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The Journal of Didactics (JoD) is an academic journal published in electronic format by the Department of Didactics of the Human Sciences (Faculty of Psychology and the Sciences of Education) of "Babeș-Bolyai" University Cluj-Napoca (Romania). JoD is envisaged as a medium for disseminating the research in the human and exact sciences and as an open space for the academic exchange of ideas between researchers and educators (at both university and pre-university level) from Romania and abroad. In this sense, the Editorial Board of JoD encourages the publication, in English and Romanian, of:

- articles and qualitative and quantitative studies in the field of didactics;
- reviews of recent significant publications from Romania and abroad;
- translations into Romanian of landmark text from the (more or less) recent history of the field;
- comments and analyses of the ideas expressed in the pages of the present journal or of current issues regarding the Romanian and foreign educational politics and policies.

Because didactics itself is a cross-border discipline between the different sciences of education, social and human sciences, the Editorial Board of JoD strongly encourages inter- and multi-disciplinary approaches.

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A Note from the Editor

The current issue brings significant changes in the Board of JoD. Following her retirement from the university after a very long and fruitful academic life Prof. Monica Diaconu will become Honorary Editor. Her former position will be occupied by Executive Editor, Adrian Costache and the new Executive Editor will be Cristina Sărăcuț.

Monica Diaconu is not only the founder of The Journal of Didactics and, for so many years already the driving force behind it. She is also the architect of Department of Didactics of the Human Sciences, one of the largest departments of Babeș-Bolyai University, in which she served as chair for almost a decade. In her academic work Monica Diaconu combined the rigor of the philosopher with the passion for concreteness and the sensibility of the artist for she, as so many members of the Department of Didactics, is a philosopher by profession and a painter by calling.

As a Honorary Editor-in-Chief of the Journal Monica Diaconu will still take part in all the major decisions that lie ahead in the life of the Journal.

At the same time, beginning with this issue Mirona Stănescu joins the Editorial Board of JoD. We would like to use this occasion to bid her a warm welcome!

The Editors
Abstract

In order to attract career changers into education, teacher education institutes organize alternative teacher education programs (ATEPs). This study investigates several characteristics of a student teachers’ cohort (N=88) entering an ATEP in Flanders (Belgium). This ATEP prepares students to become kindergarten or primary school teachers. Several participating student teachers have already obtained a teaching degree for another educational level (N=33). All student teachers completed a questionnaire on their motivation, teaching beliefs and self-efficacy. Results showed that student teachers were motivated by intrinsic career values and social utility values rather than personal utility values. Student teachers with a teaching degree scored higher on intrinsic career values, whereas student teachers without a teaching degree scored higher on the extrinsic motives job security and time for family. Student teachers, especially student teachers with a teaching degree, believe the teacher’s job to be highly demanding and requiring a lot of expertise. Moreover, they had developmental rather than transmissive beliefs on education. Student teachers scored equally on efficacy for instructional strategies, student engagement and classroom management. Student teachers with a teaching degree scored higher on classroom management compared to student teachers without a teaching degree. Having a clear view on these entry characteristics helps to adjust the ATEP to the student teachers’ profile.

Key words

teacher education; student teacher; second-career teacher; motivation; teaching beliefs; self-efficacy
1. Introduction

Several countries suffer from teacher shortages (Tigchelaar et al., 2010). In order to solve teacher shortages, teacher education institutes attract people from outside education, i.e. people leaving their current job to become a teacher. These career changers have been called ‘second-career teachers’. Attracting second-career teachers is considered to be important, not only because of the expected teacher shortages but also because of the variety of competences they bring into education (Melchers et al., 2003). Nevertheless, the phenomenon of career changing is relatively new. Previously, people were likely to stay in the same job throughout their professional life, but recently, changing careers becomes more widespread (Lee, 2011).

To train career changers, alternative teacher education programs (ATEPs) have been developed (Tigchelaar et al., 2010). The USA already has a tradition with these programs for two and a half decades (Tigchelaar et al., 2012). In Europe, however, research and development focusing on these programs is limited (Tigchelaar et al., 2010). In the literature, no clear definition on an ATEP exists (Boone et al., 2011). In general, they target career changers, being older on average than student teachers in traditional teacher education programs (Brouwer, 2007). Different ATEPs exist, e.g. fast-track programs (Garza, 2009), programs placing teachers in classrooms before completing the teacher training, or any programs different from the traditional programs (Humphrey & Wechsler, 2007).

In the present study, we are particularly interested in the characteristics of student teachers starting an ATEP, i.e. their motivation to become a teacher, their teaching beliefs and their self-efficacy. Student teachers’ motivation to become a teacher is one of the main topics of research on second-career teachers. Summarizing the literature, it seems that the reasons why second-career teachers choose to become a teacher are diverse (Laming & Horne, 2013). In general, they show high levels of intrinsic motivation. They are
driven by a desire to pass on expertise, help young people and contribute to society (Berger & D’Ascoli, 2012; Chambers, 2002; Haggard et al., 2006; Lee, 2011; Tigchelaar et al., 2010; Williams & Forgasz, 2009). As such, altruistic reasons become clear (Chambers, 2002; Laming & Horne, 2013; Uusimaki, 2011). Next to altruistic reasons, they see personal benefits (Chambers, 2002; Laming & Horne, 2013). They perceive teaching as more exciting, interactive and creative than their previous career (Haggard et al., 2006). Nevertheless, extrinsic and pragmatic reasons are present too, e.g. burnout or dissatisfaction with the previous career, career advancement, job security, financial rewards, and family-friendly hours (Berger & D’Ascoli, 2012; Chambers, 2002; Laming & Horne, 2013; Richardson & Watt, 2005; Tigchelaar et al., 2010; Williams & Forgasz, 2009). All in all, intrinsic reasons are considered to be more important for second-career teachers than extrinsic reasons (Berger & D’Ascoli, 2012; Williams & Forgasz, 2009).

Concerning teaching beliefs and self-efficacy, less research studies have been conducted. With respect to teaching beliefs, the literature is not univocal. According to Tigchelaar et al. (2008), second-career teachers seem to be more open to innovations because of their non-recent experiences as a student with teacher-centred methods (Tigchelaar et al., 2008). For instance, in Chambers’ study (2002), second-career teachers use alternative rather than traditional (i.e. teacher-centred) instructional methods. Other studies found the opposite, namely second-career teachers having traditional teaching beliefs (Uusimaki, 2011) with the teacher being perceived as knowledge transmitter (Tigchelaar et al., 2008, 2012; Uusimaki, 2011). Also Flores et al. (2004) indicated that alternatively certified teachers were more traditional in their teaching than traditionally certified teachers. This may be due to the fact that alternatively certified teachers had fewer pedagogy classes and mentoring opportunities. Consequently, they may be less confident in taking instructional risks. In the study of Maloy et al. (2006), students in a fast-track ATEP found it difficult to implement student-centred teaching methods emphasizing the
learners’ responsibility. These students may not have had the time to make a shift in their thinking about teaching. This may require more time than available in fast-track programs.

Also with regard to self-efficacy, research studies show mixed results. When comparing the self-efficacy of student teachers in traditional and alternative teacher education programs, Unruh and Holt (2012) did not find differences, while Flores et al. (2004) found that the participants in the traditional programs scored higher on personal teaching efficacy. Boone et al. (2011) found that participants in an ATEP showed an increased self-efficacy over time.

Since motivation, teaching beliefs and self-efficacy are important factors influencing student teachers’ teaching and learning processes, it is important for teacher educators to gain knowledge from these characteristics. Therefore, the present study focuses on these characteristics when students enter an ATEP. Students entering an ATEP are a diverse group and differ considerably in age, educational background, work and life experiences (Bolhuis, 2002; Brouwer, 2007; Humphrey & Wechsler, 2007). In this present study, we investigate whether motivation, teaching beliefs and self-efficacy differ between student teachers with and without an earlier obtained teaching degree for another educational level. The research questions central to the study were:

- What motivates student teachers in an ATEP to become a teacher? Is there a difference in motivation between student teachers with and without another teaching degree?
- What are the teaching beliefs of student teachers in an ATEP? Is there a difference in teaching beliefs between student teachers with and without another teaching degree?
- What is the self-efficacy of student teachers in an ATEP? Is there a difference in self-efficacy between student teachers with and without another teaching degree?
2. Methodology

2.1. Context

In Flanders (Belgium), there are two types of teacher education programs: the integrated teacher education programs and the specific teacher education programs. The integrated programs is a three-year Bachelor programs, consisting of 180 credits, and leads to a teaching degree in kindergarten, primary or lower secondary education. The specific teacher education programs is a one-year programs, consisting of 60 credits, and leads to a full teaching degree in secondary education. With the latter degree, student teachers are allowed to teach subjects associated with their initial Bachelor or Master Degree, or subjects in which they have acquired useful experience throughout their careers.

The present study focuses on an integrated programs leading to a teaching degree in kindergarten or primary education. Traditionally, these programs are three-year programs consisting of 180 credits and are provided in daytime. However, several teacher education institutes also offer an alternative integrated programs leading to the same teaching degree. These alternative programs are regularly fast-track programs or programs provided during the evening or weekend.

2.2. Subjects

In this study, we focus on one teacher education institute in Flanders offering an ATEP, which strongly differs from the traditional teacher education programs. There is more emphasis on field experiences, since half of the credits (90) are assigned to theory and the other half (90) to practice. Regularly, in integrated programs only 45 credits are assigned to practice. One day a week, student teachers go to a placement school in order to gain field experience. The courses are delivered during the evening (one evening a
week) and sometimes on Saturdays (4 Saturdays a year). All courses are in a blended-learning format, consisting of a combination of contact hours and distance learning.

In the academic year 2014-2015, 88 student teachers registered for the programs, which was new in the teacher education institute. Register requirements were (a) to have a Bachelor or Master degree, or (b) to have a secondary education degree and to have reached the age of 25. The length of the programs differed based on students’ previously acquired degrees. For students with only a secondary education degree, the length of the programs was the same as in case of the traditional integrated programs (i.e. 180 credits), but for other students, the programs could be shortened based on their earlier acquired degrees.

The majority of the student teachers were women (92%) within the age of 21-30 (59.1%). The mean age was 29.5 but the standard deviation was large (SD=5.87). This could be explained by the fact that some students (8%) were older than 40. 33 student teachers (37.5%) already obtained a teaching degree for another educational level, either a teaching degree achieved through an integrated teacher education program or a teaching degree achieved through a specific teacher education program. The majority of the student teachers obtained a previous degree in study options related to human sciences.

2.3. Instruments

2.3.1. Motivation

Student teachers’ motivation to become a teacher was measured by means of the motivation scales from the FIT (Factors Influencing Teaching)-Choice scale (Watt & Richardson, 2007). Motivation was measured by means of 38 statements scored on a 7-point Likert-scale. 12 scales could be distinguished (Table 1). The internal consistency of the latter scale, fall-back
career, was lower than the acceptable value of .60. Consequently, this scale was not included in further analyses.

### Table 1: Overview of the motivation scales

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>α</th>
<th>Exemplary item</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Work with children</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.84</td>
<td>I want a job that involves working with children.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intrinsic career value</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.60</td>
<td>I am interested in teaching.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Make social contribution</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>Teachers make a worthwhile social contribution.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shape future of children</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.70</td>
<td>Teaching will allow me to shape child values.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td>I have the qualities of a good teacher.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prior teaching/learning experiences</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.91</td>
<td>I have had good teachers as role models.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enhance social equity</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td>Teaching will allow me to raise the ambitions of under-privileged youth.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job security</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.85</td>
<td>Teaching will offer a steady career path.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social influences</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.87</td>
<td>My family thinks I should become a teacher.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time for family</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.85</td>
<td>School holidays will fit in with family commitments.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job transferability</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.63</td>
<td>A teaching job will allow me to choose where I wish to live.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fall-back career</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.57</td>
<td>I was unsure of what career I wanted.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 2.3.2. Teaching beliefs

In order to measure beliefs about the teaching profession, the teaching beliefs scales of the FIT-Choice scale (Watt & Richardson, 2007) were used. Beliefs about the teaching profession were measured by means of 14 questions scored on a 7-point Likert scale. Four scales could be distinguished (Table 2). Beliefs about education were measured by means of a questionnaire of Hermans et al. (2008), which distinguished between transmissive and developmental beliefs on education (Table 2). Transmissive beliefs refer to education serving external goals, orienting on outcome, having a closed curriculum, and transmitting knowledge to students. Developmental beliefs refer to education focusing on broad and individual development, orienting on process, having an open curriculum, and stimulating students in constructing knowledge. The questionnaire contains 18 statements scored on a 5-point Likert-scale.
Table 2: Overview of the teaching beliefs scales

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>α</th>
<th>Exemplary item</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teaching profession</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High demand</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.70</td>
<td>Do you think teachers have a heavy workload?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expert career</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td>Do you think teaching requires high levels of expert knowledge?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social status</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>Do you believe teaching is a well-respected career?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good salary Education</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.96</td>
<td>Do you think teaching is well paid?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developmental</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td>The learning process always has to start from the learning needs of the pupils.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transmissive</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td>The content of a lesson has to be completely in line with the curriculum.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.3.3. Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy as a teacher was measured by means of a shortened version of the Teachers’ Sense of Efficacy scale (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). This questionnaire consists of 12 statements scored on a 7-point Likert-scale. Three scales can be distinguished (Table 3). Further, self-efficacy concerning learning and studying in teacher education was measured by means of the Perceived Competence Scale (2008). This questionnaire consists of four statements scored on a 7-point Likert-scale (Table 3).

Table 3: Overview of the self-efficacy scales

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>α</th>
<th>Exemplary item</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Student engagement</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.82</td>
<td>How much can you do to motivate students who show low interest in schoolwork?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classroom management</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.90</td>
<td>How much can you do to control disruptive behaviour in the classroom?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructional strategies</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.84</td>
<td>To what extent can you craft good questions for your students?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning and studying</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.89</td>
<td>I am capable to learn the learning contents in this study program.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. Results

3.1. Motivation

Table 4 shows the results concerning motivation. Significant differences between the motivation scales for the total student group were
examined by means of paired samples t-tests. The main motive of student teachers to choose the teacher’s job was working with children. Also the intrinsic career value, making a social contribution, shaping the future of children and perceiving themselves as being able to teach encouraged student teachers to become a teacher. Previous teaching and learning experiences, enhancing social equity and job security were scored around the average value of 4 (neither agree nor disagree) on the 7-point Likert-scale and, consequently, were scored rather neutral. Less important motives were social influences, time for family and job transferability. On average, student teachers scored higher on scales focusing on social utility value (i.e. working with children, making social contribution, shaping the future of children and enhancing social equity) than on scales focusing on personal utility value (i.e. job security, time for family and job transferability).

By means of independent t-tests, differences in motivation between student teachers with and without a teaching degree were examined. Student teachers with a teaching degree scored higher on intrinsic career value than student teachers without a teaching degree. The latter group, on the other hand, scored higher on the extrinsic motives job security and time for family. With respect to ability, results showed that student teachers with a teaching degree were more strongly motivated to take an additional teacher education program because they felt able to be a teacher.
Table 4: Mean (M) and standard deviation (SD) of the motivation scales, for the total group of student teachers (T), for student teachers with (W) and without (WO) a teaching degree

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>MT</th>
<th>SDT</th>
<th>MW</th>
<th>SDW</th>
<th>MWO</th>
<th>SDWO</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Work with children</td>
<td>6.32a</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td>6.21</td>
<td>.91</td>
<td>6.41</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>-1.05</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intrinsic career value</td>
<td>5.63b</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>6.06</td>
<td>.94</td>
<td>5.56</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>2.96**</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Make soc. contribution</td>
<td>5.39bc</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>5.28</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>5.46</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>-.74</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shape future of children</td>
<td>5.30c</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>5.21</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>5.36</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>-.60</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability</td>
<td>5.16c</td>
<td>.90</td>
<td>5.45</td>
<td>.92</td>
<td>4.98</td>
<td>.84</td>
<td>2.39*</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Previous experiences</td>
<td>4.67d</td>
<td>1.46</td>
<td>4.61</td>
<td>1.58</td>
<td>4.71</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>-.29</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enhance soc. equity</td>
<td>4.54d</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>4.66</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>4.46</td>
<td>1.34</td>
<td>.68</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job security</td>
<td>3.76c</td>
<td>1.65</td>
<td>3.32</td>
<td>1.70</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>1.58</td>
<td>-1.92(*)</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social influences</td>
<td>3.16f</td>
<td>1.88</td>
<td>2.83</td>
<td>2.09</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>1.73</td>
<td>-1.25</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time for family</td>
<td>3.03f</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td>2.38</td>
<td>1.51</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>.26</td>
<td>-3.42**</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job transferability</td>
<td>2.34f</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>2.35</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>52.99</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p<.05, ** p<.01, (*) p<.06 (borderline significance)

Note: In case the mean scores of the motivation scales for the total student group differed significantly, this was indicated by the superscript. Mean scores with the same superscript did not differ significantly.

