

Media teachers' discursive understandings in developing 21st century education:

Are we the tugboat, the satellite, or the terror cell?

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This labor of love has had many interruptions on the way and developed as I, both as a researcher, teacher and project developer, have gained new insights, and as the educational field and our media-saturated society has developed even more. What was initially a four-year Ph.D. project has taken some interesting turns. When I was offered to lead a project on how to develop work-based digital literacy training for in-service teachers in 2015, I saw that as a natural consequence of my Ph.D. project and could not say no. When I was offered to lead a project on developing digital literacy in teacher education in 2018, I thought the same. Even though these projects have postponed the final submission of my Ph.D. thesis, they have strengthened my understandings of the need for media literacy perspectives in 21st century education and, most importantly, the need for research-based teacher training in digital and media literacy. School is increasingly becoming a major commercial market where digital tools and systems are often introduced without considerations of consequences for pedagogical practice or critical reflection on affordances. In-service teacher training is often left to the commercial industries selling the digital solutions. Teacher education, at least in Norway, has not managed to keep up with the digital development in school, and new teachers do not necessarily have the media literacy needed to critically and creatively develop 21st century education fostering emancipation and democratic citizenship. The pandemic has made this even more evident as teachers have tried to force classroom practices into online formats and social media are flooded with misinformation.

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Synnøve H. Amdam, December 2021

Summary of Thesis

The overarching aim of this thesis is to explore media teachers' understandings of being teachers, of their educational practices and goals, and how the teachers link these understandings to their epistemic beliefs within a framework of 21st century and media literacy education and research, particularly within a study program established as an explicit answer to the challenges of the 21st century, combining academic and vocational media education in upper secondary school in Norway; the Media and Communication (MC) program started in 2000.

Based on a theoretical, methodological, and analytical foundation in discourse analysis connected to theoretical and conceptual understandings of professions, communities of practice and epistemic beliefs and practices, the thesis explores how communities of teachers at two case schools relate their understandings and practices to the discursive fields of media literacy and 21st century education, and how these teacher understandings reflect tendencies in the broader field of the study program and fields of education. I also discuss how these discursive understandings develop within professional communities of practice and how they interact with broader discursive orders and epistemic practices in school.

The thesis' unit of analysis shifts between the discursive fields of education and research, teacher interviews and background survey data. Starting with a meta-review on educational frameworks within the 21st century education discourse compared to discursive understandings of the media literacy research field and a thematic review on media teachers, the thesis then zooms in on the teachers' own understandings both as communities of practice and as individual professionals, through focus group and individual interviews and field studies at the two case schools. As media teachers' understandings is a rather underexplored research field both nationally and internationally, a national survey of the teachers in the study program serves as a broader context for exploring tendencies in the educational field. To ensure transparency in the exploratory mixed-methods approach, the thesis takes inspiration from methodological ideals in dialectical pluralism.

The MC program as case provides interesting insights into how school culture, local communities of practice and more deep-seated epistemological understandings of competence and the goals of education interact in school. The study program provides an arena for many "battles" in education, between theoretical knowledge and practical know-how, between subject-oriented goals and 'bildung'-goals for education, between an understanding of students as individual knowledge-builders and as social participants in learning communities, and thus how educational practices offer different and conflicting discursive understandings of what 21st century education could and should be.

The core of the thesis is the three articles presenting the main findings. Article 1 starts with the discursive concepts and understandings available in the field of media literacy research and education,

in a scoping review that show how the conceptual understandings of media literacy has evolved from a rather narrow perspective of training individual skills for media protection, towards a broader agenda of fostering public media competences within democratic societies on an individual, interactional and systemic level, mainly with a focus on student outcomes and educational practices. The findings establish what are the main research topics in the field and discuss if a joint understanding of media literacy is possible and wanted. Through establishing what the main research topics are, it also becomes evident what is not among the main research topics – research on the media teachers and their perceptions of educational practice.

Article 2 has this last finding as a starting point. The existing conceptions of the media teacher within media research literature are addressed, exploring if and how they function as underlying discourses for how media teachers see themselves as educators and motivate their educational practice within a policy-framework of 21st century education. The findings suggest that there are different and conflicting understandings of being media teachers, resulting in different educational practices with wider implications for the future implementations of media education.

Article 3 contextualizes the media teachers' perceptions in article II within institutional settings, thematized the core educational practice of production work in the MC program, examining the teachers' interpretative repertoires on student participation and educational goals in using this method of teaching. In addition, the underlying historical media discourses addressed in the former articles are thematized within an institutional framework. The findings suggest that the media teachers' interpretative repertoires on production work are framed by theoretical and pedagogical reflections connected to media education discourses that thematize 21st century education and competences, but that these understandings are not necessarily evident or appreciated within the broader school context.

Comparing findings across articles, the MC teachers typically focus on both the individual, interactional and systemic levels of media literacy, with working and learning in ways that foster creativity and critical reflection seen as the main goal of the MC program. The findings also indicate a clear development in the media teachers' positioning and interpretative repertoires dependent on their participation in the community of practice of the MC program. Their understandings of themselves as teachers develop through how they negotiate the educational practice in their shared professional culture. There are also distinct differences in educational practice that point to deeper epistemic beliefs and cultures. First between an educational practice of the production-oriented pedagogue in the academic MC program and an editorial practice of vocational mentors in the vocational school as presented in article 2, and second, between the educational practice of collaborative production work across the MC programs and the educational practice of individual academic achievement across the general education classes as presented in article 3, offering profound challenges for developing 21st century education perspectives and understandings within the broader school context.

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Article I

Erstad, O., & Amdam, S. (2013). From protection to public participation: A review of research literature on media literacy. *Javnost–The Public*, 20(2), 83–98.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/13183222.2013.11009115>

Article II

Amdam, S. (2017). Media education goes professional? Media teachers' self-image, positioning and educational focus. *Nordicom Review*, 38(1), 81–95. <https://doi.org/10.1515/nor-2016-0019>

Article III

Amdam, S. (2016). The dangers of having fun - Doing production work in school. Tensions in teachers' repertoires on media education. In O. Erstad, K. Kumpulainen, Å. Mäkitalo, K. Schrøder, P. Pruulmann-Vengerfeldt, & T. Jóhannsdóttir (Eds.), *Learning across contexts in the knowledge society* (pp. 85–108). Boston: SENSE.
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-6300-414-5_5

Part I

Extended Abstract

1. Introduction

The reference to being the tugboat, the satellite, or the terror cell in the subtitle of this thesis refers to how media teachers see themselves as educators within the broader school setting in a 21st century education context. What constitutes 21st century education and the skills it requires have become a widespread topic in education policy and reform in the recent decades. Different initiatives in this discursive field emphasizes diverse perspectives but generally focus on collaboration and communication, digital and media literacy, and social and cultural competencies, like creativity, entrepreneurship, critical thinking, and problem solving, as necessary for the work force of tomorrow (Griffin, MacGaw, & Care, 2012; Voogt & Roblin, 2012). Learning to apply knowledge is viewed as equally important as core subject knowledge and learning abstraction in school, and the student is often positioned as an actively collaborative learner with both peers and teachers (Binkley et al., 2012; Dede, 2010). These are components and understandings of learning and educational practice that are also central in media literacy research and education. Media literacy is increasingly perceived as a core component of 21st century education by educational researchers and policymakers, and in different 21st century skills frameworks (Frau-Meigs & Torrent, 2009; P21, 2006).

However, the different advocates of developing media literacy in 21st century education seldom specify what media education within a 21st century framework would look like, or how the educational practices would be framed by teachers' own understandings of their role and their perceived goals of education. In fact, media education teachers have historically not been a main focus in media literacy research (Berger & McDougall, 2010; Hart, 1998; Weninger, Hu, & Choo, 2017). Instead, media literacy research has typically focused on policy, educational practices, and the gaps and consistencies between in-school and out-of-school teaching and learning. It also has a long tradition of focusing on the students in (media) education, not the teachers' positions on and understandings of what and how students should be taught and learn. The teachers' perspectives may thus offer new insights into the scope of developing education for the 21st century.

1.1 Media education and media literacy in a 21st century Norwegian context

The starting point of my thesis is the understanding of competence and literacy in the discursive field of 21st-century education and in media literacy studies. Media education has historically been linked to development in both creative industries and literacy understandings in schools, and media literacy education has increasingly been designated part of 21st-century education and as a prerequisite to developing an informed citizenry in the knowledge society (Kellner & Share, 2005; Rassool, 1999).

Media education thus represents an interesting study object for how different epistemic understandings of competence and literacy motivate teachers' understandings and educational practices within a 21st-century education framework. This dual discursive purpose oriented me toward a media

education program that was created specifically to respond to the challenges of the 21st century in Norway (Erstad, Gilje, & de Lange, 2007a; Gilje, 2002). The Media and Communication (MC) program in upper secondary school started as a hybrid program in 2000, integrating vocational and academic elements and providing both vocational qualifications and the opportunity to study further at the university level, depending on the choices that students made (Frøseth, Hovdhaugen, Høst, & Vibe, 2008). The program and its educational context are described further in chapter 2.

A full-time, three-year media program with an emphasis on both media production work and critical reflection, MC also employs full-time media teachers recruited from diverse backgrounds in an attempt to balance the program's academic and vocational qualities. It is notable from the perspective of teacher understandings of educational goals and practices in a 21st-century framework that previous research has shown that these teachers often challenge traditional ways of teaching and learning in upper secondary school (de Lange & Ludvigsen, 2009; Erstad & Gilje, 2008; Erstad et al., 2007a; Erstad, Gilje, & de Lange, 2007b).

The MC program as a case provides valuable insights into how school culture, local communities of practice, and more deep-seated epistemic understandings of competence and the goals of education interact in schools. The program is an arena for many “battles” in education—between theoretical knowledge and practical know-how, between subject-oriented goals and *Bildung* goals for education, between an understanding of students as individual knowledge-builders and as social participants in a learning community—and thus how teaching practices offer different and even conflicting discursive understandings of what 21st-century education can and should be.

1.2 Overarching aims and research topics

The overarching aim of this thesis is to explore media teachers' understandings of being teachers, of their educational practices and goals, and of how they link these understandings to their epistemic beliefs within a framework of 21st-century and media literacy education and research.

Both in the Nordic countries and internationally, the research literature on media education has mainly been concerned with policy- and user-oriented perspectives, why different understandings of media education are needed and how it can and should be taught to benefit the students (Erstad & Gilje, 2008, p. 221). The main *empirical* focus has been on educational practices and the role of the student (Erstad & Amdam, 2013; Martens, 2010). Thus, media teachers are described indirectly, through “dos and don'ts” of policy and educational practice. Who they are in terms of background and how they understand being teachers of media education have, with a few exceptions (Hobbs & Tuzel, 2017; Kist, 2005; Quin, 2003a; Weninger et al., 2017), received little attention (Berger & McDougall, 2010; Hart, 1998).

The lack of knowledge of this group of teachers is not merely relevant in discussing the forming factors in media education and what is required to develop it further. The understandings and struggles of these teachers also reflect broader challenges in implementing 21st-century competencies in school, competencies that policymakers increasingly view as essential for the future workforce and broader development of democratic and market-based societies in a media-saturated world (Dede, 2010). Competencies such as digital skills, communication, critical reflection, participation, and creativity have all been essential parts of research on media education and media literacy education for more than 40 years (Buckingham, 2003; Erstad & Amdam, 2013; Masterman, 1998). By developing a better understanding of the perceived challenges in implementing these aspects of media education from the teacher perspective, we can also gain insights into challenges in implementing 21st-century skills in school.

This background informed the design of the present study. As in media education research more broadly, the MC program had previously been investigated with a focus on educational practices and student perspectives (de Lange & Ludvigsen, 2009; Erstad & Gilje, 2008; Erstad et al., 2007a, 2007b). The lack of knowledge regarding teacher perspectives on the program and in the research field more generally required an exploratory approach to meet the aims of the research, as is addressed below.

The thesis is theoretically framed within a discourse analytical understanding. It is based on research reviews and an empirical, exploratory, sequential mixed methods study in which a descriptive national media teacher survey serves as an exploratory backdrop for the primary data source: a case study over a period of four months. The case study was conducted at two schools with a total of 22 MC program teachers.

The primary analytical focus is on the contextualized interview materials in the case study, reflecting on discursive hypothesis formed by tendencies that emerged from the national teacher survey results. By comparing contextualized focus group and individual interviews and media teacher and general education teacher interviews in specific local contexts, subject positions, and interpretative repertoires, the understandings of and conflicts in and between repertoires and educational practices are explored.

As an exploratory project with the overarching aim of examining media teachers' educational understandings and practices, the research process developed through sequential hypothesis testing to ensure that my discursive understandings and preconceptions as a researcher were explicit. The initial hypothesis of the project was that the curriculum in the MC program was interpreted and expressed differently in educational practice, depending on the teachers' professional backgrounds, media literacy, and understandings of educational goals, as previously indicated by MC program research (Erstad & Gilje, 2008; Erstad et al., 2007a). This leads to the overarching research question:

Within a framework of 21st-century and media literacy education, how do media teachers, as exemplified by MC teachers, perceive themselves as educators, and how does this motivate their educational practice?

Through an exploratory research process, this question was investigated by looking into historical media education discourses and then operationalized in both quantitative and qualitative ways through the empirical research questions:

Who are the MC teachers; what characterizes MC teachers in terms of educational and vocational backgrounds and understandings of being teachers?

Why do the MC teachers teach the way they do; what motivates the MC teachers' educational practices and perceived educational goals?

The exploratory aims and research questions were gradually formulated into three focal areas linked through three articles. Thus, the project examines and gradually zooms in on educational practices, starting with the discourses available in the field of media literacy research and education in Article 1, and continuing with the interaction between these discourses and the interpretative repertoires the media teachers use as part of their professional understanding and self-image in Article 2. Based on these findings, the focus then narrows in on the relation between how the teachers see themselves as educators and how they perceive their students and the goals of education in Article 3, finally discussing the tensions in educational practice and goals between media and general education teachers in an institutional school setting.

1. The first article explores the research topic of media literacy and media education through a scoping review of current discourses and positions in media literacy research. Our aim in this article is to show how the conceptual understandings of media literacy have evolved from a narrow perspective of training individual skills for media protection toward a broader agenda of media competencies for public participation within democratic societies, with a focus on student outcomes and educational practices. The findings establish the main research topics in the field and examine whether a joint understanding of media literacy is possible and wanted. Establishing the main research topics also makes clear what is not among the main research topics: research on media teachers and their perceptions of educational practice. The article resulted from a media studies-initiated European Science Foundation Forward Look background paper (Erstad, Amdam, Müller, & Gilje, 2012) and published in the then-level 2¹ media studies journal *Javnost* as part of a special issue::

Erstad, O. & Amdam, S. (2013). From protection to public participation: A review of research literature on media literacy. *Javnost - The Public*, 20(2), 83-98.

2. The second article starts from the finding in Article 1 of the limited knowledge on media teachers. The existing conceptions of the media teacher in the media research literature are addressed, exploring whether and how they function as underlying discourses for how media teachers see themselves as educators and motivate their educational practice within the policy

¹ In the Norwegian scientific publishing system, level 2 is considered the highest standard of scientific publishing. Each journal's level is evaluated every year. Both journals for Articles 1 and 2 were on level 2 at the time of publishing and in the subsequent two years but are now at level 1.

framework of 21st-century education. The goal of the article is to explore the main research question of how MC teachers perceive themselves as educators and the implications for media education practices through the following research question: *What self-images, positioning, and interpretative repertoires do media teachers in the MC program utilize in describing themselves as teachers, and how do they perceive these understandings to influence educational practice?* The findings suggest different and conflicting understandings about being media teachers that result in different educational practices with wider implications for the future implementation of media education. The article was published in the then-level 2 journal *Nordicom Review*:

Amdam, S. (2017). Media Education Goes Professional? Media Teachers' self-image, positioning and educational focus. *Nordicom Review*, 38(1), 81-95.

The third article contextualizes the media teachers' perceptions within institutional settings and explores implementing media education understandings and goals in educational programs that have general education outcomes, all from a teacher perspective. The article's main research question is thematized by discussing what was found to be the core educational practice of production work in school and examining the teachers' interpretative repertoires on student participation and educational goals in using this method of teaching. In addition, the underlying historical media discourses addressed in the first two articles are thematized in an institutional framework. The research question that Article 3 thus seeks to answer, based on the main research question of motivations for educational practice, is the following: *As exemplified in the MC program, what are the tensions in and between the interpretative repertoires teachers use in discussing student participation and educational goals within a context of production work in school?* The findings suggest that media teachers' interpretative repertoires on production work are framed by theoretical and pedagogical reflections connected to media education discourses that thematize 21st-century education and competencies, but that these understandings are not necessarily evident or appreciated within the broader school context. Article 3 originally appeared as a book chapter:

Amdam, S. (2016). The Dangers of having Fun – Doing Production Work in School. Tensions in teachers' repertoires on media education. In O. Erstad, K. Kumpulainen, Å. Mäkitalo, K. Schrøder, P. Pruihlmann-Vengerfeldt & T. Jóhannsdóttir (Eds.) *Learning across Contexts in the Knowledge Society* (pp. 85-108). Boston: SENSE.

1.3 The structure of the extended abstract

This thesis has two parts, this extended abstract (Part I) and the three articles (Part II). Following this introduction, the abstract has four more chapters. It follows the guidelines established by the Faculty of Educational Research at the University of Oslo in 2011, the year I was admitted to the PhD program. An exploratory mixed methods research project of this scope would not have been undertaken if initiated after 2017, when extended abstracts were limited to 60 pages. To follow the research positioning and ideals of transparency on which I build my research design, as described in chapter 3.3, and also to have further value in an underexplored research field, the methodological part of this exploratory mixed-methods research project must be detailed, including survey batteries not used in the articles as presented in chapter 4 and in appendix III.

In chapter 2, I discuss different understandings of competence, knowledge, skills, and literacy and compare the review findings on media literacy perspectives in Article 1 with an updated meta-review on the discourse of 21st-century education. I focus on media literacy understandings in this discourse as contextualizations of the article findings.

Chapter 3 is a presentation of the theoretical framework and analytical concepts used in this thesis. I draw mainly on discourse psychology perspectives in discourse analysis and connect them to theoretical and conceptual understandings of professions, communities of practice, and epistemic beliefs and practices.

In chapter 4, I present my research design, which is inspired by the ideals of transparency in dialectical pluralism (DP), arguing for why a mixed methods research design is appropriate and discussing my methodological choices, focusing first on the main qualitative materials and then on the background materials. I explain the research questions, participants, data, and analysis within and across the articles. Finally, I address research credibility through discussions of reliability and transparency, validity and trustworthiness, and ethical considerations.

Chapter 5 is a summary of the main findings of the three articles and a discussion of findings across the articles pertaining to the primary research question of the thesis. I then point to the empirical, theoretical, and methodological contributions of my thesis before offering concluding remarks on the implications of my research.

2. Review and development of the field and relevant research

The link between media literacy and 21st-century skills as educational features of the information and knowledge society had already been established in research by the early 2000s (Kellner & Share, 2005; Rassool, 1999; Thoman & Jolls, 2004). However, conceptualizations of media literacy, the borders of the concept of digital literacy, and the distinctions between literacy, competence, and skills are somewhat blurred, both as discussed in research (Buckingham, 2003; Gilster, 1997; Nichols & Stornaiuolo, 2019; Valtonen, Tedre, Mäkitalo, & Vartiainen, 2019) and in 21st-century educational frameworks like P21 and ATC21S (described below); they often depend on author perspectives and underlying political, educational, and research discourses.

2.1 Skills, competence, and literacy — The same, only different?

Norway's last educational reform, the Knowledge Promotion Reform in primary, lower secondary, and upper secondary education and training in 2006, included a clear 21st-century skills understanding of the goals of education (Hølleland, 2007) that was reinforced and made more explicit in 2020 with the “renewal” of the reform introducing a new conceptual understanding of competence in the Norwegian curriculum:

Competence is the ability to acquire and apply knowledge and skills to master challenges and solve tasks in familiar and unfamiliar contexts and situations. Competence includes understanding and the ability to reflect and think critically (UDIR, 2020a, p. 11).

This understanding is very much in line with a 21st-century education focus on applying knowledge as equally important as abstraction in school (Binkley et al., 2012; Dede, 2010), in contrast to earlier curricular understandings, portrayed by Michael Young (1999b, p. 468) and others, that emphasized the written as opposed to oral or other textual forms, the individual rather than the group, and abstraction rather than application of knowledge. Correspondingly, cross-curricular themes of health and life skills, democracy and citizenship, and sustainable development were also introduced in an effort to “future-proof” education (UDIR, 2020a), in line with the cross-curricular goals found in the 21st-century education discourse, as I discuss further below.

A similar development occurred in literacy research. Developing in parallel to the often workforce-oriented discourse of 21st-century education (Dede, 2010), educational research views of what constitutes being literate in today's media-saturated society have gradually become oriented toward similar understandings. Focusing on meaning-making practices, Roger Säljö (2010, p. 59), for instance, describes a historical development in education and understandings of literacy contingent on technical, social, and semiotic features of how social memory is organized and on the expectations of competent performances. Based on this historical development, he sees today's understanding of being literate as

our ability to make insightful and productive use of the collective resources in locally relevant ways that is of interest [...], transforming information so that it becomes relevant for specific purposes (Säljö, 2010, p. 60).

Thus, the focus in literacy studies, according to Säljö, has shifted toward a social and contextual application of knowledge. Säljö connects this development to the social-semiotic understandings of Günther Kress (2003) and the focus on the consequences for our meaning-making practices of the increasingly multimodal nature of texts. Erstad (2015, p. 89) emphasizes how this understanding of literacy comes from a research tradition that defines literacy as embedded in specific social practices. Lankshear and Knobel (2006) definition of literacy encompasses social practices that change over time:

Socially recognized ways of generating, communicating and negotiating meaningful content through the medium of encoded texts within contexts of participation in Discourses (or, as members of Discourses) (Lankshear & Knobel, 2006, p. 64).

This implies a wider sense of texts and the social understandings and contexts for their use that is in line with the discourses of media literacy research discussed in Article 1 (Erstad & Amdam, 2013). However, the concept of *literacy* does not have a ready translation in Norwegian and is sometimes used as equivalent to competence, as in the curriculum quote above, and sometimes to the concept of *Bildung*, which the teachers discussed in this thesis sometimes refer to as the end goal of education. I thus try to clarify the Norwegian conceptualizations used in this thesis.

The term *skills* is often defined as the ability to use different kinds of tools functionally, as described in the category of information and communication technology (ICT) competence or technical competence in section 2.2.1. It thus has a much narrower understanding than competence in the Norwegian context, in contrast to international initiatives that describe skills and competencies for the future, such as the European Union's initiative on "key competencies" or U.S. initiatives on "21st-century skills," where a broad conceptual understanding is applied (EU/KeyCoNet, 2006; P21, 2006). Here, the concepts are used strategically to include several different competencies and skills that future citizens need to possess. Many can be traced back to the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) and the expert panel that created the Definition and Selection of Competencies (2005). The DeSeCo documents refer in part to social policies of the 1990s that emphasized key competencies and core skills (Rychen & Salganik, 2001, p. 8) and in part to internal processes in the OECD regarding what are known as cross-curricular competencies: "knowledge and skills related to outcomes of education in a broad sense" (Salganik, Rychen, Moser, & Konstant, 1999, p. 13).

Bildung, on the other hand, has traditionally had a broader understanding than competence in a Norwegian setting. In Norway and the Nordic countries more generally, *Bildung* includes not only the knowledge, competencies, and skills but also the attitudes and perspectives that make it possible for us to function as citizens in an increasingly complex society (Løvlie, 2003). In a Nordic context,

competence, *Bildung*, and literacy are sometimes conflated or treated as still-evolving concepts. For some, competence and literacy are gradually replacing *Bildung* in the Norwegian policy context (e.g. Hermann, Glaser, & Holthe, 2003). However, in the media teachers' understandings, *Bildung* remains a clear educational goal.

In both the concepts and framework descriptions used in the 21st-century education discourse, there is an implicit divide between perspectives that concentrate on tools and technical skills and broader focuses on critical and creative perspectives on the use of digital media, stemming from research traditions with different roots, as described in Article 1 and in other reviews of the media and digital literacy field (e.g. Martens, 2010; Nichols & Stornaiuolo, 2019). The degree to which critical reflection and creative production are foregrounded and backgrounded in media literacy education shifts as events unfold (Jolls & Wilson, 2014). With today's developments in social media and coronavirus vaccine hesitancy, for instance, there is now a stronger political focus on developing critical media literacy to counter fake news in many national educational discourses, including those in Norway (Medietilsynet, 2021).

The focus of media education in different countries and thus media teachers' mandated educational goals depend on these developing discourses and conceptualizations in a global digital media landscape that is constantly shifting. In recent decades, we have seen media literacy become more central as an educational focus in some countries and regions: in Finland's strategy for media education, which was established in 2013 and further developed in 2019 (Ministry of Education and Culture, 2019); in the U.S. educational framework "Partnership for 21st Century Skills" (P21, 2006), in the EU's annual call for member nations to report on media education programs and activities (Livingstone & Wang, 2013), and in UNESCO's ongoing global initiatives on media and information literacy (2021). However, there are still broad differences between countries in both conceptualizations and educational focuses, as described in Article 1 and elaborated in other reviews (Buckingham et al., 2005; Martens, 2010; Nichols & Stornaiuolo, 2019).

Whereas Article 1 seeks to map out these different conceptualizations and focuses in recent years, Articles 2 and 3 provide discursive snapshots of what media literacy education in a 21st-century discourse might look like at a certain place and time from a teacher perspective, as discourses are historically contingent and subject to change (McHoul & Grace, 1993, p. 31). I first contextualize these historical snapshots in the broader 21st-century education setting before elaborating on the specific context of my research.

2.2 Media literacy in the discursive field of 21st century skills and education

In Article 1, different research perspectives, positions, and discursive understandings in media literacy research were investigated to clarify how media literacy is conceptualized and to identify the research

areas it entails, mainly in a European setting (Erstad & Amdam, 2013). To see how these understandings connect to or differ from the broader discursive field of 21st-century education, and to be able to discuss the media teachers' discursive understandings across articles in the final chapter of this thesis, I present these conceptualized discursive understandings of media literacy before comparing them with conceptualizations of the discursive field of 21st-century education through a scoping meta-review, providing a research synthesis that maps the literature on a particular topic or research area and identifies key concepts for further investigation and comparison (Daudt, van Mossel, & Scott, 2013).

2.2.1 The discursive field of media literacy research

The main finding of Article 1 is that the different discursive perspectives in media literacy research can be related to three different levels: the individual, the interactional, and the systemic.

The focus on the individual level in the reviewed literature concerns personal skills and competencies and covers media effects issues, reception analysis, cognitive skills, and critical theory. On one hand, an agenda of protection from the risks of media use and the development of critical skills through education exists (W. J. Potter, 2004; Schwarz & Brown, 2005; Silverblatt, Ferry, & Finan, 2009), on the other, studies discuss personal empowerment and emancipation as outcomes of media literacy initiatives (Livingstone, 2010; Martens, 2010). Four conceptual understandings are found in the literature: a focus on *access* to media (e.g. Buckingham et al., 2005; Livingstone, Haddon, Görzig, & Ólafsson, 2011); different focuses on *skills* (e.g. Buckingham, 2009; Eagle, 2007; W. J. Potter, 2001), *understanding* through analysis, evaluation, and critical interpretation (e.g. Buckingham et al., 2005; Kellner & Share, 2005), and *production and creativity* through active participation in media production (e.g. Coiro, Knobel, Lankshear, & Leu, 2008; Drotner, 1991; Erstad et al., 2007b). The literature on this level thus focuses on *how to use* media in educational practice and learning *with* the use of media, which is very much in line with the use of terms such as “computer literacy,” “ICT literacy,” and “internet literacy.”

The interactional level in the media literacy literature concerns social interactions and practices. Research that focuses on collective rather than personal aspects of media literacy investigate media literacy as social interactions and social practices using media: that is, the activities that people are involved in within communities and societies. The first three concepts, *participation* through activity and community involvement (e.g. Itō, 2010; Jenkins, 2006; Kubey, 2004; Thoman & Jolls, 2004), *citizenship* (e.g. Lewis & Jhally, 1998; Rivoltella, 2009; Silverstone, 2004) and *emancipation* (e.g. Kavoori & Matthews, 2004; Legrande & Vargas, 2001; Yosso, 2002) have traditionally been linked in discussing media literacy in media research, while the concept of *content creation* has come to the fore in later years as media technology has become increasingly accessible and with the rise of social platforms for interaction, sharing, and co-creating (e.g. Livingstone, 2004; Marsh, 2010). The

literature at this level thus often focuses on how media practices *contribute to* learning and how to become educated *through* media use.

On a systemic level, we find focuses on media systems and contents. This research stream involves the “object of analysis” in media literacy: what media literacy is directed toward. As such, it covers the entire media studies field and the issue of why it is important to study the media. The review discerns four conceptual focuses in the literature: a focus on *content* as perceived by different audiences (e.g. Kellner & Share, 2005), *aesthetics* in the form of cultural codes or grammars and genres in different media (e.g. Brown, 1998; Jewitt, 2008; Kress, 2003), *systems* such as ownership and political economy (e.g. Duran, Yousman, Walsh, & Longshore, 2008; Lambert, 2009) and *institutions* in ways they select, form, and direct media content (e.g. Primack, Sidani, Carroll, & Fine, 2009). Here the focus is thus often on learning *about* media in educational practice.

We find some unifying tendencies in the literature in the form of a growing consensus that media literacy is both a social phenomenon and an individual characteristic. Media literacy development is also largely linked to economic growth and the development of civic consciousness and political maturity, making all three levels relevant to future research and media literacy education and to 21st-century skills and education. However, if media literacy really is an essential part of 21st-century education, we need to understand what media literacy perspectives and understandings are thematized in 21st-century education frameworks.

2.2.2 The discursive field of 21st century education

For a 2014 meta-review of 21st-century education frameworks, I was in a research group led by Ola Erstad that investigated 28 frameworks based on four review articles in report to the Ludvigsen committee (Erstad, Amdam, Arnseth, & Silseth, 2014), a government-appointed committee on renewing Norway’s Knowledge Promotion Reform. Parts of this report are developed below to show how media literacy research and understandings accord with or differ from understandings and competence conceptualizations in central 21st-century education frameworks.

Using systematic searches in EBSCO and Google Scholar databases for that government report, four newer review articles and book sections stood out as relevant for comparing discursive understandings of 21st-century education. The goal of the search was to find systematic, scoping, or thematic reviews of frameworks to establish the most commonly cited 21st-century education conceptualizations and frameworks. The search was conducted for online academic review journal articles and books published between 2000 and 2013. The core search terms were “21st OR twenty-first century skills” AND “education” AND “review.” However, as “skills,” “competence,” and “literacy” are often used interchangeably in the literature, we also searched for “21st OR twenty-first century competencies,” “21st OR twenty-first century literacy,” “21st OR twenty-first century learn*” and “21st OR twenty-first century edu*”. The focus was on primary and secondary education in the further selection. To

supplement these computer searches, the references in articles that only thematized certain aspects of the field were also searched.

The following studies met the criteria of offering systematic overviews of concepts and international initiatives in the discursive field: Binkley et al. (2012); Dede (2010); Kereluik, Mishra, Fahnoe, and Terry (2013); Voogt and Roblin (2012). The same selection of literature has later been used to investigate roles for new technologies in the curriculum (Erstad & Voogt, 2018). Repeating the database search with the same criteria for 2014 to 2020 for this thesis, the search action was narrowed to the ERIC and Google Scholar databases, as all the articles from the earlier search were found in the ERIC database, and both give access to comprehensive lists of education-related articles. As the goal of the search was to find the most systematic reviews of frameworks to establish the most commonly referred to 21st century education frameworks and conceptualizations in primary and secondary education, not reviews of specific 21st century education research areas, this updated scoping review resulted in the addition of one newer systematic review article on primary education (Chalkiadaki, 2018), and a newer evidence-based review of frameworks by the Centre for International Research on Education Systems (CIRES) at Victoria University for the New South Wales Department of Education (Lamb, Maire, & Doecke, 2017).

Altogether, these six reviews present and synthesize 32 different 21st-century education frameworks from various parts of the world in response to a number of public and private initiatives. Some frameworks are commonly used across the six reviews. The most frequently cited initiatives in developing future-oriented education, from which I draw examples, are the following five frameworks, often cross-national and commercially initiated or developed in cooperation between commercial and educational research interests.

OECD/DeSeCo—The DeSeCo was developed by the OECD in 2001 with the goal of crafting a strategy to define, choose, and assess competencies and skills among children and adults (OECD/DeSeCo, 2005).

P21—The Partnership for 21st Century Skills was established in the United States in 2002 as a coalition of private actors, educational actors such as the National Education Association, and the U.S. Department of Education to position 21st-century skills in curriculum development in U.S. K–12 education; it has developed the Framework for 21st Century Learning (P21, 2006).

NCREL/Metiri—The Metiri Group, an international educational firm, and the educational organization The North Central Regional Educational Laboratory (NCREL) developed enGauge 21st Century Skills for 21st Century Learners in 2003 (NCREL/Metiri, 2003).

EU/KeyCoNet—The EU defined eight “key competences” in 2006 with DeSeCo as background, leading to the Key Competence Network on School Education (KeyCoNet) project, organized by the European Schoolnet (EU/KeyCoNet, 2006).

ATC21S—The Assessment and Teaching of 21st Century Skills project was initiated by the international companies Cisco, Intel, and Microsoft, with links to the OECD and contributions from 250 international researchers in 2009–2012 (ATC21S, 2009).

These frameworks and their discursive focuses have a different starting point—addressing concerns of consortiums with economic interests—than media literacy research discourses rooted in academic research traditions. I cite examples from these five efforts in discussing the focus on media literacy across frameworks. In comparing the review articles above, we found 10 agreed-upon areas of competencies across three main categories in the 2014 report (Erstad et al., 2014). I found the same categories when expanding from 28 to 32 frameworks in 2021.

Foundational competencies: All the reviews emphasize two foundational competencies; subject competence and digital or media competence or literacy, subject competence is thematized either explicitly (Dede, 2010; Kereluik et al., 2013) or implicitly (Binkley et al., 2012; Lamb et al., 2017; Voogt & Roblin, 2012), while all emphasize digital or media competence or literacy explicitly. Chalkiadaki even claims that digital literacy “ranks highest than all other skills in researchers and education stakeholders’ interests” (2018, p. 9), and is the primary reason why 21st century skills differ from those of the previous century.

Meta competencies: In Binkley et al. (2012), “ways of thinking” and “ways of working” are largely equivalent to what Dede (2010) calls “learning and thinking skills” and Kereluik et al. (2013) call “meta-knowledge.” These are also covered in Lamb et al. (2017) and Voogt and Roblin (2012) as competencies in: communication and collaboration, creativity and innovation and critical thinking and problem solving, and in Chalkiadaki (2018) as knowledge and information management skills. The reviews also have fairly parallel understandings linked to developing competencies in learning, as competencies in meta cognition, learning to learn, contextual learning or cross-curricular learning.

Life competencies. All the reviews thematize social and cultural consciousness in the form of what Binkley et al. (2012) call “living in the world,” Dede calls “life skills,” and “21st century content,” Kereluik et al. (2013) call “human knowledge,” Chalkiadaki “social skills” and Lamb et al. (2017) specify as self-efficacy, conscientiousness, and grit or perseverance in competence areas that can be divided into personal and social responsibility with ethical and emotional awareness, cultural awareness and competence and life and career/work competence. Two reviews (Binkley et al., 2012; Dede, 2010) also explicitly thematize local and global citizenship.

The review researchers identify variations in four main areas between the synthesized frameworks: how competencies are categorized and grouped, which competences are seen as most important, whether core subjects are included in 21st-century competencies, and how ICT or digital or media competence or literacy is emphasized. All the frameworks have ICT as a main area of focus, but some of the frameworks describe ICT as a separate area of competence (P21 and ATC21S), while the rest integrate it into other 21st-century competencies. The NCREL/Metiri framework focus mainly on digital literacy and the integration of technology into the curriculum (NCREL/Metiri, 2003), whereas the ATC21S (ATC21S, 2009) is more focused on digital assessment.

The variations in the treatment of ICT are the focus of further elaboration on similarities and differences between media literacy research conceptualizations and 21st-century framework conceptualizations of media and digital literacy, as a background for the discussion in chapter 5 on the MC teachers' discursive understandings and epistemic beliefs. I first investigate the focus on the specific category of digital or media competence or literacy across frameworks before exploring how the other 21st-century skills categories thematize media literacy.

2.2.3 Digital and media competence and literacy in the 21st century frameworks

As in the broader research field described earlier in this chapter, the review articles and frameworks often divide digital competence into understandings based more on tools and skills, called ICT or technological competence, and broader forms of competencies, such as information competence or media competence. The dividing line is often between the ability to use technology *per se* and the cultural competencies required to use technology for a variety of purposes in different discourses and social settings, as is described in section 2.2.1. The exception in the reviews' frameworks is KeyCoNet, which operates with a shared concept called digital literacy, and the ATC21 framework, which uses the concept of ICT and information literacy separately and focus on knowledge, skills, and attitudes, values and ethics connected to both of these areas (ATC21S, 2009).

ICT competence is specifically conceptualized in the OECD, P21, and NCREL/Metiri frameworks. Three conceptualizations dominate: 1) understanding technological concepts, systems, and operations; 2) using technological tools, especially for gathering and processing information; and 3) ethical use of technology in both personal and social contexts. These are very much in line with the research topics on the individual level in the media literacy review, through different focuses on *skills* (e.g. Buckingham, 2009; Eagle, 2007; W. J. Potter, 2001), *understanding* through analysis, evaluation, and critical interpretation (e.g. Buckingham et al., 2005; Kellner & Share, 2005), and focusing on *how to use* media in educational practice and learning *with* the use of media.

Digital competence, which is often called information and media literacy in the frameworks, represents a broader understanding of technology, media, and information. This includes a wider focus on learning *about* specific technology, media, and information, learning *through* the use of technology, media, and information, and learning *with* technology, media and information. The DeSeCo framework, for instance, focuses on critical reflection on information: "its technical infrastructure and its social, cultural, and even ideological context and impact" (OECD/DeSeCo, 2005, p. 11). The P21 and ATC21S frameworks emphasize skills in analyzing media: "Understand both how and why media messages are constructed, and for what purposes. Examine how individuals interpret messages differently, how values and points of view are included or excluded, and how media can influence beliefs and behaviors" (Binkley et al., 2012, p. 52). All the frameworks also emphasize learning *through* technology, as in how to use technology efficiently in different contexts to achieve

specific goals such as information searches. Several frameworks also accentuate learning with technology and media, where creative use is a goal in itself. The P21, KeyCoNet, NCREL/Metiri, and ATC21S frameworks all specify this as designing, composing, and producing media products, as this example from the ATC21S and P21 frameworks phrases it: “Understand and know how to utilize the most appropriate media creation tools, characteristics, and conventions” (Binkley et al., 2012, p. 52; Erstad et al., 2014). Here we see connections to all three levels found in media literacy research, although most are on the interactional and systemic level and contextualize the use of technology within broader cultural structures. However, the systemic focus is not necessarily on the object of study in media themselves, as is the case in media literacy discourse; rather, it is on the application of this knowledge for efficient communication.

These perspectives are also evident in Articles 2 and 3, where reflection through production and media project work is not only about learning the tools and skills of media professions but also to a large extent about developing students’ learning and working skills as both workforce participants and citizens (see chapter 5).

The other categories in the meta-reviews also thematize media literacy understandings in different ways that are relevant for the perspectives that emerge in the historical snapshots of media teacher understandings in Articles 2 and 3. Specifically, some of the meta-level and life competence perspectives in the frameworks appear to connect to media teachers’ perspectives on their role as teachers and what they see as the educational goals of media education, particularly when it comes to project and production work. Research reports that emphasis 21st century competencies in educational practices often emphasis participation, collaborative learning and project work (Luna Scott, 2015).

Perspectives on the meta-competencies of creativity and innovation, communication and collaboration and critical thinking and problem solving appear to be similar between the two discourses of 21st-century education and media literacy, as both focus on creative and critical interactional competencies. However, the meta-perspectives on *how* to learn appear to be more fully developed in the 21st-century frameworks than in media literacy research. This area is thematized differently in the various reviews. Binkley et al. (2012) specify “learning to learn” and meta-cognition as awareness of one’s own learning strategies and methods, self-regulation, and adaptability (p. 43). Kereluik et al. (2013) thematize this as cross-disciplinary knowledge, which is the ability to integrate and synthesize information across fields and disciplines and in new contexts, with self-regulation and adaptability part of this phenomenon (p. 130). Dede (2010) thematizes contextual learning as transferability, adaptability, and self-regulation in different contexts, whereas Lamb et al. (2017, pp. 21-23) classify meta-cognition as part of self-regulated learning that is closely connected to problem solving. Chalkiadaki however, categorizes “learning together” as information management, separate from

creativity and problem-solving found to be personal, not interactional or social skills (Chalkiadaki, 2018, pp. 9-10).

In all the frameworks, self-regulation is a key term in describing meta-cognition. They highlight being able to work autonomously, remaining aware of one's own learning strategies, balancing short- and long-term goals, and having perseverance, concentration, and grit. Several frameworks also stress curiosity and the ability to challenge oneself, as the P21 framework puts it: "Go beyond basic mastery of skills and/or curriculum to explore and expand one's own learning and opportunities to gain expertise" (P21, 2006, p. 6). In media literacy research, meta-cognition is mainly connected to self-development, self-expression, and emancipation on an interactional level (e.g. Legrande & Vargas, 2001; Yosso, 2002), on how media practices contribute to learning, and on how to become educated through media use. The focus in media literacy research is more on creativity for citizens than on workforce-related, goal-oriented innovation. This discursive difference points to deeper perceived epistemic goals of media literacy education as part of democratic involvement and participation rather than readying students for the workforce. Article 3 in particular shows that media teachers describe the goals of education as pertaining to self-regulation, learning how to cope with failure and persevere, and relearning how to learn; the blending of these two discourses is discussed in chapter 5.

Whereas emancipation and citizenship are evident as focuses across levels in media literacy research, only two of the 21st-century education reviews (Binkley et al., 2012; Dede, 2010) explicitly thematize citizenship. Dede (2010) uses the concept of civic literacy from the P21 framework to describe an individualized understanding of citizenship, which means understanding and acting according to one's rights and obligations as part of society (P21, 2006, p. 2). Binkley et al. (2012) have a broader thematization of both local and global citizenship through focus on knowledge of democratic processes (p. 54).

There is also a clear divide in the five frameworks between a narrower, more individualized understanding of citizenship, especially in the DeSeCo and P21 frameworks, and the broader, more society-oriented and value-based understanding found in the KeyCoNet and ATC21S frameworks. DeSeCo and P21 focus on how individuals should understand their rights, needs, and obligations as part of society: understanding their own interests, knowing existing law, participating effectively in civic life, and remaining informed (OECD/DeSeCo, 2005; P21, 2006). The KeyCoNet and ATC21S frameworks have a more conceptual and value-based approach, highlighting concepts such as democracy, justice, and civil rights, which are demonstrated by showing solidarity, respecting human rights and equality, being a constructive participant in the local and global community, and partaking in elections (ATC21S, 2009; EU/KeyCoNet, 2006). The NCREL/Metiri framework also stress this last part, but is mostly zeroes in on understanding connections and effective communication between different nations and agents in society and the role of technology in society, specifies as: "the ability to

manage technology and govern its use in a way that promotes public good and protects society, the environment, and democratic ideals” (NCREL/Metiri, 2003, p. 47).

Linking these perspectives to the media literacy research review in Article 1 shows that all the life competence areas described above are also explicitly thematized in media literacy research. Being literate about media is regarded as having individual functional skills and understandings (individual level), being able to ethically collaborate and interact socially through media (interactional level), and playing an informed part in society (systemic level).

The differences between the 21st-century education frameworks and media literacy reviews fall into three broad areas: first, the 21st-century frameworks have a wider view of meta-level and life competencies such as perseverance and grit; second, the media literacy research discourse has a more developed focus on a systemic level of the “object of study” and thus the content of education; and third, the ultimate end goals of the two discourses are different.

The main orientation of the 21st-century education discourse is toward functional digital literacy, for individuals to function in the workforce and know their rights and obligations as members of society. Only some of the frameworks are oriented toward broader goals of media literacy, *Bildung*, and value-based ideals of citizenship and collaborative participation in society. In the media literacy discourse, the ideal position appears to have this last orientation; at all three described media literacy levels, the main focus is on emancipation and participation. A workforce orientation is not made explicit as a key goal in most of the media literacy research, although media literacy researchers such as Buckingham (2010) and Quin (2003b) have highlighted that the concept of emancipation includes an understanding of using media literacy to enter the workforce, as put forward in the fourth media teacher position in Article 2. Thus, the two discourses have frameworks and research that emphasize both these perspectives, but with different priorities as to which comes first. We see similar tendencies in Articles 2 and 3, where workforce orientation, literacy, and *Bildung* orientation are different or blended positions taken by the media teachers, in describing both their role as teachers and the goals of media education (see chapter 5). To obtain a better understanding of why the historical snapshots in the articles reveal these different positions, I now detail the educational context of the MC teachers.

2.3 The educational context of the MC program

I begin with a brief description of the Norwegian education system before elaborating on the historical background of the MC program, including the 2016 reform, with updates through 2021.

2.3.1 The school system and media education in upper secondary school in Norway

For Norwegian students, school starts at age six. Elementary school (grades one to four), middle school (grades five to seven), and lower secondary school (grades eight to ten) are mandatory.

Students can then choose between general education (three years) and vocational education programs

(two years of school and a two-year apprenticeship) in upper secondary school, which generally covers ages 16 through 19. A few programs, such as the MC program, have offered both options, with students choosing a direction after the first two years; they are thus called hybrid programs (Markussen, Frøseth, Lødding, & Sandberg, 2008). Upper secondary school is free and voluntary, with students competing to enter programs based on their grades from lower secondary school. Almost all (98%) Norwegians start upper secondary school directly after lower secondary school (UDIR, 2021).

As a subject area in Norway, media studies as a school subject has a tradition dating to the mid-1970s (Erstad, 1997). In upper secondary school, however, the subject was introduced as an elective with a focus on blending ICT subjects and critical media studies in the national curriculum of 1987 (Erstad & Gilje, 2008; Erstad et al., 2007a). The main aim was to foster critical competencies through technical computer training and media literacy teaching, but as Erstad et al. note, “the main focus of the educational practice developed in different ways and was from the start characterized by manifold local variations of practice in the different schools” (Erstad et al., 2007a, p. 33, my translation).

In the 1990s, the subject area was split into a technology-oriented focus on learning to use ICT and a more humanistic and social studies-oriented media literacy focus. Erstad et al. see this as based in subject traditions and teacher competence; teachers in science, technology, engineering, and math (STEM) subjects concentrated on teaching how to use and program computers, while those with humanities or social studies backgrounds focused on media studies and media literacy (Erstad et al., 2007a, p. 34).

However, the technological development, convergence, and digitalization of the media industry through the 1990s led to growing concerns within that sector about both digital competencies and critical reflection in media production. Unions and organizations in areas like graphic production and design thus initiated the development of a new vocational education program that combined critical reflection and production practices (UFD, 2004). This was the backdrop for the development of the MC vocational program starting in 1998 and its implementation in 2000 (Erstad & Gilje, 2008).

2.3.2 The MC program

At the upper secondary level, the MC program was introduced as an important development of future-oriented vocational competencies in media industries, especially the graphic arts, that needed a digital re-orientation (Gilje, 2002), and much of the further initiative in developing the program came from the media industry rather than government policies (Erstad & Gilje, 2008, p. 222; Erstad et al., 2007a, p. 34). Still, the curriculum was also partly developed by existing teachers in upper secondary school with a focus on media studies and literacy. Thus, the MC program had a hybrid position between a vocational program and more general education from the start, both through its dual goals and in who had input into the curriculum (Erstad et al., 2007a, p. 34).

Based on the program focus and further development, researchers saw the program as unique in a Norwegian and even Nordic context:

Due to increase of schools and students involved, as well as its relevance to issues of 21st century skills and competencies... the program has developed into an important subject area at this level of schooling. Similar developments have not been seen in any other subject area. (Erstad & Gilje, 2008, p. 224)

However, there was at least a chance that this program, like earlier media literacy efforts in Norwegian upper secondary schools, would represent “manifold local variants at the different schools” (Erstad et al., 2007a, p. 33), which was my empirical starting point for the research presented in this thesis.

2.3.3 The MC program’s focus on production work and critical reflection

The MC curriculum was developed in accordance with the needs of the media industry, with classes on media communication, media design, and media production in fields like photography, film, multimedia, sound, and graphic design for both print and electronic publication (UDIR, 2006). The intention of the MC program was twofold: to educate students for further media studies at the university level and to offer vocational certifications in two areas, photography and media design (Aakernes & Hiim, 2019). My focus is on the three-year in-school version of the program that leads to a general education diploma, as this was the version the vast majority of the students chose and the one that most fully combined academic and vocational elements.

The first curriculum in 2000 offered a platform for manifold vocational options in media and communication businesses, combining text, image and sound (KUF, 2000). Although a focus on production was prevalent through the whole program curriculum, there was also emphasis on critical reflection from the start. Ethical reflection and understandings of power in media institutions and systems were linked to practical production work, as were more esthetic concerns pertaining to learning genres and principles of communication and design (Erstad et al., 2007a). The first version of the curriculum put it this way:

Media and communication is about the understanding of and practical work with media contents and design — in communication through text, sound and image. The subject is also about the power and ethics of the media — on both the individual and societal level (Læringssenteret, 2002, p. 1, my translation).

Thus, the program goals seem to line up with both 21st-century competence goals and media literacy understandings. By combining traditional academic general education subject classes with practical media classes, the program curriculum stressed both the educational goals of *Bildung* and training the future workforce, thus encompassing many of the areas of tension in media education research and reflecting values found in the 21st-century education discourse (Amdam, 2016; Erstad & Gilje, 2008).

This focus changed to some degree in 2006 with the national Knowledge Promotion Reform; the first two years dealt more with production, and the last year devoted more time to critical reflection in media classes, both to cater to the students who were heading to vocational certification as apprentices in photography or media design after two years of classes (Aakernes, 2011; Aakernes & Hiim, 2019), and as a result of discussions on gradually developing the maturity of students to fully comprehend the more complex consequences of media in society (stakeholder interviews 2011, see chapter 4.3.1).

The addition of an in-depth study project subject in the first two years in 2006 was mentioned in several interviews as a formative factor in how teachers began to work with projects in the program, as discussed in Article 3. Whereas the first curriculum did not offer many regulations or suggestions on how to shape educational practice or carry out project work in the MC program (Erstad et al., 2007a), the project subject came with its own curriculum that challenged how some schools and teachers had developed their educational practice by instigating project work across different subject areas. This was particularly evident in the academic case school (Amdam, 2016).

My research into the curriculum of the MC program in 2011 confirmed two of the three points Erstad et al. (2007a) found in their curriculum studies. The characteristics of the MC program were as follows (Erstad et al., (2007a, p. 39):

- Media production is a core educational goal in all three in-school years.
- Project work is viewed as important, but how to do project work in media production does not have much of a focus in the curriculum.
- Use of modern digital technology is viewed as essential, but the curriculum does not propose how learning with these tools and resources should be done.

As noted, I found that the in-depth study project introduced in 2006 instigated new ways of doing project work in other MC program subjects. Ingulfsen (2014) looked into the practices of the MC program based on a total sample student survey concurrent with my 2012 teacher survey (see chapter 4.3.2) and found that the text cultures of the MC program were perceived as closely related to the text cultures known to the students in their out-of-school or informal learning contexts, which opened the opportunity to use the students' previous knowledge, competencies, and interests in the school setting. She also found that the production practices and digital competencies the MC program focused on were relevant for the students' practices in the general education classes in the program and thus supported the broader 21st-century curricular goals, such as digital literacy, that could be found in the Knowledge Promotion Reform. Thus, the MC focus on production, which was implemented to support vocational curricular goals, also strengthened the general education goals of 21st-century competencies.

2.3.4 The MC program in the Norwegian educational context, 2013–2021

In spring 2013, new discussions regarding the MC program appeared on the political agenda. Through a national political process, the decision was made to change the program from a hybrid program to two different programs, one vocational and one academic, starting in the autumn of 2016 (KD, 2013).

The main argument for this change from The Norwegian Ministry of Education and Research was that 97% of the students attended the MC program in order to qualify for higher education. The ministry argued that the program thus required more academic general education classes in history, geography, religion, and third-language training because the students, compared to other general education programs, had a “weaker starting point for higher education” (KD, 2013, p. 114). This points to deeper epistemological challenges in developing future-oriented education; which core subjects and competencies are needed to enter higher education with a future-oriented focus?²

The 21st-century skills and qualities of production work, such as communication, collaboration, and application of knowledge were put forward as assets of the MC program that should be retained in the revised program by stakeholders such as Mediepedagogene, the organization for Norway’s media teachers (see chapter 4.3.1). This led to a proposal to create a new hybrid program with academic and vocational elements; this time, however, it would be based in the academic program tradition. The existing three-year in-school program was thus changed from a vocational program to a general education program, although the MC name was retained. In 2020, the vocational options in the program with two in-school years and two-year apprenticeships in media design and photography became part of a new vocational program called Information Technology and Media Production (UDIR, 2020b).

The change to a general education program led to a dramatic cut in program-specific media classes, with 10 hours a week in the first year, 15 in the second, and 20 in the third, down from 23, 26, and up from 10, respectively. Class sizes in many counties doubled from 12–15 to 25–30 students. The program focus also shifted toward more theoretical aspects of media education. The two new program subjects, Media Society and Media Expressions (five hours a week each in every year of the program), have a clear focus on critical reflection. Still, the new study model also combines a theoretical perspective with practical production through media electives in the second (five hours a week) and third (10 hours a week) years (UDIR, 2016).

Based on applications for the MC program, students did respond well to these changes. In 2013, after the decision to split the program, the program had 1,247 fewer applicants (from 5,111 to 3,864). In both 2015 and 2016, around 3,000 students applied. With the new general education program starting

² Ironically, in 2021 the same ministry, now under a different government, launched what is called the Completion Reform for upper secondary education (Fullføringsreformen), introducing differentiation in what prepares students for higher education and suggesting most of the same subjects as electives, not requirements, to qualify for higher education (KD, 2021).

in 2016, the numbers stayed around 3,000 applicants (UDIR, 2020b). However, in subsequent years, application numbers have gradually dropped to 1846 in 2020 (a 38% drop from 2016). The new vocational media production program, Information Technology and Media Production, debuted in 2020 with 1,809 applicants (UDIR, 2020b). Thus, the combined student applicants for the two separate programs in 2020 was less than half of what the hybrid MC program had enrolled in 2008 (Erstad & Gilje, 2008). A total of 58 public and nine private schools offered the full academic MC program in 2020, which was 53 fewer than in 2008; therefore, it was not a local option for many students (vilbli.no, 2020).

The practical production content and subject organization, the vocational orientation, and the nationwide availability of the MC program have thus changed dramatically in less than two decades, making it an important object of study when it comes to the discursive understandings, professional cultures, and epistemic practices in media education, which theoretical foundation is explored in the next chapter.

3. Theoretical framework

The main analytical focus of this thesis is on finding discursive patterns in the different research materials to explore the varied perspectives on the same research object: the media teacher. A discursive approach enables exploring media literacy and professional understandings among teachers with a focus on the patterns within these understandings and the knowledge frameworks they apply in both discussing and forming their situated educational practices. Building on the conceptual understandings of media literacy as situated and socially constructed in the previous chapters, my interests are in discourse analytical perspectives that focus on the processual and dynamic landscape of teacher understandings in a given moment and context: a historical snapshot. One such perspective with analytical concepts that are particularly relevant for my research questions is advocated by Margaret Wetherell and Jonathan Potter (Wetherell, 1998, 2005; Wetherell & Potter, 1988) and is elaborated in section 3.1.

Seeing competence and discursive patterns of competence as constructed and constantly reconstructed within both specific historical traditions and contexts, I approach discourse analysis from a research position in which the research questions and findings decide the theoretical concepts, methods, and analytical tools used. Thus, my research position is pragmatic and exploratory; the evolving research questions and materials shape the conceptualization of my theoretical and methodological approach. Following several discourse analytical researchers (Gee, 2005; Rogers, Collins, & Fairclough, 2011, p. xvii), I find it fruitful to combine discourse analytical perspectives with other theoretical and methodological perspectives on the occasions when they provide new insights into the materials explored. In section 3.2, I elaborate on the analytical concepts that are relevant to my research.

Such a pragmatic and exploratory approach can of course be criticized both theoretically and methodologically, as discussed in section 3.3. However, this research position gives the researcher the agency and the responsibility to clarify and reflect on the researcher position in both the empirical and the theoretical work. In my case, this means reflecting on the theoretical discourses I draw on in entering the research field and explicating the hypothesis I form in exploring the educational field. In the empirical work, it also means a focus on transparency through the entire research process and, inspired by the ideals of transparency in DP (R. B. Johnson, 2017), to lay out the discursive understandings I draw on as a researcher in the writing process, which I address further in chapter 4.

3.1 The discursive level of discourse analysis

A discourse as an analytical term is a set of statements around a topic that act to both constrain and enable what we can know about that topic (Foucault, 1974). Discourses are often organized in institutional settings like schools, in discourse orders, regulated not only by state curricula, economics, and legislation but also by traditions, epistemic understandings, and professional cultures (Hitching,

Nilsen, & Veum, 2011, p. 83). Discourses are often drawn upon and simultaneously socially produced by specialists like teachers and researchers to make authoritative statements about an event or object of knowledge, such as students or practices. They are historically contingent and subject to change (McHoul & Grace, 1993, p. 31).

This quite open conceptualization of discourse is the basis of the analytical position in Article 1, which focuses on the different research traditions and research areas in media literacy research, with an emphasis on Europe (Erstad & Amdam, 2013). By looking into patterns in the academic literature we researched, we discuss the consequences of the discursive constructions of knowledge and competence provided in a certain historic context and within a specific theoretical and analytical framework of media literacy research. By examining how different materials use conceptions and relate them to one another, we can obtain an understanding of what is perceived as common or natural and where there are conflicting understandings and constructions in the discursive field. In this case, we found that different research traditions and positions in media literacy research, such as effect studies, cognitive psychology, critical theory, cultural studies, media Bildung studies, and new literacy studies, can all be related to three different levels of media literacy research: the individual, the interactional, and the systemic levels described in chapter 2. These levels are our discursive constructs as researchers, an analytical conceptualization that establishes borders in the discursive field based on the scope of the review (Jørgensen & Phillips, 1999, pp. 148-149). These constructs also provided directions for my further research into media literacy understandings among media teachers.

In focusing on the media teacher in specific school settings in Articles 2 and 3, my discourse analytical position shifts between the discursive thematizations of media teachers in the broader media literacy research field and a closer focus on discursive practice (Foucault, 2003). This position is more in line with what has been called an interactional perspective on discourse analysis in psychology (J. Potter & Wetherell, 1987), supported by educational research into communities of practice (Wenger, 1998), research on professions and professional identity as discourse (Evans, 2008; Evetts, 2013), and studies of professional and epistemic practices and cultures (Cunningham & Kelly, 2017; Foray & Hargreaves, 2003; Knorr-Cetina, 1999).

The interactional approach and terms used in this thesis were developed by social psychologists and are thus often called discourse psychology, with Margaret Wetherell and Jonathan Potter playing leading roles (Wetherell, 1998, 2005; Wetherell & Potter, 1988; Wetherell & Potter, 1992). Discourse is understood here to be any type of language with a particular meaning potential in a given context that is established and negotiated by those who produce and/or reproduce it. In social psychology, the interactional approach is often divided between discourse or discursive psychology and Foucauldian discourse analysis, but perspectives of the two, as in my case with interpretative repertoires and

subject positioning, can and often are combined and seen as complementary, depending on the research questions asked (Wetherell, 1998):

While discourse psychology is primarily concerned with *how* people *use* discursive resources in order to achieve interpersonal objectives in social interaction, Foucauldian discourse analysis focuses upon *what kind of* objects and subjects are constructed through discourses and *what kind of* ways-of-being these objects and subjects make available to people. (p. 117)

In the articles, I do both by discussing how the teachers construct local interpretative repertoires of being teachers and goals for students while connecting these interpretations to historical epistemic positions on being media teachers and forming educational practice.

This research project thus moves from the macro level of describing prominent positions and understandings in the discursive field of media literacy toward a meso level of institutional practices that focuses on teachers' descriptions of institutional understandings and positions on one hand and their descriptions of media education practices and views of teaching and learning on the other. As such, the practices are not analyzed on the micro level of verbal constructions. The practices described can only be interpreted as retold as individual and discursive constructions of actual practices the way I as a researcher interpret them through my own contextualized understandings.

3.2 Analytical concepts

3.2.1 Interpretative repertoires and communities of practice

The term interpretative repertoire is an attempt to capture the “doxic” nature of discourse (Barthes, 1977), as Margaret Wetherell has argued:

An interpretative repertoire is a culturally familiar and habitual line of argument comprised of recognizable themes, common phrases, and tropes (doxa)... These interpretative repertoires comprise members' methods for making sense in a context—they are the common-sense which organizes accountability and serves as a backbone for the realization of locally managed positions in actual interaction. (Wetherell, 1998, pp. 400-401)

Interpretative repertoires can be defined as relatively coherent ways of talking about objects and events, in terms that are already provided by history (Wetherell, Taylor, & Yates, 2001, p. 198). Robb (2004) refers to interpretative repertoires as culturally available meaning-making frameworks that enable individuals to make sense of their experiences. Thus, “interpretative repertoires are part and parcel of any community's common sense, providing a basis for shared social understanding” (Edley, 2001, p. 198), and provide the “building blocks” (Wetherell & Potter, 1988) that people draw on to account for their actions, or portray their identities. Interpretative repertoires function as discursive tools that teachers use to tell themselves and others about their understandings of, for instance, student participation and educational goals (J. Potter & Wetherell, 1987).

People generally draw on different repertoires to suit the needs of a given context (Edley, 2001; Wetherell & Potter, 1988). The repertoires belong to the culture, but different individuals from

different sociocultural groups in different situations may draw on these resources in different ways, in what J. Potter and Wetherell (1987, p. 138) describe as “pre-figured steps that can be flexibly and creatively strung together in the improvisation of a dance” (p. 138). Thus, different teacher groups in different school contexts may thematize their role as teachers, student participation, and educational goals differently while providing insight into the tensions surrounding educational practice at their particular school. Examining the media teachers’ interpretative repertoires in both focus groups and individual interviews can reveal an understanding of the professional cultures of which they are part, the positionings and tensions within these cultures, and the underlying historical media teacher and media teaching positions that are—or are not—thematized within these social units or communities of practice.

Communities of practice are social units in which the participants have fairly steady practices as part of the unit, either as self-evolved patterns of action like in a group of friends or as partly decided by an institution such as a school. This unit shares a common repertoire of communication that is unique to it and a common engagement toward a target. A well-functioning or stable community of practice has a joint enterprise and shared repertoire and negotiates meaning through productive tensions in forming practice (Wenger, 1998).

Etienne Wenger’s concept of community of practice and communicative repertoires shares many understandings with the concept of interpretative repertoires by focusing on the meaning making role of interaction: communities of practice are

important places of negotiation, learning, meaning, and identity. Focusing on the level of communities of practice is not to glorify the local, but to see these processes—negotiation of meaning, learning, the development of practices, and the formation of identities and social configurations—as involving complex interactions between the local and the global (1998, p. 133).

As in discourse psychology, local social actions and interactions are seen as interacting with broader or even global configurations or discourses. The way Wenger describes the repertoires of communities of practice includes routines, words, tools, ways of doing things, stories, gestures, symbols, genres, actions, or concepts that the community has produced or adopted in the course of its existence and that have become part of its practice (1998, p. 83). This is very much in line with the concept of interpretative repertoires. Wenger adds that repertoires combine both reificative and participative aspects and include “the discourse by which members create meaningful statements about the world, as well as the styles by which they express their forms of membership and their identities as members” (1998, p. 83).

This similarity in the two conceptualizations has made it interesting for me to use the community of practice as an analytical concept in discussing the interpretative repertoires, positions, and underlying discourses in the media teacher research materials. The concept allows me to compare positions and

repertoires across the two case schools and to connect these materials to the broader background context of the national survey findings to discuss differences and similarities in patterns. As Wenger puts it, “in the course of producing their own histories... communities of practice also produce and reproduce the interconnections, styles, and discourses through which they form broader constellations” (1998, p. 131). The contextualization of the case schools within the broader context of the national survey findings can thus confirm or question whether the practices at the case schools are part of broader constellations of discursive practices or, as is thematized further, only part of local communities of practice and developing professional self-images and subject positioning within these contexts.

3.2.2 Subject positions and professional self-image

Self-image is an essential part in shaping workers and professionals (Foucault & Sheridan, 1977). Professional self-image relates to both personal identity and working roles in specific contexts and has been reported to influence professional attitudes, values, positions, and actions (Collard, 2004; Niskala & Hurme, 2014). Professional self-image is also regarded as the sum of subjective and intersubjective attitudes affected by past professional experience and context. Studies related to media education have underscored the significance of professional self-image for work processes and professional objectives, whether in education and management (Collard, 2004) or in journalism (Volek & Jiráček, 2007).

Reflexive subject positions offer an alternative discursive notion to the concept of role or self-image (Davies & Harré, 1990). It is important to note that the concept of position and positioning is seen here as a historically contingent and situated construct—a specific “label” in a specific context—within a wider repertoire. We make sense of ourselves and position ourselves and others within social interactions through the cultural and personal resources and interpretative repertoires that are made available to us (Wetherell & Potter, 1988). People will often position themselves within certain discourses, but as they relate to and take part in different discourses that place them in different and perhaps conflicting positions, the subject becomes overdetermined and is thus not necessarily consistent across contexts (Jørgensen & Phillips, 1999, p. 53).

The concept of subject position has been criticized in discourse psychology as running the risk of producing “victims” of mechanical categorization processes (Billig, 1985; J. Potter & Wetherell, 1987, p. 121). I follow this critique by seeing performed categories such as positioning as something people draw on flexibly as they talk. Social categories are “real” in the sense that the collectives of people, traits, actions, and behaviors to which they refer shape reality in a particular way rather than merely describing it. In any given context, the culturally and individually shaped expectations, understandings, and interpretations must be negotiated, co-constructed, and potentially challenged in relation to the relevancies and the immediacy of the particular context. No categories are established

from nothing, and no categories can be completely predicted or assumed (Tranekjær, 2015, pp. 89-91). However, within a community of practice, this represents a more relational and contextual understanding of identity work than, say, Bourdieu's concept of habitus (1984) in that the positioning is processual, dynamic, and negotiated in the moment rather than "systems of dispositions structuring individual practice, including social, political and cultural choices and preferences (which) is overdetermined by class belongingness and is internalized in early childhood" (Skovmand, 1985, p. 43). Subject positions are related to individual predispositions but are also made explicit, negotiated, and learned in the moment (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 53).

This understanding is particularly clear in Article 2, where the concept of position has a twofold use: first in how as a researcher I construct historical positions of media teachers based on a specific thematic review of the discursive field, and second in how the media teachers who serve as informants position themselves and others as teachers—or not as teachers—within broader interpretative repertoires of providing media education. In both cases, the construction of positions is contingent on the materials or contexts provided in the moment and subject to change, as exemplified in the development in position from vocational trainer to vocational mentor or pedagogue as a main interpretative repertoire at the vocational school, which is thematized in Article 2 (Amdam, 2017b, p. 91).

In the first case, my analysis of historical positions is contingent on the source materials I found on media teachers through the review and my Nordic understanding of and focus on the field of media literacy and education. The Nordic perspective may differ from understandings and positions in other parts of Europe and the wider world, as is also evident in the conceptual discussion and review of media literacy in 21st-century education frameworks in Article 1.

Similarly, in the second case, the local contexts and professional cultures affect the positions portrayed by the informants, and they are not necessarily consistent over time or context. Conducting the same interviews now that the MC program has changed to an academic program might well change the teachers' focus. However, freezing this historical moment by taking a snapshot of it through the concept of position gives a vantage point for discussing the broader interpretative repertoires and discourses in play.

3.2.3 Professional cultures and epistemic practices

Professional self-images are affected by professional cultures and how the teachers position themselves within these cultures: their communities of practice, as described above (Wenger, 1998). Conceptual understandings explored through attitudes and vocabulary can provide substantial information about both positioning and professional culture, defined as a configuration of beliefs, practices, relationships, language, and symbols distinctive to a particular social unit (Evans, 2008).

In studies on professions, a shared professional identity is associated with a sense of common experiences, understandings, and expertise and with shared ways of perceiving problems and their possible solutions. This common identity construction is produced and reproduced through occupational and professional socialization by means of shared educational backgrounds, professional training and vocational experiences, and membership in professional associations and institutions where practitioners develop and maintain shared work cultures and common values (Evetts, 2013, p. 780).

One result that is relevant for the case study findings is how professional cultures produce similarities in work practice and procedures, common ways of perceiving problems and their possible solutions, and shared ways of perceiving and interacting with others. In these ways, the normative value system of professionalism at work and how to behave, respond, and advise is reproduced at the micro level in individual practitioners and in their workplace, as is particularly clear in Article 2 (Abbott, 1988; Evetts, 2013, p. 780).

Julia Evetts claims that the focus on professions has shifted from what a profession is to how it is discursively performed. She states that it no longer seems important to draw a hard definitional line between professions and other occupations (Evetts, 2013; Svensson & Evetts, 2003). Indeed, just as Wenger claims that a community of practice can either be determined by an institution or be self-evolved, Evetts sees the development of professional cultures and professionalism as instigated in two ways: as a top-down process that is thematized as organizational professionalism, or as bottom-up, occupational professionalism (Evetts, 2013, p. 787).

As an ideal, organizational professionalism is a discourse of control increasingly used by managers in workplaces. It incorporates rational-legal forms of authority and hierarchical structures of responsibility and decision making. It involves the increased standardization of work procedures and practices and managerialist controls, relying on externalized forms of regulation and accountability measures such as target setting and performance reviews (Evetts, 2013, p. 787).

In contrast, and again as an ideal, occupational professionalism is a discourse constructed within professional occupational groups that incorporates collegial authority. It involves relations of practitioners' trust from both employers and students. It is based on autonomy and discretionary judgement and assessment by practitioners in complex cases. It depends on common and lengthy systems of education, vocational training, and socialization and on the development of strong occupational identities and work cultures. Controls are operationalized by practitioners themselves, who are guided by codes of professional ethics that are monitored by professional institutes and associations (Evetts, 2013, p. 787).

This understanding of top-down and bottom-up developments in professional cultures is applicable to the findings in Articles 2 and 3 when seen together, with the institutional discursive formations of the

broader school cultures and the controlling factors of local and national political agendas and curricula as presented in chapter 2—that is, the top-down perspectives—interacting with local MC professional cultures, resulting in the teachers’ positioning of their community as a tugboat, satellite, or terror cell within their schools. This is discussed further in chapter 5.2.

When it comes to teachers’ professional cultures, this understanding also points to the underlying discursive constructions of knowledge and competence and developments in their knowledge base; in the epistemic cultures of the teachers. According to sociologist Karin Knorr-Cetina (1999), all academic disciplines have an “epistemic culture” that defines how knowledge is created and warranted. She defines epistemic cultures as “practices, mechanisms, and principles that... determine how we know what we know within a particular field of knowledge” (1999, p. 3). Epistemic cultures that have been shaped by affinity, necessity, and historical coincidence, determine how people know and what they know (Knorr-Cetina, 1999). The patterns that define an epistemic culture include how researchers go about their work, relate to their colleagues, validate their results, and, most importantly here, train students to become experts in the field. Therefore, students are acculturated into the epistemic practices of their disciplines. Professors and students form a community of knowledge workers where common norms and practices define how new scholars are expected to contribute. However, it cannot be assumed that there is consensus in a given discipline or research field about the nature of its knowledge base. At any given point, a research field may contain competing knowledge bases (Foray & Hargreaves, 2003), and media literacy research is a typical example, as the findings in Article 1 demonstrate. Its discourse stems from many research fields and thus epistemic cultures: effect studies, cognitive psychology, critical theory, cultural studies, media Bildung studies, new literacy studies, and so on (Erstad & Amdam, 2013). The findings on teacher backgrounds in Article 2 also emphasize that the teachers come from different epistemic and professional cultures, which impacts what is and is not seen as important knowledge and competencies.

Foray and Hargreaves (2003) argue that a sector may be taken to constitute a community of practice with a domain-specific knowledge base that both guides practice and makes sense of the community’s heritage. They cite teachers as an example of such a community of practice. Within such professional communities, there will be sub-communities that are characterized by variations and divergencies from the community as a whole. Such variations reflect what Knorr-Cetina (1999) calls epistemic cultures, the cultures that create and warrant knowledge. Foray and Hargreaves further claim that all communities of practice have a positive orientation to “best practice,” which may be something preserved in the community’s traditions as a standard to which practitioners aspire or something yet to be identified within the community and distributed to its members. The methodology a community adopts to determine best practice within its domain will reflect the dominant epistemic culture in that community. An epistemic culture can thus be defined by identifying best practice.

Similarly, Cunningham and Kelly (2017) argue that epistemic practices are the socially organized and interactionally accomplished ways that members of a group propose, communicate, justify, assess, and legitimize the knowledge claims of their epistemic culture. Such practices concern the ways that knowledge enters educational discourse and include relevant concepts and cross-disciplinary approaches. Epistemic practices are relevant to investigations, explanation generation, and evaluation of knowledge claims. Through such engagement, they build a “dialectic relationship between disciplinary knowledge and epistemological commitments” (Sandoval & Reiser, 2004, p. 347). Through the focus on the MC teachers’ understandings of educational practice and their positioning of themselves, their students, and the goals of education in Articles 2 and 3, I thus discuss the teachers’ epistemic cultures compared to the knowledge base of media literacy research and the broader context of 21st-century education in section 5.2.3.

3.3 Being a descriptive discourse analyst with a dialectical pluralism approach

The initial attraction for me in discourse analysis lay in curiosity of that approach, starting with an initial interest in a social phenomenon and then developing and redeveloping hypotheses and interpretations about this phenomenon through the research process. I did not set out on a mission to reveal the critical conditions of underlying discourses in the teachers’ practices, understandings, and self-images. I wanted to explore what discourses and conditions motivated what I saw as rather distinctive practices and understandings in upper secondary school, within what I thought were relatively established discourse orders (Hitching et al., 2011). I had been working in media education since the start of the MC program and had preconceptions of teacher backgrounds and understandings. However, what made me curious was, in an educational program only 12 years old, where the teachers’ understandings of educational practice came from or, if looking through discourse analytical glasses: “What discourse or what discourses does a concrete articulation draw on, what discourses does it reproduce? Or how does a concrete articulation challenge and change a discourse by redefining some of its elements?” (Jørgensen & Phillips, 1999, p. 40, my translation).

Through that initial research interest, I can be positioned as having what Gee calls a *descriptive* discourse analytical approach as opposed to a *critical* discourse analytical approach (Gee, 2005, p. 8). A descriptive position suggests that, rather than a critical methodologist axiological position whose work finds its greatest efficacy as a political instrument of resistance and contestation, my focus is on what McHoul and Grace (1993) call a “diagnostic” interpretation of culture and society whose special forms or history enable me to directly characterize a historical phenomenon.

This distinction implies a difference between an analytical position of merely describing the discursive patterns found in the empirical body of research and a position of wanting to “speak to and, perhaps, intervene in, social and political issues, problems, and controversies in the world” (Gee, 2005, p. 9). In my view, however, this is not an either-or division; it is instead a question of degree. All research will

have both normative preconceptions and implications. That said, I chose to position myself somewhere in the middle of this distinction by taking a descriptive analytical approach in my analytical work but clarifying what I see as the normative implications of my work in concluding remarks in the articles and in this thesis. In taking this position, I try to acknowledge what I see as two key responsibilities of a researcher: first, if I do not discuss the normative implications of my work, others could do it for me without necessarily using my findings in ways of which I would approve; second, if I do not try to separate an analytical from a normative position to estrange myself from the material, the work could too easily be accused of being unscientific, thus losing credibility and normative value. I do position myself as critical in the sense that I see a critical potential in investigating the discourses influencing social practices, but I do not position myself within the critical discourse analysis tradition of Gee or Fairclough (Jørgensen & Phillips, 1999, pp. 31-33).

In designing and conducting this explorative mixed methods research project in a field that has largely been theorized, analyzed, and researched from a student perspective, I take a dialectical methodological approach that explores multiple diverse perspectives on media teachers' understandings as a comparatively underexplored but nevertheless complex field of study (Greene & Caracelli, 2003). The main inspiration for this approach is the focus on transparency in describing the multi-faceted research process of an exploratory mixed methods study, using R. B. Johnson (2017) thesis of transparency in DP as a guide to unfolding my choices of theories and methods to explore the topic in this thesis.

DP as a metaparadigm or axiology for research is, as I see it, not contradictory with the interactional discourse psychology approaches of Wetherell and Potter or to perspectives on communities of practice and professional and epistemic cultures. There are six key principles in Johnson's DP approach: (a) to dialectically listen, carefully and thoughtfully, to different disciplines, paradigms, theories, and stakeholder and citizen perspectives; (b) to combine important ideas from competing values into a new workable whole for each research study or evaluation; (c) to explicitly state and "pack" the approach with researchers' and stakeholders' epistemological and social and political values and construct standards to guide and judge the research (including the *valued ends* and *valued means* for getting there); (d) to conduct the research ethically; (e) to facilitate the distribution and use of the research findings locally and more broadly; and (f) to continually evaluate the outcome of the research and use processes (R. B. Johnson, 2017, p. 160). These principles provide both descriptive discourse analytical perspectives and transparency in describing my exploratory research process.

First, DP demands a clear awareness and explicit address of my own and others' perspectives, positioning, repertoires, and discursive understandings at different points in the research process. Second, the approach opens the research process to combining analytical concepts that can further the discursive research understandings, as discussed in the introduction to chapter 3. Third, the focus on

the distribution and use of the findings aligns with my position as a researcher with both descriptive and normative goals. I have tried to follow this methodological approach in both the research design and the research process by using feedback and feed-forward loops and by describing them transparently in every part of the discussions of methods and materials in chapter 4, including research insights and limitations.

DP as a meta-paradigm can be criticized for being relativistic in that it is “ontologically pluralist and assumes that there are multiple realities and many possible ways to construe reality” (R. B. Johnson, Tucker, Onwuegbuzie, & Icenogle, 2014, p. 558). However, in positioning myself as a descriptive discourse analyst, the inspiration from DP results not in a relativistic position but in a transparent and pragmatic approach to my discourse analytical position (R. Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, Wall, Stefurak, & Hildebrand, 2017; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009, p. 88). I focus on using the discourse analytical theoretical perspectives, concepts, methods, and materials most relevant to the research questions as they develop hermeneutically through the exploration and “the continual process of interpretation and building on past interpretations” (2017, p. 157; R. B. Johnson et al., 2014). In discourse psychology, the end goal is to illuminate broader structures of discourse and power relations as they are established at an interpersonal and interactional level (Tranekjær, 2015, p. 113). Inspired by Johnson’s thesis on transparency in mixed methods research, this end goal took me on a methodological journey where “the researchers should carefully listen to, consider, and continually dialogue with qualitative and quantitative perspectives/epistemologies/values/methods and learn from the natural tensions between these while developing a workable solution for each mixed research study” (R. B. Johnson, 2017, p. 161), as I describe in the following chapter.

4. Methods and materials

Having worked in media education and media literacy research for almost a decade, I had preconceptions of the educational positions, theoretical and practical tensions in the educational field, and what I saw as discursive patterns. These patterns were connected to the tradition and regulation of upper secondary school in Norway—the discursive orders (Hitching et al., 2011, p. 83)—and to the thematizations and knowledge base motivating the different teachers' practices, along with the epistemic discursive beliefs on which they built their practice and portrayed through their interpretative repertoires (J. Potter & Wetherell, 1987). A discursive framing, as discussed in section 3.3, thus became a way to position myself and my own preconceptions in the field, to clarify my research understanding by proposing explicit hypotheses, and to systemize the academic constructs and social constructions made by the teachers and in the academic literature. The research objectives and the discursive framing also meant that the research design was qualitatively driven, using quantitative data as background on tendencies and contextualizations to further understand the qualitative data (Hesse-Biber, 2010; Mason, 2006). Priority was given to the qualitative components in the data collection and analysis (Morse & Niehaus, 2009) and is also the main focus of this chapter. I thus first present the main qualitative methods and materials used before moving on to the background data and ethical considerations.

4. 1 Initial research interest and methodological approach

As there was little data or research available on MC teachers or media teachers more generally, whether in Norway or internationally, the choice to frame the research project as exploratory came quite naturally. The initial research interest and thus the research objectives (Teddle & Tashakkori, 2009, p. 126) started with wanting to answer two empirical questions:

Who are they: what characterizes MC teachers in terms of educational and vocational backgrounds and understandings of being teachers?

Why do they teach the way they do: what motivates the MC teachers' educational practice and perceived educational goals?

The initial research objectives set me on a qualitative, inductive methodological path because I wanted to discern the teachers' own understandings and what they were based on; I was “attempting to make sense of, or interpret, phenomena in terms of the meaning people bring to them” (Lincoln & Denzin, 2008, p. 4). I soon found that previous research on the MC teachers was so limited that I also needed quantitative input on those teachers as a group to reach my objectives and develop a broader understanding of what was characteristic of them when compared to other teacher groups.

The lack of existing qualitative and quantitative data resulted in a sequential exploratory design, where the research questions were developed and refined through several stages of hypothesis formulation and data collection (Teddle & Tashakkori, 2009, p. 25). This approach can afford new insights into

underexplored fields of study; however, it has the disadvantage that data collection cannot be built on accumulated knowledge from previous similar studies and can seldom be designed to address particular research areas without a broader contextual understanding. In my case, this meant that the data collection design had to be as broad and multi-faceted as possible to try to grasp the complexities of media teacher perspectives. Thus, the exploratory survey for instance, which was based on theories, typologies, and conceptual frameworks derived from literature reviews and explored in focus group interviews, did provide descriptive statistics to identify the trends as intended (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009, p. 119). However, the data collected provided a much larger corpus than the main tendencies described in Articles 2 and 3. To address this disadvantage and follow my discursive positioning on transparency in section 3.3, I have chosen to include the full survey questionnaire (Appendix III) for future comparison with newer media teacher surveys (e.g. Hobbs & Tuzel, 2017; Weninger et al., 2017) and to explicate the methodological approach to developing the whole survey in much greater detail than might be needed to discuss the particular survey batteries used in the articles, as I address in the discussion on background materials and methods in section 4.3.

The need for both qualitative and quantitative data to reach my research objectives also implied a mixed methods design, as “mixed methods research questions are concerned with unknown aspects of phenomenon and are answered with information that is presented in both narrative and numerical forms” (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009, p. 129). Methodological triangulation was thus built into the research design to seek corroboration of results from different methods studying the same phenomenon with the goal of increasing the overall credibility of the research findings (Greene, Caracelli, & Graham, 1989; B. Johnson & Christensen, 2012, p. 439). This understanding resulted in an exploratory sequential mixed methods approach (John W. Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

4.1.1 Research design

In discourse psychology in the tradition of Wetherell and Potter, the main methodological approach involves interviews and naturally occurring talk, which is why the main empirical focus in my research design and articles is on the case study schools and explorations through individual and focus group interviews, supported by field observations of naturally occurring talk. Naturalistic records have become more dominant within this research tradition, but interviews remain important:

The virtues of interviews as a method for accessing participants’ interpretative repertoires are: (a) they allow the researchers to focus on particular topics or themes; (b) questions can be designed to provoke the use of different interpretative resources in relation to a single topic or theme; (c) they allow a degree of standardization of questions across different participants; (d) they allow for more control in sampling – as opposed to naturalistic records (J. Potter, 2013, pp. 115-116).

These are the main reasons for my focus on interview data as the primary data source for the articles. However, since the media teacher as a research subject was so underexplored both theoretically and empirically, it was hard to construct valid hypotheses about discursive understandings and what

discourses the teachers built on in the interviews without broader explorations of discourses on these teachers in both media literacy research and the wider educational field. In designing and conducting this exploratory mixed methods project, the research phases were thus further inspired by DP.

To sum up the research design, these methodological considerations, based in the research objectives, led to the development of a discourse analytically framed, qualitatively driven, and sequential mixed methods design (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009, p. 155), where data from a quantitative national survey and qualitative context studies and literature reviews serve as descriptive backdrops for building hypotheses, theoretical understandings, and discursive typologies about MC teachers in Norway that inform the main empirical research focus and analysis of a case study in two schools.

