REPORT ON FORMAL MEDIA EDUCATION IN EUROPE (WP3)

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INTRODUCTION

This report is part of a European project called “EMEDUS: European Media Literacy Education Study” and is financed under the Lifelong Learning Programme of the European Commission.

The aim of the project is to prepare an up-to-date comprehensive report on media education in the formal education of the EU27, one that reflects the actual school situation. Also, it is our intention to systematize the member states with similar characteristics into clusters based on the findings of the report.

Our work focuses on the following three major research questions:

- How is media education currently included in the national curricula across the EU27 to support media literacy?
- What are the requirements at the output points, which measure the level of competencies acquired as a result of the education process with the help of testing and evaluation methods?
- How are media teachers trained nowadays across Member States?

The contents of this report include:

- A description of the location of media education along the curricula (different levels of formal education up to tertiary levels);
- A description of the conceptual frameworks, aims and goals of curricula on media education in the EU countries;
- A description of output points: evaluation procedures and instruments to assess media literacy in formal education in countries where this is applicable;
- Teacher training and related curricula in countries where this is applicable.

In the first part of the report we survey the broader cultural, social and educational context of media education. Also, we take into account all previous research that is relevant to the
subject of this present study, and we refer to the most important findings in order to be able to clarify our intentions and reasons as to what our research undertakes to explore.

After clarifying questions of definition, we will proceed to present the methodology of the research along with the limitations, which must be taken into consideration before interpreting the available data.

1. CONTEXT – METHODOLOGY – LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

In the following part we present the main results of the research.

2. ANALYSIS

Next, we draw up the major conclusions that follow on from the analysis, and bearing these conclusions in mind we also formulate some recommendations, which will also set a possible and logical course for future research.

3. MAIN FINDINGS – RECOMMENDATIONS

Finally, we attach the questionnaire used for the research along with the individual country profiles, which describe media education within formal education.

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CONTEXT
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1.1. CONTEXT

1.1.1 Why Media Education?

The significance of knowledge concerning the mechanisms of the media and the indispensability of media-related skills was first brought to prominence over the past quarter century by renowned researchers, educational experts and later by representatives of educational politics and those of the political sphere in general (Masterman 1989; Kubey 1997; Potter 2001; Tornero & Varis 2010; Lieten & Smet 2012)\(^1\).

A renewed interest in media literacy has been triggered due to the fact that:

- the media supply us with the majority of information concerning political processes, and they offer realistic and fictitious notions, images and representations that most certainly influence our ideas of reality. The media have a determining role in the way we create our identities and in the age of digital ICT tools and network communication one just cannot participate in public affairs without using modern media. The media have become a fundamental factor of socialisation and have, in part, taken over this function from families, schools and religion.

The reasons for teaching and learning about the media include (Hartai 2007; Hug 2002; Erstad 2010; Martens 2010)

- staggering levels of media consumption
- the need to offset the manipulative effects of the media
- issues of addiction
- issues of data safety
- the increasingly indispensable skills of creative text-making and immediate media communication
- participatory democracy and active citizenship

\(^1\) Inter alia:
Grunwald declaration on media education (1982);
Toulouse Conference "New Directions in Media Education" (1990);
Vienna Conference "Educating for the Media and the Digital Age" (1999);
Youth Media Education Seminar in Seville (2002);
COMMISSION RECOMMENDATION - on media literacy in the digital environment for a more competitive audiovisual and content industry and an inclusive knowledge society (2009);
Audit of learning - related media literacy policy development OFCOM (2009);
No Education Without Media! – Manifesto on media Education (2009);
Agenda for Media Literacy - Policy Recommendations for European Cities to support Children and Young People (2012)
Since it is clearer than ever that the development of media-related knowledge is indispensable for the man of today, gradually, over the decades media education has been seeping into formal education in the majority of the member states. Surprisingly enough, we have very little fact-based knowledge of this ongoing process at our disposal. Information on the presence of media education in schools is rather meagre despite the fact that there actually exist clearly (or sometimes less clearly) defined guidelines (depending on the curriculum of each particular member state) in the curricula or other education-related regulatory documents and not just interpretations or suggestions concerning policy making.

1.1.2 What one can or cannot learn from previous studies

There is an abundance of literature on the cultural and theoretical background and the history of media education especially with US contributions from the past decades. However, research-based analyses regarding formal education are rather hard to find. Over the past decade a multitude of distinguished authors, in a series of notable studies, have rediscussed the definition, context and historical trends of media literacy as well as the opportunities for personality development and the competence clusters of modern education.

The available studies redefine principles laid out in the works of the forerunners of media education (e.g. Bazalgette, Buckingham, Hart, Kubey, Mastermann, McMahon, Meyrowitz, Potter, Pungente, Tyner, Worsnop) on a wide variety of topics ranging from theoretical approaches centering around the concept of media literacy (Livingstone 2005; Brabazon 2011; Dredger, Woods, Beach & Sagstetter 2010), through theoretical and conceptual analyses of media education and the debates surrounding it as well as the challenges posed by today's new media-cultural phenomena (Martens 2010; Hobbs 2011; Jenkins 2009; Nam 2010) and again through descriptive and summary surveys of the history of media education (Fedorov 2008; Tobias 2008; Zylka, Müller & Martins 2011). They sometimes set out to interpret the relationship between theory and practice (Capello, Felini & Hobbs 2011) alongside the role media culture and media education can play in a modern classroom. They also endeavour to

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2Significant research projects have been launched in this field simultaneously with EMEDUS. Please see: MEDEAnet project, 'Charting Media and Learning in Europe 2012'- M&L in the school curriculum
define the competence clusters that can be developed with media education (Erstad 2010; Tolic 2011; Gorecka 2012) and to design action plans to aid an authoritative media policy and its actual realisation at schools (Frau-Meigs & Torrent 2008; Hobbs 2010; Scheibe & Rogow 2008; Wilson & Duncan 2009).

In this present study we refer to the above, often-quoted pieces of outstanding writing only where absolutely necessary. Even though they do deal with media education, their approach, research background and data only provide minimal help when it comes to exploring European patterns of educational guidelines that govern what really goes on in a classroom, especially regularities of curricula, evaluation procedures and teacher training in formal education.

1.1.3 One step forward and two steps back?

In the 1980’s many had hoped that it was enough for media education merely to enter formal education through curricula or optional courses in order to be able to help develop competences as a noticeable and useful component. In contrast, the fate of media education in schools cannot be described in a linear story of progress. The significance of this, for the present study, is that it has had to deal with constantly changing information and data.

In addition, there is nothing to be concluded from collected data and country profiles created a few years ago. We know from certain research findings (Buckingham & Domaille, 2003; Hartai, 2009) that wherever media education was introduced into formal education, and where it managed to gain a foothold, initial enthusiasm was followed by a few years of thriving interest and then often by stagnation and decline.

”.. it would seem that media education has made very uneven progress. In many cases, one can see bursts of innovative activity that have not ultimately been sustained (…) while in the countries where media education is most firmly established in the curriculum (such as Canada and England), there are signs of weariness among its most prominent advocates.” (Buckingham & Domaille, 2003)

The reasons for this are as follows:
• media education was not introduced into formal education as a result of a dialogue between well-informed educational political and professional lobby groups

• educational political intentions coming “from above” usually lose momentum because of a shortage of qualified teachers and/or on account of negative attitudes to reform pedagogy. New subject areas are regarded with suspicion and as a passing fad. At the same time, initiatives from the grassroots are usually associated with just a dedicated teacher or two or with project work and usually die down with time for lack of long-term financial support and without a clearly defined status in schools.

• there exists a professional ignorance among the heads of educational establishments and those responsible for financially maintaining these establishments

• there exists a lack of financial resources for development and publicity

• apart from real issues, there exist prejudices against the workings of the media

• the relationship between media education and informatics or ICT education, which also only recently entered the world of education, has not been clearly defined

• compared to the relatively slow standardisation procedures used in education, the world of the media is changing unbearably exponentially and is thus wreaking havoc in terminology and topics.

Taking all this into account, new media has been gaining ground and media education has been made to face up to novel situations with:

• search engines and public e-services among others and Internet use becoming widespread and indispensable

• the technological convergence of the media (e.g.: net TV, e-books)

• the use of digital platforms (e.g.: digital transition, e-cinema)

• the accessibility of texts and emerging copyright issues (e.g.: file sharing networks)

• the active and creative participation of users, especially young users in the media (e.g.: social networks, youtube).

These developments have been responded to by recent European Union documents, whose major statements were summarised in the 20th August 2009 issue of the Recommendations of the European Commission. According to point 18, "Media literacy should be addressed in different ways at different levels. The modalities of inclusion of media literacy in school curricula at all levels are the Member States’ primary responsibility.” Point 21 underlines the importance of research
(The Commission will encourage research projects on media literacy in the framework of existing programmes) while point I/3 of the actual recommendations proposes to “open a debate in conferences and other public events on the inclusion of media literacy in the compulsory education curriculum (…)

The press kit prepared for the Recommendation conveyed the Commission’s intentions in the following fashion (Commission sets new information society challenge: Becoming literate in new media 2009):

The way we use media is changing: the volume of information is enormous and is demanding more and more from us. It is more than we are able to read, write or use on a computer. The European Commission today warned that Europe’s young and old could miss out on the benefits of today's high-tech information society unless more is done to make them ‘media literate’ enough to access, analyse and evaluate images, sounds and texts and use traditional and new media to communicate and create media content. The Commission said EU countries and the media industry need to increase awareness of the many media messages people encounter, be they advertisements, movies or online content. (…) "However, people who cannot use new media like social networks or digital TV will find it hard to interact with and take part in the world around them. We must make sure everyone is media literate so nobody is left out. (…) Education is a national competence, but the Commission today invited EU countries to open a debate on how to give media literacy a prominent place in schools.

1.1.4 A small step: EMEDUS-WP3

The primary objective of our research, which is conducted as part of the EMEDUS project, is to gather, to interpret and to compare guidelines, especially curricula, which govern the development of media-related knowledge (i.e. media education) within formal education. In view of the research findings we examine the educational controls that provide a legal and content framework according to which media education is administered (or should be administered) in the rather varied educational environments of European countries.

Examining media literacy in schools and especially within compulsory education in the context of life-long learning is a crucial issue (this is the subject of the EMEDUS project) since

- this is what any further development and/or outside school development can be based on;
it all depends on school education or more precisely on compulsory school education as to what percentage of school-age children will receive a basic media-related education, and consequently what proportion of citizens will be excluded from it.

This latter group will have to be reached with other methods and in other forms in order to attain the goals set in the Commission’s Recommendations;

all this determines what objectives, approaches, contents and methods the education policy of each member state will apply when it comes to developing media literacy.

Thus, as indicated in the introduction, the goal of the WP3 research, whose findings are summarized in this present study, is to prepare an up-to-date comprehensive report on media education in the formal education of the EU27 reflecting the actual school situation and then to systematize the member states with similar characteristics into clusters based on the findings of the report.

This particular study analyses formal media education in Europe with an emphasis on

- media education in the national curricula;
- assessment and evaluation in media education with regard to the official guidelines of the member states;
- the training of media studies teachers according to the regulations and real practices in the member states;
- some characteristic aspects of classroom practices in media education.
Member states of the EU (27) codes, abbreviations (acronyms)

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1.2. ANTECEDENTS

1.2.1 Milestone No1.

We regard David Buckingham’s and Kate Domaille’s study, entitled Where Are We Going and How Can We Get There? General findings from the UNESCO Youth Media Education Survey 2001, as an essential antecedent of the EMEDUS WP3 research. Their work used approximately the same amount of data and methodology as WP3. The first key area of research named in the Buckingham-Domaille research was schools. (“Media Education in Schools: the extent, aims and conceptual basis of current provision; the nature of assessment; and the role of production by students.”)

At the beginning of the research report, the authors declare the following (Buckingham & Domaille 2001):

Nevertheless, it is important to recognise several limitations to our study. Firstly, we should acknowledge that it is genuinely difficult to obtain a complete overview. Education systems in many countries are diverse and fragmented; and media education tends to appear in different curriculum locations in different countries. Secondly, there is obviously a limit in the extent to which we should rely on published sources, official documents, policy papers, and so on. These provide recommendations for classroom practice, or representations of it; but they do not necessarily correspond to what is happening ‘on the ground’. One of our key findings is that there is an extraordinary dearth of systematic, reliable research in this field; and as such, the responses and material we have gathered are bound to be partial and impressionistic.

A decade later, the WP3 research is meant to give at least a partially factual response to this dearth: we wish to point out now that we have come up against the very same difficulties as our colleagues experienced a decade ago.

The Buckingham-led team’s findings show that:

Where media education exists at all as a defined area of study, it tends to take the form of an elective or optional area of the secondary school curriculum, rather than a compulsory element. There is very little evidence internationally of systematic or extensive media education provision for younger children (under the age of 11). In many countries, there is considerable uncertainty about whether media education should be regarded as a separate curriculum subject, or integrated within existing subjects. It appears most frequently as a ‘pervading’ element of the curriculum for mother-tongue language or social studies (or its equivalent). In this context, however, it is often loosely defined, and is rarely assessed as such: in the words of our Scottish respondent, it is ‘everywhere and nowhere’. Media education is also sometimes confused with educational media – that is, with the use of media technology for educational purposes. In these contexts, media education often appears to be regarded as a means rather than an end in itself... In this situation, the development of media education frequently depends upon the initiative of committed teachers, often working in isolation. The most urgent need identified in our survey is for sustained, in-depth teacher training, both at initial and in-service levels. Even in countries where media education is comparatively well-established, there are very few opportunities for training, and only a minority of teachers are reached by it.
The question now arises whether the WP3 research into the realities of media education within formal education will reveal any change in this respect a decade later, and if it does, what kind of change it is.

Buckingham and Domaille come to the following conclusion concerning curricula:

If most practitioners are clear about the broad aims of media education, the extent to which these are translated into classroom practice is highly variable. Many countries have generalised policy statements from central government agencies, which require media education to be delivered as part of mother-tongue language teaching or in social studies (or related areas like political education or citizenship). However, this rhetorical certainty is often undermined by the lack of any follow-up strategy in the form of clearly assessed activities or models of student progression in skills and competencies. These different locations for media education obviously have implications in terms of how its aims are defined. Media education often seems to be used as a pretext for work on language or social issues, and to be assessed in these terms; and as a result, aims specific to media education tend to be marginalised.

One wonders what the relationship between today’s curricula and classroom practice is. To what extent is media education still associated with mother-tongue language teaching and social studies?

1.2.2 A shift of emphasis

Up to the early 2000’s, the mainstream of media education was defined by the Canadian-English perspective (conceptual framework, key questions). One of the developments in recent years is that the concepts and emphases of the European Commission have been gaining more and more ground. Today’s situation can no longer be described by the diagnosis of Buckingham’s team:

The frameworks developed by the Association for Media Literacy in Canada and the British Film Institute in England (which are closely related) have been very influential internationally, even in very different cultural contexts. Most countries that have an explicit framework use some variant of these, while some appear to have adopted one or other of them wholesale.

In 2001 the following areas were identified as the basis of media education (Buckingham & Domaille 2001):

- Language: media aesthetics – media as constructions – realism – narrative – conventions and genres (these issues are often addressed through student production);
● Representation: media messages and values – ‘media and society’ – stereotyping – selection and point of view;

● Production: media industries/organisations/institutions – economics – professional practice;

● Audience: personal response and involvement in media – consciousness of own media use – the role of media in identity.

Here we will refrain from elaborating on the rather complex cultural theory based process which has led to the universal use of the term literacy, especially in education (Daley 2003). Nevertheless, ever since the turn of the millennium, media education has also emerged in the wider context of media literacy in Europe, where this concept predominantly has the following definition:

Media literacy includes the competences to:

- access the media;
- understand and to critically approach different aspects of media contents and institutions;
- to create communication in a variety of contexts;

Media literacy relates to all media, including television and film, radio and recorded music, print media, the Internet and all other digital communication technologies.


4 Media literacy has been defined as "the ability to access, analyze, evaluate and create messages across a variety of contexts" (Christ & Potter 1998, 7). This definition, produced by the USA’s 1992 National Leadership Conference on Media Literacy, is widely accepted although many alternative and competing conceptions also exist. As the subject of academic research, educational initiatives and communication policy (Potter 2004), media literacy research reflects enduring tensions between critical scholars (→ Critical Theory) and policymakers, educationalists and technologists, defenders of high culture and defenders of public morals. Associated with media literacy is a variety of related concepts – advertising literacy, Internet literacy, film literacy, visual literacy, → health literacy etc. – these reflecting the range of media forms that demand, or assume, knowledge about media on the part of the → audience or → public” Livingstone, S. & Graaf, S. (2010)

5 Most recently, the European Commission concluded a media literacy definition that was validated and accepted by the members of the EC Media Literacy Expert Group of the European Commission: “The aim of media literacy is to increase awareness of the many forms of media messages encountered in our everyday lives. It should help citizens recognise how the media filter their perceptions and beliefs, shape popular culture and influence personal choices. It should empower them with critical thinking and creative problem-solving skills to make them judicious consumers and producers of information. Media education is part of the basic entitlement of every citizen, in every country in the world, to freedom of expression and the right to information and it is instrumental in building and sustaining democracy from:”
Let us provide a more elaborate interpretation of the above definition:

The aim of media literacy is to increase people's awareness of the many forms of media messages encountered in their everyday lives. Media messages are the programmes, films, images, texts, sounds and websites that are carried by different forms of communication. Media literacy is a matter of inclusion and citizenship in today's information society. It is a fundamental skill not only for young people but also for adults and elderly people, parents, teachers and media professionals. Media literacy is today regarded as one of the key pre-requisites for an active and full citizenship in order to prevent and diminish risks of exclusion from community life. In this context it is important to stress the distinction between media education – e.g. the process leading to media literacy – and the educational use of media in schools. The latter has of course elements that are relevant to media literacy education but cannot be identified with it. In fact, media education and literacy is a precondition for successful use of media in education.6,7

A reference material on media literacy published by the European Commission (A European approach to media literacy in the digital environment, 2007) places the primary focus of development on the following three fields:

- online content
  - empowering users with tools to critically assess online content
  - extending digital creativity and production skills and encouraging awareness of copyright issues
  - ensuring that the benefits of the information society can be enjoyed by everyone, including people who are disadvantaged due to limited resources or education, age, gender, ethnicity, people with disabilities (e-Accessibility) as well as those living in less fortunate areas (all these are encompassed under eInclusion)
  - raising awareness about how search engines work (prioritisation of answers, etc.) and learning to better use search engines

- commercial communication
  - giving young audiences tools to develop a critical approach to commercial communication, enabling them to make informed choices
  - encouraging public/private financing in this area with adequate transparency

- audiovisual works
  - providing, notably to young European audiences, better awareness and knowledge about our film heritage and increasing interest in these films and in recent European films
  - promoting the acquisition of audiovisual media production and creativity skills
  - understanding the importance of copyright, from the perspective of both consumers and creators of content

Three important conclusions follow from the above:

6 Report- Media Literacy Questionnaire 2011 (Expert Group on Media Literacy) EUROPEAN COMMISSION Directorate-General for Education and Culture Culture and media, MEDIA programme and media literacy
7 In her book written for media studies teachers entitled Citizenship and Media Education: An Introduction (2007), Elanie Scarratt has the following interpretation of the relation between media education and media literacy:
"Media education is the generic term for different forms of education about the media. (...) Media education is the process of teaching and learning the whole range of modern communications, and the issues and debates about them. Media literacy, the knowledge and skills learners acquire, is its outcome. Literacy is by no means an uncontested notion as its metaphorical use may contain "a certain polemical quality" (Buckingham 2003). (...) In terms of literacy as a currency in contemporary education, it is more than the ability to read and write. It is the repertoire of knowledge, understanding and skills that enables us all to participate in social, cultural and political life. Media education enables us to deconstruct media texts and processes in order to analyse the versions of the world they convey."
1) The definition of media literacy places its reference within the conceptual framework of skill development.

2) It uses linguistic forms that imply action and activity.

3) These pedagogically relevant forms of action are supposed to occur in three major fields, namely in connection with commercials, film heritage and online contents.

The study entitled *Study on the current Trends and Approaches to Media Literacy in Europe* is an important source of reference for the media literacy policy of the Commission. It refers to a document also supported by the Commission and entitled *European Charter of Media Literacy*, which names seven areas of competences (or uses) related to media literacy:

- Use media technologies effectively to access, store, retrieve and share content to meet their individual and community needs and interests;
- Gain access to, and make informed choices about, a wide range of media forms and content from different cultural and institutional sources;
- Understand how and why media content is produced;
- Analyse critically the techniques, languages and conventions used by the media, and the messages they convey;
- Use media creatively to express and communicate ideas, information and opinions;
- Identify, avoid or challenge media content and services that may be unsolicited, offensive or harmful;
- Make effective use of media in the exercise of their democratic rights and civil responsibilities.

Key areas of media education from the 1980’s to the early 2000’s could best be described with terms such as Language – Representation – Audience – Professional Production. In the past decade, these areas have been more generally formulated – in Europe at least – and thus the core of the subject matter has become less clearly defined. Such clear terms of media science as narrative, genre, stereotype, media institutions and so on are avoided today while a group of preferable media texts to be studied is specified, including advertising, film heritage and online content. The stress has been shifting from the knowledge necessary for understanding to the creative use of (online) media. Access, Analysis, Evaluation and Creative Production as modern, activity-orientated pedagogical and methodological terms cannot provide a framework, but they are beginning to function as a quasi-framework with their strong emphases and with the specific areas, which are especially important for European media politics.

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8The study “Current trends and approaches to media literacy in Europe” was carried out for the Commission by the Universidad Autonoma de Barcelona in the second half of 2007. The objective was to map current practices in implementing media literacy in Europe. The study covers the 12 Member States of the European Union and the EEA Member States
The two approaches are not direct opposites of each other, but they do have different priorities. Mediately, Access is indeed related to Audience, while the latter is a widely used technical term in certain areas of media science (namely media sociology and media economics), Access allows for partly technological and partly social connotations, which are much clearer cues to policymakers of media education.

The terms evaluation and analysis are much more open and thus can be applied to a broader spectrum of texts as well as structures than the term (media) language. At the same time, Media language is a lot more tangible possibly with more facts and figures to be learnt. And similarly to representation, which is closely associated with media influence theory, it is becoming an obsolete term in contemporary media theories. Creative production mainly allows for connotations of media institutions and media technology as opposed to professional production, which alludes to participation and media communication in the age of cell phones and youtube. Mind you, the latter is no longer a privilege of teachers but is rather the natural habitat of young users, members of the digital native generation.

What makes the situation even more complicated is the fact that competition between rivalling terms is not purely of a professional and theoretical nature. It is as though there were a special power struggle of language politics in this field on the pretext of clearly defining terminology.

### 1.2.3 Media Literacy, Information Literacy, Digital Literacy

One of the pivotal questions concerning media education, particularly in a formal setting, concerns the relationship between media literacy and digital literacy.

According to one model, media literacy should appear in formal education as an integral part of digital literacy. Also, it should be administered with the help of digital devices through creative production and should advocate participatory democracy and active citizenship through internet applications (among others) with the aim of promoting internet safety.

Already in 2001 the Buckingham & Domaille research concluded that:
Ultimately, it is possible that the advent of ICTs will reconfigure the relationship between theory and practice in media education; and that it may result in a broader re-definition of the subject field. On the other hand, media education may well have a great deal to contribute to the development of critical educational thinking in relation to ICTs. There is a potential for dialogue here which seems, at least at present, to be largely unfulfilled.

The other model clearly distinguishes media literacy from digital literacy, as was formulated by the Committee of the Regions⁹:

One of the main reasons for current slow progress in media education is the fact that the link between media literacy and digital literacy in European educational practice has not been clearly established. In practical teaching, ICT is used mainly as a means of securing access to the digital world and promoting equal opportunities. Nowadays, young people do not have the slightest difficulty in acquiring the knowledge they need to use ICT tools and basic software or to master simple applications. At the same time, teachers do not have – and have little time to develop – the necessary skills to give a critical interpretation of media content available in digital form (among others) and engage in creative production, albeit these are the key components essential to media literacy.

While interpreting the overproduction of definitions concerning our subject area, certain researchers such as Sol-Britt Arnolds-Granlund came to the conclusion that (…) “it seems as the use of either «media literacy» or «digital literacy» should not be a matter of meaning but merely as a choice of perspective or representation in different academic discourses” (Arnolds-Granlund 2010)

In contrast, Gutiérrez & Hottmann believe that in media education there is an ongoing struggle between two trends in connection with the advance of new media (Gutiérrez & Hottmann 2006):

On one hand, some are nostalgic for audiovisual education. They see how the attention that is currently given to ICTs in teaching is centred too much on using the computer and the internet, and they react by clinging to old paradigms of media literacy, without being able to absorb the changes produced in communication technologies and, therefore, without a future. On the other hand, there are growing numbers of enthusiastic proponents of the latest technologies. They are dazzled by performance and alleged educational potential, and they advocate mass introduction in teaching, seemingly forgetting the tradition of media education and the many studies carried out regarding the educational potential of technologies and media.

Today, we see how expressions such as audiovisual literacy or media literacy lose strength and the term digital literacy is used in spite of its ambiguity.

There is also a new commonly used term in UNESCO documents, namely media and information literacy or MIL. "MIL stands for media and information literacy, and refers to the essential competencies (knowledge, skills and attitude) that allow citizens to engage with media and other information providers effectively and

⁹ OPINION of the Committee of the Regions on REGIONAL PERSPECTIVES IN DEVELOPING MEDIA LITERACY AND MEDIA EDUCATION IN EU EDUCATIONAL POLICY; CdR 133/2009 fin
develop critical thinking and life-long learning skills for socializing and becoming active citizens”10.

Alexander Botte writes about the implementation of MIL in Germany (Botte 2012):

In Germany there is no discussion about implementing Information Literacy into schools as a new subject. Two good reasons can be given against treating IL as a special topic or subject. The more extrinsic argument is: the experience with media education in Germany shows that as a consequence of curriculum overload specific media education curricula were not successfully implemented. The even more relevant intrinsic argument is: a social and context based setting of IL – as it is suggested by the challenges of educational reform – means that you have to integrate IL methods and principles into the subject- specific curricula.

Even though media literacy, digital literacy, information literacy as well as media and information literacy are clearly distinguishable from each other in terms of definition, this does not necessarily mean that such clear distinctions still exist in education, especially in formal education. In reality, there is still an unclear relation between these fields, and this confusion persists in any study of media education within formal education.

The Iberians, whose approach is more closely related to the Scandinavian interpretation for gradually refocusing from the originally British idea to ICT and the new media, joined this discourse much later. Zylka, Müller & Martins write:

ICT literacy was mostly understood as a concept that describes all the governmental programs and initiatives to build the Spanish information society. (…) Nowadays, both countries (Spain and Portugal) are very committed to participate in EU initiatives and projects related to information literacy and share the same understanding about the role of ICT skills in terms of future economic issues. Therefore, one can say that the media educational domain in Portugal and Spain cannot offer as much background as in the German or British discussion, as to the reason for the strong focusing of new media and the corresponding literacies, ICT and information literacy, which seem quite similar to Scandinavian approaches. (…) Moreover, approaches from the area of the Iberian Peninsula are mostly related to the level of skills, which means, these countries mostly seem to use similar terms as in Scandinavian countries. As it was shown above, approaches and the respective terminology inside European countries differ. Countries such as Germany or Great Britain have a longer tradition discussing media-related competencies and literacy than countries that do not have this decades-lasting history of media-related topics. The last named countries, such as Spain or Portugal, often seem to use a more pragmatic approach focusing on the digital domain with a view to economic reasons resulting from the training of skills. (Zylka, Müller & Martins 2011)

What we are witnessing here is not merely a pedagogical and conceptual discourse on the ever-transforming media, but a reallocation of rather varied roles in research and development at member state level, which, however, should be based on common ground for the sake of an efficient European policy on media education.

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10 In accordance with the decision made by the coordinator of the EMEDUS Project, in the EMEDUS project we shall be using the term Media Literacy as a synonym of MIL.
In the world of schooling, (take curricula, or teacher training, but mainly real classroom practice as an example) whatever appears to have been fixed and redefined within this field of study or within media education policy shows up in a completely different light. Who is supposed to teach and what? In what time frame, in what way and at what age? What are the goals and the methods used, and what resources and tools are at hand? These are the key questions posed by the actors at the different levels of media education in the individual member states – from government officials and curriculum developers right down to the teachers in the classrooms. Decision-making here can only be slightly influenced by media education related lobbying.

In the course of the WP3 research we focused on studying media education in a narrower sense, which deals with the phenomena, the workings and the texts of the media world. We attempted to get at the cold hard facts, i.e. the real dimensions and characteristics as well as the tangible factors of media education as it is administered in schools. Strictly on the basis of what is included in the curricula, we also examined whether it is the British model, the German concept\(^{11}\) or the Scandinavian-Iberian practice with its focus on new media and ICT competences that are at work in the educational systems, or whether these groupings cannot necessarily be applied to formal education in this form.

In the course of the research we placed great emphasis on media literacy for several reasons. Firstly, because in 2011, Eurydice published a very useful source material entitled *Key Data on Learning and Innovation through ICT at School in Europe 2011* and because there is no end to quantitative studies on the use of the media among school-age populations (e.g. *On-Air: Effective use of Media for School Education*). Also, as we saw earlier, surprisingly few research findings that actually take a closer look at school situations in terms of media education have been published.

1.2.4. Trends (Milestone No.2)

In the short chapter entitled *Increasing Presence of Media Literacy in the Compulsory Education Curriculum* of the study called *Current Trends and Approaches*, the authors illustrated the situation in eleven countries with actual examples and appear to have identified the following notable trends:

- the initial teaching-orientated approach is now refocusing on the civic context;
- media education today concentrates on both the mass media and digital or new media, and its subject matter is more likely to be the digital environment;
- media education is shifting from protection towards promotion;
- the fact that ICT was introduced into educational systems has more or less increased the presence of media education in formal education.

European educational reforms have tended to include the introduction of new ways of dealing with media education and media literacy in the curriculum. Attention to the mass media and ICT is present in the new curriculums that have been introduced following reforms of recent years. Initially, media education in the curriculum was focused on mass media (press, radio, film and television). With the development of ICT, interest was redirected from mass media to digital media. More recently, a balance has been established between mass media and digital media and there has been more educational interest in the new digital environment which includes new and old media. This is a rising phenomenon in Europe.

Unfortunately, no empirical research into formal education has borne out the otherwise clearly formulated and well-structured statements of the above study. Even though the title given to the 11 country profiles promises to discuss *Media literacy in the curriculum*, the authors of the study immediately take a much broader perspective and make their statements under the subtitle *Media literacy in education*. They occasionally refer to particular sources, and they sometimes give a historical survey of the characteristics of a particular country’s media education or quote from documents regarding current media education policy.

Consequently, the collection of brief summaries of formal media education in the study, which the European Commission consider to be a milestone, and which has been declared as the primary source (or “square one”) for consortium members of the EMEDUS Project cannot be used as a basis for comparison as parts of the text regarding different countries were organised along different logics, and information concerning curricula is rather paltry.
Among other things, the WP3 research is eager to find out to what extent the statements concerning formal education in this very systematic and highly-standardised study of principles are justified if we take a closer look at the original documents (i.e. the curricula) and if highly experienced experts, who are familiar with the actual educational environments, rate the questions regarding the situation of media education.

1.2.5. New Expert Group on Media Literacy

In 2011 the reorganised Expert Group on Media Literacy, which comprises representatives from Member States’ Ministries of Education, focused on analysing if and how media literacy is included in educational policies of each country and conducted a short survey with the following questions:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Is Media Literacy in the curriculum?</th>
<th>Is it an independent subject?</th>
<th>Which grades is it taught in?</th>
<th>Any other SYSTEMATIC approaches to ML skills?</th>
<th>Points of interest</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

The findings based on answers from ministerial representatives of 22 countries were as follows:

Media Literacy now appears in the primary and secondary curricula for the majority of the Member States who sent in responses. It is not yet taught consistently as an independent subject in its own right, although, most Member States try to integrate media literacy into the teaching of other subjects. For most Member States ‘Media literacy’ is taught as a cross-curricular theme which is incorporated into many, if not all, subjects. ‘Optional studies’ in Media are often mentioned as being offered by some, but not in all schools in the Member States.

It is clear from the responses that the term ‘media literacy’ refers to different skill-sets according to different Member States.