3.2. Teaching beliefs

Table 5 shows the results concerning teaching beliefs. Significant differences between the four teaching beliefs scales for the total student group were investigated by means of paired samples t-tests. Student teachers generally believed that the teacher’s profession was highly demanding and required a lot of expertise. With respect to social status and good salary, student teachers scored rather neutral with scores for these items lying around the average value of 4 on the 7-point Likert-scale. Regarding beliefs about education, student teachers generally scored higher on developmental than on transmissive beliefs.

Independent t-tests showed that student teachers with a teaching degree believed that the teacher’s job was more demanding and expertise requiring than student teachers without a teaching degree. Moreover, the former group held stronger developmental beliefs than student teachers without a teaching degree.
Table 5: Mean (M) and standard deviation (SD) of the teaching beliefs scales, for the total group of student teachers (T), for student teachers with (W) and without (WO) a teaching degree

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teaching profession</th>
<th>MT</th>
<th>SDT</th>
<th>MW</th>
<th>SDW</th>
<th>MWO</th>
<th>SDWO</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High demand</td>
<td>5.82a</td>
<td>.68</td>
<td>6.00</td>
<td>.55</td>
<td>5.71</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td>2.08*</td>
<td>78.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expert career</td>
<td>5.30b</td>
<td>.92</td>
<td>5.60</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td>5.10</td>
<td>.96</td>
<td>2.50*</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social status</td>
<td>4.45c</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>.84</td>
<td>4.45</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>-0.05</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good salary</td>
<td>4.32c</td>
<td>.95</td>
<td>4.53</td>
<td>.90</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>.96</td>
<td>1.63</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developmental belief</td>
<td>4.13a</td>
<td>.45</td>
<td>4.26</td>
<td>.43</td>
<td>4.05</td>
<td>.46</td>
<td>2.09*</td>
<td>78.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transmissive belief</td>
<td>3.29b</td>
<td>.573</td>
<td>.34</td>
<td>.54</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>.59</td>
<td>.59</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p<.05; ** p<.01; *** p<.001 (borderline significance)

Note: In case the mean scores of the teaching beliefs scales (teaching profession or education) for the total student group differed significantly, this was indicated by the superscript. Mean scores with the same superscript did not differ significantly.

3.3. Self-efficacy

Table 6 shows the results concerning self-efficacy. Student teachers scored equally on efficacy for the three teaching activities, i.e. student engagement, classroom management and instructional strategies. Efficacy for student engagement and efficacy to learn and study in teacher education scored the highest.

Independent t-tests showed a significant difference between student teachers with and without a teaching degree. The former group scored higher on efficacy for classroom management than the latter group.

Table 6: Mean (M) and standard deviation (SD) of the self-efficacy scales, for the total group of student teachers (T), for student teachers with (W) and without (WO) a teaching degree

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student engagement</th>
<th>MT</th>
<th>SDT</th>
<th>MW</th>
<th>SDW</th>
<th>MWO</th>
<th>SDWO</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5.47a</td>
<td>.81</td>
<td>5.60</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>5.39</td>
<td>.82</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>81</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classroom management</td>
<td>5.45b</td>
<td>.98</td>
<td>5.79</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td>5.25</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>2.55*</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructional strategies</td>
<td>5.37b</td>
<td>.98</td>
<td>5.51</td>
<td>.91</td>
<td>5.29</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>.98</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning and studying</td>
<td>5.63a</td>
<td>.92</td>
<td>5.83</td>
<td>.90</td>
<td>5.50</td>
<td>.91</td>
<td>1.58</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p<.05; ** p<.01; *** p<.001 (borderline significance)

Note: In case the mean scores of the self-efficacy scales for the total student group differed significantly, this was indicated by the superscript. Mean scores with the same superscript did not differ significantly.
4. Conclusions and discussion

The aim of the present study was to investigate the entry characteristics of student teachers in an ATEP, namely their motivation, their teaching beliefs and their self-efficacy. The results showed that student teachers in an ATEP were generally motivated by intrinsic career values and social utility values rather than personal utility values. This finding is in line with international research (e.g., Berger & D’Ascoli, 2012; Laming & Horne, 2013; Williams & Forgasz, 2009). However, differences were found between student teachers with and without a teaching degree for another educational level. Student teachers with a teaching degree scored higher on intrinsic career values than student teachers without a teaching degree. The former group was already experienced in teaching, either through field experiences or as a classroom teacher and, apparently, intrinsic elements of the teacher’s profession encouraged them to take an additional teacher education programs. Moreover, they were more strongly motivated to take the ATEP because they felt able to be a teacher. Student teachers without a teaching degree, on the other hand, scored higher on the extrinsic motives job security and time for family. They were more strongly motivated to change career because of the attractiveness of having a secure job and time for family when being a teacher.

With respect to teaching beliefs, results showed that student teachers in the ATEP believed the teacher’s profession to be highly demanding and requiring a lot of expertise. Student teachers with a teaching degree, who are more familiar with the teacher’s profession, scored even higher on these aspects than student teachers without a teaching degree. With respect to social status and good salary, student teachers scored rather neutral. The finding concerning social status confirmed the findings of Richardson and Watt (2005), stating that social status was less important in order to decide to become a teacher.
Regarding developmental and transmissive beliefs on education, student teachers in the ATEP, including many second-career teachers, generally scored the highest on developmental beliefs, which are more innovative than transmissive beliefs. This finding is in line with the studies of Tigchelaar et al. (2008) and Chambers (2002), who found that second-career teachers were more open to educational innovations - because of their non-recent experiences as a student with teacher-centred methods - (Tigchelaar et al., 2008) and used alternative rather than traditional (i.e. teacher-centred) instructional methods (Chambers, 2002). However, due to the short duration of many ATEP’s and the small number of field experiences in several ATEPs, many student teachers may not transfer their developmental beliefs to their teaching activities and remain rather traditional in their teaching (Flores et al., 2004). By installing a one-day field experience each week, as is the case in the ATEP in the current study, this problem could be solved. When comparing student teachers with and without a teaching degree, results showed that student teachers with a teaching degree hold stronger developmental beliefs. Throughout their previous teacher education programs and their own teaching experiences, these students might have become familiar with innovative teaching methods emphasizing a developmental view on education.

As far as self-efficacy is concerned, student teachers scored equally on efficacy for student engagement, classroom management and instructional strategies. Their scores on efficacy for learning and studying in teacher education were in line with their scores on efficacy for student engagement. Concerning efficacy for classroom management, student teacher with a teaching degree scored higher than student teachers without a teaching degree. This finding is in line with previous research showing that classroom management is a great challenge for second-career teachers (Casey et al., 2013; Haggard et al., 2006; O’Connor et al., 2011).

In conclusion, the present study reveals interesting insights into the entry characteristics of student teachers in an ATEP. Due to teacher shortages,
attracting people from outside education and training them in an ATEP is important. Having a clear view on the entry characteristics of this student group may help to adjust the ATEP to these student teachers’ needs. Especially for student teachers without a teaching degree, attempts could be made to elaborate their teaching beliefs and prepare them for classroom management. Making them familiar with education may help to change their initial motivation towards a stronger intrinsic motivation, which is more beneficial for their learning process. Future research including participants of numerous ATEPs may strengthen our findings. In addition, it would be interesting to follow the student teachers throughout the ATEP in order to examine whether and how their entry characteristics evolve.

References


History Education and Ethnic-Cultural Diversity

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Abstract  As in most Western countries, cultural and ethnic diversity in Flemish education has increased greatly in recent decades. At the moment nearly one out of five pupils in secondary education is of foreign origin. In contrast, teachers are familiar with ethnic-cultural diversity only to a limited extent. How can this be improved? Can an attitude focused on ethnic-cultural diversity be taught to (future) teachers? Which learning content is the most appropriate? What about pedagogical and didactic strategies? The present review analyses how all these aspects can be integrated in history lessons.

Education programmes with a focus on diversity including exemplary teaching materials have an effect on students’ awareness of ethnic-cultural diversity, even if it is sometimes only a short-term effect. Practical experience in multicultural classrooms and team teaching that novice teachers receive from experienced colleagues can have a beneficial effect on developing a diversity-oriented attitude.

Teaching history with a diversity-oriented attitude is a different way of teaching. It adopts a multi-perspective disciplinary approach when dealing with historical themes and takes into account different ethnic-cultural backgrounds of pupils

Key words  Didactics, history, secondary education, multiperspectivity, ethnic-cultural minority groups, teacher education
Meaningful history education

History is not easy to teach. It is the only school subject whose object of study is a no longer existing reality. Hence, L.P. Hartley states in the first pages of his *The Go-Between* (1953): ‘The past is a foreign country: they do things differently there’. Therefore, studying the past requires a very great empathy. This is a challenge not only for experienced historical researchers, but even more so for school-going youngsters. Because of cultural diversity in time and space, the gap between historical facts and contemporary observers seems difficult to bridge (Boone, 2005, XIV). Moreover, pupils from ethnic-cultural minority groups who go to school in Western countries often experience history literally as a ‘foreign country’. How can this be explained?

History education is significant if it makes sense, is learnable and feasible (Wilschut, 2004). Learning about the past must have a purpose and meaning for those studying it. For pupils that means understanding and experiencing that history is about them, about contemporary society and the human existence in general. This forms the basis for historical thinking. History is a discipline that should also be learnable, i.e. a subject which pupils can study systematically and deepen their understanding of it. The term ‘feasible’ refers to the interest, talents and abilities of pupils. History education that is independent of the interest, appreciation and capabilities of pupils offers less chance of meaningful learning (Wilschut, 2004). Pupils from ethnic-cultural minority groups appear to have more difficulties in that regard since the image of the past that is dealt with in history lessons is strongly influenced by the dominant ethnic-cultural group (Stradling, 2003). For pupils with different perceptions and a different cultural framework, it is hard to find links in that predominantly Western-oriented story (Virta, 2009).

In recent decades, the cultural and ethnic diversity in most Western countries has increased strongly (Grever and Ribbens, 2007). Globalization, European integration and migration have also considerably 'coloured' the
image of Flemish society. The number of young people with an ethnically diverse background has been rising (Lodewijkckx and Noppe, 2012). Importantly, their number appears underestimated if the size of the group of individuals of foreign origin is estimated only on the basis of the current nationality (Lodewijkckx and Noppe, 2012). On 1 January 2011, 15% of the total population in the Flemish Region was of foreign origin. This percentage is more than twice as high as the proportion of people with a foreign nationality (7%). In the age group from 12 to 17 years, which corresponds to that of pupils in secondary education, 19% of youngsters are of foreign origin. In the youngest age group (0-5 years), their share rises to 25%. The Dutch are the largest group of foreign origin (18%), followed by Moroccans (15%), Eastern Europeans (15%) and Turks (12%). People of Dutch origin mainly live on the border with the Netherlands, those of southern European and Turkish origin in Limburg and people of Moroccan origin in the region between Antwerp and Brussels.

The growing numbers of pupils from diverse ethnic-cultural minority groups are taught by predominantly female teaching staff recruited from the Flemish middle class (Elchardus, Huyge, Kavadias, Siongers and Vangoidsenhoven, 2009). As in most European countries, teachers coming from the middle class are familiar with ethnic-cultural diversity only to a limited extent (Van der Leeuw-Roord and van der Toorn, 2002). In order to improve this, teacher education is ascribed the responsibility of a role model and trendsetter. The social expectations are high: ‘Teachers whom we are educating today should not be afraid of diverse classrooms, but must be educated to deal with diversity. They even need to be proud of that’ (Tegenbos, 2012). But how can teachers live up to these challenges in practice? With respect to these issues, we reviewed international scientific research that has been done into history as a school subject.
Methodological accountability

We start this review with the following research question: How can future history teachers in secondary education adopt a diversity-oriented attitude that makes history education useful, feasible and learnable for pupils from ethnic-cultural minority groups?

Our review is limited to trainee teachers who are educated to teach history as a separate subject in secondary education (graduates with Bachelor’s and Master’s degrees). Searching for scientific studies, we used databases such as ERIC, SpringerLink and Teacher's Reference (via Librisource + and Limo). To that end we used the following search terms: 'teaching history', 'history education', 'history didactics' and 'teacher education'. These were combined with search terms such as ‘multiculturalism', 'diversity' or 'ethnicity’. We limited ourselves to studies in English and Dutch and that were exclusively focused on the teaching of history. Therefore, we did not include research which focused only on ethnic-cultural diversity without pedagogical implications for the teaching of history. We took the year 2000 as the starting point because scientific research on ethnic-cultural diversity from about 2000 onwards has focused mainly on what kind of personal experience and what kind of teaching techniques are best suited to achieve openness to diversity (Castro, 2010). Our search via the above-mentioned scientific databases listed no relevant publications in Dutch. Through this search channel, we selected two studies in English for this review. Neither gives a complete and ready answer to our question on how future history teachers in secondary education can adopt a diversity-oriented attitude that makes history education useful, feasible and learnable for pupils from ethnic-cultural minority groups. Through other channels we found some more studies. Domain expert Prof. Dr. Maria Grever (Erasmus University Rotterdam) informed us about Klein’s (2010) study. In Kleio, the Dutch magazine for history teachers, we found Wagemakers and Patist’s research (2012). Figure 1
provides an overview of selected relevant studies indicating their main characteristics.

We would like to clarify the meaning of certain terms. Diversity means variety. Diversity encompasses all the possible differences that may exist among people who live in our society. Traditionally, the term is associated with three domains: ethnic-cultural background, gender and social class (Bracey, Gove-Humphries and Jackson, 2011). In this review we use the term with regard to the ethnic-cultural background of pupils from ethnic-cultural minority groups. Besides the loaded diversity concept, the term ‘multiperspectivity’ has often been used in the discourse on history teaching since the 1990s (Stradling, 2003). Historical events are looked at from different angles or alternative stories are viewed on the basis of a selection of sources, geographical levels, historical actors, narrative plots or types of history writing. The historian weighs the views of various and conflicting (social) groups. Even though it seems that multiperspectivity is simply the application of the historical research method, the promoters of this concept suggest broadening the field of vision to 'forgotten' social groups such as immigrants, linguistic, ethnic-cultural and/or religious minorities. This means that the ethnocentric and Eurocentric perspective on the past and the world is broken and that the invisible history of ethnic or cultural minority groups is also discussed. In education, multiculturalism (or even interculturalism) as a concept was initially associated with diverse cultural perspectives. Later the concept broadened to include the denunciation of both formal and informal racism in the curriculum (Parker-Jenkins, Hewitt, Brownhill, and Sanders, 2004).
### Figure 1: Selected relevant studies

| Research | Affiliation | Type of research | Methodology | Participants | Conclusions
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | ---
| Harris and Clarke (2011) *Cambridge Journal of Education* peer-reviewed | University of Southampton (GB) | Qualitative action research | Questionnaires interviews | 17 trainee teachers MA of History during the internship | Diversity awareness is influenced by the course / internship
| Virta (2009) *Intercultural Education* peer-reviewed | University of Turku (FIN) | Qualitative | Questionnaires interviews essay portfolio | 22 trainee teachers MA of History during the internship | Diversity is considered to be a problem or a challenge, individual connections with migrants help
| Wagemakers and Patist (2012) *Kleio* | HU University of Applied Sciences Utrecht (NL) | Quantitative | Cases | 207 trainee teachers BA of History on the basis of lesson preparations | The customised course focused on multiperspectivity in the short term, the need for structural implementation in teacher education
| Klein (2010) *Curriculum Inquiry* peer-reviewed | Leiden University (NL) | Qualitative | Interviews using proposition s and a case | Five teachers in multicultural classrooms, one of them is a novice teacher | The novice teacher struggles to move from theory to practice because of lack of content knowledge

* the figures refer to the participants who were part of the study at the start of it even though they dropped out afterwards
° only conclusions that are relevant to our research question are listed here
Four studies are relevant to our research question, i.e. how future history teachers in secondary education can adopt a diversity-oriented attitude that makes history education useful, feasible and learnable for pupils from ethnic-cultural minority groups. The researchers focused mainly on the evolution of the trainee teachers’ diversity-oriented attitude and their vision of history education. This body of research consists of one British (Harris and Clarke, 2011) and one Finnish study (Virta, 2009) and two Dutch studies (Wagemakers and Patist, 2012; Klein, 2010). We will discuss these studies and show whether they have produced scientific evidence.