DP's principle of combining important ideas from competing values into a new workable whole was used to unpack the analytical concepts used in the articles, and the DP duty to clarify my own ontological, epistemological, and axiological research position are discussed in chapter 3. To clarify and visualize how the research process is inspired by DP, I first show a timeline of the research process before detailing the different steps in that process and discuss research credibility and ethical considerations.

4.1.2 Research phases and timeline

The following pages offers a visualization of the research phases and timelines of the four-year project from 2011 through 2015 and subsequent article publishing in 2016 and 2017.

Activities	Spring 2011	Autumn 2011	Spring 2012	Autumn 2012	Spring 2013	Autumn 2013	Spring 2014	Autumn 2014 – Autumn 2015	2016 – 17
Project development									
Research design									
Researcher and stake holder conversations									
Studies of the MC curriculum, white papers and media discourses									
Literature studies and review									
Case study implementation									
Pilot observation at MC school									
Focus group interviews – February									
Initial focus group analysis – February/March									
Field observations at case schools – April/May									
Individual interviews – April/May									
Third focus group interview for saturation – May									
Survey implementation									
Survey development									
Survey piloting, revision and sampling – March									
Survey launch – March									
Survey validation at case schools – April/May									
Survey period end – June									
Analysis									
Interview data transcription and thematic analysis									
Descriptive survey data analysis									
Member check at regional MC seminars									
Case study data discourse analysis									
Comparative analysis of case study and background data									

Activities	Spring 2011	Autumn 2011	Spring 2012	Autumn 2012	Spring 2013	Autumn 2013	Spring 2014	Autumn 2014 – Autumn 2015	2016 – 17
Article production and publishing									
Article 1 planning as part of EU initiated ESF Forward Look									
Article 1 writing									
Article 1 publication									
Articles 2 and 3 planning and writing									
Articles 2 and 3 writing									
Publication of Article 2 online in 2016, on paper in 2017									
Publication of Article 3 in anthology									
Participation in the field: sharing, discussing, etc.									
Sharing findings at two national teacher conferences									
Sharing findings and discussing development of program in media									
Discussion of findings at NorLAC and NATED seminars									
Part of project group on 21st-century skills review for new curriculum reform									
Input to The Norwegian Directorate for Education and training and national MC Council on development of program									
Findings presented at national media teacher conference									

4.1.3 Discursive preconceptions and research starting point

Preconceptions of the discursive academic field of media literacy research

The main academic focus in media education research has been on the why and how of media education (2003), but there are indirect descriptions of the teacher role through how different academic sources describe media education practices and thus the required pedagogical competencies and knowledge bases: examples include zig-zag movements between theoretical reflection and practical application (Tuftte, 2007), how different research traditions focused on skills training for media protection (W. J. Potter, 2001, 2005), motivation-driven media production work and learning communities out of school (Itō, 2010; Jenkins & Purushotma, 2009), or emancipation or Bildung through bridging everyday experiences of using different media and the knowledge built in the formal school setting (Buckingham, 2007; Burn & Durran, 2007; Drotner, Siggaard Jensen, & Schrøder, 2008; Gilje, 2011). I thus had academic preconceptions of what was expected of the media teachers' competences through the researched educational practices. The literature also highlighted the similarities, differences, and tensions between different media education and literacy research traditions, as described in Article 1 (Erstad & Amdam, 2013).

The MC program had been researched from a student perspective through the work of Ola Erstad, Øystein Gilje, and Thomas de Lange. A key source of literature is the report "*Tomorrow's media producers: Media students' production practices in upper secondary school*" (Erstad et al., 2007a, my translation). This report became the academic starting point in researching the program, as it highlighted many of the preconceptions found in other academic literature on media education. Examples include a central educational practice of project work and production practices, often in discord with the educational practice of the rest of the school's programs (de Lange & Ludvigsen, 2009; Erstad et al., 2007a, 2007b; Gilje, 2011), the teacher as co-creator or mentor in the classroom, negotiating meaning and learning with the students (de Lange, 2010; de Lange & Lund, 2008). The researchers had conducted a national survey on MC students in 2006, and Gilje (2011) and de Lange (2010) had also collected qualitative data at different MC program schools and observed teachers and students over time. I thus discussed the program with these three researchers, first with Ola Erstad, who became my supervisor, and then with Gilje and de Lange in the spring of 2011 to obtain an understanding of how they saw the program and its teachers and their academic reflections on the teachers and their practices.

Research insight and limitations

The researchers all reported what they defined as educational practices in the MC program that differed from other upper secondary school programs but also perceived tensions within the practices and differences in educational practice between MC program schools. The question thus became what or who was determining the development of these educational practices. Was it the curriculum, the school administration, the MC teachers locally or across schools, or something else?

Preconceptions of the discursive practical media education field

There is no standard national data collection on who teaches in Norway's upper secondary schools. In searching for more data on teachers in the MC program, I eventually found one report on teacher backgrounds in upper secondary school (Turmo & Aamodt, 2007). As that research was carried out in 2006, around the same time Erstad, Gilje, and de Lange collected their national data on MC program students, it became a reference work for my own investigations on media teachers' backgrounds

The report asked for the formal pedagogical and subject-specific competence of teachers and school leaders in upper secondary school, including the total population of schools nationally. The authors found that MC teachers had the lowest percentage (72%) of pedagogical training among the various teacher groups in upper secondary school (Turmo & Aamodt, 2007, p. 54) and were the youngest teacher collegium, with more than half under 40 years of age; however, 15% started to teach after they turned 40 (Turmo & Aamodt, 2007, p. 19). The MC teachers also had a different subject-specific profile than those in other vocational programs. Only 19% had a trade certificate, master's certificate, or technical collegium, compared to the Norwegian norm of 60%–80% (Turmo & Aamodt, 2007). More than a quarter (27%) of MC teachers had a master's degree, which was low compared to general education but unusually high for a vocational program, where the average was 3%–7% (Turmo & Aamodt, 2007, p. 24). The most common academic background was in media subjects from university or university colleges, but even though one in four teachers had a master's degree, only one in 10 had a master's degree in media studies (Turmo & Aamodt, 2007, p. 54). The report did not specify the media subjects in which the teachers were educated but contained attachments with the reported educational backgrounds of all the teacher groups in the survey. However, only 127 MC teachers took part in this survey.

Research insights and limitations

The MC program had a dual educational purpose: providing vocational education for photographers and media designers and educating students for university studies, depending on the choices the students made. This could help explain why the teachers had academic backgrounds that fell between general education and vocational education teachers. The MC program was also a "young" program; having only existed since 2000, it did not have an established teaching tradition, which might explain why its teachers were younger, on average. The low percentage of MC teacher participation in the survey also made the findings hard to evaluate as truly representative of the media teachers. However, the discrepancy between the academic literature and researchers reporting alternative educational practices from other upper secondary school programs with a main focus on projects and production work and the survey report's note that the MC teachers had the lowest percentage of pedagogical training in upper secondary school combined to make me zoom in on the motivations for MC teachers' educational practices: Where did the MC teachers' focus on projects and production work come from?

4.2 Main methods and materials – Reviews and case study

4.2.1 Literature reviews

Thematic review

To find possible explanations for the production work focus and motivations for this practice among MC teachers, I began a literature review of Nordic media teacher practices to see if there were different understandings or positions on teacher knowledge and practices available as part of the knowledge base for MC teachers in 2011. The review was conducted through a literature search using Nordic library services, ERIC, Google Scholar, JSTOR, and NCOM. The review used the search terms “media teacher,” “teaching media,” “media literacy education,” and “media education” in English and the Nordic languages and included studies written in English, Swedish, Danish, or Norwegian between 1975 and 2010.

As academic literature focusing specifically on the Nordic media teacher was scarce, the search was supplemented by relevant literature in the broader field of media literacy research, which was investigated in parallel to this review and described in (Erstad & Amdam, 2013). The period was thus first expanded to 2012 when working on Article 1; it was revisited in working on Article 2 in 2013–2015. The final time span investigated was thus 1975 to 2015.

A thematic review of the relevant literature was undertaken, which involved several readings of each text to identify what Braun and Clarke refer to as semantic and latent themes (2006, p. 54). By the former, they refer to patterns in explicit meanings; by the latter, patterns in “underlying ideas, assumptions, and conceptualizations—and ideologies” of practices and goals of media education to point back to the perceived competencies required of media teachers. The literature was then presented thematically, with representative literature of different positions quoted (Joffe, 2011) as part of Article 2 (Amdam, 2017b).

Scoping review

The thematic review of media teachers was further expanded when I took part in an EU-initiated ESF Forward Look background paper mapping the field of media literacy research with Ola Erstad and Øystein Gilje (University of Oslo) and Lucia Müller (University of Hamburg) (Erstad et al., 2012). The further development of the thematic review and the EU background paper resulted in the scoping literature review in Article 1 (Erstad & Amdam, 2013), providing a research synthesis that mapped the literature and identified key concepts, gaps in the research, and types and sources of evidence to inform practice, policymaking, and research (Daudt et al., 2013).

The primary focus of the review was on initiatives in Europe, but other national and regional initiatives were included. In searching for and collection relevant reviews on media literacy, we found that they were created with different purposes—some were policy oriented, some focused on practice, and others were clearly research reviews. Accordingly, we tried to classify the reviews based on their

purpose and then analyzed them for key issues and how those issues were presented. In addition, we included what might be termed “meta-texts”; articles with a particular focus on media literacy, special issues of journals, and books and reports that comment on the “media literacy” field.

Research insight and limitations

In accordance with DP’s focus on combining important ideas from competing values into a new workable whole for each research study (R. B. Johnson, 2017, p. 160), the literature reviews gave several inputs to additional research. First, they bolstered the development of hypotheses and a theoretical framework for the research design of the case study. Second, they provided preliminary concepts, constructs, and items for the media teacher-specific survey batteries. Third, they made it possible to develop a media teacher typology of different historical discursive positions as media teachers and thus functioned as a theoretical framework in the field studies in the main case study.

4.2.2 Case study design

To investigate these last discursive patterns of historical discursive positions of media teachers, I chose a multiple comparative case study design as the primary data collection method (Marshall & Rossman, 2006; Yin, 2009). Case studies enable the investigation of a contemporary phenomenon in depth and in its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clear (Yin, 2009).

To obtain a better understanding of educational practice in the MC program and how to design the case study, I conducted a one-week pilot observation at an MC school in early autumn 2011, following a teacher through their scheduled activities and in the shared MC teacher room. Based on this pilot, I designed the case study with focus group interviews, educational practice observations and follow-up individual interviews, to get access to both shared understandings, educational practices and the individual teachers positioning towards these shared understandings and practices.

A multiple case study design makes it possible to look at specific variations in discursive patterns. The case schools were purposively selected based on theoretical replication (Yin, 2009, p. 54), with similarities in school and MC program size, organization, and school context but differences in educational orientation, to investigate whether an academic or a vocational school orientation had discursive implications connected to epistemic understandings and knowledge base (Young, 1999a). Designing the case study sampling with a focus on theoretical replication enabled selecting cases that maximized the variation in concepts and variables of motivations for educational practice while minimizing other variables (Yin, 2009, p. 54). The case schools were both set in university cities in otherwise rural locations in counties with similar school regulations. They had similar-sized class cohorts for each year in the three-year program and similar sizes in terms of teacher collegium. They also had analogous organizational practices of production work based on the study plans of the previous semesters. However, one school had mainly vocational study programs, while the other was

largely academic, which allowed for an investigation into institutional discursive formations—the schools’ traditions and epistemic practices—as a factor in teachers’ motivations for and understandings of educational practice in the MC program (Cunningham & Kelly, 2017; Foray & Hargreaves, 2003).

As the focus of the design was on the teachers’ understandings and motivations, the material from the two case study schools used in the articles includes focus group interviews with 11 media teachers and individual interviews with 14 media teachers and seven general education teachers.

To inform the teacher interviews as the main data source in the design, the contextual data also included a two-week field observation period at the case schools between the focus group and individual interviews; it consisted of naturally occurring talk in MC teacher meetings, classroom observations, and informal teacher, student, and administration conversations. I also had access to study plans and project plans for the spring semester 2012 at both case schools.

Research insights and limitations

The case study design was geared toward teacher understandings of and motivations for educational practice within a community of practice at a specific moment in time. The design was thus limited to a short time frame, from the focus group interviews in February until the final individual interviews in April and May 2012. At the same time, the distance of about three months between the focus group and individual interviews of the MC teachers gave these teachers enough time to reflect further on their own positions and understandings based on the focus group interviews, which gave valuable insights in the individual interviews; there was also a marked difference in the elaboration of the reflections of the MC teachers who took part in the first focus groups and the MC and general education teachers who were only interviewed as individuals.

4.2.3 Focus group interviews

As the aim of the study was to reveal different teacher viewpoints and interactional perspectives in an MC teacher collegium, I used focus groups, which offer a platform for differing paradigms or worldviews through naturally occurring talk (Flores & Alonso, 1995; Kitzinger, 1995; J. Potter, 2013). The advantages of using focus group interviews in researching discursive understandings and tensions is that conversations are guided by the informants’ own reflections, agreements, disagreements, silences, and spontaneous expressive and emotional views (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2015, p. 175).

Case school focus group interviews

The case school focus group interviews were conducted in February 2012 following a thematic guide; I served as moderator (Appendix I). The focus group conversations took place at the case schools and lasted about 90 minutes each.

Eleven teachers took part in these conversations: five at the academic school and six at the vocational school. Although not all teachers at either school were present, the focus group interviewees all had

tenure and 100% positions in the program at the time and thus a rather stable community of practice (Wenger, 1998).

The conversations were audio-recorded; as moderator, I also took notes on non-verbal interactions and group dynamics, supplementing the verbal data to provide “thicker” descriptions and interpretations (Kitzinger, 1994). Directly after the focus group interview, I went through and expanded on the notes of body language cues and observed interactions. I then listened to all the recordings and matched sound and interaction cues to the timeline. Both interviews were transcribed verbatim, and the interaction cues were added to the transcripts (Fonteyn, Vettese, Lancaster, & Bauer-Wu, 2008). They were analyzed thematically, first using the NVivo 10 software to obtain a thematic overview and then reexamined in several read-throughs of transcripts with a focus on discursive patterns in verbal and social interactions (Joffe, 2011). Those read-throughs also served to pinpoint verbal and interaction cues to follow up on in individual interviews with the MC teachers, as differences in understandings were often partly expressed in body language. These are discussed in section 4.2.5.

Additional focus group interview for typicality and saturation

The case study samples were selected with a focus on theoretical replication (Yin, 2009). However, since the field of teachers’ educational practice was so underexplored in existing research on the MC program, I could not know whether these two cases were exemplary or typical of educational practice (Bryman, 2004, p. 56). Typical case sampling is purposive sampling to study a phenomenon in a setting that is viewed as typical or representative of the group of cases under consideration; it can have a descriptive function and capture the context and conditions in an everyday or commonplace situation (Yin, 2009, p. 48). To assess whether the cases were indeed typical and a third comparative case was needed, I conducted a third focus group interview at a school with a completely different context in May 2012. Whereas the case study schools were selected because they had very similar characteristics beyond the academic–vocational distinction, this contrasting school was a large urban school with long traditions of both academic and vocational programs. By studying a deviant or negative case, like this school, researchers can often gain a better understanding of more regular patterns of behavior, thus strengthening the hypothesized relationships or theory (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009, p. 251; Yin, 2009).

Using the same focus group thematic guide as in the earlier focus group interviews (Appendix 1), the focus group was facilitated over 90 minutes with 12 MC teachers. The conversation was recorded, with body language cues noted. As in the other two focus groups, I expanded on the observational cues immediately afterward and listened to the recordings several times. However, the focus group interview revealed no new understandings or thematizations on the subjects brought up for discussion. I interpreted this as a sign both of typicality in my two previous cases (Yin, 2009) and of saturation, which occurs when the addition of more units does not result in new information that can be used in

theme development (Strauss & Corbin, 1998; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009, p. 183). I thus decided not to add further cases to the study.

Research insights and limitations

The initial analysis of the interviews showed evidence of discursive patterns from media literacy research and tensions in professional understandings expressed in verbal cues and also found in the thematic review of the media teachers. The thematic analysis of transcripts in NVivo clarified socially constructed patterns of topics and answers to questions in the two case schools. The more immersive read-throughs of transcripts with social interaction cues provided further themes and deepened my understanding of the social dynamics in each teacher collegium: what was considered important, emphasized, or met with laughter or confirmatory nods; what was met with silence or avoidance of eye contact; and what was cut off, interrupted, or sidestepped. Based on these cues, I also took notes of situations and interactions for follow-up in the individual interviews. The focus group interviews also provided insights into thematic constructions and tensions that provided further development points for the MC-specific survey batteries used as background data in Articles 2 and 3.

4.2.4 Two-week field study at the two case schools

To inform the teacher interviews as the main empirical data source, the data materials also included a two-week case school field study period in April and May 2012—between the focus groups and individual interviews—with daily observations from 8:00 am to 4:00 pm every school day. A one-week interval between schools was enough time to write out all observations from the first field case study but still soon enough that external factors had a lesser chance of disrupting the observations. Field studies are an important part of multiple case study designs because they give access to deeper contextual and comparative understandings and materials and to naturally occurring talk (J. Potter, 2013; Yin, 2009). I developed my field protocol based on the research objectives of my study and took extensive field notes that were expanded every afternoon; thus, I aimed to collect all the materials needed to examine these objectives (Yin, 2009, p. 86).

Data collection based on empirical research objectives

To obtain access to who these teachers were, the case field studies provided deeper insights into the teachers' backgrounds through 1) using the thematic literature review as a media teacher typology in observation of the media teachers, 2) informal conversations and naturally occurring talk described in field notes and individual recorded interviews, and 3) observing practice and discussing it with the teachers in informal conversations recorded in field notes, using examples of these practices in recorded individual interviews, and contrasting recorded interviews with other teacher groups' interviews. The field studies gave access to teachers' understandings of their role as teachers, their educational practices, student participation and educational goals, and views of other teachers and teaching practices.

To obtain a deeper understanding of why the MC teachers teach the way they do, the field studies provided the following materials: 1) documented educational practices through access to project plans, project reports, and classroom observations of naturally occurring talk in the execution of these plans, and discussions with the teachers of plans and practices through field notes and recorded individual interviews; 2) data on both the MC and general education teachers' perceived educational goals through formal recorded interviews of each teacher group.

Media teacher literature review as typology of positioning

To have a clear understanding of one's own discursive position as a researcher and collect relevant observational data within a limited time frame, a common strategy in the case study approach is to follow the theoretical propositions of the project (Yin, 2009, p. 130). I thus used the thematic literature review of Nordic media teachers as a discursive framing to investigate whether I saw the same or different patterns of media teacher positions in the case study as in the review. The historical positions found in the literature review on media education in Article 2—the innovative pedagogue, the critical scholar, the production-oriented pedagogue, and the vocational trainer—served as starting points and hypotheses from which to observe the local teacher positions while also clarifying my own preconceptions to ensure self-reflection on biases in my findings (Amdam, 2017b, pp. 84-85).

The field studies also broadened my own understanding as a researcher of the local educational contexts, provided further background data on the teacher dynamics seen in the focus group interviews, and refined common understandings and tensions within and across school contexts both through the formal data collection described above and via observations of interactions and naturally occurring talk in teacher work rooms, meetings, and classroom practices and informal talks with educational leaders, students, and MC and general education teachers that I preserved in field notes (J. Potter, 2013).

Research insights and limitations

Through the field studies, I collected significant amounts of data that informed the further analysis of my findings and gave contextual knowledge for the last part of my data collection—the individual interviews. The case study schools gave me access to teacher workplaces and let me take part in all sorts of activities for two weeks in total. While that is not a long time, it had to coincide with “normal activity” periods at approximately the same time in the study year to have comparable data; mid-semester, with no major exams or holidays. The limited time frame constrained the data I could collect but also focused my studies on the main research objectives of the teachers' own understandings and motivations. Using a media teacher typology as research framing also clarified different positions and repertoires at the case schools and allowed for greater transparency of the observations, in accordance with DP's goal of explicitly stating the research approach with researchers' and stakeholders' epistemological and social and political values and construct standards to guide and judge the research (R. B. Johnson, 2017, p. 160).

4.2.5 Individual semi-structured teacher interviews

To obtain a deeper understanding of how the media teachers perceived their role and educational practice and how other teachers in the same schools saw the media teachers' role and practice, I conducted 20 individual interviews and one interview with two participants during the field study period (Yin, 2009, p. 107). The interviews lasted for about one hour and were conducted at the case schools.

The media teacher interviews were recorded conversations based on a theory- and context-informed interview guide, with a semi-structured form to be filled out by the interviewer in each instance (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2015, p. 47). That approach provided a shared thematic framework while leaving room for individual differences.

First, the thematic guide used in the focus group conversations in February was redeployed in terms of themes (Appendix I) but developed further to take into account the individual positions expressed in the focus group interviews, guided by the informants' own reflections, agreements, disagreements, silences, and spontaneous expressive and emotional views (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2015, p. 175). In the individual interviews, we further discussed the informants' positions on the themes, differences, other opinions, tensions, and agreement or disagreement with the focus group findings. The individual interviews thus provided deeper understandings of subject positions and any changes in those positions from the focus group interviews.

Second, we discussed the theory-based statements from the survey on how participants became teachers and how they saw their teacher role and the educational goals of the program, as described in Articles 2 and 3.

Third, field observations from notes were used in the interview discussions regarding current project plans and other teaching materials to delve more deeply into themes connected to individual and team educational practices and understandings and the motivations behind them. This was intended to provide a more informed view of the teachers' understandings as they translated into educational practice.

The 14 media teacher interviews were conducted by the author in April and May 2012. They were all carried out in the last week of the observation period at each school. The collegium in the academic school consisted of six media teachers; I also interviewed three general education teachers who taught classes in the MC program. In the vocational school, eight media teachers were interviewed, as were four general education teachers.

The seven general education teachers were interviewed because they taught core subject classes that had the most weekly class hours in the program: mathematics (two), Norwegian (three), and social sciences (two). They were also chosen because they had similar classes in other study programs to

compare practice and student perceptions. A key criterion in choosing general education teachers was that they had been part of the MC program for three years or longer, which ensured that they had interacted with several groups of MC students and teachers. At one school, two language teachers were interviewed together because they taught in different years of the MC program and could thus offer different perspectives of taking part in the program and provide deeper access to their understandings than could be obtained in individual interviews or naturally occurring talk (J. Potter, 2013). Since these teachers had not been part of the focus group interviews in February, I used the original thematic interview guide as a starting point (Appendix I) but used field data to delve more deeply into themes connected to local educational practices and understandings. Finally, I asked the general education teachers to comment specifically on their understandings of the teachers, students, and educational practices in the MC program when compared to other programs they also taught in.

As with the focus group interviews, observational cues were noted, expanded on after the interviews, and integrated into the interview transcripts. The individual and group interviews were then thematically sorted in NVivo for an initial thematic overview of patterns across and between contexts through a content analysis approach, which uses systematic procedures to examine any written text through categorization, comparison, and conclusion (Cohen et al., 2015). I employed qualitative academic content analysis, which implies coding text in terms of certain subjects and themes (Bryman, 2016). The themes and categories of the focus groups and interviews were then seen together, and additional analysis of the interviews was carried out by read-throughs connecting interview data to field observation data; this ensured that connections among themes and between verbal themes and other materials were identified and understood correctly (Joffe, 2011).

Research insights and limitations

The total sample of media teachers at the two case schools gave further input to the understandings from the focus group interviews but also weakened the survey batteries I had developed on professional allegiance and understanding of role in relation to my research objectives, as it soon became explicit that the shared teacher and school cultures seemed to affect positioning as media professional versus media teacher more than teacher background. Since I did not have access to this factor in my survey, I thus decided to exclude these survey batteries from further investigations and focus on the qualitative materials from the case study for this topic.

The sampling of general education teachers was motivated by choosing teachers who had an educational history of three years or more in the MC program, who taught in subjects that had many weekly hours in the program, and who taught in other study programs for comparison. The sampling was strategic, and their opinions cannot be seen as representative of general education teachers. I did however share those findings with a fellow PhD student, Toril Aagaard, who researched multimodal educational practices in upper secondary school with a sample that was the opposite of mine: 25 general education language teachers and 10 media teachers. Her findings suggested that the

interpretive repertoire on academic achievement I found among the general education teachers and report in Article 3 (Amdam, 2016, pp. 100-102) accorded with hers, confirming that this is in fact a repertoire in use in a broader sample of general education teachers (Aagaard, 2015).

4.3 Background materials and methods – Contextual data and national survey

4.3.1 Contextual understanding

To provide other perspectives beyond the main data sources to form valid hypotheses in accordance with DP's focus on listening (R. B. Johnson, 2017, p. 160), I supplemented the research on academic literature with contextual studies of the MC program not only before designing the case study and survey but also after collecting the data for further contextualization.

To understand the formal regulations and policies of the program, I studied the MC curriculum, white papers, and media discourses on the program from its initial stages in 1998 through 2021, as presented in chapter 2.

To obtain a better picture of understandings and tensions in the educational field, I had conversations with the main researchers in the field, but also informal focus group conversations with the boards of two main teacher stakeholders in the MC program, the national media teacher association (Landslaget for medielærere - Mediepedagogene) and the government-appointed national council for the program (Faglig råd for Medier og kommunikasjon), in late spring 2011.

As noted, I also conducted a one-week pilot observation at an MC school that involved following a teacher through their scheduled activities and using the shared MC teacher room for a week in early autumn 2011 to obtain a better understanding of educational practice in the MC program and how to design the field observations in the case study.

Research insights and limitations

These different contextual explorations gave me an sense of discursive patterns, understandings, and tensions in the practical field. They strengthened the notion that different schools and stakeholders had different motivations for practice and different educational goals but similar organizational practices of production work. This initial research also appeared to suggest that differences in motivation for practice might be connected to traditions arising from being either vocational or academic. It provided insights into how I needed to develop my research design to gain access to the teachers' motivations for educational practice by combining focus group and individual interviews. The contextual studies also showed the limitations of the case study approach, not only to bolster the need for a descriptive national survey on the teachers' background and organizational practices to test my hypotheses but also to see if the discursive patterns existed in and across the discursive orders of different schools.

4.3.2 Initial survey design

Following my iterative research design, the main purpose of designing the national survey was to obtain the broadest possible descriptive context of the MC teachers' backgrounds and their educational practices at a specific moment in time, which would serve as context for the primary qualitative case study materials. The survey was thus designed as a cross-sectional online questionnaire administered at only one point in time and available to respondents for a three-month period (mid-March to mid-June), timed in parallel with the case studies to complement this primary data collection (B. Johnson & Turner, 2003).

The survey was conducted in cooperation with a team of two researchers at the University of Oslo, Øystein Gilje and Line Ingulfsen, who in parallel with my investigation on MC teachers repeated and expanded on the student survey on the MC program conducted by Ola Erstad, Øystein Gilje, and Thomas de Lange in 2006 (Erstad et al., 2007a).

The survey batteries used in this thesis were developed by following the processual steps in scale development, developing clear and specific constructs and relevant items based in the discursive understandings detected in the field through other data sources (DeVellis, 2011, pp. 73–85). To ensure the broadest possible response options while maintaining efficient data collection through predefined closed scales, I added an optional qualitative, open question for new constructs measured to be sure to include other understandings than those in the predefined survey items. This was also done to ensure member check and feedback on my interpretations of discursive understandings in the educational field (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009, p. 235).

All survey batteries beyond the purely descriptive background personality inventory batteries were designed as Likert scales, presenting the items as declarative positioning sentences, followed by response options that indicate varying degrees of agreement with or endorsement of the statement (DeVellis, 2011, p. 93). To allow for a neutral position on the different items, I used five response options (DeVellis, 2011, p. 93) (see Appendix III).

Descriptive survey batteries on teacher backgrounds

As explained in section 4.1.3, the national survey on teacher backgrounds conducted in 2006–2007 became a reference work in further investigating the MC teachers' backgrounds (Turmo & Aamodt, 2007). To be able to compare data between the two surveys and look at possible continuities, discrepancies, and developments, all items in the descriptive batteries on the pedagogical and subject-specific competencies of the MC teachers in my survey were identical to the national survey's batteries.

Since the teachers were perceived as the youngest teacher group in upper secondary schools and because they worked in a program that was only 12 years old, I also wanted to gain an understanding of how common it was to enter the MC program from a different teaching background and to see

whether the typical pedagogical innovator found in the thematic literature review was prevalent among the MC teachers. I thus included a descriptive battery on previous teaching experience with the following focus: *Teacher practice before becoming an MC teacher—what teaching practice(s) and for how long?* As described in section 4.2.5, this was also a theme in the individual interviews in the case study for comparison.

However, the 2006 survey did not include vocational background. Since that could be an important factor in forming teacher understandings and educational practice in a program that provides vocational competencies and since this understanding was also prevalent in the stakeholder conversations presented in section 4.3.2, I thus developed descriptive batteries on vocational background that focused on the following: *Vocational practice in a media profession before becoming an MC teacher—what profession(s) and for how long?* This was also a thematic focus in the individual interviews in the case study (section 4.2.5).

The wording of this survey question was the same as in the question on teaching background to allow for comparison, as shown in Article 2 (Amdam, 2017b, p. 86). The constructs investigated in the descriptive batteries were thus as follows (DeVellis, 2011, p. 17):

- Education level
- Subject-specific background
- Pedagogical training
- Vocational experience
- Teacher experience

Survey batteries on educational practice

The national student survey from 2006 (Erstad et al., 2007a), qualitative contextual studies of the program, and researcher and stakeholder conversations all indicated that in several schools the educational practice in the program consisted mainly of interdisciplinary project and production work across curricular media program subjects but not between media program and general education subjects. The literature review also suggested that theoretical, systemic perspectives of media education could be downplayed in production practices (Buckingham, 2010; Erstad & Amdam, 2013; Quin, 2003b). This led to the development of a descriptive battery on the organization of educational practice within the program, focusing on three areas:

- Whether the three main media subjects were taught separately or combined in interdisciplinary themes or projects across two or all three media subjects.
- Whether some media classes were kept as separate theory classes or media theory was introduced as part of the project work.
- Whether the MC teachers had interdisciplinary projects with general education teachers.

This was followed by an open survey question for qualitative descriptions of other practices and understandings.

Survey batteries on motivations for becoming and being teachers

The thematic review on media teachers showed different motivations for taking on that role, and the stakeholder interviews and pilot observations showed that not all these teachers saw themselves as teachers; some saw themselves as media professionals who gave students insights into their trades. I thus included a validated Likert scale survey battery on teachers' professional allegiance from a large Norwegian study—the CSP database that Oslo University College has developed since 2000 (Heggen, 2008)—but I found that professional culture seemed to be more dependent on local community of practice than factors measured in this battery in the case study and thus did not include this battery in my articles (see section 4.4.3).

To look at media education-specific causes for becoming and being teachers, I also started developing two more specific motivation batteries on:

- Why teachers became media teachers.
- How they see their role as media teachers.

Again, this focus was followed by open categories for qualitative reflections in the survey; it was also a central concern in the individual interviews in the case study, with the findings presented in Article 3 (Amdam, 2016, p. 92).

Survey batteries on perceived educational goals

To ensure a detailed examination of what is perceived to motivate educational practice, I also developed a five-point Likert scale survey battery on perceived educational goals. This battery was developed based on the stated educational goals in the MC curriculum and on the broader educational goals that emerged from the review of the academic field of media literacy (Article 1) and in the thematic review (Article 2). I used these two sources to gain an understanding of what goals were perceived as the most important by the media teachers. The survey question was formulated as follows: *Of what the students can obtain/learn through the MC program, what do you think is the most important?* (Likert scale: “Not important” to “Very important”). The completed survey battery and case study findings are presented in Article 3 (Amdam, 2016, p. 92) and Appendix III.

Research insights and limitations

As to the overall content of the research instrument (Creswell & Creswell, 2018, p. 154), the survey consisted of the following themes related to my project:

1. *Demographic data*
2. *Educational and professional background and current teacher position:* What have you done before and what are you doing now in the MC program (descriptive data)?
3. *Educational practice through organization:* How is the program organized in your school (descriptive data)?
4. *Professional allegiance:* What are your motivations for becoming and being a media teacher?
5. *Professional understanding:* What do you see as your role as a media teacher?

6. *Educational goals*: What do you see as the most important outcomes of the MC program for students?

As discussed in section 4.1, the survey findings provided a contextual backdrop for developing discursive hypotheses on the media teachers' understandings. By including open categories in the survey and examining the same themes in the individual interviews, I was able to analyze whether the hypothetical discursive tendencies identified the survey were also found in the case study. The exclusion of the survey battery on professional allegiance was a necessary and natural consequence of the case study findings that revealed discursive understandings that this battery did not take into account; this decision accords with DP's focus on continually evaluating the outcome and use of the research (R. B. Johnson, 2017, p. 160).

4.3.3 Refining and piloting national survey

Based on the thematic analysis of the focus group interviews, the media teacher-specific survey batteries were refined to ensure relevance for the survey respondents (DeVellis, 2011, p. 187).

The survey was then piloted with six media teachers who were chosen based on diversity of teacher experience and background, founded on the earlier teacher survey (Turmo & Aamodt, 2007). My goal was to ensure that survey questions were understandable and relatable for all MC teacher groups and that perspectives I had not encountered in my previous teacher meetings and research were addressed. I thus chose pilot informants based on diversity on the dimensions of *age* (teachers in their early twenties through their sixties), *gender* (three male, three female), *school district* (different parts of the country, with a rural-urban mix), length and diversity of *vocational experience* (short = 1–3 years; medium = 3–5 years; long = 6 or more years), length and diversity in *teacher experience* (short = 1–3 years; medium = 3–5 years; long = 6 or more years), and length and diversity in *education*.

Age	Gender	School district	Vocational media experience	Teacher experience	Education
30s	F	Rural west	Short	Medium	Theoretical master's + teacher training
50s	M	Rural east	Short	Long	Theoretical master's + teacher training
40s	M	Urban north west	Long	Medium	Practical master's + teacher training
30s	F	Rural south west	Short	Medium	Theoretical master's
20s	M	Rural west	Medium	Short	Practical bachelor's
60s	F	Urban east	Long	Short	Vocational certification + teacher training

Each pilot informant filled in the survey with me as an observer, using the protocol of talking through each question and response options with the concept investigated as a starting point (DeVellis, 2011, p. 77; Pepper, Hodgen, Lamesoo, Kõiv, & Tolboom, 2018). Based on their feedback, the survey

questions in the batteries developed specifically for the survey were revised and refined, and all six informants were consulted again before the survey battery contents and order were finalized.

Research insights and limitations

The piloting was aimed to strengthen the validity of the survey, especially its content and construct validity, and internal consistency (Creswell & Creswell, 2018, pp. 153–154). The piloting resulted in the following changes to the survey:

1. Added:
 - Battery on combining MC teacher work with being a media professional.
 - Battery on media production work as paid freelancer or amateur, not just as professional.
2. Refining battery items on motivations for becoming teachers; added:
 - Coincidence was very prominent in focus groups.
 - Lack of work as media professional arose in piloting.
3. Clearing up language and shortening batteries in piloting; overlap and redundancy were controlled.

These questions were also addressed in the individual interviews in the case study. All final survey batteries are found in Appendix III, as discussed in section 4.1.

4.3.4 Purposive total sampling and field validation

The lack of previous research on MC teachers would have made it difficult to find a representative sample of teacher respondents for the survey, if generalization had been the goal (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). However, my aim was to have the broadest possible selection of schools and teacher respondents not for the purposes of representation but for descriptive data on the diversity of organization and educational practice. My objective with the survey was to reveal discursive patterns and formations and find descriptive and attitudinal data on teacher understandings that would serve as a backdrop for investigating subject positions and interpretive repertoires in the case schools. In choosing my final sample, I not only tried to obtain as much descriptive data as I could but also to bring forth as many different perspectives as possible. The survey data were thus collected to provide a broader hypothetical framing of local discursive understandings.

Both the previous teacher survey (Turmo & Aamodt, 2007) and the former MC student survey (Erstad et al., 2007a, 2007b) used total sampling. Since the teacher survey was launched in cooperation with the researchers repeating the student survey, a total sampling in the teacher survey also made logistical sense. We thus contacted all 106 private and public schools with some form of MC program in 2012, first by email and later by telephone (see attached headmaster letter- Appendix II). The online teacher survey was sent directly to the individual teachers' email addresses at 77 schools that confirmed they had a full three-year MC program when contacted in February and March 2012. A total of 384 out of 587 teachers responded (65% response rate) within the three-month response frame window (mid-March to mid-June 2012); all 77 schools had at least one respondent.

Research insights and limitations

The national survey was launched the week before the first two-week observation, and teachers in the case schools were asked to wait to fill in the survey until I was present. At each school, I observed three teachers with different backgrounds and program responsibilities as they filled in the survey and asked them to follow the think aloud-protocol so that I could take notes on how they reacted to and commented on the survey batteries, which added validation (Pepper et al., 2018). This further informed my survey analysis and the use of survey responses as background data for the case study.

The optional open survey questions for each theme were not often used by the survey respondents, but those that did respond provided insights into differences in school organization, as many used this option to offer deeper explanations of practice under the theme “Educational practice through organization.” The findings here strengthened my understanding of how project work and production work were core educational practices in the MC program across schools.

The survey process also provided another insight into how the landscape of educational opportunity for taking the MC program had changed since the student survey had last been conducted in 2006–2007. In my survey preparation in 2011–2012, I found a decrease in schools offering the program. While 106 public and private schools offered some sort of MC program in 2012, not all schools had the full three-year program (vilbli.no, 2012). I thus ended up with 77 schools with the full three-year program and apprenticeship options for my total survey selection of MC program schools in 2012, as opposed to 120 schools when Erstad et al. researched the program in 2006–2007 (2007a).

4.4 Analyzing data and redefining the discursive research scope

The analytical strategy was based on the discursive framework (Yin, 2009, p. 127). The target of empirical discourse analysis is “not institutions, theories or ideology – but practices – with the aim of grasping the conditions which make them acceptable at a given moment” (Foucault, 1991, p. 76). This understanding informed my initial data analysis, based on the research objectives of who the MC teachers were and why they taught the way they did.

4.4.1 Discourse analysis and mixed methods research

As described above in the research design and process, the main focus in my research and analysis was on the qualitative case study, the interviews, and naturally occurring talk, in accordance with the theoretical framework of discourse psychological understandings of positioning and interpretative repertoires (J. Potter, 2013), interactional focuses on communities of practice (Wenger, 1998), and professional cultures and epistemic practices (Evetts, 2003; Foray & Hargreaves, 2003). Thus, even though I used a mixed methods research design, the literature reviews and background sources of contextual studies and survey findings functioned as thematic references and sources for hypothesizing tendencies, and as research input on broader discursive understandings in the educational field than the case study data alone could provide, as presented in the findings in Articles 2 and 3.

The different sources on methods used in this chapter do come with different premises and preconceptions, and to follow both the theoretical framework and the transparency inspiration from DP, I have tried to make these premises and preconceptions explicit through the descriptions and discussions of insights and limitations of analytical focuses and quality criteria.

4.4.2 Analyzing qualitative and quantitative data separately and together

Case study materials – Contextualizations, thematizations and cross-case synthesis

On the qualitative side, the initial data analysis consisted of mapping themes in the focus groups and interviews in NVivo10 and further expanding on or redefining those themes in read-throughs of the contextualized focus group and individual interviews to obtain a deeper understanding of coherence and discrepancies in themes and repertoires. These readings were supplemented with contextual data from my field notes to investigate how “systematic clusters of themes, statements, ideas, and ideologies come into play in the text” (Luke, 2000, p. 456) in the two case schools. I thus had a contextualizing analytical strategy, looking for patterns across the interconnected narratives (Teddle & Tashakkori, 2009, p. 253).

Since I had used theoretical replication in choosing the case schools (Yin, 2009, p. 54), I then did a pattern matching to see if I could detect the predicted patterns on the variable of school orientation between the schools. There were marked similarities in organization of the program, independent of school district and the organization of other programs in the case schools, and marked differences between the practices and motivations for practices between the schools motivated by academic or vocational school orientation, thus strengthening the internal validity of the project (Yin, 2009, p. 136) and supporting the hypothesis that there are differences in epistemic beliefs and practices that depend on the vocational or academic orientations of the case schools.

To further compare the cases, I carried out a cross-case synthesis, comparing thematic occurrences and non-occurrences across the case schools (Yin, 2009, p. 160). These were then compared to the historical discursive framework described in the literature reviews to identify what was perceived as common or natural and the conflicting understandings and constructions within the discursive practice (Foucault, 2003). Finally, the qualitative thematizations were compared to descriptive and attitudinal data in the national survey to see whether there were consistencies in patterns on a broader scale or whether the thematizations were characteristic of the specific case school settings.

Survey data – Descriptive analysis

The quantitative data were collected to give a broad map of teacher backgrounds, educational practices, and perceived educational goals, which strengthened the analytical strategy of the case study (Yin, 2009, p. 132). As such, the data from the survey were exported to SPSS and analyzed descriptively using frequencies, means, and standard deviations to identify possible descriptive patterns across the 77 MC program schools (Teddle & Tashakkori, 2009, p. 258).

These frequency patterns were then compared to the qualitative case study data on the same themes to provide a contextual hypothetical framework on tendencies in the educational field for inferences in the qualitative findings and discussions, not to be able to generalize about the total population (Jimarkon & Todd, 2011, p. 45; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009, p. 288). Using a side-by-side approach, I compared the data sets to see whether the qualitative findings confirmed or disconfirmed the quantitative results, presented in Articles 2 and 3 (Creswell & Creswell, 2018, p. 220).

Member check – Presentations and discussions at regional media teacher seminars

To ensure credibility in accordance with the focus in both mixed methods and DP research on member check and continual evaluation of the research outcomes (R. B. Johnson, 2017, p. 160; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009, p. 213), I presented the preliminary findings at four regional media teacher seminars, two in the case schools' regions and two in other parts of the country, in late 2012 and early 2013. My goal in taking part in these seminars was to present and discuss preliminary findings and compare my findings at the two anonymized case schools with how other schools organized their educational practice and to obtain feedback on the findings both from the included and from other media teachers. These meetings made it clear that there were commonalities across school contexts in teacher understandings and differences in understandings within and across regions.

Educational traditions at the individual schools appeared to have a stronger influence than financing in the regions in areas like how many students were in an MC class and what the teachers saw as educational goals in the seminar discussions. Whereas schools with academic traditions often had 20–25 students in one class but used teacher teams, a class size in line with traditions in other academic programs, schools with vocational traditions typically had 12–15 students in one MC class, as is common in other vocational programs, independent of region. Differences in educational practice, student participation, and perceived goals had already become evident as thematic fields of tension in the initial analysis. I had not asked about class size or perceived academic or vocational tradition in my survey, but this led me to undertake a deeper analysis of motivations for educational practice of production work when it came to student participation and educational goals, presented in Article 3.

Similarly, in presenting and discussing differences in teacher understandings, the regional seminars confirmed my thematic findings, acting as a member check of thematic focuses both among the participating case school teachers and within the broader regional teacher cohorts (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009, p. 213). The teachers in the seminars openly discussed my findings, positioning themselves within or across the different outlined repertoires, but none of the media teachers introduced themes, repertoires, or positions outside the scope of the findings that were presented.

Peer review in the analytical process

During the analytical process, I also shared my findings and inferences in two research networks: The National Graduate School in Educational Research (NATED) and Nordic Research Network on

Learning Across Contexts (NordLAC). I received feedback on both theoretical and analytical perspectives and on the use of data in the articles.

Research insights and limitations

This initial approach to analyzing the data can be viewed as a parallel mixed data analytical strategy in that the qualitative and quantitative data were analyzed separately before making meta-inferences (Teddle & Tashakkori, 2009, p. 266). However, the use of the data analysis was also iterative in that the different data sources in the initial analysis informed later choices in narrowing the scope of analysis, as is described further in section 4.4.3 (Teddle & Tashakkori, 2009, p. 274).

Analyzing the different data sources together and then using peer review and member check in the MC seminars strengthened the credibility of the inferences based on the data (Guba & Lincoln, 1989; Teddle & Tashakkori, 2009, p. 297). In a qualitatively driven research project, a good inference “should capture the meaning of the phenomenon under consideration for the study participants,” strengthening the authenticity and trustworthiness through subjective validity in an attempt to capture the meanings of experiences or interactions (Druckman, 2005; Teddle & Tashakkori, 2009, p. 295).

4.4.3 Narrowing scope based on the discursive patterns and tensions

Based on the thematic data analysis, the descriptive survey findings, and the member checks, I zoomed in on common discursive patterns across the survey and case study materials related to the research objectives and on discursive patterns that were uncommon within the broader school contexts. Retaining my primary focus on contextualized verbal and interactional data in focus groups and individual interviews, I developed refined research questions for additional in-depth analysis. This resulted in the research questions and materials used in Articles 2 and 3.

In Article 2 I focused on MC teachers’ understandings of their motivations for educational practice; the goal of the article was to explore the MC teachers’ self-images and positionings and their implications for media education practices through the following research question: *What self-images, positioning and interpretative repertoires do media teachers in the MC program utilize in describing themselves as teachers, and how do they perceive these understandings as influencing educational practice?*

The research questions were examined through the contextualized focus groups and individual interviews with media teachers at the two MC schools, based on the thematic literature review of historical positions of the media teacher and supported by the national survey data on the media teachers’ backgrounds, motivations and practices (n=383 for the survey batteries) (Amdam, 2017b).

Article 3 zoomed in on the most common educational practices in the MC program, the production practices, within the broader school culture, seeking to answer the research question: *As exemplified in*

the MC program, what are the tensions in and between interpretative repertoires teachers use in discussing student participation and educational goals within a context of production work in school?

Supported by the national survey data on what the media teachers saw as the most important goals of the program for the students ($n = 384$ for this battery), this article explored the research question through focus groups and individual interviews with both MC teachers and general education teachers at the two case schools (Amdam, 2016).

Research insights and limitations

A main limitation of any exploratory research design is the inability to predict what materials will offer the most valuable insights into the research objectives, as also discussed initially in this chapter (Creswell & Creswell, 2018, p. 104). Zooming in on specifically interesting discursive patterns also meant that materials that did not concern the specific research questions of the articles were not used for this thesis. However, it was important to me, based both on my research position within discourse analysis and DP's ideals of transparency (R. B. Johnson, 2017; Tranekjær, 2015), that the educational field had access to the findings I did not use for the articles, so I presented the survey and case study findings at national media teacher conferences and in different media.

4.5 Credibility and ethical considerations

4.5.1 Sharing and utilizing the findings

In spring 2013, I took part in two national teacher conferences focusing on school development in upper secondary school—the National Conference on Arts and Culture in School in March and the National Media Teacher Conference in May—and presented findings from the research project. The findings were also shared on the conference webpages and the national media teacher Facebook page (Amdam, 2013).

That same spring, changes in the MC program were discussed on a national political level. To contribute to this discussion, I wrote an opinion article on the value of the existing program based on my findings, together with Øystein Gilje and Ola Erstad (Amdam, Gilje, & Erstad, 2013a). This led to further newspaper dialogue with Minister of Education Kristin Halvorsen (Amdam, Gilje, & Erstad, 2013b; Halvorsen, 2013). I was also invited to provide input to program development at The Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training (UDIR) in March 2014 and again at the nationally appointed MC Council Conference (MK fagråd dialogkonferanse) in May 2014.

The two empirical articles were published in 2016 and early 2017. In May 2017, I presented the findings from the articles at the National Media Teacher Conference (Amdam, 2017a). I thus tried to contribute to and interact with the educational field in accordance with my discourse analytical position (described in section 3.3) and DP's ideal of transparency.

4.5.2 Evaluating the process and outcome

Initially in this chapter, I presented the research design as a discourse analytically framed, qualitatively driven, sequential mixed methods design (Teddle & Tashakkori, 2009, p. 155), where the quantitative national survey and context studies serve as descriptive backdrops about MC teachers in Norway that inform the analysis of the main qualitative data sources of the literature reviews and case study. Through this chapter, I have discussed reliability and validity as part of the research design and process, in accordance with the ideal of transparency from DP (R. B. Johnson, 2017). To sum up my research insights and limitations through this research design and process and in inferences and outcomes, I further summarize the methodological implications for research credibility and ethics.

4.5.3 Transparency and reliability

My methodological positioning throughout the research process has been grounded in discourse analysis and inspired by DP, with a focus on transparency guiding the research design and process, in writing up the articles' findings, and how I write now about the findings and overall process (R. B. Johnson, 2017). Transparency, which refers to researchers' clarity of explanation regarding all stages of a study, is regarded as a core indicator of quality in both quantitative and qualitative studies (Bryman, 2004, p. 284). Transparency and reliability go hand in hand, with reliability asking whether other researchers would be likely to reach the same conclusions on the basis of the same process and results and if the findings are dependable and consistent across data sources. This can be achieved in mixed methods designs by collecting different forms of data using the same or parallel variables, constructs, or concepts, as I have done, for instance, by using the same themes in survey batteries and interviews and in using the literature review on media teachers as a hypothetical typology on teacher positions in the case study (Greene et al., 1989). Descriptions of methods and research strategies should also be combined with theoretical transparency to satisfy reliability criteria, as emphasized by R. B. Johnson (2017), which I have tried to do by detailing the implications of my theoretical framework for research design and process.

The methodological implications of transparency and reliability for this study are, first, that the formal and informal, included and excluded, and empirical and contextual parts of the explorative design is presented here so that other researchers can evaluate, learn from, and replicate elements of the research design (John W. Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Yin, 2009). The possibility of replication is often mentioned when considering reliability; however, it is often difficult in qualitative research to establish reliability by repeating the "same" measurements, as the context will never be the same (Boeije, 2010). Methodological transparency can be an alternative to actual replication, as it enables an assessment of a researcher's theoretical and methodological strategies and arguments, which can facilitate both attempts at replication and comparative studies (Seale, 1999).

Second, the acquisition and analysis of the quantitative data followed procedures for reliability checks throughout the process, whether in scale development by using analysis from the focus groups to

develop concepts, constructs, and survey batteries, in testing the construct reliability through piloting and in-case observations (Creswell & Creswell, 2018, p. 224; DeVellis, 2011, p. 77), or in ensuring a 65% response rate from the total population, thus reducing sampling error (DeVellis, 2011, p. 54).

Third, both coding and interpretation of qualitative data were tested through member check and cross checks by other researchers, with a focus on auditing dependability and the process of the inquiry, including the appropriateness of inquiry decisions and methodological shifts (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009, p. 295). Using both focus group and individual interviews with the same core group of informants strengthened the trustworthiness and how confident we can be that a different interviewer asking the same questions would receive the same answers (Atkins & Wallace, 2012).

Fourth, using literature reviews and the resulting media teacher typology as research framing clarified different hypothetical positions and repertoires at the case schools. This also allowed for better transparency of the observations in accordance with DP's goal of explicitly stating the research approach with researchers' and stakeholders' epistemological, social, and political values and construct standards to guide and judge the research (R. B. Johnson, 2017, p. 170).

4.5.4 Trustworthiness and validity

Reliability involves consistency, whereas validity involves accuracy. Validity, or trustworthiness, pertains to how inferences are drawn from the data: whether a specific method employed is a good way to assess the studied phenomenon (Boeije, 2010). I further sum up the main qualitative validity implications of my research design and inferences, reflecting on quantitative concerns when required.

The methodological implications of trustworthiness and validity for this study are first that researcher bias has been addressed through both saturation and negative-case sampling (section 4.2.3) by doing a third focus group interview in a collegium that was the opposite of the theoretical replication-based main cases (Yin, 2009). This was also addressed through member check of inferences and through piloting survey batteries and adding open, qualitative questions to construct investigated (DeVellis, 2011, pp. 73–85; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009, p. 235). In addition to including peer debriefing in research groups and peer review of articles, these factors strengthen the factual accuracy of the researcher's accounts, their descriptive validity, and the accurate portrayal of the meaning given by participants, leading to interpretive validity (B. Johnson & Christensen, 2012, p. 265).

Second, interpretive validity was strengthened through participant feedback in teacher seminars (section 4.4.2), through low-inference descriptors in the articles in using participants' direct quotes to ensure that their actual meanings were portrayed (B. Johnson & Christensen, 2012, p. 267).

Third, using literature reviews to develop the survey and as a typology for field investigations strengthen the theoretical validity, the degree to which the theoretical explanation fits the data, as the reviews strengthen theory triangulation (Denzin, 1989) in included academically validated different

and opposing views of both media literacy as a field and teachers' understandings of educational goals and practice (B. Johnson & Christensen, 2012, p. 267).

Fourth, method triangulation was built into the research design to seek corroboration of results by using different methods to study the same phenomenon with the goal of increasing the overall credibility of the research findings (Greene et al., 1989; B. Johnson & Christensen, 2012, p. 439), thus strengthening internal validity. That was also bolstered through data triangulation in the articles and comparing findings across focus group interviews and between individual interviews (B. Johnson & Christensen, 2012, p. 270).

Finally, external validity was built into the research design through the theoretical replication in the case study. Generalization was never a goal, but this replication design afforded opportunities for transferability and analytical generalization of tendencies in the material to new cases (B. Johnson & Christensen, 2012, p. 271). As described in section 4.2.2, a multiple case study design makes it possible to look at specific variations and the case schools were purposively selected based on theoretical replication (Yin, 2009, p. 54) to select cases that maximized variation in the concepts and variables on motivations for educational practice while minimizing other variables, thus strengthening external validity (B. Johnson & Christensen, 2012, p. 271).

The main methodological implication of using a mixed methods research design in an underexplored field of study is that it affords several perspectives on the same object of study that would otherwise be unavailable, thus strengthening the overall credibility of the research. Conducting qualitative interviews is a preferred approach to gaining access to teachers' understandings in educational research (Atkins & Wallace, 2012) and is often supported by commonly available statistics on teacher demographics and backgrounds. However, such data were not available for this group of teachers. Combining literature reviews and a national survey with a qualitative case study provided a context for the interviews that allowed me to obtain a richer understanding of the empirical research questions and to test the rigor of the study through divergent findings between the data sources that uncover new theories and insights in an exploratory study. Quantitative measures may not be sensitive enough to pick up on the complex experiences that are reported qualitatively (Lee & Rowlands, 2015), and opportunities for analytical generalizations through quantitative data lessen the risk of researcher bias in inferences from qualitative data (Atkins & Wallace, 2012). Quality in mixed methods research can be secured through planning quality, design quality, and reporting quality (O'Cathain, 2010). However, there is little consensus regarding criteria for evaluating mixed methods studies (Ivankova, 2014), with Creswell emphasizing that quality frameworks should not be viewed as rigid templates, but rather as general guidelines for use, with transparency the main goal (2015). By following Johnson's transparency framework from DP in mixed methods research, I have tried to ensure transparency through all parts of the research project (R. B. Johnson, 2017).

4.5.5 Ethical considerations

All the participants in my research gave voluntary consent to take part in the data collection after being informed of the project goals and what participation entailed; they were all informed that they could withdraw at any time and that their information would be anonymized. None chose to withdraw in the process (Busher & James, 2012). The data collection and analysis were approved by and conducted in line with the ethical guidelines of the Norwegian Social Science Data Services (NSD).

All the teacher interviews were conducted after each individual teacher was asked if he or she wanted to take part; all teachers were presented with a letter of consent on the research, approved by the NSD, for them to sign. For the survey participants, the school headmasters first received a letter on the research, again approved by the NSD, informing them of the research goal, detailing how all data would be treated, and noting that participation was voluntary and could be withdrawn at any time (Appendix II). When each MC teacher collegium agreed to take part, the administrator of the program sent the email addresses of the MC teachers to us, and the surveys were sent to their individual email addresses with a unique anonymized username through the survey program Questback. The email stated that the survey was voluntary; when opening the link to the survey, participants also had to actively mark that they understood what the survey was about and that they freely chose to take part. All of these steps were approved by the NSD.

All participants and schools were anonymized. In the survey, each participant was anonymized through the survey program Questback, while the schools were assigned a random number. The case schools were not named or situated geographically at any point in the research; they are referred to solely as the academic school and vocational school. All informants in the case schools were anonymized down to age cohort (decade) and gender and assigned pseudonyms, as detailed in Articles 2 and 3. They were also assigned different names in each article to ensure that nobody could be identified by a cross-article comparison.

5. Summary and discussion of the articles

I further sum up the main findings of the articles separately and the findings across the articles pertaining to the empirical research questions. This is followed by a discussion of the findings related to the main research question and the theoretical framework.

5.1 Summary of the article findings

The aim of this thesis has been to explore the understandings of educational roles and goals of the media teachers in the MC program and how they link these understandings to their educational practice within a framework of 21st-century and media literacy education and research. This overarching aim has been investigated through this extended abstract and three separate articles that gradually zoom in on educational practices.

5.1.1 Article 1

Erstad, O. & Amdam, S. (2013). From protection to public participation. A review of research literature on media literacy. *Javnost - The Public*, 20:2, 83-98.

The aim of this scoping review was to show how the conceptual understandings of media literacy has evolved in media research from a rather narrow perspective of training individual skills for media protection toward a broader agenda of media competencies for participation in democratic societies, with the main focus on student outcomes and educational practices. The primary focus of the review was on initiatives within Europe over the last three decades, and grouped policy-oriented, practice-centered, and academic research reviews and meta-texts based on their purpose.

The findings establish what were and had historically been the main research topics, discourses, and positions in media literacy research. From the research positions of effect studies, critical theory, cognitive psychology, cultural studies, media Bildung studies, and new literacy studies, this article's central findings are that the perspectives of these positions can be related to three different levels of media literacy research; the individual, the interactional and the systemic level (see also chapter 2).

In the article, we discuss whether the findings point toward a united research agenda on media literacy. We find that there is a growing consensus that media literacy is both a social phenomenon and an individual characteristic. Media literacy development is also largely linked to economic growth and the development of civic consciousness and political maturity, making all three levels relevant to future research on media literacy and 21st-century skills and education.

5.1.2 Article 2

Amdam, S. (2017) Media Education Goes Professional? Media Teachers' self-image, positioning and educational focus. *Nordicom Review* 38:1, 81-95.

The goal of the second article was to explore the MC teachers' self-images and positionings, and the perceived implications for media education practices, as examined through contextualized focus groups (n=11) and individual interviews (n=14) with media teachers at two MC schools. The interviews were contextualized based on a thematic literature review of historical positions of the media teacher and by national survey data on media teachers' backgrounds, motivations and practices (n=383).

Through the thematic review, I discerned three historical teacher positions in the Nordic literature:

- *The media-interested innovative pedagogue*, who focuses on student motivations for learning but does not necessarily have a specific media background or education and often approaches learning other subject areas *through* media use;
- *The critical media scholar*, who has a media studies background but not necessarily practical media experience and focuses on learning *about* the media analytically; and
- *The production-oriented pedagogue* who has some media experience and education, often through teacher education, and focuses on reflection on and through media production to train both creative expressions and critical awareness of the media industry.

A fourth positioning of the media teacher was found only in the international literature:

- *The vocational trainer*, who has a media industry background and focuses on teaching the methods and approaches adopted in the media industry.

In the case study, I found that the teachers related to the historical positions and that the production-oriented pedagogue was the dominant media teacher position at the academic school. However, this professional culture was not institutionally anchored; rather, it was perceived to be a locally developed and negotiated professional culture that was in opposition to the broader institutional school culture. At the vocational school, the repertoire of the production-oriented pedagogue was also present but not shared by all teachers. Two additional repertoires were found, the interpretive repertoire of the vocational trainer and a repertoire not found in the thematic review: *the vocational mentor or pedagogue*.

The findings indicate that the tensions found in and between the historical positions in the thematic review were also evident in the MC teachers' repertoires. The teachers' professional backgrounds and current professional cultures played into how these tensions affected educational practice.

Consequently, the shared or differentiating subject positions within the two professional cultures of the MC teacher collegiums affects the contents and execution of an educational practice of production work. This practice seems to be the dominant teaching strategy across the educational field of the MC program, supported by survey findings, indicating deeper epistemic beliefs that are explored further in article 3, and that will be discussed across articles in chapter 5.2.

5.1.3 Article 3

Amdam, S. (2016) The Dangers of having Fun – Doing Production Work in School. Tensions in teachers' repertoires on media education. In Erstad, Kumpulainen, Mäkitalo, Schrøder, Pruulmann-Vengerfeldt & Jóhannsdóttir (Eds.) *Learning across Contexts in the Knowledge Society*, Sense, 85-108.

The purpose of this article was to explore how media education understandings and goals in educational programs that also have general education outcomes are implemented from a teacher perspective. The core educational practice of production work in school is discussed through examining the teachers' interpretative repertoires on student participation and educational goals. In addition, the underlying historical media discourses addressed in the earlier articles are thematized within an institutional framework through contextualized focus groups (n=11) and individual interviews with media teachers (n=14), but this time adding interviews with general education teachers in the MC program at the two MC schools (n=7), supported by national survey data on the perceived goals of the MC program (n=384).

The findings suggest that the media teachers' interpretative repertoires on production work are framed by theoretical and pedagogical reflections connected to media education discourses that thematize 21st-century education and competences, but that these understandings are not necessarily evident or appreciated within the broader school context.

The survey results indicate three tendencies in the field. First, teachers see the main educational outcome for MC students to become creative, reflective producers with the ability to complete real-life media productions. Second, there was no clear tendency to give production perspectives more weight than critical perspectives, a common criticism of vocational media education. Third, the program is not really perceived as a vocational program in the traditional sense but more as a practical approach to academic competences or a way to obtain the technical skills to function well in today's society.

In the case study, I found three main interpretative repertoires on student participation and educational goals across the two schools in the media teacher interviews, all focusing on the active, participating, and producing students in accordance with the findings in the survey. These are the repertoires of (1) reorienting students from reproduction to creative reflection, (2) motivating media-savvy and school-tired students, and (3) providing second chances. While the general education teachers across the media programs use elements of these repertoires to some extent, they have a fourth dominant repertoire, enhancing academic achievement.

The findings indicate that the main tensions between repertoires is in line with media literacy and 21st-century education discourses of the participating and producing student and the repertoire of academic achievement, as is further discussed in section 5.2.

5.1.4 Empirical insights

The findings in the articles offer insights into the project's empirical research questions. For the first empirical question (*Who are they: What characterizes the MC teachers' educational and vocational background and understandings of being teachers?*), Article 2 presents background survey tendencies on the educational and vocational backgrounds of the teachers, with the case study findings indicating that how the teachers understand themselves as teachers is dependent on the local professional cultures and whether their community of practice has a shared repertoire on how to be teachers. Absent such a shared repertoire, vocational and educational background seems to play a larger role in forming teacher understandings.

Concerning the second empirical research question, Article 3 thematizes *why the teachers teach the way they do: What motivates the MC teachers' educational practice and perceived educational goals?* The article presents background survey data on tendencies in dominant understandings of educational goals, and the case study pinpoints different interpretative repertoires regarding student participation and educational goals that guide educational practice.

5.2 Discussion of findings: Media education as the tugboat, the satellite, or the terror cell in developing 21st-century education

As presented early in this thesis, the tugboat, the satellite, and the terror cell are concepts used by the media teachers to describe how they see themselves as a teacher collegium within their broader local school cultures. These understandings point to the teachers' defining themselves as something "other" than what they perceive as the common school culture and provide a starting point for discussing the overarching research question of this thesis: *Within a framework of 21st-century and media literacy education, how do media teachers, exemplified by MC teachers, perceive themselves as educators, and how does this motivate their educational practice?*

I further sum up the findings across the three articles in discussing how these discursive historical snapshots offer insights into the main research question by discussing discursive conceptualizations in the articles on media literacy and 21st-century education, how media teacher perceptions of being educators interact with local professional cultures, and how these professional cultures are built on, foster, and contradict broader epistemic beliefs and practices in upper secondary school.

5.2.1 The frameworks of 21st-century education and media literacy: Discursive understandings and tensions in the educational field

As discussed in chapter 2, discourses are often organized in institutional settings, such as schools, that are regulated by state curricula, economy and legislation, but also shaped by traditions, epistemic understandings, and professional cultures (Hitching et al., 2011, p. 83). Discourses are often drawn upon and socially produced by specialists like teachers to make statements about an event or object of knowledge such as students or practices. They are historically contingent and subject to change

(McHoul & Grace, 1993, p. 31), which makes the articles in this thesis historical snapshots or perhaps footage of a certain time and place.

As Article 1 and the meta-review in chapter 2 show, there are many parallels and overlaps between the discourses of media literacy research and 21st-century education, both in the conceptualizations of media and digital competence and in broader goals for educational practice. Media education in general, and the MC program in particular through its combination of vocational and academic goals, represents an interesting study object to examine how different epistemic understandings of competence and literacy motivate teacher understandings and educational practices in school within these parallel discourses. The main tension between the two discourses is in the object and end goal of education: educating a digitally efficient and well-functioning workforce in the 21st-century education discourse as opposed to educating socially participating, emancipated citizens in a media-saturated world in the media literacy discourse.

The findings in Articles 2 and 3 show that the media teachers have an explicit awareness that they are educating students within this dual context, particularly in relation to two main findings.

First, comparing findings across articles, the MC teachers typically focus on the individual, interactional levels of media literacy, with working and learning in ways that foster creativity and critical reflection seen as the main goal of the MC program (Amdam, 2016, pp. 92–93). The MC teachers in my case study not only focus on students as individual learners but also on interactional learning and collaborative productions in their educational practice, as is evident in how they position themselves as teachers in Article 2 and their students in Article 3. The interactional media literacy research level findings in Article 1 concern social interactions and practices, focusing on collective rather than personal aspects through the concepts of *participation* through activity and community involvement, *citizenship* and *emancipation* through democratic engagement, and collaborative *content creation* through, for instance, social media platforms. Participation and collaborative content creation are at the core of the education practice and goals of the MC program and are achieved through collaborative production practices, as described in Article 3. Citizenship and emancipation are also part of the interpretive repertoires the MC teachers use in discussing the goals of the program and how they motivate the importance of the MC program as enabling students to work through this stage of education by fostering self-efficacy and perseverance, which also accords with the focuses in 21st-century education presented in chapter 2. Similarly, the third main survey finding on educational goals—that the program is not really perceived as a vocational program in the traditional sense but more often as a practical approach to academic competencies or a way to obtain the technical skills to function well in today's society—points to perceived 21st-century education discursive understandings (Amdam, 2016, pp. 93–94).

This is particularly evident in the first interpretive repertoire found in Article 3: how the media teachers perceive a need to reorient students to reach curricular and societal requirements (Amdam, 2016, p. 94). The media teachers at both schools claimed that in the first study year, they have to reorient the students toward working with projects and productions in which there are no predefined solutions. Here, the teachers typically emphasize features of media literacy education such as working creatively and collaboratively through reflection in production and typical meta-level and life competence features of 21st-century education, such as critical reflection, self-regulation, perseverance, and how to cope with and learn from mistakes (e.g., Binkley et al., 2012, p. 43).

However, this notion of active collaborative learning to educate future citizens also provides the most prominent tension in the repertoire, which is between reorienting students in the media classes and the more traditional ways of learning in the general education classes. The focus on learning among teachers in the general education classes appears to position the students as individual consumers of knowledge, focusing on working individually with a predetermined curriculum and textbooks, which is traditionally perceived as academic achievement (Amdam, 2016, p. 96; Young, 1999b). This contradicts the perceived goal of the media teachers, which is to create active, reflective, and creative learners through collaborative project work in the media classes, with the teachers to a larger degree positioning the students as collaborative producers of knowledge (Neary, 2010) by embedding learning in authentic tasks carried out within communities of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991).

The second main finding concerning the 21st-century and media literacy education frameworks is that the systemic level found in media literacy research in Article 1 is not equally thematized in the two case schools. As Article 3 details, the academic school has separate theory classes every week with more general focuses on the systemic level of media literacy. They examine media systems and content that cover the “object of analysis” in media literacy; that is, what media literacy is directed toward and why it is important to study the media, its contents, aesthetics, systems, and institutions (Erstad & Amdam, 2013, p. 92). This is not a primary concern at the vocational school, where theory is included in the projects as it relates to the particular project and production needs at hand.

This is perceived as a central tension within the community of practice in the vocational school. As exemplified in the subject positions in Article 2, the academic school has developed a shared repertoire reflecting the historical position of the production-oriented pedagogue and balancing theory, practice, and pedagogy (Amdam, 2017b, p. 90), whereas only some of the teachers take this position in the vocational school. Thus, not being able to implement specific media theory classes leads to consistent conflicts between this position and the dominant position of the vocational mentor (Amdam, 2017b, p. 93). In the broader educational field tendencies revealed in the survey, however, there is a trend toward teachers in the MC schools having more academic media studies backgrounds, a factor that could indicate a growing emphasis on the systemic level. Comparing the historical positions with

the background survey materials on educational background in 2006 and 2012 reveals a significant increase in MC teachers with more academic backgrounds in media studies (at the bachelor's or master's level), at the same time as the numbers of teachers with more traditional vocational backgrounds such as a trade certificate or technical college decreased (Amdam, 2017b, p. 87). This tendency will likely be further strengthened by the 2016 program change that led to fewer production classes and separation to academic and vocational programs (see chapter 2.3.4).

5.2.2 Media teachers as educators: Positioning, communities of practice, and professional cultures

The concept of community of practice allowed me to compare positions and repertoires across the two case schools and to connect these materials to the broader context to discuss patterns. As Wenger puts it, “in the course of producing their own histories... communities of practice also produce and reproduce the interconnections, styles, and discourses through which they form broader constellations” (1998, p. 131). The contextualization of the case schools and their teachers' understandings in the broader context of the national survey findings thus either confirm or question whether the practices at the case schools are part of broader constellations of discursive practice.

My findings across articles indicate a clear development in the media teachers' positioning and interpretative repertoires that depends on their participation in the community of practice of the MC program. Their understandings of themselves as teachers develop through how they negotiate their educational practice in their shared professional culture.

In Article 2, I found this to be evident through how several MC teachers position themselves towards the concept of being teachers and how their understandings of being teachers have developed through the community of practice in and across the MC teaching cohorts. The starting positions of the teachers point to how institutional framing affects recruitment, with the academical school typically recruiting teachers with more academic backgrounds than the average on the MC survey and the vocational school recruiting from more typical media industry backgrounds (Amdam, 2017b).

Thus, whereas the teachers in the academic school implied a development from a more academically and institutionally acceptable epistemic understanding of being a teacher in upper secondary academic schools toward a shared understanding of being part of a specific MC professional culture—what they call the “MC family culture” (Amdam, 2017b, p. 90)—the teachers at the vocational school suggested a development from being media professionals conveying their skills from a non-teacher position that toward a mostly shared MC teacher professional culture. In both cases, this shared culture is connected to an educational understanding of students as more equal to the teachers in the workspace and in educational practice than they perceive students to be in other educational programs and in general education classes. In both cases, the teachers also see this development as connected to cooperation with and inspiration from MC colleagues at other schools.

These findings also emphasize the difference between occupational and organizational professionalism in the school cultures. As presented in chapter 3, occupational professionalism is an ideal of bottom-up professionalism, a discourse constructed within professional occupational groups that incorporate collegial authority, based on autonomy and discretionary judgement and assessment by practitioners who are guided by codes of professional ethics that are monitored by professional institutions and associations (Evetts, 2013, p. 787). The findings above point to a collegial development typical of occupational professionalism, where the professional collegium, in and across institutions, develops its own understandings and practices. I also found thus in my contextual studies; indeed, one of the first observations I made in my field studies was that, in opposition to all the other educational programs at the case schools, the MC program teachers organized their own timetables, schedules, teacher teams, and exams. The administrators responsible for the program at both schools indicated that this was because of the unconventional educational production practices. The MC teachers also claimed that they had the trust and responsibility of the administration to form educational practice as they saw fit for the program, again indicating that the MC teachers had a professional culture based in occupational professionalism but also separate from the other local programs that had much stricter institutional regulations more in line with organizational professionalism (Evetts, 2013, p. 787).

The institutional discursive formations of the broader school cultures and the controlling factors and curricula of local and national political agendas—the top-down perspectives of organizational professionalism discussed in chapter 2—are also evident in my two empirical articles, particularly in how the MC teachers position themselves as a collegium within the broader school culture. The top-down perspectives interact with the local MC professional cultures, resulting in the teachers' own discursive positioning of their community as a tugboat, satellite, or terror cell within their schools.

In the academic school, the development of the MC family culture described in Article 2 (Amdam, 2017b, p. 90) and the established practice of reflection through media production projects as a main educational practice described in Article 3 have resulted in a professional culture with educational practices that are not institutionally anchored. Rather, it is perceived as in opposition to the broader institutional school culture, with the teachers seeing themselves as satellites disconnected from the rest of the school culture or even as a terror cell at the school. However, this disconnect is less evident in the vocational school, where the teachers saw themselves as in opposition to the existing school culture to a lesser extent, instead placing themselves as the tugboat in developing educational practice relevant for the 21st century within the broader institutional school culture. This understanding was shared by some of the general education teachers who saw value in the MC programs' project focus, but not by all, as detailed in Articles 2 and 3 (Amdam, 2016, p. 96; 2017b, p. 91)

This positioning of their own professional cultures points to the underlying discursive constructions of knowledge and competence within the broader school culture and to what is perceived as acceptable or

even best educational practice at an academic school as compared to a vocational school (Foray & Hargreaves, 2003). It also points to developments in the teachers' knowledge base, epistemic practices, and underlying cultures (Cunningham & Kelly, 2017; Knorr-Cetina, 1999).

5.2.3 Media teachers' educational practices: Epistemic understandings, educational goals, and 21st-century Bildung

Cunningham and Kelly (2017) argue that epistemic practices are the socially organized and interactionally accomplished ways that members of a group propose, communicate, justify, assess, and legitimize knowledge claims. Such practices concern the ways that knowledge enters into educational discourse and include relevant concepts and cross-disciplinary approaches. Even though most MC teachers start from different subject positions in developing their professional self-image and shared professional culture in the two case schools, the findings in Article 3 also imply that the MC teachers share fundamental understandings of their students and goals of education across schools. Their perceived main goal of education as helping students become creative, reflective producers with the ability to complete real-life media productions is found both across cases and in the survey (Amdam, 2016), indicating a shared professional understanding based in an occupational professionalism with shared professional codes and beliefs, even though the program had only existed for 12 years. The discursive repertoires connected to the central educational goal found at the case schools also indicate locally shared understandings that are in opposition to the typical institutional repertoire of academic achievement, as shown in the four interpretative repertoires detailed in Article 3. Instead, the MC teachers focus on reorienting students from reproduction to creative reflection, motivating media-savvy and school-fatigued students, and providing second chances.

An implication of the findings is that the different repertoires that position students and describe epistemic practices for reaching educational goals are very similar across the cases, even though the content taught in the media classes and the balance between theory and practice different based on teacher positions, epistemic beliefs, and professional culture. The teachers' focus on students and educational goals point to wider educational goals for upper secondary school rather than to subject-specific content goals. Whereas the general education teachers focus on subject specific targets and academic achievement in these subjects, connected to underlying epistemic cultures of the school subjects academic disciplines (Knorr-Cetina, 1999; Young, 1999b), the MC teachers are to a larger degree concerned with the cross-curricular goals of educating citizens who will function well in society and on avoiding school drop-out (Doll, Eslami, & Walters, 2013).

Nevertheless, the dominant understandings of performing educational practice—what is perceived as best practice—differ between the two case schools and between media and general education teachers, which indicates different epistemic beliefs and cultures. As presented in chapter 3, Foray and Hargreaves claim that all communities of practice have a positive orientation to best practice which is something preserved in the community's traditions as a standard to which practitioners aspire or

something yet to be identified within the community and distributed to members. The methodology a community adopts to determine best practice within its domain will thus reflect the dominant epistemic culture within the community (Foray & Hargreaves, 2003, p. 11).

There are two distinct differences in educational practice that point to deeper epistemic beliefs and cultures in my articles. The first is between the educational practice of the production-oriented pedagogue in the academic MC program and an editorial practice of vocational mentors in the vocational school, as presented in Article 2, and the second is between the educational practice of collaborative production work across MC programs and the educational practice of individual academic achievement across the general education classes, as presented in Article 3.

The first difference is exemplified through the focus on theory and media industry relations in the case schools. As detailed in section 5.2.1, the academic school has separate theory classes every week with more general focuses on the systemic level of media literacy (Erstad & Amdam, 2013, p. 92), whereas theory is included in the projects as it relates to the particular project and production needs at hand in the vocational school (Amdam, 2017b, p. 90). It can thus be argued that what theory *is* is itself in dispute and based in different epistemic beliefs: the vocational schoolteachers link theory to concrete contextualization of educational vocational practices as part of a workforce orientation that draws on their media industry backgrounds and educations, while the academic teachers lean on broader societal perspectives on learning about the media as part of a citizenship orientation, in accordance with their more academic backgrounds.

This understanding is amplified in the case schools' relations to the media industry. The academic school's educational practices of media production are pedagogically motivated and lack external media industry involvement, while the vocational school cooperates with the media industry in taking on specific joint development projects and in having student entrepreneurship as part of the program; the students start media companies to get real-world experience. The focus on both theory and media industry cooperation thus points to deeper beliefs about what constitutes the best educational practice in the program, views that are also related to a vocational or academic institutional orientation.

These differences in practices and underlying epistemic beliefs point to the discussion of the goals of 21st-century education and of media literacy education outlined in chapter 2. Are the knowledge claims connected to the goal of participating in the workforce or to the broader goals of Bildung? Even though there are several similar understandings across these two discourses, one main difference lies in the primary orientation toward functional digital and media literacy for future workforce needs in the 21st-century education discourse and on broader literacy- and Bildung-related needs to be an informed citizen in the media literacy education discourse. Both discourses include each perspective, but they have different views as to which one comes first; this is also reflected in the MC case school priorities, in the "dialectic relationship between disciplinary knowledge and epistemological

commitments” (Sandoval & Reiser, 2004, p. 347). The case study schools share the end goal of education, which was also found as a broader educational goal in the survey, but the differences in the methodologies the two case communities adopt to determine best practice to reach this goal reflect the difference in the dominant epistemic culture within the community, leading to differences in best epistemic practice in developing the students’ competencies (Foray & Hargreaves, 2003).

The second difference in educational practice is more stark, in that it questions the very attainability of 21st-century educational goals. Article 3 provides deeper insights into how the MC teachers perceive themselves as educators in a broader sense through their focus on the students and educational goals, in how they position their students, themselves, and other teachers, and in how the MC teachers and their practices are perceived by general education teachers. The findings here indicate a wider divide in underlying epistemic cultures than the focus on theory and media industry cooperation between the MC programs, in that what is perceived as best practice is connected to different educational goals for the students by the MC and general education teachers.

The repertoires of the media teachers focus on the societal responsibility of upper secondary school to prepare students for life after school, both academically and socially (Amdam, 2017). The difference between this broad goal and the dominant goal of the general education teachers of academic achievement is particularly evident in the tensions in the third repertoire of the MC teachers, the one that concerns the students that come into the media program under different conditions because they have special needs or have dropped out of the traditional academic school system (Amdam, 2016, p. 98). The focus on student participation in this repertoire among MC teachers is on helping students see value both in themselves and in school. This understanding is also viewed as an educational goal of the MC program within the broader school context. However, this educational goal is not thematized by the general education teachers as applying to the educational practice in the general education classes in the MC program. Thus, the students’ lack of motivation for general education classes is the main tension in this repertoire but is tacitly perceived as a problem specific to the educational practice of the media program or to particular qualities inherent in the students. It is seldom attributed to how the general education subjects are taught or organized, which calls into question the general education teachers’ awareness of how educational practice affects both student motivation and attaining the 21st-century educational goals of developing learners who can function well in the workforce and in society, who have the competence to “acquire and apply knowledge and skills to master challenges and solve tasks in familiar and unfamiliar contexts and situations” as the new curriculum specifies (UDIR, 2020a, p. 11).

As presented in section 5.2.1, the MC programs are oriented toward participation and collaborative content creation as core education practices and as goals of the MC program that are achieved through collaborative production practices. This approach is coherent with the main metalevel competencies

across the 21st-century education frameworks presented in chapter 2: communication and collaboration, creativity and innovation, critical thinking and problem solving, and meta-cognition and contextualized and cross-curricular learning. As discussed in chapter 2, one of the main epistemic positions in 21st-century education frameworks is a belief in the active, participating, and cooperating student engaging in learning in creative and critical ways through educational practices in which where applying knowledge, preferably to real-world problems, is fundamental.

However, this practice is not perceived as best practice among the general education teachers with the interpretative repertoire of academic achievement. For instance, the epistemic belief in critical thinking and problem solving as valuable might apply to both MC and general education teachers and was emphasized by general education teachers as a particular strength of MC students (Amdam, 2016, p. 96), but was viewed as an inherent strength in the individual student, not something that students learn through the MC program. The perceived necessary and best practice to achieve these competencies is vastly different in focusing on cross-curricular collaboration as opposed to subject-specific individual achievement but is not attributed to educational practice by the general education teachers.

The general education teachers' understanding that high-achieving MC students would be better off in an academic program highlight this difference in epistemic practice. These teachers often portray an underlying epistemic culture of academic traditions of upper secondary school and university subjects; the main goal in the past to educate students for subject-specific academic disciplines with a focus on individual achievement and a goal of knowledge in itself (Young, 1999b), even though these are not the curricular goals of the MC program. The goals of *Bildung* or educating for the future workforce are not explicit in the general education teacher interviews. In fact, they seldom thematize any broader perspectives of educational goals than subject-specific curricular goals, even though the curriculum across all education programs in upper secondary school also has more general and cross-curricular goals. One implication is that the starting point for developing an understanding for and epistemic beliefs in a 21st-century education discourse based on collaborative learning, where the application of knowledge is the goal, is vastly different among these teachers than the MC teachers, even as the Norwegian government implements curricula that are increasingly oriented to 21st-century education goals.

5.3 Research contributions and concluding remarks

As I have emphasized throughout this thesis, the main challenge in investigating media teachers' understandings of being teachers and their motivations for their educational practice was the lack of basic knowledge on media teachers, both nationally and internationally. Thus, the key contribution of my thesis is to shed light on media teachers' own understandings of media education.

5.3.1 Empirical contributions

As the key empirical focus in media education research has been on educational practices and the student's role (Erstad & Amdam, 2013; Martens, 2010), the three main *empirical contributions* of my research are connected to investigating teachers.

First is examining media literacy education from the teacher's perspective. In the review research for Articles 1 and 2, it became apparent that there was little evidence of development in this area since the mid-2000s; the few exceptions include Quin's focus on discursive development in Australian media education and Kist's study of what he called the work of pioneers, teachers who have transformed their classrooms in an effort to broaden the multimodal literacy of their students (Kist, 2005; Quin, 2003a, 2003b). This pinpointed the need for research on what motivates media teachers' actual educational practices and the negotiations in forming these practices in an everyday school and teacher collegium setting. Newer research does focus on teacher beliefs and understandings of how to teach in ways that foster 21st-century and media literacy competencies quantitatively (e.g. Hobbs & Tuzel, 2017; Weninger et al., 2017), but seldom details how contextual challenges affect how such understandings can be implemented, as I have tried to do in this thesis.

The second is to present an understanding of who this specific group of media teachers are in a Norwegian context in terms of background and their understandings of being teachers and "doing" teaching on a national level and to provide case study and survey data for the population of media teachers that can be used and expanded by others. These data can be compared to other national data on media teachers and other teacher groups and used to inform what kind of competencies and epistemic practices we see currently and want to see develop in the future to foster an education that supports 21st-century educational goals. Similarly, this empirical contribution can be used in other national settings to compare understandings and backgrounds of media teachers across contexts.

The third is contextualizing teachers' own understandings within the broader school system rather than seeing them as individual educators unaffected by temporal, spatial, collegial, and political contexts; my approach provides richer data and inferences for further research. Media teachers see themselves as collaborative educators, working with both teacher colleagues and students. To obtain empirical insights into the practice of these discursive understandings, if the teachers actually work as they claim to, it was important to compare focus group and individual interviews and to observe educational practice in the case study. This empirical contribution could also be considered in researching teachers within broader 21st-century education contexts. If a central goal of that education is to foster active, collaborative, creative, critical, and self-regulating students, how do we gain insights into the teacher understandings and practices that foster these kinds of learners if we do not research teachers as communities of practice—as part of professional cultures and within specific historical discursive contexts—as I have aimed to do in this thesis?

5.3.2 Theoretical contributions

The three major *theoretical contributions* of this project are as follows. First is the conceptual mapping of discursive perspectives and positions within media literacy research in Article 1 and providing a closer look at the conceptual and epistemic similarities and differences between a media literacy educational discourse and a 21st-century educational discourse through comparing reviews of the two fields in chapter 2. The comparative review in chapter 2 provides further insights into what conceptual understandings of media literacy are viewed as important in 21st-century education frameworks and how the end goal of the two discourses differ: 21st-century education primarily has economical goals, aiming to develop a workforce for the knowledge and information society, with the role of media literacy education to foster participating citizens. However, this does not mean that the competencies developed through education following these different goals are different in practice; for instance, social and emotional learning is viewed as beneficial both for long-term economic gains (e.g., Belfield et al., 2015) and for emancipation (e.g., Livingstone, 2010).

Second, the review of media teacher positions in Article 2 provides theoretical categories for further media literacy analysis and theoretical development while also offering a media teacher typology that can be revised, debunked or expanded based on educational context, whether national or international. The media teacher has been positioned indirectly in the literature through research on educational practice and goals for students, but this theoretical discursive typology offers a starting point for further explicit discussions of what competencies and epistemic understandings teachers should have to advance the development of practices toward achieving educational goals and thus also for teacher training.

Third, connecting theoretical perspectives from discourse psychology, educational research, and professional studies with media and 21st-century education understandings provide a theoretical framework for further studies of often underexplored and unconnected perspectives within media literacy research, as professional understandings and cultures have not been a main perspective within this field. This framework may offer new insights into both research on media literacy education practices and on 21st-century education from teacher perspectives.

5.3.3 Methodological contributions

As noted in chapter 4.5.4, educational research on teacher understandings and practices often focuses on interviews (Atkins & Wallace, 2012). At the same time, discourse psychology has a tradition of using both interviews and natural talk to investigate discursive understandings (see chapter 4.1.1). One of the main *methodological contributions* of this project is to show the strengths of a mixed methods design in conducting educational research that investigates collaborative education by providing richer interview data through combining focus group and individual interviews, a more theory-driven methodological understanding through literature reviews and the successive typology development, and a broader contextual understanding through the survey and field studies. This broader

understanding also strengthens the credibility of the study by bolstering its transparency (R. B. Johnson, 2017).

A second main methodological contribution is the creation of media teacher survey batteries that can be tweaked for other media teacher groups both nationally and internationally, and compared to other such measures. Even though the explorative development of the research project meant that only some of the survey batteries were used in this thesis, the batteries and results have been communicated to stakeholders such as media teacher organizations and educational authorities and are included in this thesis for wider use and further development (Appendix III).

5.3.4 Concluding remarks

My concluding remarks pertain to the potential of emphasizing teacher perspectives in media literacy and 21st-century education research and with doing further research on the MC program.

More international research on media teachers and their perspectives and understandings of teaching, in both specific media programs and in smaller electives, projects, and out-of-school-contexts will provide valuable descriptive and normative input, as there is a need for research-based teacher training in media literacy in our media-saturated societies that focuses not only on practices and goals but also on the epistemic understandings of being teachers and teaching in these technology-infused times. School is increasingly becoming a large commercial market for digital development; teacher training is frequently offered by the providers of the technology (at least in Norway), and the dominant political and educational discourses on technological implementation are not always geared toward the broader educational goals of 21st-century or media literacy education. More research on 21st-century teaching in general—what educating for the future and being a 21st-century teacher implies when it comes to professional and epistemic cultures—is needed to make explicit the challenges in implementing new understandings in the established discourse orders of school. Through this explication, the academic community can foster development in teacher education, in-service teacher training, and professional development courses through collaborations with commercial providers of educational technology and school districts and counties that strengthen the focus on individual, interactional, and systemic perspectives on media literacy as an important part of 21st-century education.

However, I would also like to remark on the MC program as a further research object for implementation of media literacy and 21st-century education. In 2016, the MC program was split into an academic program and a vocational program, losing its hybrid position. Since then, MC program schools were lost regionally, and the subject has lost two thirds of student numbers nationally from its heyday. Nevertheless, the MC teachers are still there. My case schools still have the program, though it is now academic in both cases, with more general education classes and less time for production work. Have the MC teachers' understandings and practices changed as the institutional position has

changed? Have they retained or further developed their occupational professional culture? Have the general education teachers' understandings changed as the curriculum and exam forms have become even more oriented towards a 21st-century education discourse with the renewal of the Knowledge Promotion Reform in 2020, or do they keep teaching based on the same epistemic beliefs as before?

Even though my data provide a historical discursive snapshot from 2012, the MC program still provides a valuable study object regarding the status of media education and media literacy understandings within a 21st-century education discourse. Early in this thesis, I showed how, within 21st-century epistemic frameworks, learning to apply knowledge is viewed as equally important as core subject knowledge and learning abstraction and how the student is often positioned as an active collaborative learner in cooperation with both peers and teachers (Binkley et al., 2012; Dede, 2010). Further research should aim to investigate the developing digital and media literacy practices in MC schools, and other programs, from both the teacher and student perspectives, preferably together. As media technology becomes more financially feasible for use in educational practice, the 21st-century education practices in the classroom and the outcomes for students will depend on teachers who have a professional and epistemic culture that fosters collaborative, creative, and critical teaching and learning in which media literacy is a natural part of educational practice and goals.

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Appendixes

Appendix I: Thematic focus group interview guide – Translated to English

Formalities – to be read aloud before focus group start – approved by NSD

THANK YOU for participating!

In my Ph.D. project I am researching how the Media and Communication teachers experience their teacher role. The aim of the project is to examine what being an MC teacher entails and how it is perceived to be an MC teacher, both when it comes to work situation, goals of the education program and the latitude or freedom you have as a teacher locally, and in a subject area that is both vocational and opens for graduation for further university studies.

The aim of the project is also to provide broader knowledge on the MC teachers. The project will be conducted by me in cooperation with and supervised by Professor Ola Erstad at the University of Oslo, and Professor Kåre Heggen at Volda University College.

Together with about 20 other MC teachers, the teachers at the MC program at X upper secondary school have received this invitation to take part in the research project. I will follow several schools in particular and also conduct a national MC teacher survey. X upper secondary school is chosen as one of the schools I follow closely because I see your MC program organization as particularly interesting based on earlier conversations with some of you.

Participation in the project means that you as a teacher take part in this group conversation, fill in the national survey and can be asked to take part in further individual interviews. Observations of the teacher “everyday life” over some time could become part of the project if you allow it. Answering the survey will take 20-30 minutes. The group conversation will last 1-2 hours.

All information about the schools and the individual teacher will be anonymized. Participation is voluntary and the teachers can at any time withdraw from the project and ask for personal information to be anonymized, without giving notice. Only my supervisors and I will have access to identifying information. We are bound to observe professional confidentiality and all information will be kept confidential. The results from the project will be published as group data, without individual recognition.

The Ph.D. project is expected to be ended by the summer of 2015. After the project is ended all information will be anonymized. The project is approved by NSD.

Orientation on focus group conversations:

- This is not an interview, but a conversation where I hope everyone will contribute to a discussion of their experiences as MC teachers
- I will ask some questions, but hope the conversation will flow freely, there is no right or wrong, I only want to get to know as much as possible about being MC teachers, both your own experiences and more in general
- We will also discuss different claims/opinions on the MC program as a backdrop for developing the national teacher survey

Thematic guide for focus group conversation

Personalia (to recognize voice, no names will be written down, recordings will be erased)

Name – Age – Background

Teaching areas and organization of the MC program locally

(Warm up:) Describe how your MC program is organized

- How does this way of organizing the program subjects work for you?
- Do you perceive your way of organizing the program as the same or different from other MC schools? In what ways?
- Would you say that your MC school has a particular media focus (e.g. film, photo, web, design, animation etc)? Why?

Subject organization and educational practice

Categories for discussion if not mentioned (survey related):

- Media communication, media design and media production are organized as separate subjects
- Media design and media production are integrated, but media communication is taught separately
- All program subjects are integrated
- Program subjects are integrated with core curriculum classes
- Other educational organization, describe
- About the different subjects:
 - Mediekommunikasjon, Mediedesign og medieuttrykk, Medieproduksjon
 - Prosjekt til fordypning
 - Vg3 Medier og kommunikasjon
 - Vg3 Bilde, Vg3 Lyd, Vg3 Tekst, Vg3 Mediedesign
 - Fotograffaget/Mediegrafikerfaget

What or who decides the educational organization?

Of the program

Who decides the education practice described?

- Schedule decided by school administration?
- Teaching practice
- Project organization/periods
- Division between theoretical and practical teaching areas
- How is theory integrated in the teaching practice

Of the staff

- Team or individual teaching?
- Particular teachers in practical or theoretical classes or mix? Why?
- Teachers that also teach in other programs?
- Media firm/freelancing in media at the same time as teaching? Why?

How does this practice work for you?

The MC teacher role

What kind of teacher do you consider an MC teacher to be?

Different teacher role than in other subjects?

- Compared with other educational programs at your school?
- Different from vocational programs?
- Different from academic programs?
- Developments in the teacher role?

What decides how you organize educational practice?

As an MC program teacher I am first and foremost a teacher or a media professional

Categories for discussion if not mentioned (survey related):

First and foremost:

- Teacher, but with interests in and competence in media subjects
- Teacher, but with interests and competence in ICT-subjects
- Media producer/practitioner
- Journalist/designer/photographer/web developer/film producer (media professional) that teach my trade to give vocational education
- Media studies/Social studies/Humanistics/Culture studies graduate with a good theoretical foundation for teaching students how to reflect on their media use and production

Other understandings/groupings?

Professional development:

- How do you learn/develop your professional understanding
- What do you do if you are unsure of something either within a subject or pedagogically?

Use of educational and professional background

- As an MC teacher, in what ways do you get to use your educational/professional background?
- If you have a media professions background, is this background useful as MC teacher?
- Are there parts of your background you do not get to use?
- In what ways do you see pedagogical education as useful as an MC teacher?

The MC student role

How do you perceive the MC student role compared to other programs?

- Attitudes among students
- Practical vs theoretical
- Development/changes in the student role

MC as an educational program

- In your opinion, what is the MC program 'role' in Norwegian education?
- What does it mean to you that it is a vocational program that also gives access to further studies at university level? Is this challenging in any way?

Categories for discussion if not mentioned (survey related):

- A program for school-savvy students that want an alternative route to academic competence
- A program for school-tired students that want an alternative route to academic competence
- A vocational education that provide skills useful in the media industry
- A vocational education that provide the foundations for further media studies
- A program that provide the media competence/literacy needed in today's society independent of future career

What should the students' competence be after finishing the MC program?

Categories for discussion if not mentioned (survey related):

- Study/Academic competence through a more practical approach than the academic program can provide
- A media understanding that is important to be an active citizen in today's society
- Know all kinds of media, not only digital media
- Have the needed technical skills to take part in the information society
- A vocational education to start as an apprentice or as vocational worker in the media industry
- Be prepared for taking part in the workforce
- Be able to reflect on their own media use and production practices

How do you work as teachers to provide these competencies?

Categories for discussion if not mentioned (survey related):

- Make sure the students understand concepts and genres and can express themselves creatively through media production
- Educate the students for the media society they are part of
- Keep updated on production practices in the media industry and convey these to the students
- Use the motivation and media competence the students already have to promote learning and (critical) awareness in their work
- Provide ways of learning through giving the students the technical skills they need to make media productions
- Give the students the technical skills to function in today's society
- Give the students the skills and knowledge to use different media in their own learning
- Prepare the students for how media productions are performed in the different media houses
- Teach the students to complete a media project from start to finish
- Give the students the practical skills they need to complete real media productions
- Make sure the students reflect on their own media use and production practices
- Give the students the understanding they need to be public-minded media users and producers

Open end category: Something you want to mention about the MC program or being an MC teacher? Something we have not discussed?



Til: Rektor

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Oslo 10. februar 2012

Ang. elev- og lærerundersøkelser på Medier og kommunikasjon

Vi henvender oss til din skole med en forespørsel om å få gjennomføre to undersøkelser på Medier og kommunikasjonslinja hos dere, en elev- og en lærerundersøkelse. Henvendelsen går til alle skoler som har medier- og kommunikasjonslinje, og undersøkelsene er beskrevet nærmere i vedlagte dokumenter. Vi håper på en velvillig respons på denne henvendelsen.

Bakgrunn for henvendelsen

I november 2006 gjennomførte Øystein Gilje sammen med professor Ola Erstad og Thomas de Lange en nasjonal spørreundersøkelse rettet mot mediefagelever på VG3 (den gang VKII). Hensikten med prosjektet var å få bedre innsikt i mediefagelevers produksjonspraksiser i Medier og Kommunikasjon, og undersøkelsen fikk navnet *morgendagens medieprodusenter*. Parallelt ble det også gjennomført en lærerundersøkelse som gikk til alle lærere i videregående skole, gjennomført av Are Turmo og Per O. Aamodt, men denne undersøkelsen gikk ikke spesifikt inn på lærernes bakgrunn og erfaringer knytta til det å være lærer på Medier og kommunikasjon.

Vi henvender oss nå til din skole, fem år etter, for å gjenta en revidert versjon av disse undersøkelsene. Hensikten er å få fram mer kunnskap om Medier og kommunikasjon som programfag gjennom å kartlegge elevgruppens medievaner og interesser, hvordan de opplever medieundervisningen på skolen og hvilke fremtidsplaner de har etter endt videregående utdanning, samt hvordan lærerne opplever Medier og kommunikasjon som læringsarena, hvilken bakgrunn de har og hvordan de bruker egen kompetanse og erfaring som lærer. Resultatet fra undersøkelsen vil bli kjent i 2012, og samtlige skoler som deltar i undersøkelsen vil få tilsendt resultater og analyser. Vi trekker også ut tre skoler som mottar 3000 kr til bruk på trivselsfremmende tiltak på Medier og kommunikasjon

Om dere vil delta, ber vi om at denne informasjonen og brevene om undersøkelsene blir videresendt til faglig koordinator/gruppeleder på Medier og kommunikasjon slik at vi kan ha videre kontakt med denne om den praktiske gjennomføringa.

Dersom det skulle være behov for stille spørsmål eller ønskelig med mer informasjon om undersøkelsene må dere gjerne ta direkte kontakt med oss enten telefonisk eller pr. e-post. Henvendelser kan rettes til følgende kontaktpersoner:



- *Øystein Gilje*: Prosjektleder for elevundersøkelsen *Morgendagens medieprodusenter II*, Pedagogisk forskningsinstitutt. Tlf: 412 17 141, e-post: oystein.gilje@ped.uio.no
- *Synnøve Amdam*: Prosjektleder for lærerundersøkelsen på MK, Dr.gradstipendiat ved Høgskulen i Volda/Pedagogisk forskningsinstitutt. Tlf: 970 70 974, e-post: sha@hivolda.no
- *Line Ingulfsen*: Masterstudent ved Pedagogisk forskninginstitutt, Tlf: 975 99 159, e-post: XXXX@gmail.com

Med vennlig hilsen

Synnøve Amdam

Øystein Gilje

Line Ingulfsen

Appendix III: Survey batteries – Translated to English

NB: Batteries on background information about respondents are not detailed in this rendition.

1. School code – for comparison on county level and with student survey

2. Gender

3. Age: 6 categories: below 25, 25-29, 30-39 ... 60 or more

4. Teaching position

- (1) ☐ Steady position/Tenure
- (2) ☐ Temporary position

5. What percentage is your teaching position this semester?

- (1) ☐ Less than 25 percent position
- (2) ☐ 25-50 percent
- (3) ☐ 51-75 percent
- (4) ☐ 76-99 percent
- (5) ☐ 100 percent

6. Position category (context specific, not translatable - dependent on level of education):

- (1) ☐ Lærer/faglærer
- (2) ☐ Adjunkt
- (3) ☐ Adjunkt med opprykk
- (4) ☐ Lektor
- (5) ☐ Lektor med opprykk
- (6) ☐ Annet, oppgi

7. Additional tasks this semester (context specific, attempted translations) (multiple choice)

- (1) ☐ Kontaktlærer (main class teacher)
- (2) ☐ Inspektør (Assistant head master)
- (3) ☐ Rådgiver (Study choice adviser)
- (4) ☐ Gruppeleder/fagleder/koordinator på Medier og kommunikasjon (Head of staff in MC program)
- (5) ☐ Utstyrsansvarlig på Medier og kommunikasjon (Technical responsibility in MC staff)
- (6) ☐ IKT-ansvarlig på skolen (ICT resource teacher in school)
- (7) ☐ Annet, oppgi (Other, name:)

8. When did you start as teacher in the Media and Communication program? Year: (Open text category)

9. Did you have teaching experience before becoming MC teacher? (other subjects/school levels/courses/workshops etc)

- (1) ☐ No
- (2) ☐ Yes, less than a year
- (3) ☐ 1-2 years
- (4) ☐ 3-5 years
- (5) ☐ 6-10 years
- (6) ☐ 11-20 years
- (7) ☐ More than 20 years

10. How long do you plan to be a teacher in the MC program?

- (1) ☐ Less than a year
- (2) ☐ 1-2 years
- (3) ☐ 3-5 years
- (4) ☐ 6-10 years
- (5) ☐ More than 10 years

11. In what percentage would you estimate you work in the following subjects? (context specific to the MC program)

	Do not teach here	Less than 25 percent of classes	25-50 percent	51-75 percent	76-100 percent of the classes
Vg1 Programfag (1 st year program)	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
Vg2 Programfag (2 nd year program)	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
Prosjekt til fordypning (PTF) (elective project subject)	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
Vg3 Medier og kommunikasjon (3 rd year)	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
Vg3 Frie programfag/bilde/ tekst/lyd (3 rd year program subjects in text/sound/image)	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
Vg3 Mediedesign (3 rd year)	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>

12. Do you teach in core curriculum subject classes in the MC program? (multiple choice) possible)

- (1) ☐ No
- (2) ☐ Yes
- (3) ☐ - Norwegian
- (4) ☐ - English
- (5) ☐ - Natural sciences
- (6) ☐ - Mathematics
- (7) ☐ - Physical education
- (8) ☐ - Social sciences
- (9) ☐ - History
- (10) ☐ Other, name:

13. Do you teach in other study programs (multiple choice)

- (1) ☐ No
- (2) ☐ Yes, in Media and information studies in the academic program
- (3) ☐ Yes, name:

14. How is the MC program subjects in the 1st and 2nd year organized at your school?

- (1) ☐ Media communication, media production and media design are organized as separate subjects in the timetable
- (2) ☐ Media communication has separate classes in the timetable, media production and media design are integrated
- (3) ☐ All the program subjects are integrated in cross-curricular media classes

15 Other organization in 1st and 2nd year, explain: (Open text category)

16. To what degree do you agree or disagree in the following statements about the teacher profession?

	1: Disagree completely	2	3	4	5: Agree completely
I regularly read professional magazines and journals for teachers	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
Being part of a teacher union is natural for me	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
I am proud to tell others that I am a teacher	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
I could not be a teacher any other place than in the MC program	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
People without teacher training/pedagogical education should not be allowed to use the title of 'teacher'	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
It is important that teachers support their union	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
I do not consider any other profession than being a teacher as interesting to me	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
I do not feel much allegiance to the teacher profession	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>

17. How well do the following statements fit you as a MC teacher?

	1: Does not fit	2	3	4	5: Fits very well
I am primarily a teacher, but with interests and competence in media studies	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
I am primarily a media producer/media practitioner that work as a teacher	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
I am primarily a journalist/graphic designer/photographer/web designer (media professional) that teach in my professional field	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
I am primarily a media studies/social science/humanistic/culture studies graduate that teach in my subject areas	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>

18. From what the students can obtain/learn through the MC program, what do you think is the most important?

	1: Not important	2	3	4	5: Very important
They have academic competency through a more practical approach	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
They have become more critical towards their own and others' media products	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
They have obtained a good vocational education to go into apprenticeships or the media industry	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
They can express themselves creatively/artistically through media production	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
They know the theory and history of the media subjects	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
They can use their motivation and media competence obtained in their spare time for learning in school	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
They can protect themselves against the effects of the media society	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
They have the technical skills needed to function well in today's society	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
They can carry out projects from beginning to completion	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
They can use media theory to reflect on their own and others' roles in the media society	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>

19. How well do the following factors fit with why you became a MC teacher?

	1: Does not fit	2	3	4	5: Fits very well
I have educated myself specifically to become a MC teacher	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
I wanted new professional challenges	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
Family situation	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
Steady position/work conditions	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
I had for several years wanted to work as a MC teacher	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
Difficult to find work in the media industry	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
Seemed like an interesting place to be a teacher	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
Work opportunity close to where I live	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
Coincidences	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
Had the opportunity to transfer from a different study program	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
Was encouraged to apply by other MC teachers	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>

Economical security	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
I could just as easily have chosen a different workplace	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
Long holidays	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
Seemed like a job I could enjoy	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>

20. How does the following statements fit with how you and your colleagues work in the MC program?

	1: Does not fit	2	3	4	5: Fits very well
The MC teaching at my school is mainly based on interdisciplinary production projects across the media subjects	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
I follow the texts books rather closely in how I organize my teaching	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
I more often function as a tutor and a partner for the students than many of the teachers in the core curriculum classes do	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
The teaching schedule is flexible, so that all the program teachers can contribute based on their specific competencies	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
I cooperate a lot with the core curriculum teachers in the program on the educational contents	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
I mostly work in pairs/team	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
The way the educational practice is organized works well for the subject areas I teach in	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
We often cooperate with the core curriculum teachers in cross-curricular projects	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
The administration decides how the educational practice is organized, the program teachers have no influence on this	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>

21. How important do you think these areas are to a good job as MC teacher

	1: Does not fit	2	3	4	5: Fits very well
Theoretical knowledge	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
Experience from the workforce	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
Practical skills	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
Values and attitudes	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>
Personal abilities	(1) <input type="checkbox"/>	(2) <input type="checkbox"/>	(3) <input type="checkbox"/>	(4) <input type="checkbox"/>	(5) <input type="checkbox"/>

22. Do you think that the Media and communication program should be a vocational or an academic program going forward? (MC context-specific)

- (1) ☐ Vocational
- (2) ☐ Academic (som Idrett/Musikk, dans, drama)
- (3) ☐ Hard to decide
- (4) ☐ No opinion

23. In what subject areas do your MC school have the least and most focus (Context specific - Not relevant for detailing) Categories are: Photo/Image, Film/TV/Multicamera production, Animation, Web, Sound/Radio, Journalism/Text, Design/Graphics, Commercials

24 Is there something you think is not addressed about being media teacher in the questions so far? Make a comment here if you wish to, or go on. (Open text category)

25. Do you have certified teacher education (Yes – No)

26 Dependent on ‘Yes’ in Q25: Different form of teacher education

27. Dependent on ‘Yes’ in Q25: Do you perceive your teacher education to provide you with better pedagogical understandings of the job in the MC program (1. Not at all ----- 5. Very much)

28. Dependent on ‘No’ in Q25: Have you started or do you plan to start teacher training in the near future?

29. Dependent on ‘Yes’ in Q28: Do you perceive your teacher education to provide you with better pedagogical understandings of the job in the MC program (1. Not at all ----- 5. Very much)

30. Dependent on ‘Yes’ in Q25: When did you finish your teaching degree? Year: (Open text category)

31. What is your educational background (Multiple choice)

- (1) ☐ Trade certificate /Master certificate
- (2) ☐ Technical college/ Tertiary vocational college
- (3) ☐ University or university college / in media subjects
- (4) ☐ University or university college , master's degree / in media subjects
- (5) ☐ 2-4 years integrated teacher education'0,5-1 year pedagogical certification

32. Specific educational background (context specific, not detailed here)

33 Other educational background, comment: (open text question)

34. Did you have practical media production experience before becoming MC teacher? (Work/Sparetime)

35. Dependent on ‘Yes’ in Q34; How long was your practical media production experience before becoming MC teacher

36. Do you have experience from a media related profession/vocation? If ‘Yes’ Q37-39

37. How long did you work in a media related profession before you became MC teacher

38. Have you ever combined work as MC teacher and in a media related profession (part time/ in addition to being teacher)?

39. If you still combine work as MC teacher and in a media related profession, how long do you plan on doing this?

40: Finally, is there something you want to say about the Media and Communication program not mentioned in the survey? Comment, and send your survey reply! (Open text category)

Part II

The Articles

Article II

Media Education Goes Professional?

Media Teachers' Self-Image, Positioning and Educational Focus

Synnøve Amdam

Abstract

This article explores how media teachers' self-images, positionings and interpretative repertoires inform educational practices in media education. Media education is viewed as a critical element of 21st century learning. However, we have very little knowledge of the implementers of this critical element, the media teachers. Based on a thematic literature review of historical positions of the Nordic media teacher, and supported by national survey data on the media teachers' backgrounds, motivations and practices (n=383), the subject is explored through focus groups and individual interviews with media teachers at two case schools in upper secondary media education in Norway. The findings suggest that there are different and conflicting understandings about being media teachers, resulting in different educational practices with wider implications for the future implementation of media education.

Keywords: media teachers, media education, media literacy, interpretative repertoires, professional cultures, communities of practice

Introduction

Starting off as a marginal school subject, media education is now seen as a critical element of 21st century learning (Erstad, 2010; Frau-Meigs & Torrent, 2009). However, we have very little knowledge of the implementers of this critical element: the media teachers. Both in the Nordic countries and internationally, the research literature on media education has mainly been concerned with different understandings of why we need media education and how it can, and should, be taught (Erstad & Amdam, 2013; Martens, 2010). Who the media teachers are, their backgrounds and their own understandings of being teachers and forming media education, have not received much attention (Berger & McDougall, 2010; Hart, 1998). In this article, the historical conceptions of the media teacher within the Nordic media research literature are addressed, exploring whether they function as underlying discourses for how media teachers see themselves and their educational practice within a policy-framework of 21st century learning.

Many countries have media literacy and media education as part of either basic skills, language or arts subjects or as smaller electives in their curriculum (Carlsson, 2008; Lavender, Tufte, & Lamish, 2003). However, the study programme of Media and Communication in Norway, hereafter called MC, provides a unique case in the

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international field of media education in being a policy-answer to the challenges of the 21st century. Established in 2000, this upper secondary programme with full-time media teachers, gives access to both vocational diplomas and to further university studies. In the Norwegian school system, 16-19 year olds typically choose between a three-year general education programme qualifying for all higher education studies or a vocational programme with two years in school and two years in apprenticeship qualifying for vocational certification. The MC programme combines these outcomes. It has more media programme classes than academic core curriculum classes like languages, math, social and natural sciences in the first two years (12 core and 23 media classes a week the first year, 9 core and 26 media classes in the second). In the third year, which is a specific media elective for students who want academic qualification instead of going into a two-year apprenticeship in media design or photography, the students have 10 media classes and 25 core curriculum classes a week. By combining traditional academic subjects with media classes, the programme curriculum focuses both on educational goals of 'bildung' and on educating the future work force, thus encompassing many of the areas of tension within media education research (Amdam, 2016; Erstad & Gilje, 2008).

The goal of the article is to explore the MC teachers' self-images and positionings, and the implications for media education practices, through the research questions: *What self-images, positioning and interpretative repertoires do media teachers in the MC programme utilise in describing themselves as teachers, and how do they perceive these understandings as influencing educational practice?* The research questions are examined through focus groups and individual interviews with media teachers at two MC schools, based on a thematic literature review of historical positions of the media teacher, and supported by national survey data on the media teachers' backgrounds, motivations and practices (n=383). First, the analytical framework, methods, and materials are presented. Then the underlying historical conceptions of the teacher in media education research are discussed. Finally, teacher backgrounds, self-images and positioning in the findings are elaborated and discussed both on national and local levels. In conclusion, the implications of the tensions in and between the interpretative repertoires this specific group of teachers use are discussed.

Self-Images, positioning and interpretative repertoires

Self-image is an essential part in shaping workers and professionals (Foucault & Sheridan, 1977). Professional self-image relates to both personal identity and working roles in specific contexts, and is considered to influence professional attitudes, values, positions, and actions (Collard, 2004; Niskala & Hurme, 2014). Professional self-image is also viewed as the sum of subjective and inter-subjective attitudes affected by past professional experience and context. Studies related to media education have underscored the significance of professional self-image for work processes and professional objectives, for instance in education and management (Collard, 2004), and in journalism (Volek & Jiráček, 2007).