The responses provide up-to-date data in connection with one single important aspect of media education in the curricula and schools. Also, the survey substantiates the fact that the most prevailing form of media education in schools is cross-curricular, but it does not aspire to achieve anything else.
1.2.6. **Scope and nature of previous research**

It is clear from research findings that:

a) the actual texts of documents (or more precisely of the curricula) have never been perused rigorously;

b) no research has been done into the curricular context, which fundamentally determines media education related curricula as well as the status of media education at schools (Manalili & Rehnberg 2009)\(^{12}\);

c) in the cases of the studies carried out by Buckinham & Domaille and the Expert Group, survey questions answered by experts were used as the main research tool, while in the case of the study entitled *Current Trends and Approaches* background information provided by experts and other data were gathered by the research team (members of the UAB);

d) as the depth and focus of the studies differ considerably, they hardly bear comparison;

e) except for the rather concise survey by the New Media Literacy Expert Group (2011), there is only outdated or absolutely no information available as to media education as it is delivered in the member states. (We are not taking into consideration the plentiful research findings regarding the accessibility and use of media devices or study reports summarizing research into project-based best practices in school environments, which are very extensive and rather instructive, however, which only cover a handful of schools over sporadic periods of time. At the same time we do quote the results of certain surveys that were primarily based on answers from teachers.)

With the WP3 research we wish to update, refine and add to previous findings on the basis of data that were available at the turn of the year 2012/2013.

\(^{12}\) An important contribution to this is a rather comprehensive study by Rosemarie Manalili and Johann Rehnberg entitled *Media Education in the Swedish Compulsory School* - a comparison of the Swedish school curriculum documents with the leading countries. “This report documents the results of a study of how media education is reflected in the school curriculum in Sweden, in comparison to the leading countries, namely Canada and the United Kingdom. (...) In line with the aim of the study, the Ethnographic Content Analysis (ECA) method was employed to study the curriculum documents in Sweden, Ontario, Canada and the UK, with focus on subjects in the compulsory level and age range 5-11 years—that is, year 1-5 in Sweden, grade 1-6 in Ontario, Canada, and key stage 1-2 in the UK.”
1.3. QUESTIONS REGARDING DEFINITION

1.3.1 Where does media education take place in the formal education system?

Part of the EMEDUS Project has involved researching regulations in formal education which underlie media education-related teaching and especially the inter-related aspects of curricula, evaluation procedures and teacher training.

In this work, the very first question that arose was: what can be regarded as media education in the world of schooling? It was quickly followed by which phenomena should we explore as part of this field of study? What knowledge areas and skills does media education involve? Is media-aided learning “media education”, or should we rather focus on researching the practice of teaching about the media? Such questions about terminology are an unavoidable part of academic research, and unfortunately, there are absolutely no cut and dried answers.

1.3.2 Is this it? And what about that?

Picture the following scenario. In a classroom, somewhere in Europe, during an art history lesson the closing supper scene of Bunuel’s Viridiana is being shown to the students. The teacher then instructs them to compare this scene with Marithé & François Girbaud’s banned advertisement entitled Last Supper, which was created in 2005.

Based on the information provided here, can we really decide that it is actually media education integrated into art education in a cross-curricular form that is being delivered in the classroom in question?

In a biology or science class, can watching a documentary on the feeding and reproductive habits of the World’s Deadliest downloaded from the National Geographic Channel be regarded as trespassing into the territory of media education? Can we not say that creating a prezi presentation in which a student in a history lesson introduces life on the estate of a medieval castle lord with excerpts from Stronghold 2 or Age of Empires is no longer media education? And what about an ethics lesson where the discussion is about footage which
was secretly recorded with a cell phone and was later uploaded to youtube, and which shows a livid English teacher yelling at a little girl at the board? Is that media education?

There are still very few countries in Europe today, where lessons are actually called media lessons and are held in accordance with the curriculum. At the same time, in some form or another, media education is administered at every school and every day.

Tempting though the challenge may have seemed, the financial means provided by the EMEDUS Project did not enable us to examine on the premises what formal education means (implicitly or explicitly) by developing media literacy in the 27 member states as described in the previous chapter.13

What we have undertaken to achieve here is much humbler. However small our first steps might be though, our attempts are hopefully not negligible. Our goal is to examine one of the most authoritative factors that determines the structure of media education in schools, which happens to be the regulatory environment, i.e. curricula. In the course of our research we comply with the unified conceptual framework required for research commissioned by the consortium and accordingly present a coherent interpretation of research findings, one which is suitable for further research and is acceptable to all partners.

1.3.3 EMEDUS glossary

**Formal education** (or initial education or regular school and university education)

Learning acquired in a formal educational system (primary, secondary and tertiary education) and officially acknowledged by means of a certificate14. Education provided in the system of schools, colleges, universities and other formal educational institutions that normally constitutes a continuous ‘ladder’ of full-time education for children and young people, generally beginning at age five to seven and continuing up to 20 or 25 years old.

**Media (literacy) education** is:

the process of teaching and learning about the media.

It is the educational process that gives people competencies related to media literacy. That is, the means to gain understanding of the communication media (printed word and graphics, the sound, the still as well as the moving image, delivered on any kind of technology) used in their society and the way those media operate. Through media education students acquire the necessary abilities for selecting, using, analyzing and identifying the sources of messages, as well as interpreting messages and values broadcasted on the media. Media Education is part of the basic entitlement of every citizen, in every country in the world, to freedom of expression and the right to information and is instrumental in building and sustaining democracy.

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13 Because of the limited budget at our disposal (7.7% of the EMEDUS funds i.e.: 750 euros per member state), this was absolutely out of the question.

**Media literacy** includes the competences to:

- access the media;
- understand and to critically approach different aspects of media contents and institutions;
- to create communication in a variety of contexts;

Media literacy relates to all media, including television and film, radio and recorded music, print media, the Internet and all other digital communication technologies.

Media literacy is generally defined as the ability to access the media, to understand and to critically evaluate different aspects of the media and media contents and to create communications in a variety of contexts.” According to the European Commission, this includes:

- feeling comfortable with all existing media;
- actively using media and better exploiting their potential;
- having a critical approach to media as regards both quality and accuracy of content;
- using media creatively (in order) to create and disseminate images, information and content;
- understanding the economy of media; and being aware of copyright issues15.

**Media and Information literacy (MIL)**

MIL stands for media and information literacy, and refers to the essential competencies (knowledge, skills and attitude) that allow citizens to engage with media and other information providers effectively and develop critical thinking and life-long learning skills for socializing and becoming active citizens. Media Literacy is used by the European Commission; MIL is used by UNESCO. In this questionnaire we use the term Media Literacy as a synonym of MIL. (Wilson, Grizzle, Tuazon, Akyempong & Cheung 2011).

**Digital literacy**:

It is the ability to use new ICT tools in order to participate in and take advantage of the Information Society. It implies the skills necessary to use computers; to retrieve, assess, store, produce, present and exchange information, and to communicate and participate in collaborative networks via the Internet. Digital literacy is the skills required to achieve digital competence which involves the confident and critical use of ICT for work, leisure, learning and communication. (Wilson, Grizzle, Tuazon, Akyempong & Cheung 2011).

**Curricula** we mean the media literacy related aspects of NATIONAL curricula. We have divided the age groups as follows:

**Primary education** (ISCED 1):

This level begins between 5 and 7 years of age, is compulsory in all countries and generally lasts from four to six years.

**Lower-secondary** education (ISCED 2):

It continues the basic programmes of the primary level, although teaching is typically more subject-focused. Usually, the end of this level coincides with the end of compulsory education.

**Upper-secondary** education (ISCED 3):

This level generally begins at the end of compulsory education. The entrance age is typically 15 or 16 years. Entrance qualifications (end of compulsory education) and other minimum entry requirements are usually needed. Instruction is often more subject-orientated than at ISCED level 2. The typical duration of ISCED level 3 varies from two to five years.

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**Post secondary (ISCED 4)**\(^{16}\):

Post-secondary non-tertiary education. These programmes straddle the boundary between upper-secondary and tertiary education.\(^{17}\)

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\(^{16}\) Naturally, we had hoped to obtain data related to this level of education as planned. However, for lack of relevant and sufficient data we were compelled to forgo our original plans.

\(^{17}\) Eurydice Highlights The structure of the European education systems 2012/13: schematic diagrams
1.4. METHODOLOGY

In the course of the WP3 research we resorted to using key elements of the methodology applied in the Buckingham-Domaille research so that our research findings could finally be compared with previous research results. Also, we did so partly because of the limited budget at our disposal and partly because of the rather rigid structure and deadlines of the EMEDUS Project. Similarly to our predecessors, our main research tool was a questionnaire, which was completed and returned by experts and the responses were combined with additional publications and documents.

As the research got underway as a tender (EU27), the WP3 Project was not about sampling unlike all previous research. In fact, we included and examined all 27 of the member states. Unfortunately though, even after ten months of incessant trying, we were not able to obtain sufficient, usable or reliable enough data from certain countries (Cyprus, Bulgaria, Belgium).

1.4.1 Analysing curricula 1

At first glance, as all research must be based on data and cold, hard facts, it might appear that the most logical and straightforward way to conduct research into media education should be by examining curricula. After all, curricula as legally valid steering documents of education can be studied on their own merits as well as compared to each other. However, one must make a crucial choice concerning the most appropriate curricular level when it comes to deciding on methodology.

The national (or in certain cases the state-level) curricula of the member states (or passages of the curricula concerning media education) can be examined as steering documents of the same level. Nevertheless, due to the diversity of educational cultures there are significant differences in the actual function, structure, approach and elaboration of the curricula. To make matters worse, these differences are constantly changing.

To quote an example of a fundamentally different area of education, i.e. mother tongue education, even in the curricula of countries of geographical and traditional proximity such as Denmark and Norway, researchers have found some really striking differences: The Norwegian curriculum for the Norwegian language contains objectives for the subject, the subject’s primary areas, provisions respecting number of hours and basic skills for the subject and competency goals for four grades as well as provisions for assessment – a total of 16 pages. The Danish curriculum Common Goals 2009 contains objectives for the subject, the subject’s attainment and final goals, a syllabus and...
teaching guidelines for the subject as well as an appendix on the canon of Danish literature – a total of 71 pages. (Phong, Rasmussen, 2011)

What we are particularly interested in is what authoritative guidelines concerning content, approach and other factors in media education a curriculum contains for different age groups and different school types. How do these influence (or more precisely, how are they meant to influence) the practice of media education in schools?

The lower the level of the curriculum that we work with, the closer we get to being able to answer the above questions. The most satisfactory answers could be obtained by perusing the syllabi of individual teachers. However, that would entail dealing with an unmanageably vast variety of texts, which would not necessarily be comparable to each other. Even if only the frame curricula designed for the different school types and age groups were to be compared at EU27 level, literally tens of thousands of curricula would have to be evaluated. For lack of the necessary apparatus for this and the exorbitant financial demand, we confined ourselves to examining the curricular background of media education in formal education at state level.

Furthermore, the fact that the texts were originally written in many different languages poses yet another far from negligible problem. This is aggravated by the fact that certain technical terms do not mean the same thing in English as in the context of the original language. Just think of the well-documented German debate centering around the term media literacy (media literacy or vs mediakompetenz; Aufenanger 200918; Brauner, 2007; Hippel 2010) or Greek disputes over terminology Andriopoulos 201019. In most of the cases, there is absolutely no English translation of the national curriculum, which often amounts to several hundred pages, in the vast majority of the EU27. So once again, we have had to face up to a problem, that of translation, which far exceeds the financial means of the WP3.

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18 "Within media education at present there is no uniform perspective of mediakompetenz. Dieter BAACKE, one of the most influential veterans of media pedagogics, introduced the term competence to the media education debate in the early 1970s by picking up Chomsky’s concept of linguistic competence and using it in relation to Habermas’ socio-scientific Theory of Communicative Action."

19 "The Greek notion of media literacy ("paedeia in media") adopts the EU definition adding thus, one additional strand: that of the media as "agents" able to control and exert social, political and economic influence in the media market and stakeholders. In other words, it has strong links with issues of power and control."
1.4.2 The conceptual framework

At the beginning of his article on methodology entitled *Media Literacy Through Critical Thinking* Chris M. Worsnop writes the following:

Every subject in school needs such a conceptual framework. Teaching or learning a subject without understanding its conceptual framework is merely rote. The conceptual framework for media education points out that media texts possess many components and include many influences. Each text, for instance, is a unique PRODUCT, and media texts or products are the work of various media INDUSTRIES. Media texts contain values and points of view. The audience itself plays an important part in determining the meaning of the text, a process that emphasizes the importance of being aware of the values that reside within the audience as well as those that are in the text. In Media Education, the conceptual framework is usually organized around what are called key concepts. There are many versions of these key concepts, and in each the number of key concepts presented varies from as few as four to as many as 27. The five key concepts given in this manual are typical of the ones developed in other places such as: the Ontario Ministry of Education, 1989, *Media Literacy Resource Document* (eight key concepts); the British Film Institute, 1991, *Secondary Media Education* (six key concepts); Len Masterman in *Teaching the Media*, 1989, (27 key concepts). All of these sources cover the same ground in the description of Media Education:
- Media are constructions
- Media and audiences play interactive roles
- Media are (commercial) institutions
- Media contain values

These four maxims constitute the basic minimum description of a conceptual framework for studying the media. (Worsnop, 2000)

Before we subject the media education related elements of the national curricula to closer inspection, we would be well-advised to briefly compare conceptual frameworks and closely associated key concepts characteristic of media related curricula. Please mark that it can be quite telling about the role of a media related curriculum in education if the text of the curriculum does not define the conceptual framework with which it describes media education related regulations and required developments.

1.4.3 Preliminary research – identifying segments related to media education in the national curricula

It is a well-known fact from previous research that in the vast majority of the member states media education is administered in a cross-curricular or an integrated form in schools. This is actually the only fact concerning media education in schools that could be known for sure before the WP3 at EU27 level. At the same time, this means that in the curricula we hardly find whole passages specifically dealing with media education. It is more common that details regarding the development of media literacy are scattered all over the curriculum as modules of other subjects or study areas without any actual
overt reference. As a consequence, identifying segments of the curricula which regard media education is not a simple task that could easily be done by scanning the table of contents in a curriculum, but a job that requires expertise and interpretation skills.

To aggravate the situation, the acquisition of data necessary for the comparative analysis of media-related curricula could not be supported by any databases to a desirable extent. Unfortunately, this was true both for the WP2 media literacy review, which had originally been commissioned by the EMEDUS UAB, and for the rather rich and otherwise very practical databases of Eurydice. Considering all the above, there was a need for preliminary research in order to make the curriculum analysis possible. 20

As a first step, we examined a small number of national curricula which were available in English and Hungarian (those of Hungary, Sweden21, the Czech Republic22, 23 and Ireland24), we then compiled a brief list of concepts (AUDIO-VISUAL; ADVERTISEMENT; CRITICAL UNDERSTANDING; FILM; MASS COMMUNICATION, MEDIA; NEWS), which would be most likely to help identify components of a given national curriculum relevant to media literacy (MEDEAnet, Charting Media and Learning in Europe, 2012)25. (For the reasons set out in the chapter entitled CONTEXT, we excluded terms relating to ICT from the list.)

After checking the full texts of the searched curricula, we found that we had been able to locate the parts of the curricula that were relevant to media literacy, and thus we presumed that this method could be applied to other curricula, as well.

Subsequently, we requested the Eurydice office in each country to search for the national equivalents of the above terms in their national curriculum and to forward results along with answers to a number of further questions concerning media education to our research team. 26

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20 According to the EMEDUS guidelines concerning project work, we prepared a data niche report which lists all the missing data concerning the media-related curriculum of each country after processing the literacy review.
21 Curriculum for the compulsory school, preschool class and the leisure-time centre 2011
22 Framework Education Programme for Basic Education (with amendments as at 1. 9. 2007)
23 Framework Education Programme for Secondary General Education (Grammar Schools)
24 Primary School Curriculum, Social, Personal & Health Education (1999)
25 Romanian researchers used the same method to identify passages of primary and general secondary curricula relating to media literacy in 2012. In fact, their set of keyword phrases was very similar and included film, media, audiovisual, advertising, news, multimedia, journalism and tv.
26 Regrettably, the Eurydice unit in Brussels blocked the request from the Budapest office referring to a financial incompatibility. Thus, acquiring the necessary answers took a great deal of time and energy.
On the basis of this preliminary research\(^\text{27}\) we put together the curriculum-related section of the questionnaire, which served as the main research tool of the WP3 project, basing it on the following questions among others.\(^\text{28}\)

### 1.4.4. DETAILS OF ML QUESTIONNAIRE

- Is media literacy **explicitly** mentioned in your national curriculum or in any other top level steering document (regardless of the actual naming of the subject area) OR does the curriculum only contain **implicit allusions** that may be associated with media literacy?

- If media literacy is an integrated subject, **WHERE IS IT COVERED** in the curricula (visual art education; mother tongue education; social studies; civic studies or citizenship, social & civic studies; history; ICT or information studies, information technology; communication studies; environmental studies; health education; politics & law education; other (please specify))? (Please select as many options as relevant)

- If media literacy is a separate subject, what is its **STATUS** (is it compulsory/ obligatory; is it optional (if it is optional, who can select (teachers;school board; pupils)?

- According to the curriculum, what is the **HIERARCHY OR THE RELATIONSHIP** between digital literacy and media literacy (digital literacy means the same as media literacy; the two fields are completely unrelated; digital literacy is part of media literacy; media literacy is part of digital literacy)?

- Are the curriculum and its supplements detailed enough to enable teachers to create their own lesson plans?

- Please mark (1) to indicate that the statement is completely false / irrelevant to your media literacy curriculum, and mark (5) if the statement is totally in agreement with your media literacy curriculum:
  - The general approach of the curriculum is characterised by the method of teaching and learning **WITH** media.
  - The general approach of the curriculum is characterised by the method of teaching and learning **ABOUT** media

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\(^{27}\) In the course of the preliminary research, we did not solely focus on identifying relevant segments of the curricula, but we also attempted to acquire information necessary for us to be able to compile the questionnaire, which served as the primary tool of the research. We used the following questions:

1) Is media literacy education included in your top level curriculum and/or other top level steering document? (Focus is formal education and ISCED 1,2,3)

2) If yes, do/es your top level curriculum/a have a full English version? If yes, please attach it/them.

3) If there is no (full) English version, could you search the full document for the following list of terms in your language? AUDIO-VISUAL; ADVERTISEMENT; CRITICAL UNDERSTANDING; FILM; MASS COMMUNICATION; MEDIA; MOVING IMAGE; NEWS. Could you please copy these parts into one word file providing the description of the context (e.g. the part of the document) in which the given term appears?

4) If media literacy education is included in your top-level curriculum/curricula, which study field/area is concerned (e.g. mother tongue, arts, ICT, civic education, or is it a separate study field/area)?

5) Is it obligatory to teach media literacy?

6) Is there a separate media literacy subject or is it integrated or cross-curricular?

7) Which age group and/or school level is concerned?

8) How much taught time is dedicated to media literacy, (if it is regulated)?

9) What are the objectives of media literacy education? What skills/competences does it develop according to the curriculum?  
10) Could you provide any further relevant context/data/information in connection with media literacy education which is important for describing your national situation?

In the preliminary phase of the research, we received responses from Austria, The Czech Republic, Estonia, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Poland, Romania, Latvia, Slovakia, Spain and the UK.

\(^{28}\) Please find the questionnaire attached to this report.
○ The general approach of the curriculum is characterised by the concept of PROTECTING-SUPPORTING (youth protection policy), which aims to handle the dangers of modern media including violence, manipulation, data misuse, the abuse of personal rights, media dependence, etc.

○ The general approach of the curriculum is characterised by the AESTHETIC CULTURE ORIENTATED CONCEPT, which sets out to teach students to truly understand media "language" and focuses on the critical reflection on both its content and its realisation.

○ The general approach of the curriculum is characterised by the FUNCTIONAL SYSTEM-ORIENTATED CONCEPT, which aims to describe and interpret the workings of the media industry. Students can gain insight into the structure of the media and media messages, conditions of media production and media reception and the social relevance of public communication.

○ The curriculum is characterised by the CRITICAL-MATERIALIST APPROACH, which encourages students to analyze media, their ideological character and social conditions. Learners are enabled to create media messages and publicity for their own interests and needs.

○ The general approach of the curriculum is characterised by the ACTION-ORIENTATED CONCEPT, which aims to improve the students’ media-related practical skills. This focuses on the reflected use of existing media products and discusses the students’ own media contributions in the sense of communicative competence and social action.

○ The general approach of the curriculum is based on SOCIAL SCIENCE.

○ The curriculum focuses on the LINGUISTIC AESTHETIC aspect of the media.

○ The curriculum is mainly TECHNOLOGY-ORIENTATED and focuses on teaching the use of media devices.

○ The teaching of media studies is characterised by EPISODIC MEDIA EDUCATION. This means situations with media-related educational dilemmas, judgements and/or rules (often relating to the moral task and issues of schools).

As is clear from the above, apart from determining the curricular status of media education, the method of analysing curricula focuses on questions of content and approach, but at the same time it addresses pedagogical, practical and methodology-related issues which are implicitly regulated by the curricula.

1.4.5. Analysing curricula 2

As was mentioned previously, while analysing curricular information concerning media education, certain correspondences that are bound to show up, for example in cluster analysis, can barely be interpreted exclusively within the context of media-related
curricula. The very character of a national curriculum does (or may) strongly determine the curricular representation of the different subject areas. Therefore it is the actual curriculum rather than the general concept of media education that shapes the depth and approach of an actual media-related syllabus and the additional guidelines and recommendations that directly affect teaching practices. Consequently, it seemed necessary to conduct a complimentary survey that compares the national curricula. We obtained approximately half of the related data from the Eurydice units of the member states and half from experts dealing with curricula in the international network of OFI.

**1.4.6. DETAILS OF NATIONAL CURRICULUM QUESTIONNAIRE**

We also based the comparison of national curricula on responses to questions that can be rated according to the Likert scale. The questionnaire was comprised of three major groups (namely The curriculum as a regulatory document; Content regulation in the curriculum; Some other features of the central/top-level curriculum). It examined the following statements among others:

- It is a closed curriculum (strictly determining time frames, competencies, contents and/or contexts to be addressed through teaching)
- It is an open curriculum (defining main outlines, conceptual and time framework, key concepts and giving more scope for diverse teaching processes)
- The curriculum is a general, brief document providing an overall framework with key concepts of pedagogy
- The curriculum is a long document with detailed descriptions elaborating pedagogical concepts and content
- It is a content-based/ competence-based curriculum
- The curriculum focuses on learning/result-orientated outcomes
- The curriculum is mainly input-orientated (focusing on contents, teaching activities, timeframe etc.)
- The curriculum is dominated by traditional subjects
- The curriculum gives a priority to problems and phenomena of everyday life
- Integrating contents (e.g. including new contents in already existing subjects or subject areas) is a characteristic feature of the curriculum.

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29 BE; CY; CZ; DE; EL; ES; IT; FI; FR; LV; PL; SI; UK
Obviously, a relatively brief curriculum will merely set down general educational goals of development and will only regulate the desired output. While this, without doubt, supports the autonomy of schools and teachers, it will have very little tangible information as to how media literacy is actually taught in schools. When this was the case on the basis of the questionnaire regarding media-related curricula, all we were able to conclude was the fact that very little can be known about the intentions of that particular member state concerning media education solely on the basis of the curriculum. As one of our Dutch experts, Florine Wiebenga put it (but Georges Fautsch from Luxembourg sees the situation in exactly the same way):

"In the Netherlands the schools have a great amount of freedom to personalize their school culture/their school curriculum. The importance of media education is recognized, but the curriculum only contains implicit allusions that may be associated with media literacy. This concerns all levels of education (from primary to post-secondary). Schools should use their free space to choose whether they offer media literacy education. There are no official specific guidelines regarding content, time frame or subject status, although there are a lot of organizations that help schools to teach about media.”

Factors determining classroom practices can be perceived in other documents such as in exam requirements or local curricula. If possible, the media education of certain countries should be examined on the basis of such documents. Unfortunately, this is not a clear-cut method either as in the Netherlands, for instance, according to Florine and Georges, “There’s no major final examination and no formal measurements in Media literacy. There are no official ways to become a media education teacher.”

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30 The situation is rather unique in Germany as because of the federal state system, there is no single central national curriculum. This is exactly why a declaration on „Media Literacy Education at School”, which was issued by the Federation of Ministries of Education and Cultural Affairs in FRG in 2012, has a special significance. This binding decision outlines the current role and growing importance of media education in media society, and it also names relevant tasks and spheres of activity as to how to realise media related contents und topics in modern schools. The importance of media literacy education is seen in:

- widespread promotion of innovative and sustainable learning/teaching processes
- enabling of autonomous, active and democratic participation in politics, culture and society
- contribution to formation of identity and personal/individual development
- contribution to formation of moral attitudes, ethical values and aesthetical judgements
- cultural role as a fundamental type of visual literacy (esp. film and moving images)
- relevance for life long approach/use of media in order to handle them in a reasonable, creative and socially responsible way
- contribution to children and youth protection against dangers and negative influences of media

Finally several action fields are mentioned, concerning the implementation of media literacy education, such as

- curricula and educational schemes
- teacher training
- development of schools
- equipment and technical support
- educational media
- copyright law and data protection
- extra-school cooperation partners
- quality management and evaluation
1.4.7. **Output point and the teaching profession**

Responses to the questionnaire provided data about teacher training as well as evaluation procedures and exam requirements, which strongly determine media-related educational processes. In the cases of the member states where teacher training and exam requirements are regulated we did take advantage of some relevant original documents in the course of the research.

1.4.8. **Facts of the classroom**

We did not discern the character of actual classroom activities throughout the WP3 research. Answers to questions regarding this do cast some ray of light into this dark abyss, which is otherwise completely invisible to researchers. Still, all we can have is rather vague ideas about what really goes on in the classrooms. Unlike the rather diverse but well-documented practices and projects of informal media education, classroom occurrences in formal education have remained completely invisible to research tools so far.

1.4.9. **Closed-ended questions, multiple choices**

When compiling the rather detailed questionnaire, which comprised a total of 46 questions in five sections, we decided on a method using closed-ended questions with given answer choices as opposed to open ended questions, chiefly for the sake of comparability. Naturally, responding experts had the opportunity to specify and refine their answers if they found that none of the given choices was relevant to the media-related curriculum, evaluation, teacher training or classroom practices of their countries.
1.4.10. Experts and the relevance of data

In the majority of the cases we received responses relating to a particular country from a national expert of that country. We regarded the information provided by these experts as valid since:

a) the restricted financial budget of the WP3 research did not enable an extensive data collection involving a number of data providers (even a representative sample) from each country, in which case the statistical average of the data obtained could have been regarded as valid;

b) a vast majority of the highly qualified national experts, who have been employed in this field for a long period of time, have themselves participated in research into media education, and thus we may assume extensive knowledge and awareness of contexts behind their responses;

c) the experts discussed the interpretation of certain questions in the questionnaire with the researchers or requested and received professional assistance from their own countries;

d) data collection was based on closed-ended questions, which reduced the possibility of the expert providing erroneous data and also that of his being uninformed about key questions relating to his own special field;

d) we used the Likert scale to measure certain types of curriculum-related information that was more likely to result from interpretation rather than data provision, and later on throughout the data evaluation process we simplified the scale to a three-level item, thus reducing the possibility of errors even further;

f) All the experts have received the draft version of the final report for supervision and for self-checking, and the upgrading of the report with the received corrections has been completed.

Our research findings were not simply based on the analysis of the questionnaires. In order to be able to make major valid statements, we applied two further control and correction techniques. We compared our data to the different country profiles, which were originally compiled for media education within formal education and are based on

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31 As has been mentioned before, to some extent Germany is an exception on account of her rather unique and complex system of federal states. Our German expert, Reinhard Middel, attempted to formulate his responses basing them on a majority principle. In his own words, his answers may be regarded as some sort of "federal melange".
original documents and source texts. Wherever we found significant discrepancies, we posed further questions in order to doublecheck findings with the national experts, who in turn interpreted, augmented or modified the final results with their remarks. In addition, all this was tested by the internal protocol for quality control of the EMEDUS Project. As a result and bearing in mind the limitations of the research to be described in the next chapter, we can state that the data in the research report meets the necessary requirements of scientific professionalism and expertise.

The following chart shows the names of experts participating in the research in order of nationality. We are most grateful for their contributions. Without the invaluable data and information they have provided this research would not have been possible.  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>country</th>
<th>country code</th>
<th>EMEDUS partner (E)</th>
<th>represented organisation(s)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>AT</td>
<td>Christine Wijnen (R)</td>
<td>University of Vienna; Institute for Media Literacy Salzburg</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Suzanne Krucsay (OE)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>BE</td>
<td>Dr. Willy Sleurs (OE)</td>
<td>Agency for Quality Assurance in Education and Training – Ministry of Education and Training of Flanders</td>
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<tr>
<td>Bulgaria</td>
<td>BG</td>
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<td>Czech Republic</td>
<td>CZ</td>
<td>Marketa Zezulkova (R, NE)</td>
<td>Centre for Excellence in Media Practice</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Jan Jirak (OE)</td>
<td>Metropolitan University Prague (MUP), Charles University Prague (Faculty of Social Sciences)</td>
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<td>Denmark</td>
<td>DK</td>
<td>Helle Lyngborg (R, OE)</td>
<td>Danish Research Centre on Education and Advanced Media Materials - University of Southern Denmark</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Jesper Bruun (OE)</td>
<td>Department of Science Education, University of Copenhagen</td>
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<td>Robert Evans (OE)</td>
<td>University of Copenhagen</td>
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<td>Estonia</td>
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<td>Kadri Ugur (NE)</td>
<td>University of Tartu</td>
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<td>Finland</td>
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<td>Ms. Pirjo Sinko (R)</td>
<td>Counsellor of Education Finnish National Board of Education</td>
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<td>France</td>
<td>FR</td>
<td>Evelyn Bevort (R)</td>
<td>CLEMI</td>
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<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>DE</td>
<td>Reinhard Middel (NE)</td>
<td>VISION KINO – Network for Film and Media</td>
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32 We included colleagues in the above list of national experts if they participated in the preliminary research, in the completion of the ML questionnaire and finally in the correction and augmentation of the draft version of this present report. We did not indicate partners working for the EMEDUS consortium as national experts.
<table>
<thead>
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<th>Country</th>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Competency</th>
<th>Institution/Position</th>
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<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>EL</td>
<td>Irene Andriopoulou (NE)</td>
<td>Hellenic Public Radio Television, EDT</td>
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<tr>
<td>Hungary</td>
<td>HU</td>
<td>László Hartai (E)</td>
<td>Hungarian Institute for Educational Research and Development</td>
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<td>Ireland</td>
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<td>Alicia McGivern (R, OE)</td>
<td>Irish Film Institute</td>
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<td>Brian O’Neill (R, OE)</td>
<td>Dublin Institute of Technology</td>
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<td>Italy</td>
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<td>Centro Zaffiria</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>Alberto Parola (R)</td>
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<td>LV</td>
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<td>Association Room of Fulfilled Dreams</td>
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<td>Lithuania</td>
<td>LT</td>
<td>Regina Jaskelevičiūnė (R)</td>
<td>Ministry of Culture</td>
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<td>Luxembourg</td>
<td>LU</td>
<td>Georges Fautsch (R, OE)</td>
<td>Lycée classique (high school) in Diekirch Teacher, filmmaker</td>
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<tr>
<td>Malta</td>
<td>MT</td>
<td>Christine Gauci (R, OE)</td>
<td>Curriculum Management and eLearning Department</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>Jenne van der Velde (OE)</td>
<td>Directorate for Quality and Standards in Education</td>
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<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>NL</td>
<td>Mary Berkhout (NE)</td>
<td>Mediawijzer.net</td>
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<td>Jenne van der Velde (OE)</td>
<td>Netherlands National Institute for Curriculum Development</td>
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<td>Poland</td>
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<td>Piotr Drzewiecki (R, OE)</td>
<td>Institute of media education and journalism</td>
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<td>Karolina Wołoszyn (E)</td>
<td>- Cardinal Stefan Wyszynski University in Warsaw</td>
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<td>Pedagogical University of Krakow</td>
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<td>Portugal</td>
<td>PT</td>
<td>Sara Pereira (E)</td>
<td>Universidade do Minho</td>
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<td>Vítor Reia-Baptista (OE)</td>
<td>Universidade do Algarve</td>
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<td>Romania</td>
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<td>Nicoleta Fotiade (NE)</td>
<td>ActiveWatch – Media Monitoring Agency</td>
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<td>Slovakia</td>
<td>SK</td>
<td>Andrej Skolkay (E)</td>
<td>School of Communication and Media</td>
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<td>Slovenia</td>
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<td>Dr. Zala Volc (R)</td>
<td>University of Maribor; University of Queensland</td>
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<td>Spain</td>
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<td>Sweden</td>
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<td>University Of Gothenburg, The Department of Journalism, Media and Communication; Göteborg Gothenburg, Sweden</td>
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<tr>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td>UK</td>
<td>Andrew Burn (R)</td>
<td>Institute of Education, University of London</td>
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<td>Sibel Erduran (OE)</td>
<td>University of Bristol</td>
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1.5. LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

The objective of the WP3 research is to reveal the actual position of media education within school systems and especially in its mainstream version, i.e. in compulsory education. Thus, unlike policy-type studies discussing the significance and the prospects of media education, our goal is to explore facts of realisation, to draw conclusions from these facts and finally to put forward recommendations.