**Harris and Clarke** (2011) from the School of Education at the University of Southampton investigated whether courses on diversity and practical teaching experience had an impact on the attitudes of future history teachers regarding cultural and ethnic diversity. For three school years seventeen trainee teachers were followed by using questionnaires and interviews. They were white students who had little or no experience with ethnic and cultural diversity. The study began with a survey of their attitudes towards cultural and ethnic diversity in general and in history teaching in particular. Each student indicated his/her attitude towards diversity using a frame of reference that was based on a confident-uncertain-uncomfortable continuum (Figure 2). This framework was also used to identify the development of attitudes towards diversity. The authors developed this model themselves because existing analytical frameworks were not adequate. Cockerell, K.S., Plaicer, Cockerell, D.H., and Middleton (1999) used categories such as 'transmitters', 'mediators' and 'transformers' to categorise teachers’ attitudes towards diversity. Kitson and McCully (2005) used 'avoiders', 'containers' and 'risk takers' in order to define history teachers’ experiences regarding diversity. Both frameworks posed difficulties in the analysis of the initial situation because the students did not fully fit into these
categories. Therefore, Harris and Clarke developed their own frame of reference, which was further refined throughout the course of the research. The positioning of the students regarding their attitudes towards diversity proved very useful because it immediately pointed at the levels where more support was needed.

The second aspect of the initial situation, i.e. the attitude of novice teachers towards history teaching, was examined through an interview in which the trainee teachers voiced their concerns about five aspects: the purpose of history teaching (and the role of diversity in it), the pedagogical approach, pupils (behaviour and engagement), learning content and teachers (personal concerns and expectations).

**Figure 2: The confident continuum: confident-uncertain-uncomfortable**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Confident</th>
<th>Confident</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(views are realistic, having been tested in the classroom, purpose is strongly supportive of diversity, shows clear commitment)</td>
<td>(ideas based on assumption but show nuanced understanding, appreciates link between purpose and diversity)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Uncertain</th>
<th>Confident</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(yet to make up their mind)</td>
<td>(ideas based on assumption but unsophisticated and untested, purpose not strongly related to diversity)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Uncomfortable</th>
<th>Uncomfortable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(but willing to have a go, shows appreciation of problems)</td>
<td>(unwilling to change)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In their education, the trainee teachers were given lessons on history education and diversity. From the start, a strong emphasis was placed on the objectives of a history lesson. At key points, diversity was focused on throughout the education programme. In addition, a wide range of teaching materials was used to exemplify aspects such as the contribution of the whole British Empire to the First World War, experiences of minority groups in the UK, the relations between the Christian West and the Muslim world. Furthermore, the education focused on different pedagogical approaches towards, for example, 'sensitive' lesson subjects and the potential impact on pupils. The trainee teachers could therefore expand their background knowledge.

During their internships in predominantly 'white' suburban or rural schools in southern England, the students had very few opportunities to develop their attitudes towards diversity. The lesson subjects that could be approached from a cultural or ethnic diversity standpoint were limited (e.g. the Crusades, the trans-Atlantic slave trade, Native Americans). There were only a few classrooms where there were pupils from ethnic-cultural minority groups.

Harris and Clarke (2011) concluded that even though education programs with a focus on diversity had an influence, it was not a clearly verifiable one. However, the students’ diversity awareness increased. In some cases, it evolved from ‘naïve confidence’ to ‘uncomfortable’, which nevertheless illustrates a positive tendency for in-depth thinking. The frame of reference based on the ‘confident continuum’ made it clear that the students could appreciate diversity, but could not assess its role and place in the curriculum and find an appropriate way to bring diversity into their lessons.

Virta (2009) (Department of Teacher Education, University of Turku, Finland) examined trainee history teachers’ visions on ethnic and cultural diversity. Their experiences with teaching history in multicultural classrooms were also discussed. The following questions were dealt with: Did diversity have an influence on their teaching, the selection of learning content and the
degrees of emphasis that were put on it? How did the trainee teachers deal with delicate controversial topics? Virta followed 22 Finnish students for nine months. They did their internships in schools – as opposed to the students from Harris and Clarke’s study (2011) – where the majority of pupils were migrants. The future teachers did not have any personal experience with fellow students from ethnic-cultural minority groups. Virta used a phenomenological approach to distinguish and categorize the trainee teachers’ experiences, conceptions and beliefs. Eventually this resulted in four possible perspectives with regard to history teaching in multicultural classrooms: a focus on problems and challenges, a focus on benefits, a focus on the teacher and a 'colour blind' focus that ignores diversity (Figure 3). The researcher collected her data using various qualitative research methods, e.g. questionnaires, essays, interviews and portfolios.

Like Harris and Clarke (2001), Virta concluded that the students’ vision of diversity involved both continuity and change. After facing less positive practical experiences during the internships, some of the students lost the initial idealistic ‘offers benefits’ attitude towards diversity and developed a conservative attitude maintaining that history lessons should be the same for everyone. Some students, however, regained the initial attitude at the end of the education program.

The trainee teachers indicated that it was not easy to adapt the learning content to the different cultural backgrounds of their pupils. There were those who wanted to discuss multiperspectivity in their lessons, but they did not know how and what learning content would be the most suitable for that. The others were cautious and avoided attracting attention to the ‘otherness’ of migrants in order not to snub them. The specific background of migrants was involved in the lessons only if the pupils in question were willing to share it with others. This attitude may have been adopted from the mentors. Therefore, one trainee teacher tried to give her lesson about the Balkan wars in the 1990s as ‘neutrally’ as possible because some of the pupils in her classroom were
from Kosovo. She therefore did not use television documentaries because she feared that they were too controversial. Instead, she used maps and extracts from a young girl’s diary. However, the method failed to enthuse and involve the pupils.

Most students in Virta’s study (2009) identified problems (e.g. organizational ones, interaction with students) that they associated with 'diversity', without realizing that a diversity-oriented attitude involves another way of teaching history. (Future) teachers often fail to see ethnic-cultural diversity and look for excuses to continue teaching in the 'traditional' way. Diversity is seen as a problem, or at least as a serious challenge because trainees are preoccupied with their own survival in the classroom and do not feel knowledgeable enough about the learning content. Therefore, trainee teachers do not focus on diversity. Virta sees this as a task that teacher education departments should be involved with.

**Figure 3:** Trainee teachers’ views about the challenges of teaching history in a classroom with pupils from diverse cultural backgrounds

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>First level idea</th>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Central approaches</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Linguistic problems; requirement of linguistic clarity</td>
<td>Problems in learning, related to linguistic diversity and problems</td>
<td>Focus on Problems or Challenges</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heterogeneity of student performance</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students’ different preconceptions and values</td>
<td>Impact of diverse backgrounds on students’ thinking and learning</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students’ different knowledge frameworks</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Families and ethnic groups have different values</td>
<td>Impact of diversity on the choice of contents and approach to teaching</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pursuit of objective and value-free teaching</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sensitive or controversial topics</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Awareness of one’s own cultural commitments, values and preconceptions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impact of diversity on shared norms of behaviour</td>
<td>Classroom management</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More problems with</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classroom Management</td>
<td>Focus on Benefits</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using diversity in teaching: multiple approaches to teaching</td>
<td>Diversity as a resource and a benefit</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helps to understand history, gives more information about cultures</td>
<td>Reflections of one’s own learning and survival in diverse classes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enough/too much attention to diversity, fear of discrimination and hurting students</td>
<td>No specific expectations of diverse settings</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Challenge to patience</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sufficiency of one’s own knowledge</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opportunity to learn about diversity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Similar eagerness to teach in any setting</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diversity does not matter</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unwillingness to think about diversity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From: Virta (2009), 290.

Her research also showed that individual contact with migrant pupils can help understand the specific situation of foreign children and their world view. However, reflections on authentic practices in multicultural classrooms are of key importance as well.

Wagemakers and Patist’s study (2012) is the third study that is discussed in the present article. Both authors are history teacher educators at the HU University of Applied Sciences Utrecht (the Netherlands). They examined the extent to which undergraduate students took into account their pupils’ social, religious and/or ethnic-cultural background and experiences while planning their lessons and the extent to which they tried to treat historical topics in a multiperspective and multifaceted way. History students were given the task to prepare a lesson based on a case study about the Crusades. They could not rely on the methods of existing textbooks. Regarding the initial situation, they received a list of names of pupils from a fictitious classroom. The list included Dutch as well as Turkish, Moroccan, English and Jewish names that indicated that the classroom consisted of pupils.
from diverse cultural and ethnic groups. The students were asked to formulate the objectives of the lesson in the lesson preparation form. Each specific purpose had to be justified. The students could also ask for additional feedback about the lesson preparation. Thus, the researchers wanted to determine whether or not the students chose multiperspectivity ‘accidentally’ in the lesson about the Crusades.

In order to screen the objectives Wagemakers and Patist designed an analysis model (Figure 4). The model applied a division between 'objectives from the point of view of the pupil' and 'objectives from the point of view of the historical theme'. The second category was subdivided into ‘historical context’ (divided into ‘narrow’ and ‘broad’), ‘in time’, ‘politics’, ‘different groups/ opinions’, ‘socioeconomic’ and ‘religious’. It was essential that multiperspectivity in the history lesson had to be supported by two important pillars, i.e. the historical topic and pupils. Therefore, for an approach based on multiperspectivity, the researchers employed the following minimum criterion: the students had to score at least once in the category 'objectives from the point of view of the pupil' and at least twice in that of 'objectives from the point of view of the historical theme’.

The study was spread over the academic years 2009-2010 and 2010-2011. In the first academic year, all the first year students were given a baseline assessment of the case about the Crusades; at the end of the year, a case study about the roll-back and domino theory during the Cold War was introduced. The Crusade case study was tested on the third year students as a control group. In the second academic year a baseline assessment case of the Crusade was given to the first year students. Then the group was divided into two parts: a randomly assembled experimental group that was given a new course on the Middle East in which multiperspectivity was emphasized, and a control group that followed a traditional course which focused on knowledge transfer. The third year students were tested again using the Crusade case.

Figure 4: Analysis model for screening the lesson objectives
The starting point of the new course on the Middle East was historical perspective taking and empathy. The intention was to make students aware of their personal historical perspective taking through dealing with the Middle East. The students had to find the principles and the vision of the author of the course themselves. Active methods such as role-play and educational games offered the students an opportunity to identify with a randomly assigned actor in the Israeli-Palestinian conflict. In a staged meeting of the United Nations, they had to defend their position on a number of thorny issues. Finally, the transfer to the classroom situation was made. In this way, the students were sensitized to the beliefs and attitudes of pupils from diverse cultural-ethnic backgrounds.

A total of 207 students participated in the baseline assessment. Only 2.9% of the third-year students (2009-2011) met the minimum criteria relating to multiperspectivity. Strikingly, 7.8% of the first-year students entering teacher education showed an awareness of multiperspectivity in the academic year 2009-2010, while at the end of that academic year none of the students retained the same awareness. This could be possibly explained by the fact that the final case of the Cold War lent itself less easily to a multifaceted approach than the Crusade case. Moreover, a number of students who showed a multiperspective attitude at the baseline assessment pulled out, and did not take part in the second assessment.
In the second academic year (2010-2011) no students showed a multiperspective attitude at the start of the education. Shortly after the new course on the Middle East, midway through the academic year, 1.2% of the experimental group showed a multiperspective attitude, while in the control group, which followed the regular course on Middle East, no one saw the opportunity to approach the theme in more than one way. In the second assessment neither group showed a multiperspective attitude any more.

Wagemakers and Patist could not establish a permanent increase in multiperspectivity awareness. However, thanks to the newly designed course on the Middle East, the students in the experimental group showed, especially in the short term, more attention to the cultural and ethnic background of their pupils. Shortly after the new course, 5.8% (5 out of 86 students) of this group took the background of pupils into account and at the end of the academic year 2% (1 out of 51 students) (cf. 0% in the control group).

Unfortunately, the students who paid attention to the ethnic-cultural background of their pupils did not meet the minimum criteria of multiperspectivity. After the course on the Middle East only 1.2% of this group scored on the multiperspectivity aspect and at the end of the academic year 0%.

As Virta (2009) pointed out the students expressed their willingness to discuss multiperspectivity in their classes. However, in doing so they gave too little attention to the cultural and ethnic background of pupils. (Future) teachers are often not used to pay attention to the elements of the historical consciousness that comes from outside the school.

Wagemakers and Patist state that there is no or hardly any incentives present in the current teacher education to stimulate a multiperspective attitude. In many courses there is no focus on cultural and linguistic diversity. More positiveness towards multiculturalism and diversity is necessary. Work with pupils from culturally and ethnically diverse backgrounds should be a fundamental part of teacher education and not a separate additional course.
since such a course only results in a growth of multiperspectivity in the short term. Only a structural approach through the implementation of multiperspectivity in the entire curriculum of teacher education can lead to a sustained growth of an attitude oriented towards multiperspectivity and diversity among future teachers.

Dutch researcher Klein (2010) made a descriptive overview of possible pedagogical strategies with regard to plurality in history teaching. The starting point was the following question: how can future teachers teach in a way that reflects different historiographical and pedagogical perspectives as well as diverse backgrounds of pupils? He brought different elements together within an analytical framework (Figure 5). Both general and subject-specific aspects are included: the initial situation of pupils, the learning content and an activating form (class discussion), (general aspects) and empathy, actualization and value awareness (specific aspects).

Klein’s (2010) overview is based on the context of a study of five teachers who taught history in multicultural classrooms in Amsterdam and Rotterdam. During an interview, they got 15 cards with statements including their knowledge of history teaching in a classroom with pupils from different cultural backgrounds. Based on their positions Klein distinguished different methodologies that can be used in a multicultural context. Novice teachers focus on subject-related concepts that are not immediately reflected in the actual teaching practice. They do not see how multiple perspectives can be integrated into the learning process because the substantive background information needed in order to make the transfer does not appear to be present. Seeking advice from experienced colleagues would enable progress. Experienced teachers want to avoid cultural relativism. They want pupils to position difficult moral issues into their own cultural frameworks of reference. They find it difficult to change pupils’ ideas about those issues.

Figure 5: The pedagogical approach regarding plurality in history education
Implications for practice

The purpose of this review was to find scientific research that would answer the question of how future history teachers in secondary education can adopt a diversity-oriented attitude that makes history education useful, feasible and learnable for pupils from ethnic-cultural minority groups. The number of studies on this issue is limited. This is somewhat surprising given the social importance of the theme. The selected studies provided only limited scientific evidence. There is therefore a great need for additional research into addressing ethnic-cultural diversity in history lessons.

Our search yielded some interesting, even though not scientifically tested signposts relevant for practice. In essence, they are related to two interrelated aspects: the attitude towards various ethnic and cultural backgrounds of pupils and a multiperspective approach to historical themes from a historiographical and methodological point of view.

