the tenor of the interviews (with media professionals), the reform process could be speeded up.
- As a result of the media boom in Afghanistan, the demand for professional journalists has risen sharply, which has resulted in a strong awareness of the reform of journalism training.
- There is a great need for networks between universities. What is missing is a network that should aim at organising conferences and professional journals. These networks could also lead to better exchanges between universities already advanced in the reform process (e.g. Herat and Maz-e-Sharif) and those not yet as advanced.

Risks for Afghan journalism training

The greatest risk is the country's political insecurity. Just as we are unable to predict the development of domestic and higher education policy and, above all, the development of the country's internal security, we are also unable to assess how assertive the current reform forces are to be seen within the actors to be involved (see above) and how consistently and permanently they will be willing or able to maintain their interest and commitment as well as their willingness to innovate and drive forward reform. Another weakness in tertiary education reform in Afghanistan is that the state lacks any financial resources to implement such reform measures. The only option remaining is to raise funds from abroad. Three risk areas have been identified from this complex context:

Further qualification of lecturers

A fundamental prerequisite is the further academic qualification of today's lecturers in core areas of communication science and journalism. This, in turn, presupposes the acquisition of appropriate foreign language skills. The reform of the existing bachelor's degree programme continues to require not only a fundamental change in the subjects and contents of teaching by appropriately competent or qualified lecturers. There is also a need for a fundamental change

in didactics towards forms of collaborative work on academic questions and problems, joint reading and discussion between lecturers and students on the one hand and independent reading and reflection by students on the other. The lecturers therefore also need a further qualification in university didactics.²⁷ Yet it can be assumed that the MHE will not only want to and be able to promote just Nangarhar University, and not only the subject of communication science/journalism.

Legal-administrative regulations

In the university: The last problem mentioned above indicates that a reform of the existing journalism training at Nangarhar University requires a variety of legal and administrative decisions and the resulting measures (hereinafter referred to as regulation), the effects of which are predictable not only for the faculty, its lecturers and the subject communication science/journalism, but which will have consequences for other faculties/subjects in this university and beyond on the subject of communication science/journalism at other universities in the country. Such problems were also addressed in the expert interviews, especially since the MHE – as can be seen from Mohammed Yawar’s statement (expert interview) quoted above – is striving for a reform of journalism training at Afghan universities, where the subject has similar structural problems as in Nangarhar. The only exception to this is the University of Kabul. If in the long term, the establishment of an in-depth master’s programme in communication science/journalism – as recommended in the research literature – is planned, the higher education or subject policy question arises as to which university in the country would be the most appropriate location for it. In connection with the necessity and consequences of necessary regulation, two further internal university risks should be mentioned:

Teaching imports and exports: The reform of the existing training of journalists at

27 A solution that aims for sustainability could be to release lecturers from MHE or the university for a four-semester master’s programme financed by national or international scholarships for a period of five to eight or nine years, with examinations abroad (e.g. in Germany, Sweden, USA). The government or university should create long-term framework conditions (based on EU/DAAD funding programmes, among others) and guidelines for this purpose.

Nangarhar University requires temporary or permanent importation of teaching from other subjects (e.g. media and journalistic labour law, Afghanistan political system: law, history, political science) for reasons of teacher evaluation, and presupposes appropriate opportunities and scientific competencies there; on the other hand, it probably requires prospective educational exports from communication science/journalism, for which the subjects in question must have a need.

Admission restrictions: In Afghanistan, too, journalism and professional activities in other areas of media are very attractive among first-year students. The MHE has not allocated study places based on the professional requirements and conditions of the Faculty of Journalism and Mass Communication at Nangarhar University. The current number of admissions per academic year (70 first-year students) will probably not be manageable during a transitional period (e.g. through the gradual introduction of practical training elements) in the reform process until a new dual course of study in journalism is fully implemented. Given the didactically useful size of the university's internal practical exercises (max. 15 students) and the number of internships that are not unlimited in media institutions, a considerable restriction on admission should be planned and gradually introduced. The gradual or final introduction of a bachelor's programme for dual journalism training requires contracts between the university and the media institutions (organised under private law and by the state) – a terrain previously unknown to Nangarhar University/Faculty of Journalism and Mass Communication. These contracts, which should be as legally binding as possible, should in particular concern the duration and also the continuity of a sufficient number of internships, ideally of around six months, and should seek to ensure that students receive professionally relevant training in the media companies (e.g. training in one or two editorial offices) through these internships. As already mentioned above, there are certainly first signs of a willingness on the part of media institutions and companies to provide constructive support to the reform willingness of Nangarhar Uni-

versity/Faculty of Journalism and Mass Communication. One of our risks is whether the media companies are willing or able to set up a sufficient number of traineeships permanently, to organise a vocational training programme for this purpose and whether these traineeships can be reached in sufficiently different media (e.g. newspaper, radio, television, news agency). Media institutions usually have few resources and personnel to be able to adequately supervise interns.

Therefore, as a central result of our investigation, it should be emphasised once again: A reform cannot be achieved in the short term. We are convinced that a sustainable transformation of today's journalism training at Nangarhar University, based on the standards of international communication science/journalism, through the introduction of a dual course of study can only be achieved through a long-term transformation process that takes place in several stages of reform. The success of this transformation undoubtedly requires a high level of institutional initiatives and decisions, measures and investments (meso level) and an equally high level of individual commitment, activity and investment (micro level).

Part 3

Results

PROF. DR ARNULF KUTSCH /
DR KEFA HAMIDI



1 Models for journalism training at tertiary level in Afghan universities

Taking into account the results of the expert interviews, concrete target models for the practical implementation of the following training programs will now be presented: an eight-semester bachelor's programme in Journalism and a four-semester master's programme in Communication Studies at Nangarhar University, as well as an ongoing training programme for practising journalists in Afghanistan. For each of the three target models, the concept of the intended training programme is first presented, together with its characteristics and areas of teaching. This is followed by semester schedules that clearly show which content is to be taught at what time, through which forms of teaching and examinations. Finally, two additional models for the degree programmes in Development Communication and Public Relations are presented. Since the introduction of these two study programmes would be useful but is not part of this project, these models will be limited to the most important points.

a) Recommendations for a dual bachelor's degree in journalism at Nangarhar University

Study programme concept

Although the ideas about the theoretical and practical subjects of dual journalism training vary in the international comparison, there is a consensus that the theories and methods of communication science, as well as the norms (ethics) and the law of journalism, should form the basis of a prospective dual journalism programme. There is an urgent need to professionalise journalism training in Afghanistan by introducing a dual university model that includes national and cultural functions of the profession, an educational objective (normative role model and organisational leadership in journalism) and job specification (scientific-theoretical and vocational-practical education) and that it should be recognised by

the state, professional associations and media organisations. Furthermore, this model should cover other fields of education: the further training of practising journalists in their previous or new journalistic occupational fields as well as communication and academic journalist qualifications of recent graduates for research and teaching.

The concept of the bachelor programme could be based on five pillars, which represent different areas of knowledge and practice, and which guarantee a comprehensive and versatile vocational training. Those could be

- (1) principles of communication science,
- (2) journalistic theory and practice as well as
- (3) basic Interpersonal skills social skills and
- (4) in-depth specialist knowledge as an elective subject. Each of the pillars should have an approximately equal share of study and teach skills and knowledge that will help young journalists prepare well for their future profession.
- (5) An internship semester (*Volontariat*) should be a mandatory part of the bachelor's degree in journalism.

This means that the programme could include modules in journalism, a six-month internship and modules in complementary subjects from other degree programmes. The modules could consist of sub-events that relate and complement each other in subject. Also, students should work at an editorial training desk for one year of their study (but also during the semester breaks). The editorial training desk should be an important part of the study programme. Here the students should learn editorial procedures, teamwork and journalistic craft in practice and should be responsible for participating in the institute's own publications (for example, joint project work with media facilities).

After six semesters of study, a six-month integrated internship (*Volontariat*) in a media company could follow. This should be followed by one final semester at university, in which the students write their bachelor's dissertations. Students should demonstrate

that they can apply academic and vocational skills to a research topic. They should be able to compile, analyse and interpret the methodological-analytical instruments and master proficient documentation and presentation skills. The topic of the bachelor's dissertation, which should be between 30 and 40 pages long, should be chosen from the field of communication science. The working time should be set to six months. Ten credits should be obtained for the examinations of a bachelor's dissertation and a sufficient grade should be the minimal requirement to pass.

Course content

The aim of the programme could be to train journalists to work in current reporting media. The focus should be on a wide range of qualifications. The education should be multimedial, that is, it should cover newspapers, agencies, radio, television and online journalism. The study of journalism should convey a mixture of knowledge and ability:

1. basic knowledge in communication science to enable students to study media and journalism, the administrative, legal and political framework of the media system or media-ethical issues;
2. basic knowledge in journalistic production for print and electronic media;
3. the ability to understand complex issues and present them in journalistic form to an audience;
4. academic skills and techniques to be applied to a research topic by collecting, analysing and interpreting using methodological-analytical tools, as well as proficiency in documentation and presentation skills;
5. communicative and Interpersonal skills to work successfully in the editorial departments of the mass media;
6. knowledge of social contexts to report competently and critically on current events from different event fields from different perspectives;

7. reflective and ethical skills to work as a journalist on the backgrounds and contexts of events and to develop a critical attitude towards their own actions in the journalistic profession;
8. knowledge of mediation skills so journalists can live up to journalistic responsibility in a development process and thus make an important contribution to constructive nation-building.

Dual subject regulation and focus

The bachelor degree should be extended by two subjects. For example, courses in the fields of culture, social sciences and economics should be offered as main subjects in journalism. Every student should be allowed to choose a complementary subject. This enables students to specialise in another field. In journalism studies, interdisciplinary work is an indispensable component. Students of the bachelor programme in journalism should, therefore, be allowed to choose between the complementary subjects of sociology or political science.

Career prospects for graduates

After graduating in journalism, graduates could work in electronic media (radio and television), the press, press offices, agencies, newsrooms and elsewhere. The integration of internships into the study programme, the broad journalistic training in work and production techniques, concrete project work and the integration of a second scientific subject in the study could lead to continued high acceptance of graduates from this course. This model can be implemented in particular into academic or university-based journalism training. Thus, for the first time, a “future elite in journalism” (KUTSCH 2010:449) will be qualified for their “professional role” (ibid.) and could guide other long-term established journalists through a comprehensive and versatile vocational education (basic communication science, journalistic theory and practice and basic social skills and special skills in a subject like sociology, politics or law).

Theoretical aspects

The expert interviews have shown that there is a high need for reform on the bachelor's degree programme in journalism, as the current system is outdated and has many shortcomings (see CHAPTER 2.2) To ensure sustainable and good academic journalism training in Afghanistan, new content, structures and modules are needed.

On the *micro level*, training in the bachelor's degree in journalism is aimed at individual students. These are young people – usually school leavers – who will have a significant impact on journalism and the media landscape of Afghanistan in the future. This training aims to give fundamental training in practical journalistic as well as academic skills. It lays the foundation for a qualified start in the profession and provides a good entry into the labour market.

On the *meso level*, the goal is a sustainable, social and functional improvement of the journalistic performance of a particular media institution, oriented towards the common good and the market. Therefore, publishers or media owners should have a strong and sustained interest in the sound education of young journalists to contribute to a successful future of journalism and their own media institution.

On the *macro level*, the debate also addresses the quality improvement of the basic functions of journalism and the media as a whole as a matter of principle, as well as special expectations and requirements that are addressed to journalism and the media in specific social or national formations (such as in countries with economies in transition). In Afghanistan, for example, this refers to the contribution to mediation between ethnic groups and the nation-building of the country.

The bachelor's degree in journalism is intended to provide (especially in transition countries) a basic and thorough qualification for future professionals by teaching specialist knowledge. Specialist knowledge refers to the field of knowledge, which is, on the one hand, the scientific-theoretical research of the process of public-media communication (Communication Science; Journalism Science) and on the other hand, concerns the practical forms and

craft of journalism as well as the technology, organisation and structure of practical journalistic-editorial action. This specialist knowledge can be conveyed by experts from the academic community and the journalistic profession/media itself.

Journalism as a profession also requires sound technical knowledge. This refers to the complex field of knowledge of society, politics, culture, religion, economy, technology, etc., about which future journalists will write, report and judge, often relying on their own observations and experience. The more complex, differentiated and specialised the social, political, cultural, economic and technical development, the less often one's own knowledge of experience or observation is sufficient to grasp understand and categorise more complex events, contexts and developments. Consequently, the bachelor's training of journalists should also include a thorough teaching by experts from the relevant sciences or fields. For this purpose, the students should take a complementary subject.

Organisation

The bachelor's degree programme in journalism aims to combine academic and practical training for young journalists. Academic training should be the responsibility of the university – or more precisely, the Faculty of Journalism and Mass Communication at Nangarhar University. Practical training will also take place internally at the university, e.g. in the context of editorial training desks. Besides, practical training will be accompanied and supported externally, e.g. in private media companies within the framework of the *Volontariat* or internship.

The qualification of teachers is a fundamental prerequisite for this. To be able to teach the new model and achieve the desired transfer of theory and praxis, lecturers must first be trained accordingly. For this purpose, the Ministry must organise cooperations with foreign universities and grants for teachers.

At the *meso level*, the implementation of the new dual model requires agreements between the university and media companies that regulate cooperations for external training. A suitable infra-

structure must be created for in-house training. Also, admission restrictions will be essential. Because high-quality training is only possible in a group of a maximum size.

Overall, the proposed model is flexible: it provides about 60–70 % of the content, which guarantees a basic level of journalistic qualification. However, 30–40 % of the content can be flexibly arranged by the university itself. As a result, the study programme can also consider local differences and circumstances. In this way, after its introduction in Nangarhar, the model is to be transferred in the long term to all universities in Afghanistan – with appropriate specialisation in each case.

A

Recommendations for a dual bachelor's degree in journalism at Nangarhar University

Abstract

- An eight-semester dual bachelor course in the core subject of journalism with a required elective subject and special education topics (religion, languages, IT).
- The core subject comprises 180 credit points.
- An external six-month internship is integrated into the course. *Qualification: Bachelor of Science (BSc)*

Education Targets

- The main aim of this course is the theoretical and practical training of future journalists.
- The graduates should be able to solve professional-journalistic problems independently and creatively based on the academic and practical skills that they gain. Graduates will be recognised as fully trained journalists by the journalistic professional associations in Afghanistan and are expected to take on functions within journalism in Afghanistan.

Entrance Requirements

- A-levels or their equivalent are required for admission.
- Besides, a four- to six-week internship (with documentation) at a media institution is desired.
- A maximum of 45 study entrants to the course per year is recommended.
- If a limited number of admissions per academic year is set and more applicants apply for admission than there are places available, special oral and/or written admission tests should be introduced.

Subjects

- The discipline of journalism comprises three areas: theoretical journalism, practical journalism and communication science. These areas are grouped into modules with several module units respectively (see appendix).
- The desired subjects of the compulsory electives should be regulated by the latter. Desired compulsory electives would be sociology and political science.

- The subjects for special training (religion, languages, IT) are regulated in the guidelines for the specialist BA course in Communication Science/Media Studies at the state universities in Afghanistan.

Forms of Teaching

- Forms of teaching are: Lecture, tutorial, seminar, exercises, colloquium.

<i>Lectures</i>	offer a systematic and structured overview over a wider or specific technical area. Lectures will be produced and held by lecturers.
<i>Tutorials</i>	<p>will be offered in combination with lectures.</p> <p>They serve to:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> (1) follow-up and provide more depth on the knowledge conveyed in the lecture and (2) practice scientific working techniques. <p>They should be scheduled for groups of students not exceeding 15 per tutorial.</p> <p>Tutorials will be conducted under the responsibility and guidance of lecturers by one or more advanced students who are well- or highly qualified in their academic achievements.</p>
<i>Seminars</i>	<p>are a discursive form of academic teaching covering a general or special topic of a subject. The number of participants should be limited to 20 to 25 students per seminar. The task of seminars is to practice the independent solution of scientific questions based on theoretical and methodical knowledge as well as scientifically proven expertise by the students. Forms of student work are oral presentations and written essays.</p> <p>Seminars are produced and led by lecturers and praxis-qualified teachers. In justified cases, an advanced student who is well- or highly qualified in his or her academic achievements can also lead seminars.</p>
<i>Exercises</i>	<p>serve to practice individual journalistic-practical skills (such as news writing), journalistic-practical procedures (such as research) and collective conception and action processes (such as editorial or project work). The number of participants should be limited to 10 to 15 students. Exercises are organised and led by a lecturer or assistant lecturer (experienced journalist).</p>

Colloquia are a discursive form of academic teaching. On the one hand, they serve as an advisory accompaniment of the bachelor's dissertation from the first concept to completion and, on the other, to reflect on the experiences collated during the internship. Colloquia are produced and led by lecturers.

Time scope of the course and time required for independent study

- The time required to complete the core subject course averages 16 contact periods per week (rounded off). In the elective subject (4 contact periods per week) and specialist study fields (approx. 10 contact periods per week), the time required to complete the course is on average 14 contact periods per week (rounded off).
- The total teaching time is 30 contact periods per week.
- The time required for independent study (in particular, follow-up work on courses, reading, preparation of oral seminar papers and written seminar papers, preparation of examinations) should be calculated at 18 to 20 contact periods per week.

Journalism Science

1 – Basics

- Introduction: Fields and Theories
- Introduction: The Profession of Journalism – Functions, Roles, Self-Images, etc.
- Media System of Afghanistan: History and Structure

2 – Norms & Ethics

- Media Law of Afghanistan: Media Law: Principles and Norms, New Developments Religion and Journalism
- Ethics of Journalism – Consolidation

3 – International Journalism

- International Media Systems
- Foreign Reporting

4 – Organization and Economy

- Newsroom-Management
- Media / Internet Economics
- Digital Transformation of Media

5 – Special Methods of Journalism

- Investigative Journalism

6 – Preparation and Reflection

- Preparation Undergraduate Dissertation
- Preparation Internship
- Undergraduate Colloquium
- Reflection on Internship

7 – Undergraduate Dissertation

Journalism

1 – Forms of Journalistic Presentation

- News, Report, Comment, Interview, Feature

2 – Introduction to Journalism

- Print Journalism
- Online Journalism
- Radio Journalism
- Television Journalism
- Cross-Media Journalism

3 – Editorial Work

- Print
e.g. production of an edition of a student/ university magazine
- Radio/Television
e.g. Production of a Radio/Television programme

4 – Journalistic Projects on special Topics

- e.g. Journalistic Challenges in Afghanistan*
- 1) Report: Social Inequalities
- 2) Mediation in Journalism in a multi-ethnic Society
- 3) Investigation: Politics and Journalism
- 4) Narration: Native Culture & Enculturation

5 – Internship

Communication Science

1 – Basics

- Introduction: Research Field and Theories, Process of Communication
- Professional Fields in Public Communication: Advertising, Public Relations, Social Media
- Relation to Journalism
- Communication History of Afghanistan

2 – Methods of empirical Communication Research

- Methods of empirical Communication Research: Content Analysis, Interview
- Statistics Basics
- Statistic Deepening: Data Analysis

3 – Public, Diffusion, Media Use and Media Effects

- Publics and Public Opinion:
- Theories, Models, Development in Afghanistan
- Diffusion of Information: Theories, Models and Research Results Media and oral Communication, esp. in Afghanistan
- Media Use and Media Effects: Theories, Models and Research Results
- Media Use and Media Evaluation in Afghanistan

4 – History of Communication

- History of Communication in Afghanistan

1st Academic Year

Introduction to Journalism Science Fields & Theories of Journalism Profession of Journalism: <i>Functions, Roles, Self-Images etc.</i>		Introduction to Journalism Science Fields & Theories of Journalism Profession of Journalism: <i>Functions, Roles, Self-Images etc.</i>		Elective	Computer	Language (first)	Religion	1 st Semester 20 CP
4 CH / 8 CP	Lec / Tut / Exam							
Media System of Afghanistan History & Structure	2 CH / 4 CP	Media Law Principles, Norms & new Developments	2 CH / 4 CP					
Sem		Lec / Exam						

Religion and Journalism		Introduction to Communication Science Research Fields & Theories		Elective	Computer	Language (first)	Religion	2 nd Semester 22 CP
2 CH / 4 CP	Sem	2 CH / 4 CP	Sem					
Ethics of Journalism	2 CH / 4 CP	Professional Fields in Public Communication Advertisement, PR, Social Media Relation to Journalism	2 CH / 4 CP					
Sem		Sem						

2nd Academic Year

Newsroom Management 4CH/8CP Sem	Media Law Principles, Norms & new Developments 2CH/4CP Lec/Exam	Editorial Work e.g. Production of an Edition of a Students- / University-Magazine 8CH / 10CP Sem / Tut	Elective	Computer	Language (first)	Religion	3 rd Semester 26 CP
International Media Systems 2CH/4CP Sem	Statistics Basics 2CH/4CP Lec/Exam						