1.5.1. Research horizons and the rainbow-like diversity of media education

The horizons of the WP3 research were strongly constrained by the fragmented nature of the educational systems of the member states. Picture the following: a student in a post-primary, junior cycle class is attending an optional Digital Media Literacy course in a small Irish town while her classmate will have heard nothing about this course. Furthermore, he wishes to complete his required credits with other elective courses. On the very same day in Hungary, a teenager at a secondary technical school for catering will definitely not encounter any issues of media education while in a media lesson mandatory for Year 9 students, his cousin of the same age and from the same town will be covering the media representation of bullying with the help of a textbook.

Let’s consider another part Europe. The management of the Grammar School in Krenova Street takes a completely different decision in the Czech city of Brno than any other school management of any other Czech city since according to the word of the Czech national curriculum: “Media education is a cross-curricular subject and every elementary and secondary school decides by themselves where and how media education will be incorporated into other subjects.”

We could go on and on with examples like the above forever.

- The number of distinctively different patterns of media education in formal education may well amount to over 100 variations in the European Union.
- The WP3 can only hypothetically undertake to categorize these into groups.
- At present there is absolutely no way of even estimating what percentage of students in formal education receive media education, let alone approximate the number of students that are taught according to any one of the major working models of media education.
In order to form a realistic picture based on factual data, we should be granted access to representative research data from larger sample sizes obtained from each age group, each school type and each country. Also, in an ideal situation, statistical surveys based on questionnaires should be combined with case studies and participant observations as well as focus group research methods. Such research should be able to reach media studies teachers and students alike, not just experts as the majority of curricula leave a great deal of room for schools and teachers. Thus, even though the comparative analysis of national curricula does cast some light on fundamental regularities, it does not have much to do with what really goes on in regards to classroom practices in terms of media education.

The research concept of the EMEDUS Project and the meagre financial budget of the WP3 has not made all this possible.\(^{33}\)

### 1.5.2. National but not all-round experts

As work commenced, we were struck by a somewhat unanticipated realisation which proved to be a major hindrance for our research: the knowledge of even the most experienced media education experts is rather wanting. We must say this despite the fact that they have been employed or submerged in the field of media education for 18 years on average and their professional activity is more than convincing. Over 45% of the experts are representatives from different universities (University of Turin; University of Maribor, etc.), 25% from state institutions such as ministries and curriculum development centers (e.g.: The Finnish National Board of Education; The Ministry of Culture of Lithuania), and 30% from public-private partnership networking organisations, professional organisations and research institutes (e.g.: Vision Kino - Germany; Association Room of Fulfilled Dreams - Latvia; EyeFilm, Mediawijzer.net - Netherlands).

This is exactly the reason why throughout our report we will keep referring back to the rather surprising realisation that it is actually media education delivered in schools as part of regular education that is the real uncharted spot on the map of media education. Few experts work in this field, and even fewer have an overview of the whole of media education. Those who do have experience of the whole range of aspects of media

\(^{33}\) Research methodology will become rather constrained and efficiency will become quite limited if the expert cannot pay a visit to the locations to be researched and s/he cannot make his/her own impressions on site. In certain cases personal presence simply cannot be replaced by professional discussions, secondary data or surveys.
education from curriculum development through classroom work to teacher training are few and far between\textsuperscript{34}.  

\textsuperscript{34} One exception that proves the rule is an organisation called Dutch Media literacy centre: Mediawiizer.net. It is one of the few organizations that 'have experience of the whole range of aspects of media education from curriculum development, through classroom work to teacher training'. This is because they are a network organization with 900 partner organisations with expertise and knowledge about the complete media literacy field.
II.

ANALYSIS
2.1 ABOUT MEDIA-RELATED CURRICULA IN THE EU

2.1.1. Regulation by curriculum in Europe

The following section concerns the comparative analysis of media education related parts of the national curricula in the EU. Regulation by curriculum is extremely varied in the member states with two major trends. The continental tradition determines school types, the system of subjects to be taught along with the number of lessons per subject, and here highbrow knowledge has a priority over everyday knowledge. In the English-speaking world, where the education of young people is divided into stages, the system grants schools much more freedom and places a greater emphasis on imparting everyday knowledge. A number of versions and mixtures of these have evolved thanks to the educational reforms of the past three decades.

According to educational experts, one can discern a move towards unity in the creation of European curricula. There are pronounced demands for the development of competences and efforts to move from the rigid single disciplinary perspective towards a complex multidisciplinary approach in teaching materials. In addition, attempts have been made to shift from the universality of encyclopedism to teaching based on key concepts (Mihály 2002). Despite these changes, there are no two countries with the same curricula, the same school systems or the same examination types.

In certain member states such as Finland, Hungary and the Czech Republic “frame curricula” determine the subjects that are to be taught. They are all based on the national curricula with different levels of authorisation given to schools to create their own local curricula.

In other countries the majority of decisions about media education are made at school level while the rather concise and to the point Anglo-Saxon type national curricula are supplemented by syllabi. As a result, a few of the experts did not answer questions about media-related curricula on the basis of their national curriculum. In order to be able to provide usable information, they used the frame curricula or the syllabi instead, which however, are closely connected to the national curricula. Even though this enhanced the informativeness of the responses, it regrettably burdened the data content of the research with some incoherence.
In the national curricula of Bulgaria\textsuperscript{35}, Latvia, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Portugal, Spain and Sweden, there is no specific media education module or cross-curricular requirement or regulation to develop media literacy. ("For now there is no media literacy included in the national curriculum" – Latvia; “There is no teaching of media education at Portuguese schools” - Portugal; “Some contents of media education / media literacy have found their way into various syllabuses” – Luxembourg; “The curriculum contains only implicit allusions that may be associated with media literacy.” – the Netherlands; “Media literacy is not explicitly included in the Swedish curriculum” - Sweden; “The Spanish Education Law (LOE), adopted on April 7, 2006, promotes media literacy, as many of the contents of this knowledge area are addressed in the curricula of different subject areas and are also present in the characterization of different core competencies. The terms media education or media literacy do not appear as such and do not constitute a specific subject. The current Spanish government (2012) proposed changes in education law that may affect in any way the contents related to media literacy, since one of the areas with changes would be “Citizenship education”, where there are media critical understanding activities and citizen participation.” – Spain)\textsuperscript{36}.

Throughout the analysis of the curricula, we handled Latvia and Portugal separately, since these are the two countries where media education is not at all or not in an evaluable way part of formal education. On the other hand, we did utilise data from Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Spain and Sweden despite the fact that media education is not present in their national curricula. This decision is justifiable by the fact that the curricula do contain numerous implicit references to media education (as in the case of Sweden and Spain) and/or real teaching practices are governed by hidden curricula based on the accepted definition of media literacy (as in the Netherlands and Luxembourg).

Despite several attempts, we have not been able to acquire answers to our questions about Cyprus, and we do not have a completed questionnaire from Flanders either. On account of the contradictory information, we shall not present data about French-speaking Belgium and Bulgaria in the next chapter, but these two countries will certainly be included in the collection of country profiles. Also, please remember that in the

\textsuperscript{35} “There still has not been even any attempt to start a discussion regarding the inclusion of media education in the school curriculum” (Zhikov 2012)

\textsuperscript{36} As written by the experts completing the questionnaire. For further details please see the the country profiles, which present the educational systems and media education of the individual countries.
following, we will not remind the reader about the missing data when interpreting responses.

To kick off the curricular analysis, we first briefly survey the conceptual frameworks and/or key concepts in which the curricula set media education. Next we scrutinise the picture arising from the curricula question by question and often quote longer passages to reveal actual contents and approaches behind the abstract concepts. Next we make an attempt to compare the countries and name models on the basis of the curricula. Each chapter will end with a conclusion based on the above.

2.1.2. Conceptual frameworks/key concepts in the curricula

The range of conceptual frameworks and key concepts explicit in the curricula can be identified as a combination of the four (or more) key concepts of the media and those of the three (or four) main skills and competencies. European curricula, which sometimes do change - if slowly - thanks to educational reforms, display the effects of two major influences. One is the Canadian-British tradition of media education together with its approach and sensitivity to problems, and the other consists mainly of the conceptual framework of pedagogical and methodological concepts of competence development. The former is the tetrad of the terms language-representation-audience-production, and the latter is the pentagon of access-use-understand-evaluate-create. And what lies behind all this is the theroretical-disciplinary and practical-expressive relationship (and also proportions and methodological considerations) between knowledge and activity. At the same time, the neutral keywords of the conceptual framework can only be understood by media education in schools from the perspective of a professional consensus, which has only just evolved over the past two decades, and which Rosemarie Manalili and Johann Rehnberg describes as follows (Manalili & Rehnberg 2009):

Media education refers to the process of teaching about the media or the different concepts of media (representation, language, audience, and production): that is knowing how the media represent reality (representation); conventions and techniques to convey meaning in media texts (language); attracting and sustaining users of media (audience); how is media produced, what are the economic forces that affects the production of media content (production). In studying these concepts, the students are expected to acquire skills in accessing the media texts that are needed for further analysis and learning. In turn, pupils, seen as active individuals, are expected to come up with their own media texts and communicate it to others. Media literacy experts as well as educational theorists share a common understanding that aside from

37 This comparison is only partially true for Germany with her 16 federal state curricula.
understanding, evaluating, and analysing different aspects of media, creating media texts is also a way of empowering young people to become critical and active citizens of society—the overall vision and goal of media education.

Studies often refer to David Buckingham in connection with the conceptual framework of media education (language-representation-audience-production; please see 1.2.2. above). Buckingham describes the institutional background which led to the creation of this framework, and he also discusses how each key concept of this framework has come to be associated with a traditional school subject (Buckingham & Domaille 2001).

The frameworks developed by the Association for Media Literacy in Canada and the British Film Institute in England (which are closely related) have been very influential internationally, even in very different cultural contexts. Most countries that have an explicit framework use some variant of these, while others appear to have adopted one or other of them wholesale. (...) Different areas tend to be prioritised in different contexts, not least as a result of the location of media education in the curriculum. Thus, while issues of 'representation' are fairly consistently addressed across the board, 'language' tends to be emphasised in the context of mother tongue language teaching, while 'production' often features more strongly in the context of social studies or citizenship education.

The conceptual framework below was created by Chris Wornsnop, and it does not only name the neutral key concepts concerning media texts in the conceptual framework, but he also problematises them (i.e. makes them methodologically accessible) for media education (Wornsnop 2000).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Media Image</th>
<th>Questions to Ask</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Industry</td>
<td>Who's in charge? What do they want of me, and why? What else do they want? HOW DO I KNOW?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product</td>
<td>What kind of text is this? Are conventions followed or broken? How is this message constructed? HOW DO I KNOW?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Audience</td>
<td>Who is this intended for? What assumptions does the text make about the audience? Who am I supposed to be in relation to this text? HOW DO I KNOW?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Values</td>
<td>How real is this text? How/where do I find the meaning? What values are presented? What is the commercial message? What is the ideology of this text? What social/artistic/political messages does the text contain? HOW DO I KNOW?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Predisposition</td>
<td>Do I agree with (assent to) this text's message? Do I disagree with (resist) this text's message? Do I argue/negotiate with the message of this text? HOW DO I KNOW?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perception</td>
<td>How does the text fit my personal values/beliefs/ideology? How does the text relate to my personal needs/hopes/fears/experiences? HOW DO I KNOW?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skills</td>
<td>What skills do I need to apply to this text? How do I deconstruct/reconstruct this text? What new skills does this text demand of me? HOW DO I KNOW?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Emphases in the conceptual framework may turn out to be completely different if we talk about media literacy, media education or media education governed by curricula. In their book entitled *Media Literacy and New Humanism*, Tornero and Varis thoroughly examine the social and competence-related implications of media literacy. However, they only touch on the aspects of formal media education by giving generalisations (Tornero & Varis 2010).

If the critical, creative and communicative capacities are generally individual competences, the question in media education has to do with all of the processes in which capacities related to the technologies and media languages are acquired. Media education has a wide variety of contexts. (...). We thus separate activities in media education that can be experienced within the school setting from those that are performed in free-time or social contexts, for example. Within the formal activities, the question of teacher training is extremely important, while in the realm of informal activities, what we could call environmental factors and the creation of the right climates — opportunities and occasions — for the development of media competences come to the fore. (...). Finally, in our schema we stressed the role played by the media themselves in creating learning conditions and skill acquisition. This interaction can be spontaneous and at times it can be driven by certain exclusively educational activities by the media. The issues related to media education will be elaborated upon in more depth in the section devoted to the new media literacy curriculum.

Signatories of the manifesto entitled *No Education Without Media!* (2009) define what it means to acquire a media education through media education. With this informal text of theirs, they also create a manageable conceptual framework.

Being media literate requires a person to have a sound knowledge of the different media, including knowledge of basic techniques and aesthetic forms of the conditions and forms of media production and distribution in society and an awareness of the cultural and communicative, economical, and political importance that these media have in globalised societies. Media literacy is a capacity for sensible, considered, and responsible media use. This includes the ability to make informed choices, to understand and interpret media codes, and to make careful use of media during our leisure time, at school and in our professions. Active and creative design using the media for self expression, for articulating subjects which interest us, for contact and communication is another core area of media literacy. Finally, media education promotes media criticism, which refers both to media development in society, as well as to our own (self-reflective) media use and media creations.

The chart below summarises the conceptual framework and key concepts (basic topics) of media education. As is apparent, curricula which govern media pedagogical developments in formal education in Europe use very similar sets of concepts. Exceptions to this are countries where this area is not present at all, or it is an element of the development of digital competence in the curricula.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AT</th>
<th>BE-FL</th>
<th>CZ</th>
<th>DE</th>
<th>DK</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Media use&lt;br&gt;Media as an economic factor or mass media as an institution&lt;br&gt;Own media creations&lt;br&gt;Communication with and through the media</td>
<td>Media use: ability to use media on a daily basis, informally and creatively&lt;br&gt;Understanding: a conscious and critical attitude towards classical (television, radio, press) and new media (internet applications, SMS)&lt;br&gt;Participation as in the cultural public context (readers' letters, YouTube, chat rooms, blogs, webcam, etc.)</td>
<td>To use the media’s potential as a source of information and quality entertainment and for leisure time activities&lt;br&gt;Understanding of the objectives and strategies of selected media content&lt;br&gt;Analytic approach to and critical distance from media content&lt;br&gt;Creating important forms of media content (especially news reports)&lt;br&gt;Role of the media in key societal situations and in democratic society in general (including legal context)&lt;br&gt;area of knowledge&lt;br&gt;knowledge of the role of the media in society&lt;br&gt;assuming a critical approach to media production&lt;br&gt;area of skills&lt;br&gt;pupil to create his/her own media production</td>
<td>Media use: ability to use media in a sensible, considerate, careful and responsible way&lt;br&gt;Understand and interpret media codes&lt;br&gt;Media criticism which refers both to media development in society, as well as to our own (self-reflective) media use and media creations&lt;br&gt;Active and creative use of the media (self expression, articulating subjects which interest us)&lt;br&gt;Communication and contact</td>
<td>Information retrieval and collection&lt;br&gt;Analysis&lt;br&gt;Production and dissemination&lt;br&gt;Communication, knowledge sharing and collaboration.</td>
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</tbody>
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<tr>
<th>EE</th>
<th>EL</th>
<th>ES</th>
<th>FI</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Find and analytically use information&lt;br&gt;Understand their responsibility as media consumer and content provider&lt;br&gt;Express themselves and distribute a message to the desired audience</td>
<td>Textual analysis and deconstruction of meanings (on the production procedure, the text itself, the reception of the text)&lt;br&gt;Social configurations of the public sphere, power and control .</td>
<td>Use of information sources and to acquire new knowledge with critical judgment&lt;br&gt;To acquire basic preparation in the field of technologies, particularly in information and communication</td>
<td>Media use&lt;br&gt;Understand media production and expressions, position and significance of media, how those messages can influence individuals and society as a whole&lt;br&gt;Interpret the various messages that pupils receive from the media, can estimate the background and function&lt;br&gt;Participatory, interactive and communal communication&lt;br&gt;Produce media, self-expression</td>
<td>Critical use of information sources to find, select and evaluate information&lt;br&gt;Convey meaning and discourse&lt;br&gt;Power of images (fixed and moving)&lt;br&gt;Influence of media, ICT and networks in society</td>
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<tr>
<th>HU</th>
<th>IE</th>
<th>IT</th>
<th>LT</th>
<th>MT</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Acquire knowledge of the language (especially moving images) and functions of the media&lt;br&gt;Understand and critically analyse media contents, develop the ability to recognise and use means of expression of media</td>
<td>Explore and use some simple broadcasting, production and communication techniques&lt;br&gt;Explore the different ways in which information can be transmitted and learn to be discerning and</td>
<td>Recognition of grammatical and technical elements in audiovisual languages and individualize their significance&lt;br&gt;Experiment with the use of audiovisual communication technologies for</td>
<td>News media - news as reality or construction; news audience vs news consumers; deconstruction methods&lt;br&gt;Advertising - common criticism of advertising&lt;br&gt;Internet - as a source of information; social interaction, personal</td>
<td>Knowledge - media and society, media organisation, media content&lt;br&gt;Attitude – critical, selective, freedom of speech&lt;br&gt;Skills - analysis; expressing oneself</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### NL: Media use - equipment, software and applications; orientation within media environments, reflecting on own media usage
- Understanding - the growing influence of media on society
- How media are made
- How the media colour reality
- Communication - finding and processing information, participating in social networks
- Creating content strategy

### Source: Raad voor Cultuur (2005) Medialijfsheid: de ontwikkeling van nieuw burgerschap

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NL</th>
<th>Source: Curriculum Medialijfsheid: de ontwikkeling van nieuw burgerschap</th>
<th>Source: Curriculum Medialijfsheid: de ontwikkeling van nieuw burgerschap</th>
<th>Source: Curriculum Medialijfsheid: de ontwikkeling van nieuw burgerschap</th>
<th>Source: Curriculum Medialijfsheid: de ontwikkeling van nieuw burgerschap</th>
</tr>
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</table>

### SE: Representation - understand themselves and the world, reviewing values and attitudes, exhibits degrees of realism; forming public opinion, construction of

### Source: Curriculum Source: Media Education in Four EU Countries Common Problems and Possible Solutions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SE</th>
<th>Source: Curriculum Source: Media Education in Four EU Countries Common Problems and Possible Solutions</th>
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<td>Source: Curriculum Source: Media Education in Four EU Countries Common Problems and Possible Solutions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### UK: Abilities and capabilities in relation to media and new communication technologies, shaping the critical and selective approach offered by the media content and the content of communication systems, individuals’ basic knowledge of media and new communication technologies

- Understanding how the media work, how they are organized, how the media discourses are created, and how the reality is constructed
- Critically analyse media content
- Creation of their own media content

### Source: Media education in Slovakia - literature review (SKAMBA)
As can be seen from the above, the wording of the media education related conceptual framework varies considerably from country to country, depending on the characteristics of the individual curricula. In most of the cases, such a framework is not explicitly present in the curricula. Yet ...

a) what is still clearly recognisable is Cary Balzalgette’s ideas (Bazalgette 1989) and the Anglo-Saxon tradition (the Key Aspects of Media Education - Media Agencies (Institutions); Media Categories (Genres); Media Technologies; Media Languages; Media Audiences; Media Representations; 1989);

b) almost everywhere, key questions appear in the context of Use - Understand (Analyse-Evaluate) – Create – Communicate;

c) what dominates the language of the curricula is the use of terminology such as the development of competences, (critical) knowledge, attitude and skills;

d) the term media predominantly refers to phenomena associated with the Internet, and the curriculum specifically indicates if it means more conventional media;
e) key concepts such as participating in social networks and active citizenship do appear, but they are not integral parts of the conceptual framework of media related curricula.

2.1.3 The position, form and scope of a media-related curriculum

2.1.3.1 Is media literacy education included in your top-level curriculum (national curriculum) and/or in any other top-level steering document?

It was rather instructive to see how differently respondents interpreted this question of whether media education is in the curriculum or not (irrespective of form and everything else). Was it because they thought that only compulsory contents were regulated by the curriculum or because they did not mean media literacy in a softer or more permissive sense, which can include many different aspects?

As Inese Priedite, Christine Gauci and Mary Berkhout from Latvia, Malta and the Netherlands put it respectively:

"There is no media education as an official subject in the curriculum, also officially it is not integrated into other subjects. There might be some variations among schools and individual teachers, for instance, there might be some media education included in the social science subject, but not all schools provide it. Also there might be media as a subject in some schools, but then it will be an optional subject and also it is more like an exception, only few schools might provide it." (I.P)

"Media Literacy is not a qualified subject in Malta either in the Primary or in the Secondary Sectors' Compulsory Curricula." (C.G)

"Media literacy is not obligatory in formal education in the Netherlands. But I have interpreted that also project-based voluntarily education is included" (M.B)

The situation is quite different in Portugal, where, as the well-known expert Vitor Rea-Batista says:

"All I could find is the intention to implement some issues (which, nobody knows exactly) of Media Education within the subject of ICT for the 2nd and 3rd cycles of the basic curriculum (grades 5 to 9). There is also the intention, coming from the state department of cultural affairs to create on those cycles the subject of Film Literacy."

Taking all this into account, media education does still appear in nearly every curriculum of the member states. However, as indicated in 1.2.3 and 2.1.1., countries where media literacy appears in the curriculum of digital competence development and/or in an even broader context of general competence development should be
classified in one group and dealt with separately to some extent. Another group should be created for the Netherlands and Luxembourg, where media education is not present in the curriculum, but it is universally administered in formal education. Yet another group should be created for countries where media literacy is not present in any form in curricular regulations. It should be borne in mind, however, that the above classification does not mean that there is absolutely no media education whatsoever in the formal education of these countries. One must acknowledge, though, that in Bulgaria, Latvia, Portugal, Spain, and Sweden, media education is closely associated with new media and the development of digital competences.

**Figure 1:**
Is media literacy education included in your top-level curriculum (national curriculum)

In the curricula of the member states marked in blue, there is no specific regulation to govern media education.
2.1.3.2 Is media literacy EXPLICITLY mentioned OR does the curriculum only contain IMPlicit ALLUSIONS that may be associated with media literacy?

Here are two good examples of implicit allusions: a passage from the Polish curriculum, which has been in force since 2009 and another from the Italian curriculum (2007), which concerns mother tongue education between the ages of 9 and 11.

In the preamble to the general education core curriculum for primary schools (Stages I and II) it is emphasized that “the important task of school is to prepare students for life in the information society. Teachers should create conditions for students to acquire the skills to search, organize and use information from various sources, using ICT, in classes of different subjects.”

In the general education curriculum for middle and high schools (Stages III and IV) it’s found that, “teachers should create conditions for students to acquire skills to search, organize and use information from various sources, using ICT and the classes of different subjects.”

Italian language (…) The student will experiment from the first years the expressive potentialities of Italian language, and the possibility of language to melt with other languages and other media in interdisciplinary and multimedia communication forms” (…) “The ability to consult dictionaries and traditional repertoires available online; the listening and understanding of texts broadcast by media, comprehending their meaning, main information and intended purpose. The pupil should freely experiment with the use of the computer for various forms of writing, adapting lexis, text structure, page layout, graphic displays and eventually integrating multimedia materials.

Media education is explicitly mentioned for instance in the Irish curriculum (1999) at elementary level in the section devoted to media education in the subject area called Social, Personal & Health Education (SPHE)

The child should be enabled to:

- explore and understand how information is conveyed and practise relaying messages using a variety of methods information and communication technology, letter, telephone, picture, poster, sign, film, book
- explore the role of newspapers and other forms of print media in transmitting messages, the techniques used and the types of information included identifying information that may be deliberately excluded, the role of bias
- recognise unequal treatment of sexual roles and other issues in literature, advertising, drama, magazines and other media
- identify the audiences at which different aspects of the media are aimed, the approaches used, the content
- become aware of the different forms of advertising, its purpose and the messages it promotes, advertising messages—slim always means healthy, beautiful people smoke and drink, certain diets are safe, beauty is physical hidden links between body-image and certain products—you will belong if you use this product what I need versus what I want
- become increasingly critical and discerning in his/her own attitude to advertising and the techniques used to promote products, life-styles and ideas techniques: beauty and glamour to promote certain products, the use of music, associating personalities with certain products, giving free gifts on purchase, the use of attractive visual images, the repetition of certain advertisements.
It is not only the interpretation of the terms explicit and implicit that might lead to uncertainty, but a mixture of different education systems too. In Malta (Borg & Lauri, 2009), for example, state-run and church-run schools are using different curricula. The wording of the curriculum for state-run schools is implicit whilst the curriculum for church-run schools is explicit about media education.

In Malta, while the National Minimum Curriculum explained in detail the aims and objectives of the programme, it did not however specify whether Media Education should be taught as an interdisciplinary subject or as a subject on its own. As a result State and Church schools could choose different strategies.

France’s curriculum (2011) has an excitingly sophisticated solution to addressing the question of media education from five different aspects:

- Introduction to the media: it is a general, broader axis, which includes references to citizenship, openness to the world, curiosity, discovery, etc. Without referring directly to the media, these words can “initiate” and legitimize a culture of news.
- The reading of the image is an area which includes everything in connection with the image: the analysis of images in the different media or the interpretation of still or moving pictures, for example.
- Media as an object to be studied: in this case, the primary goal is to understand what the media themselves are like, how they work, and to decipher them. This strategy deals solely with the media.
- The media used as a teaching aid: in this case, the media is used to pass on a subject-specific content. Afterwards students can discuss the medium itself.
- activities and skills (including IT), students’ media products.

On the basis of the usable responses, about 64% of the national curricula of the member states mention media education explicitly, and 36% refer to an implicit presence of the subject. This means that this subject area is scattered all over the curriculum and is incorporated into other fields and subjects. The former group includes AT, CZ, DK, EE, FI, FR, DE, EL, HU, IE, MT, RO, SK, SI, UK while IT, LT, LU, NL, PL, ES, SE constitute the latter category. There is absolutely no mention of media literacy in the Portuguese and Latvian curricula. The explicit or implicit quality should definitely be taken into account when it comes to the comparative analysis of curricula.
2.1.3.3  *Is media literacy taught to each of the four age groups?*

We attempted to form a picture on the basis of the seemingly simple question: which age groups receive media education in the member states according to the curricula. Results concerning this are, however, rather vague. Besides uncertainties deriving from the universally common form of cross-curricular education and decisions made by the schools (or even by individual teachers), the situation varies from school type to school type. As the Czech experts Zezulkova & Jirak indicate:

"Since media education is a cross-curricular subject and each school decides how and when it is taught, there are few elementary schools (primary and lower-secondary) teaching media literacy since the first grade, but the majority of media literacy education starts within ICT lessons at the age of 10. Regarding upper-secondary education, media literacy/media education is explicitly mentioned and taught in boarding/general secondary education day schools (gymnasia), but not in secondary polytechnic schools." (M.Z and J.J)

On the basis of the curricula, however, there seems to be some form of media education in 70% of the member states at primary level, in 75% at lower-secondary level and in 80% at upper-secondary level. The overall picture is even more uneven thanks to soft curricular regulations and to parallelly operating school types and authorities in charge of running schools. Unfortunately, within the WP3 research we cannot see what the real proportions are.

On the basis of the results we can safely claim, however, that there has been a major change since the Buckingham & Domaille research. While no media education was delivered to primary age children in 2001, in 2012 the curricula in the majority of the countries enforce some form of related development. This must by all means be the consequence of the rapid advance of new media.

The situation is fundamentally different when it comes to the post-secondary age group. This level of education is a special combination of vocational (or practical) training and tertiary education. Here students are offered practical courses training them for particular professions in the media industry and/or introductory courses at academic/artistic establishments of higher education. Work at the institutions in this sector is regulated by their own curricula, which are approved by accreditation councils responsible for higher education and are excluded from the scope of national curricula. For this very reason, we only address this field in passing in the course of the WP3 research.
2.1.3.4.  In what form is media literacy taught to the various age groups?

Throughout the research we attempted to distinguish between cross-curricular and integrated (or modular) forms of media education, as the definitions of cross-curricular and integrated education are worlds apart. Still, those less knowledgeable in educational terminology are prone to confuse the two forms. Cross-curricular is always modular since media education appears as part of different subjects. On the other hand, integrated is not necessarily cross-curricular. The following passages from the Estonian (2011) and Finnish (2004) curricula display characteristics of the cross-curricular form:

Cross-curricular Topic “Information Environment”
(…) Covering the cross-curricular on this level of study guides pupils to cope independently with different media formats and make consumer choices based on their different interests and needs. Pupils are familiar with the rules and acting in the public space, they deplore the violations. Pupils analyse media’s role in economy and society, examining globalization effects of media content on people and their media habits, they are also able to formulate their message and communicate it meaningfully.

The cross-curricular themes common to all upper secondary schools are:
Communication and media competence
General upper secondary school education must provide students with instruction and modes of operation that will enable them to consolidate their understanding of the key role and significance of the media in our culture.

In contrast, the Finnish curriculum (2004) features the integrated form in a module of the chapter entitled Mother Tongue and Literature – Compulsory Courses 2

Texts and influence
Students will learn to examine texts and their language from the perspective of exercising influence in particular. They will familiarise themselves with argumentation and will consolidate their knowledge in relation to this. They will learn to analyse and produce argumentative texts.

OBJECTIVES

The objectives of the course are for students to:
• learn to read factual texts and follow public debates, particularly in the media, understand key contents of texts and clearly distinguish between facts and opinions;
• understand the social influence of the media, be able to take a stance on messages communicated by the media and be confident enough to voice their own opinions;
• consolidate their media literacy, which will enable them to analyse and interpret various media texts, their backgrounds and functions and to critically assess information communicated by the media and its effects on individuals and society;
• be able to justify their views diversely both as writers and as speakers and to assess aspirations to influence and the reliability of text;
• acquaint themselves with the activities of the media, also from the perspectives of writers and reporters; learn factual communication and meeting techniques;
• become aware of the opportunities, obligations and limitations relating to telecommunications and text messaging, also from legal and ethical perspectives.
• be able to examine the effects of literature on society;
• literature and the media as opinion leaders;
• learn to examine and assess texts and the values that these convey even from ethical viewpoints.

CORE CONTENTS
direct and indirect influence, such as persuasion, steering, manipulation, advertising, propaganda, irony, satire, parody;
• genres of texts aiming to influence, graphic and electronic texts: opinions, columns, humorous columns, reviews, editorials, commentaries, advertisements;
• argumentation methods and rhetorical devices;
• taking a stance in conversations, debates and oral contributions;
• literature consciously aiming to influence and other contentious texts;
• ideology in texts, source criticism and media criticism;
• responsibility of a communicator; media choices and netiquette.

In the Estonian curriculum (2011) there is a mandatory course as part of the
Estonian language education, and it is called "Media and influence". It looks
something like this:

'Media and Influence'

Learning outcomes
By completing the course, students:
1) are familiar with media channels, specific features of printed media, radio, TV and electronic media and their major text types;
2) know the general characteristics of texts and the specifics of the reception of different texts;
3) are aware of the specifics of media text reception and its causes;
4) have acquired the basic techniques of text analysis and analyse verbal usage in visual and audiovisual context;
5) perceive the aims and motives of the author; find references and allusions to other texts and interpret in the context of related texts;
6) differentiate between facts and opinions and reliable and doubtful information;
7) can identify arguments and basic influencing techniques in media texts;
8) analyse advertisements critically and can deliberate on issues of advertising or image promotion; and
9) can express their views on what they have read and heard and select appropriate language tools.

Learning content
General characteristics of text: suitability in communication situation, general coherence and connectedness between content parts; linguistic creativity and orthology.
Interpretation of texts, causes of different reception: knowledge, personal experience and cultural background.
Text addressee and plausibility.
Categorisation and analysis of texts. Main media genres (news, coverage, interview and opinion piece).
Linking media texts: references and hints, scope and aims of reporting.
Language as a means of sharing information and building contacts.
Media channels. Major media channels in Estonia, professional and popular journals, radio and TV channels, the Internet, printed and online publications and differences between quality and entertainment journalism.
Ways of presenting and tools of written texts, audio texts and audiovisual texts.
Specifics of receiving different types of media texts; perception of verbal usage in the context of sound and picture. Plausibility of media texts. Communication in online portals.
Media and influence. Verbal and visual influence. Manipulation, media ethics and media criticism.
Ethical and relevant formulation of personal standpoint. Author’s position, information sources and their reliability.

It is apparent that guidelines in the cross-curricular form set rather general objectives to achieve. Even though every subject can benefit from such a curriculum in some form or another, one cannot really discern the actual contents, the key issues and the pace of the development in the wording of the document. Modules integrated into the curriculum are more specific and to the point. Also, there is some uncertainty of interpretation as to the naming of the actual curricular form of media education. For example, Kadri Ugur, an outstanding Estonian expert in this field, defines the above-quoted media-related compulsory module, which is integrated into the education of the Estonian language at upper-secondary level, as a separate subject and not as an integrated subject area as Hungarian curriculum developers would do.