Harris and Clarke’s (2011) and Virta’s (2009) analytical frameworks tracing the development of diversity attitudes of future teachers towards pupils from ethnic-cultural minority groups can be used in practice and not only with regard to history teaching.
The mapping of the initial situation is of great importance. Novice teachers have a number of conceptions of effective teaching that they often stubbornly cling to. How teachers behave in the classroom also depends to a large extent on how they feel about the pupils they have in front of them. Moreover, the subjective concept of trainee teachers with their own opinions and stereotyped preconceptions about ethnic-cultural diversity has an undeniable influence on teaching in a multicultural classroom (Van Hook, 2002; Garcia and Lopez, 2005). Many secondary schools and teacher education departments outside urban areas have little or no contact with multicultural groups, which does not attract them to the themes of ethnic and cultural diversity.

The said analysis frameworks (Harris and Clarke, 2011; Virta, 2009) are an important source of inspiration for the development of a research instrument that could trace the development of diversity attitudes of future teachers towards pupils from ethnic-cultural minority groups. This could be done by evaluating statements regarding diversity\(^9\). The results can then be used as the basis for determining attitudes towards diversity.

Paying attention to the initial situation of future teachers is therefore of great importance. Confidence to teach in multicultural classrooms appears to increase in proportion to the experience with ethnic-cultural diversity the future teacher has had before. Neighborhood relationships, friendships, tutoring projects at school where pupils from ethnic-cultural minority groups are involved play an important role. Furthermore, a positive attitude 'from home' increases the awareness of ethnic-cultural diversity (Castro, 2010).

A second aspect that we discussed in the present review is the pedagogical approach to diversity through a multiperspective approach to history. This involves didactic goals, learning content and methods and tools.

The scientific studies that we selected for this review reveal that most students demonstrate their willingness to discuss multiperspectivity in their
lessons. However, they often do not know how to do that in practice or which learning content is the most suitable for this.

However, most teacher education departments focus on diversity courses. There is no consensus on their impact. Harris and Clarke’s study (2011) showed that a specific education program with a focus on diversity in history lessons had an impact on students, but it was not clearly verifiable. However, this raised their diversity awareness. The researchers could not prove if separate general courses on diversity were more effective than an integrated program that addresses diversity (see Sleeter, 2001; Premier and Miller, 2010). In some cases, diversity courses can even backfire and displeased students leave and are not prepared to work in an urban multicultural school yet (Marbley et al, 2007; McFalls and Cobb-Roberts, 2001). Wagemakers and Patist’s research (2012) indicated that the effect of such specific diversity education was only limited in time. A structural embedding within teacher education with sustained attention to diversity is also highly recommended. Harris and Clarke’s study (2011) has not (yet) shown how this can be done concretely\(^\text{10}\). In any case, as far as the diversity-oriented is concerned, teacher education departments should take the pioneering role as mentors hardly ever perform a model role during internships in this regard.

Education programs with a focus on diversity should continuously emphasize educational and pedagogical goals, which make a diversity-oriented attitude more attractive to future teachers (Nelson, 2008). This means that the educational value of history based on the basic concepts of the subject may require more explanation. Meaningful history education focuses on teaching historical thinking. It contains, among others, the following aspects: historical developments are accidental and unpredictable, every period must be taken seriously by considering historical perspective taking, and value patterns are time-related (Wilschut, 2004).
This raises the following question: what kind of history is worth presenting in multicultural classrooms? What is the most suitable learning content from a multiperspective point of view that reflects diverse ethnic and cultural backgrounds of pupils? The (national) context in which history teaching is implemented is of great importance. Since this practical review specifically aims to cover international scientific research in order to facilitate the history education in Flanders, first of all we will look at the context in which history is taught in Flanders.

In the Flemish Community, history is part of the general education and one or two hours of history instruction are timetabled for most pupils of secondary education (12-18 years)\textsuperscript{11}. In some neighboring countries (the Netherlands and England, for example), history is an optional subject for the oldest pupils (from approximately 14 years), which means that not all pupils have history lessons. Approximately 37\% of all Dutch pupils have history on the timetable in their entire secondary school program (van Boxtel and Grever, 2011). In England, seven out of 10 learners drop history when they are given the chance at the age of 13 or 14 (Haydn, 2011).

History is a ‘politically loaded’ subject which has been used in most European countries since the nineteenth century as a tool to obtain a national identity or a civil loyalty to the nation state. The tension between the disciplinary critical method of history on the one hand and the transfer of certain values (e.g. national, European, democratic) through a subject on the other largely determines the margin within which diversity is focused upon.

Flemish history education turned away from the canonized Belgian national framework and the ethnocentric stereotypes related to it after World War II (Wils, 2008; de Wever, Vandepitte and Jadoule, 2011). This trend was reinforced by the regionalization of the Belgian education policy after 1989. The goals that the Flemish government formulated as minimum targets for history did not force it, as in countries such as the Netherlands and England, into a tight straitjacket content-wise. Instead, the objectives provide criteria for
content selection. The emphasis lies on the acquisition of historical knowledge, skills and attitudes. The concept of 'historical reference framework' that has been introduced together with the objectives provides structure but does not focus on content (Goegebeur, Vielfont and Gijsenbergh, 2007). It is built up gradually on the basis of concepts such as time, space, social domains (reconstruction of the past) and resources (historical method). Historical methodological (structural) concepts are part of such a frame of reference. Although Belgian and Flemish history forms an integral part of the curriculum, (Belgian) national identity becomes largely irrelevant. The curricula based on objectives warn of a too strong Eurocentric approach to the past. Consequently, the curricula of Catholic secondary schools require that at least one non-Western society per year is treated. Attention is drawn to both the specificity of non-Western civilizations and the interaction between societies. The curricula of Catholic schools expect that pupils gain an insight into the interrelatedness of local, regional, national and global problems. According to the curriculum makers of the government-provided education (GO!), European history should be viewed from a global perspective with both attention to the development of our own culture and the contribution from and coexistence with other peoples and cultures.  

Therefore, history teachers in Flanders have a relatively large freedom of choice when selecting material. They can adapt their choice to the specific group of pupils they have. This offers opportunities to use the diversity-oriented approach that also takes into account pupils from ethnic-cultural minority groups.

In comparison to neighboring countries, history teachers in Flanders have a substantial choice of content. In England and the Netherlands, the governments explicitly determine the history that is given in class (Grever, Pelzer and Haydn, 2011a). The government sees transfer of historical knowledge as an important means for citizenship education, strengthening of national loyalty and pride or social cohesion, and stimulation of integration of
migrants. In the Netherlands, the state has provided primary schools and the lower classes of secondary education with a canon or a national framework of reference using a Eurocentric approach (Klein, Grever and van Boxtel, 2011; van Boxtel and Grever, 2011). This canon contains a list of fifty historical events that every true Dutchman must know and that constitutes a cultural backbone of necessary intellectual baggage. The list deals with issues relating to politics, ideas, technology and economics. Politically-tinted and emancipation-oriented ethnicity is in the list too (e.g. slavery, colonialism and multiculturalism) (van Boxtel and Grever, 2011).

In England and Wales, the National Curriculum (2008) for history discusses world history only when dealing with historical themes such as slavery, the British Empire and the World Wars (Haydn, 2011). The themes are viewed mainly from the point of view of the English. Otherwise European and world history is not dealt with, often because of a lack of time. In the new curriculum of 2008 'diversity' is explicit and described in detail (and not implicit as before) (Bracey et al., 2011).

If history education is focused on the passing of the national past and collective myths as it is the case in England and the Netherlands, the danger of impoverishment emerges because the critical potential of the curriculum for history is in danger. In this way, history teaching is disassociated from history as a science. Moreover, history viewed only within a national framework of reference offers few opportunities for pupils from diverse ethnic-cultural groups to situate themselves through positive identification (Klein, 2010). In this way, history is likely to become irrelevant because it is disassociated from the interest, appreciation and capabilities of pupils and therefore offers less chance of meaningful learning.

Hence the question: what kind of history do pupils find worth learning? A survey of 678 pupils from three urban areas in the Netherlands (Rotterdam), England (London) and France (Nord-pas-de-Calais) has shown that pupils are primarily interested in areas such as family, religion (especially migrants) and
world history (Grever et al., 2011a). Another large-scale study involving more than 400 young people from urban areas in the Netherlands and the UK has revealed that the link between history and migration, as expected, appealed to non-native girls most (Grever et al., 2008). The majority of the pupils also thought that the dark pages of history such as black slavery should be discussed.

However, it is problematic that the focus on minority groups and diversity is often limited to these negative aspects (Bracey et al., 2011). In most European countries, minorities are part of the curriculum where they are seen as a 'problem' (Stradling, 2001). Therefore, it is important not to construct a version of the past in which minorities are often presented as playing a marginal and negative or subordinate supporting role (Patist and Güven, 2011). History teaching that only focuses on the black pages of the past does not promote social cohesion or provide an informed judgment on the past. For example, the strong emphasis in the English history curriculum on Hitler and World War II on the one hand and ignoring of the Wirtschaftswunder in postwar Germany on the other stimulate pupils’ anti-German stereotypes (Bennett, 2004).

It is therefore important to expand the vision on history by integrating the interaction of multiple perspectives. Themes such as migration of people and cultures (possibly linked to personal (family) stories), slavery, colonization, large-scale conflicts and wars, the media revolution, etc. offer plenty of possibilities to do that.

In particular, there is a great need for detailed exemplary materials and ‘good practices’ regarding the practical approach to multiperspectivity. As Virta (2009) showed in her research, the students were willing to discuss ethnic-cultural diversity in their lessons, but they did not know how to do it. They struggled to translate the concept of multiperspectivity into the actual teaching practice. They lacked the insight into a diversity-oriented attitude as
having to do with a different, ‘non-classical’ way of teaching. What didactic learning materials and teaching methods can ideally be used?

In an American context, where history is closely linked to value education and traditional textbooks provide the dominant narrative of the rich white male population, an alternative approach was successful. Martell (2011) replaced the textbook by his own syllabus focusing on the use of primary sources, oral stories and analyses of historians and journalists. This syllabus is available on the Internet. It was deliberately chosen to view historical events from different angles and from a multicultural perspective. His approach worked: both non-white and white pupils could better identify with people from the past. The new syllabus enabled the pupils to grasp the essence of history (education), i.e. a discussion based on arguments. A small group of pupils did not like the new approach and wanted to return to the history textbook they were used to because it presented a more straightforward one-sided view with no further discussion. This research shows that text material that presents history from multiple perspectives can have a positive impact on learning and engagement with the past as well as involve pupils from ethnic-cultural minority groups.

A similar effective pedagogical approach is found in a case study about an American teacher who gave his pupils a multicultural education of democratic citizenship in his history lesson (Dicamillo and Pace, 2010). Just as Martell’s study (2011), this teacher used alternative texts that provided the view of oppressed and marginalized Americans. Moral issues that could lead to challenging discussions were at the core of the texts. The teacher warned that it was not the intention to switch the positions of heroes and victims. Using this revisionist approach could encourage critical thinking. Activating methods such as class discussion and role-play managed to inspire his pupils’ interest in history. However, role-play has to be done with caution. ‘Forcing’ pupils to inhabit the roles of perpetrators such as slave traders or guards of concentration camps can lead to defensive reactions in (multicultural)
classrooms. Moreover, this is disapproved of from an ethical point of view (Grever, 2011b, 12).

Sensitive and controversial issues always require a cautious approach. A Dutch study from 2003 showed that Muslim pupils could not disassociate the current conflict between Israel and the Palestinians from the persecution of Jews during World War II (Grever, 2011b). Pupils of Moroccan descent identified with today’s Palestinians. The concepts of 'Israeli' and 'Jew' were confused. This led to anti-Semitic statements, which were justified as freedom of expression. Some teachers who were shocked by so much verbal abuse stopped the discussion. Content and methodology-wise, they felt unable to deal with such a sensitive and controversial topic. Looking back on the past can evoke painful emotions in pupils with traumatic experiences of recent violent conflicts (cf. the aforementioned students from Kosovo in the research of Virta (2009)). Constructing a detached and purely cognitive historical argument cannot be expected in such cases. Individual written assignments are more appropriate for the personal processing of such topics (Grever, 2011b).

Therefore, multiperspectivity requires an active attitude and willingness on the part of pupils to empathize with the other in order to revisit their own positions from a distance. Pupils are not expected to agree with the views of the people from the past, but they should realize that (historical) facts can be viewed from multiple perspectives. Therefore it should be made clear at the beginning that it is possible to understand the views of the other (or another culture) without agreeing with them (Grever, 2011b). Mutual respect is an essential requirement for every dialogue. The teacher has to be able to have pupils listen to each other, ask pithy questions and summarize viewpoints (see also Dicamillo and Pace, 2010). This requires a lot of practice and the teacher’s experience plays an important role (Hawkey and Prior, 2011). Having teachers with expertise in teaching multicultural classrooms team teach novice teachers could yield positive results (Premier and Miller, 2010).
Future teachers need examples of good practices. They complain about the workload and difficulties in finding sources that deal with diversity. They want up-to-date and useful information, which comes, for example, in the form of information packets (Parker-Jenkins et al., 2004). Some practical examples below (incomplete and provided for the sake of inspiration) show how multiperspectivity can be presented by integrating an ethnic-cultural diversity attitude.

Dutch teacher educators Patist and Güven (2011) looked at a history lesson from the perspective of Moroccan and Turkish pupils. They found that (even experienced) teachers do not always understand the way in which connections can be found in the experience and prior knowledge of pupils from ethnic-cultural minority groups. The meaning of the Dutch city of Nijmegen was covered in detail in a lesson about the expansion of the Roman Empire. Even though both Turkey and Morocco were part of the Roman Empire, these contextualization clues were not used. Three useful reference works on the history of Turkey (Bakker, Vervloet and Gailly, 2002; Lewis, 2001) and Morocco (Obdeijn, De Mas and Hermans, 2002) provide interesting starting points for ethnic-cultural diversity with regard to the history of Morocco and Turkey. Importantly, the point here is not teaching the history of Turkey and Morocco as an additional subject, but linking them to Western history. Diversity should not form additional lesson content that is incorporated as an extra module into the learning material.

In the Netherlands, Platform Taalgericht Vakonderwijs (Platform for Language-Oriented Subject Education) developed a curriculum related to multiperspectivity in history (Erogluer, Hajer, van Boxtel and Fiori, 2009). It was developed on the basis of different perspectives on the siege of Constantinople by the Turks in 1453, i.e a Christian-European perspective, an Ottoman-Turkish perspective and a perspective of historians. The pedagogical insights were linked to the principles of teaching history with a focus on
language. Namely, multiperspectivity becomes visible in the language and conceptual framework that are used and that type of language is time-related.

Students of Specific Teacher Education in History at KULeuven designed lessons about managing diversity in the Ottoman Empire and modern Turkey. They are a source of inspiration for (future) teachers and are available on the website of Vlaamse Vereniging voor Leraren Geschiedenis en Cultuurwetenschappen (Flemish Association for Teachers of History and Culture)\textsuperscript{15}.

On the Internet there is also educational material (in English) in the form of detailed lessons available for topics such as the slave trade and slavery\textsuperscript{16}. The website www.tijm.nl offers an intercultural theme of the slave trade and slavery by the Dutch and can serve as a starting point to explore the subject.

Does this mean that the diversity-oriented approach focuses on an adequate selection of learning content? Or should pedagogy also be considered? Harris and Haydn (2006) found that in order to develop interest in history, the most important aspect was pupils’ positive learning experience. The way pupils are taught is more important than the titles of chapters and sections. An interactive teaching style with a strong focus on activating methods is greatly appreciated by younger pupils. Discussions, group work, dramatic methods and visual aids are highly valued as well. Too much teacher talk time, incorporating many writing tasks or using almost exclusively textbooks and workbooks can hardly engage pupils’ interest. Variation is crucial in order to make diversity visible and use it in a positive way. Therefore, teachers can – and this is not only limited to the context of diversity – make a difference using their personality and pedagogical approach.
Conclusion

How can future history teachers in secondary education adopt a diversity-oriented attitude that makes history education useful, feasible and learnable for pupils from ethnic-cultural minority groups? This is the research question of this review. Based on four relevant studies, our research yielded only limited scientific evidence.