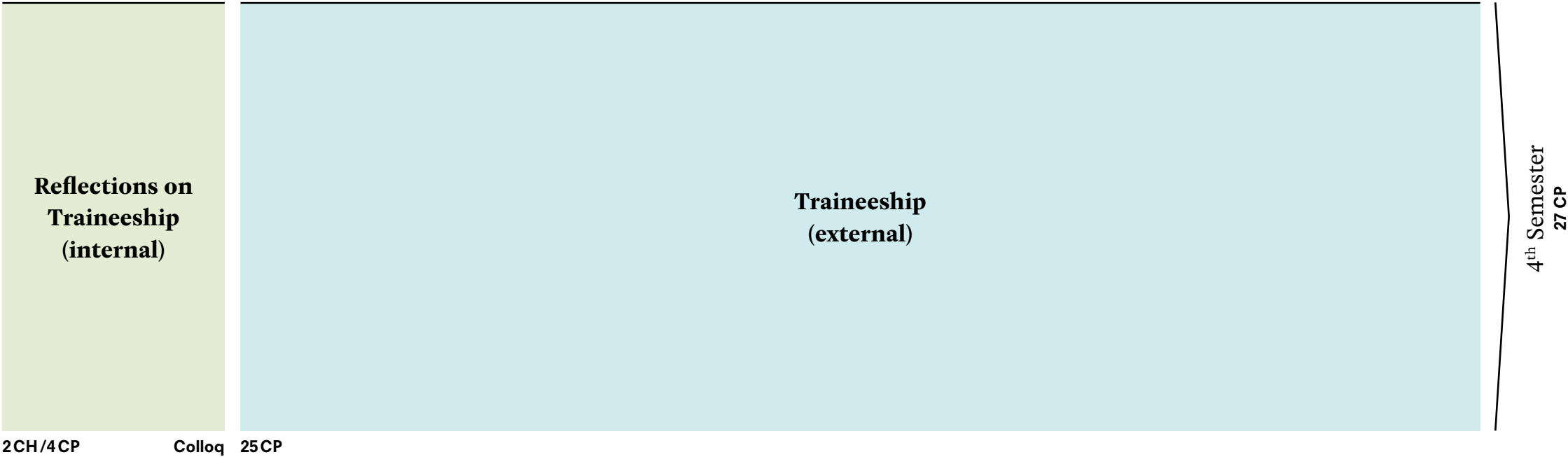
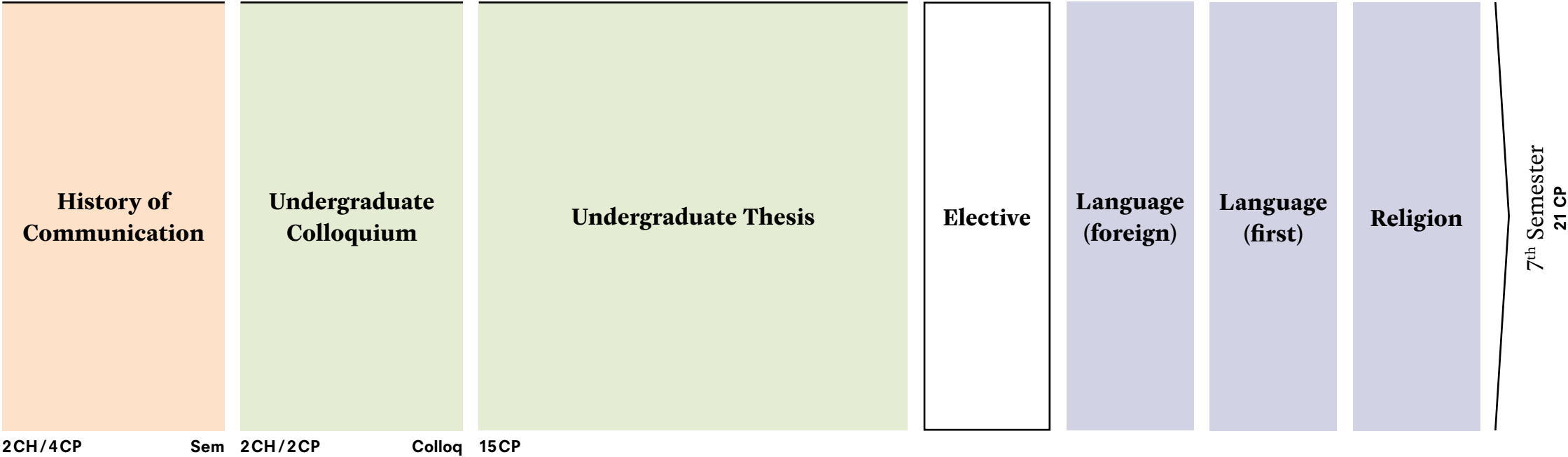
International Journalism 1CH/2CP Lec	Public Spheres & Public Opinion Data Analysis 2CH/4CP Lec/Exam	Editorial Work e.g. Production of a Radio- / TV-Program 8CH / 10CP Sem / Tut	Elective	Language (foreign)	Language (first)	Religion	4 th Semester 24 CP
Media Economics 2CH/4CP Sem	Professional Fields in Public Communication Theories, Development in Afghanistan 2CH/4CP Lec/Exam						

3rd Academic Year

Internet Economics	Investigative Journalism	Journalistic Projects <i>e.g. Journalistic Challenges in Afghanistan</i> (optionally Print, Radio, Television, On-line, cross-media) <i>1. Project</i> Report: Social Inequalities of Information <i>2. Project</i> Mediation in Journalism in a multi-ethnic Society		Elective	Language (foreign)	Language (first)	Religion	5 th Semester 20 CP
1 CH / 2 CP	Lec 2 CH / 4 CP Sem							
Digital Transformation of Media	Diffusion of Information Theories, Research Results, Media- & Oral Communication	8 CH / 8 CP						
1 CH / 2 CP	Lec 2 CH / 4 CP Sem	Sem / Tut						

Preparation 1 Undergraduate Thesis	Media Effects Theories, Research Results	<i>3. Project</i> Investigation: Politics and Journalism <i>4. Project</i> Narrative Journalism: Native Culture & Enculturation		Elective	Language (foreign)	Language (first)	Religion	6 th Semester 20 CP
1 CH / 2 CP	Lec 2 CH / 4 CP Lec / Exam							
Preparation 2 Traineeship	Media Use & Media Evaluation in Afghanistan	8 CH / 8 CP						
1 CH / 2 CP	Lec 2 CH / 4 CP Sem	Sem / Tut						

4th Academic Year



b) Recommendations for a master's programme in Communication Science at the Universities of Afghanistan

Study programme concept

This master's programme should be offered to deepen the knowledge acquired on the bachelor programme. In the master's programme in Communication Science, students should deal with the following: firstly, how politics and economy, society, everyday life and culture are influenced by media and communication, including classical as well as new media and social media. Secondly, two modules should offer theoretical and methodological skills as well as practical development communication skills.

Masters' students should be familiarised with all facets of scientific work by discussing relevant issues, collecting empirical findings, evaluating them and presenting them in a research report. They should be prepared for this using a well-founded training in social science methodology – closely connecting theory and research practice. This course of studies could only work in small seminar sizes, intensive mentoring by professors and a wide range of topics, starting from the various research areas.

In line with the requirements of the dynamic labour market in Afghanistan, the master's programme in Communication Science should open career perspectives. Thus, this course should provide basics for work in the areas of journalism (print, online and radio), agencies, market and opinion research, publishing, marketing, strategic communications and the public sector. At the very least, the master's programme is meant to qualify students for further scientific and educational work at universities.

Theoretical aspects

Currently, there is no master's programme in Communication Science in Afghanistan. The students are thus forced to go abroad to receive training as qualified experts, who are especially needed in education. Since this is very elaborate and expensive, the intro-

duction of a respective course for a master's programme in Afghanistan is recommended to enable students to obtain this training/education in their own country.

On the *micro level*, the study programme could prepare students in particular for leading positions, which are in high demand in the media industry or at state institutions. Also, it would open the way for further qualifications, for example, a PhD.

However, on the *meso level*, in the long term, this master's programme could offer a long-awaited, highly qualified education to young academics at Afghanistan's universities. These trainees are the key prerequisite for the reform of journalism training at a tertiary level. The curriculum could offer topics and content for which qualified professors are also available.

On the *macro level*, it could broaden the field for an elite on the dynamic vocational market in the media sector in Afghanistan (high editorial levels) and in science. Graduates could serve as role models in the Afghan media system through their professional and ethical practices and therefore promote positive effects in the media sector and society as a whole.

Organisation

Since there is currently no master's programme in Communication Science in Afghanistan, it would have to be conceived from scratch. To do this, content, modules and structures would have to be developed.

Unlike the dual bachelor system, the master's programme in Communication Science would place a special focus on scientific work. It would, in turn, form the foundation for later work in teaching and research at the university. For this reason, universities in particular carry a major responsibility for the introduction and implementation of the master's programme at the meso level. Many conditions must be met, e.g. regarding staff, organisation and infrastructure.

At the micro level, the teaching staff needs to be sufficiently qualified as well. To meet these requirements, agreements, co-operations and grants/sponsorships need to be put in place by the

ministry at the macro level. The ministry would also have to determine the necessary regulations and support for the implementation of the new master's programme.

B

Recommendations
for a master's
programme
in Communication
Science at the
Universities
of Afghanistan

Brief description

- A four-semester consecutive and research-oriented master's degree in the core subject of Communication Science with one compulsory elective subject and one special subject (Religion).
- The core subject adds up to 120 credit points.
Qualification: Master of Science.

Educational target

- The main objective of the programme is the theoretical and methodological training of young academics in Communication Science/Public Communication/Journalism. Graduates should acquire knowledge about structures, processes, contents, use and effects as well as the history of public-media and interpersonal communication. They should be able to assess the quality of communication science research results according to scientific criteria and to conduct independent research.

Entry requirements

- Bachelor degree with at least a good degree;
English skills at B2
- Aptitude interview

Disciplines

- The training in the core subject comprises core areas in the disciplines of Communication Science/Public Communication/Journalism for the following three modules: Theory, Method, Application.
- The theory module must be completed by all students on the master's programme.
- Afterwards, the study in the Methods and Applications module should be in one of the main areas of the core subject (in our recommendation, for example, Empirical Communication

Research/Media Economics & Media Structure/History of Media & Media Culture; see appendix), from which the topic of the master's dissertation will later be chosen.

- Study achievements in the Methods and Applications module must be in at least one other area of specialisation.
- The third semester can be used as a semester abroad.
- The desirable subjects of the elective subject should be regulated with this. Desirable elective subjects would be Sociology and Political Science.

Forms of teaching

Teaching forms are lectures, seminars, exercises, colloquia* (*see bachelor's course in Journalism).

- The *lecture* in the Theory Module should be organised as a ring lecture under joint responsibility and participation of several lecturers.
- *Exercises* in the Methods and Application Module serve the conceptual and research practical training of theoretical and methodical knowledge.
- In the *Application Module*, students complete smaller research projects, either with the entire seminar or in working groups from the theoretical and methodological conception via the actual study to the description, classification and presentation of the results.

Time scope of the course and time required for independent study

- The time scope of teaching in the core subject is 8 to 10 contact periods per week.

- The time scope of teaching in the compulsory elective subject (at least 4 contact periods per week) and particularly in the training area (approx. 2 contact periods per week) comes to at least 6 contact periods per week.
- The entire time scope of independent study (especially the follow-up of the teaching events, reading, elaboration of oral seminar presentation and written seminar papers, preparation for the exams) should be calculated as a minimum of 32 hours contact periods per week.

1st Academic Year

MAIN AREAS			Elective	Religion	1 st Semester 30 CP
<i>Empirical Communication Science</i>	<i>Media Economics & Media Studies</i>	<i>History of Media & Media Culture</i>			
THEORY MODULE Communication, Media, Society Perspectives of Communication Science			Elective	Religion	1 st Semester 30 CP
4CH/15CP <div>Lec (by various speakers) + Exam</div>					
Scientific Theory and Theories Basic Theories of Social Science and theories of Communication Science					
4CH/15CP <div>Lec (by various speakers) + Exam</div>			Elective	Religion	2 nd Semester 30 CP
METHODS MODULE 1 Methodology & Methods of the empirical Communication Research Data Collection	METHODS MODULE 1 Methodology & Methods of Media Economy Media Analysis	METHODS MODULE 1 Methodology of Hermeneutics Sources of Media History and Media Culture			
2CH/10CP <div>Sem + Tut</div>	2CH/10CP <div>Sem + Tut</div>	2CH/10CP <div>Sem + Tut</div>			
APPLICATION MODULE 1 Research Project 1	APPLICATION MODULE 1 Research Project 1	APPLICATION MODULE 1 Research Project 1	Elective	Religion	2 nd Semester 30 CP
2CH/10CP <div>Sem + Tut</div>	2CH/10CP <div>Sem + Tut</div>	2CH/10CP <div>Sem + Tut</div>			

2nd Academic Year

MAIN AREAS			Elective	Religion	3 rd Semester 30 CP
<i>Empirical Communication Science</i>	<i>Media Economics & Media Structures</i>	<i>History of Media & Media Culture</i>			
METHODS MODULE 2 Methodology & Methods of empirical Communication Science Data Evaluation	METHODS MODULE 2 Methodology & Methods of Media Economy Media Statistics	METHODS MODULE 1 Methodology of Hermeneutics Quantitative Methods of Communication Science			
2CH/10CP Sem + Tut	2CH/10CP Sem + Tut	2CH/10CP Sem + Tut			
APPLICATION MODULE 2 Research Project 2	APPLICATION MODULE 2 Research Project 2	APPLICATION MODULE 2 Research Project 2			
2CH/10CP Sem + Tut	2CH/10CP Sem + Tut	2CH/10CP Sem + Tut			
GRADUATE COLLOQUIUM	GRADUATE THESIS Selectively in the foci <div><i>Empirical Communication Science</i><i>Media Economics & Media Structures</i><i>History of Media & Media Culture</i></div>				4 th Semester 30 CP
2CH/5CP Colloq	25CP				

c) Recommendations for further training of practising journalists at universities in Afghanistan

Study programme concept

By further training, we understand academically oriented and professional further qualification through technical and specialist knowledge. Occupational research agrees that such further training is regularly required to be able to exercise a profession in a state-of-the-art manner. For journalism as a profession, this requirement poses a particular challenge. As a result of far-reaching innovations in information technology (digitisation, research, competition) as well as editorial, structural and organisational changes, the journalistic profession has been undergoing a process of change that has been ongoing for several decades now and has had extensive consequences for working structures and conditions.

At the *micro level*, further training is aimed at the individual journalist and aims to improve (or expand or change) his or her professional practice and opportunities on the labour market.

Closely related to this, on the *meso level*, is the goal of a social and functional improvement (or expansion or change) of the journalistic performance of a particular newspaper, radio or television programme or media institution in general, oriented towards the common good and the market. For this reason, publishers or media owners should have a high and sustainable interest in the further training of their journalists.

At the *macro level*, the debate also addresses the fundamental goal of improving the quality of the basic functions of journalism and the media as a whole, but also the special expectations and demands placed on journalism and the media in specific social or national formations (such as in transition countries) – in Afghanistan, for example, the contribution to inter-ethnic mediation and nation-building in the country.

Further training (particularly in countries with economies in transition) should provide further training for professionals, both with and without specific (academic) training, through an update

of expertise, i.e. the theoretical and practical knowledge of media and journalism. Journalism as a profession is also confronted with a permanent renewal of expertise – i.e. various non-specialist areas of knowledge, which are to be reported, e.g. on society, politics, culture, religion, economy, technology, etc. The training of journalists should therefore also extend to an update of the expertise, at least on a point-by-point basis, given by experts from the relevant sciences or subject areas.

Organisation

In modern Western societies, state, public and private institutions and not least of all companies in the media industry are involved in continuing vocational training. Historically, however, this has been an important task for trade associations, especially when it comes to professions, i.e. academic professions requiring scientific and theoretical studies. Most professions have sought cooperation with universities which conduct research that is important for further education and can communicate current research results. This function has been increasingly fulfilled by private research institutions, especially those in industry and the service sectors.

The organisation and delivery of training for professional journalists, which is of great importance due to the specific professional situation in journalism in Afghanistan, is likely to exceed the capacity of the Faculty of Journalism and Mass Communication at Nangarhar University. We therefore recommend that these measures are organised as a joint task of the Mass Communication/ Public Communication/ Journalism Department in cooperation with professional associations of journalism and media institutions at the most suitable (university) location. The subject, trade associations and the media institutions each have their own knowledge and competencies as to which technical and specialist knowledge is relevant to further education. They should reach a consensus on the fastest-spreading – possibly specific to the field, media or department – thematic priorities, the organisation (or its form, financing and venue) of an annual training event for practising

journalists lasting several days, and provide proven experts (lecturers, journalists/media managers, etc.) as speakers and recruit proven experts from the subject areas.

C

Recommendations for further training of practising journalists at universities in Afghanistan

Brief description

About once a year, a conference should be held for the further training of practising journalists both with and without specific (academic) training by experts in the fields of Communication Science/Public Communication/Journalism, Journalism/the Media and Specialist Areas of Journalism. A certificate of participation can be issued.

Training objective

The purpose of the conference is to contribute to the updating and expansion of expertise and knowledge (see below) of practising journalists to improve their professional practice and their chances on the labour market. At the same time, the aim is to contribute to a social and functional improvement (or expansion or change) in the journalistic performance of a particular newspaper, radio or television programme or media institution in general, which is oriented towards the common good and/or the market.

Continuous evaluation of the function of the conference is recommended by a written survey of the participants, starting after the first meeting.

Participation requirements

Working journalists from Afghanistan are entitled to participate. The number of participants per conference should be determined and carried out based on human, spatial and financial resources.

Training subjects

The training subjects should relate to the specialist and technical knowledge of journalism:

- Specialist knowledge refers to the area of knowledge which, on the one hand, concerns the scientific and theoretical research of the process of public-media communication (Communication Science; Journalism Science) and, on the other hand, the practical and manual forms of research,

representation and presentation of journalism as well as the technology, organisation and structure of the practical journalistic and editorial trade.

- Expertise means the field of knowledge (society, political science, culture, religion, economy, technology, etc.), from which the journalist must write, report and judge.

For each conference or its individual parts, depending on current circumstances, resources or needs, priority topics should be chosen, which may change from conference to conference.

Forms of communication

The presentation (approx. 45 minutes) with subsequent discussion should be the basic form of communication at the conference. It is, of course, advisable to be flexible in the forms of communication, depending on the topic or needs/wishes.

We strongly recommend guided tours/visits to exemplary editorial offices, media facilities (specialist knowledge) or, for example, state or cultural institutions, but also commercial enterprises and the like (expertise).

Organisation and venue

The conference should be planned, organised and held as a joint task of the subject Communication Science/Public Communication/Journalism at state universities in cooperation with professional associations of journalism and media institutions.

The organisers should decide on the most suitable venue for the meeting. It might be advantageous to hold the conference in the state capital. However, it is also conceivable to change the venue from conference to conference (e.g. at the headquarters of the state universities in the provinces of Afghanistan).

Timeframe

A two-day event (with an additional day for arrival and departure) is recommended as the basic concept. The event can be extended by one or more days, depending on the needs/circumstances and possibilities.

Day 1

Arrival

Welcome, Program
Experts from Communication Science
and the Professional Praxis

Cooperation Journalists –
Further Education
Tasks, Organization, Perspective

15:00–18:45

Viewing / Visit

20:00

Day 2

Expert knowledge
Experts of professional praxis
Focus-Topic (example)
Expectations of the praxis on the
academic journalism education

1st Presentation + Discussion

9:00–10:15

2nd Presentation + Discussion

10:15–11:30

2nd Presentation + Discussion

11:30–12:45

Expert knowledge
Experts from Communication Science
Focus-Topic (example)
Communication Science Training, Aims,
Content, Professional Fields, Problems

1st Presentation + Discussion

15:00–16:15

2nd Presentation + Discussion

16:15–17:30

2nd Presentation + Discussion

17:30–18:45

Viewing / Visit

20:00

Day 3

Expertise
Areas of Expertise – Experts
Focus-Topic (example)
Nation-Building in Afghanistan,
Progress or Regress?

1st Presentation + Discussion

9:00–10:15

2nd Presentation + Discussion

10:15–11:30

2nd Presentation + Discussion

11:30–12:45

Departure

2 Recommendations for degree programmes in Development Communication and Public Relations at universities in Afghanistan

Development Communication

The introduction of a degree programme in Development Communication would be a useful and important addition to the range of courses on offer in Afghanistan. Particularly in transition countries, there is a need for well-trained people who can support and advance the development processes in their country. Other transition countries (e.g. India, Philippines) have already successfully introduced corresponding courses of study in Development Communication and such courses could be expected to have a positive impact in Afghanistan too.

This programme should focus on teaching students how to use digital and traditional communication to promote social change. Many specific skills are required, but the key and common goal should be to learn how communication can bring about social and behavioural change.²⁸ In this study programme, students learn to build a consensus to strengthen an understanding of national development and identity by making effective use of the range of available communication strategies, whether through constructive reporting, dialogue or the production of media campaigns.

Within four semesters, communication-scientific questions should be dealt with, a 3 – 6 months internship at a media company or state public institution should be completed, a one-semester research project carried out and qualitative and quantitative research methods should be deepened. The degree programme is designed to give students a high level of flexibility to set individual priorities and explore areas of interest. The study programme should combine seminars on journalism and new media with extensive methodological education.

One focus should be on developmental communication and practical empirical research, and students should

²⁸ The focus could be on communication for development, participatory research methods and strategic communication and development.

acquire problem-solving skills by developing knowledge in this field.