Having surveyed the palette of media education in Europe, we can claim that currently there does not seem to exist a separate, mandatory, media-related school subject literally independent of all other subjects with definite developmental requirements and contents in the national curricula or the frame curricula, (which are linked to the national curricula and have a regional or state-level scope.38) The closest to this is probably what Hungary has, where school boards can opt for either compulsory drama classes or media classes in Year 9 at upper-secondary level, and later on in Years 11 and 12 school boards can decide whether to have compulsory drama, media, music or visual culture classes at their schools39. Let us quote parts of

38 There is an optional but coherently structured film or media module in some of the curricula, including those of Romania and certain federal states in Germany.

39 The other example is the well-known GCSE course of Britain, whose objectives, output and contents are determined by the following centralized regulation.

Aims and learning outcomes
1. GCSE specifications in Media Studies should encourage learners to be inspired, moved and changed by following a broad, coherent, satisfying and worthwhile course of study and gain an insight into related sectors. They should prepare learners to make informed decisions about further learning opportunities and career choices.
2. GCSE specifications in Media Studies must enable learners to:
   - develop enquiry, critical thinking and decision-making skills through consideration of issues that are important, real and relevant to learners and to the world in which they live;
   - develop their appreciation and critical understanding of the media and its role in their daily lives;
   - develop their practical skills through opportunities for personal engagement and creativity;
   - understand how to use the key media concepts to analyse media products and their various contexts.

Subject content
3. The content of GCSE specifications in Media Studies must reflect the learning outcomes.
4. GCSE specifications in Media Studies must build on learners’ informal learning and prior experience of media.
the introduction to the curriculum (2012) for the subject called Moving Image Culture and Media Studies and then list the major topics to be covered. For the sake of better understanding contents belonging to a topic, we also provide a detailed breakdown of knowledge areas and developmental requirements concerning the language of the media and the interpretation of media texts.

The subject called Moving Image Culture and Media Studies primarily serves to develop the ability to interpret media texts and to clarify the social function and the workings of the audiovisual media, for the media have an extraordinary impact on the knowledge and personality of the man of today. While teaching Moving Image Culture and Media Studies, we must make the students aware of the relationship between the production of technical images and reality and the suitability of moving image texts and internet contents to reproduce the empirical world and to produce personal messages. Students should be made conscious of why and how so many people wish to present mediated communication as a danger to high culture and the autonomy of personality (e.g.: information addiction, compulsive consumption). Also, they must be made to understand what invaluable opportunity lies in the production of technical images and network communication to protect cultural heritage, to exploit one’s creativity, to strengthen civil society and to develop one’s ability to select. (…)

the language of the media and the interpretation of media texts

Knowledge and requirements:
- By completing creative tasks, the students become aware of the fact that the interpretation of a media text equally depends on the text, the recipient and the media environment in which the text was made public (i.e.: on media language, the use of this language, the audience and the context)
- Students are enabled to recognize and name the interpretation frameworks for interpreting the story propositions made public by media institutions. While processing and analysing current media events, they are able to reveal how and why it is necessary to present stories in the media as stereotypes and what dangers this might pose.
- Students become familiar with the concept of representation and are enabled to apply it to media representations of gender, professions, lifestyles and minorities especially when they are incongruous with reality. At the same time, they become aware of the fact that media texts are the cultural representatives of communities. In this way students become conscious of the fact that the world does not appear to be the same in the media as in reality.
- Individually and in small or larger groups, students are enabled to process media texts that are suitable for their age by completing creative practical tasks or by way of discussions. This means for instance that students make assumptions and statements concerning the circumstances in which media texts were created and about the intentions of the emisor (i.e.: the media institution). Students also compare their experiences concerning the worlds represented or conveyed by the media as well as observe and discuss similarities and differences on the basis of news programmes, talk shows, reality shows, lifestyle magazines.
- Students compare the different representations of the same events and logically explain the differences between simpler representations taking into consideration different interests, perspectives, political and economic affiliations and exploring variations of genre and language in news programmes, news websites and daily newspapers.

5. GCSE specifications in Media Studies must require learners to demonstrate knowledge and understanding of:
* how media forms, codes and conventions create meanings;
* representation in the media;
* contexts of media production, distribution and consumption;
* how different audiences/users respond to and interact with media products and processes;
* media products, concepts and contexts, to inform their practical production work;
* media technologies;
* a minimum of three different media (including at least one print and one audio visual based form).
The cross-curricular presence of media literacy gradually diminishes from 48% to 32% as students progress in age and enter a higher level of education. The most characteristic form in which media literacy is taught is that of integrated (or modular) practice at all levels: primary 60%, lower-secondary 68% and upper-secondary 68%.

The teaching of media literacy as a separate subject is rather scarce. (Primary 0, lower-secondary 12% and upper-secondary 24% -, if we consider optional and separate media-related courses, which were officially described as part of other studies). On account of the separate subject system (plus the integrated status) DK, EE, HU, RO, SK, (UK) fall into the same category.

Even in the very few cases where media studies is a separate subject, it is not compulsory for all the students. They have the chance to opt for it. There are very few exceptions to this rule: in Hungary it is a mandatory-elective subject at upper-secondary level. Also, film studies will be an obligatory subject in Ireland from 2014 onwards, and some Scottish schools are said to have compulsory media lessons.

**Figure 2: In what form is media literacy taught to the various age groups?**

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blue: cross curricular and integrated into other subjects  
red: separate subject  
grey: no ML mentioned in the curriculum  
black: no data (We have not received a completed questionnaire from Belgium, Bulgaria and Cyprus. As we are basing our analysis primarily on responses in the Media Literacy questionnaire, these three countries will consistently be marked "no data" throughout the report)
In conclusion, it seems that over the past decade media education has been gaining more and more ground in formal education. This is the case even if it is only in the cross-curricular form and in a rather haphazard fashion depending on the decisions of individual schools. The propagation of media education does not only occur in the elite segment of formal education, i.e.: at upper-secondary level in secondary grammar schools, but at primary level too. This happens at a cost, though. Instead of media education receiving a separate subject status in an increasing number of countries, it either loses its independence even where it enjoyed an independent status or becomes an optional field of study instead of remaining compulsory (e.g.: in Poland, Hungary and Estonia). As a result of the cross-curricular form and integration into other subjects, media education is deprived of its focus and loses its priority concerning its contents. The amount of knowledge to be imparted is reduced, and it is not clear who and with what qualifications and expertise should teach media studies. In addition, it becomes problematic to interpret the role and implementation of evaluation, and consequently, the efficiency of development is jeopardized. On the whole and in connection with all the above we believe that the prestige of media education is diminishing in schools.40

2.1.3.5. **If media literacy is an integrated subject, WHERE IS IT COVERED IN THE CURRICULA?**

It can be quite revealing about the content of the different varieties of media education if we examine which subjects are ready to incorporate media literacy. The disciplinary background, the locution, the cited examples (or the canon) and last but not least the teaching practices of core subjects, which actually determine the basic structure of curricula, will necessarily infiltrate the teaching of media studies. Given the personality as well as the training and qualifications of the teacher, these factors will pervade the approach and methodology of media education, and because of the universal shortage of qualified media studies teachers this issue is not to be underestimated.

In a study entitled *Media Education Across the Curriculum* (Gutiérrez & Hottmann 2006) survey the historical paradigm shifts of media education along with its coupling

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40 The fact that in certain countries not all of these negative effects are present adds detail to the picture. For instance, in Finland and France the situation is more balanced as media education is less dominated by the cross-curricular form.
with other subjects and its prospects and limitations. They also discuss the
developmental patterns of two sets of tasks tested in the classroom. They write the
following about the incorporating subjects:

Mother Tongue

In this case, teachers tend to mix the study of language in the media with the study of language of the media. On the one hand, spoken language (oral and written) in media is studied in the same way that book texts are studied: the media are used as educational resources and as a vehicle for linguistic expression. On the other hand, the specific language of each medium and its form of communicating and creating meaning is analysed: the media are subjects of study. (…)The student must also learn to use media and communication networks to obtain information, to express him or herself, and to communicate with different media and languages. We must highlight the importance of reception being as active as possible and of students developing a critical attitude towards messages and different media. This critical attitude is particularly relevant to the manipulation of information, to the persuasiveness of advertising in all its forms, and to content with sex, race and class discrimination.

Social Sciences

If students study their immediate environment or if they adopt a more global approach in the study of the contemporary history of humanity, media should be part of basic social sciences content due to their omnipresence and importance. The influence of the media in the creation of myths and stereotypes and the role of the media in the configuration of history are also subjects of great interest for a critical approach to social sciences. (...)There are several social sciences subjects that are closely related to the media and information technologies and communication: the consumer-based society, advertising, scientific and technological advances, the global economy, multiculturalism, virtual societies, etc. Media education in social sciences is not only totally justified but also greatly enriches the critical study of everything around us. (...) Nevertheless, it would not be appropriate to incorporate the media into the classroom as a source of information and as a learning resource without taking into account how they build ‘their’ reality and the fact that there are economic or ideological interests behind every production.

Arts and Music Education

The curricular integration of the media as a tool of expression through image and sound has been completed to a greater or lesser extent since audiovisual literacy was considered among the functions of formal education. While social science classes adopt critical approaches when analysing media products, arts and music education teachers tend to adopt more descriptive and aesthetic approaches. The media is analysed more as an image and sound generator whose artistic and expressive possibilities must be taken into account, and not as ideology generators, whose influence is also important. In any event, there are no “neutral” artistic expressions or media products, and both teachers and students must be aware of that.

The Buckingham & Domaille research found that media education was mainly incorporated into either mother tongue education or social studies. Nevertheless, the situation is much more complex today.  

In our questionnaire we provided the following options for coupling and asked respondents to mark all relevant incorporating subjects for each of the different age groups:

41 Six queries of the Buckingham and Domaille questionnaire concerned media education at schools, the first being: 1. Is there an established media education curriculum in schools in your country? In what areas of the curriculum, and at what ages are students taught about the media?
visual art education;
mother tongue education;
social studies;
civic studies or citizenship, social & civic studies;
history;
ICT or information studies, information technology;
communication studies;
environmental studies;
health education;
politics & law education

The next chart contains all responses concerning incorporating subjects, and although its small size does not make closer inspection possible, it is apparent even at first glance what a large number of subjects media education is coupled with at curricular level.

At primary level media literacy is mainly attached to four other subject areas, namely to mother tongue education (54%), to visual arts (50%) and to civic or citizenship studies and ICT (38-38%)

At lower-secondary level it is closely connected to mother tongue education, to ICT and to civic and citizenship studies and to visual arts at 75-63-63-58% respectively. Less significantly though, it is also associated with history at 42%.
At upper-secondary level media literacy is chiefly linked to mother tongue education (75%), to civic and citizenship studies (54%), to ICT and to visual arts (50-50%) and less significantly to history and to social studies (46-42%).

Thus, because of the qualities of the integrating subjects, formal education regards media-related knowledge as skills or knowledge closely associated with language and communication, civics, information and communications technology and visual art. It is also apparent that there is no single or well-defined focus of media literacy in formal education. For this reason, it can be hypothesised that this field has difficulty finding its status in the world of education while many readily acknowledge and even openly declare its significance.

2.1.3.6 Does the top-level curriculum contain specific guidelines or does it leave decision-making regarding content, time frame and subject status TO LOWER-LEVEL CURRICULA?

National curricula fully determine the contents of media education in 40% of the countries. They provide a partial definition in 30% of the member states while in 30% they leave content-related decision-making to lower-level, local or school curricula. Only in a very few countries do the curricula define the exact time frame in which media literacy is supposed to be taught (15%). Time frame is partially regulated in only 40% of the countries. The fact that decisions concerning time frame are left to lower levels is in accordance with the fact that media literacy is integrated into other subject areas. As a consequence, time frames are less regulated centrally.

Curricula do not supply guidelines concerning the status of media studies; they delegate this task to lower levels (45%) or do not address this issue at all. Countries where the curriculum regulates at least two aspects such as time frame, content or status include EL, FI, HU, IE and RO. The countries where decisions on basic issues related to national curricula are made mostly at local or school level are AT, CZ, DK, EE, IT, LT, SK, SE and UK. 42

42 No data from MT, NL, SI, ES and LV, PT
2.1.3.7 To what extent does the definition of media literacy in your national curriculum comply with the definition by the EUROPEAN COMMISSION?

Let us take a closer look at the compliances and differences in some of the countries. Our expert from the Netherlands, where as we saw media literacy is not part of the national curriculum, informs us of the following:

“There are no official specific guidelines regarding content, time frame or subject status, although there are a lot of organizations that help schools to teach about media. The definition of media literacy used in the Netherlands complies with the definition given by the European Commission. The most used description is: ‘the total package of knowledge, skills and mentality with which citizens can consciously, critically and actively find their way through a constantly changing, complex and fundamentally mediatized world.”

In Flanders, a new document prepared by several ministries together was accepted in 2013, and it is going to address the issues of media literacy extensively.

Media literacy is the whole of knowledge, skills and attitudes that allow citizens to deal with a complex, changing and mediatised world in a conscious and critical manner. It is the ability to use media in an active and creative manner, aimed at social participation.

This is an excerpt from the Czech curriculum (2007) for secondary grammar schools:

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43 For more information about the way media literacy has been analyzed and defined, you can read it here: http://www.mediawijzer.net/competences
44 In 2005 the Dutch Council for Culture in The Hague published an advice report about proper citizenship and Media Literacy. This definition has been taken from this advice report.
45 This definition was inspired by the definition used in the attainment targets in education and by the definition used by the Dutch Culture Council (2005).
Media literacy comprises a group of knowledge and skills which makes it possible to handle the media offered effectively and in an informed way, to use media to one’s benefit, and provides the means needed to uncover those areas of media production which are secretly manipulative. Media Education is aimed at teaching the pupil – by means of analysing real media production as well as by means of the pupil’s own media production and acquisition of knowledge about how the media function in society – to develop systematically his/her ability to use the media and their production critically and creatively, to utilise the media offer and maintain a healthy distance from it.

An ordinance of the Austrian curriculum (2012) uses the following definition:

Media education: a type of pedagogical utilisation of the media intended to teach the critical-reflective use of all media. Where media become important for human socialisation as a means of information, entertainment, education and day-to-day organisation, they become the subject of media education – the media are the subject and object of education (education on media). Media education concerns all communication media and their combinations made possible by the so-called New Media. These communication media are constituent parts of all texts, regardless of the technology: the word, printed/spoken, graphics, sound, stills and moving pictures. The so-called New Media (including the Internet), being developments and combinations of the above modules, are essentially technologies that serve their distribution and have an effect on several social dimensions. Critical reflection on the possible effects is also included in media education. The potential to combine data of all kinds into gigantic information networks and to make use of these both in a working and a domestic environment, i.e. to obtain, access and process them, causes the boundaries to be blurred between individual and mass communication, between the book and newspaper markets, between entertainment and business communication. It is especially in the New Media segment that media education is confronted with new issues concerning its autonomous critical use.

And according to the Finnish interpretation (2010):

In the Finnish language, Mediakasvatus (Media Education) is an established term that stands for work performed by educators in supporting the learning of children, young people and adults involving different media. This educational work may include both teaching about the media and through media, which means that media can be involved as a learning object or teaching tool as well as educational content itself. The objective of media education is an individual with media literacy skills who is able to utilize as well as produce media, to understand media production and expressions of media, to reflect on his personal relationship with media and to apply critical thinking as well as embrace self-expression.46

It follows from the characteristics of such documents that the majority of the curricula do not contain any actual definition of media literacy. One can infer an interpretation of media literacy by looking at the context, though. According to the results of the research, the definition of media literacy as formulated by the European Commission appears in one third of the national curricula in its original sense and understanding. Roughly, in half of the countries the definition of media literacy only partially agrees with that of the EU. Apart from instances at primary

46 Finnish Media Education Policies
level (20%) there is no completely different interpretation of the subject area in question.

The situation changes with every curricular reform or modification and it is a matter of interpretation whether we consider this constantly transforming state as an effective expansion of the definition of media literacy created by the European Commission or a sign of sovereignty and caution on the part of the member states.

2.1.3.8. **According to the curriculum, what is the HIERARCHY OR THE RELATIONSHIP between digital literacy and media literacy?**

Our Lithuanian expert responded to this question in the following way:

- The use of media literacy in the primary school (grades 1-4) is in progress according to the new curriculum. The curriculum advises integration of ICT skill development into the overall learning process. It recommends using educational software and educational materials in the primary grades.
- The education programme of lower secondary schools, starting with the fifth grade, includes a separate course on Media literacy which is only related to informatics teaching and is focused on practical applications and hands-on activities.
- The IT and Media module for upper secondary grades 11-12 consists of 70 hours. The teaching of programming embraces four main fields: 1) basic constructions of software; 2) data structures; 3) mass communication; 4) communication language

The Spanish curricula are quite clear about this problem (Tornero, Paredes & Fernandez-Garcia 2010).

Spanish curriculum has incorporated the concept of digital literacy, but has not incorporated the concept of media literacy. The compulsory school curriculum in the Spanish Educational System (primary and secondary) contains digital literacy as a part of the skills students must achieve, but no specific subjects have been defined. Generally media education or digital skills are a cross curricular subject linked to civic education and active citizenship.

Only in one country do media literacy and digital literacy denote the exact same thing (AT), while in contrast, respondents see absolutely no connection between the two in five countries (DK, EL, HU, RO, UK). Our Scottish expert described the relation between the two areas in the curriculum as confusing. In 20 % of the member states the relation between the two is rather obscure, not clearly defined or even confusing as our Scottish expert put it, i.e. there are interferences in the curricula between digital and media education (EE, IE, LU, SI, SE). In nine countries digital literacy is
part of media literacy (CZ, DE, FI, FR, IT, LV, NL, PT, SK) and in three countries media literacy is part of digital literacy (ES, LT, MT).

**Figure 3:** According to the curriculum, what is the hierarchy or the relationship between digital literacy and media literacy?

- red: the two fields are completely unrelated
- yellow: confusing relation
- blue: digital literacy is part of media literacy
- green: digital literacy means the same as media literacy
- pink: media literacy is part of digital literacy
- grey: not mentioned
- black: no data
There is a very special set of circumstances in that formal education tends more and more to interpret media literacy in the context of ICT and/or digital/information education as we have already pointed out when discussing questions of definition. In Estonia, for instance, a new national curriculum was implemented in September 2011. There have been some developments concerning media literacy: the cross-curricular theme “media literacy” will have been replaced with the theme “information environment”.

The curricular change in Poland (2009) is in tune with this process:

In the new core curriculum (2009) issues related to media literacy are integrated with other subjects and it is implemented by the integration of media and ICT in teaching and educational activities. Most of the learning objectives covered in the core curriculum do not specify directly to the need of media competence of students and the use of ICT and new media in the benchmarks.

In the preamble to the general education core curriculum for primary schools (Stage I and II) it is emphasized that “the important task of school is to prepare students for life in the information society. Teachers should create conditions for students to acquire the skills to search for, organize and use information from various sources, using ICT, in classes of different subjects. “

In the general education curriculum for middle and high schools (Stages III and IV) one can find that “teachers should create conditions for students to acquire skills to search for, organize and use information from various sources, using ICT, the classes of different subjects.” These records highlight the role of media education in the modern school.

Insufficient attention may have been paid to the fact that the strategic framework for education and training questionably considers media literacy to be a branch of digital competence. Similarly, a much-quoted document that contains a list of topics prioritized by the European Commission has not been attended to adequately. According to this, on 20 December 2007 the Commission adopted a Communication „A European approach to media literacy in the digital environment” focussing on media literacy for commercial communication and covering issues related to advertising, media literacy for audiovisual works. This initiative is in part about raising awareness of European film and enhancing the creativity skills and media literacy of online users, this way giving citizens a better understanding of how Internet search engines work, for example.

These priorities have amplified and accelerated the process that might lead to the marginalisation of certain topics that define and constitute media literacy and especially its major component critical analysis while emphasising and prioritizing other issues pertaining to information and/or digital literacy. Issues of publicity, the private and the public spheres, media models, paradigms of media use, media effects paradigms, audience research, stereotyping, representation, media violence and
manipulation are not simply things of the past and are not just old-school interpretations of media literacy, but relevant and crucial key concepts when it comes to describing and interpreting media phenomena. Still, as part of digital/information literacy and thanks to a much-preferred triad of topics: commercials, films and the Internet, they do stand a chance of being ignored by mainstream media education.

In 2007 a study entitled Current trends and approaches acknowledged that the introduction of ICT has more or less increased the presence of media education in formal education and a balance was established between studies concerning the old and the new media. Now we can say with absolute certainty that this view is unsustainable. ICT (IL/ML) has not taken the place of media literacy, but the key questions of media literacy and its thematic focus are rapidly transforming.

2.1.3.9. Does the curriculum put a special emphasis on one PARTICULAR MEDIUM or several media?

In approximately half of the countries there is no medium of paramount importance in teaching media literacy (AT, CZ, EE, ES, FI, LU, LV, PL). England and Northern Ireland belong to this category too, even though a certain amount of stress is put on film there. The print media has a priority in FR, DE; information media in MT, RO; the cinema and the moving image in EL, DE\(^47\), FRA, HU, IE; digital media in DK, SE and social media in NL.

In this respect it is a development of great importance that, in July 2011, the European Commission issued an invitation to tender for a European-scale Experts’ Study on Film Literacy in Europe, covering all EU and EEA nations, and asking for evidence-based recommendations to inform policy-making in the forthcoming Creative Europe framework.

The final report featuring the findings of the project says:

It recognises that the aims of media education and film education are virtually identical – to foster a wider literacy which incorporates broad cultural experience, aesthetic appreciation,

\(^{47}\) Moving images have been on the agenda in Germany esp. since 2003 – Please see „Kino macht Schule“ (Cinema makes school) and 2012 KMK declaration about Media Literacy Education at school emphasizes the importance of film literacy explicitly
critical understanding and creative production. And it recognises that, in an era of ‘convergence culture’, young people’s engagement with powerful media fictions may range across books, comics, films, television dramas and videogames. In this respect, film education is a subset of media education, and the two work best hand-in-hand.

(...). The responses from national representatives indicated a clear set of priorities. The highest priority in the formal curriculum (selected by most countries) was given to the development of film language and filmmaking skills, closely followed by the understanding of film as an art form, critical viewing, and other categories referring to the critical understanding and analysis of film texts.

A difficult question to answer is how this big push will change the fate of film or screen literacy within formal education. Will it strengthen its ties with media (& digital/information) literacy or will it facilitate the breakaway of film literacy?

2.1.3.10. In what terms does the curriculum express its objectives?

The curriculum is expressed in terms of requirements and expectations; in topics to be covered; in terms of activities to be done; a combination of all three.

The majority of the curricula (70% at primary level, 55% at lower-secondary and upper-secondary levels) are formulated in terms of a combination of requirements, topics and activities. At upper-secondary (and post-secondary) levels curricula become more topic-orientated, but this is in only a quarter of the member states.

2.1.3.11. How are the topics to be covered by the different age groups structured in relation to each other in the curriculum?

The educational systems of individual countries have their own, very specific traditions such as determining topics at input levels (e.g. in post-socialist countries) or determining requirements at output levels (chiefly in English-speaking countries).
However, such traditions do not determine the rather hazy and vague framework of media education. On account of the diffuse presence of media literacy in the curricula, there are only a very few countries where a spiral approach is utilised (HU, IE, MT). According to this approach, study materials are interlinked via the whole range of age group levels and students are enabled to revisit and discuss major issues more profoundly and from different angles. As reported by respondents, neither this approach, nor the modular setup, a network of independent topics, is predominant in the curricula of member states.

2.1.3.12. Are the curriculum and its supplements detailed enough to enable teachers to create their own lesson plans?

About 40% of the respondents are of the view that core curricula (and related documents such as syllabi and recommendations) contain sufficient materials to enable teachers to prepare their own lesson plans, though this is, to a certain degree, dependent on the age group level (CZ, EL, HU, IE, LT, LU, NL, SE, UK and FI but only at upper-secondary level). AT, DK, EE, FI, FR, DE, IT, MT, PL, RO, SI, SK and UK believe that the requirements and the wording of the curricula do not supply enough information for teachers. As in the case of most aspects of comparison concerning media literacy curricula, there is no mainstream or predominance characterising the majority of the member states.

2.1.4. Characteristic contents and approaches of media-related curricula

The significance of the aspect of whether media is a means to be taught with or a subject to be taught about was accurately established by Guitarrez & Tyner:

Now more than ever, it is necessary to clarify and bridge the «with» or «about» approach to media education. At every level of education, media and digital literacies are often approached from a strictly technical perspective, resulting in a goal of literacy competencies based on the way that hardware and software applications can be mastered and directly applied to traditional learning environments. As a result, media education is often associated with simply attaining the applied skills needed to navigate computer networks, virtual worlds, software platforms, social networks or media production tools and editing devices. Scholars and practitioners have attempted to clarify the differences between teaching «with» versus «about» media by defining applied mastery of ICTS as «digital literacy» and alternatively defining critical approaches to media as «media
literacy». However, the distinction between the two can still be confusing. This dichotomy still favors the teaching «with» media over the «about» media approach in educational institutions. For example, educational technology courses in teacher training curricula, when they are offered, tend to support the «with» approach. (Guitarrez & Tyner 2012)

2.1.4.1 **Is the general approach of the curriculum characterised by the method of teaching and learning WITH media?**

One of the crucial questions of media education – on the basis of the curricula – is how characteristic is it that media literacy means teaching and learning with the help of the media (where the subject matter of the educational process is not primarily the media)? This aspect is a vital grouping principle as it might refer to a different understanding of media literacy.

Countries that find this view relevant to their national curricula include DE, DK, EL, MT, SI at primary level; AT, EL, IT, MT, SE, SI at lower-secondary level; and AT, EE, EL, IT, LU, MT, SE at upper-secondary level.

**Figure 4:**

**Is the general approach of the curriculum characterised by the method of teaching and learning WITH media?**

- red: mainly true
- blue: mainly false
- yellow: mixed
- grey: not mentioned
- black: no data
In the Italian national curriculum (2012), where sections relating to the media appear within the framework of other subjects, certain passages are examples of this approach (in this case as part of mother tongue education):

**Disciplines**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>9 – 11 years</th>
<th>11 – 14 years</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Italian</strong></td>
<td>Use of ICT for research, collecting and elaborating on data, information, concepts. Observing media products, recognizing the source and individuating: purpose, argument and main information, perspective of emitter. Use of computer programs for writing with graphic and textual structure in mind. In the 2012 version the writing of digital texts (like E-mail, blog posts, support for oral presentations) was also added.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding messages from the media (advertisements, bulletins, etc.)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In the 2012 version, also: The ability to consult dictionaries and traditional repertoires available online; the listening and understanding of texts broadcast by media, comprehending their meaning, main information and intended purpose. The pupil should freely experiment with the use of the computer for various forms of writing, adapting lexis, text structure, page layout, graphic displays and eventually integrating multimedia materials.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Maltese curriculum applies a different structure to cover key topics of media education:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>KNOWLEDGE</th>
<th>ATTITUDE</th>
<th>SKILLS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Media content</strong></td>
<td>Media’s interpretative aspect (e.g. stereotypes); History of important media sectors; Internet</td>
<td>Critical attitude based on a system of personal values; A selective attitude regarding media consumption</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Media language</strong></td>
<td>Different genres found within different media systems</td>
<td>Critical attitude towards the media; Appreciation of aesthetic and cultural impact</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Here the phrase “with media” refers to the methodology of media education rather than to learning to use media devices. As one can read in the Finnish curriculum (2004) for the upper-secondary level: “The media will be both a target and a study tool”.

At curricular level one can only find traces of what is even more common in the practices of teaching media education. As our Dutch expert writes: "Some teachers think they do something because they teach with media."

2.1.4.2. *Is the general approach of the curriculum characterised by the method of teaching and learning ABOUT media?*

Both media literacy experts and media literacy policy-makers agree to define media studies as teaching and learning about the media.

Literacy, to most, refers to reading or being literate. Therefore, when used with the term "media," literacy assumes the meaning of being literate about media (Ashlock 2011).

The focus of media education was on learning about the media, rather than learning through the media, which means that digital technologies were largely seen as neutral tools for enhancing learning (Erstad, Gilje & Lange 2007).

Media education is most commonly understood as the context for teaching and learning about media, and: "media literacy is the outcome" (Buckingham 2003: 4). Media education, as a specific subject, is a formal learning context in which children and young people learn about media by learning theory, performing analyses and producing their own media products (Erstad & Gilje 2008).

The question now arises to what extent is this view reflected in the media literacy curricula of the member states of the EU?

As is commonly known, the French curriculum has only featured media studies since 2006. In this way, however, a great deal of experience may have accumulated within the framework created by CLEMI (Centre de liaison de l'enseignement et des médias d'information). One of the ways of developing media literacy within the different subjects is the actual studying of the media.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Introduction to media education (Citizenship, understanding of the world ...)</th>
<th>Reading images</th>
<th>Media as an object of study</th>
<th>Media used as a teaching aid</th>
<th>Activities and skills (including IT), productions of students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Thematic references in the curriculum point to detailed syllabi. For instance, "Cinéma-Audiovisuel" includes camera shots, montage techniques, and in this way certain schools in film history, as well as documentarism and docudrama.

The total of "entirely true" and "mainly applies" options show that 40% of the member states identify themselves with this view at primary level, 45% at lower-
Research findings show that while professional consensus sees the most important role of media literacy in teaching and learning about the media, less than half of the curricula substantiate this view. At the same time, the majority of the curricula are inclined to highlight different aspects of using media devices as media education (or stress both approaches such as the curricula in Finland and Germany.)
2.1.5. Paradigms

The technical terminology (such as protecting-supporting; aesthetic culture orientated; functional system orientated; action orientated; critical-materialist approach) used in the following queries was inspired by Gerhard Tulodziecki’s and Silke Grafe’s study entitled Approaches to Learning with Media and Media Literacy Education –Trends and Current Situation in Germany (Tulodziecki & Grafe 2012). These cue words are unmistakably linked to definitive models or paradigms of media education, not only in Germany, but also in Europe and outside Europe (Martens 2010).

At first, the protective-supportive paradigm appeared to be waning by the 90’s only to become prevalent again a decade later with the advance of new media. There arose new issues to be addressed such as data security, addiction and control over the uncontrollable including online media violence, sex and pornography and racism.

Protection against damage and nurturing the valuable were therefore early guidelines for media literacy education in Germany and are still part of the German discussion. However, these principles seem to be even more important, for example, in American concepts where this approach is called ”Protectionism” or the ”Inoculationist approach” (Tyner 1991; Kubey 1998) (Tulodziecki & Grafe 2012).

The aesthetic approach has largely been associated with film culture in formal media education. In certain countries, for instance in Hungary, this view, which is closely linked to highly regarded auteur films, is still predominant in media education. This is even indicated by the mere naming of the school subject: Moving Image Culture and Media Studies. What we have here at work is the tradition that emphasizes the role of schools to impart values and high culture. Studying film as an art form is definitely part of this tradition while dealing with mass culture is less so. This is exactly why at the turn of the millennium when the history of media education was surveyed, there was a need to identify a major shift as the mass culture paradigm (or as Hart calls it, the popular arts paradigm). As a result of this shift, mass culture became ready for schools and worth studying, and even more, it became something that should definitely be analysed. Still, it was films that lay at the centre of the change.

The ‘popular arts’ movement was, essentially, a way of legitimising film studies. It privileged film, within the study of the media, as the one popular form with unchallengeable claims to having produced works of authentic merit. But it provided a distinctly limited way of illuminating the media as a whole (Hart, 1997).

According to Martens (Martens 2010):

Historically, media literacy education has often been synonymous with learning to appreciate the aesthetic qualities of mass media, especially the cinematic arts. (…) Today, for J.A. Brown (1998, 47), an important goal of media literacy education remains “to develop selective viewers who seek out and appreciate distinctive high-quality of form, format, and content in mass media” (…) By contrast, others criticize this approach for its underlying assumptions about “cultural value” (Bragg 2006b; Buckingham 1998). Nonetheless, apart from these few exceptions, media aesthetics seem to have disappeared from the research agenda of most media literacy scholars.

Tulodziecki and Grafe add:

Main goals of the aesthetic culture-oriented concept were not only to deal with the film as a work of art, but to truly understand its “language” and to focus on the critical reflection of both its contents and its realisation. "Optical literacy" and "visual literacy" were seen as main objectives.

Now that media education is centred around the study of the creation (language, structure, coding) of media texts (first films and then other texts), attention is drawn to studying the construction of meaning and the shaping of the public sphere and public opinion or in other words to the embeddedness and the social role of the media.