According to Harris and Clarke (2011), a specific education program aiming to prepare trainee teachers for ethnic-cultural diversity in history lessons increased the awareness of the subject, although this was not clearly verifiable. Sometimes it appeared that the effect of such specific diversity education was limited in time (Wagemakers and Patist, 2011). Embedding structural and clearly visible sustained attention to diversity in teacher education would undoubtedly be beneficial.

Practice makes perfect. Systematic reflection on authentic teaching practice in classrooms with pupils from ethnic-cultural minority groups helps promote a positive attitude towards teaching in multicultural classrooms (Virta, 2009). Harris and Clarke’s (2011) and Virta’s (2009) analysis frameworks that are used to trace the development of future teachers’ diversity attitudes to pupils from ethnic-cultural minority groups are very useful for this.

Students who have previously experienced ethnic-cultural diversity through the family circle, friends or neighbourhood relationships are often more open to it. Teacher education programmes can introduce students with little or no diversity experience to pupils from ethnic-cultural minority groups through, for example, tutoring projects. This increases the chance that ethnic-cultural diversity is easier acknowledged and recognizable.

Teaching in multicultural classrooms requires experience which novice teachers do not have. They are primarily concerned about classroom management and their own knowledge of content material. As a result, they struggle to adopt a diversity-oriented attitude. In this context, team teaching
where a novice teacher is helped by an experienced colleague is a possibility (Klein, 2010).

Adopting a diversity-oriented attitude implies that using a multiperspective subject-specific approach to a historical theme is linked to pupils’ ethnic-cultural background. A continued focus on pedagogical objectives and basic concepts of history (and the role of ethnic-cultural diversity within it) is necessary. What is the function of history? What makes it meaningful for pupils from ethnic-cultural minority groups? A disciplinary approach to history does not seem an easily transferable form of thinking, but it is something that needs constant education and is only enabled by varied teaching. As far as the curriculum is concerned, multiperspectivity can be meaningfully incorporated by dealing with world history from different viewpoints and general human themes (e.g. the migration of people and cultures, slavery, large-scale conflicts and wars, the Internet and the media revolution). This fits in with what, according to research, pupils find interesting and relevant. Teaching history with a diversity-oriented attitude has to do with an effective way of teaching using a diverse range of pedagogies and strategies. It is important to not just use classic textbooks, but also design (or detect in source texts) additional challenging material where multiple perspectives and critical alternative visions provide a starting point. Interactive and collaborative methods such as role-play and class discussion also help. Interdisciplinary collaboration can provide additional opportunities and learning effects and emphasize concepts such as empathy, actualization and value awareness even more.

Using much needed exemplary materials and ‘good practices’ can support the teaching process. The above-mentioned examples may be a starting point. Networking with other actors (e.g. teachers, teacher educators, advisers, continuing education centers, and educational institutions such as the Council of Europe) increases the chances of sustainable support and inspiring practical applications and tips.
History lessons can be a meeting place of diverse historical cultures. Instead of dividing history into 'my' and 'your' past, there is a need for meaningful history education for all pupils regardless of their ethnic-cultural background. A number of dilemmas is difficult to solve also because the specific composition of groups varies significantly. Should we address pupils from the point of view of their supposed ethnic-cultural identity to avoid their viewing history as irrelevant? Or should not we do that because it encourages stereotyping? Should we provide pupils with the history of ‘their’ country of origin? What subject knowledge should (future) teachers have in order to work with pupils interactively and expect their reactions? What do they need to know about their pupils and the ways in which they experience history through their family, social media or networking? How important is it to not overestimate ethnic-cultural diversity and see pupils as ordinary young people?

There are many questions that remain unanswered due to a lack of research into teaching methodology. Future research should therefore continue to focus on how history teachers can address diverse needs and interests of heterogeneous classrooms using engaging learning content and methodology in a changing school context. In this regard, teacher education undoubtedly plays a pioneering role.

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APPENDIX 1: SCREENING THE INITIAL SITUATION OF HISTORY STUDENTS ON THEIR ATTITUDE TO MULTIPERSPECTIVITY AND ETHNIC-CULTURAL DIVERSITY

Figure: *The confident continuum: confident-uncertain-uncomfortable*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Confident</th>
<th>Uncertain</th>
<th>Uncomfortable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(views are realistic, having been tested in the classroom, purpose is strongly supportive of diversity, shows clear commitment)</td>
<td>(yet to make up their mind)</td>
<td>(but willing to have a go, shows appreciation of problems)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Confident</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ideas based on assumption but show nuanced understanding, appreciates link between purpose and diversity)</td>
<td></td>
<td>(but open to change)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Confident</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ideas based on assumption but unsophisticated and untested, purpose not strongly related to diversity)</td>
<td></td>
<td>(unwilling to change)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Familiarity with ethnic-cultural diversity:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No/none</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>Moderate</th>
<th>High</th>
<th>Very high</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

1. I have friends from ethnic-cultural minority groups.

2. I have experience teaching subjects other than history to pupils from ethnic-cultural minority groups.

3. I have experience teaching history to pupils from ethnic-cultural minority groups.
Views on ethnic-cultural diversity:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Totally agree</td>
<td>Largely agree</td>
<td>I do not know</td>
<td>Largely disagree</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>I find teaching pupils from ethnic-cultural minority groups more difficult due to language problems.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>I find that by teaching in multicultural classrooms I am becoming more aware of my own prejudices, values and beliefs.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>I find teaching pupils from ethnic-cultural minority groups more difficult because their value system is different.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>I feel insecure and I am afraid to hurt or discriminate pupils.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>I feel I have too little knowledge to be able to teach pupils from ethnic-cultural minority groups.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>I think there is too much emphasis on ethnic-cultural diversity in education.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>I find ethnic-cultural diversity is not important in history lessons because history has to be the same for everyone.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>I find that by teaching in multicultural classrooms I get more historical insight as I get more information about other cultures.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>I find classroom management more difficult in multicultural classrooms than in mono-cultural classrooms.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>My teaching is equally enthusiastic in multicultural and in mono-cultural classrooms.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>I find that pupils from ethnic-cultural minority groups have more learning problems.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Addressing multiple perspectives/ethnic-cultural diversity:
Willingness in principle:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Totally agree</th>
<th>Largely agree</th>
<th>I do not know</th>
<th>Largely disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
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1. In my lessons I find it important to take into account the knowledge, background and cultural values of pupils when dealing with a historical subject.
2. In my lessons I find it important to take into account the knowledge, background and cultural values of pupils from ethnic-cultural minority groups when dealing with a historical subject.
3. In my lessons I find it important that pupils learn to approach a historical subject from different angles or multiple perspectives.
4. In my lessons I find it important that pupils learn that ethnic-cultural minority groups experience the past from a different perspective.
5. In my lessons I find it important that pupils learn to empathize with other people from the past or present.
6. In my lessons I find it important to introduce my pupils to sensitive and controversial historical subjects.
7. I find it important to answer questions related to the background of pupils from ethnic-cultural minority groups.
Addressing multiple perspectives/ethnic-cultural diversity:

Theoretical background knowledge:

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1. In my lessons I know how I can take into account the knowledge, background and cultural values of pupils when dealing with a historical subject.

2. In my lessons I know how I can take into account the knowledge, background and cultural values of pupils from ethnic-cultural minority groups when dealing with a historical subject.

3. In my lessons I know how I can teach pupils to approach a historical subject from different angles or multiple perspectives.

4. In my lessons I know how I can teach pupils that ethnic-cultural minority groups experience the past from a different perspective.

5. In my lessons I know how I can teach pupils to empathize with other people from the past or present.

6. In my lessons I know how I can introduce pupils to sensitive and controversial historical subjects.

7. I know what I can answer to questions related to the background of pupils from ethnic-cultural minority groups.
### Addressing multiple perspectives/ethnic and cultural diversity:

#### Practical application:

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1. In my lessons I manage to take into account the knowledge, background and cultural values of pupils when dealing with a historical subject.

2. In my lessons I manage to take into account the knowledge, background and cultural values of pupils from ethnic-cultural minority groups when dealing with a historical subject.

3. In my lessons I manage to teach pupils to approach a historical subject from different angles or multiple perspectives.

4. In my lessons I manage to teach pupils that ethnic-cultural minority groups experience the past from a different perspective.

5. In my lessons I manage to teach pupils to empathize with other people from the present or the past.

6. In my lessons I manage to introduce pupils to sensitive and controversial historical subjects.

7. In my lessons I manage to answer questions related to the background of pupils from ethnic-cultural minority groups.

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1 This review was written in the framework of the P-Reviews project. Practical didactic reviews of research (2011-2013) within the ‘School of Education Association KULeuven’ network of expertise, led by Job De Meyere, Bieke De Fraine, Renaat Frans and Kristof Van de Keere. (see also [www.p-reviews.be/1](http://www.p-reviews.be/1)) Practical didactic reviews provide systematic and sound summaries of scientific sources relevant for classroom practice or practical issues or cases.
2 In this respect, see for example: http://www.screeningdiversiteitlerarenopleiding.be. This is a website developed by the Expertise Network AUGent in the framework of the project 'Building bridges for equal educational opportunities. Vision on the integration of diversity and skills to deal with diversity in teacher education’.

3 Prof. Dr. Maria Grever is Professor of Theory and Methodology of History at Erasmus University Rotterdam. She is also director of the Center for Historical Culture. She has published articles on history and national identity.

4 The analysis of the pedagogical journal Hermes. Tijdschrift van de Vlaamse Vereniging Leraren Geschiedenis (Hermes. Journal of the Flemish History Teachers Association) (2000-2012) provided no relevant research results. We excluded the Dutch journal Kleio. Tijdschrift van de vereniging van docenten in geschiedenis en staatsinrichting in Nederland (Kleio. Journal of history and civics teachers in the Netherlands) for the same period.

5 Plurality is a related term. In this review, we use the specific terminology that was used by the researcher(s) in the original articles.

6 ‘Historical context’ was applied when the subject was dealt with in the framework of broader developments. A distinction was made between ‘narrow’ if the context was associated with immediate events surrounding it (cause and reason) and ‘broad’ in connection with simultaneous (counter)developments that demonstrated the generic or exemplary characteristics of the event. The heading 'in time' was applicable when a comparison was made to a different period in history (including the present).

Information received by mail from J. Patist on 24 April 2012.

7 Rollback theory refers to the politics of reducing the communist influence in the world. Domino theory refers to the fear of the expansion of communism. The principle of the game is reflected: if one country becomes communist, another country follows automatically.
8 We have not included the items from the model that analyse the degree of 'interaction' (from avoiding, minimizing, comforting to confronting, challenging and protecting) and 'the role of the teacher' (neutral or taking sides).

9 In the framework of a follow-up study in collaboration with the teacher education department for Bachelor’s students of history at HU University of Applied Sciences Utrecht, we developed such an analytical framework (see Appendix 1).

10 A second part of the study whose results have not been published yet focuses on how white teacher educators with little or no experience regarding ethnic diversity can effectively support students in this regard.

11 The further explanation is limited to the two largest educational networks in Flanders, i.e. free Catholic education (Vlaams Secretariaat van het Katholiek Onderwijs, (VSKO)) (Flemish Secretariat of Catholic Education) and government-provided education (GO!). History is a subject of the basic secondary school curriculum in the first cycle (pupils of 12-14 years) of secondary education and (pupils of 14-18 years) general secondary education (Dutch: Algemeen Secundair Onderwijs, ASO), technical secondary education (Dutch: Technisch Secundair Onderwijs, TSO) and secondary arts education (Dutch: Kunstsecundair Onderwijs, KSO) in both schools of government-provided education (GO!) and free Catholic schools (VSKO). History is not a separate subject in the B-stream in the first cycle (pupils of 12-14 years) of VSKO and (pupils of 14-18 years) vocational secondary education (Dutch: Beroepssecundair onderwijs, BSO) of GO! and VSKO. However, historical education is integrated into a subject cluster (Social Education (MAVO) / General Subjects Project (PAV)). Pupils following this type of education do not have history as a separate subject. (For more information, visit www.go.be (GO!) and www.vsko.be. (VSKO)). de Wever, Vandepitte and Jadoulle (2011) provide a general overview of history education.
For the objectives in history see: www.ond.vlaanderen.be/curriculum/secundair education. For the history curricula see: www.go.be (GO!) www.vsko.be (VSKO); www.pov.be (provincial education) and www.ovsg.be (municipal education).

Erdmann and Hasberg (2011) present an overview of history education in 24 European countries of the Council of Europe.

www.framingham.k12.ma.us/fhs_ss_martell.cfm


www.northants-black-history.org.uk/resourceDownloadIndex.asp

We are hoping to contribute to future research in the context of a follow-up study in collaboration with the teacher education department for Bachelor’s students of history at HU University of Applied Sciences Utrecht.
Abstract: Both traditional and digital media are an integral part of young people’s lives. The abundance of opportunities to consume, create and communicate content could have an unprecedented impact on the worldview and values of today’s youth. Moreover, they might be exposed to several risks through their media use. Opportunities and risks connected to media use by young people are the reason for the current increase in attention for media literacy in education. Media literacy education provides youth with the knowledge, insights, skills and attitudes needed to reap the benefits of their media use as well as to protect them from potential harm. The research project ‘Media Didactica’ created a unique conceptual framework for (lifelong) learners, teachers and teacher educators to analyze, develop and assess their personal media literacy competencies. This paper will provide a rough overview of the different opportunities and risks that today’s young media consumers face. Using ‘Media Didactica’, this paper will then explore which competencies from the framework are needed by youth to critically engage with media as well as to fully participate in 21st century society. The present study will also home in on the pedagogical-didactic competencies needed by teachers and teacher educators to reinforce these media literacy competencies among their pupils.

Key words: media literacy, media literacy education, curriculum development, competencies
Media have become an integral part of young people’s lives (Apestaartjaren 2014). Children and adolescents watch television, play video games, send text messages and surf the internet for several hours a day. Moreover, they often use several types of media the same time (Apestaartjaren 2014). The media environment in which today’s youth grow up, differs greatly from that of previous generations. Both traditional and digital media offer youth more opportunities to create, share and consume content as well as to engage in communication than ever before. The first part of this paper gives some examples of new opportunities and risks connected with media use. In the second part we will home in on the new challenges this poses for media literacy education.

Media-industry and media technology in transition

As new technologies make it easier to create large volumes of new and diverse media products, the nature and scope of the media supply has increased substantially (McQuail 2011). The economic conditions under which media operate and compete with each other, however, have impacted the quality of the media supply as well. Both in Europe and the United States commercial media enterprises are under pressure to offer mainstream media products for a young mass audience. They increasingly focus on entertainment and sports and less on news (Saura and Enli 2011). News organizations are, for instance, being systematically dismantled. In order to reach larger audiences they are put under pressure to offer ‘infotainment’ stories, blurring the line between news and entertainment (Kellner 2009). Commercial television stations offer mostly specific genres such as ‘reality shows, talk and game shows, soap operas, situation comedies, action/adventure series’ (Kellner 2009), which are produced using similar production techniques and conventions.
Mergers and acquisitions in the media industry have resulted in concentration of media ownership. In the United States, for example, about five media corporations dominate the entire market as opposed to 50 corporations in 1983 (Croteau, Hoynes, and Milan 2012; Ott and Mack 2010). Critics fear that concentration of media ownership and profit maximization could lead to a decrease in the diversity of the media offerings and promote cultural imperialism and hegemony (e.g., by US-American media products) (Ott and Mack 2010). Concentration of media ownership could also adversely affect democracy, as mass media have an impact on public opinion (Lippmann 1997) and are closely linked to political, institutional and economic interests (Herman and Chomsky 1988; Klaehn 2002; Cook 1998).