Professional self-images are affected by professional cultures, and how the teachers position themselves within these cultures – their communities of practice (Wenger, 1998). Conceptual understandings explored through attitudes and vocabulary can provide substantial information about both self-image and professional culture, defined as a configuration of beliefs, practices, relationships, language and symbols distinctive to a

particular social unit (Evans, 2008). Reflexive positions offer an alternative discursive notion to the concept of role (Davies & Harré, 1990). We make sense of ourselves, or position ourselves, within social interactions through the cultural and personal resources, the interpretative repertoires, that are made available to us.

Interpretative repertoires are relatively coherent ways of talking about objects and events, in terms that are already provided by history (Wetherell, Taylor, & Yates, 2001). Interpretative repertoires thus function as discursive tools teachers use to tell themselves and others about their understandings of, for instance, themselves as teachers and educational practice (Wetherell & Potter, 1988). People generally draw upon different repertoires to suit the particular needs at hand. By examining the media teachers' interpretative repertoires both in focus groups and individual interviews, we can both obtain an understanding of the professional cultures they are part of, the positionings and tensions within these cultures, and the underlying historical media teacher positions that are, or are not, thematised within these settings.

Methods and materials

This article draws on a thematic literature review of the media teacher in Nordic media research and on data from an exploratory research study on the MC study programme. The study focuses specifically on two data sources where the first serves as background for the second: 1) quantitative descriptive data from a national teacher survey, and 2) qualitative case study data from two schools.

The thematic literature review was conducted through a literature search using Nordic library services, ERIC, Google Scholar, JSTOR and NCOM. The review used the search terms 'media teacher', 'teaching media', 'media literacy education' and 'media education', including studies written in English, Swedish, Danish and Norwegian for the period 1975-2015. As academic literature focusing specifically on the Nordic media teacher was found to be scarce, the search was supplemented by literature found to be relevant within the broader field of media literacy research (Erstad & Amdam, 2013). The literature was then analysed thematically, with representative literature of different positions quoted (Joffe, 2011).

The teacher survey was a national online survey conducted in the spring of 2012, sent to 77 schools with the full three-year MC programme. 383 out of 587 teachers responded (65% response rate). The material was analysed using SPSS. The survey material used in this article concentrates on descriptive data of educational and vocational backgrounds and motivations, also comparing data from this survey with a previous teacher survey from 2006 (Turmo & Aamodt, 2007). These data did not provide direct input to the discourse analysis, but rather a broader social framing of local discursive understandings, or what Jimarkon and Todd called a quantitative 'framework to guide the main qualitative analysis' in discourse analysis (2011, p. 45).

The case schools in the qualitative study were selected based on theoretical replication, with similarities in school and programme size and school context, and differences in educational traditions (Yin, 2009). One school mainly has vocational study programmes, while the other has mainly academic programmes. The two case studies included focus groups with 11 media teachers and individual semi-structured interviews with 14 media teachers (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). The focus group conversations and

interviews were transcribed verbatim and analysed thematically using NVivo 10 (Joffe, 2011). Conceptions on teachers' backgrounds, self-images, positioning and educational practices were then investigated further to see how 'systematic clusters of themes, statements, ideas, and ideologies come into play' (Luke, 2000, p. 456), forming interpretative repertoires. These thematic occurrences and non-occurrences were then compared to the historical discursive positions described below, to obtain an understanding of what is perceived as common or natural and what are conflicting or absent understandings and constructions within the discursive practices (Foucault, 2003).

Historical positionings of the teacher in media education

The media teacher is mostly described indirectly in the research literature, by descriptions of teacher practices. Through the thematic review, three historical teacher positions can be discerned in the Nordic literature: the media-interested innovative pedagogue, the critical media scholar and the production-oriented pedagogue. A fourth positioning of the media teacher was found in the international literature, that of the vocational trainer. These positions are in some cases intertwined, but they resonate with different and, in part, conflicting discourses of research internationally.

The innovative pedagogue

In the Nordic literature, the media teacher is often portrayed as the innovator with a special interest, but not necessarily education, in media subjects (Erstad, 1997). Birgitte Tufte painted a typical picture of this teacher, describing Danish media teachers. They are:

[...] innovators (who) try to take the pupils' interest for the new, aesthetic media cultural forms seriously, [...] often trying to work interdisciplinarily with a form of teaching that is in dialog with the pupils' competences, a form of pedagogy that implies both a critical perspective and an aesthetic dimension (Tufte, 2007, p. 81, my translation).

This position has roots in a discourse of progressive educational perspectives with a strong influence from John Dewey (e.g. Dewey, 1938), mainly interpreted as taking the perspective of the students and exploring ways that learning is made relevant and authentic for learners. It also entails 'learning by doing', emphasising practical work as a methodological approach – learning through media use (Drotner, 1991; Erstad, 2010). This position is also prevalent internationally, where: '[...] ideal images of media teachers portray them as popular culture enthusiasts closely in touch with their students' media cultures and committed to incorporating them into the classroom [...]' (Burn, Buckingham, Parry, & Powell, 2010, p. 192).

The critical scholar

The second position is described as the teacher with a more theoretical, academic media studies background, not necessarily having vocational or practical media experience. In the Nordic literature, this position is linked to media education as subjects that highlight a redefinition of 'bildung' more attuned to the media cultures and shifting roles of young

people in our societies (Oxstrand, 2013; Thavenius, 1995; Vettenranta & Erstad, 2007). The position originates in a discourse of media studies, focused on text analysis, media structures and audience studies (Erstad, 2010). This has internationally been called a representational understanding of media in education, with a focus on learning about the media (Masterman, 1998).

The production-oriented pedagogue

Focusing on professional production as an educational goal of media education, this position has grown out of a progressive educational understanding of project-based learning within an academic school tradition, with the end goal of critical awareness of the media industry. This media teacher position has been part of a pedagogical focus on project-based media learning both in and outside school within a Nordic context since the 1970s. The teacher is often positioned as progressive and innovative, but the practice has been an established way of teaching media education for too long to be called innovative (Amdam, 2016; Drotner, 1991; Erstad, 2010; Tufte, 1998).

The vocational trainer

The conception of the vocational media teacher is not described much in the Nordic literature, but has been more prevalent for instance in British and Australian media education research (Buckingham, 2010; Quin, 2003). The teacher is positioned as a skills-oriented trainer or mentor, teaching the ways of the media industry. Originating in many of the same ideas as those of the innovative pedagogue, the goal of educational practice for these teachers is described as teaching the students how to make media productions. The focus is on skills and emancipation for the students: ‘to use vocational media courses as a way of turning their expertise with media and popular culture into something that can be accredited and, hence, lead to employment’ (Buckingham, 2010, p. 296).

Balancing pedagogy, theory and practice

The teacher positions can thus be seen as overlapping, but also conflicting. All the positions harbour important media education values, focusing on the students’ interests and motivation in teaching through media, focusing on analytical and critical perspectives in teaching about the media, and focusing on emancipation through teaching to do media productions. However, there is an underlying duality between theoretical and practical aspects in the literature, often presented as an axis of conflict. The innovative pedagogue-position can be criticised for having too little focus on media subject knowledge, both in theoretical and practical terms (Erstad, 1997). The critical scholar-position can be criticised for having too little focus on practical aspects of media studies (Masterman, 1998). Moreover, the production focus of both the production-oriented pedagogue and the vocational trainer-position can be criticised for forgetting theoretical aspects (Buckingham, 2010). Thus, the question becomes: how are these historical teacher positions and conflicts reflected in current media teachers’ professional self-images, positioning and perceptions of educational practices?

National indicators on media teacher positions

The research on the MC programme has so far focused on the students and the educational practices (Gilje, 2011; Schofield & Kupiainen, 2015). With no specific MC teacher education available and a broad curriculum, schools initially formed the study programme quite differently (Erstad & Gilje, 2008). This makes the national survey material on media teachers' backgrounds and motivations for being teachers interesting as a backdrop for discussing how the historical positionings interact with local positions, practices and professional cultures. Whereas the thematic review has a perspective emphasising the expected backgrounds and motivations of media teachers, the national survey data emphasises the actual backgrounds and motivations of the teachers. Together these perspectives frame the interpretation of the findings in the case studies.

In 2006, Turmo and Aamodt (2007) conducted a national survey on teacher backgrounds in upper secondary school in Norway. 127 MC teachers took part in this survey (n=4332). Based on comparison with the other study programmes, Turmo and Aamodt found that the group of MC teachers had the lowest percentage of those with formal pedagogical training (72 per cent). At the same time, the MC teachers had a different subject specific profile compared to other vocational programmes. Only 19 per cent of the teachers had a trade certificate, master's certificate or technical college. In the other Norwegian vocational programmes the norm was 60-80 per cent (Turmo & Aamodt, 2007, p. 54). 27 per cent of the MC teachers had a master's degree, which was low compared to general education programmes, but unusually high for a vocational programme, where the average was between 3 and 7 per cent (Turmo & Aamodt, 2007, p. 24)(see Table 1). Thus, the pedagogically motivated teacher in the thematic review was not overly evident in the survey, neither did the vocational trainer position seem to dominate.

In the 2012 survey, using the same question batteries with 383 MC teachers, there were however some significant changes (Table 1). Keeping the historical teacher conceptions in mind, certain tendencies and questions became evident.

Table 1. *Education for Program Media Teachers (per cent)*

	2006	2012
Trade certificate / master certificate	14	13
Technical college / tertiary vocational college	5	2
University or university college / in media subjects	71 / 35	71 / 47
University or Univ.college, master's degree / in media subjects	27 / 9	27 / 20
2-4 years integrated teacher education	16	17
0,5-1 year pedagogicval certification	56	68
Number of respondents	127	383

Source for 2006: Turmo & Aamodt (2007).

First, there was an overall increase in teachers with pedagogical training. However, this increase can be due to pedagogical training being required to get tenure. A stable number came from an integrated teacher education background with some media classes, the background described as typical for the innovative pedagogue in the review (Table 1). Regarding motivations for becoming MC teachers, most of the teachers claimed they

did not plan or aspire to become teachers. Close to 70 per cent disagreed with having educated themselves with the intent of becoming MC teachers. Half of them also disagreed with having wanted to become a MC teacher, as much as 44 per cent responding it was a coincidence (Figure 1). Thus, the descriptive quantitative data did not indicate a widespread pedagogical motivation for becoming MC teachers.

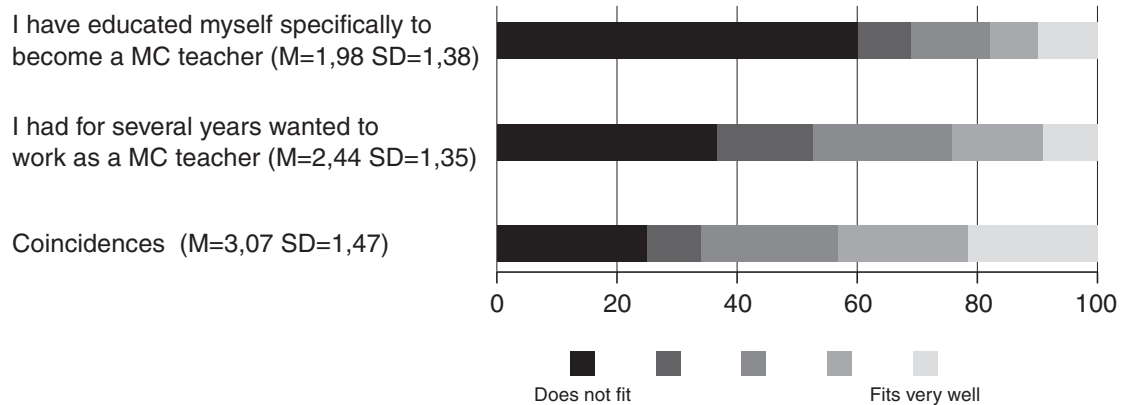


Figure 1. Motivations for Becoming a Media Teacher (per cent)

Question: How well do the following factors fit with why you became a MC teacher?

Still, the media teachers in the survey reported an educational practice that is rather innovative. As much as 71 per cent of the teachers agreed or strongly agreed that: *‘The MC teaching at my school is mainly based on interdisciplinary production projects across the media subjects’*. 65 per cent of the teachers also reported that the curriculum borders between media subjects are erased in their timetables. What motivates this educational practice? Is it based on the historical positions of how to become a media teacher, or do other factors stand out in the teachers’ interpretative repertoires?

Secondly, the survey indicated that there may be an increase in teachers positioning themselves as media scholars. There was a significant increase in teachers with media education from university or university college, both on bachelor’s and master’s levels, up to 47 per cent for bachelor’s and to 20 per cent on master’s level (Table 1). This provides a picture of the MC teaching staffs developing towards more media-theory focused backgrounds, but still half of the teachers did not have this background.

Third, the percentage of teachers with trade certificate or technical college backgrounds was further down by 3 per cent in 2012 (Table 1). However, the teachers had far more practical media experience than teacher experience. In the 2012 study, as much as 95 per cent reported having worked practically with media productions before becoming MC teachers, and 65 per cent responded that they had three or more years of media-related vocational practice before becoming teachers. In contrast, only 32 per cent reported that they had three or more years of teacher experience before becoming MC teachers. Does this imply that the common interdisciplinary production practices have vocational rather than pedagogical motivations in many collegiums?

Fourth, journalism stood out as the most common professional background, both when it comes to education (23 per cent) and vocational experience (32 per cent). The other groups for vocational experience were photographers (23 per cent), graphic designers (19 per cent) and PR/communications (16 per cent). The prominence of journalistic backgrounds is rather interesting since the vocational choices the students can make in

the programme are to be educated as photographers or media designers. Will dominance of a journalistic background affect educational practices locally?

These tendencies and questions lead us back to the initial research questions. *What self-images, positioning and interpretative repertoires do media teachers in the MC program utilise in describing themselves as teachers, and how do they perceive these understandings as influencing educational practice?*

Local professional self-images, positions and reflections on practice

One of the case schools, hereafter called ‘the academic school’, is a school with a long academic tradition, a typical context for the previously described pedagogical innovators (Tufté, 2007) and the critical media scholars (Erstad, 2010). The other case school, hereafter called ‘the vocational school’, has a long vocational tradition and broad range of vocational programmes. This is a more typical context for the vocational trainers (Buckingham, 2010).

The academic school – from critical private practice to community of pedagogues

The collegium in the academic school consists of six teachers that all have higher education backgrounds, mainly 2-4 years of media professions training in journalism, PR and media production. Two had a master’s degree in media studies. Compared to the national survey, the teachers had more media education and shorter professional full-time experience from the media industry. Still, most had worked part time in media production over several years. They all had pedagogical training, some took the qualification after becoming teachers in the MC programme, and several claimed they became media teachers as a coincidence. Based on these more academic backgrounds, one could assume that most of them would adhere to a critical media scholar position.

However, when discussing themselves as teachers in the focus group, the interpretative repertoire they shared across age, gender and educational background adhered more to the innovative pedagogue position than to the critical scholar. The teachers described a shared self-image of the learning, collaborative and reflexive teacher. Mariel (in her 20s) provided a typical description:

We are not afraid of learning as teachers as well [...] we have a teacher role where we can dare to come into the classroom and start projects where we don’t know everything ourselves [...] we dare to learn together with them (the students).

In the focus group, the teachers all supported this position of being a companion in learning, open to failing, always reflecting and developing with the students. This was also evident in how they positioned themselves as different from other teachers in upper secondary school. As Herman (50s) stated:

We are not the authoritarian ones that stand there pointing to the curricular goals; you have to know this and here is the textbook, right. We are partners, fellow students, just as much as we are teachers in the project at hand.

In the individual interviews, the shared self-image was confirmed, but most of the teachers described the self-image as being a negotiated position, gradually developed as part of the specific MC teacher collegium. Several of the teachers described starting their MC teacher careers with what they saw as a typical teacher position in upper secondary schools, without any specific training to be media teachers, as described by William (30s):

When I came here in the spring of 2003 I was just thrown into it, and I started with ferocious presentations and talked and talked and talked. As time has passed I do much less of that and much (more) learning by doing, really just communicating alongside and focusing much more on just the motivation and the challenge, really.

Similarly, Emma (40s) described how the educational practice during the first years was private practice where one teacher had all media subjects in one class: 'If we had about design [...] I had to read up on that, right. We did not separate; you didn't do what you were best at (across classes)'. Gradually the collegium developed a shared understanding that is often described by the teachers using the Dewey term 'learning by doing', like William above, and also based on using and sharing their specialised media competences across classes and projects, as emphasised by Emma.

Several linked the use of specialist competence across projects to a vocational motivation, to how different media professions cooperate in the media industry. Thomas (30s) stated it this way in the focus group: 'what is guiding for the teacher role, I think is this closeness to the vocational field that you need to have [...] You have a closeness to the actual social mission (of the programme)'. Later he connected this vocational motivation to how the local educational practice has evolved, which the other teachers confirmed:

The teachers have changed due to how we are organised and the expertise, that you get to use your expertise, because this gives ambition and motivation to learn more (several teachers nodded and confirmed), to develop, and this rubs off, both in the collegium and also, of course, on the students.

Several used this understanding of closeness to the vocational field to motivate both teacher self-image and educational practice. The educational practice had a quite common organisation compared to the survey findings, with all media subjects merged into whole workdays and production projects lasting 2-6 weeks as the main methodological approach, but with two classes reserved for media theory every week.

In parallel with developing what they saw as a vocational educational practice, the teachers described a gradual development of pedagogical awareness. This awareness was attributed to different factors individually, such as increased teacher experience, pedagogical training, visiting and teaching at other schools and a new curriculum in 2006 that introduced a new project subject that challenged them in how to teach. However, what was perceived to be the strongest factor in the interpretative repertoire was being a stable collegium over time with freedom to form their position and educational practice. They all claimed their part in developing the new, shared teacher position, showing ownership of a shared professional culture, but this development did not come without conflict. Mariel (20s) described this:

We had much larger conflicts before, right, technique versus contents, communication versus production [...]. As we have started working towards this common goal of having competent, good students, and that teacher role has taken more hold, and that MC family culture has taken over more and more, we do not have these clashing positions anymore. We can of course have nuances of disagreement related to how important this and that is, but we find good solutions.

These tensions, recognisable from the historical discourses, were also somewhat evident in the individual interviews, with the more theoretical scholar teachers emphasising that they would like to have more theoretically oriented classes and the more vocationally-oriented teachers emphasising how for instance textbooks introduce theoretical concepts unknown in the media industry. However, these tensions were explicit and part of the shared understanding of how to develop practice through learning from each other.

Several of the teachers connected the teacher self-image and negotiated position to a perceived professional culture that only applies to the MC teacher collegium in the school. This was particularly evident in the focus group when the teachers were asked what they perceived the rest of the teachers in the school thought of them:

Emma (40s): We are sort of a satellite far away

Mariel (20s): A terror cell (several teachers laughed)

This positioning as something different from or even in opposition to the local school culture was evident both in the focus group and the individual interviews. The described teacher self-image thus left an impression of a teacher collegium that positions themselves as quite close to the historical position of the innovative pedagogue. Still, this position was not just motivated in a pedagogical discourse, but also had vocational and critical theory motivations, in developing practices that are close to how projects are run in the media industry, but at the same time focusing on theory and reflection around these practices. In contrast to the vocational school, the teachers initiated the projects in the academic school; they were not initiated by cooperation with the media industry. The outer frames and progression of the projects were also stable from year to year, and there was an explicit awareness of both theoretical and analytical perspectives when discussing the development of practice. The teachers thus seemed to operate more in line with the position of the production-oriented pedagogue than as innovators. The professional culture seemed to form a stable community of practice with a joint enterprise and a shared repertoire, negotiating meaning through productive tensions in forming practice (Wenger, 1998).

Vocational school – from media professionals to vocational mentors

In the vocational school, eight teachers were interviewed. These teachers had more professional experience than media education, more in line with the survey findings. About half had specific higher media education of 2-3 years. Journalism dominated as the educational and professional background like in the survey, but teachers also had media studies, animation and photography backgrounds, varying from no higher education to a master's degree. Almost all had more than 10 years of experience from different media professions. About half of the teachers had pedagogical training; two were taking the training when interviewed. Here, most claimed they became teachers by coincidence.

In the educational practice, the media subjects were also merged in 2-6 week projects. Contrary to the academic school, there were no fixed weekly media theory classes, and projects were often based on entrepreneurship and cooperation with the local media industry, form and contents of projects varying from year to year.

When asked if they considered themselves as teachers or media professionals in the focus group, the teachers were somewhat inconclusive. Following up on this in the individual interviews, three different interpretative repertoires became evident in the teacher collegium: the pedagogic media scholar, the media professional and the vocational mentor.

The repertoire of the pedagogic media scholar shared the self-image and positioning of the teacher collegium in the academic school. The teachers described the development of becoming a teacher with a broad understanding of practice and focus on 'bildung', without any sort of specific media teacher training, as well as through conflicts. Catherine (30s) represented this position:

I wasn't a teacher when I started. I was a media scholar, with a very keen interest in developing things [...] but I didn't quite know what school was. [...] There was kind of a clash in understanding the (media) subject, because the others thought they knew best what media subjects are about. And then I had kind of a broader understanding, I would say. (To them) journalism was the most important, while I said that media design and media history had to be emphasised too.

As in the academic school, pedagogical awareness and room to develop practice was seen as vital for the development of media education. However, whereas the collegium in the academic school seemed to have found a productive way to handle the tensions in the media subjects, this pedagogically motivated position was still viewed as somewhat conflicting with the other two interpretative repertoires in the vocational school.

The second repertoire, of the media professional, was typically used by the teachers who had been teachers for the shortest amount of time and who had a strong professional self-image linked to the media industry. As the photographer John (30s) stated it: 'No, I'm not a teacher. It's not a teacher role either, that I teach and learn them as much as possible. Make them as ready as possible for what will happen after upper secondary'. Similarly, Maya (50s) stated that:

I can't say that I feel like a teacher. [...] I'm in the journalist union still, I identify so strongly with them that I'll stay there until I'm kicked out.

- When you are here, are you then a teacher or a journalist? How do you perform your vocational role here?

Well, I sort of lean on this being a practical, subject-specific programme. So one can allow that I bring in the journalistic world. I probably do. And then I think we don't have to stand there and preach, one-way communication.

Becoming teachers comes with a self-image and position that these media professionals did not have or want. They seemed to connect being a teacher mostly to pedagogical motivations, but also to a specific understanding of teaching, as Maya explained: 'one way communication'. These teachers had a self-image as conveyors of a media profession, working in a practical, vocational way, much in line with the historical position of the vocational trainer. They typically oriented educational practice towards industry

standards, of what can be expected of a professional media product and of a professional work process, to make the students ready, as John said: ‘for what will happen after secondary school’.

However, in the interviews, several of the teachers with a long vocational background saw this repertoire as typical for when they started teaching. Ann (50s) explained how this affected her teaching in the first years: ‘When I came from the vocational field, I was like: No, this isn’t good enough, right. It has to be like this! And very strict that if you did not deliver on time I almost failed them (laughs)’. Gradually, the more experienced teachers had developed a new repertoire, that of the vocational mentor. The majority of the teachers shared this third repertoire. Typical for this repertoire was a self-image of using their own experiences from the media industry as a guide for teaching. The vocational experience was seen as the reason why they were recruited as teachers, and decisive for being good teachers, as phrased by Christian (50s): ‘If you have not been a professional, right, you lack some of the basics decisive to understanding what is important’.

This position came with pedagogical awareness and vocabulary, for instance awareness of varying teaching dependent on subject area and project phase, and focusing on continuous assessment, as Frank (40s) expressed it:

[...] in most contexts, you become more of a mentor than a lecturer. It of course varies a little depending on the kind of project you have and what phase you are in, in the project. [...] It is quite natural to do introductions and a few simple, basic, more theoretical introductions [...] but otherwise you are much more of a mentor. That is, give feedback and response. Feedback, continuous assessment and process response – that’s what recurs all the time, really.

However, the mentor conception also allowed for other positions when working with the students, as Christian (50s) stated: ‘Sometimes we are employers and colleagues too, right. You are somewhat closer in the processes with the students [...] you have a different kind of link to the rest of society than a teacher profession has. [...] We are part of a (vocational) context together with them’. Again, the tensions between what is perceived as a typical teacher position in upper secondary and the media teachers’ position is emphasised. Similarly, in assessing media projects and products, most of the teachers with this repertoire seemed to have a tacit assessment practice based on vocational experience. The main response to how they evaluated projects was that they know the quality of the media product based on their former profession. Martin (30s) exemplified this: ‘For instance for me, as a journalist, I know what a good case is and what a bad case is, to put it that way. Or what could be better. So I give feedback based on what is common in the industry’.

Thus, even though the teachers in this repertoire saw themselves as teachers more than media professionals, pedagogical motivations were seldom explicit in how they described their educational practice. The teacher collegium’s educational practice was rather dominated by what Catherine (30s) described as editorial thinking:

The organisation of the media programme has all the time been focused on flexibility and projects, [...] as opposed to normal class scheduling. [...] However, maybe one of the main arguments for this flexibility, in the collegium, has been kind of editorial thinking, what you have from newspapers and TV and so on.

That there you do not have anything rigid, that you should run things from editorial meeting to editorial meeting [...] The media programme is sort of run with an argument and a logic from editorial professions.

This motivation for educational practice, based on the dominance of teachers with journalistic backgrounds in the collegium, caused the main tensions in the professional culture. The teachers largely agreed on the practice of working flexibly and with projects, but not on the motivation for this practice, based on their different interpretative repertoires and teacher self-images. Catherine, for instance, went on to criticise the lack of theoretical focus in the perceived editorial practice: 'I think we should have designated some parts to theory, that we had permanent classes that did not disappear in the project organisation'. Again, she was in line with the more theoretically oriented collegium in the academic school.

As opposed to the academic school, the teachers in the vocational school did not seem to share a community of practice with a joint enterprise (Wenger, 1998). Instead, the interpretative repertoire of the vocational mentor, close to the historical position of the vocational trainer, seemed to dominate. The educational practice was more innovative than in the academic school in opening up for flexibility and variation in project organisation, using actual media industry projects as part of the educational practice. This practice had both pedagogical and vocational motivations, also drawing on the historical position of the innovative pedagogue. However, in performing what was locally called an editorial educational practice, there was a danger that the critical dimension of media theory may be lost, as pointed out both by teachers locally and in the research literature (Buckingham, 2010).

Concluding discussion: professionalising media education

By examining the media teachers' self-images, positionings and interpretative repertoires, we gained an understanding of the local professional cultures they are part of, the positionings and tensions within these cultures, and how professional backgrounds and the underlying historical media teacher positions are, or are not, thematised within these settings. Summing up the findings, the tensions found in and between the historical positions in the thematic review were also evident in current media teachers' repertoires. The teachers' professional backgrounds and current professional cultures played into how these tensions affected educational practice. In the academic school, the professional culture has developed to a point where the shared culture triumphs the professional backgrounds of the teachers, resulting in a shared interpretative repertoire where tensions are addressed openly and reflexively, balancing theory, practice and pedagogy. In the vocational school, however, professional backgrounds seemed to triumph a shared professional culture. The teachers had three different interpretative repertoires on teacher self-image and educational practice, two of which are mainly guided by professional experience. The lack of a shared repertoire resulted in tensions and disagreements on educational practice.

The MC schools share the same 21st century policy framework and curriculum, but not a common interpretative repertoire across schools on how to be media teachers and how to form educational practices. This suggests that without a focus on developing the teachers' professional understandings, local professional cultures and professional back-

grounds seem more determining of how educational practice is formed than policy and curriculum. This has not been a main concern in media education research. As pointed out initially and in the thematic review, media teachers' professional understandings and development are seldom addressed explicitly, but rather implied through focus on teacher and student practices.

The implications of these findings, and the wider challenge for media education in becoming a critical element of 21st century learning, is the need to develop shared or at least explicit understandings of what is expected of the media teachers, of their professional self-image, positions and motivations for practice. The result of policy-change without this focus is that educational practice does not necessarily support the intended goals of 21st century media learning.

The MC programme is a typical example of how policy-focus is not enough. The programme was formed as a policy-construction, a hybrid education programme with both vocational and academic elements and a broad curriculum to cater the educational needs of the 21st century (Erstad & Gilje, 2008). However, the differences and tensions in and between teacher repertoires and educational focus at different schools have left the MC programme open to criticism, resulting in new policy-changes. Beginning autumn of 2016, the programme will be re-established as an academic programme, without vocational certifications and with far fewer media classes. The question is whether this policy-change will include a focus on professional development for the media teachers, as the same teachers as before the policy-change will form the educational practice.

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