(…) media are seen as important instruments of information, opinion forming, and economic growth. Therefore, schools should offer different teaching units, for example, on news and advertising as well as on newspaper and television, which allows students to gain insights into the structure of media messages, conditions of media production and media reception, and the social relevance of public communication. A responsible use of media to promote education, economy and democracy were seen as the main objectives (Tulodziecki & Grafe 2012).

This process is best described by J. A. Tobias. His labelling it The Age of Demystification or Analysis perfectly captures the era of media education whose main principles are outlined below.

By revealing the constructed nature of media texts, hegemonic representations of the media could be systematically analyzed and made visible, or demystified (Hall, 1980). “Students were urged to put aside their subjective responses and pleasures, and to engage in systematic forms of analysis which would expose the ‘hidden’ ideologies of the media—and thereby ‘liberate’ themselves from their influence” (Buckingham, 2003). (Tobias 2008)
Media as an expression and a way of expressing interests, ideologies, social and power relations is still an important paradigm in today’s curricula and teaching practices. This idea was originally developed on the basis of research conducted by the Birmingham Centre for Contemporary Cultural Studies and can best be illustrated by key concepts such as audience and representation, on which the critical-materialist approach was founded in media education. Tulodziecki and Grafe write:

In this context the "critical-materialist approach" was developed to teach children and adolescents to analyse media, their ideological character and social conditions. In addition, learners should be enabled to create media messages and publicity for their own interests and needs. Thus, criticisms of ideologies and production of own media messages enhanced the spectrum of guiding ideas on media literacy education. The principles of this concept can be closely connected with the "critical literacy" approach of Kellner and Share (2005) who demand the promotion of counter-hegemonic media products as well as a multiperspective and critical analysis of media culture and media industry.

Considering this together with the advance of readily available digital technology, which can be used to create media texts, the action-orientated paradigm or in other words the preparation approach is becoming more and more important. Tobias labels it a major turning point in 21st century media education:

Instead of being seen as a form of protection, many media literacy educators are moving towards a form of preparation (Buckingham, 2003)— preparing students to be reflexive participants in their media experiences (including Ipods, streaming video, DVDs, video games and social networking sites such as MySpace and Facebook). Also, with the increased accessibility to modern technologies, creative media production takes on a greater role. In the preparation approach, which aligns somewhat with the critical thinking and analysis approach, media education is seen as a way to promote understanding of as well as participation in the surrounding media culture. This approach acknowledges students’ active participation with the media and encourages students to reflect on their own activities as readers and writers of media text. It is seen as promoting “democratic citizenship” as well as recognizing “the importance of students’ enjoyment and pleasure in the media” (Buckingham, 2003, p. 13). (…) In this approach students critically analyse media texts through a “process of dialogue” rather than arriving at a predetermined position (Tobias 2008).

Let us now move on to examine to what extent these historically identifiable paradigms, which still co-exist and determine teaching practices in media education, are characteristic of the media-related curricula of the individual countries.

2.1.5.1 *Is the general approach of the curriculum characterised by the concept of PROTECTING-SUPPORTING (youth protection policy), which aims to handle the dangers of modern media including violence, manipulation, data misuse, the abuse of personal rights, media dependence, etc.?*
The notion that young people should be protected from the dangers of the media with the help of media education has always been an issue. This aspect appears among the cross-curricular requirements of the Slovakian curriculum (2008) in the following way.

- to be able to realise negative influence of the media on their personality and try to eliminate it through their responsible attitude

The protection paradigm is featured in the Czech curriculum (2007), as well, but in a completely different context.

- protection of intellectual property rights, copyright, information ethics;
- organise data effectively and protect it from being destroyed or abused;
- protection of copyright and personal data

Its presence, however, does not necessarily lead to curricula reflecting this long-held tradition. This is exactly the result that our research has yielded. Not even a third of the curricula display a protective or preventive attitude, and the majority of the respondents (approx. 60%) do not really perceive any traces of this approach in their national curricula. It is in CZ, IT, LT, LU, MT, SK and at upper-secondary level in EL that this is a more dominantly salient view.

It must be borne in mind, though, that the prevention paradigm focuses on something completely different nowadays than fifteen or twenty years ago, i.e.: on data security and the safe use of the Internet. 49

The belief that sees the media as a means of detrimental influence on the masses, and which is aimed to protect young people with valuable works of art has virtually disappeared from curricula. This is contrary to classroom practices, where it is still a strongly held view.

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49 At the same time, in the new German KMK declaration "Media Literacy Education at School, 2012" – see commentary P6 –, the traditional concept of protection is still mentioned in a separate chapter entitled "Schutz von Kindern und Jugendlichen vor negativen Einflüssen und Wirkungen von Medien"
2.1.5.2 Is the general approach of the curriculum characterised by the AESTHETIC CULTURE ORIENTATED CONCEPT, which sets out to teach students to truly understand media "language” and which focuses on the critical reflection on both its content and its realisation?

Media education is still defined by the approach that focuses on the critical understanding of texts through examining their formulation and the language of the media. This method does study the rhetorical devices of texts (primarily films, but articles and commercials too), but no longer with the aim of judging their aesthetic qualities or validity. The goal of such aesthetic study is to explore the roles of rhetorical figures in constructing meaning. The “study of beauty” has now taken a back seat in media education. In the Hungarian national curriculum (2012), however, the conventional aesthetic trend has retained some of its significance similarly to the optional Audiovisual Expression module in Greece.

In developing critical media awareness it plays a vital role to:

- learn about valuable audiovisual works of art, especially representatives of European and Hungarian film art and to protect national audiovisual cultural heritance

The curriculum requires the study of the following film movements at upper-secondary level:

- German expressionism, French avantgarde, Soviet avantgarde, Italian neorealism, the French New Wave, the Czechoslovakian New Wave, New German cinema, and the Budapest School of documentarism

"The term "Audiovisual Expression" refers to all forms of expression through the use of audiovisual media and tools, not only from a technical point of view, but mainly as cultural and creative norms of expression (i.e. production of content). Among the key questions of the module, one particular area called “Aesthetics of audiovisual expression” enjoys a major role (Audiovisual Narration & Analysis; Film Semiotics & Analysis; The Director's Point of View and Critical & Technical analysis of Film (sounds, film language)"

– writes our Greek expert, Irene Andriopoulou The aesthetic value is far more indirect in the Czech cross-curricular national curriculum (2007):

...distinguish the social and aesthetic values of information in various semiotic codes, especially information in his/her mother tongue (support of language cultivation), and of visual information.

Not even at upper-secondary level is it absolutely apparent that curricula are determined by the language-aesthetics aspect (50%). This latter group includes CZ, FI, FR, HU, IT, IE, LU, RO, SK and SI.
2.1.5.3 *Is the general approach of the curriculum characterised by the FUNCTIONAL SYSTEM-ORIENTATED CONCEPT, which aims to describe and interpret the workings of the media industry?* (Students can gain insight into the structure of the media and media messages, conditions of media production and media reception and the social relevance of public communication.)

Surprisingly enough, the curricula barely feature the approach that concentrates on the interpretation of media texts and on the meaning of messages that constitute public opinion.

Findings show that describing the workings of the media industry and those of the different media establishments and understanding the mechanisms of mass communication do not permeate the curricula of media education. It is totally understandable that at primary level this particular aspect of media education is not introduced. However, the fact that it is characteristic of only 40% of the upper-secondary curricula of the member states (DE, FR, HU, IT, LU, NL, RO, SK, SI) is quite striking.

If media literacy curricula are not characterised by either a protective approach, an aesthetic approach or an approach focusing on the mechanisms of the media industry, the question arises whether there actually exists a single characteristic aspect that dominates the majority of European media literacy curricula?

2.1.5.4. *Is the curriculum characterised by the CRITICAL-MATERIALIST APPROACH, which encourages students to analyze media, their ideological character and social conditions?* (Learners are enabled to create media messages and publicity for their own interests and needs.)

When we pose the question whether the curriculum is characterised by an approach where media education focuses on the acquisition of a critical view of the media and media messages (and examines the particular forms, representations and critical interpretations of social and power relations, ideological conflicts in them) and whether this is achieved by students creating their own media texts, we see that this aspect is only partially valid or not at all valid in younger age groups (10-25%). At
upper-secondary level this approach is only adopted by half of the member states (DE, EE, FI, FR, HU, IT, LU, NL, RO, SK, SI). This result is similar to that of the question concerning the mechanisms of the media industry, the countries giving the same answer are approximately the same.

Conclusively, a certain kind of media-related social studies approach is tangible in half of the curricula, especially at upper-secondary level.

The language and wording of the actual texts of media-related curricula using the universally applied cross-curricular form are so very general that it is hardly possible to discern the curriculum developers’ intentions concerning the content of and approach to media education.

This is what is exemplified by the following Polish example (2009), which summarizes media-related contents within the subject area of civic studies:

Lower secondary school programme content for civic education includes a special point concerning mass media; Expected learning outcomes: 1) student knows functions and role of mass media in society, 2) characterises press, television, radio, Internet as mass communication media and analysis selected broadcaster/title in terms of messages and audience, 3) searches media for information on selected topic, points out differences in communication, differentiates between information and opinion, critically analyses advertisments, 4) critically analyses leaflets, slogans and campaign video clips.

Upper secondary school programme content for civic education includes a special point concerning mass media; Expected learning outcomes: 1) student describes media functions in a democratic and non democratic state, 2) explains importance of media independence and pluralism, assesses their consequences and limitations, 3) explains ethical rules that media should follow and discusses controversial examples, 4) explains importance of freedom of speech, presents examples where abuse occurred, 5) presents the main media in Poland and internationally (audience, coverage, type of medium, ownership, political views), 6) characterises mass press and its role in the public debate, 7) critically analyses media

At this level of specification and wording, however, one cannot judge how prevalent the functional-system orientated approach or/and the critical-materialist approach is/are.
2.1.5.5 *Is the general approach of the curriculum characterised by the ACTION-ORIENTATED CONCEPT, which aims to improve the students’ media-related practical skills? (This focuses on the reflected use of existing media products and discusses the students’ own media contributions in the sense of communicative competence and social action.)*

The Finnish national curriculum (2004) requires students to

- be capable of producing media texts and diversify their expressive skills when producing contents for media texts and communicating these;
- become accustomed to using the media as a learning tool and environment, learn how to use the media in study-related interactive situations and for the acquisition and communication of information

The Audiovisual Expression module of the Greek curriculum (2012) contains the following:

To formulate their own audiovisual place, highlighting their personal views and thoughts. Utilising communication technology and modern audiovisual tools, children will have to, during the period of formal education, have the necessary opportunities in order to compile, configure and publish their own audiovisual texts. That is, to meet “students as active citizens” who exploit modern communication technologies for the production and exchange of views and for creative production and dissemination of their personal artistic expression.

Here is a media-related excerpt from the Bavarian curriculum (2004) for German in Year 8 and another for ethics studies in Years 11 and 12:

- know and appreciate a daily newspaper as a regional, topical and practical living medium, learn to collect texts, for example, by areas of interest and present, undertake a newspaper publisher visit or an editorial, explore the “journalist” profession

In contrast to the rather few tangible traces of the aesthetic view in the curricula, there are far more clues as to the intention to develop practical skills. Still, responding experts failed to identify them clearly. This can partly be explained by the rather special nature of the text of the curriculum, which is formulated in terms of activities.

At any rate, a lack of the development of students’ reflexive skills in the curricula also comes as a bit of a surprise, especially at lower levels of education since such an approach is well justified. However, we are aware of the fact that media literacy
merely appears sporadically in integrated-modular curricula and cross-curricular documents at primary and lower-secondary levels. Thus, findings regarding the characteristic features of a particular curriculum might easily be misleading if we fail to handle the “irrelevant” options with care. The upper-secondary level displays a 54% relevance if the distribution of the countries is different than before: CZ and MT are not represented while SE and DK are.

Let us move on to examine the orientation of the curricula with the help of a different set of concepts.

**2.1.5.6 Is the general approach of the curriculum based on SOCIAL SCIENCE?**

This is how the detailed curriculum for the optional secondary school subject called Media Competence begins in Romania (2004):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SPECIFIC SKILLS</th>
<th>CONTENTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Explain the place and role of media in the dynamics of contemporary society</td>
<td>Media in the 21st century</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Using acquired key concepts and critically approaching media texts</td>
<td>- media and forms of communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- media forms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- environmental dynamics and cultural expression in society</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- environmental impact</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- media functions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

One can read the following in a chapter about the Individual and the State of the Greek curriculum for civic studies.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OBJECTIVES</th>
<th>TOPICS</th>
<th>ACTIVITIES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Understand the importance of Mass Media for democracy and appreciate the role in the formation of public opinion.</td>
<td>Informing the citizen The Media (radio, television, newspapers, magazines, Internet) as expression of democracy and their role in shaping public opinion. The role of technology in keeping citizens updated.</td>
<td>Choose a topical subject in order to record the manner of presentation by both paper and electronic form and discuss in groups how it affects public opinion.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This is a passage from the Czech curriculum (2007):

_Basics of Civics and Social Sciences_

Media Education mainly complements the pupil’s idea on how decision-making processes function in political communication (significance of the media and ‘media coverage’, function of the public sector, risks of media manipulation), on political power and democracy’s control of it
(the role of journalism in society – ‘the fourth estate’, ‘the watchdog of democracy’, etc.), and on the public and public opinion (especially the position of public opinion surveys in media production). Furthermore, Media Education provides the pupil with an idea of current trends in media production, conditioned by its mass character and orientation on profit and consumption (depoliticisation of political themes, tendency for making everything more entertaining or the same).

Relying on the curricula, we can state with absolute certainty that media literacy is not based on social science at primary and lower-secondary levels (0-10%). The social scientific basis of media literacy cannot be established at upper-secondary level either, (except in FR, EL, HU, RO and SK at 23%).

2.1.5.7. Does the curriculum focus on the LINGUISTIC-AESTHETIC aspect of the media?

Is the curriculum mainly TECHNOLOGY-ORIENTATED and does it focus on teaching the use of media devices?

The linguistic-aesthetic aspect gains somewhat more ground in the curricula, but only at secondary level, and even there it does not have a radical presence (CZ, EE, HU, IE, IT, SE, SI /32%/). In addition, it appears that the curricula are not dominated by the technical approach i.e.: teaching students how to use media devices (upper-secondary: 28 %).

It is somewhat surprising that media studies integrated into mother tongue education does not apply the linguistic-aesthetic approach more intensively. Nevertheless, it does not follow from the task-oriented creative approach, which has dominantly prevailed in recent decades, that the use of media tools should be at the centre of media-related curricula.

2.1.5.8 Is the teaching of media studies characterised by EPISODIC MEDIA EDUCATION? In other words, situations with media-related educational dilemmas, judgements and/or rules (often relating to the moral task and issues of schools).

In a lot of cases media education means discussing media-related and morally problematic situations or situations of educational value that are not easy to make a
decision in\textsuperscript{50}. This ethical or moral study quality cannot be attributed to the written curricula while it is definitely a classroom practice and media education is largely characterised by it in AT, CZ, DE, LU, MT, NL and SE.

2.1.6. The cross-curricular form

The following statements concern the cross-curricular form as media education is predominantly cross-curricular and media-related developmental work is integrated into a number of other subjects, which, as we have seen, often determine the character of media education.

2.1.6.1 Media studies is a cross-curricular subject, and media education is theory put into real practice. Media as a cross-curricular theme is emphasised in the educational and teaching work. Objectives and contents are incorporated into numerous subjects. Through them, the educational challenges of our time are also met.

Media studies does not play a significant role in formal education as a cross-curricular subject either: the curricula of only a few countries show the intention of educational decision-makers to find the answers to the special challenges of our time with the help of cross-curricular media education among other options. This is true for FI and SI in their full educational spectrums, for IT at primary level, for FR at lower and upper-secondary levels and for EL at upper-secondary level.

2.1.6.2 Media studies is a cross-curricular subject. However, the teaching of media literacy is rather marginalised: the goals and requirements set out in the curriculum are rarely

\textsuperscript{50} Please see: Vesterinen, O. (2011): Media Education in the Finnish School System - A Conceptual Analysis of the Subject Didactic Dimension of Media Education (2011). The author differentiates between three models of media education:

1. Media-Based Media Education – The main focus of the teaching–studying–learning (TSL) process is media literacy and learning about media (see Buckingham, 1998);
2. Cross-Curricular Media Education – The main focus of the TSL process is in the integration of subject content and media education (as in ‘Media Skills and Communication’, a cross-curricular theme of POPS, 2004);
3. Episodic Media Education – Situations with media-related educational dilemmas, judgements and/or rules (often relates to the moral task of schools).
achieved. Even though government policy does acknowledge its importance, decision-makers are not fully devoted to the real and effective integration of this subject area.

In the few countries where media education is conducted in a cross-curricular fashion (and not on an integrated-modular basis) there is consensus that not only has media literacy taken a rather marginal position, but educational objectives and developmental expectations are also rarely met. This is true for AT, CZ, EE, LU, MT, PL and SE while it is only moderately true for DE, EL and SK\(^{51}\). It is evident from the facts that the cross-curricular form is less effective, or at least findings concerning media education do not substantiate the successfulness of this approach.

There is also a very strong consensus that the presence of cross-curricular curricula indicates that educational decision-makers at national level do sense the need to do something about this issue but have not completely devoted themselves to integrating media literacy into formal education. What is happening in the field of media literacy in several countries can be described as a special test period. The issues being probed into are what schools, teachers and students do about a subject that does not have an established position, or clearly defined content and philosophy, nor the necessary number of qualified teachers.

Following the comparative analysis of the responses regarding the characteristics and focal points of media literacy curricula within the EU, the most significant findings are as follows:

- The approaches and philosophies outlined in the curricula show very little resemblance to each other despite the subject area being the same. This is even more striking if we consider the resemblances in other subject areas.

- Media-related curricula do not in any way reflect the approaches associated with such terminology as “understand”; “critically approach”; “media contents and institutions”; “create” in a scientific sense (social sciences, linguistics-aesthetics, media science), in a practical sense (skills, media, use of media devices) or in an educational sense (protection of students).

\(^{51}\) To a certain extent Finland seems to be an exception. The cross-curricular form is more successful there than in other member states.
The approaches and philosophies outlined in the curricula have elements regarding media literacy at primary and lower-secondary levels that do not form well-defined material, a set of standards and requirements intended to develop students.

Apparently, only half of the curricula at upper-secondary level can be categorised and described in the same way as other study subjects. Surprisingly enough, not even the UK respondents were able to identify themselves with any of the characteristics listed despite its long and definitive traditions in teaching media literacy.52

In the curricula of the countries where media studies is a separate subject (if optional) media literacy tends to be more clearly defined and focused (FIN, HU, IRE, RO). There are, however, counterexamples (albeit much fewer) where media studies is not a separate subject, but the approaches to media literacy are more distinctively discernible in the curricula (FRA, SLO).

One can observe a dramatic shift towards action, doing and creating i.e.: towards practical skills in media-related curricula.

One can observe a shift of certain degree towards the civic context in media-related curricula, and media education is seen as a means of developing responsible and active citizens.

Media-related curricula still cannot provide a feasible solution to the problem that the whole of media theory science is struggling with. What we are dealing with here is the integration of new media phenomena into the elaborate theory frameworks originally generated to describe the press, television and the radio.

52 This is not at all surprising if we consider the words of one of the most experienced experts in media education, the world-renowned and highly respected Cary Bazalgette. She says that "even in a country like the UK, which is widely assumed to have established media education "successfully", only 7% of teenagers follow media education courses – and by the way, that figure is now declining. We have no idea how many children are receiving anything but the most superficial kinds of media education (show something short downloaded from YouTube and count the shots; write something in columns and call it a newspaper front page);

Our British expert, Andrew Burn did not base his responses on the prestigious optional media education course, which is regulated by GCSE exams either, but on the general studies that are provided and are available to everybody. Thus, the overall picture of British media education looks completely different when you consider its showcase equivalent, the elite segment.
The curricula do not substantiate the assumption that media education is drifting from the goal of protection to that of promotion. However, they definitely justify the fact that the traditional protectionist paradigm has given way to youth protection regarding network communication in the curricula.

On the basis of the curricula, the introduction of ICT has increased the presence of media studies in formal education. Nevertheless, issues concerning the definitions of digital literacy and media literacy and the relationship between the two are by far the most sensitive issues.
2.2. RELATED CURRICULA (CLUSTERS)

One of the pivotal questions of this survey is whether it is possible to identify groupings of countries that are related on the basis of the contents, approaches and regulations concerning media studies as set out in the countries’ national curricula. Is it possible to place member states into categories with the same characteristic features on the basis of their media curricula? It is easy to define such clusters if one considers only one aspect. In certain cases clusters are formed in accordance with the given options, e.g. as with the question regarding the form of media education, there are three options and hence three categories: cross-curricular, modular-integrated and separate subject. In the cases where the character of media education is probed with a five-grade scale, there are three clusters including negative, neutral (partly positive and partly negative) and positive responses.

What lies at the root of the problem is the large number of aspects used to describe the character of media education alongside the fact that while the very same aspects are relevant, they may refer to different dimensions. The very first task of the researcher is to select the aspects that fundamentally determine the status, contents and approaches of media studies in the curricula. Next, sub-aspects referring to the same dimensions are to be identified and evaluated together so that the number of aspects can be reduced to a minimum without linking independent factors that cannot be compared.

Since responses gathered in the member states may vary at primary, lower-secondary and upper-secondary levels, different clusters must be formed for each of the age groups, as well. We are going to put certain countries into the same category according to the aspects most characteristic of them, regardless of the given responses provided for the different age groups and for different school types. Consequently, the outcome of the research may highlight major correlations and not all the tints and shades of the European schooling spectrum.

In the course of the comparative analysis, information concerning media education as set out in the national curricula of member states is going to be evaluated on the basis of the following fundamental aspects.

Group A  Does the curriculum establish the teaching of media studies as a cross-curricular, a modular-integrated or a separate subject?
Is media literacy explicitly mentioned or implicitly implied in the curriculum, or is it not mentioned at all?

Group B Does the curriculum have a preference for teaching with the media or teaching about the media?

What teaching method or approach to media studies is apparent in the curriculum (on the basis of nine questions)?

Correlating responses will be identified with the method of network analysis. Charts were created with the help of Ucinet6, and other visual representations with NetDraw.

### 2.2.1 Macro Level Curricula

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Explicitly Mentioned</th>
<th>Implicitly Implied, Scattered Across Other Subjects</th>
<th>Absolutely No Reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Primary</strong></td>
<td>AT, CZ, DE, DK, EE, EL, FI, FR, HU, IE, SI, SK</td>
<td>ES, IT, LU, MT, NL, PL</td>
<td>LV, LT, PT, RO, SE, UK</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Lower secondary</strong></td>
<td>AT, CZ, DE, DK, EE, EL, FI, FR, HU, IE, RO, SI, SK</td>
<td>ES, IT, LU, MT, NL, PL, SE, UK</td>
<td>LV, LT, PT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Upper secondary</strong></td>
<td>AT, CZ, DE, DK, EE, FI, FR, HU, IE, RO, SI, SK</td>
<td>EL, ES, IT, LT, LU, MT, NL, PL, SE</td>
<td>LV, PT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cross-curricular and/or Integrated into Other Subjects</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Primary</strong></td>
<td>AT, CZ, DE, DK, EE, EL, ES, FI, FR, HU, IE, IT, LU, MT, PL, SI, SK</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>LV, LT, PT, RO, SE, UK</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Lower secondary</strong></td>
<td>AT, CZ, DE, DK, EE, EL, ES, FI, FR, HU, IE, IT, LU, MT, NL, PL, RO, SE, UK</td>
<td>SI, SK</td>
<td>LV, LT, PT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Upper secondary</strong></td>
<td>AT, CZ, DE, EL, ES, FI, FR, IE, IT, LU, LT, MT, NL, PL, SE, SI</td>
<td>DK, EE, HU, RO, SK, UK</td>
<td>LV, PT</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There are four clusters whose formation is justified on the basis of the way in which teaching media studies is encouraged in the curricula (i.e.: cross-curricular, integrated/modular or as a separate subject) and also on whether media literacy is explicitly defined, implicitly alluded to or not mentioned at all in the curriculum. The four clusters are as follows:

---

53 Countries where the curriculum refers to media literacy both explicitly and implicitly have been put in the explicit category.
54 Wherever media literacy was marked as a separate subject, the country was placed in the “separate subject” group regardless of how characteristic it is to teach separate subjects in that particular member state. In other words, with this categorisation we highlight the fact that in the curriculum of a particular member state the form of teaching media studies as a separate subject is present.
55 Here we included countries where media education as such is not specifically mentioned in the curriculum, however, several elements of media literacy related development are clearly recognisable and identifiable in the text of the curriculum (Spain and Sweden).
1. countries where media literacy is explicitly defined as a separate subject in the curriculum (explicit+separate)

2. countries where the teaching of media literacy is explicitly defined in the curriculum and is expected to be implemented in a cross-curricular/modular form (explicit+cross-curricular/integrated)

3. countries where the teaching of media literacy is implicitly alluded to in the curriculum and is expected to be implemented in the cross-curricular/modular form (implicit+cross/integrated)

4. countries where media literacy is barely mentioned or not even implicitly and sporadically alluded to in the curriculum (not mentioned)

Our comparative analysis has resulted in forming the following clusters at different levels of education:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PRIMARY</th>
<th>EXPLICIT-SEPARATE</th>
<th>EXPLICIT-CROSS-CURRICULAR/INTEGR.</th>
<th>IMPLICIT-CROSS/INTEGR.</th>
<th>NOT MENTIONED</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PRIMARY</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>AT, CZ, DE, DK, EE, FI, FR, HU, IE, SI, SK</td>
<td>ES, IT, LU, MT, NL, PL</td>
<td>LV, LT, PT, RO, SE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LOWER-SECONDARY</td>
<td>SI, SK</td>
<td>AT, CZ, DE, DK, EE, FI, FR, HU, IE, UK</td>
<td>ES, IT, LU, MT, NL, PL, RO, SE</td>
<td>LV, LT, PT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UPPER-SECONDARY</td>
<td>DK, EE, HU, RO, SK, UK</td>
<td>AT, CZ, DE, FI, FR, IE, SI</td>
<td>EL, ES, IT, LT, LU, MT, NL, PL, SE</td>
<td>LV, PT</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 6:**
CLUSTERS (1)

red: explicit+separate
blue: explicit+cross-curricular/integrated
green: implicit+cross/integrated
grey: not mentioned
black: no data
The findings lead us to the conclusion that the status, the experience and the needs of countries within the same cluster should be taken into consideration separately before any development, statistical survey or alteration is made in connection with curricula that govern the teaching of media literacy.

### 2.2.2 Contents and approaches

While comparing the contents of and approaches to teaching media studies as defined in the curricula, we considered the following aspects:

- to what extent can the curriculum be characterised by the approach of “teaching with media” or/and “teaching about media”;
- to what extent can the curriculum be characterised by the aesthetic culture orientated concept or/and aesthetic-linguistic approach;
- to what extent can the curriculum be characterised by an emphasis on social science;
- to what extent can the curriculum be characterised by the functional-system orientated approach;
- to what extent can the curriculum be characterised by the critical approach;
- to what extent can the curriculum be characterised by action or/and technology orientated teaching.

We explored these aspects with a total of nine questions. We compared responses examining whether the syllabus of a discipline (such as social studies, aesthetics, linguistics) or another can be recognised in the curriculum or whether it is characterised by the predominance of one of the typical educational approaches (protection-supporting, aesthetic-cultural, critical, action-orientated). On the basis of the affirmative, negative and “moderately applies” responses, three clusters were formed for each of the nine questions. Subsequently, we checked whether each of the countries belonged in the same cluster considering the age group breakdown. If the same answer was given by at least two countries in up to five out of nine questions (i.e. with an over 50% percent parity), we deemed those countries as belonging to the same cluster. If fewer than five questions were answered in the same way by at least two countries, then those two countries were not related. Please note that this analysis is insensitive to how strong the
parity between the countries is (anywhere between 55 and 100%): the main goal was to map relations and non-proximities.

### 2.2.2.1 Primary level

This is the network diagram of an at least 55% parity at primary level:

A closer inspection of the network diagram reveals a higher density cluster of the following countries: DE, ES, LU, PL, RO, UK.

Another cluster made up of AT, CZE, FI, IT, MT, SE and SK is closely related to the above countries if somewhat peripherally. The rest of the countries are barely part of
The control test clearly shows that AT and FI had a parity of exactly five key aspects and they were related to many countries in the previous network while they become more peripheral in this one. At the same time, SK and SE belonged in the same cluster as they do in this one. The analysis of the two network diagrams above suggests the formation of the following clusters:
At this stage we must look at what type of aspects resulted in this distribution and how each of the clusters can be characterised.

The identification of the first group poses absolutely no difficulty. With just a few exceptions, all the answers are negative, which means that in the countries within this cluster no media literacy related content or approach can be discerned in the curricula at primary level.

In about half of the countries of the second group media literacy partly means teaching about the media and with a critical approach. To some extent, it is taught with an emphasis on the language-aesthetic aspect of the media, and sporadically media studies is dominated by the teaching of practical skills and technology. Consequently, the contents of and approaches to media literacy in the curricula are rather mixed here.

In the third group, children are definitely taught about the media, but only in a very few cases is it done with a critical approach. The language-aesthetic approach is clearly prevalent while teaching media literacy from a social studies perspective is not at all typical. It is customary to teach media studies with hands-on methods while the objective is not to teach the use of media devices.

The above clusters can be labelled as indefinite/defocused, mixed/partly focused and definite/focused. Not for a moment must we forget, however, that the above findings refer to primary level education.
2.2.2.2 **Lower-secondary level**

This is how the network diagram looks with a parity of five or more aspects at lower-secondary level:

As can be seen from the above, there are two clearly distinguishable clusters. One has AT, ES, LU, MT, PL and UK at its core and possibly IE can also be regarded as a member of this group. The other cluster contains CZ, FI, FR, HU, RO, SI and SK. Apparently, EL, DE, DK, IT and SE have unique distinctive features while EE, IE and NL are hard to categorise.

The network diagram based on a six-aspect parity reveals that with such a high density criterion the large clusters tend to fall apart, and only a small group made up of ES, LU, PL and UK remains.
The analysis of the two network charts leads us to acknowledge that there is a looser relation between the curricula when it comes to contents and approaches at lower-secondary level than at primary level. The clusters are as follows:

| Group 1: AT, ES, IE, LU, MT, PL, UK |
| Group 2: DE, DK, EE, EL, IT, NL, SE |
| Group 3: CZ, FI, FR, HU, RO, SI, SK |

The countries in the first group form a cluster – similar to primary level – because no media literacy related content or approach can be discerned in the curricula. Two members of the group, namely AT and IE slightly dissent from the rest in one or two aspects.
While in the countries within the second group, media studies does not mean teaching with media, it is clear that children are not taught about media itself in these countries. The linguistic-aesthetic aspect is present in EL and SE especially, and in DE, EE and IT to a lesser or exiguous extent. In this group of countries media studies is not based on social studies in the curricula and a critical approach is only slightly present, but to a certain degree it encourages the creative use of media devices. The representation of media studies in the curricula of this group is rather mixed in terms of content and approaches.

Within the third group the subject of media studies is the media, i.e. children are taught about the media. The aesthetic approach is clearly prevalent while the linguistic approach is less so. The critical approach, the social studies based approach and the creative, production-orientated approach are all commonly applied while there is less emphasis on teaching and developing the ability to use media devices.

The respective clusters can once again be labelled as indefinite/defocused, mixed/partly focused and definite/focused.
2.2.2.3 Upper-secondary level

This is the network diagram for a correspondence of at least five aspects:

At first glance, the network is completely different from what we saw at the primary and the lower-secondary levels. The strikingly distinct two larger groups have disappeared as the relations are more evenly distributed, even symmetrical. Even though ES, PL and UK are still bedfellows, LU has broken away from this cluster and MT has also drifted away.

If we examine the relations considering a stricter correspondence of six parameters, this is what we find:
This new diagram shows that the number of countries belonging in the mixed focus group has risen significantly. Two cores, namely one consisting of ES, PL and UK and the other consisting of FR. HU, RO and SK can still be detected. The groups with the same labels in the case of the other two levels are as follows.