New opportunities for information and learning

Contrary to prior generations, today’s youth does not need to rely on information provided by national media. The internet offers youth new opportunities to search for information and to access news from diverse international sources. Online information, however, does not always adhere to same standards as information provided by traditional media. While surfing the internet children and teenagers can be confronted with information from questionable sources such as weblogs containing conspiracy theories (Kata, 2010), websites containing political hate speech (Gerstenfeld, Grant, and Chiang 2003) or those which promote unhealthy behavior like anorexia (Livingstone et al., 2011).

Furthermore, while using the internet children and adolescents may be willingly or unwillingly confronted with age inappropriate content such as pornography (Wolak, Mitchell, and Finkelhor 2007), violence (e.g., ‘happy slapping’) (Palasinski 2013) or gambling (Lupu and Todirita 2013).
The World Wide Web: new opportunities to connect

While exploring their identities, children and adolescents can use online communication platforms, such as social networking sites, for self-presentation, networking, feedback and support. In doing so, they can refine their social skills, meet new people and learn from the feedback they receive (Wilson, Gosling, and Graham 2012). Social networking sites can help their users to benefit from their social capital (Jung et al. 2013). However, engaging in the World Wide Web involves sharing personal information with others (Ellison and boyd 2013). The online disclosure of personal information comes with certain risks, as not all users and the companies that provide those online services have the wellbeing of children as their first interest (Livingstone and Brake 2010; Walrave 2006). Children and adolescents can fall victim to cyberbullying (Van Ouytsel, Walrave, and Vandebosch 2014). While pursuing new relationships or deepening existing ones, they could become a victim of online grooming (Whittle et al. 2013) or engage in the exchange of self-made sexually explicit texts, pictures and videos (i.e., sexting) (Walrave, Heirman, and Hallam 2014). Furthermore, children and adolescents are targeted online by new, and often more engaging and personalized, forms of advertising (e.g., advergames or social advertising) (Terlutter and Capella 2013; Thomson 2011; Li, Lee, and Lien 2012; Pariser 2011). Their personal contact information is collected on different websites for commercial purposes (Walrave 2006; Walrave and Heirman 2012). The content they create and share publicly online is accessible by future romantic partners, college admission officers and (future) employers and could have an impact on their personal and professional relationships (Deane 2011; Fox, Warber, and Makstaller 2013; Brown and Vaughn 2011). In sum, the many benefits of online self-presentation and communication also come with several risks.
Games provide new opportunities for learning and entertainment

Video games and serious games seem to be promising tools for knowledge acquisition and learning (Lunenberg, Korthagen, and Dengerink 2013), as they are better able to engage and motivate users than traditional teaching methods (Girard, Ecalle, and Magnan 2012; Bekebrede, Warmelink, and Mayer 2011). However, researchers have also highlighted possible negative outcomes associated with the use of violent video games such as addiction, aggression, hostility (Anderson, Gentile, and Dill 2012) or antisociality (DeLisi et al. 2013).

The need for media literacy education

Youth mostly engage with media in an intuitive way. However, they often lack the insight, judgment and experience to critically and safely engage with media (Lieten and Smet 2012). Opportunities and risks, connected to media use by young people are the reason for the current increase in attention for media literacy in education (Tulodziecki and Grafe 2012; Unesco 2008). Just as with other types of prevention education, such as road safety education, health education or sex education, schools can help their students acquire the skills to become media literate (Meeus, Walrave, et al. 2014).

Media literacy is one of the new literacies in development, such as ‘information literacy’, ‘digital literacy’, ‘critical literacy’ ‘multiliteracy’ and ‘visual literacy’. These different notions of literacy are highly intertwined. As ‘literacy’ is often strongly associated with classical reading proficiency, we decided to define media literacy in accordance with the Dutch concept ‘mediawijsheid’ (‘media wisdom’), of which participation in society is one of the ultimate goals (Lieten and Smet 2012).

The research project ‘Media Didactica’ (Meeus, T'Sas, et al. 2014) created a unique conceptual framework for lifelong learners, teachers and
teacher educators to analyze, develop and assess their personal media literacy competencies. Based on this analysis, users will be able to define their own educational needs and to develop a personal learning plan. The original aim of the research project was to develop a reference framework for media literacy for teacher educators. But in order to be able to define which competencies teacher educators need, the project had to be developed alongside a media literacy framework for teachers and learners. Consequently, ‘Media Didactica’ addresses three target groups: (lifelong) learners, teachers and teacher educators.

‘Media Didactica’ defines media literacy for (life-long) learners as a set of competencies, which is a combination of knowledge, insight, skills and attitude\(^1\) that the public can utilise to consciously use and understand media\(^2\) critically.\(^3\) Moreover, they can use these competencies to contribute to contemporary society through media.

‘Media Didactica’ defines media literacy for teachers as a set of competencies which is the combination of knowledge, insight, skills and attitudes, that teachers can use to integrate media in the learning process as a didactic tool\(^4\) and through media education\(^5\). Moreover, they can use these competencies in their professional development and in the education community.

‘Media Didactica’ defines media literacy for teacher educators as a set of competencies, which is the combination of knowledge, insight, skills and attitudes, that teacher educators can use to integrate media in teacher education both from an exemplary function\(^6\) and on a meta level\(^7\) in the teaching and education community.

Using the reference framework ‘Media Didactica’, we will define which competencies and learning goals young people need in order to be able to benefit from the opportunities of their media use while being protected from potential harm (RQ1). We will also focus on which competencies and learning
goals are needed by teachers and teacher educators in order to teach those competencies to their respective pupils and students (RQ2).

I. Method

A separate, accurately shaped framework was developed for each target group of ‘Media Didactica’ (i.e., pupils, teachers and teacher educators) using a four-step approach. The conceptual similarities and disparities between the groups in the framework are also discussed.

Stage 1: Inventory of competencies from the literature

During the first stage, existing references of general frameworks and conceptualizations regarding media literacy competencies in English, Dutch and German were searched. Eight sources were identified: Ala-Mutka (2011), Buckingham (2005), EAVI (2010), Ferrari (2012), Hobbs (2010), Länderkonferenz Medienbildung (2008), Tułodziecki (2007) and Zwanenberg and Pardoen (2010). The curricula of both primary and secondary education in Flanders (Ministerie van de Vlaamse Gemeenschap s.d.) were also analyzed for competencies of pupils that were in line with our definition of media literacy.

For the target group of teachers, existing German media literacy models for teachers were identified: Blömeke (2001), Bremer (2011) and Ministerium für Schule und Weiterbildung des Landes Nordrhein-Westfalen (2001). The Flemish competencies for teachers (Ministerie van de Vlaamse Gemeenschap 2008), a report of the international UNESCO expert group on media literacy (Unesco 2008) and competencies for language teachers from the Nederlandse Taalunie (Paus, Rymenans, and Gorp 2006) were screened for
additional competencies relating to our definition of media literacy and the use of media in the teaching profession.

For the target group of teacher educators, ‘the developmental profile of teacher educators in Flanders’ (Velov 2012) and Lunenberg, Korthagen, and Dengerink (2013) were used to assess the context in which teacher educators operate and to assess the extent to which the target group teachers differed from the target group of teacher educators.

Stage 2: Conceptualization of the framework through peer debriefing

Based on this review of existing conceptualizations, an inventory was made of competencies and contents that pupils, teachers and teacher educators need in order to develop their respective media literacy. Competencies were defined as ‘the capacity to make integrated use of knowledge, skills and attitudes for societal activities’ (cf. Decreet betreffende de kwalificatiestructuur B.S.16/07/2009). The competencies found in the first stage were compared and clustered based on their thematic similarities. By this inductive method, three classes of competencies were identified for the framework of the target group pupils: using media (1), understanding media (2), contributing medially (3). Different classes of competencies were used for the structure of the framework for teachers and teacher educators, taking into account their specific tasks in their respective institutions. Therefore the three classes of competencies for teachers are media in the learning process (1), media in the professionalization of the teachers (2), media in the education community (3). For the target group teacher educators the following classes were discerned: media in teacher education (1), media in the professionalization of the teacher educator (2), media in the training and education community (3). Throughout the three classes both the use of media
for professional tasks and the didactic transfer of competencies of the subordinate target groups were included as part of the different competencies.

Using peer debriefing, the competencies derived from literature and conceptually organized were then critically assessed by four researchers. Each competency found in the literature was appraised using the criteria of clearness, tangibility, specificity and the extent to which it adhered to our broad definition of media literacy. The different conceptualizations of media literacy found in the literature were complementary. Based on the qualitative analysis, competencies were dropped, reformulated and reassigned to the classes of competencies or subsequent levels. The adjusted competencies were clustered based on their thematic similarities. They were arranged according to their level of abstraction: from general to specific. The reference framework was developed through an iterative process of conceptualizing, classifying and reformulating. Following this bottom-up approach, the subordinate levels of classes of learning goals, learning goals and examples were formulated, each level more specific and detailed than the previous one.

The final media literacy framework for each target group consists of five levels: classes of competencies, competencies, classes of learning goals, learning goals and examples. The classes of learning goals for pupils were defined as knowledge, insight, skills and attitudes because of the didactical goals of the conceptual framework for this target group (Meeus 2012). Different classes of learning goals were constructed for the target groups teachers and teacher educators, based on the different phases of educational processes (i.e., preparation, execution and evaluation) and the thematic coherence of the underlying learning goals.

In the framework for the target group teachers, learning goals for the didactical transfer of the media literacy competencies of the framework for pupils were added. This ensured that attention was paid to both media education as well as the didactic use of media in the classroom.
Similarly, learning goals needed for the didactic transfer of the competencies of the framework for teachers were added in the framework for the target group of teacher educators. As we were unable to identify existing media literacy frameworks for teacher educators, both structure and learning goals of the framework for teachers were adapted to the level of teacher educators, bearing in mind the specific context of teacher education (Cf. Velov 2012; Lunenberg, Korthagen, and Dengerink 2013). Special attention was paid to ‘meta-thinking’ about the didactic value of media use in the learning and developmental processes of children.

Stage 3: Expert inquiry

‘Media Didactica’ was presented to fifteen experts from the fields of media, education, media literacy education and academia. The experts were asked to evaluate whether the competencies of the framework included all aspects of media literacy. They also assessed whether the competencies were formulated in a consistent way and whether they appeared in a logical order. Based on their feedback the framework was adjusted. The learning goals of the competency ‘participation through media’ were combined and various additional examples about e-safety, gaming, advertising literacy and the usage of internet cookies were included. An overview of the modifications was sent to the experts electronically after which they had the opportunity to respond once again to the readjustments.

Stage 4: Usability test among teacher educators

After the final feedback of the expert group was integrated, the instrument accompanying ‘Media Didactica’ was developed. The instrument was pretested by five different teacher education institutions which focus on a different level of education. Some members of the teacher education
institutions were asked to test the instrument individually whilst others tested the instrument as a team.

II. Results

The framework ‘Media Didactica’ consists of 24 competencies. The three primary levels of ‘Media Didactica’ are presented in appendix 1 in their entirety. The entire framework comprises of 138 learning goals. In order to determine which competencies and learning goals are needed to help young people to enjoy the opportunities of their media use while protecting them against harm, we selected learning goals that could help pupils to critically engage with media. Moreover, we selected learning goals that could help pupils to actively participate and contribute to society and thus enable them to enjoy the benefits of their media use. All learning goals relating to the research questions outlined in this study are included in appendix 2.

The selected learning goals for pupils were all found in the classes of competencies ‘understanding media’ and ‘contributing medially’. The first class of competencies ‘using media’ focuses predominantly on the technical skills needed to use media devices and software. The competencies and learning goals of this first class of competencies are therefore less relevant to the research questions of the present study.

Using the framework for the target groups ‘teachers’ and ‘teacher educators’, we selected predominantly learning goals from the first two classes of competencies of each framework (i.e., ‘media in the learning process’ and ‘media in the professionalization of the teacher’ for the former target group and ‘media in the teacher education’ and ‘media in the professionalization of the teacher educator’ for the latter target group).
The reference framework ‘Media Didactica’ was created based on several underlying assumptions. Firstly, ‘Media Didactica’ is cumulative. This means that teachers should have mastered the media literacy competencies of their pupils to a certain degree. Consequently, teacher educators should have mastered the media literacy competencies of the target groups teachers and pupils. The overall framework is circular in the sense that the mastering of one particular competency will improve the acquisition of other competencies (e.g., creating a movie will also enhance technical skills needed to operate a video camera). Although it would be laudable if media literacy were the topic of a separate course, it should not be limited to one course alone. It is expected that media literacy will eventually become a cross-curricular topic in education and should be discussed in different courses and not in one separate ‘media literacy course’.

In the remainder of this article, we will discuss which learning goals of ‘Media Didactica’ are needed by pupils to critically engage with media, to use the internet safely and to participate and contribute to society, using media. The impact of media on the individual and society are discussed as well as how the individual can use media as a means to contribute to societal change. We will also present the learning goals and competencies needed by teachers and teacher educators to reinforce the presented learning goals in their pupils and students. It is assumed that teachers and teacher educators are willing to follow-up on new developments in the field of media and media education and that they are able to infer their personal need for further training (T.2.2.1 – T.E.2.2.2.).
Critical understanding of the media environment and media messages

Pupils should be able to critically engage with media and media messages in an autonomous and independent way (2.1.). This entails that they understand that different types of media products use various types of media conventions and that media use a specific ‘language’ (e.g., montage techniques or sound effects) (2.1.2). Pupils should comprehend that media representations are not necessarily faithful representations of reality, but that they are merely constructs of a reality (e.g., influenced by party affiliation or commercial interests) (2.1.4) and pupils should be able to critically analyze and interpret the media language of media messages (2.1.7).

In order to fully understand the transitioning media environment they live in, young people should know the economic relevance of the media-industry and how its transition impacts society (2.2.2.). Pupils should understand the role media play in democracy (e.g., the so-called ‘fourth estate’) (2.2.6.). They should also be able to explain how media companies filter the information they present to the public and which actors facilitate this process (2.2.4). When using traditional as well as digital media, students should be aware that the media content is tailored to specific target groups (2.3.4.) (e.g., tabloid versus broadsheet newspapers or personalized advertising on search engines and social networking sites).

When confronted with media messages, news and information in traditional mass media and, especially, digital media students should be able to assess whether the content is correct and trustworthy (2.4.1). Pupils should be capable of evaluating, comparing and contrasting the information they find in different media sources (2.4.3.). They should also adopt the attitude to critically assess the information and media content they find online (2.4.6.).

Pupils should also reflect upon the way in which media products influence the behavior and opinions of media users (2.5.5.). Attention should be paid to media effects of persuasive media messages (e.g., advertising and
political marketing) as well as the behavioral and emotional effects of general media products (e.g., the effects of violent video games or relaxing music on the mood of a media user).

Teachers should assess the extent to which a critical understanding of media is present in their pupils (T.1.1.4). Based on this assessment they could teach their pupils how to evaluate and analyze media content based on the media language and production conventions used, the potential media-effects on the individual and society, the way in which it was influenced by economic and political conditions and the way in which the message was directed to a specific target audience (T.1.2.5.). Furthermore, teachers should evaluate the critical media understanding of their students (T.1.3.2.). Teacher educators should show their students how to promote critical media understanding among their pupils (T.E.1.2.6) and evaluate the way in which they promote a critical understanding of media among their pupils (T.E.1.3.4). Teacher educators could raise awareness among their students that their future pupils differ in their understanding of media content and messages (T.E. 1.2.5).

E-safety

Pupils should learn how they can safely use digital media. This includes that they are aware of the different risks and opportunities connected to online communication and self-presentation (e.g., cyberbullying or online grooming) (2.6.2. - 3.2.3.) and that they know how to deal with those risks (e.g., protecting their online privacy and learning proper netiquette) (2.6.5.). Students should also learn how to respect intellectual property (e.g., creative commons) (2.6.4). Teachers should know how to advice their students on how to properly behave online and how to deal with online risks (T.1.2.7) and they should provide their students with examples of this behavior by being careful about how they present themselves online (T.3.1.3.).
In contrast to the previous set of learning goals that focused on how individuals can react upon the influence of media, the last part of our selection focuses on how media use can empower pupils to participate in society, work together with others on societal change, and show their solidarity. These learning goals will empower them to actively participate in the media culture as opposed to being passive consumers.