The topics of development communication include:

- Introduction to development communication: theory and practice
- Advocacy communication, social marketing, edutainment, social mobilisation
- Behaviour change communication
- Traditional media for development
- New communication technologies and development
- Communication in conflict and post-conflict societies
- Constructive journalism
- Constructive communication

Draft for an MA in Development Communication at the University XXX in Afghanistan (4 semesters)

- Within four semesters, the training aims to develop young academics on a specialised degree in Development Communication. The objectives of the programme are designed to meet the growing need for human resources for communication experts for the development sector in Afghanistan and include:
 - Improving human resources with specific knowledge and communication skills as regards social change.
 - Expanding the knowledge base regarding theories of development and its relationship to culture, behavioural change, social transformation and human rights principles.
 - Understanding the more recent approaches to C4D concepts, methods and techniques.
 - Facilitating interventions for social transformation in the field of exposure to techniques of design and development of effective C4D strategies.
- Compulsory subject (with or without a compulsory elective subject) with 160 credit points (cp)
- Duration of lectures, seminars and exercises: 2 contact periods per week
- Number of admissions per year of matriculation: max. 15 students;
- Formal admission requirements: proof of a bachelor's degree and a total of eight-week internships in one or more development communication institutions, Level B2 English language skills and selection interview
- Start of studies: winter semester

MODULE					
Semester	Year 1				
1	Afghanistan: Demography, society, culture and identity	Theories of Communication and Media	Theories of Communication for Development	Communication Research Methods	Issues in Development
2	Development Journalism	Media for Development	Participatory media Production	Human Rights and Media	Information & Communication Technology for Development
	Year 2				
3	Campaign Planning Message Design and Evaluation	NGO participation and management	Folk and Community Media	Constructive Journalism	Internship
4	Master's programme and project <i>Students would be attached to different governmental or non-governmental development agencies to carry out a semester-long communication campaign project during the fourth semester.</i>				

Draft for BA in Public Communication (PC) and Public Relations at the University XXXX in Afghanistan (4 semesters)

The tension between the areas of journalism and public relations has been described in chapter 1.2 under “Journalism education: history, form, content and implementation”. The occupational ethos of both professions is very different – e.g. regarding social responsibility or methods of finance. Nonetheless, both professions communicate with the population via the (mass) media and therefore have an important societal role with a major responsibility. For this reason, well trained and qualified persons are needed in the field of public relations as well. Since there is no academic programme for public relations in Afghanistan to date, it should also be created. The subject of public relations aims to educate students to become experts in communication; they go on to be responsible for internal and public communication in companies, organisations or public authorities. So they review and create information regarding the aims, procedures and actions of respective institutions available for internal recipients e.g. their colleagues, or external recipients, i.e. the public. It is important to be able to choose the appropriate method of mediation – e.g. texts, images, videos, conversations – as well as the appropriate channels – e.g. press briefings, social media, meetings – for the respective target group. Especially in a culturally and linguistically diverse country like Afghanistan, it is vital to align content to different target groups. Since this kind of work comes with great responsibility, not least because the aim of public relations is the positive depiction of the respective institution, good training and education are essential.

Public relations’ topics include:

- Introduction to Public Relations: Theory and Praxis
- Public Communication
- Political Communication
- Internal and external (corporation) communication
- Intercultural Communication

- Public Relations and Marketing
- Media use and management

Characteristics

- Educational target: this bachelor's programme in Public Communication (PC) and Public Relations (PR) enables students to perform academically founded and theoretically reflected leading positions in the areas of PC/PR and government communication. Also, it serves the scientific qualification of the research area PC/PR
- Compulsory subject (with or without a compulsory elective subject) with XXX credit points/cp
- Duration of lectures, seminars and exercises are 2 contact periods per subject
- Number of admissions per enrollment year max. 45 students. (Currently approx. 70 students; optimal: 30 students)
- Formal admission requirements: proof of a total of four weeks internship at one or more PC or PR institution as a minimum and a two-step selection process (documentation to be submitted, personal interview).
- Study begins: winter semester

YEAR 1

Semester	Educational Fields		Module		
1 st	Communication Science Foundation	Process of Public Communication	Media Impact	Methods of Communication Science	The Political System of Afghanistan
2 nd	Communication Science Foundation PC/PR Expertise	The Media System of Afghanistan	Fundamentals of PC/PR: theory, history and structures	Afghanistan: History, culture, society	

YEAR 2

3 rd	PC/PR technical knowledge and skills Key qualification	Profession PC/PR	Methods and instruments of PC/PR	Online PC/PR	Language Course I
4 th	PC/PR technical knowledge and skills Key qualification	Praxis fields of PC/PR	Strategic PR		Language Course II

YEAR 3

Semester	Educational Fields		Module		
5 th	PC/PR skills Key qualifications	Conception PR project and Internship (six months, outside the university)	Praxis-Reflection (at the university)	Language Course III	
6 th	Exams	Bachelor dissertation	Exam Colloquium		

3 Transformation plan: recommendations for a legal, administrative, organisational and practical realisation

In the previous chapter, it was shown what a reformed dual bachelor's programme in Journalism and a master's programme in Communication Science at Nangarhar University (and beyond), a further education programme for practising journalists and a programme for Development Communication and Public Relations should look like. In the following chapter, we discuss concrete ways and processes for the implementation and reform of education programmes for media professionals in Afghanistan. We will first show which fundamental measures have to be taken at a micro-, meso- and macro level to ensure the process is successful. Subsequently, there will be a step-by-step reform plan (brief and detailed) that will show how the introduction of the dual bachelor's programme, taken in different steps, can be successful.

a) General guidelines for the implementation

The systematic evaluation of the relevant international research literature on journalism and journalism training (monographs, collective publications, specialist journals) led to the identification of three core elements for the model to be developed for dual journalism training at Nangarhar University (Afghanistan):

- A specialisation, i.e. “burden-sharing”, of specialist education at existing state universities. This is not only an urgent issue due to the staff shortages, modest financial resources and technical facilities at Nangarhar University (as well as four other state universities in Afghanistan) but also due to the third field of training envisaged for the model – the qualification or recruitment of academic staff for teaching and research.
- This task could be organised in the form of a consecutive four-semester master's programme in Communication Science that concentrates on the transfer of theory and methods

(with additional key qualifications in didactics and, if necessary, consolidation of language skills). A consecutive master's programme of this kind does not necessarily have to be established at Nangarhar University since its capacities are lacking in every respect.

- *Theoretical training* skills (knowledge transfer and qualification). The subject areas of an international (Western) standard have been identified as:
 - *journalistic* i.e. communication scientific *specialist knowledge* (such as e.g. media structures, media law, politics, economics, media impact);
 - *expertise* (specific to different sections, usually consisting of knowledge gained in a minor subject, e.g. politics, society/culture, economics, basic social sciences including social science methods; foreign languages, esp. skills in English)
 - *practical training* skills as well as their reflective accompaniment (acquisition of practical skills, experience and application). Here it is important to distinguish between:
 - *internal* university training: praxis courses to train individual skills as e.g. selection and research of journalistic topics and content; journalistic forms of presentation as e.g. news, report, interview, documentation (internal teaching assignment; editorial training desks)
 - and an *external* training that builds on it: experience in the praxis within the framework of collective editorial action such as e.g. research, selection, editing and presentation; journalistic forms of presentation (see above); (internships at different *media outlets* (e.g. newspaper, radio, television, online) and *editorials* (e.g. politics: regional, national, international; society culture, religion; economics; entertainment); editorial organisation and management).

The reform of existing journalism training at Nangarhar University needs manifold legal and administrative decisions and measures that result from these and the implications of which cannot be expected to be limited to the faculty, its lecturers and the discipline

of Communication Science/Journalism, but which will have consequences for other faculties/disciplines at the university and beyond i.e. at other universities in the country. For this reason, a high measure of institutional initiatives and decisions (*macro level*), measures and investment (*meso level*) and individual engagement, action and investment (*micro level*) is needed in regards to the implementation of these reform issues in journalism training at tertiary level in Nangarhar. This can be presented as follows:

Macro level: institutional initiatives and decisions.

This includes:

- The classification of reformed study programmes in the existing university structures (bachelor/(consecutive) master's programme (subsidiary subjects; compulsory-/compulsory elective modules))
 - tertiary education regulations (including capacity determination/admission restrictions, study and examination regulations; examinations)
 - contractual arrangements between the university/faculty and professional associations (e.g. recognition of the degree) or media institutions (e.g. *practical* training places and fields outside the university)
- In the long term, the installation of a consolidating *master's programme in Communication Science/Journalism* – as recommended in the research literature. This raises the higher education and subject policy question of which university in the country would be the most appropriate location.
- Restrictions on admissions: this is essential for journalism training at tertiary level to provide quality education. Allocation of study places based on the professional requirements and conditions of the Faculties of Journalism and Mass Communication, which has not been practised by the MHE to date, is essential for a sound journalism training at a tertiary level under international standards. Given the didactically reasonable size of the university's internal practical exercises (max. 15 students) and the number of internships of approximately

one semester available in media institutions, a *considerable restriction of admissions* should be planned and introduced step-by-step.

- The establishment of a professional community: to ensure an exchange of research results between the various Afghan universities and the international professional community, an *Afghan professional community* and associated professional journal should be established.
- Internationalisation: *international networks* within the discipline of journalism are essential. Afghan representatives of the discipline must participate in *international conferences* and obtain membership of *international organisations*. This is the only way to ensure the quality of Afghan journalism training.

Meso level: the necessary organisational and technical requirements.

These include:

- The reform of the existing bachelor's programme, which requires not only a fundamental change in the subjects and contents of teaching by appropriately competent or qualified lecturers, but also a fundamental change in didactics towards forms of collaborative work on scientific questions and problems, joint reading and discussion between lecturer and students on the one hand, and independent reading and reflection by students on the other. Lecturers therefore also need a further qualification in the didactics of higher education;
- Training staff (e.g. budgeted posts; qualifications; lectureships). One sustainable solution could be to release two lecturers respectively for a four-semester master's programme to obtain a degree abroad (e.g. Germany, Sweden, USA), financed through national or international grants, by the MHE and/or the university, for between five and eight or nine consecutive years. The government and/or the university should create long-term parameters and guidelines to ensure success (modelled on EU/DAAD sponsorship schemes, among others);
- Alignment of the curriculum:

- As far as can be gleaned from the interviews, the curriculum of the current bachelor's programme does not contain any theoretical or methodological subjects in Communication Science that are now part of the international standard in journalism training and are recommended in the research literature regarding the training in developing and transformation countries;
 - Although the programme includes training of prospective journalists differentiated according to two media groups (press and broadcasting), it is rather unspecific and does not provide for a further differentiation according to certain functions or fields of work in journalism, nor does it provide for a scientific deepening (e.g. for the training of young academics).
- Besides, the curriculum lacks systematically coordinated and/or constructive university internal (teaching editorial) and external (internships) practical educational elements;
- *internal university/faculty technical facilities* (e.g. computer pool; editorial training desks (press, radio, television, online media). Nangarhar University does not have the technological media equipment required for systematic practical journalism training within the university, nor the technical and service personnel required for its operation and maintenance. There is also a lack of teaching positions for professionally experienced and reflective journalists or editors to teach practical knowledge (e.g. exercises for journalistic forms of presentation; teaching editorial staff to practise collective editorial action).
 - *Collaboration with the media*: to implement a dual course, a systematic collaboration and exchange with praxis is desired. Long-term contracts with media corporations detailing internships for students are necessary.
 - *Contracts*: for the step-by-step introduction of a bachelor's programme in dual journalist training to be successful, contracts between the university and (private and state-organised) media corporations need to be established – an

area that has not yet been explored by Nangarhar University/Faculty for Journalism and Mass Communication. These contracts, which must be as legally binding as possible, should concern the duration and continuity of a sufficient number of internships, ideally of around six months, and should seek to ensure that students receive professionally relevant training in the media companies (e.g. training in one or two editorial offices) through internships. As already indicated above, there are first signs of agreement from the side of the media institutions and/or corporations regarding constructive support of the reformation of Nangarhar University/Faculty for Journalism and Mass Communication.

- The reform of the existing journalism training at Nangarhar University requires, due to lecturers' teaching loads, teaching imports from other subjects (Afghanistan's Political System: Law, History, Political Science), either temporarily or permanently.
- Lecturers: a systematic integration of external lecturers is urgently needed since they would be a judicious addition to regular teachers.

Micro level: the necessary structural, legal, technical and personnel requirements. These include:

- *Further training:* a fundamental prerequisite for a reform of the study programmes is the further qualification of the lecturers working in core areas of Communication Science/Journalism. A sound academic journalism training following international standards can only be offered in Afghanistan if the university teaching staff are also qualified following these standards and topics. To train lecturers to become experts in a particular field, it is necessary to create the legal and administrative prerequisites for the specialisation of the fields of work and teaching areas. Furthermore, a high level of commitment and intensive self-study is required at the individual level. This goes hand in hand with improved foreign language skills since most

scientific findings in the field of journalism are published in English. However, not only the specialist knowledge of the lecturers should be fundamentally improved, but also their didactics.

- *Foreign languages:* it has long been no secret that the importance of multilingualism has increased dramatically worldwide in recent decades. Universities are increasingly active globally, communicating primarily in English – both internally and externally. It is therefore a logical consequence that demands on lecturers in international communication are constantly growing. However, learning a foreign language should not only be for professional reasons if the aim is long-term success. Access to knowledge bases and international educational institutions, an understanding of the cultural and linguistic diversity in the international diversity of science, but also access to the international scientific structures (professional societies, conferences, knowledge stocks, journals, manuals etc.) can only be secured in the long term if at least two living foreign languages are learned at school or in the basic study period.
- The specialist scientific, didactic and foreign language competence of the lecturers is low in comparison with other Western countries and does not meet the requirements for the reform of university journalism training according to parameters recommended by international literature
- The lecturers are active in university teaching but not in research and have no research experience.

For this reason, we need to emphasise a central result of our study again: in the short term, reform is not possible. A sustainable transformation, oriented on the standards of international Communication Science/Journalism in current journalism training at Nangarhar University with the introduction of a dual course can, in our view, only be achieved via a long-term transformation process implemented through several reform steps. Because of the above-mentioned weaknesses, we believe that these goals can only be achieved in the

long term, in several reform stages that build on each other if necessary, and preferably through financial and material support and accompanying advice from abroad. The chances of achieving this seem to be favourable at present since the European Union and Germany have a variety of support programmes, some of which are precisely tailored to the needs of the faculty – for example, scholarships for the further academic qualification of lecturers abroad or to establish media technology equipment in the faculty.

b) Step-by-step timetable for implementation

This reform is a long-term process with different stages of reform, and a period of about eight to ten years can be assumed. In addition to these reform steps, the further qualification of teaching staff, the internationalisation of the subject and the development of the infrastructure should be promoted throughout this period. The implementation of these reform steps requires financial resources, which should either be provided by the Afghan state or by international support programmes. The latter should first be sought and applied for by MHE and the professional community. We are convinced that the reform can only be achieved through a long-term transformation process involving several stages of reform.

YEARS 1-2
MODEL

Levels of action and activities/measures for long-term implementation

A Ministry/University Administration/Commission for Curricula

Policy decision on the introduction of dual theoretical-practical training of journalists at state universities: new special terminology for subject lectureships (e.g. Journalism; Communication Science, Development Communication)

- *Policy decision for the long-term development of study programmes introduced for:*
 - *dual theoretical and practical (internal and external) journalist training (bachelor's programme)*
 - *dual theoretical and practical (internal and external) specialised journalist training in the subject of Development Communication/Journalism (master's programme)*
 - *qualification of junior academics in the subject of Communication Science/Journalism (master's programme)*
 - *academic further training for practising journalists (shortened bachelor's programme) at state universities in Afghanistan: development of a model at Nangarhar University*
- Policy decision and legal foundation for the:
 - staggering of different consecutive study programmes (see above)
 - educational objectives and framework curricula
 - admission requirements for study programmes
 - introduction of admission restrictions for these study programmes
- Locate international partners to enable lecturers to complete a master's degree abroad
 - Europe (Germany, Sweden, Great Britain)
 - USA
 - Asia (India, Pakistan, Central Asia)
- Locate international partners for a joint provisional online master's programme (master's degrees for lecturers)
 - major advantage: several lecturers can obtain their MA degree on-site without too much effort and means. In the long-term, this should be done solely in Afghanistan.
- Locate international grants and sponsorship schemes for the further training of lecturers abroad and the creation of teaching resources

- Policy decision regarding the foundation of a “Communication Science” research centre
- Policy decision regarding the improvement of networks between national universities
- Policy decision regarding cooperation with the EC4SC research centre at the University of Leipzig (consultancy function in the implementation phase)
 - *Consultancy in: curriculum development*
 - *Consultancy in: introduction of a master’s programme*
 - *Consultancy in: cooperation partners for an MA for lecturers*
 - *Consultancy in: an expert community, research centre, trade journal*
 - *Consultancy in: translation of textbooks*
 - *International sponsorship schemes for teaching resources*
 - *Locate international cooperation*

B Institutes and faculties for Journalism and Public Communication in Afghanistan

- Policy decision on the introduction of specialist areas
 - *Internal cooperation with other subject areas (imports)*
 - *Integration of lecturers (experienced journalists)*
 - *External cooperation with media institutions (practical training and internship)*

C Academic qualification of lecturers in the subjects of Journalism and Public Communication

- Authorisation of the introduction of practical exercises and their implementation by lecturers from journalistic praxis
- Authorisation of approx. two-year leave for lecturers to continue academic training in specialist subjects at foreign universities (e.g. Germany, India, Great Britain or the USA)
- Provision/collection of national and international sponsorships/grants for academic further qualification of lecturers for approx. 10 years.

D University (Nangarhar)/Institute

- Creation of combined development- and planning commission of representatives from universities/institutes (lecturers and advanced students, media corporations, professional journalist unions) for planning and consultancy purposes regarding the procedure of a long-term introduction of dual journalism training at Nangarhar University
- Negotiation with media corporations on the provision of internship places (*Volontariat*)
- Staff planning (technicians, service personnel); spatial, technical and financial setup of an editorial training desk

E Institute lecturers

- Improvement of professional expertise
- Improvement and strengthening of English skills
- Improvement and transformation of didactic skills

F Curriculum (bachelor's programme)

- Policy decision and measures for the integration of praxis elements through cooperation with media corporations
 - Change in subjects and content (via expert and qualified lecturers)
 - Teaching imports from other disciplines (sociology, politics, religious studies, etc.)
 - Combination of monographs and internships (for final exams)
 - Policy decision: one compulsory internship per semester at an editorial desk as part of the curriculum

H Institute infrastructure (technology)

- Locate financial opportunities for facilities to set up editorial training desk
- Locate finance opportunities for editorial training desk personnel

I Media corporations

- Principles for the in-house further education of journalists
- Principles for the integration of students into editorial offices
- Principles for contractual regulations of internships

J Journalists/journalist associations

- Fundamental considerations (concerning the academic training of journalists)
- Fundamental considerations for exercising influence on the re-form of academic journalism training

YEARS 2–4
MODEL

Levels of action/measures for long-term implementation

A Ministry/University Administration/Commission for Curricula

Introduction of dual theoretical-practical journalism training at state universities

- *New denominations for disciplines (e.g. Journalism; Communication Science, Development Communication)*
- *introduction of study programmes for dual theoretical and practical (internal and external) journalist training (bachelor’s programme)*
- *dual theoretical and practical (internal and external) specialised journalist training in the subject of Development Communication/Journalism (master’s programme)*
- *Master’s qualification for junior academics in Communication Science/Journalism*
- *academic further training for practising journalists (shortened bachelor’s programme) at state universities in Afghanistan: development of a model at Nangarhar University*

- Creation of a legal framework for admission restrictions on these courses
- At least three international cooperation opportunities to enable up to 20 lecturers to complete master's degrees abroad
 - *Germany, Sweden, Great Britain*
 - *USA*
 - *Asia (India, Pakistan, Central Asia)*
- Implementation of a joint online master's degree (possibly together with Germany) for junior academics:
 - approx. 30-40 per cent on-site in Afghanistan
 - 50-60 per cent from Germany (online)
- At least three grant schemes to create teaching resource
 - Translation of key textbooks into local languages
 - Location of grant schemes for media-technology facilities (editorial training desks) at the university
 - Further qualification scholarships and grant schemes
- Foundation of a Communication Science research centre in Afghanistan
 - *Configuration of a research data bank: teaching material for journalist training*
 - *Foundation of a trade journal*
 - *Initiation of research papers about the Afghan media system*
 - *Development and translation the standard reference books for study programmes*
- Concrete networks between national universities
 - *Compulsory seminar for students in other provinces*
 - *Internship places for students from smaller provinces in large provinces*

- Concrete international networks of professional Afghan communities with international professional associations; membership of international professional associations such as:
 - *International Association for Media and Communication Research (IAMCR)*
 - *International Communication Association (ICA)*
 - *Association for Education in Journalism and Mass Communication (AEJMC)*
 - *International Public Relations Association: IPRA*
 - *Foundation of an Afghanistan edition of the Global Media Journal trade journal*²⁹

- Ongoing cooperation between the Ministry of Higher Education and the EC4SC research centre at the University of Leipzig
 - *Joint research projects with the Communication Science research centre in Afghanistan*
 - *Creation of a research data bank: teaching material for journalism education*
 - *Development and translation of standard works and textbooks for training*

- Consultancy regarding the internationalisation of the professional Afghan community with international professional associations such as:
 - *International Association for Media and Communication Research (IAMCR)*
 - *International Communication Association (ICA)*
 - *Association for Education in Journalism and Mass Communication (AEJMC)*
 - *International Public Relations Association: IPRA*

B Institutes and faculties of Journalism and Public Communication in Afghanistan

- Introduction of specialisations areas
 - *BA in Dual Journalism Education and shortened BA for practising journalists and Development Communication (Nangarhar University)*
 - *BA in Public Communication (University of Herat)*
 - *BA in Communication Management and Public Relations (Mazar-e-Sharif University)*
 - *BA in Communications and Media Science (University of Kabul)*
 - *MA in Communications and Media Science for junior academics (University of Kabul or Herat)*
- ...
- Internal cooperation with other subject areas (imports)
- Integration of lecturers
- External cooperations with media corporations

C Academic qualifications of lecturers in the subjects of Journalism and Public Communication

- Authorisation of the introduction of practical exercises and their implementation by lecturers from journalistic praxis
- Authorisation of approx. two-year leave for lecturers to continue academic training in specialist subjects at foreign universities (e.g. Germany, USA)
- Provision/collection of national and international sponsorships/grants for academic further qualification of lecturers for approx. 10 years.

D Nangarhar University/Institute

- the stipulation of principles, tasks and decision-making process of the commission
- finalisation of long-term contracts between universities and media corporations

- Ministry discussions and creation of a legal framework
- Further discussions with media corporations about the provision of
 - internships incorporated into study programmes
 - location of internship places
- Staff planning (technicians, service personnel); spatial, technical and financial set-up of:
 - extended Internet connections
 - computer pool
 - editorial training desks in the fields of print press (newspapers, magazines), broadcasting (radio and television), online journalism.

E Institute lecturers

- Improvement of professional expertise
- Improvement and strengthening of English skills
- Improvement and transformation of didactic skills towards:
 - forms of joint work on academic questions and issues
 - more group work, discussions and reflections
 - independent reading by students

F Curriculum (bachelor's programme)

- Integration of praxis elements through cooperations with media corporations
- Change in subjects and content (via expert and qualified lecturers)
- Teaching imports from other disciplines
- Combination of monographs and internships
- Introduction of a compulsory semester-long internship

G Technical infrastructure of the institute

- Training editorial desk facilities
- Practitioners teach at the university, exchange praxis-theory, contracts with practitioners

H Media corporations

- Introduction of in-house further education of journalists
- Regulation/guidelines for the introduction and pay for the practical experience of pupils/A-level students (short- to medium-term: e.g. during the semester) as well as internships

I Journalists/ journalists' associations

- Professional definitions/classifications e.g. of “journalist”, “editor” etc.
- Required professional training (differentiation between professional positions)
- Remuneration, holiday guidelines, social benefits (accident, illness, holiday, pension, death/surviving dependents' insurance)

YEARS 4–8

MODEL

Levels of action and activities/measures for long-term implementation

A Ministry/University Administration/Commission for Curricula

- Staggering of different consecutive courses
- New denominations for disciplines, e.g.:
 - Communication Science
 - Media Science
 - Communication Management
 - Public Relations
 - Development Communication
 - Journalism
 - Cultural Journalism
 - Digital Journalism
 - Science Journalism

- Development Journalism
 - Sports Journalism
 - Regional Journalism
- Master's degree for junior academics in Communication Science/ Journalism in Afghanistan
 - Implementation of a master's degree in Afghanistan for the junior academics
 - At least three sponsorship schemes for the creation of teaching resources
 - Translate ten key textbooks into local languages
 - Technical facilities (editorial training desks) should have been created at universities at the very least
 - Grants and sponsorship schemes for further education continue
 - Foundation of a Communication Science research centre data bank with up to 50 000 sources for teaching material on Communications Science and Journalism
 - Publication of textbook with the title *The Media System in Afghanistan*
 - Additional translation of standard textbooks for use in training
 - Concrete networks between national universities
 - Compulsory semester for students in other provinces
 - Internship for students from smaller provinces in large provinces

B Institutes and faculties of Journalism and Public Communication in Afghanistan

- Introduction of specialisation areas
 - Dual journalism education BA and shortened BA for practising journalists and in Development Communication (Nangarhar University)
 - BA in Public Communication (University of Herat)

- BA in Communication Management and Public Relations (Mazar-e-Sharif University)
- BA in Communication and Media Science (University of Kabul)
- MA in Communication and Media Science for junior academics (University of Kabul or Herat)

...

- Internal cooperations with other disciplines (imports)
- Integration of lecturers
- External cooperations with media corporations
- Every educational institute should have at least one or two cooperations with other institutes abroad (Germany, USA, Sweden, India, etc.)
- Every institute has an editorial training desk

C Academic qualification of lecturers in the disciplines of Journalism and Public Communication

- Practical exercises and their implementation by lecturers from journalistic praxis
- Authorisation of approx. three-year leave for lecturers (e.g. two lecturers per university) to continue post-doctoral study at foreign universities (e.g. Germany, USA)
- Provision/collection of national and international sponsorships/grants for academic further qualification of lecturers for approx. 10 years.

D Nangarhar University/Institute

- Finalisation of long-term contracts between universities and media corporations for:
 - Integrated internships
 - Internship placements
 - Institute lecturers
 - Personnel responsible for interns in the media corporations
 - Tariffs for internship placements

- Staff (technicians, service personnel), spatial, technical and financial issues have been resolved
 - Internet connections
 - Computer pool
 - Editorial training desks in the areas of the print press (newspapers, magazines), broadcasting (radio and television), online journalism

E Institute lecturers

Membership of professional associations

- Continued improvement of expertise
- Continued improvement and strengthening of English language skills
- Improvement of didactical skills and changes towards:
- Forms of joint work on academic questions and issues
 - More group work, discussions and reflection
 - Independent reading by students
 - More research and projects
 - Dissertations combined with research work
 - Research results will be made available to the public

F Curriculum (bachelor's programme)

- Integration of praxis elements through cooperations with media corporations
- Changes in disciplines and content (by expert and qualified lecturers)
- Teaching imports from other disciplines
 - More research
 - Dissertations combined with research
 - Combination of monographs and internships
 - One compulsory semester-long internship at an editorial desk incorporated in the curriculum

G Technical infrastructure of the institute

- Locate financial opportunities for setting up editorial training desk facilities
- Policy decision: practitioners teach at the university, exchange of praxis-theory, contracts with practitioners
- All institutes have an editorial training desk
- All institutes have a library

H Media corporations

- Introduction and payment arrangements of internships for pupils/A-level students (short- to medium-term: e.g. during the semester) as well as internships at institutes for journalism and public communication

I Journalists/ journalists' associations

- Fundamental considerations (concerning the academic training of journalists) about professional definitions/ classifications e.g. of “journalist”, “editor” etc.
- Required professional training (differentiation between professional positions?)
- Remuneration, holiday guidelines, social benefits (accident, illness, holiday, pension, death/surviving dependents' insurance)

c) Updated step-by-step plan

1ST PHASE / YEARS 1-2: Initially, the more current curricula need to be reformed by integrating and selecting relevant subjects. In this phase, a further education programme should be introduced by the universities and offered for practising journalists.

2ND PHASE / YEARS 2-4: The current 8-semester course should be thoroughly restructured with new subjects that are not currently integrated into the curriculum but are the international standard.

3RD PHASE / YEARS 4-5: Different universities in various provinces will specialise in different disciplines and offer different courses (PR, Journalism, Government Communication, etc.). In Afghanistan, universities should introduce a master's programme in Communication Science and Development Communication.

Part 4

APPENDIX

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1 Glossary: Important terminology in Communication Science

In this glossary, you will find explanations, descriptions and definitions covering key terminology for the recommended courses. To a greater or lesser extent, all the terminology listed revolves around communication and the media. Alongside the explanation of basic terminology, terms connected to education in the disciplines of communication and media studies will be brought to the fore. Since many terms are interlinked, they are not listed in alphabetical order but are introduced under the headings of Communication, Communication Science, (Mass) Media, Journalism, Social Change and Training.

The definitions in this glossary are especially important because we have to assume a low level of research in communication, media science and journalism in Afghanistan. The glossary is intended to function as a knowledge base to enable a well-founded course of studies in conjunction with this manual.

a) Terminology

1 COMMUNICATION

What is communication? How can it be described? What are the prerequisites for communication? Why do conflicts and misunderstandings occur in communication? How can they be remedied or avoided?

There are over 160 definitions of communication, including communication as transmission, stimulus-reaction, exchange, interaction, interpretation, behaviour, participation, relationship and understanding. Communication exists in all areas of human existence. Communication is a process, and can therefore be more difficult to describe than, for example, an object. Some peculiarities in the study of communication are:

- Ubiquität: everyone communicates (communication as an everyday phenomenon and experience)
- Universality: communication reaches into all areas of human existence
- Volatility: analyses only possible after the event
- Relationality: several elements are involved in the process of communication whose function can change in the course of the communication process (communication as a process, not a 'catch-all' object)
- Unavoidability: "One cannot not communicate"
- Transience: since communication is a process and cannot be 'touched', it is harder to describe.
- Heterogeneity: communication means different processes in different areas
- Self-reference: we communicate via communication

Communication from a communication-science perspective is a process in which at least two sides are involved. The focus here is on communication between people using a message instead of transfer. There is feedback, i.e. a dialogue. Communication is a form of social behaviour, social action, social interaction and a mediating process with the intention or goal of 'establishing understanding'.

- Social behaviour: interrelated behaviour of living beings
- Acting: intentional, purposeful behaviour
- Social action: intentional behaviour, aimed at other people
- Communicative action: intention and understanding

Communication is therefore a dynamic process that points to a relationship between at least two living beings (interaction), a specific form of social interaction that realises the general intention of understanding. The goal of understanding is: a mutual process of conveying meaning has taken place! Moreover, communication can only be determined after the event. From a linguistic perspective, communication is a process (acts of speech) and a product (works of speech, linguistic formations).

Watzlawick has formulated 5 axioms (principles) about communication:

1. You cannot *not* communicate.
2. Each communication has a content and a relationship aspect. The latter determines the former and is therefore a metacommunication.
3. The nature of a relationship is determined by the interplay of

communication processes between partners.

4. Human communication uses analogue and digital modalities. (...)
5. Interpersonal communication processes are either symmetrical or complementary, depending on whether the relationship between the partners is based on equality or difference.

2 COMMUNICATION SCIENCE

Communication science is a social science! Its origins include economics and history. It is a social- and empirical-scientific tradition with problems and attempts to find solutions, where one goes from the specific to the general according to the falsification principle. Communication science systematically produces knowledge about (public) communication, and formulates and solves communication problems guided by theory and hypotheses. The formal objects examined in communication science are processes of human communication, prerequisites, framework conditions, means, forms, disturbances, consequences etc. The material objects used in communication science are (mass) media, journalism, PR, acts of communication etc.

It is sociologically and empirically oriented. In communication science, there is 'pluralism of theory', i.e. there is no dominant theoretical perspective, but many theories of the medium range, as well as approaches, such as action and systems theory, constructivism, media philosophy and cultural-critical approaches. In communication science (as in other social sciences) there are three levels of analysis:

- *Micro level*: journalists with individual ways and conditions of acting;

recipients and their strategies of use, as well as their perception and processing of media

- *Meso level*: media organisations and their characteristics, working methods and conditions as well as interactions with other institutions (parties, associations)
- *Macro level*: political, economic and legal framework conditions of communication, media systems and their organisation, structures and development
- *Comparative literature*: historical or international comparative research at all levels

3 COMMUNICATOR RESEARCH

A person is a communicator involved in the production of public statements intended for dissemination through a mass medium, whether creative, selective or controlling (according to MALETZKE 1978).

Communicator research:

- *Objective dimension*: editorial research (communication processes in the development of statements, which are shaped by institutional and technological influences)
- *Subjective dimension*: attitudes of journalists, as far as they are relevant for the creation of statements; communication processes that shape these attitudes (socialisation)

4 COMMUNICATORS

Communicators are people who actively generate communication; they are creative (for example by writing a newspaper article or drawing and publishing a caricature); they either clarify/filter pieces of information or are selective in the

process of public communication (for example as an editor at a radio station where news is selected and abbreviated). Communicators thus play a key role in the mass media. Communicators are therefore ‘mediation partners’, i.e. social actors who select, design and present statements for public communication. They are collective actors, i.e. they are integrated into organisations with a division of labour and are professionalised. Journalism research in particular is concerned with communicators. There are communicators in journalism, public relations and advertising.

5 CONSTRUCTIVE JOURNALISM

Constructive journalism gives a more complete picture of the world: it not only describes what goes wrong in the world but also seeks to identify and discuss solutions to existing problems. The idea is comparable to constructive criticism: the interlocutor is informed not only about which mistakes were made but also what went well and possibilities for improvement.

- *Future-oriented*: constructive contributions do not end with the description of the problem, but increasingly also ask questions about the future: How might things develop? What has to be done now? The question is not only about the causes of the current situation, the status quo, but also about plans and visions for the future. These are frequent questions that are of increased interest to readers, listeners and viewers but are rarely asked by journalists.
- *Solution-oriented*: constructive journalism is not just about understanding what challenges and problems need to be overcome. Possible

approaches to mitigate, solve and avoid problems are also discussed. In the search for potential solutions, constructive journalism explores a wider field: in research institutes, other countries and cultures, or specific individuals who have found ways and means for themselves.

But: ready-made solutions are not always a given! Empirical studies should serve as a basis for possible solutions.

Even if constructive journalism focuses on solutions, this does not mean that grievances, disasters and misconduct are not addressed. It is not a question of making reporting “more positive” or “nicer”. Constructive journalism does not close its eyes to the problems of the world, but focuses instead on the causes and increasingly examines the problems.

6 CONSTRUCTIVISM

Constructivism looks at operations and conditions instead of objects and ‘nature’. Media, media use and media impact therefore depend on expectations and previous experience and are integrated into knowledge, communication, standards and consensus.

The construction of reality ‘happens’ to people; in other words, they are hardly aware of it. So we only notice the construction of our own reality when we see how we act, communicate and observe.

It is therefore relevant to investigate how, for example, the following areas are represented (i.e. constructed) in the media:

- Politics, politicians, election campaigns
- Gender and sexuality
- Social minorities
- Crime and violence

- Wars, conflicts
- Accidents, disasters
- Science, technology

There is no 'image' of reality in the media. Negativity prevails in many representations, essential details are missing and demographic and geographical proportions are often deviated from. Media is tendentious and ideologically coloured.

Two perspectives compete:

1. *Normative* – media as a mirror of reality: here, media is regarded as a passive mediator, which should reflect reality as accurately as possible. Reality is the prerequisite for communication here. This perspective starts with the perspective of the powerful media effect. Criticism of the media – seen from this perspective – calls for more control of the media.
2. *Descriptive* – media as a construction: the media is an integral part of society and forms an active element in the social communication process. Reality is constructed as a result of communication. Construction and dissemination of reality happen through media. Media criticism is functional. Reality is subjective, but not arbitrary. It is socially constructed against the background of experience, interests, values and norms, culture etc.

Media does not and cannot provide an image of reality! Objectivity is therefore only an ideal!

7 DESCRIPTIVE CONTEMPLATION / PUBLIC OPINION

Actors communicate about (political) topics to an undefined audience. By publishing topics, these actors have access to the public and society self-observes. In this public space, different speakers compete for the attention and conviction of the audience. The public is not produced by the mass media but represented. The public sphere is therefore a communication system or network.

Concepts of the *counter-public*: besides the public, there are also critical sub-publics or alternative public spheres. Here you will find 'omitted news' about alternative media projects. There are also participatory public spheres or media activism.

Public opinion: What is public opinion? How is it shaped? What is the relationship between the media, the public and public opinion? What does public opinion do in society? Do we influence public opinion? Why is public opinion sometimes so powerful?

Public opinion is a product of the public (as an intermediate system) and public communication. It links different levels of public actors and is a tool for selecting topics and setting agendas. Public opinion is seen either as rational, political judgment or as social control. The dynamics of public opinion make theoretical and empirical description difficult.

Concepts of public opinion:

- *Empirical-analytical view* (according to GERHARDS): public opinions, i.e. the opinions communicated in the public system, are to be distinguished from aggregated individual opinions and published opinions.

- *System Theoretical View* (according to LUHMANN): public opinion is a functional aid for the selection of topics for public communication and structures public communication (for example, as with the Agenda Setting approach).
- *Elite concept*: public opinion is akin to a responsible and political judgment. Those who can judge and those who are willing to take responsibility to participate. It serves to strengthen intelligence.
- *Concept of integration*: public opinion resembles unwritten laws and social control. The pressure to conform is ever-present for everyone and the public functions as a tribunal. The focus is on cohesion in the community.

Both concepts (elite and integration) illustrate the different views of the relationship between public opinion and the individual (i.e. individual vs. collective participation).

8 DESIGNS/MODELS

Models are not theories! Models show a theoretical and simplified representation of reality and offer selection and abstraction. The functions of models are organisation and systematics (order, connections, differences), prediction (if, then), heuristics (excitation, imaginability), measurement (data, quantification). The evaluation criteria for models are generalisability, heuristic value, relevance, accuracy, originality, simplicity, economy, realism.

9 DEVELOPMENT COMMUNICATION

Development communication is “the planned, conscious and systematic appli-

cation of communication strategies to bring about, establish and maintain positive change or development”. Development communication is ultimately a dialogue for social change, through which people define “who they are, what they want and how they want to shape it”. Thus, in principle, it is the sharing of knowledge aimed at “reaching a consensus for an action that takes into account the interests, needs and capacities of all stakeholders”. It is vital that development communication considers the socio-economic environment in the context of innovation and social change and helps to change the environment. This can only succeed in a “versatile, multidimensional and participatory process” through which people “are encouraged (empowerment) to control their own fates”. *Empowerment* means that “people are capable of helping themselves. Communication for empowerment means focusing on the information and communication needs and interests of “marginalised groups”.

Definition of development communication: within the framework of development cooperation practised today, various communication strategies are used to positively influence developments in respective countries. Development communication draws on various concepts and scientific theories of communication science.

One of the best-known definitions of development communication comes from Nora Quebral, who is sometimes referred to as “mother of development communication”. Her work was decisive for advancing development communication as an academic discipline. Quebral defines development communication as the art and science of human communication in connection with the planned transformation of a society from a state of poverty to a dynamic socio-economic

growth that leads to more justice and greater development of individual potential.

Key terms in development communication are:

1. *Sustainability*: the concept of sustainability plays a decisive role in the context of development communication. Sustainability or sustainable development means satisfying the needs of the present in such a way that the opportunities of future generations are not restricted. It is important to consider the three dimensions of sustainability – economically efficient, socially just, ecologically sustainable – on an equal footing. To preserve our global resources in the long term, sustainability should be the basis for all political decisions. (source: BMZ Glossary)
2. *Participation*: participation is an important principle of development cooperation and development communication. This is already evident in the fact that both the concepts of social change and sustainability contain a participatory approach. Participation means nothing more than inclusion. Through participation groups (population), organisations, parties etc. become actively involved in decisions and interests can be articulated through participation. Within the framework of development communication, participation can mean, for example, that a local population operates its own radio station independently and also designs the programme itself, in which the needs and opinions of the listeners are also taken into account.
3. *Empowerment*: empowerment means something like ‘self-possession’. In the context of development communication, empowerment means empowering people to help themselves. Empowerment is a process in which individuals or organisations gain control over their own socio-economic conditions through democratic participation in their communities.

10 DEVELOPMENT JOURNALISM

Development journalism is usually understood as a form of journalism in which social responsibility is in the foreground in the minds of journalists. Development journalism aims to make a positive contribution to the socio-economic development of a region. It reports and informs about development projects; it also teaches and promotes cultural development.

In some states, the concept of development journalism is used by political leaders as a justification for restricting the freedom of the press. Here, politics dictates to the media that they should engage in development journalism. This ideology can be interpreted in cases where development journalism is seen as more important than freedom of expression – for example, critical voices against the government may be suppressed.

A new approach tries to describe development journalism no longer as top-down and government-controlled, but as a grassroots tool with which bottom-up, participatory journalism can be practised. Thus, the principles of development journalism state that journalism should, on the one hand, be independent of government and may also express itself critically towards the government, while also promoting general participation in discussions and (development) political decision-making processes. Thus, devel-

opment journalism can be seen as a tool for promoting more social justice. However, the line between messages that promote the development of the country and propaganda can be very narrow.

11 DUAL JOURNALISM EDUCATION

The term 'dual journalist training' is made up of 'dual' (i.e. 'consisting of two parts') and 'training', or education. This means that journalism education is both theoretical and practical. Here practical elements are integrated into a detailed theoretical education, such as a longer practical course in a media facility, training editorships for practice and output, and practice seminars and partnerships with media facility, which offer local seminars.

It makes sense not to place the practical part of dual journalist training at the beginning, but rather in the last third of a study programme because theoretical concepts can then be tried out and applied. After the practical phase of the programme, the theoretical part should reflect the practical phase.

The advantages of dual journalist training are that it makes it easier for journalists to start a career, as some practical experience can already be proven. Also, graduates can directly apply what they have learned in theory and reflect on the application of the theoretical part after the practical part. Dual journalism education also offers much more variety.

12 EMPIRICISM

Empirical social science: explanation of data, predictions, relative simplicity, verifiable hypotheses, practical usefulness

Empiricism usually means 'experience'. In science, therefore, empiricism is the methodical and systematic collection of data. Data is thus collected – this

usually happens in the social sciences through the methods of questioning, observation, experiment or content analysis.

Every social science theory should be based on empirical findings, i.e. every theory is based on comprehensible data.

13 GATEKEEPER APPROACH

The approach considers which reports remain unpublished and why. What decisions are made to leave a message unpublished? Among other things, communicators are regarded as 'gatekeepers' because they make subjective decisions based on the values and views of the individual communicators. The selection criteria of the communicators are place and length of the message, subjectivity/objectivity of reporting, writing style, audience interest.

14 GOVERNMENT COMMUNICATION

Government communication (sometimes also *government PR*) combines the techniques and content of information conveyed by a political decision-making institution (executive), both within this institution and in external relations. Actors in government communication: this includes both the president and his or her government spokespersons, as well as the ministries with their respective spokespersons. They also include political planners, speechwriters, heads of units and speakers from the ministerial bureaucracy. Those responsible for public relations at institutions subordinate to the ministries can also be assigned to this group. In media society, government communication and public relations are inextricably linked to the exercise of executive power; in these circumstances, governing always means communicating. The public wants to be informed about

the political guidelines pursued by their government and how it intends to act on a day-to-day level in political business. The right to this information is a communicative right and – to speak to the Constitutional Court – a basic prerequisite for consensus between citizens and the state.

15 INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION

The concept of intercultural communication is first and foremost defined as an area of interpersonal face-to-face communication between members of different cultures. Furthermore, intercultural communication is, on the one hand, an academic subject or sub-discipline. One of the reasons the term was created was immigration and the development of a multicultural society and its problem areas. Furthermore, the rise of the term indicates the sudden increase in the significance of the problematic field of relations between different cultures and their areas of conflict. Over time, the explanation of the term has not changed much. Intercultural communication is still spoken of today when at least two people from different cultures meet and are equally aware of their partner's 'difference'. It is important that a cultural exchange takes place between both parties and that they do not exclusively resort to their own conventions, attitudes and behaviours. Similarly, misunderstandings cannot be avoided in a process involving a clash between cultures. Communication is influenced by the cultures of communicators and culture has a decisive influence on how people communicate with each other.

Intercultural communication can also take place within a nation between members of different ethnic groups.

16 INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION

People can communicate with each other in different ways. Forms of communication differ from culture to culture. For successful (interpersonal) communication, the interlocutors must understand the various culture-specific signs, such as greeting formulas, voice pitch, facial expressions and gestures, distance and closeness. Therefore, interpersonal communication involves understanding verbal, paraverbal, non-verbal and extra-verbal communication in different cultures.

In general, interpersonal communication refers to mutual communicative actions between at least two human individuals. This is very different from, for example, animal communication. Human communication takes place through a common store of signs. Characters can be conveyed verbally (e.g. language) as well as non-verbally (e.g. gestures). In the best case, these signs are interpreted in the same way by all communicators involved so that an exchange of information is achieved. If the different communicators interpret these signs differently, for example, because they use different character sets, there may be misunderstandings regarding the exchange of information.

17 JOURNALISM

Journalism is the science that deals with the actors, structures and achievements of journalism. It analyses journalism based on journalism theories. Journalism is thus a subfield of communication and media studies.

18 JOURNALIST

Journalists are professional actors involved in social systems. They are part of the journalism system and must follow institutional rules and organisational guidelines. The social function is 'external observation'. Journalists are also individuals, private individuals and media users. Personality traits, private attitudes and the social environment strongly influence journalists. Journalism is therefore also a social action and symbolic interaction that constructs reality. Communicators, including journalists, are involved in organisations and therefore also dependent on them. At the same time, journalists are also people and therefore subjective: they have their own values, interests and attitudes.

Definition of the term 'journalist': a journalist is anyone who is involved in the development or dissemination of information, opinions and entertainment through the media using words, images, sound or combinations of these means of presentation on a full-time basis. This job description also explicitly includes public relations work and internal communication.

Definition by WEAVER et al (2007): "those who have responsibility for the preparation or transmission of news stories or other timely information – all full-time reporters, writers, correspondents, editors, news announcers, columnists, photojournalists and other news people". A comparison of journalists with the population as a whole: what are the positions of journalists in the social space of society? To what extent do these positions differ from those of the rest of the population?

What does the [Afghan] journalist look like on average? (gender, age, education, TV/radio/print, income?)

Attitudes of journalists: party affiliation? Job satisfaction? Consent to (unscrupulous) research methods? Which types of sources are classified as important? Which media do journalists consume?

What image do journalists have in the population?

19 JOURNALISTIC CULTURES

The term 'journalistic cultures' describes the cultural dependency of journalism. It summarises the journalistic ethics, practices and professional standards of one or more neighbouring country. Journalistic cultures are seen as a concept for comparative research within journalism. Depending on the social structures of a state (or region) there are different expectations and role assignments for the institutions of journalism and the media. The framework and development conditions of the country are relevant here. The idea is that journalism and the roles, aims and standards of journalistic actors are influenced by the national media system and a specific political culture.

20 LEGAL FRAMEWORK

Limits of reporting freedom:

1. Individual interests:
 - protection of honour
 - protection of individual privacy
 - corporate protection
 - image protection
 - protection against the pillory effect of criminal reports
 - protection of intellectual property
2. Community interests:
 - protection of peace and public security
3. A balance between freedom of the media and protection of individual privacy (but in case of doubt: freedom)

4. Representation of legitimate interests: balance of goods; importance for free democracy; function of the mass media (contribution to public opinion formation, opinion, criticism and control of state bodies); public interest in information
5. Protection of personal honour
 - Where does the violation of honour start? A violation of honour: denial of elementary human characteristics; unjustified accusation or breach of duty in the moral, legal or social sphere.
 - Every person has a right to the protection of honour!
 - Insult: abatement by value judgement
 - Slander: insult without proof; insult against one's better judgement
 - But it is true: appropriate criticism is no insult! The limit of criticism lies in the attack of human dignity, defamatory criticism, excessive pillory effect
6. Limitation of satire (= pointed representation, exaggeration, grotesqueness, distortion); defamatory criticism, violation of human dignity
7. General personal rights

The general right to privacy states that the individual has the right to protect his or her life from public scrutiny. But this is limited by a legitimate public interest in the behaviour of the person concerned.

Areas of protection include: protection of personal records and the non-public speech; right to 'informational self-determination'; protection of the domestic sphere and private life; protection of the exploitation of a person's reputation for economic purposes; image protection;

protection against endangerment of life or physical integrity.

Limits to privacy rights:

- Consent of all parties concerned in advance or retrospectively
- For children and adolescents: folks
- Oral, written, implied action
- Ineffective in case of deception or error
- Revocation possible with immensely changed settings

For interviews: consent of all interlocutors; informal consent possible, revocation of consent in case of deception/error
Photojournalism and standard protection.

Problems: There are legal regulations for recordings of military installations, court hearings, or pornographic images. Also, protection is given through the right to one's own image and protection of the depiction of copyrighted objects.

An individual, recognisable representation of the depicted requires his or her consent. Exceptions are: persons of contemporary history; persons as accessories; representation of a meeting; higher interest of art and science.

21 MASS COMMUNICATION

Mass communication is any form of communication that conveys statements to a disparate public audience, i.e. without limited, personally defined recipients, indirectly (with spatial, temporal or spatio-temporal distance between communication partners) and unilaterally (without role change) by technical means of dissemination (i.e. media). A disparate audience is composed of individuals or small groups whose connecting characteristic consists of them using the mass media.

They have no direct relationship, are spatially separated from each other, mutually anonymous, non-homogeneously multilayered, unstructured and not organised.

22 MASS MEDIA

Media through which statements are conveyed to an indefinite number of people through techniques of dissemination and reproduction. What are the forms of media? Which types/classes of media can we distinguish? Are forms of the media always mass media? Are media forms always technical? Why do we need media? What tasks/functions and services do they perform in society?

Understanding the concept of media in communication science: media enables intentional sign processes between people via spatial, temporal and spatio-temporal distance – and thus communication.

- *Primary media*: facial expression, language (communicator and recipient both without a device)
- *Secondary media*: newspaper, poster (communicator with a device, recipient without)
- *Tertiary media*: telephone, television (communicator and recipient both with a device)
- *Quaternary media*: digital media

Dual nature of the media system (according to SAXER 2013): on the one hand, media has a communication potential; on the other hand, social systems are formed around communication technology.

- *First-order media*: switching and storage technologies
- *Second-order media*: institutionalised communicators who select, structure and present statements

Journalistic media disseminates content to the public.

A definition of the media according to SAXER (2013) comprises four aspects: sign systems (signal transmission); technical basis (overcoming distance); organisation (public-legal vs. private, citizen media, club media); institution (functional for society).

Media is a social system with its own logic and significance for society. It has several functions:

1. information function: journalism and media organisations select and construct knowledge, there is a reduction in complexity
2. educational function: social and cultural memory, tradition of knowledge, didactic commitment
3. social functions:
 - socialisation: education, training of roles, learning of norms and values
 - integration: providing common themes, rituals, time structures
 - orientation: examples: recreation, relaxation, entertainment
4. Political functions:
 - creating public: ‘reaching’ as many citizens as possible (e.g. as opposed to ‘assembly public’)
 - criticism and control function: no control and censorship, ‘fourth power’
 - articulation function: forum of opinions in their diversity, ‘discussion lawyer’
5. Economic functions:
 - circulation: acceleration and optimisation of the economic cycle (advertising as a consumer-friendly offer)

- transparency: market transparency through reporting on goods and services offered
- employment: media organisations as employers

Media is therefore a means of communication for perception, communication and dissemination. It is a form of communication and social phenomena. Media fulfils various social functions: information and education, as well as social, political and economic functions.

23 MASS MEDIA AND REALITY

What is reality? Does the media report reality? Does the media distort reality? Does the media create reality? Do our perceptions of reality come from the media? Is there any objective reality at all?

Media content is a design achievement. The construction takes place not only on the communicator side but is also on that of recipients and researchers.

24 MEDIA COMPETENCE MEDIA LITERACY

The term “media competence” was introduced in the 1970s by the educationalist and media pedagogue Dieter Baacke. Baacke linked the term “media competence” to the fundamental human image of a self-determined and socially active subject.

The four dimensions of media competence according to Baacke are:

- *Media criticism*: existing knowledge about media should always be reflected and expanded. To analyse the media landscape, I need, for example, the background knowledge that private programmes are largely financed by advertising and that this can have an impact on the pro-

gramme content. Problematic media developments can only be viewed critically and differentiated with the necessary knowledge.

- *Media studies*: this refers to knowledge of today’s media and media systems. On an informative level, these are classical knowledge resources such as knowledge of the structure of the broadcasting system, journalistic working methods
- *Media use*: the usage competence of an individual; television, for example, is an active activity that should be competently designed.
- *Media design*: media is constantly changing and everyone is free to contribute new content. Everyone can contribute innovatively to the further development of the media system.

Media competence comprises:

1. Knowledge and ability to use media (books, magazines, radio, television, Internet, etc.) For example, how to look for and borrow a library book.
2. Ability to orientate oneself in the media world – for example, finding a news programme among the various television offers.
3. Ability to participate in media communications – for example, writing a letter to the editor or writing for a school magazine
4. Maintaining a critical distance to the media – for example, being able to recognise commercial or political interests in journalistic articles (see also media criticism).
5. Working creatively in the media world – for example, writing a blog, creating your own homepage, publishing a newsletter, holding a demo etc.

25 MEDIA EDUCATION

Media education deals with types of media and their pedagogical significance in education, work and leisure. It examines which tasks and functions the media assumes in our society, looks at how we deal with the media, analyses the effect of the media on us humans, develops concepts for the meaningful use of the media in pedagogical action and develops goals which need to be achieved with it.

The overriding goal of media pedagogical efforts is always *media competence*.

Media education is becoming more and more relevant, as the media is becoming increasingly important in everyday life. Children, young people and adults are confronted with the media daily, whether at work, school or university. Media education investigates how people deal with the media and which competencies they develop in dealing with the media.

Empirical (qualitative and quantitative) research concentrates on fields of media competence and appropriation research in digital and, above all, mobile media in the everyday life of children, young people and adults and the use of the media in teaching and learning processes.

26 MEDIA ETHICS

Media ethics investigates the relationship between media expression and human behaviour. It reflects on alternative action concepts based on which the quality and appropriateness of media action can be evaluated.

The task of media ethics is to formulate and justify rules for responsible action in production, distribution and reception of the media to formulate self-obligations

that are ethically necessary (!) of the professional groups, sectors and individuals involved in the media process; and to take into account the responsibility of the audience, i.e. the recipients.

Ethics: a subfield of philosophy, definition of 'good' and 'bad' human action.

Ethical problem areas in journalism:

- commercialisation
- pressure of competition
- concentration processes
- anonymisation of responsibility
- increasing complexity
- journalistic competence

Ethics concepts for the media:

- *Individual ethics*: the individual journalist is responsible for ethical and correct reporting. Human respect for the audience and those affected. Reporting of facts without manipulation.
- *Professional ethics*: self-regulation by professional associations which issue codes, ethics of professional conduct, etc.
- *Institutional ethics*: the responsibility of publishers and legislators to create appropriate framework conditions for the development of ethical media work.
- *Audience ethics*: the responsibility of the audience to boycott unethical media behaviour through non-reception.

Ethical conflicts in the media:

- false fact reporting
- uniting journalists to influence public opinion
- invasion of privacy
- protection of minors
- influencing events

27 MEDIA HISTORY

Media history, in the general sense, describes the historical development of communication media, especially the mass media (press, radio and television). In a narrower sense, the term refers to the research of media history through media studies. Media history is also a subfield of communication and historical studies, whereby communication science also uses the term “communication history”.

The approaches of the disciplines differ considerably, which is particularly due to respective media concepts and basic methodological assumptions. Depending on the media concept, media histories may sometimes begin in prehistorical times or early history, with the invention of book printing or only with the advent of electronic media in the 20th century.

Scientific analysis of the history of mass media can be divided into the history of programmes, organisation, technology and reception.

28 MEDIA IMPACT

Does the media work? What does the media induce people to do? What does the media do? How does the media work? Which media has what effect? Which influences counteract media?

Media impact is a change, due to media use, in cognition (knowledge, ideas), emotion (joy, relaxation, aggression), behaviour (buying, voting, media use) and attitudes (approval, rejection). Media impact can be short-term or long-term; planned or unplanned; individual, group-specific or social; and the effects can come from the media itself, the form or the concrete content. One well-known study on media effects is the “two-step flow of communication” by Paul Lazarsfeld and Elihu Katz. One result was that

interpersonal communication and personal relationships are more influential than mass media. A media effect is more likely to occur indirectly via an opinion leader. Another well-known media impact study called the “agenda-setting approach” was developed in 1968 by Maxwell McCombs and Donald Shaw. In this case, the influence of media coverage on topics in public discourse was examined: media work on different levels (individual, group, society), with different dependent variables (cognition, emotion) and in different ways (long/short-term, planned/unplanned). How people act and according to which media depends on the theoretical perspective.

29 MEDIA LAW

Media law deals with the regulations of private and public (universal) information and communication, thus overlapping into the legal sub-areas of public law, civil law and criminal law. Media law is therefore a “cross-cutting issue”. Media law can be divided into content-specific areas of law, such as copyright law, which is usually aligned with civil law and transfer-specific areas of law like telecommunications law, and broadcasting law, which is predominantly aligned with administrative law.

Classical subjects in media law are the press, radio (radio and television) and film. With the advent of new media, the areas of multimedia and the Internet have been added.

The regulatory objectives of media law are the guarantee of a generally accessible communication infrastructure, securing the diversity of opinion, protection of media users (recipients), data and youth protection, but also protection of intellectual property. Thus, the use and usability of media content are regulated by law.

Telecommunications law, on the other hand, only regulates the technical side of content transmission. However, especially in the multimedia sector, both areas are closely interlinked and influence each other.

30 MEDIA MANAGEMENT / MEDIA ECONOMICS

The media industry explains how competition and markets are created by, for and through the media (media economy). Media economics is a business sector that includes not only the general principles of business but also topics specifically geared towards the media industry (see also *media management*).

Media economy explains how competition and markets arise and function from, for and through the media. Goods from the media sector are information, entertainment and advertising messages. As a rule, media companies are responsible for supplying economic entities with media goods. Such companies deal professionally and permanently with the collection, production and distribution of media goods – in the majority of cases also commercially, i.e. to make a profit.

31 MEDIA POLICIES

Media policy refers to all discourses and measures that lead to a framework for journalistic media (laws, regulations, guidelines) and define its scope. Since journalistic media of this type play an essential role in a functioning democratic constitution, media policy belongs to public services of general interest and protects the freedom of expression and right to information of citizens. At the same time, it must ensure that political and economic power groups do not have a decisive influence on the publicity and political decision-making of the popula-

tion. In contrast to policy areas such as health, social or transport policy, the effects of media-policy decisions are more likely to be felt indirectly by citizens. Media policy is therefore often neglected strategically and intellectually by the political class or seen solely from a power perspective. At the same time, media policy is a cultural, economic and technological policy and must therefore be balanced on several political levels and areas.

32 MEDIA STUDIES

Media studies are the scientific occupation with the media, including mass media and public communication, but also aspects of aesthetics, history and theory of the media. Media studies are based on linguistic and humanities studies dealing with the media in literature, theatre, art and musicology. Depending on the media concept, the focus may be on individual types of media such as print (newspapers and magazines), radio, television or online media. With a broader media concept, however, infrastructures, networks or technologies might also be central. Many media scientists also include film studies in their discipline.

The main areas of media studies are *media analysis*, *history* and *theory*. In contrast to social science communication science, in which the focus is often on the interactions between mass media and society (reception), media science focuses on questions of *aesthetics*, *technology* and *history*.

33 MEDIA SYSTEM

The means of public communication and their interaction (with other systems) within a nation-state form its media system. News agencies, print media, radio, television and online news media provide

up-to-date information for mass communication and are supplemented by non-current media (books, films).

Media types increase their circle of recipients by using transmission and storage technology to overcome spatial and temporal distances. Media creates images of reality. This is done by presenting (empirical forms of representation of journalism), classifying (cognitive forms of representation), imitating (fiction), being persuasive, i.e. with the intention of persuasion or persuasion (for example in advertising) or being agitative (i.e. in an inciting or inflammatory manner such as propaganda). The media system can be viewed at a macro level (national guidelines), meso level (company) or micro level (individual journalist) and divided into sub-systems. It interacts with other systems such as business and politics.

34. MEDIA USAGE

Who uses which media? Why is media used? How can differences in media use be explained (between individuals/between population groups/between different nations or cultures)?

In media use, the focus is on the user or the recipient as active actors. It concerns attention, perception, selection, reception, i.e. complex sign and cognition processes. Media use is the logical and temporal prerequisite for any media effect as well as the prerequisite for the fulfilment of the social function of media.

Academic research can have several perspectives:

- 1) The *functional perspective*: why do people use media? Individual needs and preferences are examined here.
- 2) The *procedural perspective*: how do people deal with media? Selection, reception and situational influences are investigated here.

- 3) The *structural perspective*: under what conditions do people use the media? Here, the audience structure, social environment and media system are examined.

35 MEDIATISATION AND MEDIA SOCIETY

Is the changing media landscape influencing our society? Do our communication structures and activities change with the increasing complexity of the media? Is there any pressure to adapt to new media opportunities for social systems such as politics, business, sport, science? Do we live in a 'media society'?

Mediatisation is a pattern of interpretation to explain why and how politics, sports, economy, science etc. are changing. More than in the past, the changes can be attributed to changes in media conditions for communication (for example, advertising on football players' jerseys). The dependent variable (i.e. the result) equals changes in policy/sport etc. The independent variable (i.e. the cause) equals the media. In addition to communication science, political science, in particular, investigates this.

Mediatisation is a form of social and cultural change which comes about because communication environments are becoming more differentiated and complex.

Mediatisation is also a second-order media effect. The behaviour and everyday life of people, organisations, institutions and systems are changing because actors assume that public communication mediated through the media is not ineffective. Nevertheless, this is a slow and differentiated process whose speed and breadth are often overestimated.

36 MESSAGE SELECTION

The selection of news in journalism is examined by selection research in journalism. Journalistic news selection is of particular importance in selection research. The task here is to sensibly reduce an international and thus complex offer and select relevant information. News selection research is the most established and empirically productive branch of selection research.

Three branches of news selection research exist:

1. *Gatekeeper research*: the term “gatekeeper” compares the role of a journalist in the news flow with that of a goalkeeper who decides what may happen to the gate. Gatekeeper research is concerned with the selection-relevant characteristics of journalists and media companies.
2. *New bias approach*: here the focus is on the political attitudes of journalists and the resulting trends in reporting.
3. *News value research*: news selection and design can be attributed to specific characteristics and qualities of events.

Assumptions of news value research: the theory of news value assumes that the news value of an event is determined by news factors. News factors (again, “attributed” by journalists) are content-related characteristics of events. They give an event a certain news value and are thus a decision-making aid for journalists to spot something newsworthy. The amount of the message value determines whether an event is reported in the first place, how prominently the corresponding message is placed and how detailed it is.

37 MESSAGE VALUES

- rate
- threshold factor
- unambiguousness
- meaningfulness
- consonance
- surprise
- negativism
- continuity
- variation
- reference to elite nations
- relation to elite people
- customisation
- proximity: geographical proximity, cultural proximity, economic proximity, political proximity

Hypotheses on the interaction of news factors:

- *Additivity hypothesis*: the more news factors apply to an event, the more likely it is reported.
- *Selection hypothesis*: the more news factors apply to an event, the more likely it is to be reported.
- *Complementarity hypothesis*: the absence of one factor can be compensated by another factor.
- *Accentuation hypothesis*: the characteristics that determine the news value of an event are accentuated in the reporting – and thus distorted.
- *Repetition hypothesis*: the more selection processes take place, the stronger the distortion effects.
- *News bias research*: the imbalance or distortion of reporting is investigated.
- *Agenda setting*: opinion leaders define the relevance of events. The frame of reference or the interpretation pattern of an event is determined. The focus is on the development of perspectives and tendencies in (pre-) reporting. Thus, reporting is ‘pre-constructed’. An opinion leader

is characterised by a large reach among the population and journalists. He or she has access to reliable sources and many resources. This leads to a certain consonance (i.e. uniformity or similarity in the tendency of reporting) and the climate of opinion structures the climate of argumentation.

38 METHODOLOGY

Methodology is the same as scientific theory. Methodology is the view of and reflection on routes to knowledge, human nature, values, meaning and purpose of theories and research methods. The question is: how do sciences work? How should sciences work?

- *Critical hermeneutics*: understanding individuals, determining values, aesthetic aspirations, community of agreement; changing society.
- *Empirical social science*: explanation of data, predictions, relative simplicity, verifiable hypotheses, practical usefulness. Science needs to solve a problem.
- *Understanding of social sciences*: the aim of scientific knowledge acquisition is striving to solve problems. Fundamental characteristic: from the specific to the general.
- *Discover*: determination of a relationship between empirically ascertainable phenomena.
- *Explain*: establishing the (established) relationship between the phenomena.
- *Academic vs. everyday experience*: exact definitions, logical conclusions and consistency, empirical verifiability, systematic approach (i.e. repeatability, abstraction/generalisation), compliance with research ethical principles. An academic discipline is a demarcated and constructed

conglomerate of problems and attempts to solve them.

39 NEWSWORTHINESS THEORY

According to GALTUNG & RUGE (1965), news value theory investigates how events become news. Each message has a certain threshold value. Message factors are the characteristics attributed to events and direct attention. The message value of a message is the sum of the message factors and determines its newsworthiness. Message factors are, among other things: *continuity, elite nations and elite people, customisation, negativity, frequency, unambiguousness, cultural proximity, pertinence, predictability and surprise*.

Message factors are therefore general psychological attention criteria and evolutionary in nature.

40 NORMATIVE APPROACH

Structural transition of the public sphere:
Jürgen Habermas

The prerequisite for a critical bourgeois public sphere is the equality of the participants, meaning that all topics can be problematised and that the audience is fundamentally incomplete. This provides a domination-free discourse and the power of the better argument is decisive.

According to Habermas, the public is seen as a democratic forum for all citizens. This is a normative, ideal.

41 OPINION RESEARCH

Opinion research serves the determination of public opinion, i.e. the public's insights, attitudes, moods or wishes.

For opinion research, primary data is collected and subsequently interpreted through surveys based on a representative cross-section of the population under

investigation. The survey can be conducted in person, by telephone, in writing or using an online questionnaire. Opinion research can involve both one-off surveys (cross-sectional studies) and long-term studies (longitudinal studies). Opinion research is a method for determining the attitudes, views, behaviour and wishes of individuals and groups. In both academic and commercial fields, opinion research (also survey research) is a method of collecting data. In the political system, opinion research serves to collect attitudes and (potential) decisions concerning mostly current political issues among the population or population groups (e.g. the young, the elderly, voters, foreigners, families) and is therefore an instrument of observation with which politicians supplement discussions on which their decisions are based.

Opinion research works primarily with the standard methods of empirical social research. In addition to standardised and partially standardised surveys, other forms of data collection such as group discussions, experiments or panel surveys are also used – especially in market and consumer research. The basic idea of opinion research is to arrive at a conclusion using a distribution of characteristic values (opinions, intentions, etc.) in a consciously or randomly selected group of individuals based on theoretical probability procedures and to distribute these characteristics in a larger defined group.

42 PUBLIC

Who or what is the public? Is there only one public? What does ‘public’ actually mean? What is the relationship between the media and the public? What does the public have to do with communication? Do we, as citizens, have an influence on the public?

Public, as in: network, ideal, forum, publicity, officiality, statehood, communication space, transparency, audience.

The public is an intermediary system that mediates between citizens and social sub-systems. There are descriptive and normative approaches to describe the public. Either publicity is seen as a ‘mirror for self-observation’, or as a discourse free from domination. Mass media is therefore either the producer or the representative of the public. The public is often and extensively communicated in the media, but not exclusively. Partial, alternative and counter-publics can exist alongside ‘the public’.

43 SOCIAL CHANGE

“Social change (...) is understood as a process of transformation in the way society is organised, within institutions and in the distribution of power within various social and political institutions. For behaviours to change on a large scale, certain harmful cultural practices, societal norms and structural inequalities have to be taken into consideration. Social change approaches, thus, tend to focus on the community as the unit of change.” (WILKINS und TUFTE 2014)

Behavioural change is also closely linked to social change. This is a process that focuses on the knowledge, attitudes and actions of individuals and is aligned with the goals of a corresponding development programme. Behavioural change involves forms of interpersonal, group and mass-media communication as well as participatory methods. While social change refers to a community, behavioural change focuses on the individual.

44 EDITORIAL TRAINING DESKS AND EDITORIAL OFFICES

An editorial training office or desk is usually an editorial office at an education institute (usually a university) where trainees can put concepts learned in theory into practice. An editorial office is a place in which future practitioners can try out ideas/skills and experiment. Here students can practise the knowledge they have acquired in theory about working in an editorial office.

For example, a university newspaper might be published in a university teaching department. Students learn how editorial cooperation works; how to find sponsors and advertising customers for the newspaper; how to find a print shop; what distribution channels look like; how to look for topics for the newspaper; how to work together in the editorial rooms; how to research and write articles.

Another example of an editorial training office would be a university radio where the students operate their own station.

An internal university budget and/or external sponsors have to be found for an editorial training office. Recruiting practitioners from outside the university as advisory experts in the editorial departments is also an ideal scenario.

45 RUMOUR

Rumours are difficult to investigate because of their nature. Numbers in rumours have not decreased despite extensive mass media coverage, but have increased enormously due to the Internet!

The term “rumour” was coined in the 20th century. A rumour has mostly negative connotations and all definitions of the rumour share an uncertainty of the truth.

Why do rumours arise?

- *Psychologically-oriented answer:* rumours as answers to individual or collective problems.
- *Sociologically-oriented answer:* if situations are not defined or only under-defined, then humans are anxious to create alternative interpretations. The “lowest common denominator” then forms the core of a rumour. Rumours as “improved news” – replacement for missing information from ordinary channels.
- *Psychoanalytically-oriented answer:* rumours are triggered by psychological repressions that are relieved by the articulation of rumours.

Rumour is a “collective act of relaxation to clarify an uncertain situation”.

Usually, research cannot begin in the initial phase of a rumour, therefore research is difficult.

Why are rumours spread? Possession of current information increases the status (the lower the status of the communicator, the more potent the effect) and the general ‘inner’ urge of humans to communicate.

In systems theory, rumours can be regarded as networked communication processes: all social systems are directly related to communication. Disturbances in social systems lead to communicative adaptation reactions, which may be rumours. A rumour is functional if it reduces disturbances.

Four types of rumours:

1. *Situational rumours:* they only have immediate validity and create an explanation for a real, badly defined (i.e. unexplained) situation through collective effort. Mostly the negative variant is preferred; content is not necessarily true, however plausible.

2. *Substitutive rumours*: replacement of a communication channel (media shortage situation). If people think that they are only poorly informed, rumours inevitably arise to compensate; content here is oriented towards truth and plausibility.
3. *Mythical rumours*: address the 'collective unconscious'. Truth, plausibility or context are completely irrelevant, are not predictable and occur completely surprising, and are usually derived from myths.
4. *Artificial rumours*: rumours deliberately circulated by individuals or organisations for a specific purpose (e.g. war propaganda, economic rumours).

Rumours spread: they have a life of their own, which is always designed for self-preservation. The content of a rumour changes only slightly in essence. The greater the relevance assessed by participants, the less they change the content and the sooner they are ready to pass it on. Taking up rumours in mass media always increases their potentiation/promotes their spread enormously; if a rumour has made it into the media, its credibility is increased. Denial does not end a rumour but usually reinforces it instead.

Four variants of ending rumours:

1. Facts are presented (in the media) as inapplicable
2. All addressees of the rumour have been reached
3. Events of higher actuality (also other rumours) overlay the original rumour so that it dies
4. The rumour and its context are unreservedly and credibly explained to the public.

46 THEORIES

Theories are plausible, self-contradictory systems of statements that are (still) considered true or unfalsified hypotheses. Also, theories explain why real facts exist in a certain way and not another. Besides, they reconstruct inter-relationships in a specific object area and make areas of reality understandable and interpretable. The goals of a theory are always: description, explanation, didactic representation and, if necessary, a prognosis. There are normative and descriptive theories. *Normative*: a value judgement; *ethical*: right or wrong; *descriptive*: descriptive, observable phenomena are put into generalised words. There are also *analytical* theories: these give structure to what is observed coherently or incoherently. There are also *causal-deterministic* theories: here, cause and effect are linked. Finally, there are *prognostic-probabilistic* theories, which make predictions with a certain probability. There are medium-range theories, basic theories, metatheories (i.e. super theories), paradigms; and these, in turn, can be fundamental or universal, purposeful or functional, or concrete depending on the subject area.

47 THEORY AND PRACTICE OF JOURNALISTIC FORMS OF PRESENTATION

When and why did different journalistic genres such as "report", "reportage", "feature", "commentary" or "gloss" emerge? What communicative functions do these forms of representation have? Forms of presentation in journalism are either informative or opinion-forming.

Informative forms of presentation (function = inform) are:

- news item
- bulletin
- coverage
- feature
- interview

Opinion-forming forms of presentation (function = rate) are:

- comment
- gloss
- review/criticism

Entertaining forms of presentation (function = analyse) are:

- coverage
- feature

Reporting forms of presentation become increasingly subjective when events are presented (newspaper reports are less subjective; reports are very subjective).

- *Newspaper report*: a newspaper report represents an event or fact by reporting facts. Indisputable information about news is given. The reported facts must be verifiable.
- *Feature*: a feature is the direct implementation of structures and/or facts by involving the actors concerned. Here, connections become concrete and descriptive. The situation and inter-relationships are shown as examples.
- *News magazine story*: a news magazine story is a narrative of or about actions with causes and consequences for the participants. It shows development and assesses it.
- *Background report*: a background report describes and explains complex issues with the people involved. It should clarify and assess inter-relationships through an analytical presentation.

- *Report*: a report describes experiences or experienced events as related by observers or participants. It overcomes barriers or distance and allows the reader to participate.

Display format of messages:

- Pyramid form of a message: 'hard message style' with lead (W-questions: who? when? where? what?) and body (the 'less important' part)

Empirical forms of representation in detail:

- *Report*: provides facts, indisputable information about news and the verifiability of the reported facts. The news is the core element of journalistic work. There are reports, which for example report on events known in advance. There are background reports, which inform the recipient about the consequences and effects of events. Current reports cover surprising events; these are the most common form of reports.

Reports are the most subjective of empirical forms of representation. They see the special part of an event as an experience and are usually authentic experience or eyewitness reports. Reports have an informational core, supplement the news and are intended to let the reader participate, as well as overcome social distances and institutional barriers. In other words, they show 'behind the scenes'. Reports can be portraits about people, milieu, political events and much more.

- *Features*: reports should capture individual fates without asserting universality. Features, on the other hand, are intended to capture universally valid information, shown by an example. A feature should be as

objective as possible and directly present universally valid issues by involving the actors. Backgrounds and connections should be shown, and states and events should be analysed. Features must place facts in a larger context and clarify the dimension of a topic. A feature does not have to be current (but it can be).

- *News magazine story*: The ‘news story’. The content of a news story consists of facts and their interpretation by the author. The interpretations are often formulated as general tendencies. News stories tell a story, while reports describe experiences plus events, and features describe situations. News stories often have a ‘tendency’ and can seem manipulated to the reader.

Cognitive forms of representation:

- *Commentary* and *gloss* are both cognitive, opinion-oriented, judgmental forms of presentation. Messages and reports convey verifiable facts – commentary and glossary take a position, classify and evaluate. Some people say that the separation of news and opinion is an artificial one. Evaluations are also made using single words and sentences or the structure of a message. There is a point of view or perspective in every message. A commentary has roots in rhetoric and satire. Both have been adapted to journalism through brevity and reference to current events.
- *Comment*: comments should make observations about on an event by explaining or evaluating it for good reasons. To explain means to embed the event in its historical-social context, whereby it makes sense and becomes understandable. Evaluating

means measuring the event with a legal or moral yardstick, which gives it a value. The core of the commentary is argumentation. Arguing means to support a thesis with strong reasons. The reasons consist of a law or a rule and one or more premises, all of which depend on experience. The reasons are strong when they are individually true and when they do not violate the laws of formal and logical closure.

- A *standpoint commentary* pursues a simple strategy: it does not respond to contradictory arguments but constructs a straightforward, easy-to-follow line.
- A *dialectical commentary* gives counterarguments the same weight as pro-arguments. However, it develops two lines of argumentation separately and does not allow the respective arguments to constantly react to each other. It counts on readers who want to see a panorama of reasons and backgrounds that is as complete as possible, and who dare to carry out the weighting themselves (similar to expert reports).
- A *discursive commentary* allows pro- and contra-arguments to collide directly. The stronger argument wins, but the weaker one does not vanish into thin air as if it had never existed. Its defeat strengthens the remaining argument because it has measured itself against the weaker and now contains the traces of this struggle.
- *Structure of commentaries*: modules are facts, thesis, argumentation (counter- and pro-arguments), outlook; standard structure can be varied: the thesis appears first, then the thesis and argumentation alternate, and facts are incorporated into the argumentation.

- *Gloss*: in principle, the gloss follows the structural patterns of the commentary, thus arguing polemically, comparatively, analytically or constructively. But with the techniques described (exaggeration, transmission, transgression), it distorts the message and argumentation and ridicules the processes, institutions and powerful people involved. A gloss twists reality, which in turn is already twisted. From the second reversal, the aim is to produce an original, undistorted reality. The gloss distorts reality to something recognisable. The gloss is, therefore, a special form of commentary, a short commentary with mocking, ironic, grotesque-macabre, sarcastic content. It takes on a person or an object, ironises, makes fun of, mocks, attacks with distancing, hurtful, destructive intent. but: a gloss cannot do whatever it likes! There are legal limits to glosses (defamatory criticism, for example, is not permitted).
- *Differences between commentaries and glosses*: While the commentary argues, the gloss works with satirical construction. Also, the commentary works with linguistic imagery and illustration, while the commentary works with terms and logic. The argumentation of the commentary is comprehensible to the recipient and appeals to the mind, so it is rational, while the commentary functions irrationally and illogically. The commentary takes an explicit position, the gloss only implicitly.

48 TRANSCULTURAL COMMUNICATION

An examination of transcultural communication now deals with cross-cultural communication relationships in this in-

creasingly globalised world. Communication network: the fact that transcultural communication is not simply a matter of intercultural or international communication, indicates that the globalisation of media communication has created different communication spaces that cannot be divided into states or national cultures. Parallels can be drawn to the region of European communication as an example – which, provided the public sphere is a transnational European one, is central to the legitimacy of the EU among its citizens. One similarity is the communication space of (Afghan) diaspora communities, i.e. of migrants who are scattered across different countries and form an independent community (“German Turks”, “British Asians” or “German Afghans” etc.). Transcultural communication therefore emphasises at this point that cultural communication spaces are viewed beyond traditional national cultures, which can be transnational (for example Europe’s communication space), but also cultural phenomena that are independent of nations (diaspora communities).

49 TRANSNATIONAL COMMUNICATION

Public communication increasingly crosses, undermines and overcomes national borders. This Internationalisation process is an essential component of globalisation in its political, cultural and economic dimension. When such (national) linguistic or territorial political boundaries are overcome, one speaks of transnational communication, whereby transnational in demarcation to international means that communication does not only take place across borders between states or institutions but also between groups and individuals as well as between actors that cannot be attrib-

uted to a “nationally” defined group in linguistic or territorial policy.

50 VOLONTARIAT/INTERNSHIP

This type of internship in journalism adds to practical training experience as an editor in a media institution. This special form of intensive journalistic training, based on university studies, is often a prerequisite in Germany for finding employment as a journalist (=editor) at a newspaper or radio station.

As a rule, an internship is the main route of access to journalistic professions.

During the internship, all interns, i.e. prospective journalists are designated as “*Volontariat*”. According to the collective agreement in Germany, this in-house training generally lasts 24 months. A prerequisite for an internship is often a university degree. With one exception, prospective journalists must complete an internship before they can be appointed as journalist, even if they have already completed their media training.

An unpaid intern works in various editorial offices and departments during his or her service. For example, the intern might work for a radio station in the news, local and political departments and e.g. culture or sports.

The greatest advantage of this classic internship is undoubtedly its great practical relevance. The interns are fully involved in everyday editorial work and can, to a certain extent, “learn by doing”.

The difference between an internship and *Volontariat* or unpaid internship: An *internship* is a kind of taster course that gives students an initial insight into a certain professional field. As a rule, internships last between one and six months. This short period is therefore only sufficient for professional orientation. In comparison, *volontariat* is much more intensive: students attend special courses and seminars that prepare them specifically for their future journalistic tasks in the company. There is also enough time to do this because it usually lasts between 12 and 24 months.

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2 Examples of journalism training study programmes at German universities

The fact-finding tour of the Afghan delegation in Germany constitutes the second task of the project. Since our Afghan partners' information about modern dual journalist training outside their own country is minimal, we found it necessary to inform our project partners not just in theory about the current status of international journalism education but also to offer them the opportunity to learn about 1) examples of concepts, aims and structures of dual journalist training (BA in Journalism at the Catholic University of Eichstätt and the BA in Journalism at the Technical University of Dortmund) in praxis and 2) the reality of the praxis. This trip aimed to provide insights into the aims, programmes and structures of the journalism education in universities and editorial praxis in Germany on-site and to facilitate an exchange of experiences with German representatives from the academic discipline and journalistic praxis. Also, the fact-finding trip aimed to discuss, reflect on and coordinate subsequent project steps with the Afghan project partner given the knowledge gained about different models of dual journalist training at universities in the Federal Republic of Germany.

a) BA in Journalism at the Catholic University of Eichstätt

On 8 March 2016, the Afghan delegation travelled to Eichstätt. They were welcomed by Prof. Klaus-Dieter Altmeppen, holder of the academic Chair for Journalism II at the Catholic University of Eichstätt. On 9 March, Prof. Altmeppen provided a detailed overview to the group about the educational aims and content, structure and organisation of the journalism course at the Catholic University of Eichstätt and conveyed the basic principles of one model of dual journalist training in Germany.

Another focus was the discussion of content and structure of the curriculum of the six-semester course at Eichstätt University, the percentage of teaching theoretical knowledge and of the practical skills (editorial training) as well as whether and how other communication science sub-areas such as public relations, organisation communication and advertising feature on the course curriculum at Eichstätt. Prof. Altmeppen explained to the group that journalism is just one part of communication science and forms the basis for theoretical training. In total, our guests learned many instructive textual, structural, organisational and administrative details about the journalism course and how external training is organised and integrated via an internship. With this direct discussion and by visiting the practical training facilities of the course journalism in Eichstätt (editorial training desk), any doubts as to whether a similar dual structure can work were dismissed and initial ideas regarding its implementation were developed, including which textual and structural elements might be suitable for a dual journalism course in Nangarhar. In the end, Prof. Klaus Meier and Prof. Altmeppen showcased some of the current research projects of journalism science at the Catholic University of Eichstätt. In the following, the bachelor programme in Journalism at the Catholic University of Eichstätt will be discussed in more detail.

The bachelor's degree in journalism in Eichstätt rests on several pillars. In communication science, students deal with the media and journalism development, the administrative, legal and political frameworks of the media system, and issues of media ethics. Besides, the profession of journalism and its self-image are analysed in various departments, i.e. the media effects and media usage habits of the audience and various target groups. Since the handling of empirical data, rankings and surveys is part of the day-to-day business of a journalist, empirical social research methods and procedures also form an important part of the theory part of the programme. At the end of their studies in the sixth semester, students write a bachelor's dissertation on a topic relevant to a media issue.

The journalism degree in Eichstätt offers comprehensive and multi-media journalistic training. About one-third of study time is reserved for practical training. Taken together, the exercises and projects of the practical part of the programme make up a whole year of the course.

The programme provides technical equipment in the media institute and teaching staff as well as digital radio and television studios. There is also a cross-media newsroom in the media house. Learning and practising take place in the television and radio stations, the teaching department and editorial desks. A special feature of the Eichstätt journalism course is the media workshop. For eight weeks, practical lecturers teach students full-time in the genres of print, radio and television media. In addition to the lecturers on the study programme, media professionals from print, internet, radio and television pass on their experiences and ensure contact with professional practice. Here, not only news and reports are written, and radio features and films are produced but also entire magazines, magazine broadcasts as well as websites are designed. Besides, students are advised to gain experience in editorial offices. The semester break is sufficient time to complete an eight-week internship. The editorial internship takes place either during the semester break between the fourth and fifth or fifth and sixth semester. The duration of the internship must be at least eight consecutive weeks. It is also possible to complete two consecutive four-week internships. Students have to apply independently for an internship. Recognised internships comprise print, TV, radio and online editorial departments or news agencies. Internships in press offices and PR agencies are not recognised. In the third semester, there is an approximately 20-minute information event on the planning and preparation of the internship and its formal requirements. Students receive important information about the requirements for the recognition of the internship as well as helpful hints for planning, application and further procedures. The event offers in-depth preparation for editorial work.

A period abroad is part of the bachelor's programme in Journalism. At the end of the programme, students can show what they have learned in practical terms: they can do research and write a reportage, make a film or produce a radio report.

MODULE

Semester	Communication Science	Methods of Communication Science	Journalistic Praxis	Fundamental Social Competence	Elective Subject
1	Fundamentals of CS (5)	Empirical Communication Research I: fundamentals of empirical social science (5)	Journalistic work I (10)	Social structure of the FRG in international comparison (5)	25 ECTS³⁰/points altogether (+15 ECTS abroad) possible foci:
	Media systems (5) Media law (5) Three of the following modules: current media developments (5)	Empirical Communication Research II: content analysis and questioning (5)	Journalistic work II (5) Online journalism (5) semester holidays Internal internship I: Print (5)	Introduction to political science: fundamentals and methods (5) Two of the following modules: Introduction to philosophy (5) Introduction to international politics (5) Political system and comparative political science (5)	
2	Expert and subject journalism Audience and impact research (5) Journalism and public relations in society (5)		Radio (5) TV/video journalism (5) Term holidays Internal internship I: Radio (5)		Journalism and intercultural communication Literature and culture Latin American studies History: periods, areas, cultures Politics and society Business economics
3			Magazine production TV (5)		
4					
5		Study abroad (30) 15 ECTS-points Communication Science/Journalism + 15 ECTS-points elective course			
6	Bachelor dissertation (10)		From semester 4: practical work (5)		

Source: http://www.traumatherapie-jugendliche.de/fileadmin/1303/Downloads/Modulhandbuch_BA_Journalistik.pdf

b) BA in Journalism at the Technical University of Dortmund

On 13 March 2016, the official programme continued with a trip to Dortmund. There the delegation visited the most highly staffed university for journalism in Germany where executive director Prof. Susanne Fengler welcomed our guests and gave a speech on the aims, concept, content and structure of the Dortmund dual journalist training model. One focus of the subsequent discussion was the conceptual similarities and differences between journalism education in Eichstätt and Dortmund; in addition, we talked about the centralised federal pluralism of academic models in Germany – a concept that was alien to our Afghan guests – with reciprocal recognition of final degrees as specialised training by professional journalist associations. After the speech and the discussion, the delegation visited the institute's editorial training centres. They were especially impressed by the print training centre where students create an online magazine by themselves. The Afghan guests were visibly surprised that there was no control of topics by the professorship in this editorial office. Furthermore, the guests learned about an important structural element of the teaching editorial regarding the organisation of this magazine: students in the higher semester who have already completed a university external internship instruct younger students. This element also needs to be taken into account when it comes to modelling a prospective institution of similar training editorial centres for journalism education at Afghan universities. In the following, the bachelor's programme in Journalism at the Technical University of Dortmund will be presented in more detail.

The Dortmund Journalism course offers a unique model: it integrates practical vocational training in media directly into a university degree programme. Students therefore not only acquire a bachelor's or master's degree but also the professional status of journalists. The Dortmund model of integrating two education steps into one has proven to be a solid basis for career entry and pursuing a career in journalism. The bachelor's programme in Journalism is divided into

18 modules, which are studied over eight semesters. The modules consist of sub-sections, which relate and complement each other thematically. In general, there is a concluding module examination. The bachelor's degree is completed in two fields. For example, courses in cultural, social and economic sciences are offered in addition to the specialisation of journalism. Hence, each student chooses an additional complementary subject. This enables students to specialise in another field.³¹ In addition, the students work for one year in a training department. The editorial training desks are an important part of the Dortmund study programme. Here the students learn editorial processes, teamwork and journalistic craft in practice and are responsible for the institute's own publications. Four semesters of study are followed by a 12-month integrated traineeship in a media company.³² For one year, they learn about journalistic practice at the best training institutions in the country, establish contacts with future employers and apply their knowledge. This is followed by two semesters at university, during which, among other things they prepare for their bachelor's dissertations. The programme concludes with an oral exam. All in all, 240 credit points must be earned during the bachelor's programme. Each semester accounts for 30 credit points. The study programme leads to a Bachelor of Arts degree.

So far, about 1,000 graduates have successfully completed their journalism studies in Dortmund. According to a survey, nearly 40 per cent of them work for and on electronic media (radio and television), a good 30 per cent in daily newspapers, around ten per cent in press offices and the rest in agencies, as magazine editors or elsewhere. Nevertheless, the Dortmund model of journalism education has performed well on the labour market. The integration of the internship (*Volontariat*) into the study programme, the programme's broad journalistic training in work and production techniques,

31 Students on the bachelor's programme in Journalism can choose between the following complementary subjects: English Studies, German Studies, Sociology, Musicology, Sports Science, Political Science, History, Philosophy, Law, Economics and Religious Studies.

32 The Institute for Journalism has been cooperating with leading German media companies such as ZDF, WDR, *Die Zeit*, *Handelsblatt* and Deutsche Welle for many years. Therefore, students can complete a central part of their journalistic education at these companies. The media companies that choose to partner the Institute of Journalism not only promote academic journalism education: they also have the opportunity to test potential upcoming journalists for a prolonged period.

work on concrete projects and the integration of a second academic subject lead to continued high acceptance of journalists trained in Dortmund.

YEAR 1

Semester	Module				
1	MODULE 1 Fundamentals of Journalism Introduction to Journalism (4CP) Media systems in Germany (3CP)	MODULE 2 Law and Politics Public Duty Normative Fundamentals of Journalism (3CP) Fundamentals of Media Law (Media Law I) (3CP)	MODULE 3 Methodology and Methods Economics Theory and Theories of Social and Communication Research (3CP)	MODULE 4 Journalistic research and mediation: base module Theory and praxis of journalistic forms of presentation (4CP) Research (3CP)	MODULE 17 BA 17 Elective subject (30CP) (each)
	MODULE 5 Media Economics Introduction to the Media Economy of Journalism (3CP)	Developments in Media Law (Media Law II) (4CP)	Methods of Empirical Communication Research (3CP) Statistics for Journalists (3CP)	MODULE 6 Internship and preparation Internship in an editorial office (5CP)	MODULE 7 Journalistic Praxis: Technology and Exercises Introduction to TV Journalism (3CP) Introduction to Radio Journalism (3CP) Introduction to Print and Online Journalism (3CP)

YEAR 2

3	Seminar in Media Economics (3CP) Introduction to Internet Economy and the Digital Transformation of the Media (3CP)		MODULE 9 Empirical Communication Science Introduction to Data Analysis (3CP) Project Journalism Research I: Procedures of Content Analysis (4CP)	Internship – Ring Lecture (2CP)	MODULE 10 Journalistic Research and Mediation consolidation module Forms of narrative presentation (3CP) Research (2CP)	MODULE 11 Editorial work Editorial I (7CP)
	MODULE 8 International Journalism Foreign Reporting (3CP)	PROJECT Journalism Research II: Procedures of Questioning (4CP)	MODULE 12 Scientific and Journalistic Ethics Introduction (3CP) Consolidation (3CP)	Media workshop (2CP)	Editorial II (7CP)	

YEAR 3

Semester			Module		
5		International Media Systems and Journalistic Cultures (3CP)	MODULE 13 Seminars in Journalism: Subjects, thematic fields and specialisations (4CP)	MODULE 14 Current Research fields in Journalism and Innovations in Journalism (14CP)	MODULE 15 Journalism Praxis: Journalism Project and Reflection (8CP)
6					MODULE 16 Bachelor dissertation (12CP)

YEAR 4

7	MODULE 18	
	Integrated internship (55CP)	
8	Accompanying seminar: Quality & Ethics (2CP)	
	Reflection Seminar: Quality & Ethics (3CP)	

c) *Leipzig School of Media: further training for practising journalists*

After returning from Dortmund to Leipzig on 16 March 2016, a visit to the Leipzig School of Media (LSM)³³ on Tuesday afternoon was the next part of the visitors' programme. The dual university journalism education at the Universities of Eichstätt and Dortmund does not comprise any special teaching programmes for the further training of practising journalists. Since a similar further training alongside university education for journalists is an important issue in Afghanistan and a respective institution has not yet been established, a future model needs to incorporate different structural options for the further training of journalists as a second training field. The information about respective further education institutions in Germany was therefore an additional important element of the fact-finding trip. For this reason, the Afghan delegation chose the LSM: firstly, because of its various training programmes and, secondly, because of how it is organised. It is a private institution that works closely with the Institute for Communication and Media Science at the University of Leipzig concerning teaching personnel (professors, graduates) as well as with the Technical School for Technology, Science and Culture (Leipzig) and other educational institutions. Further education for journalists can be structurally integrated into university education programmes but – to make optimal use of personnel and subject resources, and to create synergy – it can also be organised and arranged with external university institutes such as, for example, professional associations or private education institutions in collaboration with the university. The LSM serves as an example for such an option and as a source of information regarding further education programmes in Afghanistan for modern and important professional fields of the future in journalism (due to changes in technology, like digitalisation).

The director of the LSM, Michael Geffken, an experienced former news-

33 Since the LSM offers a variety of study formats, no individual model will be presented here. It is possible to visit the website of LSM to study different models (<https://www.leipzigschoolofmedia.de/>)

paper and magazine journalist, presented the organisation, structure and cooperation partners of the LSM and their master's programmes in New Media Journalism, Cross-Media Management and Mobile Marketing to the guests from Afghanistan.

Further training for practising journalists does not just mean the professionalisation of occupational fields and areas people have worked, but particularly a specialised further education for new forms of professional working conditions. Mr Geffken offered to advise Nangarhar University if similar study programmes for further education are introduced there in the future.

3 Examples of programmes in Development Communication

KEFA HAMIDI AND MARGIT SCHULZE

To comprehend public communication relations specific to Afghanistan, RAWAN (1993; 2002) demands that “relevant premises” like the “relationship between social and ethnic structures and religious communities” have to first be clarified. Afghan society is still predominantly shaped by traditional values; religiously and ethnically defined communities still form the most important societal identification and action factors (see SCHETTER, 2010). They demand a high measure of inner-societal communication that should be created, i.e. progressed through journalism (see also HIPPER 2004, p. 5). The empirical findings of HAMIDI (2013a), who has ascertained five significant journalistic types among Afghan journalists (mediator, informer, missionary, critic and service provider), point to this as well. The mediator was identified as the main type. This type of journalist regards the main aim of his or her work as the mediation between religious and/or ethnic communities. From these findings, it can be deduced that a model for academic journalism education in Afghanistan needs to combine theoretical elements and those that simulate praxis, especially taking into account the specific cultural, social, communicative and particularly confessional para-

meters and media structures in Afghanistan. Its main educational objective should be to transmit and reflect on mediation competence in addition to professional competencies.

These views are linked to the definition of ‘development communication’, which is mainly used by countries in the Global South (Africa, Latin America and Asia) and which emphasises the aspect of a “societal consensus” enabled by ‘development communication’ (see MEHER, part 1, points 1 and 4).

In the following, individual courses for development communication in the area of Communication for Social Change in various countries will be presented.

BACHELOR PROGRAMMES

a) BA in Media and International Development, University of East Anglia (Great Britain)

Website: <https://www2.uea.ac.uk/study/undergraduate/degree/detail/ba-media-and-international-development>

Qualification: Bachelor of Arts

Duration: three years/six semesters

Form: workshops with hands-on skills,

Themes: the relations between media, communication and international development: how do charities and other development organisations communicate famine, poverty and developing countries, and what effect does this have on public attitudes? Why do only some humanitarian crises make it onto our TV screens and what effect does this have on government policy? How important is press freedom and freedom of speech in promoting democracy and economic growth? What is the impact of social media in developing countries – do

Facebook and Twitter facilitate citizens' engagement with politics or do they undermine genuine political participation?

Teachers: speakers from NGOs, experienced practitioners, university lecturers

Research projects: dissertation

Career perspectives: a diverse range of career options: vast array of organisations that value knowledge and skills related to international development, from government agencies and the United Nations, to private sector companies and consultancy firms, to the many hundreds of large and small non-government organisations that focus on development and humanitarian work; media; NGO communications; development journalism; humanitarian communication; media development

Modules: 1st Year: *Humanitarian Communication* (6.6 ECTS, changing trends in humanitarian communication by both the international news media and development actors; a critical review of media coverage of development and poverty in the Global South and the role and responsibility of journalists reporting about humanitarian crises; conventional strategies of humanitarian communication used by development charities; this module also contains an integral practical skills component). *Introduction to Development Studies* (13.4 ECTS, introduction to International Development Studies. Themes of poverty, inequality, economic growth and sustainability are explored from the perspectives of development economics, social development, human geography and environment and natural resource management. Several contemporary development issues are examined including globalisation, environmental degradation, gender, the state, aid, property rights, knowledge and progress). *Media Power* (6.6 ECTS, introducing key media theories and using them to think about power in our society, theoretical approaches to media content, production,

regulation and reception, including key themes such as freedom of speech, public sphere and political economy) A range of electives including: *Introduction to Political Communication or World Cinemas* (6.6 ECTS), *Intro to Economics of Development* (6.6 ECTS)/*Human Geography* (6.6 ECTS)/*Natural Resources and Development Principles and Concepts* (6.6 ECTS)/ *Politics of Development* (6.6 ECTS)/ *Social Anthropology and International Development* (6.6 ECTS)

2nd Year: *Communication for Development* (6.6 ECTS, behavioural change communication, participatory communication, press freedom, media literacy, media and conflict and access to new communication technologies)

A range of electives including: a variety of languages; *Gender and media; Digital media and society; Politics and society, Reception studies, Media and identity; Methods; Economics for development; Gender and development; Geographies of development; People and place; Latin American development, South Asian development* etc.

3rd Year: *Dissertation* (13.4 ECTS); *Media Production for Development* (6.6 ECTS, introduction to practical production techniques for storytelling relevant to the field of international development. The module will teach the basic skills required to make a short film/documentary. Skills taught will include pre-planning a production, working in a team, selecting appropriate equipment, interview techniques, camera work, lighting, sound recording and editing; taught in collaboration with a film production company).

A range of electives include (6.6 ECTS each): *Development in Practice; Development Work Experience; Economics for Development 3; Education and International Development;*

Gender and Development; Public Policy and Welfare; Sub-Saharan Africa Development etc.

*b) BSc in Development Communication,
College of Development Communication,
University of the Philippines Los Baños
(Philippines)*

Website: www.devcom.edu.ph/site/academic-programmes.html

Qualification: BA in Development Communication (BSDC)

Duration: three years

Form: integrated laboratories; a non-commercial broadcasting entity; hubs for interactive application development and video production; seminars and lectures

Themes: general problems of development; communication concepts and principles; skills in mediated and interpersonal communication; theoretical and ethical principles in the arts and sciences that underlie the study of development communication; critical thinking through the conduct of research in development communication; application of concepts, principles, skills, methods and tools of development communication to help solve the problems of a developing society

Teachers: university lecturers

Research projects: the college is involved in local, national and international research and extension programmes; an educational radio programme; global web portal on Communication for Development (ComDevAsia)

Career perspectives: government agencies, international organisations, NGOs, private companies, mainstream media and local and international academic institutions; engagement in research, facilitation, communication planning and implementation, communication materials development, journalism for social change, acade-

mic writing, broadcasting, skills building, as well as the implementation of advisory and action projects that apply communication as a process to attain empowerment and equity of people.

Modules: general education courses, core courses, specialised courses and elective courses: *Introduction to Development Communication* (3 ECTS, communication theory and analytical survey of communication media for development); *Introduction to Mass Media Writing* (3 ECTS, principles and practice); *Fundamentals of Development Journalism* (3 ECTS); *Fundamentals of Community Broadcasting* (3 ECTS); *Fundamentals of Educational Communication and Technology* (3 ECTS); *Introduction to academic Communication* (3 ECTS); *Interpersonal Communication in Development* (3 ECTS); *Communication and Society* (3 ECTS); *Introduction to Communication Theory* (3 ECTS); *Writing and Reporting for Development* (3 ECTS); *Participatory Development Journalism* (3 ECTS); *Multi-Media Materials Planning and Design* (3 ECTS); *Media-Based Learning Systems* (3 ECTS); *Distance Learning Systems in Development Communication Practice* (3 ECTS); *Managing Information for Development* (3 ECTS); *Communicating Science for Development* (3 ECTS); *Communication Campaigns and Programmes* (3 ECTS); *Communication Internship* (3 ECTS); *Introduction to Communication Research* (3 ECTS); *Undergraduate dissertation* (6 ECTS)

*c) BA and MA in Development Communication,
University of Nairobi (Kenia)*

The bachelor and master's programmes in Communication Studies at the University of Nairobi have been designed to respond to the emerging trends that present critical communication challenges to Africa. This curriculum is based on the work of UNESCO, which conducted an assessment on communication education in Africa in collaboration with communication and media scholars. The general objective of the four-year Bachelor of Arts in Communication Studies with specialisation in Development Communication is to equip the student with foundational, scientifically derived and practically grounded knowledge and understanding of communication in its widest meaning in mediated, group, interpersonal, mass and intercultural forms. The MA in Communication Studies Development Communication option seeks to prepare students for careers in communication and media in public and private sectors, civil society and international and inter-governmental organisations. Further information available: <http://www.comminit.com/global/content/university-nairobi-bachelor-and-masters-arts-development-communication> and <http://journalism.uonbi.ac.ke/node/1363/>

MASTER PROGRAMMES

*d) MA in Communication for Development,
Malmö University (Sweden)*

Website: <https://edu.mah.se/sv/programme/HACFD>

Qualification: Master of Arts

Duration: one year or four semesters: a part-time study programme, 60 ECTS in total

Fees: for non-European students only: 12 536 USD (converted) for the entire programme

Form: Internet-based distance-learning (online collaboration and discussion); webcast seminars; virtual classrooms; field-work; weekend seminars at Malmö University; online lectures; block seminars; a final project

Teachers: mostly internal teachers from the university

Research projects: integrated into the MA, for instance, development aid projects of which media development forms an integral part

Career perspectives: working in international organisations and media development, journalism, (media) development cooperation

Themes: relations and interfaces between development communication and communication for social change; global development cooperation: participation, dialogue, creating empowerment and sustainable social change

Modules: 1st SEMESTER: *Media, Globalisation and Development* (15 ECTS, consists of Globalisation and Communication and Culture and Development: the first module gives a broad introduction to globalisation debates about questions of communication, media and social change, stressing the cultural rather than political and economic aspects. The subsequent module gives a similar introduction to development theory and the field of international development cooperation, with an em-

phasis on culture's role in development studies and development cooperation. Special attention is furthermore paid to the journalistic and literary depiction of the emerging globalised world and especially of the Global South.)

2nd SEMESTER: *Communication, Culture and Media Analysis* (15 ECTS, consists of Communication and Development Cooperation and Culture and Media Analysis: the modules are connected in that the first module focuses on a range of communication for development organisations and the discourses which they are part of, while in the second module students conduct an in-depth analysis of selected media texts and/or practices to gain a better understanding of the discourses they make up, or which surround them)

3rd SEMESTER: *New Media, ICT and Development* (7.5 ECTS, consists of Information and Communication Technologies for Development (ICT4D) and Participatory Media Approaches to Development; New Media Activism and Development; Social Media, Data and Development); *Research Methodology* (7.5 ECTS, allows students to gain practical experience in using research methods and to reflect upon and discuss methodological issues of relevance for Communication for Development in general, and the programme they are planning to pursue during their degree project in particular)

4th SEMESTER: Communication for Development Degree Project (15 ECTS, course offers an opportunity to investigate a specific area of Communication for Development. The project work must deal with one or more of the central themes of Communication for Development,

i.e. Media, Globalisation and Development; Communication, Culture and Media Analysis; ICT, New Media and Development and/or Research Methodologies)

*e) MA in Development Communication,
College of Development Communication,
University of the Philippines Los Baños
(Philippines)*

Website: <http://fics.upou.edu.ph/index.php/masters/mdc>

Qualification: MA in Development Communication (MDC)

Duration: 2.5 years

Form: seminars and lectures

Themes: apply the principles and approaches of development communication; design, produce and evaluate communication materials and programmes; conceptualise and conduct applied communication research; practice the values of a development communicator

Teachers: university lecturers

Research projects: the college is involved in local, national and international research and extension programmes; an educational radio programme; global web portal on Communication for Development (ComDevAsia); capacity building of local government units in communication planning; Collaborative Change Communication

Career perspectives: government agencies, international organisations, NGOs, private companies, mainstream media and local and international academic institutions; engagement in research, facilitation, communication planning and implementation, communication materials development, journalism for social change, academic writing, broadcasting, skills building, as well as in the implementation of advisory and action projects

that apply communication as a process to attain empowerment and equity of people

Modules: major courses, core courses, master's thesis

Development Communication Concepts and Approaches (3 ECTS); *Cultural and Critical Theories and Frameworks in Media and Mass Communication* (3 ECTS, concepts, frameworks/constructs of cultural and critical theories, studies of media and communication focusing on culture and its creation of meanings and identities, the relationship of high and mass cultures and the role of mass media in creating and maintaining power and social relationships); *Communication Research and Evaluation* (3 ECTS, introduction to the process and methods of communication research, pre-testing and evaluation of communication materials, evaluation of communication programmes and projects); *Print and Broadcast Production* (3 ECTS, processes and techniques of print and production of development communication materials for radio broadcast from conceptualisation, design and preparation to utilisation); *Multimedia Production* (3 ECTS, development communication materials); *Communication, Social Marketing and Social Mobilisation* (3 ECTS, application of communication, marketing and other social science paradigms, strategies, concepts, principles and practices in promoting and mobilising people for developmental programmes, ideas and products); *Communication and Media in the ASEAN*³⁴ *Context* (3 ECTS, role of communication programmes, information and communications technologies, mass media and media systems in the development and evolution of the ASEAN); *Communication of Scientific and Technical Information* (3 ECTS); master's thesis (6 ECTS)

*f) MA in Communication for Development,
University of Zambia (Zambia)*

The MA in Communication for Development (MCD) is a one-and-half-year master's degree aimed at training personnel working in various development-related assignments within Zambia, the Southern African Development Community (SADC) countries and elsewhere. The programme's goal is to train graduates to improve communication for development practices in social, economic, political and other areas of human endeavour thereby closing the gap thought to be responsible for the lack of progress during the "lost decades" of development in Zambia and other countries. It is hoped that this will make development practices more participatory and sustainable. Further information available:

<http://www.comminit.com/global/content/university-zambia-master-communication-development-mcd> and <http://humanities.unza.zm/masspostgrad.html>

*g) MA in Communication for Development,
Tezpur University (India)*

The MA in Communication for Development (MA C4D) programme was launched in July 2016, with support from the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) to cater to the needs of trained development communicators in the country. The final curriculum has been developed following the overall framework provided in the Communication for Social and Behaviour Change: Learning Modules for Academic and Education Institutions in India published by UNICEF. The course offers a mix of classroom and field-based learning, where most of the courses offered have a practical education component. The unique feature of the programme is that the students have to undertake a six-month internship with a development agency in their final semester. Further information available:

<http://www.comminit.com/global/content/tezpur-university-ma-communication-development> and www.tezu.ernet.in/dmass/

FURTHER TRAINING FOR PRACTISING MEDIA PROFESSIONALS

*h) Asia-Pacific Development and Communication
Centre, Dhurakij Pundit University Bangkok
(Thailand)*

Website: <http://www.dpu.ac.th/adcc/course/18/>

Degree: certificate of participation in the Communication for Social Development course

Duration: two-week course

Form: in-house sessions (seminars and lectures), practical assignments, field trips

Themes: understanding crucial issues contributed to social development and behavioural change by social communication; description of various components of Communication for Social Development (C4SD); understanding the use of C4SD and development of skills for Policy Advocacy; identifying substantial elements of the cultural, social, political and economic factors underlying health behaviour and behaviour change; analysing behavioural aspects of health problems, the context, target groups and their social environments as well as the target groups' use of various types of media including social media; explaining strategic use of mass and interpersonal communication techniques and media in health programmes; selecting the most appropriate means of communication and media and design messages and materials based on research and analysis; and planning Communication for Social Development/Behaviour Change Communication (C4SD/BCC) strategies for the health improvement of the targeted population groups

Teachers: practitioners, from the outside, international participants (facilitators and instructors are practising C4SD and BCC experts and specialists with solid international and national development experience in Asia, Africa,

Europe and North America. All of them have worked with governments, UN agencies, development banks, NGOs in various capacities, including management of country programmes.

Research projects: —

Career perspectives: —

Modules: *C4SD Conceptual Framework* (introduction to some of the most common theories and conceptual frameworks used for C4D, including Socio-Ecological Model (SEM), Health Belief Model (HBM), Diffusion of Innovations, Transtheoretical Model of Stages of Change; Social Marketing)

Policy Advocacy (use of C4SD to influence policymaking within governments, such as population policy, ageing policy, reproductive health policy, population and environment policy, etc.)

Introduction to the Use of Social Media for C4SD (Phone Apps, Facebook, Twitter)

Practicum (using a communication planning tool to design a C4SD strategy and work plan; planning a social communication strategy, setting social communication/behaviour change objectives and indicators, communication research, monitoring and evaluation, discussion of various planning tools available, introduction to the use of a planning tool)

i) *Development Communication,
Wits Journalism Johannesburg (South Africa)*

Website: <http://wits.journalism.co.za/development-communication>

Degree: certificate (certificate A and B, B is based on A; equivalent to NQF 8)

Duration: three weeks

Form: block seminars from MA courses

Themes: participatory communication as a catalyst for behavioural change and social development, development communication theory

Teachers: university teachers

Modules: CERTIFICATE A:

Module 1: *Development Communication in the South African Context; the Development Media Environment and Media Channels; Overview of Commercial and Community Media*

Module 2: *Evaluating development communication tools; Effective use of media releases and social media; Speeches that communicate development*

Module 3: *Publishing to communicate development; Writing features and profiles; Critical evaluation of advertorials*

CERTIFICATE B:

Module 1: *Setting up a communication strategy for development communication; assessing development communication systems; reporting development communication initiatives*

Module 2: *Civil society and advocacy in development communication; Writing development case studies*

Module 3: *Development Journalism theory and practice; Writing opinion & analysis for development communication; Broadcasting and development communication; Why Development Communication certificates*

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5 List of Interview participants

NAME		FUNCTION UND ORGANISATION
1	Babak Mikhail Mikhail Magazine	Dean of Nangarhar University
2	Seyyed Allah Saeedi	Dean of the Faculty of Journalism and Public Communication (FJPC) at Nangarhar University
3	Khaled Zia	Professor at the FJPC
4	Mohammad Faig	Professor at the FJPC
5	Afsar Sediq Shinvari	Professor at the FJPC
6	Ahmad Jamil Poppel	Professor at the FJPC
7	Ahmed Saeed	Professor at the FJPC
8	Hamdullah Malal	Professor at the FJPC
9	Khuschal Jabarkhil	Professor at the FJPC
10	Sharifullah Ayoubi	Professor at the FJPC
11	Sayed Abbas Sadat	Professor at the FJPC
12	Fazl Ali Nagar	Professor at the FJPC
13	Maroof Shah	Professor at the Institute of Literature and FJPC
14	Mirwis Khan Shinwari	Professor at the Institute of Literature and FJPC
15	Mohammad Dousti	Professor at the Institute of Literature and FJPC
16	Abdul Waheed Gharwal	Dean of the Faculty of Journalism in Kabul University
17	Abdul Qahar Jawad	Professor at the Faculty of Journalism in Kabul
18	Hamid Obaidi	Professor at the Faculty of Journalism in Kabul
19	Jawid Ahmadi	Professor at the Faculty of Journalism in Kabul
20	Faisal Karimi	Professor at the Faculty of Journalism and Mass Communication

	NAME	FUNCTION UND ORGANISATION
21	Basir Ahmad Daneshyar	Professor at the Faculty of Journalism and Mass Communication
22	Shafiq Khajazada	Professor at the Faculty of Journalism and Mass Communication
23	Maria Raheen	Dean of the Faculty of Journalism at Balkh University
24	Mohammad Nazari	Professor of the Faculty of Journalism at Balkh University
25	Sayed Abdul Hamid Safwat	Professor of the Faculty of Journalism at Balkh University
26	Saqip Safi	Journalist and Professor at Lagman University
27	Asadullah Tanay	Professor of the Faculty of Journalism at Shaikh Zayed University
28	Hazrat Mohammad Bahar	Professor of the Faculty of Journalism at Shaikh Zayed University
29	Farooq Jan Mangal	Professor of the Faculty of Journalism at Shaikh Zayed University
30	Ayub Ferhad	Journalist in Nangarhar
31	Shafiqullah Wardak	Journalist in Nangarhar
32	Shah Mahmood Shinwari	Journalist in Nangarhar
33	Abdul Safi Azizi	CEO Radio TV Setar -e- Sahar
34	Shakibullah Sanin	President and CEO of Zala Network
35	Shafiqullah Shaiq	President and CEO of Shaiq Network
36	Shahlah Shaiq	President and CEO of Radion Nargis
37	Mohammed Lagman Dost	Journalist
38	Abdul Rahimzi	Journalist
39	Ahmad Ahmadi	Journalist
40	Abu Mozlim Sherzad	Journalist and teacher at the Journalist School in Ra-H-Noor in Kabul
41	Dr Said Bahadur Akbar Meer	General Directorate for Solidarity and Academic Affairs in MHE (2017)
42	Dr Sattarudin Sediqi	General Directorate for Academic Development in MHE (2017)

NAME		FUNCTION UND ORGANISATION
43	Awrang Samim	General Directorate for Information and Culture in Nangarhar (Politics)
44	Sayeeda Mojgan Mostafawi	Deputy Minister, Ministry of Information and Culture (2017)
45	Ihsanullah Qazizadeh	Journalist und Journalists' Association
46	Sediqullah Tawhidi	Nai Supporting Open Media in Afghanistan, Journalists Association
47	Abdul Mujeeb Khelwatgart	Nai Supporting Open Media in Afghanistan, Journalists Association

6 Questionnaire

SECTION I

The professionalisation of journalism in Afghanistan

Questionnaire/guidelines (Version 14/11/2016)

Interview instructions for interviewees

(everything will be translated into Afghan languages)

Why your support?

We are currently questioning Afghan experts (like you) in the areas of politics, academia, media industry and journalist associations to explore the structures, problems and solutions of the Afghan journalistic education system. These are (pre-action analyses of local conditions) efforts to create a systematic and valid base for the prospective nationwide reform plan of qualifications for leadership roles in journalism. We would very much appreciate your support for the project.

What is the project?

This project aims to professionalise the education structure in line with international standards and strives towards offering high-quality education. Only a substantiated and future-oriented professionalisation of journalism in Afghanistan can contribute to an Afghan “mass media success story”. With the media boom, many insufficiently qualified people entered journalism who are often barely able to meet the modern demands of the norms and ethics of the job. Journalism as a profession is increasingly suffering from a loss of credibility. The reason is that journalism education in Afghanistan suffers from a lack of concept covering content and didactics. Therefore, there have been demands for a reform and improvement of the techniques and ethics in journalism education for some time. Hence, our project supports the conceptual and structural professionalisation of journalism in Afghanistan, which is a necessity for the sustainable reform process of media education. We are aiming to develop a nationwide reform plan (model) for an academic qual-

ification of leading media roles. In this context, your view is very important to ascertain how this model could be implemented.

Who are we?

It is a project of the University of Leipzig (Germany). To ensure that media staff and journalists receive better academic education and training, Leipzig University (Germany) supports faculties of Afghan state universities so that they can qualitatively improve. The incorporated approach addresses journalist training in its entirety and its interrelations. This is the only way to ensure sustainable development. Leipzig University in Germany is one of the oldest German universities and has over 37,000 students. The Institute for Communication and Media Studies is one of the most prestigious institutions for communication studies and public relations in Europe. The professionalisation of journalists is one research focus at the institute. Over the past few years, various PhD theses about media structures in developing countries and Islamic societies have been published. Communication and media studies researcher, Dr Kefa Hamidi, is the project coordinator. He gained his PhD in 2013. His dissertation examines the media landscape after 2001 and journalism in Afghanistan and he has published various articles about the media in Afghanistan. Since April 2013, he has been a research associate at Leipzig University. If you have any queries, please do not hesitate to contact us via email (kefa.hamidi@uni-leipzig.de).

Thank you very much for your support!

Yours sincerely
Dr Kefa Hamidi

We can conclude from our research results that, starting from the dynamic development of the media in Afghanistan, a long-term and sustainable solution in the reform of journalist training would be to adapt the model of dual journalist training. Many countries are reforming their training systems according to the dual model offered in Germany.

And yet it is not the aim of the project to implement the German model in its exact form, but to adapt it to the circumstances found in Afghanistan. This is why we want to discuss with you whether the individual components of the model of dual journalist training are present in existing Afghan journalism education, and if not, how they could be made available and introduced.

We categorically emphasise that this interview is not about right or wrong answers. What we are seeking are your valued views. They will serve as a good basis for a valid reform model to improve Afghan journalism education and make sustainable progress in journalism. According to the international standard, there are three core elements for valid journalism education: (1) theoretical education, (2) practical training and (3) resources and infrastructure to be able to implement a theoretical and practical education.

Please see the following pages →

Objects of theoretical education for journalists

According to the international standard, distinct theoretical objects are part of journalism education (see illustration 1; they are explained more accurately during the interview) which are offered to students during their training to obtain different competencies. Concretely, I want to go through these objects that could lead to a competence model in our interview with you and ask whether they could also be taught in Afghanistan in journalism education.

They will be discussed according to the following questions:

- *What is the present situation?*
- *What should the future situation look like?*
- *What are the Afghan specifications?*
- *In your opinion, how could the situation best be achieved in the future?*

1 Objects of theoretical education

EDUCATION FIELDS	OBJECTS
Professional Competence	<i>Expertise</i> Instrumental skills (research, selecting, editing) <i>Know-how</i> Media economics; media politics; media law; media effect; journalism research; PR strategies
Communication Competence	<i>Know-how</i> Rhetoric (articulation, argumentation, presentation) <i>Expertise</i> New journalistic fields; cross-media/online-journalism
Expertise	<i>Know-how</i> Fundamental knowledge of social science; working scientifically, methods of social science, source knowledge <i>Expertise</i> Desk-/special knowledge (orientation knowledge) Knowledge of society (law, politics, sociology and economy)
Social Orientation	<i>Know-how</i> Media ethics and professional ethics, awareness of function, awareness of autonomy <i>Expertise</i> Afghanistan: history, culture, society
Mediation Competence	<i>Know-how</i> Development communication, intercultural communication, conflict management <i>Expertise</i> Sociocultural parameters (Afghanistan)
Organisation Competence	<i>Know-how</i> Editorial desk organisation and management; quality management <i>Expertise</i> Economic fundamentals of journalism in Afghanistan; English skills

2 Objects of practical training as well as their reflective accompaniment

In general, some practical objects for journalism training as well as their reflective accompaniment are required (see illustration 2; it will be explained in more detail during the interview) so that students receive both theoretical and practical training during their studies. We want to discuss these objects concretely with you and ask whether these praxis elements in journalism education exist in Afghanistan and if not, how they can be realised.

The individual points will be discussed using the following questions:

- *What is the present situation?*
- *What should the future situation look like?*
- *What are the Afghan specifications?*
- *In your opinion, how could the situation best be achieved in the future?*

3 **Objects of practical training as well as their reflective accompaniment**

LEVELS	AFFECTED	OBJECTS	LOCATION
Obligatory praxis integration	Students	Internship	Media institution: Print, radio, TV and online
Simulation of praxis	Students	Editorial training desk Laboratories and media workshops: print, radio, TV and online	University
Reflection of praxis	Students	Accompanying colloquia and seminars	University
Lecturers from praxis	Students	Experienced journalists, media managers	University

4 The necessary structural, legal, technical and personal needs

Generally, different resources and an infrastructure (see illustration, in the interview it will be explained in more detail) are necessary to be able to offer a valid journalism education. This means that every valid journalist training needs certain resources and an infrastructure to offer a curriculum which teaches not just theory but also puts practical elements in place. We want to discuss these objects with you concretely and ask whether these praxis elements in journalism education exist in Afghanistan and if not, how they can be realised.

The individual resources will be discussed using the following questions:

- *What is the present situation?*
- *What should the future situation look like?*
- *What are the Afghan specifications?*
- *In your opinion, how could the situation best be achieved in the future?*

5 Necessary structural, legal, technical and personal requirements

RESOURCES	AFFECTED	TOPICS
Personnel	Lecturers	Staff needs: Capacity, competence, qualification, didactics
Materials and technology	Infrastructure	Editorial training desk Technical equipment, Equipment, Books
Contractual-institutional	State, university, media	Internal interdisciplinary cooperation: between journalism and other subjects at the university (specialisation) External cooperation: between university and media institutions (including external internship) University and professional associations (including recognition of academic degree), media institutions Lecturers (practitioners at the university) Network of different actors
Legal Regulation	Universities, associations, state	University legal regulations Entrance restrictions (limited numbers can study) Dual subject regulation (specialisation in another subject) Professional associations

6 Possible structure of a course

If these three core elements (theory, praxis and the necessary resources) are integrated into a model, whatever is subsequently open to debate in journalism education would result in a possible structure for an academic bachelor programme. Please look carefully at the structure and tell us: What would be the risks and the opportunities if this type of course was implemented in Afghanistan? Which educational fields would be obligatory and which would be optional?

Possible Structure of a Course

SEQUENCE	KNOWLEDGE	OBJECTS	EXTENT	LOCATION
1 st Semester	Journalistic know-how I	Theories and methods of communication science	Two modules	
	Expertise I	Rhetoric (articulation, argumentation, presentation)	One module	Import if necessary
2 nd Semester	Journalistic know-how II	Theory, norms (ethics) and the law of journalism in Afghanistan Media system of Afghanistan	One module One module	
	Journalistic Expertise I	Afghanistan: history, culture, society I	One module	Import from history, politics, sociology
3 rd Semester	Journalistic know-how III	Special journalism (research, selection, editing; forms of presentation of journalism)	Two modules – theory and praxis	
	Journalistic expertise II	Afghanistan: history, culture, society II	One module	Import from history, politics, sociology
4 th Semester	Journalistic know-how IV	Special journalism (new journalistic fields; cross-media/online-journalism;	One module – theory and praxis	
	Journalistic expertise III	Foreign language (esp. English)	One module	Import from languages
5 th Semester	Journalistic know-how V	economic fundamentals of journalism; editorial desk organisation and -management	One module	
	Journalistic Expertise IIII	transmission-, organisational/articulation skills; technical skills	One module – theory and praxis	
6 th Semester	Journalistic know-how IV	Development communication; Intercultural communication; conflict management	Two modules	Import (if necessary, NGOs)
7 th Semester	Internship traineeship	Praxis	Two modules respectively	University external
	Accompanying block seminar	Reflection on praxis:	One module (three-four times weekly	
8 th Semester	Thesis	Research	Two modules	University external
	Exam/colloquium	Research-Reflection	One module	

Guidelines for the Survey (for the interviewer)

DEMOGRAPHY AND FUNCTION
Gender?
Age?
Function?
Position?
Location?
Degree?

Guidelines for the Survey (for the interviewer)

No	Areas and Items	Current	Future	Route	Specifics	Risks	Opportunities
Subject							
1	Research						
2	Selecting						
3	Editing						
4	Organising						
5	Communication science						
6	Media economy						
7	Media politics						
8	Media law						
9	Media history						
10	Media technology						
11	Media effect						
12	Journalism research						
13	Strategies of PR						
Transmission/communication							
14	Language skills						
15	Presentation and forms of presentation						
16	Journalistic genres, reporting pattern						
17	Dealing with social media						
18	Dealing with public						
Cross-media							
19	Recording devices						
20	Photo editing						
21	Data banks						

22	Online research					
23	Serving several channels					
24	Making use of media-specific tools (e.g. digital camera)					
25	Media-specific tools					
26	Digital video editing					
Expertise						
27	Knowledge about a specific area (desk knowledge; law; politics; sociology and economy)					
28	Source knowledge					
29	Techniques of scientific work					
30	Social science methods					
31	Broad and valid general knowledge					
32	English skills					
Ethics						
33	Awareness of function					
34	Value orientation					
35	Awareness of autonomy					
36	Readiness to take responsibility					
37	Ability to reflect:					
Fundamentals						
38	Social competence					
39	Ability to deal with conflicts					
40	Empathy					
41	Teamwork					
42	Project management					
43	Organisation ability					
Mediation						
44	Development communication					
45	Learning the craft of covering development issues					

46	Informing students about the specific national development issues						
47	Learning to support the dialogue between diverse ethnic Afghan groups						
48	Intercultural communication						
49	Relevant intercultural information as routine journalistic practice						
50	Reflect the diversity of the social milieu intercultural						
51	Aimed at journalists dealing with interculturalism as a subject and engage their social responsibility						
52	Conflict management						
53	Understand the parallels between reliable journalism and conflict mediation						
54	Training journalists in conflict-reporting techniques that avoid contributing to conflict						
55	Recognising specific problems and possible solutions confronting conflict-sensitive journalists. Longer items are still being specified!						

Praxis Model

Levels	Affected	Current	Future	Route	Specifics	Risks	Opportunities
Obligatory Praxis Integration	Internship						
	Media institution: Print, radio, TV and online						
	Internship						
	Media institution: Print, radio, TV and online						
Reflection of Praxis	Accompanying collo- quia and seminars						
Simulation of Praxis	Editorial training desk						
	Laboratories						
	Media workshop						
Visiting lecturers from the praxis	Visiting lecturers						
	Experienced journalists media managers						

Guideline Resource Model

No	Areas	Current	Future	Route	Specifics	Risks	Opportunities
Materials and technology							
1	Extent of practical training offers?						
2	Stock of textbooks						
3	Technology and equipment						
4	Editorial teaching desk						
Institutional and contractual							
5	In how far internally: interdisciplinary cooperation (law, politics, sociology) possible?						
6	To what extent are external partnerships with media industry necessary and important?						
7	To what extent can visiting lecturers be used?						
8	How can places for internships be organised?						
9	Media industry: would you be willing to offer students places for internships?						
10	How many places could you offer?						
	Would you be willing to work as a visiting lecturer?						
11	How should the visiting lecturers be financed?						
12	Journalists' associations: Would you be willing to recognise this qualification?						

13	How could better networks between the different parties be achieved? (professional associations)						
14	Opportunities for an increase in personnel						
15	Lecturers from journalism praxis						
16	Construction of a dual bachelor's programme						
17	Address study offer for the further training of practising journalists						
Placing							
18	Who and how should the placing of internships in the media industry be organised?						
19	How should the placing of graduates in/for the media industry be coordinated?						
Legal							
20	How should the model be legally implemented?						
21	Legal regulation for the introduction of the dual programme						
23	Should new regulations be introduced or parameters of existing laws be realised?						
24	Who is responsible for the legal implementation?						
25	Establish a special Afghan association?						
26	Opportunities for a dual entrance restricted bachelor course?						
27	What has to be considered?						

28	To what extent is it possible to restrict admission to the course so that only a few students receive a qualitatively good education?
29	What does that mean for other locations?
30	How can these structures also be made available for practising journalists? Ideas for solutions: (if possible externally, but in cooperation with the faculty for Journalism and Mass Communication [teaching staff for theoretical training elements/modules] and professional associations organised institutions with fee-based bachelor's [or master's] programmes based on the LSM model; to a one-two year staggered introduction of the courses) Manpower Staff capacity Capacity Competences Qualifications Didactics
31	Are you willing to be questioned again regarding this model at a later time?