Group 1: ES, PL, UK
Group 2: AT, CZ, DK, EE, EL, FI, IE, IT, LT, LU, MT, SE
Group 3: DE, FR, HU, NL, RO, SI, SK

Regarding the contents and approaches in the curricula, our comparative analysis has yielded the following clusters:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PRIMARY</th>
<th>MIXED/PARTLY FOCUSED</th>
<th>FOCUSED</th>
<th>NO DATA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DE, ES, LU, PL, RO, SE, SK, UK</td>
<td>AT, CZ, FI, IT, MT</td>
<td>DK, EE, EL, FR, HU, IE, NL, SI</td>
<td>BE, BG, CY, LT, LV, PT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LOWER-SECONDARY</td>
<td>DE, DK, EE, EL, IT, NL, SE</td>
<td>CZ, FI, FR, HU, RO, SI, SK</td>
<td>BE, BG, CY, LT, LV, PT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UPPER-SECONDARY</td>
<td>ES, PL, UK</td>
<td>AT, CZ, DK, EE, EL, FI, IE, IT, LT, LU, MT, SE</td>
<td>DE, FR, HU, NL, RO, SI SK</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The research shows that

- with the advance of age and the level of education, there is a decreasing number of countries (ES, PL, UK), where the media-related curriculum is defocused, i.e. needing representation. At the same time, the number of member states where there is a clearly identifiable and characteristic representation of media literacy in the curricula is on the increase;
- few countries have a unified curriculum which covers all educational levels in a focused way (FR, HU, SI);
- in most of the countries the curriculum is focused at lower-secondary level, and it retains the same character at upper-secondary level too. In two of the member states (CZ, FI), there is a radical shift in approach and content with the advent of the next level;
- at lower-secondary level few countries can be characterized by adopting a mixed focus (partly focused) approach while at upper-secondary level the number is much higher (12). This means that it is at this level in Europe that media studies becomes a school subject that can be described with clearly definable parameters which are often different for each country.

**Figure 7: Clusters (2)**

- **red**: focused
- **green**: defocused
- **blue**: mixed/partly focused
- **grey**: not mentioned
- **black**: no data available
2.3. ANOTHER ASPECT OF UNDERSTANDING CLUSTERS

Comparing national curricula

It is borne out by the analysis of clusters that the more clearly the concept of media education is defined in a national curriculum, the less possible it is to classify the country as belonging in a group of countries. Such a country can only be described with the help of the unique educational and curricular model peculiar to it.

We know from previous studies that within the framework of formal education media studies is considered to be a “soft” subject. According to the EMEDUS-WP3 research this is true even today. This subject is a relative newcomer that deals with loads of questionable and delicate topics and phenomena and lacks well-qualified professional teachers. Also, it is in a disadvantageous lobbying position compared to other conventional study fields. As a result, media studies cannot help adapting to the structures and curricula designed for other subjects. Moreover, it is more than likely that passages in the curricula that are concerned with media studies do not really reflect the special needs, requirements and contents of media education, but rather the general concepts laid out in each national curriculum. As a consequence, information about media curricula is obtained from and is based on the characteristics of the national curricula and not on the characteristics of the subject area in question. (This is what might account for the fact that British media education, which is held up as an example all over the globe and has long traditions, seems unidentifiable and without any character in the part of the WP3 research which deals with national curricula56).

We are going to compare the national curricula of the member states in order to provide a more profound interpretation of our findings concerning the curricular representation of media literacy.

56 This problem is rather complex. As our English expert, Andrew Burn points out: “What you always see is that it disappears when there is a Conservative government and that it reappears when the Labour Party is in power. At the moment – under the current (2013) Conservative-Liberal Democrat coalition – the curriculum is being rewritten and the media element has virtually disappeared. (…)” Andrew Burn realises that this is not a uniquely British situation: “Media education is always a marginalised subject, and it is always at risk of disappearing from the curriculum. In countries with a national curriculum, such as the UK, the primary focus is on the basics. There are therefore strict rules as regards mother tongue teaching and maths. Then there’s a bit of physical education and perhaps even something about ICT and computers, but no media literacy. The curriculum also contains some arts and culture subjects, but the programmes are often optional. Media literacy comes last of all.” Please see: Media Education in Four EU Countries - How do Finland, Sweden and the UK tackle media education? And how does that compare to the Netherlands? Common Problems and Possible Solutions (2013)
2.3.1 The national curriculum as a document regulating the framework of education

A national and state-level curriculum expresses the obligation of a country or state to determine or at least to outline the content of knowledge to be conveyed in schools, a generally shared collection of national knowledge and the minimum of necessary and required knowledge. Also, it is meant to grant mobility within the educational system and a presence of contents relevant to the expectations of the modern age in the teaching process. However, this is where the consensus ends as European member states have taken and still keep taking rather varied decisions as to how and in what detail national curricula should determine teaching materials.

What we are dealing with here is partly the relationship between national and local or school-level curricula, or more specifically with the level of decision-making. Such decisions concern the content of teaching materials and a number of related questions such as time frame, approach, methodology and the use of textbooks among others. It is also indicated what is required by the system of exam expectations and consequently whether the curriculum is teaching material orientated (as in the cases of Sweden and Finland), activity orientated (what a teacher should do and how s/he should do it) or requirement orientated (as in the cases of Ireland and the UK).

Regulation by curriculum happens at two levels in certain countries while in others at three levels with what is called a frame curriculum, which is inserted between the national and the local curricula. Curricular regulation is strongly influenced by traditions of education. In Europe, typically two traditions have evolved which still have a significant impact on the national curricula: the continental tradition and the Anglo-Saxon tradition. The continental tradition partly means the French tradition, and thanks to the French influence, Spain, Portugal and Belgium; Germany and Sweden, countries of the former Austro-Hungarian Monarchy, Russia and Finland have their own variants of this tradition. The Anglo-Saxon tradition is the foundation of the British and Irish as well as the Dutch and Danish way of thinking about curricula (Knausz 2009).

One of the characteristic features of such a tradition is whether the curriculum is a closed and strict regulator that determines time frames, competencies, contents and/or contexts to be addressed through teaching or rather an open guideline that merely
defines main outlines, conceptual and time frameworks, key concepts and giving more scope for diverse teaching processes. The former is the continental model, and the latter is the Anglo-Saxon one. Nevertheless, the WP3 has shown that following the educational reforms of recent decades the set-up has radically changed as the majority of the member states have made a move towards the more open model. Thanks to its wording, an open curriculum is usually a shorter document that provides an overall framework with key concepts of pedagogy while a closed one is generally lengthier with detailed descriptions elaborating on pedagogical concepts and content.

The following table shows the appearance of the open or closed quality as well as that of the long or brief forms of current national curricula, and thus it indicates the clusters of countries based on these characteristics: 57

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A RATHER CLOSED CURRICULUM — A VERY GENERAL &amp; BRIEF DOCUMENT</th>
<th>A RATHER CLOSED CURRICULUM — A LENGTHY DOCUMENT</th>
<th>A RATHER CLOSED CURRICULUM — A MEDIUM-LENGTH DOCUMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BG</td>
<td>ES, FR, HU, PT, SI</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A RATHER OPEN CURRICULUM — A VERY GENERAL &amp; BRIEF DOCUMENT</td>
<td>A RATHER OPEN CURRICULUM — A LENGTHY DOCUMENT</td>
<td>A RATHER OPEN CURRICULUM — A MEDIUM-LENGTH DOCUMENT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AT, BE, DK, IE, LV, RO, SK, UK</td>
<td>CY, CZ, EE, EL,</td>
<td>FI, IT, MT, PL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IN-BETWEEN (CLOSED/OPEN) — A VERY GENERAL &amp; BRIEF DOCUMENT</td>
<td>IN-BETWEEN (CLOSED/OPEN) — A LENGTHY DOCUMENT</td>
<td>IN-BETWEEN (CLOSED/OPEN) — IN-BETWEEN (BRIEF/LONG)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NL</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>DE59, LU</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If we compare the group of countries in the defocused cluster at lower and upper-secondary levels with the distribution above, it is striking that most of them belong in the open-brief (or the open/in between - in-between) category (AT, IE, LU, MT, PL, UK).

Only Spain stands out for formulating scattered and defocused media-related contents in a rather strictly regulating and detailed national curriculum. 60

57 These were the options in the questionnaire:

- It is a closed curriculum (strictly determining time frames, competencies, contents and/or contexts to be addressed through teaching)
- It is an open curriculum (defining main outlines, conceptual and time frameworks, key concepts and giving more scope for diverse teaching processes)
- The curriculum is a general, brief document providing an overall framework with key concepts of pedagogy
- The curriculum is a long document with detailed descriptions elaborating on pedagogical concepts and content

58 No data from LT, SE

59 Curricula for all types of schools are the responsibility of the 16 Ministries of Education and Cultural Affairs in the 16 Länder in Germany. There is no central curriculum. The website: http://db.kmk.org/Lehrplan provides links to about 1700 objects.

60 A remark by our Spanish expert: The Spanish Education Law (LOE), adopted on April 7, 2006, promotes media literacy, as many of the contents of this knowledge area are addressed in the curricula of different subject areas and are also present in the characterization of different core competencies. But the terms media education or media literacy do not appear as such and do not constitute a specific subject.
2.3.2 The national curriculum as a means of regulating content

Curricula can be classified into the following groups on the basis of their content regulatory character: competence and content based curricula; input and output oriented curricula. The curricula of member states show the following distribution based on content regulation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RATHER CONTENT BASED –</th>
<th>RATHER CONTENT BASED –</th>
<th>RATHER CONTENT BASED –</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RATHER INPUT ORIENTED</td>
<td>RATHER OUTPUT ORIENTED</td>
<td>IN-BETWEEN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BG,EL, FR</td>
<td>PT</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RATHER COMPETENCE BASED –</td>
<td>RATHER COMPETENCE BASED –</td>
<td>RATHER COMPETENCE BASED –</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RATHER INPUT ORIENTED</td>
<td>RATHER OUTPUT ORIENTED</td>
<td>IN-BETWEEN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x</td>
<td>BE,CY, CZ, EE, IT, PL, SK</td>
<td>RO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RATHER IN-BETWEEN –</td>
<td>RATHER IN-BETWEEN –</td>
<td>RATHER IN-BETWEEN –</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RATHER INPUT ORIENTED</td>
<td>RATHER OUTPUT ORIENTED</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HU,SI</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>DK, ES, FI, LU, UK</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The majority of the respondents did not answer this question. From the responses of those who did answer it, though, it is apparent that the different categories provided are not exclusive. This means that certain curricula can be evaluated as being based on competences and contents (e.g. in ES) or input-output orientated (e.g. in LV), or neither of the two (e.g. in AT). According to the chart, there is a dominance of competence-based and output-oriented curricula, or even a mixture of the two types of curricula is strongly represented on the basis of the the content-governing character of the researched documents. Otherwise, there are no other convincing correlations between the clusters of media-related curricula and categories based on whether the national curriculum regulates contents or competences as well as input or output.

2.3.3 The openness and readiness of national curricula to incorporate

Another important factor that may prove vital for media education and can very well characterise national curricula is the extent to which they are open to new contents. It is worth looking at how much they include issues of everyday life and how much they are dominated by the world of conventional subjects or cross-curricular themes.

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61 No data received from IE, LT, NL,SE, while AT, DE, LV and MT cannot be placed in any one of the categories below on the basis of the responses. AT, DE, LV, MT
Countries whose curricula are typified by such characteristics are indicated in the table below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristic</th>
<th>Countries</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The curriculum is dominated by traditional subjects</td>
<td>BE, CY, DE, DK, EE, FI, FR, HU, IT, IE, LT, PT, SI, UK</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The curriculum is dominated by cross-curricular areas (crosscutting concepts)</td>
<td>AT, CZ, MT, PL, UK</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The curriculum gives priority to problems and phenomena of everyday life</td>
<td>BE, BG, CY, CZ, EL, MT, PL, UK</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problems and phenomena of everyday life remain marginalised in the curriculum</td>
<td>EE, FI, HU, MT, PT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Integrating contents (e.g. including new contents in already existing subjects or subject areas) is a characteristic feature of the curriculum</td>
<td>BEL, BG, CY, EL, ES, MT, PL, RO, UK</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The curriculum fosters content differentiation (e.g. creating new subjects)</td>
<td>CZ, ES, UK</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If we compare the clusters emerging from media-related curricula with the groups of countries in the chart above, it is plain to see that the majority of countries with defocused media-related curricula (AT, ES, LU, IE, MT, PL, UK) can also be characterised by an increasing presence of a cross-curricular attitude and integrated contents and not just in connection with media education but also at a more general curricular level.

By and large, the research has substantiated that wherever the general characteristic of the national curriculum is cross-curricular, partly as a result, the media-related curriculum is defocused. The cross-curricular form does not involve defining subject areas arranged into subjects (such as man and society) and it works with several integrated content areas while the curriculum itself is open and concisely worded. The only exception is Spain. Her national curriculum cannot be described as above while her media-related curriculum is very similar to those of the countries in the defocused cluster.

Certainly, it cannot be concluded from the comparative analysis of national curricula that media education in the countries where there is a somewhat more conventional curriculum in force suffers a disadvantage as a result of the limitations of the core curriculum. Similarly, it would be wrong to assume that media education has become part and parcel of formal education more easily in countries where the curriculum is more open and more ready to incorporate new and everyday contents.
2.4. EVALUATION, ASSESSMENT AND EXAMS

It is well-known fact in connection with media education within formal education, but it still needs repeating that it is virtually impossible to judge the outcome and effectiveness of development if there is no evaluation. As a matter of fact, no examination-type assessment (i.e. with unified and set requirements) is made in this field in the educational systems of the member states. This, again, can be attributed to the cross-curricular and integrated forms of education, which are generally typical of media education, and which are difficult to link to customary processes of examining students.

Obviously, the results of other forms of evaluation (those that depend on the decisions of individual teachers or schools) are not detectable to us within the WP3 research. Non-formal media education is chiefly characterised by project work, which requires actual reports and a final product. In contrast, in the formal sector there is absolutely no urge to develop media literacy through evaluation.

For this very reason, the EC 2009-11 efforts to develop European standards of measurement for media literacy are absolutely vital. The Final Report of this endeavour (Testing and Refining Criteria to Assess Media Literacy Levels in Europe) summarizes the results and proposes the following aspects for evaluation:

Use skills
- Reading books (print or e-book);
- Reading newspapers (print or online);
- Playing computer or video games;
- Going to the cinema;
- Using the Internet;
- Sending e-mails with attached files;
- Using the Internet to make telephone calls;
- Using peer-to-peer file sharing;
- Creating a web page;

Critical understanding
- Trust of information that is presented by different media sources (newspapers, television, radio, Internet);
- Awareness of information that is presented by different media sources (different television channels, different news programs, different search engines);
- Awareness of the influence of advertising;
- Knowledge of media regulations;
- Ability to identify options for gathering information;
- Skills in critically evaluating the credibility of information;
- Comparison of information across sources;
- Skills in managing privacy and protecting self from unwanted messages.
Communicative abilities
- Content creation across a variety of media, including written texts, video, audio, and visual;
- Engagement in public debate (commenting on a blog post, writing a letter to a newspaper editor, posting a blog);
- Social networking online (whether privately or professionally);
- Collaborating online on a joint project (including contributing to a wiki).

It would be rather beneficial if the generation graduating from the upper-secondary level of education could be tested with a method especially designed for measuring these skills (e.g. aspects of critical understanding of media) all across the EU27. In addition, it would also be advantageous if this method and the results of the tests could be compared to the examination types that are currently used to assess media literacy – if only in a very few countries.

2.4.1 If media is taught as a separate subject, is there a major final examination to assess the students? What type of exam is it (e.g.: international baccalaureate), what methods are used to examine the students and what type of certificate is provided?

Currently, students are not obliged to sit an exam in media studies anywhere in Europe. If they wish they can choose to though. In contrast to the set of requirements compiled by the different regional examination centres of the English GCSE system, Hungarian examination regulations apply nationwide.

This exam specification has not been altered since 2004. There are two examination periods per year and alternative topics for project work are made public six months before each examination period. The schools receive centralised test booklets on the day of the exam. Solutions and marking guidelines are made available on the website of the national examination centre the following day.

One can read the following about the aims of the moving image culture and media studies exam:

The moving image culture and media studies exam grants examinees the opportunity to prove their interpretation and critical skills concerning various types of moving images. The exam also ascertains whether the examinee is aware of the social role and the mechanisms of the media, and especially audiovisual and new media.

To quote an example, in connection with media institutions, the exam regulations contain the following specifications:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TOPIC</th>
<th>LEVEL OF EXAMINATION</th>
<th>LEVEL OF EXAMINATION</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Media texts as products</td>
<td>Students are able to explain major economic factors affecting the processes of mass communication and its industrial and market-orientated mechanisms (e.g. principles of consumerism; viewers as customers and products; broadcasting time as a commodity)</td>
<td>Students are able to provide and interpret a few characteristic data (e.g. facts and figures of the Hungarian film and television industry; public financing; the advertising pie chart)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Institutions of the media industry</td>
<td>Students are able to describe institutions of public-service broadcasting and commercial broadcasting with the help of examples</td>
<td>Students are able to describe independent and alternative media institutions; specialised channels and thematic media enterprises with the help of examples</td>
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<tr>
<td>Control over the media industry</td>
<td>Students are able to mention fundamental principles of legal and ethical control over the media industry (e.g. self-regulation, the opportunity to respond, respect for privacy, regulations concerning public figures, ban on negative discrimination). They are also able to name institutions in charge of checking law abdance and enforcing laws and regulations in Hungary as well as typical examples of their intervention (e.g. decisions regarding the exceeding of advertising time; programmes detrimental to young people, especially ones that include unjustified graphic violence)</td>
<td>Students are aware of the principles behind the prohibition of racism and hate speech and the freedom of speech, and they are able to interpret the contradiction between the two from the perspective of media regulation.</td>
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</table>

English examination regulations determine required knowledge or Subject Content in four units (2014):

Unit 1 (Investigating the media)
Unit 2 (Understanding the media)
Unit 3 (Exploring media industries)
Unit 4 (Responding to a media brief)

Let us take a closer look at Unit 3:

Candidates will explore a range of organisations that make up different sectors of the media industries. Candidates will gain a broad understanding of:

• how media industries operate and within what constraints
• what products they make and the audiences for those products
• the types of roles and employment opportunities available within the media
• ownership, control and finance within the media industries
developments in media technology and their effects on production and consumption. It is important for candidates to develop an understanding of the work and impact of media organisations in their area. This will help them to appreciate some of the complexities of the media industries.

If possible, links with media organisations should be made with the potential to support candidate learning. Visits to media organisations can be extremely beneficial, as can visits from media professionals. Opportunities for candidates to experience working practices at close hand will have a positive impact on understanding. However, it is recognised that not all areas have an appropriate concentration of media activity and it will be particularly important for teachers to research alternative organisations.

A further aspect for candidates to appreciate is that ‘the media’ are not static. Developments in digital communications technology continue to offer phenomenal opportunities for the media industries and the global marketplace has led to the consumer having access to media products worldwide. The changing size, composition and ownership of media organisations has led to media conglomerates with ambitions way beyond the domestic market.

Candidates will select two media industries from the following:
Print/Electronic Publishing, Advertising and Marketing, Television, Film, Radio, Popular Music, Web-based Technologies/New Media

For each of the industries they choose, candidates will investigate:
• how the industry creates a range of products to sell to particular audiences
• how the industry and the products they make are influenced by ownership and control
• the job roles and working practices within the organisation
• how the organisation is financed and regulated
• the effects of developments in technology within this industry.

The unit is externally assessed to test candidates’ knowledge and understanding of media industries and provide opportunities for them to apply that knowledge and understanding to a realistic stimulus. The external assessment will take the form of a written test of 1 hour 30 minutes duration. Section A consists of short answer questions, while Section B requires five longer responses to a stimulus.

Unit Learning Outcomes
Candidates will be expected to:
AO1 Recall, select and communicate their knowledge and understanding of media products and the contexts in which they are produced and consumed.
AO2 Analyse and respond to media texts/topics using key media concepts and appropriate terminology.

Thus, on the basis of the responses to the questionnaire, students have the opportunity to sit for a final exam in media studies only in a very few countries, which means that they cannot acquire a certificate proving their media-related knowledge in the majority of the member states. (Countries where they do have this opportunity include DK /baccalaureate/, HU /baccalaureate/, LU /certificate from the High school/ and the UK /GCSE/. Also, in certain countries testing media literacy is part and parcel of exams in communication or one’s native language education (FR/SK). Consequently, it is not possible for students to sit an exam in media studies in each of the countries where there is an opportunity to study media as a separate subject (EE, RO, Scotland). Our Romanian expert Nicole Fotiade puts it like this: “There is no major final exam to assess students for their media literacy; they are not given a graduation certificate”. Scott Donaldson from Scotland

62 Some German federal states, e.g. in Bremen, Film is part of centralised school leaving examinations – „Zentralabitur“ (here in the context of native language/German Language Arts)
informs us that what they have is “Not an exam, but a sample of pupils from all primary and secondary schools in Scotland are tested every two years for literacy including media literacy”.

At post-secondary level, students are able to gain a certificate in Ireland or in Scotland, where there is an extremely sophisticated system of evaluating and testing media literacy. It is even possible to earn a master’s degree in IT while in HU one is awarded examination credits which can be transferred to institutions of higher education or one can get an elementary diploma in film, television and journalism, which entitles one to undertake less complicated jobs.

An exam is generally a combination of project work, portfolios or presentations, student creative work and written forms such as tests and essays. In the vast majority of member states, i.e. on the Iberian Peninsula, in northern countries, in most post-socialist states and in German-speaking countries, formal education does not provide students with any certification in this field whatsoever. In teaching media literacy the most commonly used evaluating methods include presentations and essays as well as evaluating media products created by students. However, especially at upper-secondary level, almost the full range of evaluation methods is universally used. At the same time, oral testing and self-evaluation are few and far between.

Grading systems and methods correspond to the standards utilised in the individual member states, and consequently evaluating performance in media literacy does not imply a breakaway from the usual norm.

At the same time, student performance in media literacy is not measured, let alone evaluated, in particular below upper-secondary level. With the exception of a handful of countries (ES, HU, UK), there are absolutely no statistics available as to student performance in media literacy.

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63 In some federal states, e.g. North Rhine-Westfalia and Hamburg pupils at primary and lower secondary levels can obtain what is called “Medienpass” (media pass) - a sort of non-compulsory certificate, which documents children’s level of competences in the field(s) of media.

64 The affirmative answer from our Spanish expert refers to digital (information) literacy, and not to media literacy in a narrower sense, which is the main focus of the WP3 research.
2.5. FACTS OF THE CLASSROOM

As we have indicated throughout this study, the WP3 research did not have the chance to monitor classroom activity. At the same time, we were rather curious to find out what picture could be drawn on the basis of our responding experts’ knowledge, personal experiences or rough estimates in relation to some important aspects of what goes on in those classrooms. Furthermore, we were also wondering how much this picture matches or differs from the objectives and requirements laid down in the curricula. These are just two of the focal questions that we are seeking answers to in the following chapter on the basis of the questionnaire results.

2.5.1 Please indicate the approximate amount of TIME DEVOTED TO TEACHING MEDIA STUDIES. (In most cases this is usually expressed by giving the number of hours per week.) If no figures are available, please give your best estimate.

The time devoted to teaching media literacy could be one of the key factors showing how effective the process of teaching media literacy is. Also, the time factor strongly influences the status, i.e. the perceived importance of the subject in formal education. Instead of the traditional system of regularly recurring weekly lessons, an increasing number of schools in the member states set up topic weeks. These “epochs” receive more intensive attention coupled with more coherent teaching methods that better fit the needs of media education. All in all, they allow for a more concentrated development of the students, one which is closer to the ideals of experiential education.

Sad to say, it is virtually impossible to find out exactly how much time is spent in teaching media literacy particularly when the cross-curricular or integrated forms are used in media education. What makes this task even more daunting to carry out is the fact that the way these two forms are applied may vary from school to school.

Christine Wijnen from Austria remarks that “This totally depends on the teacher. If students have an engaged teacher, they receive about 1 hour or more a week. If they have a teacher who doesn’t care about media literacy, they won’t learn anything about it (although it is formulated in the curriculum).”
Media literacy is taught as a separate subject (with the exact time frame provided) in only a few places so it would be well-advised to some extent to treat such countries as a separate category for the sake of clarity. Even in these cases, it must be borne in mind that the separate subject status means elective courses. Consequently, the vast majority of students do not learn media studies despite the given time frame in the countries in question.

Findings show that

a) the number of lessons in countries where media literacy is taught as a separate subject (EE, HU, RO, SK) appears to be substantially less than the time frame in the countries using cross-curricular or integrated forms;

b) in the only country where media literacy is an obligatory (separate) subject, the number of media studies lessons is the lowest with a total of 50-80 lessons all throughout formal education;

c) the time frame is somewhat higher where media studies is a separate optional subject with a total of 80-200 lessons per student throughout formal education;

d) two or more lessons per week are spent in teaching media literacy only at post-secondary level i.e. as part of a training course for a media related profession;

e) the number of countries that (also) use the epoch system with intensive topic weeks is quite remarkable (CZ, DE, EE, FI, FR, IE, UK). One such topic week would equal one lesson per week throughout one academic year in formal education;

f) Some countries using the cross-curricular or integrated forms of teaching provided extremely high lesson numbers (EL, ES, MT, NL, PL, SK, SE,UK). In their case it is impossible even to give a rough estimate of the actual time spent in teaching media literacy. Throughout formal education numbers can
range from just a few lessons to nearly 1000 lessons. This, of course, is absolutely unrealistic.

Experience shows that a total of two lessons per week for two academic years enables the effective improvement of students’ knowledge and skills at a level that a country’s educational system can expect from the teaching of media literacy. In not any one of the member states does the education system guarantee this time frame for media education.

2.5.2 Based on WHAT REALLY HAPPENS IN THE CLASSROOM (and not on the guidelines and expectations outlined in the curricula), what GOALS DO TEACHERS AIM TO ACHIEVE while teaching media studies?

One of the truly fascinating aspects of this survey on media education is what really happens in the classroom as opposed to what is written in the curriculum. What do the teachers (who, as you will soon find out, are not qualified media studies teachers) make of the curricula? More precisely what educational goals do they aspire to? And what objectives do they ignore?

According to the responses from the experts, teachers wish to protect the children from the detrimental effects of the media in about half of the responding countries at primary level (CZ, EE, IT, IE, LU, MT, NL, PL, SK), and this is true for a quarter of the countries at upper-secondary level (CZ, EL, LU, NL, SK).

Here it is worthwhile to look up and take note of results regarding protective intentions in the curricula. (7.3.3.1) It is absolutely clear that this approach is more prevalent in the classrooms than in the curricula.

Teachers seldom tend to interpret media-related moral dilemmas during the media lessons at primary level (EL, NL, PL, SI), but 40% do so at upper-secondary level (EE, EL, IT, LT, NL, PL, SK, SI).
In half of the countries a critical understanding of the media is practised while teaching media studies at lower-secondary level, and the percentage is 65% at upper-secondary level (AT, DE, EE, EL, FI, FR, HU, IE, LU, NL, PL, RO, SK, SI). This roughly corresponds to the approaches apparent in the curricula with DE, EE, FI, FR, HU, IT, LU, NL, RO, SI and SK having given an affirmative answer to this question. At the same time, it is important to note that this approach is applied in Austrian, Irish and Polish classrooms while there are hardly any detectable traces of it in the curricula of these three countries.

Students’ skills of creating media texts are developed during the media lessons in a third of the countries at primary level and in 47% at upper-secondary level (AT, CZ, EE, FI, FR, IT, LU, MT, SI, SK).

Viewed from the perspective of curricula, the presence of the action-orientated aspect has been ascertained by DE, EL, RO and SE. However, if we consider the development of practical skills on the basis of classroom practices, AT, CZ and MT also feel it relevant to their media-related education even though it is not noticeably manifest in their curricular regulations.

Media education is typified by interpreting different media forms and genres in half of the responding countries at upper-secondary level.

Students’ skills of interpreting media texts are developed during the media studies lessons in a quarter of the cases at lower-secondary level and in 45% of the countries at upper-secondary level.

It is not typical of any one of the responding countries that media studies lessons are used to deter students from undesirable media consumption habits.

Media studies is used to shape students’ cultural identities in a third of the countries.

The overall picture drawn by the survey shows that teachers only partly identify with the educational goals of the curricula. They do so if they can work with actual and tangible knowledge such as genre studies, textual analysis or the critical evaluation of the media. They may opt for these fields as they do not seem to require any professional expertise and as they conform to public expectations. On the other hand, teachers of media
studies invest a surprisingly small amount of time in education with the conventional protectionist paradigm in mind and even less time in handling students' undesirable media consumption habits. The reason for this might be that teachers believe this approach to be a losing battle, something that students would definitely reject.

2.5.3. What is the PROPORTION of each of the following TEACHING AND LEARNING METHODS used in media education?

The effectiveness of education often depends on the well-picked teaching and learning methods (alongside the size of the groups, the time frame and the availability of media devices and teaching aids.)

In frontal instruction it is more common to have a teacher hold a lecture in front of a class than use demonstrative materials. This conventional method is still predominant in schools across Europe. Teaching is done using this lecture-style method in 23% of the countries at primary level, 30% at lower secondary level and 33% at upper secondary level.

Teaching methods based on various forms of cooperation are predominant in the media studies lessons; in half of the countries media education is carried out along such lines. Typically, the teacher asks questions and the whole group discusses the possible answers; or small groups carry out interpretative tasks; or the teacher passes out materials to be processed by students. The proportion of creative and productive work is roughly 25% while short, informal tests and other evaluation methods become somewhat more important at post-secondary level. Thus, it is clear from the facts that the practice of teaching media studies is determined by cooperative teaching and learning methods in 50% of the cases; by teacher-centred methods in 30% of the cases; and by creative-productive methods in 25% of the cases.

It is truly remarkable when teaching practices differ from the average in certain countries. Frontal instruction prevails in CZ, DE, IT, LT, PL, and the utilisation of student-centred methods is more widespread in EL and FR at lower-secondary level. Also, the creative-productive approach is more tangibly present in FI and RO.
2.5.4 What EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITIES are linked to formal media education?

The practice of extra-curricular media education is characterised by film clubs at upper-secondary level (71%), by filmmaking workshops (57%), by school media (television, radio, magazine) (82%), and subject-related competitions (72%)\(^{65}\). Schools even organise informative visits to professional media establishments (68%) or offer students film or media camps and workshops in the summer holiday (50%). Naturally, the figures are somewhat lower at lower-secondary level in this respect. Still, and interestingly enough, school media is rather widespread even at primary level (72%).

Beyond the actual requirements of the curricula, schools may offer special extra-curricular activities associated with media studies. In fact, the situation is much more stable and smooth-running here than during the curricula-governed lessons. It is as though the home turf of media education is still outside the classroom with free-time activities and study circles.

2.5.5. Do media teachers have any of the following at their disposal to assist them with the teaching of media literacy?

Media education requires a plethora of teaching aids, tools and devices. Ever since the 1980's teachers have been worried about not being able to carry out their developmental work properly without the necessary resource materials or teaching and creative tools. According to the research, the situation has radically changed.

Teachers and students do now have access to visual educational tools (projectors, digital boards) at lower-secondary level (80%) and at upper-secondary level (over 90%), and all schools have Internet access. Recording devices used for creative work (cameras, camcorders, sound recording devices) are available at primary level (over 50%) and at upper-secondary level (over 70%). What is more, in 50% of the countries students have media labs to help them with their creative work.

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\(^{65}\) Here some really extraordinary activities could also be mentioned like German School film weeks at cinemas, which take place in all 16 federal states with 700,000 participants annually.
The situation is not as rosy when it comes to national or regional guidelines and textbooks. This can again be partly attributed to the status of media studies within the education system. Textbooks are less likely to be published for cross-curricular and integrated forms than for the separate subject setup. The use of textbooks as such is on the decline in general, and books are usually replaced by a colourful array of teaching aids and handouts personally selected by the teachers. Books are used in 24% of the cases at primary level and in 53% at lower-secondary level. This proportion drops to 30% at upper-secondary level, where students use teacher-generated materials in 76-90-90% of the cases at respective levels.

2.5.6. Do the following institutions provide funds to be applied for in order to finance media education?

Innovation in media education is chiefly financed by national institutions, especially by different ministries. Schools seem to be relatively well-equipped with technical devices (62%), and subsidies are granted for training courses, festivals and conferences in half of the countries. Those in charge of media education at national or state level are reluctant to invest in teaching aids, though (50%). Funding by the media industry seems to be a crucial question. This is because the media industry may be somewhat interested in what young people learn about the media, on the one hand. On the other hand, the media industry has significant financial funds to be able to act as an innovator in this field.

At the same time, contributions from the media industry are a delicate issue as they can neither determine contents to be taught nor teaching methods to be used. Media education must remain independent from the media industry even if it is in need of financial support. The outcome of the research is that the media industry is willing to sponsor different events (conferences, festivals) in 40% of the countries. It is slightly less ready to sponsor the development of teaching aids and resources (30%). The situation continues to deteriorate as the economic crisis has led to the termination of the services of complementary educational institutions such as Film Education in England. Surprisingly enough, the media industry does not fund teacher training or the acquisition of technical devices for media education at all.
Despite continued pleas for sponsorship, financial funding from national media authorities is even less visible. If they sponsor anything at all, it is mainly events and festivals, but not incentives directly associated with education. In a third of the countries it is civil organisations, foundations, research centres and even museums that sponsor activities related to media education. The overall picture shows that predominantly government subsidies (national, regional, local) constitute the financial background for innovation aimed at incorporating media studies into formal education, but there exists a perceptible amount of funding from foundations and NGO too. The media industry mainly sponsors ostentatious events, festivals and conferences, which can later be used as news items in the media\textsuperscript{66}.