In order to fully benefit from the opportunities that digital media and traditional media offer to participate in society, pupils should learn how they can conceptualize their ideas, emotions, fantasies and experiences in media content (3.1.4.), with a self-confident attitude and perseverance (3.1.6.). The pupils should also be able to use different media genres and formats to present their ideas (3.2.6.) in an attractive fashion (3.2.7.). Moreover, they should be capable of starting new (strategic) relationships and strengthening existing ones using media (3.3.3). Finally, pupils should be able to use media to show their societal involvement (3.3.5.) and be willing to become engaged in society through their media use (3.3.7). Teachers can facilitate this process by stimulating their pupils to create and produce media content (T.1.2.9.) and by stimulating their pupils to become socially engaged through their media use (T.1.2.10). Teacher educators can inspire their students to stimulate their pupils to participate and contribute to society (T.E.1.2.9.).

IV. Conclusion

Media technology as well as the media industry have changed tremendously over the last decade. Youth are confronted with opportunities and risks through traditional and digital media, which were unknown to previous generations. Media literacy has become an essential skill to be able to participate in the society of the 21st century. Based on the unique media
literacy framework ‘Media Didactica’, we discussed the competencies and learning goals needed by young people to be able to critically engage with media as well as fully contribute to and participate in a society saturated with media. We also discussed the competencies needed by teachers and teacher educators to be able to reinforce these competencies and learning goals in their pupils and students.

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1 The classification of knowledge, insight, skills and attitudes is meant to define the didactic goal of the conceptual framework.

2 The classification of knowledge, insight, skills and attitudes is meant to define the didactic goal of the conceptual framework.

3 Consciously and critically refer to a process of analysis, reflection and judgment.

4 Media as a didactic tool refers to the didactic component of a teacher’s medi literacy.

5 Media education is part of the pedagogic component of a teacher’s medi literacy.

6 The exemplary function refers to the teacher educator’s role as a teacher which also entails that teacher educators have to act accordingly in conjunction to the pedagogic-didactic principles they teach.

7 The meta level implies that teacher educators are aware of the choices they and other teacher educators make and that they can explain on which ideas, beliefs, convictions and studies their choices are based.
Fostering Reading Motivation Through the Use of E-Tools
A Qualitative Study of Student Teachers' Experiences

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Abstract This article reports on a study in which new tools were used to enhance reading motivation in the classroom. 13 student teachers developed reading lessons using four different e-tools (electronic and emotional): Tablet Tales, Google Lit Trip, Role Playing Game and Feeling Image Poetry. The tools were put into practice in three schools for secondary education and both the process and the actual lessons were filmed. The focus group technique was used in order to determine to what extent these tools foster reading motivation as can be defined by such criteria as interest, ownership, self-efficacy, social interaction and mastery (McRae & Guthrie, 2009). It has become clear that the use of these tools makes it possible to broaden and vary reading experiences. Also, enhancing reading motivation through these tools does not only benefit reading lessons in language classes, but also the teaching of other subjects. As far as the teaching process is concerned, the tools give teachers opportunities to focus more on the initial situation of the learners and to differentiate. Finally, working with these tools also influences the way student teachers look at reading and teaching reading. They develop useful insights in the development of reading lessons and become more aware of criteria and conditions that improve reading motivation. At the same time, student teachers are aware of the fact that the use of these tools cannot be a purpose in itself (technology driven approach). As to their use (student) teachers always have to take into account the lesson targets and the specific group of learners (pedagogy driven).

Key words Reading education, Reading motivation, Tools, Student teachers
1. Introduction

1.1. Reading and reading motivation in a new context

Reading education aims at teaching pupils both technical reading skills, reading comprehension and a positive attitude towards reading. Research shows that even though they acquire the necessary reading skills, pupils lose their appetite for reading books while moving from primary to secondary education (Pirls 2006; Pisa 2009). A review study carried out by Clark and Rumbold (2006) shows that reading for pleasure decreases in the teenage years and early adulthood but also that reading demotivation not only seems to be related to age. Studies show that girls tend to enjoy reading more than boys (e.g. Clark & Foster, 2005). Next, children from lower socio-economic backgrounds read less for their own pleasure than children from more privileged social classes (Clark & Akkerman, 2006).

Reading motivation can be defined as the willingness "to read for different purposes, utilize knowledge gained from previous experience to generate new understandings, and participate in meaningful social interactions around reading." (Baker et al. 1996). In literature, reading motivation has been referred to in different ways e.g. (positive) reading attitude (e.g. Swalander & Taube, 2007), willingness to read (Ogunrombi & Adio, 1995), pleasure reading (Beglar, Hunt & Kite, 2011), reading enjoyment (Ujiie & Krashen, 1996). It is also closely related to concepts such as reading for pleasure (Clark & Rumbold, 2006), voluntary reading (Krashen 2004), reading for enjoyment, independent reading (Cullinan, 2000), a love of books. These concepts refer to "the reading that we do of our own free will anticipating the satisfaction that we will get from the act of reading" as well as to "reading that having begun at someone's request we continue because we are interested in. It typically involves materials that reflect our own choice, at a time and place that suits us." (Clark & Rumbold, 2006, p.5).
Reading motivation is an important condition of the learning process. It closely connects with reading skills and reading frequency (Sainsbury & Schagen, 2004). A positive attitude towards reading often generates positive effects on reading as a whole (Mol, 2010).

More and more studies emphasise the importance of reading for pleasure for both educational as well as personal development (Clark & Rumbold, 2006, p.8). As far as educational development is concerned, several studies show that positive attitudes towards reading result in higher reading proficiency, literacy attainment and literacy behaviour (Clark, Torsi & Strong, 2005). Furthermore, reading motivation is positively linked with several literacy-related benefits, e.g. text comprehension and grammar (Cox & Guthrie, 2001); a large vocabulary (Angelos & McGriff, 2002), self-confidence in reading (Guthrie & Alverman, 1999) and leisure reading later in life (Aartnoutse and van Leeuwe, 1998). Connections like these hold for first and second language acquisition, as well as for children and adults (Krashen, 2004). Reading motivation is thought to mediate the so-called 'Matthew effect", which refers to the circular relationship between practice and achievement. Pupils who read for pleasure regularly become better readers and therefore start to read even more. (Stanovich, 1986; Keijzers, 2012; Pisa OECD 2002). Some studies even describe reading motivation and reading for pleasure as key factors in success: it "is more important for children's educational success than their family's socio-economic status” (Clark & Rumbold, 2006, p.6). Next to educational benefits, studies show that reading for pleasure is an important element for personal well-being and development.

The extensive growth, diversity and use of (new) media as we have witnessed over the last decades have thoroughly changed the overall reading context. Young people do a lot of online reading (Coe & Oakhill, 2011). They are submerged in a world with fast, attractive and challenging texts of the kind that is not being offered by the world of books. “There still is no definitive understanding of what children prefer to read and when these preferences
develop. (…) However, what studies show time and again is that children and young people read a diverse range of materials outside class, incorporating materials not traditionally regarded by schools as acceptable reading matter (e.g. magazines, websites, jokes, text messages, magazines, newspapers, emails, comics).” (Clark & Foster, 2005).

1.2. The crucial role of the teacher in creating reading for pleasure

Studies on reading motivation indicate two major influencing actors. Both parents, the home environment and the school environment are essential to the teaching of reading and the fostering of a love for reading (Clark & Rumbold, 2006). Reading education is usually considered to be the responsibility of the language teacher. However, if we broaden our view and consider reading to be an essential element in language-imbedded education, enhancing reading motivation also becomes the responsibility of non-language teachers.

In his work on reading for pleasure, Nell (1988 in Clark & Rumbold, 2006) drew up a flow chart on the motivational forces that determine whether a person reads for pleasure, finds it rewarding and will continue reading. The first part of the chart outlines the antecedents, such as reading ability and book choice. The second part is related to the actual reading process and includes comprehensive aspects. Finally, the third part contains the consequences of reading for pleasure, such as cognitive outcomes. It further shows that 'reinforcement comparators' pitch the continuation of pleasure reading against other available alternatives. Nell’s model highlights the individual components of reading for pleasure. More recent models recognise the need to consider the role of social interaction and the role of the immediate social context (e.g. Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000). With its emphasis on assignments and assessments the school context places particular demands on cognitive competence and strategy use: “With reading for pleasure, however, individual interests prevail
and reading amount is determined most strongly by motivation.” (Clark & Rumbold, 2006, p.15). Sanacore (2002) summed up relevant motivational factors for reading in an educational context. Later, McRae and Guthrie (2009) identified key elements to foster reading for pleasure: interest (“I really want to read this and it is enjoyable.”), ownership (“I am free to choose what I want to read.”), self-efficacy (“I can read well, I am successful and it is challenging.”), social interaction (“I can share my reading experiences. I can work together with friends.”) and mastery (“I understand and know what the text is about.”).

This article focusses on the enhancement of reading motivation through reading for pleasure in the classroom. Due to a new context for reading, with new tools and other possibilities for reading, the context for reading education also has changed. Teachers not only need to stimulate reading for pleasure for learners with different ability levels and different interests, they also have to ensure that the reading materials and tools that are used reflect the interests of the learners, and that the use of a wide range of materials and tools will encourage them to read.

2. Research questions

Curricula underline the importance of reading motivation and reading for pleasure. At the same time it has not become any easier for teachers to make reading an attractive activity. Teachers are finding it difficult to estimate the literary competences of their pupils and to give them the appropriate assignments (Witte, 2008, 2009a, 2009b). Another challenge is presented by “new carriers”. The classical paper book is far from becoming obsolete, but one cannot deny that other carriers have earned their place on the market. Today we read texts using e-readers, notebooks, tablets, smart phones etc.

In this article we are examining the impact of new carriers on pupils’ reading motivation. We will analyze the influence of e-tools, where ‘e’ stands
for electronic media as well as for ‘emotion’ in media. It is the kind of ‘e’ that connects with pupils' way of life, makes them read in various ways and widens their reading experience. The central question we wish to answer in this article is:

RQ1: Can e-tools have a positive effect on reading motivation and reading for pleasure?
As we want to answer this question from a student teacher's perspective, this main research question can be specified as:

RQ2: What are the challenges of using e-tools in reading education?
RQ3: To what extent does the use of e-tools affect the way student teachers look upon the teaching of reading?

3. Research design

The project described in this article was experimental. Its purpose was to make a selection of e-tools for reading and to put them into practice in classroom settings. Thirteen teacher trainees of two different institutes for teacher training were involved and worked together. One of the students filmed the whole process, leaving four groups of three students each to do the actual research, development and field work. Table 1 (infra) gives an overview of the student teachers involved, their major subject in teacher training and the groups they worked in.

During the first phase of the project a literature study was conducted in order to determine criteria for reading motivation. Eventually, we found the criteria as defined by McRae and Guthrie (2009) - interest, ownership, self-efficacy, social interaction and mastery - to be the most appropriate. In a second phase, an inventory was made of new and innovative tools for reading that correspond with the criteria mentioned earlier. From this inventory and in consultation with the student teachers involved, we selected four e-tools: two
tools with a strong Electronic component and two tools with a strong Emotional component. Electronic tools:

**Google Lit Trip**

(GLT – www.googlelittrip.com): learners read a story that guides them to different places in the world: cities, countries, seas and oceans, continents. At various locations they are given small assignments stimulating them to explore that location using Google Earth. During their explorations they learn more about these locations: the meaning of names, difficult words, images, etc. The learners read fragments working in pairs and discuss whatever they read and discover.

**Tablet Tales**

Book corners invite learners to read in groups. These corners can be organized and decorated according to pupils’ taste or meeting the atmosphere of the story (e.g. a large carpet on which tea is being served; a tent with a lantern; a breakfast table). The learners read a text using a tablet. In the text, hyperlinks have been imbedded which the learners can use to gather more information: the meaning of words, illustrative examples, sounds, movie files etc. After reading, they share their experiences. Right now, several writers are experimenting with these ‘tablet tales’, e.g. Aidan Chambers, Sidney Vollmer. The reader may even be invited, at some points in the book, to send an e-mail to the author, doing suggestions for the further course of the story etc.

**Role Playing Game**
Learners are being submerged in an adventure in which they themselves play a part and by doing so influence the course of events. Visual stimuli (video introduction to the story) and challenging confrontations and possibilities (e.g. using Socrative) make them read and discuss fragments of the story. Only dialogue and cooperation can help them to finish the story successfully as a team.

**Feeling image poetry**

Learners listen to music that invites them to reflect on their personal feelings and listen to / watch image poetry (e.g. on an interactive whiteboard). The learners reflect on the feelings of the poetry protagonists and compare them with their personal feelings (How would I feel in the same situation?). The pupils then read image poetry for themselves and express their emotions in a creative way (drawings, working with clay, making a collage…).

The student teachers integrated the four tools in a didactic concept (resulting in lesson plans), and put them into practice in four classes, totaling three secondary schools. Class sizes were rather large (ca. 25 pupils each). Quite a number of pupils did not like reading at all and some pupils have a poor command of language. The experiment involved the student teachers, their tutors, the classroom teacher and his pupils.

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Schools and class contexts

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Table 1: Selection of tools and project design

The results of the teaching experiment (lesson plans and movie files - in Dutch) are available at: http://www.ingebeeld.be

4. Data collection

In order to answer the research questions, focus groups were organized in which the 13 teacher trainees participated. As we wanted to obtain a clear view on the subjective perceptions and experiences of the students using the e-tools, we restricted to a qualitative approach (Miles & Huberman, 1994). As such, perceptions and beliefs predict an individual’s behavior in a significant way. They mediate between knowledge and action, practice or behavior (Pajares, 1996). Perceptions and beliefs function as a filter through which new information is interpreted and subsequent behavior is mediated (Pajares 1992; Nisbett & Ross, 1980). Student teachers’ personal beliefs show how they look upon e-tools as means to create reading motivation and which didactic challenges will determine whether they are willing to use the tools in their own reading lessons.

During the focus interviews we asked for the student teachers’ general experiences. Emphasis was put on their own teaching practice and on the (subjectively) experienced facts, goals and thoughts. Keeping the research questions in mind, the focus groups were organised around three themes: 1. The possible influence of e-tools on reading motivation; 2. The educational challenges concerning the use of e-tools in reading education and 3. The student teachers’ personal view on reading education. The focus groups took place in June 2013.
5. Data analysis

The conversations were transcribed verbatim. The transcriptions were coded using Nvivo10 software. Data were first explored inductively. During the process of reading and rereading a codebook was constituted. After the inductive phase the data were re-analyzed and – if necessary – re-coded and/or refined.

During the analysis 393 references were coded. We chose to work with individual sentences as well as with short fragments of text. This procedure leaves the possibility for one fragment of text to contain multiple ideas (or nodes). Appendix 1 shows the number of nodes that were coded as well as the coverage these nodes represent. It also shows that the student teachers mainly addressed aspects related to McRae and Guthrie (2009)’s criteria for reading motivation (27,9% of the references) and the didactic consequences of using e-tools in education (26,2% of the references).
The following figure visualizes the codes that were used in the analysis of the focus groups:

Figure 1: Visualization of the code book used to analyze the data of the focus groups

The enhancement of reading motivation is the central point of concern. It is influenced by several elements. In order to improve reading motivation in the classroom, a teacher chooses a type of text and a tool. These elements already have an impact on the reading motivation a learner develops. If the text and/or the tool do not correspond to the learner's interests, reading motivation is very unlikely to be enhanced. The teacher himself also has an impact: his personal characteristics (e.g. reading experience, technical skills) but also the way he puts the reading lesson into practice and the way he collaborates with other colleagues.
6. Findings

This section gives an overview of the results obtained through the focus groups. The research questions that guided the focus groups will be used as starting points to report the results. In order to refer to the student teachers involved in the experiment and the focus groups, we will use both 'respondents' and 'student teachers'.

Before continuing, we should point out what reading is about. When the project started both teachers and pupils seemed to fill in the concept of 'reading' in a rather narrow way: “I think pupils think about reading in the wrong way. When the word reading was mentioned the only thing they thought of was grabbing a paper book and reading a fictitious story they are to live through.” (student b). In this project the idea was to neutralize such negative or narrow-minded view from the beginning, if only by making clear that reading motivation stands apart from the text type or the medium.

6.1. RQ1: Can e-tools have a positive effect on reading motivation and on reading for pleasure?

The respondents are convinced that reading motivation can be enhanced through the use of e-tools, and not only because such tools are new and/or because the didactic approach is different (Hawthorne effect). All respondents report positive pupil reaction. Acknowledging they had never seen their pupils read so much and so intensely before, the classroom teachers were enthusiastic about the project. In one class pupils even asked their teacher if playing time could be skipped, so as to be able to continue their reading. Whether reading motivation in the classroom also has an effect outside the classroom, was not agreed upon by all of the respondents.
The respondents make a clear link with the criteria for reading motivation as identified by McRae and Guthrie (2009), though not all tools contribute to their realization in the same way or to the same extent. Some criteria only can be achieved through the teacher’s didactic approach.

When we consider the data while taking into account the criteria for reading motivation, it is clear that the respondents mainly mention the criterion of Interest (12.4% of the references). The respondents observed that the e-tools offer a new, attractive reading environment and that this was particularly motivating for the pupils. The integration of images and audiovisual files transforms the reading process into a vivacious experience. The tools that emphasize emotions connect better with pupils’ everyday experiences and enhance their involvement in the story. Some respondents think that the use of e-tools primarily has an impact on pupils who read less or with less enjoyment: “If you already like reading books, you don't need other tools.” (Student b). Nonetheless, they also observed a higher commitment in pupils who already like reading: “Pupils who like reading also loved reading with the tools. They all participated, everyone was at ease and they really could do what they love to do.” (Student i) Some respondents noticed a difference between pupils based on their education level or specialization (cf. Table 1, school and class context). They think that electronic reading tools may be more appealing to pupils who study sciences, whereas the emotional tools may have a larger effect on pupils who are studying languages. The respondents did not perceive a difference between girls or boys.

Several respondents positively describe the increased availability of texts thanks to e-tools (e.g. tablets). This may well be indicative for a higher interest in reading. Learners are no longer obliged to go to a library in order to ‘get something to read’: “It is something I have noticed regularly. People who don’t like reading - who never read a newspaper or a book - they are encouraged to read other things when they use a tablet.” (Student f). Besides, the availability of extra information (e.g. illustrations, external files) deepens
the experience: “I think for example at the books of Khaled Hosseini. This author uses a lot of words from his own language like harami (mongrel). In the paperback version of the book, you have to look up the meaning of the words in a list at the end of the book. If this was on a tablet, it would be much more fun, because it would be much more easier.” (Student b) All the necessary information is within reach.

The tools also contribute to the criterion Mastery (6,6% of the references). In this context, the respondents refer mainly to electronic tools (Tablets tales and Google lit trip). These tools can be used to offer additional support to readers who, without such support, would have difficulty understanding the text. This is an important advantage for linguistically poor or anxious pupils. Explanations and clarifications which are available in different formats (images, audio, and movie files) can be looked up in a discrete way: “The word “giggle” can be explained by a picture of a giggling girl. The pupil will understand immediately. This makes reading easier and, yes, it also makes it more fun.” (Student b). This kind of support can be used in reading education in the pupils’ mother tongue, but also and maybe even more in reading education in foreign languages: “I think that this [tool] can also be very helpful in the acquisition of a foreign language. For example, this can work perfectly when you want to read a text in French, because pupils will be confronted with a lot of words they don’t understand. If this is the case, they are mostly reluctant to read and generally stop reading. This support can help them to continue reading and – even more – to have fun.” (Student i)

This support may be of little importance to linguistically strong learners or those learners who already like reading. Yet, the respondents are convinced that the tools also can broaden their reading experiences, too. Additionally, it can improve their attitude to look up unknown elements or to stimulate their imagination: “I already like reading, but if I had had the possibility to use such tools, I would have read more historical books. In fact, my historical background isn’t that good. If I had had references to
(traditional) costumes and codes, I would have understood better and I would have read more such books.” (Student g)

The tools that were used in the experiment also meet the criterion of Ownership (2,8% of the references). The presence of links in the electronic tools increases the autonomy of the learners. They can decide for themselves if they want to consult this information. The respondents think that the criterion of ownership is even better addressed by the emotional tools. In Role Playing Game the learners can decide and/or choose their own reading path. This way, they constantly experience (small) successes, which also enhances feelings of Self efficacy.

The criterion Social interaction (2,8% of the references) is not integrated in all tools by definition. Reading experiences supported by the emotional tools are characterized by social interaction more than is the case with electronic tools. Cooperation between pupils is less essential in reading activities with electronic tools. Whether pupils interact while using electronic tools depends on the teacher’s didactic approach.

Next to the advantages tools offer for reading motivation, the respondents mention the importance of text choice: “Everything starts with a good text. Whatever tool you use, if the text doesn't appeal to pupils, it won't work.” (Student f). In their discussion about advantages and disadvantages, the respondents compare the tools with the reading of a book. Books remain attractive, especially if one wants to read fiction. The respondents underline the specific ‘reading feeling’ of a book: ”Some pupils were saying: oh, this tablet weighs too much. I prefer a book. You can smell a book; it's yours.” (Student i) Other respondents recommend to put this argument into the right perspective. Technology is evolving so quickly that this typical ‘reading feeling’ may soon be imitated and realized by other tools.
6.2. RQ2: What are the challenges of using e-tools in reading education?

In order to use tools to foster reading motivation in the classroom, they have to be integrated in a didactic approach. The tools offer new ways of teaching and new opportunities for reading education. At the same time they confront teachers with challenges which can complicate their use in educational contexts.

The respondents consider the tools as an aid to vary and broaden reading experiences (8.7% of the references). They also mention that the tools offer possibilities to (better) adapt to specific characteristics of the initial situation of learners (8.1%) and to differentiate (4.6%).

All respondents agree on the fact that the tools help them to vary and broaden reading experiences. The tools capture pupils' attention and imagination, make them read other kind of texts and transform them into active readers. Nevertheless, the respondents underline the necessity of varying the tools themselves. The use of one single tool will have limited impact on reading motivation “I think it is crucial that a teacher uses several tools and carefully considers which tools fits best the learners he is working with.” (Student b)

Next, respondents think that the tools can help them to take into account the initial situation of the learners: their level of education, their interests, their learning style, their reading preferences and their linguistic competences. They mention that teachers should not only consider carefully the text they want to read during a reading class, but also the type of tool they want to use. Based on the experiment, some respondents think that the electronic tools may be more appropriate for learners with a scientific major; emotional tools may enhance reading motivation more strongly in class groups with a major in languages, social or human sciences. They are convinced that the age of the learners has little influence on the impact of specific tools on
reading motivation, although vocabulary explanations will mainly help younger learners whereas older learners will be more interested in other types of information (music, movies). The respondents doubt whether the tools have an influence on the reading motivation of learners who already like reading. Still, they also mention advantages for this group of learners: “The tools would give her (a pupil who already likes reading) a broader choice of texts, because at this moment she mostly reads books that have been adapted for screen. She also would be able to read more difficult texts.” (Student a). Thanks to the tools teachers manage to involve linguistically impoverished learners and by doing so, also foster their reading motivation (cf. supra Mastery).

The respondents mention that the tools created more possibilities to differentiate. During the experiment, student teachers worked in groups of three. This way of working also contributed to differentiation in the classroom. Though the respondents fear working this way will be less evident in their future teaching practice, they believe cooperating with colleagues-teachers or involving older or more experienced learners during the reading class may help them to do so. They also see possibilities for inner-class differentiation: good readers can inform their classmates on the continuation of the story or help them by sharing information on essential elements of the text.

The same holds for the guidance and support offered to the pupils. In order to ensure good support, some tools require the presence of more than one teacher in the classroom. Talking about personal feelings is easier when it is done in a little group and in a safe context. When learners are given the opportunity to choose how a story continues (as is the case in the role playing game), support is better when several teachers guide the process in small groups.

The respondents emphasize the time investment needed to integrate the tools in a didactic concept. Next, the tools require hardware that is not available in all (secondary) schools. As yet, few Flemish schools have tablets at their disposal. And even then, the experiment has shown that technical
problems, like a failing internet connection in the classroom, can never be excluded.

In order to make sure the objectives of the reading class are attained, it is important that the teacher is able to assess them. The respondents state that the evaluation of the teaching process was not hindered by the use of the tools: “Normally, in reading classes, you have to adapt to the reading speed of the weakest learner. During the experiment this was not the case. In the discussion following the reading activities, I asked: 'Can you tell us what you have read?'; 'Did you understand it?'; "Do you interpret the text in the same way?". The pupil who had read the most, was able to inform the others. As a teacher I really could see if they understood the text." (Student a).

In their discussion on the didactic challenges of the use of e-tools in reading education, the respondents mainly dealt with topics related to the micro level of teaching, i.e. the teaching process within the classroom (26,2% coverage). Quite soon, it appeared that the use of tools not only addresses the teacher in his role as a guide of learning processes, but also in his role as a member of a school team (13,7% coverage). The respondents believe it is an illusion to think that all teachers have the necessary competences and skills to use the e-tools in their reading classes. They also consider the attitude of the teachers as a crucial element. Teachers need to have an open mind for innovation and change; they have to be willing to invest time and energy in the integration of the tools in their reading classes because it requires another approach.

A key element in the successful use of the tools seems to be collaboration: “I think that teachers have to work together. Within the classroom, we made little groups of learners. If I had to give the reading lesson alone, everything had to be organized for the class group as a whole. That would have been less interesting and less fun for the pupils.” (Student g). First, collaboration can be realized in the subject department (group of teachers teaching the same subject). Some tools require specific competences.
Collaboration between colleagues gets things done that the individual teacher cannot. “It improves structural collaboration between teachers. This way, they will not only collaborate in view of reading classes, but maybe also for other aspects or types of classes, e.g. a grammar class.” (Student k)

Some respondents fear that collaboration within the subject department will turn out to be insufficient: “I think it is important that the integration of new tools - for example for reading – is considered at a school level. Teaching is not about working isolated as an individual in your classroom. It is something the whole (school) team should be involved in.” (Student b)

It is possible to initiate collaboration between colleagues-language teachers, but also between teachers of other subjects. The respondents are convinced that the tools can be used in other subjects and by doing so also can foster reading motivation. The student teachers mention several possibilities to use Tablet Tales and Google Lit Trip. For Role Playing Game or Feeling Image Poetry this is less evident, but not impossible. As far as specific subjects are concerned, they see opportunities for History, Geography, Physical education or Mathematics: "When explaining Pythagoras' proposition, it is possible to start with a picture of the region he comes from and next read (a part of) his biography. It is possible to add links to the text in order to make them discover his inventions." (Student a).

If the use of new tools is supported at school level, this not only fosters reading motivation of learners, it also enhances the well-being of the teachers: “I think that the tools will not only improve collaboration between learners and therefore contribute to their reading motivation; it will also enhance collaboration between teachers. They will exchange expertise: teachers with a better content knowledge will improve their technological skills and vice versa. This way, professional growth is stimulated and it makes teaching more fun. I think there still is a lot to be done in this field.” (student k)
6.3. RQ3: To what extent does the use of e-tools affect the way student teachers look upon the teaching of reading?

The majority of the respondents say they like reading and prefer to read books. Despite this preference, they report that the teaching experience had made them aware of other possibilities of reading and new ways of fostering reading motivation. They say that the teacher training program has already broadened their vision on reading education and that they have had the opportunity to work with new approaches to reading. The project also contributed to this broader vision. Next, it has made them see that other tools/carriers can enhance reading and reading motivation not only in language classes, but also in the teaching of other subjects.

The respondents find the teaching experience very positive but raise a warning finger for the danger of paying more attention to the tool than to the content of the text: "I think this is a very nice way to teach and to (learn to) read. Student teachers should learn how to use these tools in teacher training. Nevertheless, teacher training should continue to pay enough attention to literature and its components. Pupils need to learn how to discuss a literary text and to analyze it... the content is important." (Student f). It is challenging to reconcile reading for pleasure and (literary) knowledge. The respondents think that the four tools used in the experience offer possibilities to do so.

As far as teacher training is concerned, the respondents underline the need for more technological support and training in the use of ICT. In daily life they use a lot of technological devices, but they cannot be considered as experts. This need should not entail teacher training programs which student teachers are only introduced to the practical use of tools (technology driven approach), without being stimulate to develop critical thinking about the use of the tools themselves. Technology evolves too quickly. Teacher training programs should continue to stress the importance of a pedagogy driven approach to teaching and learning, i.e. an approach in which lessons are
developed while taking into account the learning targets and the specific group of learners. "I hope that teacher training isn't about learning how to use a specific tool, but about reflecting on the use of the best possible tool while taking into account a specific group of learners and the goals to be achieved." (Student k).

The teaching experience made the respondents reflect on the criteria for reading motivation, on the conditions to put the tools into practice and on the approaches to be adopted. "The project has given me an example of the range of possibilities in reading education; other possibilities than just reading a book and answering questions - even if you adopt an activating or interactive approach. It showed me what a teacher can do and how far he can go." (Student k). Thanks to the project, which invited them to actively use the tools to teach reading, they have learned to adopt a learner-oriented perspective.

7. Concluding remarks and discussion

In order to enhance reading motivation in the classroom, 13 student teachers of two different institutes of teacher training selected e-tools for reading, developed lesson plans and put them into practice in three schools for secondary education. The selected e-tools were: Google Lit Trip, Tablet Tales, Role Playing Game and Feeling Image Poetry. Three research questions guided the project: Can e-tools have a positive effect on reading motivation and reading for pleasure? What are the didactic challenges when using these tools? and Does their use affect beliefs on reading education? In order to obtain an answer to these questions, focus groups with the student teachers were organized.

The use of e-tools proves to be very motivating for pupils (and teachers). It helps teachers take better account of specific criteria for reading motivation (interest, ownership, self-efficacy, social interaction and mastery).
It also broadens the concept of reading in and around the classroom, which up till now seems to have been filled in in a rather narrow way. Another advantage is that the use of the e-tools not only benefits reading lessons in language classes, but also the teaching of other subjects.

The use of the e-tools in reading education allows teachers to leave the beaten track, but it also confronts them with new and specific challenges. In order to integrate the tools in the teaching process, specific technical competences are required. The development of lessons based on the e-tools also proves to be time-consuming. Collaboration on the level of the subject department, but also on school level seems to be a key element. Despite these challenges, the advantages of using the e-tools are considerable: teachers are better equipped to focus on the initial situation of the learners and to tackle differences between pupils (slow and fast readers, competent and less competent readers, those who like reading and those who do not etc.). The tools also allow them to vary and broaden reading experiences. As far as teacher education or teachers’ professional growth is concerned, working with the tools deepens insights in what reading is about, contributes to the awareness of criteria for reading motivation and the importance of a pedagogy driven use of new and/or innovative tools.

The current project has also had its limitations. First, the number of student teachers was rather limited, they worked in groups and were only allowed to put into practice one of the selected e-tools. Second, the project was limited in time. It was carried out in three classes of secondary education and during one period of two lessons only. Due to these limitations, we must take into account the risk of creating a Hawthorne effect, i.e. the enhancement of reading motivation might be attributed to the different approach of the reading lessons and to the different materials used as compared with regular reading classes. At the same time, the project opens possibilities for further research. The use of each tool can and should be analysed in more detail, linking it to each specific criterion for reading motivation. In this project, the
impact of the tools on the enhancement of reading motivation was studied inside the classroom, but their impact on reading motivation and reading for pleasure outside the classroom deserves attention as well. The influences of specific tools on reading motivation, taking into account specific learner characteristics (e.g. gender, age, socio-economic background) can also contribute to reading education and a more generalized positive attitude towards reading.

References


http://www.literacytrust.org.uk/assets/0000/0562/Reading_pleasure_2006.pdf


### Appendix

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