\textsuperscript{66} Public-private partnership models are important in sponsoring or funding film and media literacy at schools, e.g. in Germany Vision Kino (sponsored by Federal Film Board + Federal Dep. of Media and Culture) – with more sustainable effectiveness.
2.6 ABOUT THE TEACHING PROFESSION

Alongside time frame for media studies lessons, one of the crucial questions in formal education is the qualifications teachers have. Training the trainers is the Archemedean point of media education since...

a) media studies continues seeping into educational systems across Europe;

b) media studies (unlike conventional subjects) conveys new and rapidly changing interdisciplinary content;

c) media studies deals with the complex and problematic phenomena of everyday culture;

d) because of the above, teachers are expected to rethink and reinterpret their traditional role as a teacher;

e) media education appears in formal education sooner than teacher training could produce a sufficient number of professionals for this field.

2.6.1 Are there any ACCREDITED PROGRAMMES to provide professional training to media literacy teachers?

On the basis of the research findings it seems that one can obtain a master’s degree in media education in a third of the countries. (Countries where such a degree is available for all age groups include EE, EL, HU, IE, PT, UK, and in CZ, DK, FI it is possible to obtain one for primary and lower-secondary levels only.)

Teacher training programmes in a university setting are available in about half of the countries, and teachers can enrol for crash courses in media education in about a third of the countries.67

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67 In Romania, for instance, accredited courses are available at the Babes-Bolyai University in Cluj. They include: BA – Education and Mass Media, Study Program – Pre-primary and primary Pedagogy, Education Sciences Department, Faculty of Psychology and Education Sciences, 2012; MA - Media Education, Study Program – Curricular Management, The Didactic of Exact Sciences Department, Faculty of Psychology and Education Sciences, 2012. In 2012 the Ministry of National Education accredited the ActiveWatch MediaSIS Teacher Training course for a three-year period. It is a 50-hour online and face-to-face course for teachers in pre-university education.
Nowadays, in virtually all of the member states tertiary education does offer some sort of training (even if it is not majoring in media studies), without which the acquisition of professional knowledge could not be guaranteed. On the other hand, only in very few countries can would-be teachers apply to a university in order to become media studies teachers. This, however, does not depend on tertiary education in the first place, but on formal education. In accordance with the written word of the curricula, formal education on the demand side does not commission tertiary education to train and churn out more media studies teachers.

2.6.2 Are there any REGULATIONS regarding the required qualifications of a media studies teacher in formal education?

In the vast majority of member states there are absolutely no requirements as to the qualifications of a media studies teacher. If a teacher has any qualifications whatsoever to teach a particular age group, s/he can teach media studies without further ado especially if s/he has completed a diploma course in this field.

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<th>countries</th>
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</table>
With the exception of DE, FI, FR, IE, SK, SI and partly DK, HU and LT, media studies is a sitting duck in formal education: whoever is interested or delegated can teach it regardless of the existence of any certificates proving his/her ability. The situation seems rather bleak if one takes professionalism, quality, efficiency and the reception of the subject into consideration.

2.6.3. In tertiary education, what UNIVERSITY COURSES OR PROGRAMMES offer the opportunity to qualify as a media studies teacher? What level is granted?

One can acquire a degree in media education currently in fewer than half of the member states. Such a degree is mainly available if one studies communication or media; film or journalism; information technology or pedagogy.

In connection with the Czech situation Prof. Jirak remarks that "Elements of media education and media didactics can be found in many institutions of higher education in the CR but not a single institution has a ‘licence’ (accreditation) to run any program which can deliver media studies teachers."

In Kadri Ugur’s words, in Estonia “There is an opportunity to get a qualification in media education but without the formal teaching qualification; Current teacher training (pre-service and in-service) in Estonia does not support media literacy of teachers and consequently the media education in Estonian schools. Teachers’ pre-service training is too isolated in the framework of particular faculties and does not use the competency that exists in the other parts of universities”

Our Luxembourg expert, George Fautsch, who is a practising teacher himself, describes the situation as follows: "There are no special requirements needed for the moment in our country. Some teachers come from the art teacher-side, others from literature, others from sciences, so for the moment everybody knowing about media or having skills in media is asked to teach. There are no qualifications asked for. Most of our media teachers are also involved in film or television. It is a pity, but our government and our ministry of education is not very interested in media education for the moment. As no particular degree exists for media teachers, in Luxembourg you have the obligation to acquire a master’s degree if you want to become a teacher in English, French, German, Arts, Sciences, and then you get the opportunity to become a media educator."

Irene from Greece says there exists only one MA Postgraduate Course, entitled "ICT in Education" run by four Faculties (Early Childhood Education, Communication & Media Studies, Department of Architecture, Department of Electronics Engineering) from three national Universities, that has partial reference to media education studies.

And in Austria "There are courses at universities but they are not accredited", Christine Wijnen writes.
2.6.4. In teacher training, are there any obligatory or optional courses available in the following fields – media pedagogy (media didactics); media theory (communication; film theory) analysis of media texts (films, computer games, etc.); media history (film history); media technology (multimedia, web design); sociology of media; psychology of media; economy of media; media production (film, radio, newspaper etc) – for students studying subjects not related to media education?

From the point of view of training media studies teachers, it is not immaterial in what academic fields teacher training institutions offer (or even require) media studies courses for students. The findings show that students are very rarely exposed to mandatory courses. The few exceptions include AT (media pedagogy/media didactics), FR (media technology), HU (media pedagogy, media theory, analysis of media texts, film history, media production) and SI (media pedagogy and analysis of media texts). In some of the countries electives more or less cover the major topics associated with media education (EE, ES, FI, IE, IT, LU, NL, PL), but in many countries training institutions do not even offer basic introductory courses for students (CZ, DE, LV, MT, PT, RO, SE, UK).

2.6.5 In a publication entitled Media and Information Literacy (MIL) Curriculum for Teachers, UNESCO specified the dimensions of a possible media curriculum in 2011. Are the areas outlined in the chart RELEVANT TO THE GOALS OF THE TRAINING OF MEDIA STUDIES TEACHERS IN YOUR COUNTRY?

Originally, we intended to compare curricula for obtaining an MA in teaching media studies, but eventually we decided against that. We did so partly because apart from Hungary, no European country offers specific training programmes for media studies teachers. Mind you, there are umpteen courses that might prove useful for a media studies teacher, but none of these are among the prerequisites for employing a media studies teacher.

Let us provide a few examples of training courses for media studies teachers on offer.

According to the previously quoted study entitled *Approaches to Learning with Media and Media Literacy Education – Trends and Current Situation in Germany* by Gehard Tulodziecki and Silke Grafe (Tulodziecki & Grafe 2012):

One can assume that every German teacher education programme at universities offers lectures and courses dealing with media issues, especially as teacher training curricula and teacher training examination regulations demand dealing with media issues (e.g. Tulodziecki and Six 2000; Kammerl and Ostermann 2010; Breiter, Welling, and Stolpmann 2010). Moreover, there are some universities that offer to set up a major field of study in the field of media or offer an additional qualification certificate (Herzig and Grafe 2007). However, all in all, the present situation shows that the recent activities—including the involvement of approaches for the second phase of teacher education—are still not sufficient to secure that all future teachers acquire the necessary skills for teaching about and with media. 69

Finland70:

- Those studying to become subject teachers complete a Master’s degree programme at the university. The pedagogical studies of a teacher can be completed alongside the major studies or after them. Visual arts teachers complete their Master's programme in arts universities.
- Those studying to become class teachers complete a Master's programme at university. The programme includes multidisciplinary studies in subjects that are taught in school. A media based class teacher programme was initiated in the University of Lapland in 1997.
- Those studying to become kindergarten teachers will have completed a Bachelor's degree programme since 1995.
- Those studying to become guidance counsellors usually complete a Master’s degree in education, which includes both guidance and pedagogic studies.
- Those studying to become vocational school teachers or polytechnic school teachers need to complete a degree programme from a respective area and possess work experience in the field. The pedagogical studies are completed in schools of vocational teacher education that operate as part of the universities of applied science.

University of Tartu, Estonia:

As we do not have a separate media education program, people with different BA backgrounds can take an MA in journalism. The journalism programme has two options for specialisation: practical journalism and media education. In addition, the Institute provides single subjects on media education at BA level and a special module at MA level. What should be the content of such modules? I will use the matrix of knowledge structures (Table below) and propose one possible approach for the content of media education modules.

The third and final task of any media module is to create an opportunity for the student teachers to involve knowledge in the classroom. The learning outcome is the student teacher’s ability:

1) to translate the knowledge into the questions and approaches that help to reflect the students’ media experience in the classroom
2) by using different methods provide opportunities to translate this everyday experience into critical analysis
3) to guide the students to discover new ways to use different media (Harro-Loit & Ugur 2008).

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69 Please consider links on the remarkably well-structured German website for training media studies teachers: Medienkompetenz in Schule und Unterricht; Lehrerbildung im Bereich von Medien und Informationstechnologien

70 Finnish Society on Media Education: Finnish Media Education Policies – approaches in culture and education
London South Bank University provides the following description for the BA course called English and Media Studies:

Course allows students to study English and media studies as distinct but integrated subjects; the degree encourages students to understand how the 2 subject areas complement one another, sharing critical and theoretical approaches to written and visual texts and an emphasis on analysis and close reading; as a combined subject media studies focuses on the academic analysis of the media in their political and social contexts; the aim is to encourage students to reflect on how the media operate as a set of symbolic practices and as institutions, and to develop a critical understanding of the production of media in a contemporary global context (...)

The BA course in film called English and Screen Media at St. Mary’s University College, Twickenham offers the following:

Film and Popular Culture Level 1: Courses will include: understanding cinema and television industry; theory and popular culture; researching popular culture; tv production; image, sound and narrative. Level 2: Introducing video production; writing for film and television; careers in the media; popular music, cultures and societies; representations of gender and sexuality in film; race and representation; approaches to popular culture: youth culture and screen texts; North American cinema; culture and society in modern Japan; documentary film; researching diaspora. Level 3: Advanced video production; screen and script; work experience project; independent research project; globalisation and multiculturalism; the tv series: cops and docs on the box; the paradox of horror; understanding Japan; online cultures and presentation of the self; animation; The Beatles and the counter culture; telling the troubles.
The MA course for Media and Communication at the City University London covers the following:

Core modules: media and communications theories; issues in media and communications research; approaches to social research; dissertation; electives: media information markets; developments in communications policy; political communication; democratisation, information and communication; representation and reception; transnational media and communication; culture and identity; globalising cities; rights, multiculturalism and citizenship; analysing media discourses; communication, culture and development; media and human rights; transnational communications and transcultural studies; theories of race and ethnicity.

In London alone there are around 30 relevant courses on offer, and the number swells to over 100 if we include courses specialising in ICT. These figures concerning higher education are very similar in Spain and Germany.71

Thus, we can conclude that in several of the member states no specialised qualifications exist for teaching media studies (e.g. in AT, EE, ES, IE, LT, MT, NL, UK) whilst the number of courses related to media studies offered by universities and colleges is rather high. Nonetheless, this bears absolutely no direct connection to the qualifications of media studies teachers working in formal education.

For this very reason it is merely partially possible to compare the objectives of teacher training with UNESCO’s Media and Information Literacy (MIL) Curriculum for Teachers. Results show that in the majority of the member states the training of teachers is in line with this UNESCO curriculum – at least as far as objectives go. There are, however, a few areas which are emphasised in the UNESCO document but are less apparent in the programmes for training media studies teachers (60% correspondence). These areas include preparing teachers for classroom management and improving the proficiency of media studies teachers. At the same time, the objectives of the UNESCO document are so softly defined that few training programmes end up confronting it.

71 The situation in Hungary is very special in that tertiary education does offer courses which train media studies teachers particularly. At the end of the undivided university training, they receive a certificate for teaching media, moving image culture and communication.
2.6.5. **What percentage of teachers teaching media literacy have qualifications related to media education? Please provide actual data (AND sources) where available. If no data are available, please give your best guess estimate.**

Our Austrian expert remarked that “There are no data; the absolute minority of teachers have a qualification in media literacy.”

The Polish example is very informative:

According to the new Polish core curriculum all teachers are responsible for the implementation of media education, but they do not specify the expected learning outcomes in this respect and responsibility for each task. Certain contents were specified for the training course, but none of them were stipulated as contents for media education. That is why it is impossible to monitor and evaluate in this area. The new core curriculum does not specify the person responsible for evaluating the progress of students in the field of media education and who controls the process of learning (Dąbrowska, Drzewiecki, Jasiewicz, Lipszyc & Stunża 2012).

The research shows that in the vast majority of the countries only 0-10% of those teaching media studies have had professional university or college training of some sort. Only a very few countries can be regarded as exceptions (DK, FI, HU, IT), where the proportion is 20-30%. The number of those holding a diploma from a professional crash course is not significantly higher either, whilst in 80% of the member states teachers teach media studies without any professional training whatsoever (80-100%). Teachers seem to hold a professional university or college degree in media education only in a handful of countries.

2.6.6. **Typically, who are the ones that end up working as media studies teachers in your country?**

There was an interview-based research project involving Slovenian media studies teachers in 2006. According to Erjavec and Volcic, the results show that

> Media studies teachers are very supportive of the course. They stress the importance of teaching critical media skills, and feel that the structure and organization of the course meets their needs. Most of them use textbooks and video-material and have done some kind of media education training. The teachers belong to younger generations and they claim that they are able to understand the children more, since they share the experience of growing in an increasingly mediated world (Volcic & Erjavec 2006)

A typical media studies teacher usually works as a teacher teaching another subject or other subjects, and then s/he self-teaches him/herself merely out of enthusiasm to
become a media studies teacher (70-80%). In about half of the countries the professional background is the same, however, self-education is not undertaken out of enthusiasm, but out of duty, i.e. because the teacher is delegated to teach media studies. It is also a common occurrence when guests (not teachers, but media professionals) teach media studies on occasion. Only in Hungary and in Slovenia do teachers become media studies teachers according to their original intention (albeit in small numbers).72

2.6.7. Is there a specialised network for media educators in your country which enables members to exchange work-related problems to promote good practices as well as to acquire information about upcoming major events and publications?

The work of media studies teachers in formal education is facilitated by some sort of network, NGO or (even state-funded) organisation in several of the countries, this is true in England and Germany in particular. These establishments perform a wide variety of activities from distributing information and making resource materials accessible for teachers to answering questions regarding media education, creating databases and organising events. Media studies teachers in AT, CZ, IE, LT, LU, LV, MT, PL, SE, SI do not have such forms of support at their disposal. Nevertheless, this latter negative result should be taken with a pinch of salt: just think of the remarkable Austrian journal Mediaimpulse. Still, our Austrian expert responded with a no to this question.

The following chart shows the networks addressing media studies teachers (among others) in 2013, as described by our respondents.

72 “Few studies have been published and little research has been done on teachers’ motivations for implementing media education into their classrooms, teachers’ judgement of media education goals and teachers’ perception of media education” – writes Silke Grafe, with a reference to research involving 200 American and 200 German teachers. The final report entitled Media Education in Germany and the United States: Teachers’ Motivations, Perceptions and Attitudes (2011) concluded that: “Media education is not an obligatory part of teacher education in the U.S. and Germany. Therefore it can be expected that teachers have little knowledge about media education as they have not learned about it in their initial teacher training or in professional training. In addition, one can assume that many teachers are not familiar with the production and action orientated media pedagogy itself, but that most of the participants will prefer an analysis-based approach to media education when they have to rate different goals of media education.”
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>countries</th>
<th>network</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AT</td>
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<td>BE</td>
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<td>CZ</td>
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<tr>
<td>DE</td>
<td>Our education server (“Deutscher Bildungsserver”) offers corresponding information nationwide under the option “media and education” (“Medien und Bildung”) <a href="http://www.bildungsserver.de/Medien-und-Bildung-2675.html">http://www.bildungsserver.de/Medien-und-Bildung-2675.html</a> especially in the fields of audiovisual film and cinema and media communication. VISION KINO (<a href="http://www.visionkino.de">www.visionkino.de</a>) as a public private partnership organization is engaged in nationwide networking – in this regard not specialized in media educators in general and exclusively, but VISION KINO e. g. offers training for in-service teachers during the annual school film weeks at cinemas, which take place in all 16 federal states, with the result that the trained teachers may get accreditation points.</td>
<td>Within all 16 federal states we have diverse institutions/networks operating in this way/field, you'll find these activities under <a href="http://www.bildungsserver.de/Landesbildungsserver-450.html">http://www.bildungsserver.de/Landesbildungsserver-450.html</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DK</td>
<td><a href="http://www.emu.dk">http://www.emu.dk</a></td>
<td>Specific network only for upper-secondary teachers. Primary and lower-secondary teachers teaching media are mostly mother-tongue school teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EE</td>
<td><a href="http://www.meediakoolitajad.edu.ee">www.meediakoolitajad.edu.ee</a></td>
<td>Eesti Meediakoolitajate Liit (Estonian Association of Media Educators), an NGO for motivating teachers; formally included more tertiary level educators who nowadays are competing rather than collaborating with each other or with teachers of upper secondary schools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EL</td>
<td><a href="http://www.medialiteracy-iom.gr">www.medialiteracy-iom.gr</a></td>
<td>There did exist a “Media Literacy Database for Children, Young People and the Media”, maintained by the Hellenic Audiovisual Institute (IOM), the national research organization on media, and media literacy, but it is no longer updated. The aim of the website was to provide a platform of communication, discussion and exchange of good practices on media literacy and media education in Greece, in typical and non-typical education. It was created to cater for the lack of and the need for a complete information center on ML, in order to coordinate the scattered initiatives, regionally and nationwide. The categories it covered were: ML Organizations, ML Research / Programs, Media Education, Media Literacy Policies, ML Library / Archive, ML Researcher’s Database, ML Events, ML Games.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FI</td>
<td><a href="http://en.mediakasvatus.fi/node/5568">http://en.mediakasvatus.fi/node/5568</a></td>
<td>Finnish Society on Media Education is an association which distributes the latest information on media literacy research in Finland. On this page you can find the latest Finnish projects which have produced information on media literacy and media culture of children and youth.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FR</td>
<td><a href="http://www.clemi.org/">http://www.clemi.org/</a></td>
<td>CLEMI’s network with different regional networks added in each “académie”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HU</td>
<td><a href="http://www.c3.hu/~mediaokt/angol.htm">http://www.c3.hu/~mediaokt/angol.htm</a> <a href="http://www.oktatas.hu/kozneveles/erettsegifeladatsorok">http://www.oktatas.hu/kozneveles/erettsegifeladatsorok</a></td>
<td>There was at one stage a &quot;Hungarian Moving Image and Media Education Association&quot; though this is no longer active. An archive of former final examination tests and marking keys.</td>
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<tr>
<td>IE</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IT</td>
<td><a href="http://www.media-and-learning.eu/resource/italian-association-for-media-education-med">http://www.media-and-learning.eu/resource/italian-association-for-media-education-med</a></td>
<td>Italian Association for Media Education (MED) is a non-profit organisation established in 1996 in Rome by a group of university professors, school teachers and media professionals. The objectives of its mission can be summarised as follows: to create a network among all the people who are interested</td>
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</table>
in the relationship between media and children/adult education; to promote research, study and experimentation in the field of media education, media studies and pedagogy; to foster the collaboration among the different stakeholders.

| LT | x | x |
| LU | x | x |
| LV | x | x |
| MT | x | x |

The members are not only teachers but also librarians, producers, educational distributors, lesson-material developers, training institutes etc. So our network combines the formal and informal practices in teaching media literacy and media related parental mediation. It offers its members media literacy information, congresses, online discussions, an agenda of events, publications.

| NL | www.mediawijzer.net | http://www.mediacultuur.net |
| PL | http://edukacjamedialna.edu.pl/ | x |
| PT | x | x |
| RO | mediaSIS@yahoogroups.com | https://www.facebook.com/groups/mediaSIS/ |
| SE | x | x |
| SI | x | x |

In February 2010 the IMEC – the Media Literacy Centre was created based on the initiative of the Faculty of Mass Media Communication of the University of St. Cyril and Methodius in Trnava. As the first and only one in Slovakia, the Centre of Media Literacy interlinks all of the initiatives of media education in Slovakia and provides comprehensive information regarding this area to the expert and lay public.

The design of the accredited educational programme of continuous training entitled "Qualification Study of the Subject Media Education for Secondary School Teachers" which enables secondary school teachers to acquire a complete qualification for teaching the independent subject Media Education, was one of the first activities of the Centre. The following belongs, besides others, among the main objectives of the IMEC – Media Literacy Centre: mapping of the state of media education in the domestic and foreign context, reporting on all educational and research projects dedicated to the topics of media education, media literacy, media education and digital literacy, creating a unified database and archiving research materials, publications, domestic and foreign sources, implementation of accredited qualification educational programmes for teachers of media education and informal educational and counselling activities, implementing research and operating the web portal, co-organising international conferences, seminars and the promotion of public discussion regarding issues related to media education.

| UK | http://www.mediaedassociation.org.uk/ | Media Education Association – group for support, networking, advocacy |
2.7. **What obstacles prevent media education from achieving its full potential as part of formal education?** (Other school subjects and learning areas have priority over media education; Teachers tend to see media education as extra workload; Curricula are overloaded and assessment is oriented towards factual knowledge and not towards critical reading skills; Teachers lack both the skills of critical reading and the methodology to teach critical reading; School culture does not support cooperation between teachers; Generation gaps; Doubts about the effectiveness of media literacy education at school)

There is unanimous consensus as to the fact that the educational potentials in teaching media studies are heavily impeded by other subjects and educational areas having a definite priority over media studies in formal education. 96% of the responding experts fundamentally or fully agree with this conclusion. (Finland is the only country that this is only partially true for.)

The success of media education is much less hampered by the considerable amount of extra energy, time and work that need to be invested in teaching media studies. Nevertheless, 59% of the experts consider this to be an important factor too. The enormous size of the curricula along with content-based evaluation in formal education works against achieving the full potential in media education, so the majority of responding experts believe. FI, HU and UK dissent from this view.

In half of the member states (especially in EE and SE) respondents cited shortcomings in teachers’ skills of critical reading and their lack of methods to teach critical reading as the primary hindrance to the effectiveness of media education. Even fewer countries find it problematic that school culture does not promote cooperation between teachers (29%). Generation gaps cannot be considered a determining factor as to whether or not the education system can make the most of media education (25%) even though in AT, CZ, EE, EL, RO and SK that is how it is perceived. There is definitely something wrong with efficiency, or at least that is how 50% of the countries account for the potential inadequacies of this subject area.

Nearly every educational expert emphasises the unresolved issue of teacher training as well as the indifference of decision-makers and governments and the lack of national policies, too (EL, HU, RO, UK). The absence of efficient pressure groups and the inability of ministries to
communicate with each other are also brought up when it comes to figuring out why media studies does so much more badly in education than its real potential (IT\textsuperscript{73}, LV\textsuperscript{74}).

It might not occur to everyone, but it is rather important that media education can incorporate phenomena and concepts into lessons that are restricted by law, or ones that are attached to the entertainment industry and so values attainable through teaching about them are belittled by public opinion (DE, EL)\textsuperscript{75}. It is equally compelling that teachers’ skills to create media products are very limited (and mainly exist in connection with the print media) while it is a pivotal question of media education whether or not teachers are actually able to create media texts (DE, UK). And of course, the scarcity of research opportunities and financial resources (and sometimes that of media devices) may act as strong impeding factors (FI, EL, HU, RO, PT).

\textsuperscript{73}“Lack of cooperation by the institutions and the Ministry” our Italian expert points out.

\textsuperscript{74} “There is no lobby or advocate standing up for media education, actors promoting its development,” remarks Inese Priedite from Latvia.

\textsuperscript{75} The school systems of several countries are reluctant to teach for instance about reality shows or the media representation of violence, emphasising the duty of education to impart values and to form standards.
III.

MAIN FINDINGS

RECOMMENDATIONS
3. MAIN FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS

In the following, we summarise what appear to be the major findings of the WP3 research into media education within formal education in Europe in 2012/13. Also, we propose a number of recommendations which are also meant to set the course for future research.

3.1.

Out of all the areas of media literacy development it is what exactly goes on in formal education that we know least about. We have absolutely no research and fact based knowledge about the work that is being done in European classrooms, i.e. in the black box of media education at schools.

**Recommendation:**

We propose to implement research (even several projects) that can reach classrooms in order to be able to create effective policy to promote and to make strategic plans to develop media literacy. Representative research projects into real classroom practices are needed in order to learn about the extent to which students develop outside school environments or while using media on a daily basis and/or with the help of courses provided by formal education. Such research is also necessary in order to find out in what ways it is worthwhile or possible to make suggestions and to encourage good practices in media education at schools.

3.2.

The results of the processes of media literacy development at schools are hard to measure. This is to a large extent due to the dominance of cross-curricular and integrated/modular forms of teaching media literacy. Sadly, the cross-curricular system is not necessarily linked with the evaluation and assessment practices customary in formal education (e.g. tests, presentations, grades). The undeveloped nature of measurement culture and the lack of exams further aggravate the problem, and as a result, it is only the intentions of media education that we know something about - primarily on the basis of curricula (We do hope that the WP3 research has contributed some valuable information to this knowledge by way of its report.) We know little about real outcomes though. Media-related skills are usually measured with research tools before media education is introduced in schools (e.g. HU in 1998,
SK in 2005), and later on this is left to ministries of education, where such research is rarely conducted.

**Recommendation:**

*We propose to reinforce the quality control of media education within formal education by promoting evaluation and assessment. Also, we recommend an opportunity be created to compare and harmonise the results of Testing and Refining Criteria to Assess Media Literacy Levels in Europe with the procedures of measuring media education at schools.*

### 3.3

The cross-curricular form does not motivate those involved in media education (including national educational policy makers, teachers and training institutions) to make serious investments in teacher training.

** Recommendation:**

*We propose research into the effectiveness and relevance of cross-curricular forms of media education (e.g. by modelling it on the Estonian research in 2009/2010) and also its comparison to other, non cross-curricular forms.*

### 3.4

Only in a few of the countries do educational policy makers commission tertiary education with the help of requirements related to media education to train media studies teachers specifically and to acknowledge their studies with a certificate. Similarly, there are not many scholarships or grants available for this purpose. For lack of stricter regulations to require special qualifications from media studies teachers, media education is at the mercy of the individual teachers’ ambition (or lack of ambition) all across Europe.

With the exception of FI, FR, IE, SI and SK, and partly DK, HU and LT, media studies is a sitting duck in the formal education of European countries and falls prey to whoever is interested or is delegated to teach it, regardless of whether he/she has relevant qualifications or not. This situation still appears to be rather distressing from
the perspective of professionalism, effectiveness and the acceptance of media education at schools.

3.5.

While about a decade ago there was hardly anything that could be considered media education at primary level, the situation has now changed completely. In over two thirds of the member states some activity related to media studies can be perceived. In other words, all the blank spots seem to have disappeared from the map of European media education in schools. This, however, does not mean that we are able to estimate the number of students learning media studies in Europe currently. The reasons for this are rather complex, but one contributing factor could be the fact that the majority of decisions concerning media education are made at school level. Thus, figures are only known locally, and hardly any regional or nationwide surveys are conducted.

**Recommendation:**

_We propose to prepare and conduct a special targeted research project that will enable us to provide a relatively accurate estimate of the number of students receiving media education in the EU27._

3.6.

The spread of media education in the cross-curricular form happens at a cost. Instead of its gaining a separate subject status in more and more countries, media studies loses it even in countries where it used to enjoy such a status, or it is downgraded from being a compulsory subject to the optional category (e.g. EE, HU, PL).

**Recommendation:**

_Serious efforts need to be made at European Union level so that the development of media literacy in formal education should become a mandatory study field and not just an elective or optional course. It also needs to be seen whether the separate subject status is actually more efficient than the cross-curricular form. As Vivianne Reding, European Commissioner, said, “Today, media literacy is as central to active and full citizenship as literacy was at the beginning of 19th century.”_
3.7. The wording of curricula related to cross-curricular media education is often very
generalised. Little can be gathered from these curricula as to the intentions of the
curriculum developers concerning actual knowledge content or topics to be covered.
This sort of curriculum does not aid teachers in creating their lesson plans as much
as it should. Counter examples, however, include CZ, FI and NL.

3.8. One of the key competences in schools is digital competence, which is closely
associated with areas of information and communication technology (ICT). This latter
has not swallowed up media education yet, but the relationship between these two
areas is rather confusing. Curricula do not indicate any real cooperation between
media education and the development of digital competence (with the exception of a
few countries including FI and NL). The broader the categories of skills, activities and
knowledge that are applied in formal education in connection with media literacy, the
less it is possible to turn the teaching of media into a school subject. An example of
this is the new UNESCO proposition to introduce media and information literacy
(MIL). Such broad definitions of what is to be developed simply do not fit the
frameworks of subject-based teaching, which is still widely applied in education. It is
discernible from media-related curricula, if vaguely, that there are certain countries in
Europe where film studies is seen as something important (e.g. in EL, DE, FR, HU, IE,
UK-NIR). However, the relationship between film or screen literacy and media literacy
needs to be clarified since the otherwise extremely overburdened world of schooling
can no longer incorporate ever newer subject areas to teach, and thus it keeps
pushing contents that seem related towards integration.

Recommendation:

It is advisable to set up a professional body which first surveys all the rather
imaginative uses of terminology and definitions present in professional literature, in
media literacy development and in its representation in schools. This board then
may attempt to propose feasible and effective models for handling the relationships
between Media Literacy, Digital Literacy, Information Literacy, Screen Literacy,
Computer Literacy and Audio-Visual Literacy (and their different combinations) in education – with a special emphasis on formal education. Besides delegates from the worlds of science and professional politics, it is vital that curriculum developers and expert teachers with experience in teaching should be representatives in this body.

3.9.

Thanks to the nature of the incorporating subjects, formal education chiefly regards media education as knowledge or skills closely associated with language and communication, civics, informatics as well as visual art, but this subject area has no clearly defined, distinctive focus in schools. (Politically and economically speaking, the priorities of media literacy as defined by the EU, namely commercials, European films and online media, are topics of paramount importance, and they do more or less appear in the curricula. Nonetheless, they are not suitable for providing a framework of topics and approaches for the different types of media education which exist within formal education. There is not one single country in the EU27 that has reconsidered its media related curriculum along these lines.)

The widespread use of the cross-curricular form, which integrates media studies into several different subjects, (along with other factors such as lack of teacher training, lack of institutional support, overburdened curricula, underpayment of teachers) defocuses or blunts the thematic edge of media education. The amount of media-related knowledge is reduced, and it is not clear who should teach media studies and with what expertise or qualifications. Evaluation procedures are hard to interpret and to implement, and thus the effectiveness of development is in doubt. And, as a result of all of this, the prestige of media education at schools diminishes. This is true despite the fact that educational policy makers do acknowledge the importance of the subject area.

Recommendation:

Since educational policy is within the scope of national legislation, the European Union has very few effective means by which to influence processes within formal education.

However, under the initiative of the European Parliament (which was joined by the Committee of the Regions and which has been featured in the final document of each
and every Europe-wide conference since 2008) media literacy has been acknowledged as the ninth key competence. This is an argument that could be used both professionally and politically. We do not recommend, however, to expand digital competence to include media literacy.

3.10.

At present, there is not one mainstream model of media education, which most other countries could follow. The Anglo-Saxon tradition is well-known and serves as an authoritative reference source everywhere, but this British framework can no longer be considered dominant – at least on the basis of the curricula. While in certain countries several different models may be in use at the same time, the following typical solutions can be identified:

a) Media education is a separate subject in certain school types and at specific levels of education (e.g. HU: in Years 9 and 11/12; SI: in Years 7 to 9 at lower secondary level; RO: Mankind and Society / Media Competence, (Years 9 to 12); UK: GCSE at upper-secondary level). With the exception of Hungary, in all of the above cases media education is an optional subject.

b) Media education is present as part of another subject. The development of media literacy is easily identifiable as a coherent curricular module for specific age groups and with specific contents. (FI - Mother tongue and literature – compulsory courses 2; EE - Media and its influences; EL - Audiovisual Expression; HU – History-Mother tongue-Visual Culture/Media module 1-3; IE - Social, Personal & Health Education (SPHE), RO – social studies/ Communication in a democratic society)

c) Media education is administered in the cross-curricular form with several different variations:

- there are media-related topics specified as part of a list of other cross-curricular topics or as part of the minimum requirements (EE, MT, SK)
- there are media-related contents which appear in several different subjects with detailed media-related segments, but they do not amount to separate modules in the curriculum (e.g. in CZ, DE, FI, FR, IT)
media-related contents appear in several different subjects, but they are only alluded to with media-related labels or key words (DE, EL, ES, PL, SE, SI, UK)

media-related contents are less specified, and the emphasis is rather on the pedagogical opportunities of development associated with the incorporating subjects (AT)

d) other forms:

there is no curricular background for media education, but media-related teaching is vividly practiced with the help of colourful source materials (NL)

media education is in its pilot stage at upper-secondary level (LT)

there is no curricular background for media education, and not much is done in this respect (LV, PT)

3.11.

Media-related curricula can be classified into three major categories: they can be focused, mixed focused and defocused on the basis of their contents and approaches. Elements of these clusters may vary from age group to age group.

Focused curricula place a primary emphasis on certain areas of academic discipline (e.g. social science, aesthetics, linguistics) or on a methodical approach (e.g. protective-supportive, aesthetic-cultural, critical, action-orientated). A mixed focus curriculum, on the other hand, is not characterised by an emphasis on any single branch of learning, trend in media education or action-orientatedness. A mixed focus curriculum means that while thematic preferences of one particular disciplinary area or the approach of one media education trend or another may be evident, it does not dominate the curriculum. Such a curriculum might stress the need to learn about tools or to use them. Also, it might set the general goal of developing critical thinking about the media and media texts.

A defocused media curriculum is not at all typified by an academic focus, by an affiliation with a media education approach or by action-orientatedness. Nonetheless, it must be borne in mind that the three categories focused, mixed focus and defocused are not items on a qualitative rating scale. In fact, a defocused curriculum may provide more successful working conditions for a well-qualified media studies teacher who has the necessary freedom to make his own decisions and sufficient
time for development. Also, a mixed focus or a focused curriculum might indeed assist a teacher with less time on his/her hands more in his/her endeavours to develop students effectively.

3.12.

One can observe an increasingly expressed shift towards the civic context (media education as a means of educating responsible and active citizens) as well as towards action, hands-on activities and creating, i.e. practical skills.

3.13.

On the basis of the curricula, the assumption that media education is moving from protection towards promotion is not justifiable. However, it is a valid fact that the conventional protectionist paradigm has lost its ground in the curricula and has given way to youth protection issues associated with network communication.

In media-related curricula there are frequent references to a new media environment including social media and other new phenomena. However, knowledge about and methodology of this new environment is rather volatile. This is not at all surprising if one considers the fact that media science is also struggling to find out what is still valid from the models describing old media and to what extent. In formal education it is dubious to expect teachers to develop students effectively in an area where there is no well-defined scientific background and where one can only talk of surmises or fashionable fads of academic/scientific discourse, but not of facts substantiated or refuted by research.

Recommendation:

We propose to create a website dedicated to media education where good practices as to how to handle key issues of new media in the classroom can be accessed. This website can and should be expanded into an archive of media literacy tasks and projects. Good practices are tested methods of media pedagogy that originate from university or academic circles, and which incorporate and are based on the verified findings of scientific research. There is a need for a set of standards that can help objectively evaluate such good practices.
3.14. Aside from a teacher’s expertise and the use of effective teaching methods, the amount of time devoted to developing students’ abilities or skills and final examinations are considered to be the guarantees for successful work in formal education. (Formerly, this list included a detailed specification of all the topics to be covered and a supervision of the coverage.) Apart from a handful of exceptions, no requirements warrant any one of these for media education within the education systems of Europe. The only tokens of quality and successful development lie in the knowledge of individual teachers and decisions made by school managements in favour of media education.

Recommendation:

We propose a recommendation to be made for educational politicians of the member states. This recommendation would be based on good practices and an analysis of the results produced by formal media education. Also, it would include the minimum requirements necessary for a successful and effective delivery of media education (including teacher training, source materials and tools as well as time frames for development).

3.15. Besides what is required by the curriculum, countless activities related to media studies may take place at a school. On the basis of the research we can state that status of media education is far more stable and imbedded this way than in the time frames determined by lessons and curricula. (In certain countries, such as the Netherlands, for example, media education outside the classroom can also be a ‘normal’ curricular activity and can be part of regular lessons in secondary schools.) It really looks as though the real environment for media education is outside the classroom in extracurricular activities, in study circles or in the students’ free time.
3.16.

According to the findings, a lack of tools no longer hinders the teaching of media studies with innovative and creative methods despite the fact that teachers still like to mention this problem. Depending on a country’s culture of methodology, necessary textbooks and syllabi are usually available – if the use of textbooks enjoys a greater role in education.

Recommendation:

There is a need for comparative research into media textbooks (i.e. materials aiding media education, illustrations and other teaching resources), which could be extended to include the interpretation of curricula, classroom work and evaluation. This would ultimately mean a step towards opening the black box of real classroom practices and media education in schools.

3.17.

In several of the member states (e.g. in DE, IE, NL, SK, UK), the work of media studies teachers in formal education is helped by networks, NGOs or other (sometimes even state-funded) organisations which offer a vast array of services such as providing information, making source materials available, answering questions regarding media education, building databases and organising events.

Recommendation:

The above-mentioned abundant sources are mostly available online and presumably distribute the most valuable materials for media education to date to a rather narrow audience in EU terms. It would be a huge step forward if they were made at least partially available at EU level. In order to achieve this, it would be absolutely necessary to set up a network of coordinating institutes that can help exchange information.
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IV.

APPENDIX
MEDIA LITERACY QUESTIONNAIRE

INTRODUCTION

Welcome to this survey targeted at national experts of Formal Media Literacy Education across EU Member States!

This survey is part of a European project called “EMEDUS: Study on European Media Literacy Education” and is financed under the Lifelong Learning Programme of the European Commission. For further information about the project, please visit the project website under this link: http://www.emedus.org/p/project.html.

This survey is undertaken as part of Work Package 3 of the EMEDUS project and is coordinated by the Hungarian Institute for Education Research and Development. The survey focuses on the following three major research questions:

- How is media education currently included in the national curricula across the EU27 to support media literacy?
- What are the requirements at the output points (which measure the level of competencies acquired as a result of the education, including testing and evaluation methods)?
- How are media teachers trained nowadays across Member States?

We highly appreciate your contribution and your national information to this research. Your answers will help us tremendously to conduct a comparative analysis of different educational approaches to media literacy as well as to derive meaningful recommendations for EU and national policy making in the field, which can only be drawn after a deep understanding of the realities of each Member State. Therefore, please be so kind as to provide as much information as you and your colleagues just can. This survey will take about 5-6 hours to complete and consists mostly of optional selection tests. However, you might be required to describe unique situations characteristic of your own country. We provide ample space for this throughout the survey.

Data use policy: please note that the data you provide will only be used for the EMEDUS project and will only appear in forms of concluding remarks or regional generalizations or analytical examples.

Privacy and anonymity policy: although we will request a person of contact in case we might need clarifications of your answers or ask you further questions, no names will be revealed or attached to the results.

The test is open until: 30.06.2013. Please be so kind as to respect the deadline and fill the survey out in English.

Thank you very much for your contribution. Should you have any further questions, please do not hesitate to contact us.

With best regards,

Laszlo Hartai
Research Leader
Work Package 3 - EMEDUS project
OFI (HIERD)
DEFINITIONS AND INSTRUCTIONS

Please carefully read the definitions and instructions below.

The survey is organised under four separate headings:
- location of media education along the curricula (different levels of formal education up to tertiary levels, i.e. excluding media studies in higher education at university level)
- description of output points: evaluation and instruments to measure media literacy in formal education
- description of what happens in the classrooms (realistic view)
- description of the teacher training process and its curricula.

DEFINITIONS:

Formal education (or initial education or regular school and university education)

Education provided in the system of schools, colleges, universities and other formal educational institutions that normally constitutes a continuous ‘ladder’ of full-time education for children and young people, generally beginning at age five to seven and continuing up to 20 or 25 years old.76

Media (literacy) education is the process of teaching and learning about the media.

Media literacy includes the competences to:
- access the media;
- understand and to critically approach different aspects of media contents and institutions;
- to create communication in a variety of contexts;

Media literacy relates to all media, including television and film, radio and recorded music, print media, the Internet and all other digital communication technologies.77

Media and Information literacy (MIL)

MIL stands for media and information literacy, and refers to the essential competencies (knowledge, skills and attitude) that allow citizens to engage with media and other information providers effectively and develop critical thinking and life-long learning skills for socializing and becoming active citizens. Media Literacy is used by the European Commission; MIL is used by UNESCO. In this questionnaire we use the term Media Literacy as a synonym of MIL.78

Digital literacy: It is the ability to use new ICT tools in order to participate in and take advantage of the Information Society. It implies the skills necessary to use computers; to retrieve, assess, store, produce, present and exchange information, and to communicate and participate in collaborative networks via the Internet. Digital literacy is the skills required to achieve digital competence which involves the confident and critical use of ICT for work, leisure, learning and communication.79

By curricula we mean the media literacy related aspects of the NATIONAL curricula.

We have divided the age groups as follows:

Primary education (ISCED 1: this level begins between 5 and 7 years of age, is compulsory in all countries and generally lasts from four to six years)

Lower-secondary education (ISCED 2: it continues the basic programmes of the primary level, although teaching is typically more subject-focused. Usually, the end of this level coincides with the

77 http://ec.europa.eu/culture/media/literacy/index_en.htm
Upper-secondary education (ISCED 3: this level generally begins at the end of compulsory education. The entrance age is typically 15 or 16 years. Entrance qualifications (end of compulsory education) and other minimum entry requirements are usually needed. Instruction is often more subject-oriented than at ISCED level 2. The typical duration of ISCED level 3 varies from two to five years.

Post secondary (ISCED 4: Post-secondary non-tertiary education. These programmes straddle the boundary between upper-secondary and tertiary education.)

**INSTRUCTIONS:**

1) Please mark your answers clearly using an „X”, a tick or a highlight.
2) If several options apply in your case, feel free to mark as many as necessary.
3) There are questions where we want your best guess estimate for lack of relevant statistical figures. *If you are absolutely uncertain about the answer, please consult someone who is more informed in that field.*
4) In a few cases, it is the media literacy teachers themselves who know the most suitable answer to the question. Please consult one or two before providing an answer.
5) Please remember that throughout the survey the term „curriculum” is used in the sense of and refers to parts of the national curriculum that concern media literacy.

**a) Which country do you represent?**

..................................................  

**b) Which organisation or organisations do you represent?**

..............................................................

**c) What is your job title or position?**

..............................................................

**e) For how long are you involved in media literacy education in your country?**

.................................
I. MEDIA CURRICULUM

1. Is media literacy education (as defined above and with a focus on primary, middle and secondary formal education) included in your top-level curriculum (national curriculum) and/or in any other top-level steering document?

   ○ yes  ○ no (if not, please go to question 15)

   If so, what kind of document is it included?

   ○ national/central curriculum
   ○ other top level curriculum (e.g.: curriculum of member states)

2. Is media literacy EXPLICITLY mentioned in your national curriculum or in any other top level steering document (regardless of the actual naming of the subject area) OR does the curriculum only contain IMPLICIT ALLUSIONS that may be associated with media literacy?

   explicitly mentioned  implicitly implied, scattered across other subjects of the curricula  absolutely no reference

   | 2 a primary | | |
   | 2 b lower-secondary | | |
   | 2 c upper-secondary | | |
   | 2 d post-secondary | | |

3. Is media literacy taught to each of the four age groups?

   | 3 a primary | ○ yes ○ no |
   | 3 b lower-secondary | ○ yes ○ no |
   | 3 c upper-secondary | ○ yes ○ no |
   | 3 d post-secondary | ○ yes ○ no |

4. In what form is media literacy taught to the various age groups? (You only need to answer this question if you marked YES for any one of the age groups in the previous chart.)

   Cross-curricular  Integrated into other subjects  Separate subject

   | 4 a primary | ○ yes ○ no |
   | 4 b lower-secondary | ○ yes ○ no |
   | 4 c upper-secondary | ○ yes ○ no |
   | 4 d post-secondary | ○ yes ○ no |

5. If media literacy is an integrated subject, WHERE IS IT COVERED in the curricula? (Please select as many options as relevant)

   visual art education  mother tongue education  social studies  civic studies or citizenship, social & civic studies  history  ICT or information studies, information technology  communication studies  environmental studies  health education  politics & law education  other (please specify)

   | 5 a primary | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
   | 5 b lower-secondary | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
   | 5 c upper-secondary | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
   | 5 d post-secondary | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
6. If media literacy is a separate subject, what is its STATUS?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject Level</th>
<th>It is compulsory/obligatory</th>
<th>It is optional</th>
<th>If it is optional, who can select?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>teachers can select</td>
<td>school Board can select</td>
<td>pupils can select</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- **6 a** primary: ○
- **6 b** lower-secondary: ○
- **6 c** upper-secondary: ○
- **6 d** post-secondary: ○

7. Does the top-level curriculum contain specific guidelines or does it leave decision-making regarding content, time frame and subject status TO LOWER-LEVEL CURRICULA?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Guidelines</th>
<th>Specified</th>
<th>Partly Specified</th>
<th>Linked to the lower level curricula</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7 a Guidelines regarding content</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 b Guidelines regarding time frame</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 c Guidelines regarding subject status (whether media studies should be taught as a separate subject) integrated into another subject</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8. To what extent does the definition of media literacy in your national curriculum comply with the definition by the EUROPEAN COMMITTEE outlined here in the Introduction?

Media literacy includes the competences to:
- access the media;
- understand and to critically approach different aspects of media contents and institutions;
- to create communication in a variety of contexts;
Media literacy relates to all media, including television and film, radio and recorded music, print media, the Internet and all other digital communication technologies.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject Level</th>
<th>Fully</th>
<th>Partly</th>
<th>Not at all</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8 a primary</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 b lower-secondary</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 c upper-secondary</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 d post-secondary</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9. According to the curriculum, what is the HIERARCHY OR THE RELATIONSHIP between digital literacy and media literacy?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Relationship</th>
<th>Media literacy</th>
<th>Digital literacy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9 a</td>
<td>digital literacy means the same as media literacy</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 b</td>
<td>the two fields are completely unrelated</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 c</td>
<td>digital literacy is part of media literacy</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 d</td>
<td>media literacy is part of digital literacy</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10. Does the curriculum put a special emphasis on one PARTICULAR MEDIUM or several media?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject Level</th>
<th>Yes if so, please describe which medium(s) is (are) preferred</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10 a primary</td>
<td>....................................................................................</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
11. In what terms does the curriculum express its objectives?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>the curriculum is expressed in terms of requirements and expectations</th>
<th>the curriculum is expressed in topics to be covered</th>
<th>the curriculum is expressed in terms of activities to be done</th>
<th>a combination of all three</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>11 a primary</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 b lower-secondary</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 c upper-secondary</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 d post-secondary</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

12. How are the topics to be covered by the different age groups STRUCTURED IN RELATION to each other in the curriculum?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>there is a build-up or accumulative curriculum (where topics covered are not revisited, and the next level is based on the already acquired knowledge)?</th>
<th>relevant</th>
<th>irrelevant</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12 a</td>
<td></td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 b</td>
<td>there is a spiral curriculum (enabling students to revisit topics as they progress in school)</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 c</td>
<td>there is a modular curriculum (enabling students to learn about certain media-related topics within the framework of another subject)</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 d</td>
<td>there is a combination of the three types of curricula above</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 e</td>
<td>there is no connection between the topics taught to the different age groups</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

13. Are the curriculum and its supplements detailed enough to enable teachers to create their own lesson plans?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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</tr>
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</table>

14. Please mark (1) to indicate that the statement is completely false / irrelevant to your media literacy curriculum, and mark (5) if the statement is totally in agreement with your media literacy curriculum

14.1 The general approach of the curriculum is characterised by the method of teaching and learning WITH media.
14.2
The general approach of the curriculum is characterised by the method of teaching and learning ABOUT media.

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<th></th>
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</tbody>
</table>

14.3
The general approach of the curriculum is characterised by the concept of PROTECTING-SUPPORTING (youth protection policy), which aims to handle the dangers of modern media including violence, manipulation, data misuse, the abuse of personal rights, media dependence, etc.

<table>
<thead>
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</table>

14.4
The general approach of the curriculum is characterised by the AESTHETIC CULTURE ORIENTED CONCEPT, which sets out to teach students to truly understand media “language” and focuses on the critical reflection on both its contents and its realisation.

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</tbody>
</table>

14.5
The general approach of the curriculum is characterised by the FUNCTIONAL SYSTEM-ORIENTED CONCEPT, which aims to describe and interpret the workings of the media industry. Students can gain insight into the structure of the media and media messages, conditions of media production and media reception and the social relevance of public communication.

<table>
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</tbody>
</table>

14.6
The curriculum is characterised by the CRITICAL-MATERIALIST APPROACH, which encourages students to analyze media, their ideological character and social conditions. Learners are enabled to create media messages and publicity for their own interests and needs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>(1) irrelevant / does not apply</th>
<th>(2) slightly applies</th>
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14.7
The general approach of the curriculum is characterised by the **ACTION-ORIENTED CONCEPT**, which aims to improve the students’ media-related practical skills. This focuses on the reflected use of existing media products and discusses the students’ own media contributions in the sense of communicative competence and social action.

<table>
<thead>
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<th>(2) slightly applies</th>
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14.8
The general approach of the curriculum is based on **SOCIAL SCIENCE**.

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</table>

14.9
The curriculum focuses on the **LINGUISTIC AESTHETIC** aspect of the media.

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</table>

14.10
The curriculum is mainly **TECHNOLOGY-ORIENTED** and focuses on teaching the use of media devices.

<table>
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</table>

14.11
Media studies is a cross-curricular subject, and media education is theory put into real practice. Media as a cross-curricular theme is emphasised in the educational and teaching work. Objectives and contents are incorporated into numerous subjects. Through them, the educational challenges of the time are also met.

<table>
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</table>
### 14.11
Media studies is a cross-curricular subject. However, the teaching of media literacy is rather marginalised: the goals and requirements set out in the curriculum are rarely achieved.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>(1) irrelevant / does not apply</th>
<th>(2) slightly applies</th>
<th>(3) moderately applies</th>
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### 14.12
Media studies is a cross-curricular subject. Even though government policy does acknowledge its importance, decision-makers are not fully devoted to the real and effective integration of this subject area.

<table>
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### 14.13
The teaching of media studies is characterised by EPISODIC MEDIA EDUCATION. This means situations with media-related educational dilemmas, judgements and/or rules (often relating to the moral task and issues of schools).

<table>
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</table>
II. MEDIA EDUCATION – OUTPUT POINT

15. If media is taught as a separate subject, is there a major final examination to assess the students? What type of exam is it (e.g.: international baccalaureate), what methods are used to examine the students and what type of certificate is provided? (Please tick as many options as relevant.)

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</table>

16. Are there OTHER SYSTEMS OF ASSESSMENT in use?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>student products</th>
<th>projects; portfolios</th>
<th>written tests, quizzes</th>
<th>presentation s, talks</th>
<th>individual oral tests</th>
<th>homework assignments</th>
<th>essays, case studies</th>
<th>debates, panel discussions</th>
<th>observation</th>
<th>self assessment</th>
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</table>

17. What FORMAL MEASUREMENTS are used to evaluate student performances at school?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>letters from A to F (seven-scale grading)</th>
<th>numbers from 1 to 5 (five-scale grading)</th>
<th>three-scale grading</th>
<th>percentages</th>
<th>descriptors (excellent, average, completed, etc.)</th>
<th>oral evaluation</th>
<th>other types of evaluation</th>
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18. Are national or regional STATISTICAL RECORDS collected of students’ achievements in media education?

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### III. MEDIA EDUCATION – FACTS OF THE CLASSROOM

19. Please indicate the approximate amount of TIME DEVOTED TO TEACHING MEDIA STUDIES. (In most cases this is usually expressed by giving the number of hours per week.) If no figures are available, please give your best estimate. 

*Also, feel free to tick as many options as relevant.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Time Devoted</th>
<th>&quot;epochs&quot; (intensive study periods)</th>
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<td></td>
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<td>1-2 hours/week</td>
<td>more than 2-3 hours/week</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1 week/year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2 weeks/year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2+ weeks/year</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 19 a primary
- Grade 1
- Grade 2
- Grade 3
- Grade 4
- Grade 5
- Grade 6

#### 19 b lower-secondary
- Grade 7
- Grade 8
- Grade 9
- Grade 10
- Grade 11
- Grade 12
- Grade 13

#### 19 c upper-secondary
- Grade 14
- Grade 15

#### 19 d post-secondary
- Grade 16

20. Based on WHAT REALLY HAPPENS IN THE CLASSROOM (and not on the guidelines and expectations outlined in the curricula), what GOALS DO TEACHERS AIM TO ACHIEVE while teaching media?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Protection</th>
<th>Understanding</th>
<th>Critical</th>
<th>Development</th>
<th>Understanding</th>
<th>Development</th>
<th>Dissuading</th>
<th>Cultivation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>students</td>
<td>of media</td>
<td>of media</td>
<td>of media</td>
<td>of media</td>
<td>of media</td>
<td>students</td>
<td>of cultural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>from the</td>
<td>related</td>
<td>evaluation</td>
<td>production</td>
<td>forms or</td>
<td>textual</td>
<td>from bad</td>
<td>identity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>negative</td>
<td>moral dilemmas</td>
<td>of the</td>
<td>skills</td>
<td>genres</td>
<td>analysis</td>
<td>habits of</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>influence</td>
<td></td>
<td>media</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>skills</td>
<td>media</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>of the media</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>consumption</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 20 a primary
- Grade 1
- Grade 2
- Grade 3
- Grade 4
- Grade 5
- Grade 6
- Grade 7
- Grade 8

#### 20 b lower-secondary
- Grade 9
- Grade 10

#### 20 c upper-secondary
- Grade 11
- Grade 12

#### 20 d post-secondary
- Grade 13
- Grade 14

21. What is the PROPORTION of each of the following TEACHING AND LEARNING METHODS used in media education? Please give your best guess estimate and make sure the total comes to 100%.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Frontal Teaching</th>
<th>Frontal Teaching (&quot;chalk and talk&quot; method)</th>
<th>Collaboration</th>
<th>Collaboration (teacher’s questions followed by class discussion)</th>
<th>Problem solving, creative work or playing in small groups</th>
<th>Presentation (projects, students’ work discussed by whole class)</th>
<th>Tests or any other forms of evaluation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 21 a primary
- Grade 1
- Grade 2

#### 21 b lower-secondary
- Grade 3

#### 21 c upper-secondary
- Grade 4

#### 21 d post-secondary
- Grade 5
- Grade 6
- Grade 7
- Grade 8
- Grade 9
- Grade 10
- Grade 11
- Grade 12
- Grade 13
- Grade 14
- Grade 15
- Grade 16
22. What EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITIES are linked to formal media education? (Please, tick if applies.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>film clubs</th>
<th>study circles for filmmaking or media</th>
<th>school media (TV, radio, news, etc.)</th>
<th>visits to the headquarters of professional media</th>
<th>internship at media institutions</th>
<th>conferences</th>
<th>competitions</th>
<th>summer workshops, media camps</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>22 a</td>
<td>primary</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22 b</td>
<td>lower-secondary</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22 c</td>
<td>upper-secondary</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22 d</td>
<td>post-secondary</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

23. Do media teachers have any of the following at their disposal to assist them with the teaching of media literacy?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>national or regional guidelines</th>
<th>Textbooks (licensed by the education authorities)</th>
<th>teaching materials (selected by the teacher)</th>
<th>demonstration tools (e.g. projector or digital board)</th>
<th>recording devices used for creative work (e.g. camera)</th>
<th>access to the Internet</th>
<th>media lab</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>23 a</td>
<td>primary</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23 b</td>
<td>lower-secondary</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23 c</td>
<td>upper-secondary</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23 d</td>
<td>post-secondary</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

24. Do the following institutions provide funds to be applied for in order to finance media education?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>institutions at national level (e.g. ministry)</th>
<th>media authorities</th>
<th>institutions at a regional and local level (e.g. council)</th>
<th>media industry (e.g. national or local broadcasters)</th>
<th>other educational and cultural actors, foundations (if yes, please specify)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>24 a</td>
<td>financial support for in-service teacher training</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24 b</td>
<td>financial support for teaching materials and learning resources</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24 c</td>
<td>financial support for technological development</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24 d</td>
<td>financial support for conferences, festivals and other initiatives</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
IV. MEDIA EDUCATION – THE TEACHING PROFESSION

25. Are there any ACCREDITED PROGRAMS to provide professional training to media literacy teachers?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Post-graduate programs providing a master’s degree in media studies</th>
<th>In-service teacher training in a university setting</th>
<th>30-to-120-hour crash courses not organized by a college or university</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>25 a</td>
<td>for primary and lower-secondary teachers</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25 b</td>
<td>for upper-secondary teachers</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

26. Are there any REGULATIONS regarding the required qualifications of a media studies teacher in formal education?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>teachers can ONLY teach the subject if they have an academic degree in media education</th>
<th>teachers can teach the subject if they have an academic degree regardless of their specialisation</th>
<th>teachers can teach the subject if they have any certificate of a training course in media education</th>
<th>there are absolutely no regulations concerning the qualifications of a media studies teacher</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>26 a</td>
<td>primary</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26 b</td>
<td>lower-secondary</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26 c</td>
<td>upper-secondary</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26 d</td>
<td>post-secondary</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

27. In tertiary education, what MAJORS/PROGRAMS offer the opportunity to qualify as a media studies teacher? What level is granted?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>BA + teaching qualification</th>
<th>MA + teaching qualification</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>27 a</td>
<td>○ communication or media studies</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27 b</td>
<td>○ film studies</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27 c</td>
<td>○ journalism</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27 d</td>
<td>○ literature</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27 e</td>
<td>○ political science</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27 f</td>
<td>○ library science</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27 g</td>
<td>○ pedagogy and education</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27 h</td>
<td>○ information technology</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27 i</td>
<td>○ other (please specify)</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27 j</td>
<td>○ no opportunity to qualify as a media studies teacher</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

28. In teacher training, are there any obligatory or optional courses available in the following fields for students majoring in subjects not related to media education?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>obligatory</th>
<th>optional</th>
<th>none</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>28 a</td>
<td>○ media pedagogy (media didactics)</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28 b</td>
<td>○ media theory (communication; film theory)</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28 c</td>
<td>○ analysis of media texts (films, computer games, etc.)</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28 d</td>
<td>○ media history (film history)</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28 e</td>
<td>○ media technology (multimedia, web design)</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28 f</td>
<td>○ sociology of media</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28 g</td>
<td>○ psychology of media</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28 h</td>
<td>economy of media</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28 i</td>
<td>○ media production (film, radio, newspaper etc)</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
29.
In a publication entitled Media and Information Literacy (MIL) Curriculum for Teachers the UNESCO specified the dimensions of a possible media curriculum in 2011. Are the areas outlined in the chart below RELEVANT TO THE GOALS OF THE TRAINING OF MEDIA STUDIES TEACHERS IN YOUR COUNTRY?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key curriculum areas</th>
<th>Knowledge of media and information for democratic discourse</th>
<th>Evaluation of media and information</th>
<th>Production and use of media and information</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>29.1 Policy and vision</strong></td>
<td>29.1 a Preparation of media and information-literate teachers</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29.2 Curriculum and assessment</td>
<td>29.2 a Knowledge of media, libraries, archives and other information providers, their functions and the conditions needed to perform them</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29.3 Pedagogy</td>
<td>29.3 a Integration of media and information in classroom discourse</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29.4 Media and information</td>
<td>29.4 a Print-based media – newspapers and magazines information providers – libraries, archives, museums, books, journals, etc.</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29.5 Organization and administration</td>
<td>29.5 a Knowledge of classroom organization</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29.6 Teacher professional development</td>
<td>29.6 a Knowledge of MIL for civic education, participation in the professional community and governance of their societies</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
<td>○ yes ○ no</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

30.
1.1.2 What percentage of teachers teaching media literacy has qualifications related to media education? Please provide actual data (AND sources) where available. If no data is available, please give your best guess estimate.

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>30 a</strong></td>
<td>teachers with an academic degree of higher education in media education</td>
<td>.........................%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>30 b</strong></td>
<td>teachers with a certificate from a diploma course in media education</td>
<td>.........................%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>30 c</strong></td>
<td>teachers with no qualifications in media studies</td>
<td>.........................%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

31. Typically, who are the ones that end up working as media studies teachers in your country? 
(Please only tick the most characteristic options.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>university students with the intention of becoming media studies teachers after taking a teacher's degree in media studies</th>
<th>teachers already teaching media studies (without any related qualifications), and who later participate in retraining or a crash course.</th>
<th>already working teachers of other subjects who are keen on media studies and self-teach themselves out of mere enthusiasm</th>
<th>already working teachers of other subjects who self-teach themselves out of a sense of obligation</th>
<th>occasional guest speakers who are not professional teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>31 a primary</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31 b lower-secondary</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31 c upper-secondary</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31 d post-secondary</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

32. Is there a specialized network for media educators in your country, which enables members to exchange work-related problems, to promote good practices as well as to acquire information about upcoming major events and publications?

○ yes (if so, please briefly describe the network and also provide its homepage) ○ no

AND THERE’S JUST ONE MORE QUESTION LEFT — UNRELATED TO THE FOUR MAJOR TOPICS ABOVE, IT IS STILL VERY IMPORTANT

33. What obstacles prevent media education from achieving its full potential as part of formal education? Please indicate the importance of the factors below. Also, please add a maximum of three more hindering factors.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>33 a Other school subjects and learning areas have priority over media education</th>
<th>(1) irrelevant / does not apply</th>
<th>(2) applies slightly</th>
<th>(3) applies moderately</th>
<th>(4) applies mostly</th>
<th>(5) applies entirely</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>33 b Teachers tend to see media education as extra workload</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33 c Curricula are overloaded and assessment is oriented towards factual knowledge and not towards critical reading skills</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33 d Teachers lack both the skills of critical reading and the methodology to teach critical reading</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33 e School culture does not support cooperation between teachers</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33 f Generation gaps</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33 g Doubts about the effectiveness of media literacy education at school</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33 h</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33 i</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33 j</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1. General information

1. When was your central/top level curriculum introduced (or last modified)?
   
2. How many levels does your curriculum system have?

E.g. it is a one-level curriculum (there is only one document, at national level) or it is a multi-level system, with more detailed curricula (e.g. local curricula) based on a less detailed central curriculum. Please give some detail or links to Eurypedia pages.

Comments, if any:

2. The curriculum as a regulatory document

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>irrelevant / does not apply</th>
<th>slightly applies</th>
<th>moderately applies</th>
<th>mainly applies</th>
<th>entirely true</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A.1. It is a closed curriculum (strictly determining time frames, competencies, contents and/or contexts to be addressed through teaching)</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A.2. It is an open curriculum (defining main outlines, conceptual and time framework, key concepts and giving more scope for diverse teaching processes)</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.1. The curriculum is a general, brief document providing an overall framework with key concepts of pedagogy</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.2. The curriculum is a long document with detailed descriptions elaborating pedagogical concepts and content</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Comments, if any:

3. Content regulation in the curriculum

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>irrelevant / does not apply</th>
<th>slightly applies</th>
<th>moderately applies</th>
<th>mainly applies</th>
<th>entirely true</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C.1. It is content-based</td>
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<td>C.2. It is competence-based</td>
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<td>D.1. The curriculum is organized around broad fields of study (e.g.: Man and Nature)</td>
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### APPENDIX (NC QUESTIONNAIRE)

**D.2. The curriculum is organized around subjects / subject areas (e.g.: Biology, or Biology and Geography)**

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**E.1. The curriculum focuses on learning outcomes / result-orientated**

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**E.2. The curriculum is process-oriented (focusing on the learning journey)**

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**F.1. The curriculum is mainly input-oriented (focusing on contents, teaching activities, timeframe etc.)**

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**F.2. The curriculum is output-oriented (less detailed in terms of content, focusing more on output to be achieved by pupils, which is tested at exams)**

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**G.1. The curriculum prescribes minimum criteria for content**

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**G.2. The curriculum does not prescribe minimum content requirements**

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**H.1. The curriculum supports teachers' and schools' autonomy**

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**H.2. The curriculum restricts teachers' and schools' autonomy**

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Comments, if any:

### 4. Some other features of the central/top level curriculum

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<th>irrelevant / does not apply</th>
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<th>moderately applies</th>
<th>mainly applies</th>
<th>entirely true</th>
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<tr>
<td>I.1. The curriculum is dominated by traditional subjects.</td>
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<td>I.2. The curriculum is dominated by cross-curricular areas (crosscutting concepts).</td>
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<td>J.1. The curriculum gives a priority to problems and phenomena of everyday life.</td>
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<td>J.2. Problems and phenomena of everyday life remain marginalized in the curriculum.</td>
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<td>K.1 Integrating contents (e.g. including new contents in already existing subjects or subject areas) is a characteristic feature of the curriculum.</td>
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<td>K.2. The curriculum fosters content differentiation (e.g. creating new subjects).</td>
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Comments, if any: