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TRAINING FOR MEDIA LITERACY – REPORT OF THE THEMATIC WORKING GROUP[1]

Abstract

This report focuses on one aspect of the initial teacher training of history and civic teachers in Europe: training for using media and incorporating Information and Communication Technology (ICT) in the education process. It consists of three parts. The first one deals with the theoretical discussion on the importance of media and ICT and the role they may play in education. In the second part the current place of training for media literacy in the ITT curricula is presented – with the conclusion that the situation in Europe in this regard is heterogeneous though in most countries far from being satisfactory in the light of the above-mentioned theoretical concepts (especially in the area of collaborative learning supported by ICT). The third part consists of proposals how to train prospective teachers' use of certain kinds of media.

INTRODUCTION

In 1996 Jerry Wills and Howard Mehlinger (as cited in Cantu & Warren, 2003: 48) observed that in terms of integrating technological achievements, many contemporary classrooms „resemble their ancestors of 50 and 100 years ago much more closely than do today's hospital operating rooms, business offices, manufacturing plants, or scientific labs." Seven years later in Europe, Terry Haydn (2003: 12) stated that "many schools and classrooms do not function

1This report is a result of the work of all members of the group: Ludmila Aleksashkina (Russia), Mario Antas (Portugal), Robert Beier (Austria), Snjezana Koren and Dea Maric (Croatia), Mire Mladenovski (Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia), Andreja Rihter (Slovenia), Carina Rönnqvist (Sweden) and Joanna Wojdon (Poland).

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in ways radically different from those of the BT (before technology) era". Numerous American and British research from the beginning of the 21st century argued that the real problem in this case was not the equipment (hardware or software) that was being bought and installed in more and more classrooms. The problem was the teachers, namely their unwillingness and/or unpreparedness to use information and communication technology (ICT) in the teaching-learning process.

Cantu and Warren (2003: 37-39) cite some conclusions of those research studies:

"Teachers are emerging from their pre-service training to become part of the problem of integrating technology into the classroom rather than part of the solution". (Willis and Mehlinger, 1996: 979)

"Teacher education, particularly pre-service, is not preparing educators to work in a technology-enriched classroom". (Willis and Mehlinger, 1996: 978)

"Despite the importance of technology in teacher education, it is not central to the preparation experience in most U.S. colleges of education today. Most new teachers graduate from teacher preparation institutions with limited knowledge of the ways technology can be used in their professional practice." (Office of Technology Assessment, 1995: 165)

"Sadly, the need to train teachers in the effective use and integration of technology is not new information to teacher education training programs. […] Individually, most professors recognize technology training as a growing need in their pre-service teacher education programs. Programmatically, though, they still think it should be taught as a stand-alone course, not necessarily integrated into their specific content area." (Stetson and Bagwell, 1999: 146)

The same researchers proved that there was universal agreement as to the importance of incorporating information technology into school practice, that newly employed teachers were expected to be familiar with the ICT tools and to be able to use them and therefore the need for training the pre-service teacher trainees in this area was crucial and urgent.

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And although Haydn (2003) argued that everyday access to the ICT tools in the computer-enriched classrooms is an important factor encouraging teachers to use those tools (so not only the teachers are the problem, so is the equipment), Scott Harrison (2003: 38) in the same book proved that there were fewer good lessons and more unsatisfactory lessons using ICT than in case of all the lessons that were inspected. Harrison also admits that „there have been difficulties [in using ICT during history lessons] in the early stages of training" (2003: 39) which may suggest that this area should be given more attention in the ITT process.

QUESTIONS

Our research is based on European teachers of history and civic education and has been conducted more than a decade later than the ones cited above. This suggests the following question:

(1) Is the situation any different? Have the problems been solved? Is the training to incorporate ICT and media into the teaching-learning process an important part of the initial teacher training in some or most European countries in 2010? This is the first set of questions to be answered. As it will be shown beneath, the situation is quite heterogeneous, though not too optimistic. Therefore two following issues have been addressed:

(2) Why does incorporating ICT into ITT still remain a problem? – A set of theses and hypotheses, potentially for further research, and

(3) How can it be incorporated? – Concepts, tips, examples of good practice as proposal for either implementation or further discussion for the teacher trainers.

We believe that statistical data, experiences and examples of good practice from the institutions participating in this project – and involved in the initial teacher training for CHE

subjects across Europe – can enrich the discussion on ICT in ITT in this area. On the other hand, the results of pedagogical research prove that history, civic and social/cultural education enjoys considerable attention of the researchers and practitioners in using ICT in the teaching-learning process and gives certain guidance as of the ways how to incorporate it in the ITT. Last but not least, in the course of the work of the Thematic Working Group, areas for further research and discussion related to the initial teacher training of CHE teachers have been identified.

METHODOLOGY/SAMPLES

Some questions of our project's questionnaire pertain directly to the issue of incorporating media education into the initial teacher training programs. The most important are the two questions in section E+F.2.2.1: "Proportion of aspects, approaches and/or skills taught explicitly in Subject Didactic courses of "History": "Use of information technology in history teaching" and "Collaborative tools and Web 2.0 in history teaching", and two questions in section E+F.6.2.: "Training significance of professional training (History)": "Training for use of media" and "Training for use of information technology". They provide us with the comparable quantitative data from more than thirty European countries.

A sample survey was held among the Polish secondary school pupils that proves that they use different kinds of media as their sources of information both related to history and civic education. As they admit that school remains an important agent in the process of acquiring knowledge, it is of utmost importance for the teachers to be capable of dealing with different media and of teaching young people how to critically select, assess and percept the messages they carry.

A quick survey was held among the members of the group, i.e. the representatives of Croatia, Macedonia, Poland, Portugal, Russia, Slovenia and Sweden, concerning the ways how ICT is incorporated into the ITT-curricula in particular countries in technical terms, i.e. what equipment is used, how often, who provides it (teacher training institution or students themselves etc.).

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Further, members of the group conducted more detailed studies on methodologies of incorporating training in the use of selected types of media and technology-based teaching-learning tools into the ITT-curricula. Films, museum collections, multimedia presentations, e-learning platforms (Moodle), Webquest and computer games were taken into consideration. The studies were based on personal experiences, practices in particular countries and on secondary literature. Practical tips on why and how to introduce them during the initial teacher training were developed.

The results are presented beneath.

RESULTS (PERTAINING TO THE QUESTIONS ASKED)

1. State of the art

a. Questionnaire

Let us first look at the **ITT curricula of the CHE-subjects in general**. In most countries training is not often given in the use of media and the use of information technology during the period of initial teacher training. In Hungary no training at all is given . The positive exceptions in both areas are Belgium, Finland, Malta, Portugal and Slovenia where training in using media and information technology is given during more than 50% of all the academic courses. Norway is an interesting example in this case, as training for ICT is given very often, while training in media use is not. Contrarily, in the German Federal state of Lower Saxony training is given in media while in information technology not so often, and in North Rhine-Westphalia and Bosnia-Herzegovina not at all.

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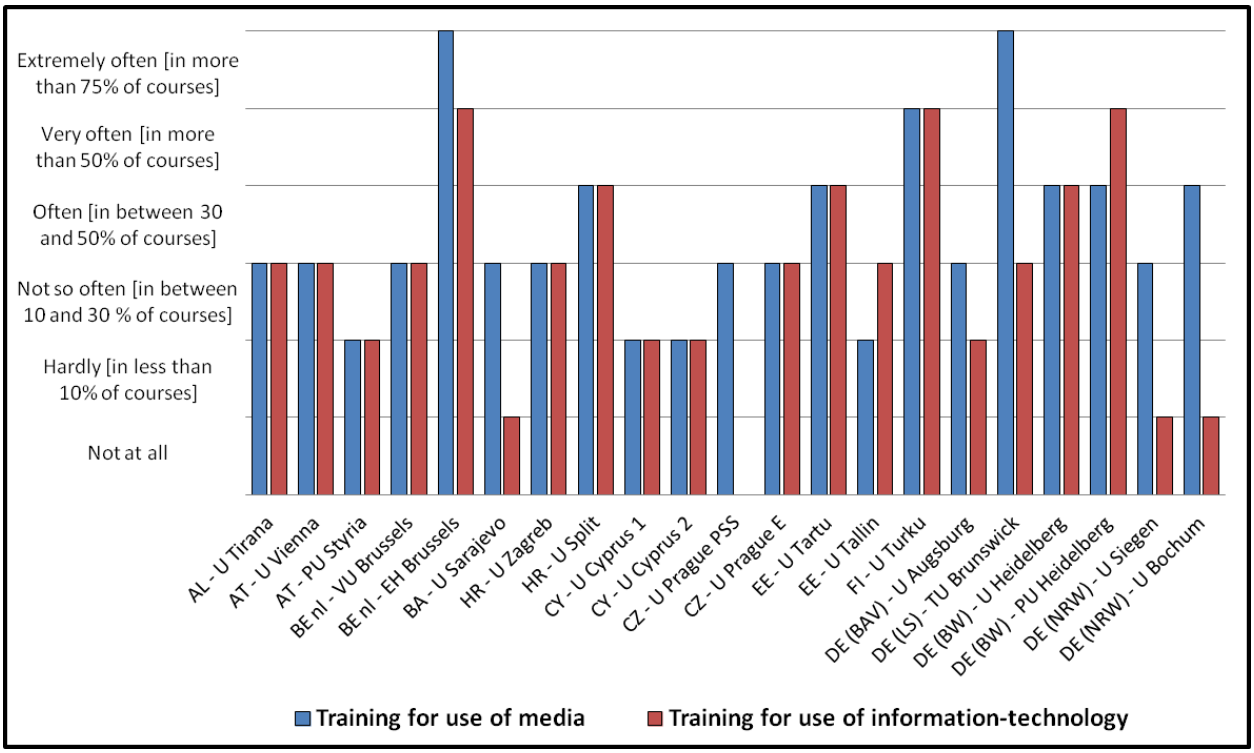
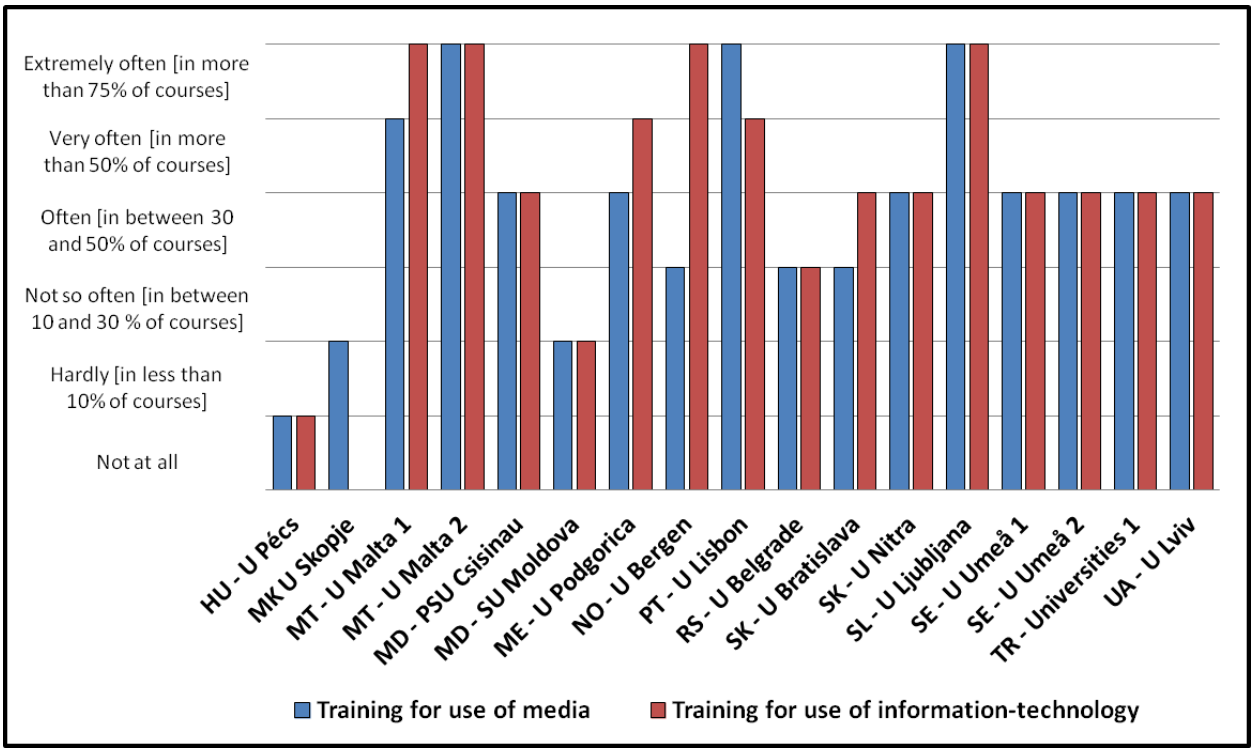
Assessment, tutorial structures & initial teacher education of trainee students in the subjects Political/Civic Education, Social/Cultural Studies & History in Europe–a comparative study– ITTP, 2009-12025





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The postulate of integrating ICT and media training into the general ITT courses still remains a postulate in many countries. The reluctance to incorporate ICT in the ITT courses may be the result of the lack of equipment in the training rooms (see the survey on the technical matters beneath; Haydn (2003: 14-15) proves such a co-relation for secondary schools). In such case, technical arrangements (booking a computer lab or borrowing a projector) may be too tiresome and prevent using ICT as a daily routine. Most likely, for most trainees ICT remains isolated from subject courses and therefore is something special, additional, not a daily routine – which, according to the results of the research presented beneath, will probably prevent them from using ICT during their lessons by inculcating the belief that media and ICT are something extraordinary, complicated, not essential for history education.

Secondly, we have research material concerning the **subject didactic courses** and how the ICT is incorporated there. We have the same countries, Finland, Malta and Slovenia, plus Germany (Bavaria), where the use of information technology in history teaching is taught extremely often during the history didactic courses. In Bosnia-Herzegovina, Portugal, Spain and Germany S it is taught very often. On the other side, in Albania ICT in history teaching is not trained at all during the didactic courses, while in Poland, Norway and Germany A. – almost not at all (during less than 10% of classes). Generally, subject didactic courses seem to pay more attention into training ICT competences in history teaching than other courses – but it might be partly due to the fact that, generally more than other courses, they are focused on training teaching competences.

Figure 1:

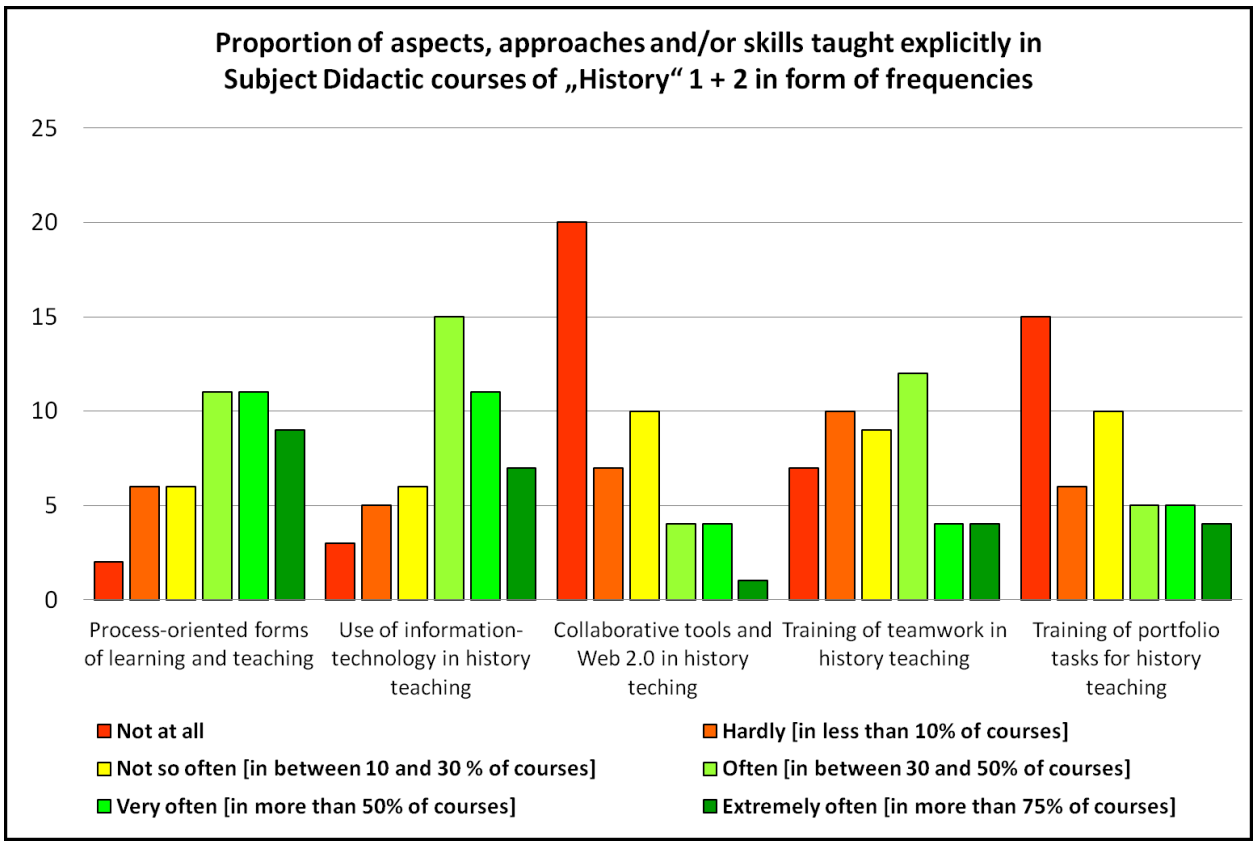

Figure 2:

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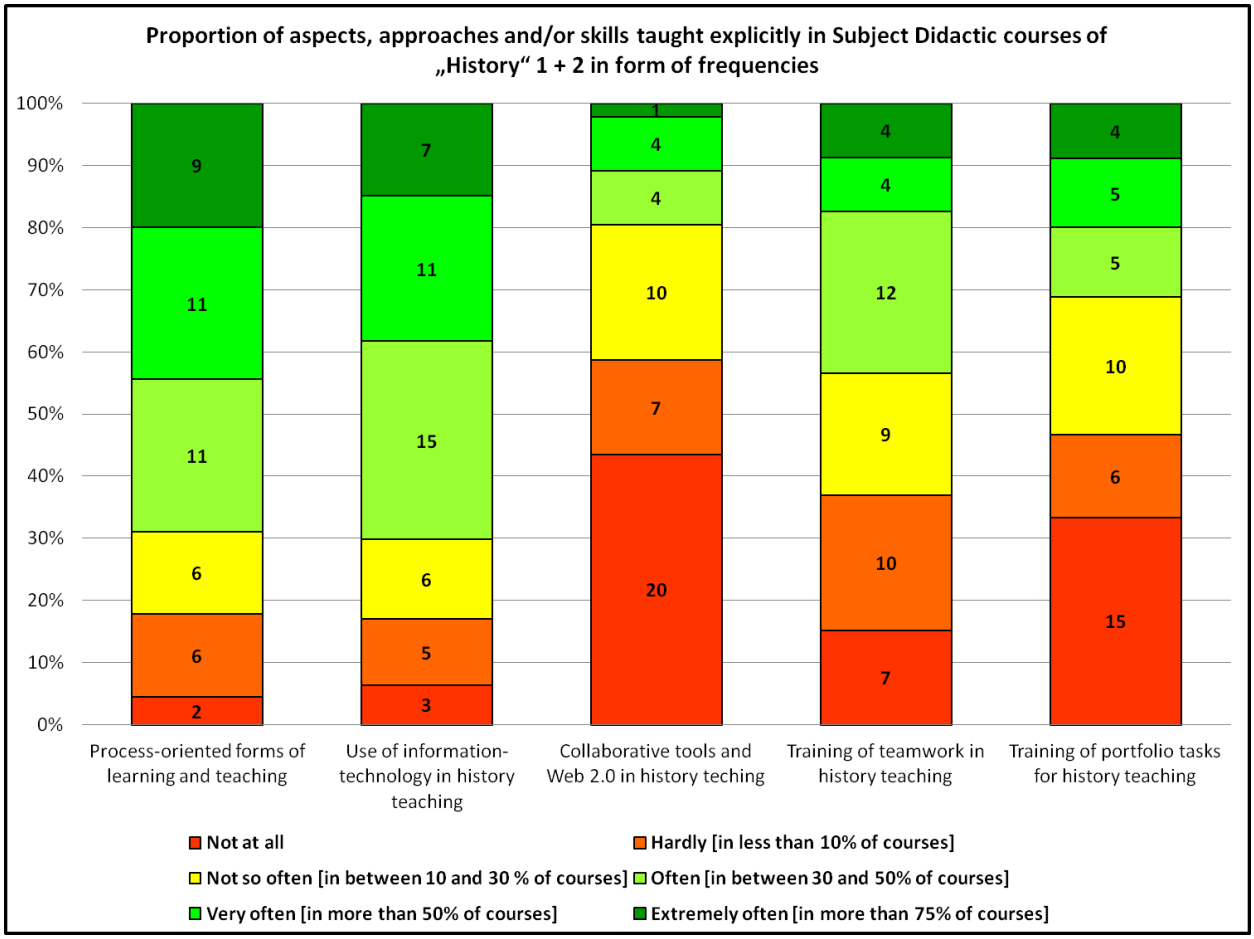

What is really alarming however, are the responses to the question about Web 2.0 and collaborative tools, which are absent from the history didactics curricula in most countries. They are really popular only in Germany (Bavaria), Portugal and Slovenia, moderately present in the Estonia, Sweden, United Kingdom, hardly in Croatia, Romania, Turkey, Ukraine, Russia, Moldova and Finland, while in the rest of the surveyed countries are present during less than 10% of the history didactic courses or not trained at all. This situation is alarming not only because certain competences that were singled out as worth training are neglected in most countries, but especially because there is research proving that it is collaborative learning where implementing information technology makes most sense, presents its real advantages and is particularly worth efforts (Norton & Sprague, 2001). And as so much educational

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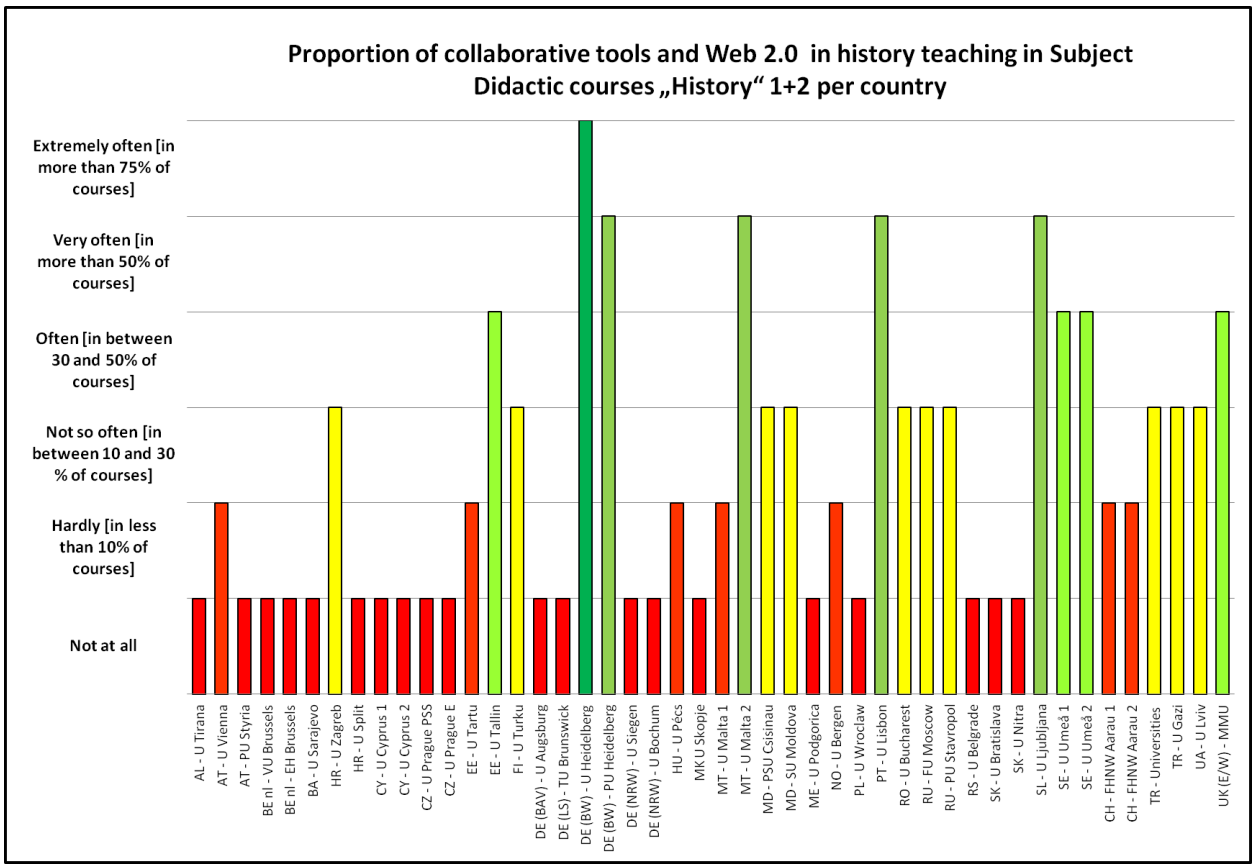
software is concentrated on the individual learning, it is up to a teacher to encourage pupils to collaborate and to be able to set collaborative tasks and tools. But how will he/she be able to do it if he/she has not been trained in this area?

Figure 3:



There still seems a lot to be done in the realm of incorporating ICT and media training into teachers' education, especially into general courses, but also to history didactics. And regretfully, the American analyses from the turn of the Millennium still look valid in 2010 for most European countries of our sample.

Interestingly, the members of the Media working group come mostly (with the exception of Slovenia) from the countries where training ICT and media competences is just about or even lags behind the average performance. Three issues may be raised in relation to this. Firstly, there is a doubt if they were the most competent to deal with

media and ICT training. Yet, during the discussions within the group no significant differences were observed in perception of the problems with media training in ITT between the experts from particular countries. Secondly, as the working groups were formed on a voluntarily basis, the composition of the "Media" group may prove that the ICT in education arises more interest, involvement, emotions when it remains something extraordinary. Once integrated in the process of both education and teacher training, it becomes a matter of routine, a sort of drill and everyday practice. Thirdly, if there are people from the "lagging" countries interested in the promotion of incorporating media training into the ITT, and those people are themselves involved in the ITT, there is hope that the situation in the ITT in their countries will improve thanks to their efforts and experiences they gain participating in the CHE project.

In his well-know book Larry Cuban (2001) claimed that computers were "Oversold and Underused" in American schools. He argued that it was not enough to stuff schools with the most technologically advanced equipment. And like others cited in this article, stressed that what really mattered was if and how they were being used in the teaching-learning process.

b. Trainers survey (technical matters)

But let us stop for a moment at the equipment question. A short poll conducted within the "Media" Working Group revealed a variety of possibilities of organizing technical and technological environment for the media and ICT training for the teacher trainees.

Starting with the number of the ICT devices available, there may be one computer and a beamer for the use in the course-room, either permanently mounted in the room, or brought by a trainer when needed, or there might be a separate computer available for each student or a pair (or group) of students. The students' equipment may be provided by the university (training institution) or be brought by the students themselves (like in Sweden where most students simply use their own laptops on the regular basis). The computers may be organized into a special "computer lab" (like in Russia) or be a part of the equipment of any classroom. As for the computer labs, they

can be used regularly for the subjects like "Information Technology in History Teaching" (Poland) or during some of the classes that form a course of history didactics (others take place in "ordinary" classrooms). Some history didactics courses (e.g. in Russia) may use "blended-learning", combining classes in computer labs with ICT assignments done by students out of the regular classes (either on their home or on university equipment) and with "ordinary" classes, without any special equipment.

At this point, there was no discussion nor research on the superiority of some technical solutions over others, though some seem to originate from the material resources rather than any theoretical concepts or empirical research, e.g. from the lack or shortage of appropriate equipment (like the necessity to book and bring a beamer for a certain class in Poland and Croatia) or, on the other hand, from the relative wealth of the Swedish students.

More research is certainly needed in this area in order to set patterns of the most effective usage of the ICT equipment and to optimize the investments.

2. Is using ICT in history education worth effort? Why or why not?

The controversies regarding the ICT in education generally focus on three aspects:

(1) ICT at school is costly, space- and time-consuming.

(2) Teachers must be specially trained and specially prepared for the classes with ICT.

(3) The beneficial results of incorporating ICT are not entirely clear or proven.

The third point is certainly the most controversial and it puts into question the efforts related with the former two. Is there a sense in investing into hardware and software, in equipping special computer labs in always too small schools, in training the teachers and in preparing special lesson plans (along with extra emergency-plans in case the ICT equipment does not work – which is a basic requirement stressed by the methodologists of teaching with ICT)?

A. There is no clear evidence, no research proving without any doubt that students who use ICT or whose teachers used ICT in the teaching-learning process outperform "traditional" ones in final tests and in other measurable achievements.

BUT: There is a proof, however, that students regard learning with ICT and multimedia more interesting, engaging, pleasant and they have to spend less time to achieve similar results – which is especially tempting for those who appreciate leisure more than achievements (Tepat & Rivero, 2011: 144).

B. The researchers question the role of school in developing computer literacy. They argue that pupils acquire most of their ICT skills outside school and do not need formal lessons to practice them (Norton & Sprague, 2001). Today's generations of young people are called "digital native" and do not need any special training in this area.

BUT: Media literacy is not only basic skills in operating computers and/or other electronic devices. It is (or should be) concentrated first and foremost on the critical analysis of traditional and electronic media, on asking questions about the messages they convey, their authors, audiences, intentions (explicit and implicit), manipulations, incongruences, on detecting technical and/or psychological instruments involved, confronting them with other available resources, discussing, processing and formulating students' own opinions and attitudes, in sum: the deconstruction of historical narratives on both the auditory and the visual level of performance. Nobody is "native" in these areas and school (together with a teacher) still has a role to play – on the level of school education.

Regarding initial teacher training, one can observe that while today's generations of students are much more computer-savvy and do not need basic training in "computer literacy" (though both McCall (2011: 73), and Lane (2011: 16) question the ICT proficiency of the young generation) they do need training in "media literacy", i.e. in the didactic ways of implementing technical opportunities into teaching practices just like the fact that one can read does not imply that one knows how to use primary or

secondary literature at school. Moreover, there are teachers who are not experts in ICT but who are very effective in incorporating digital media into their school practice (Scott, 2003). The goals in ITT point towards educating the trainee students in developing their competences for the planning, the observation and the analysis of didactic scenarios based on 'blended learning' concepts.

C. Students use media so much in their spare time, that school should show them another, "real" world. Otherwise, this last opportunity to use "traditional" books, notebooks etc. will be lost.

BUT: School should take into consideration that media ARE an important sources of information for today's pupils. A **pilot study** conducted by the Media Work group among the Polish secondary school pupils (aged 18-19) reveals that media, especially television and Internet, are important sources of information for them. Out of 460 respondents asked about their sources of information about the Katyn Massacre, 434 (94%) pointed to the television and 381 (83%) to the Internet. Schools should not be blind to this sort of result. Schools should not deny their responsibility for developing students' competences in using media (e.g. critical analysis, discerning facts and comments, assessing credibility of messages, looking for multiple perspectives). Consequently, training institution should not deny the responsibility of preparing their trainees to teach media literacy, yet not technical literacy, but the didactic dimension – just like recognizing the letters is not equal to reading comprehension, so proficiency in using ICT equipment does not mean processing the messages it carries.

Obviously, ICT need not be the only pedagogical tool. It can be one option, enhancing the teacher's offer and enabling more pupils to find their preferred ways of learning. Methodology of teaching promotes differentiation of tools and methods. Recent results of the PISA studies show e.g. that there are pupils, especially among boys, who perform much better in digital than in paper reading (OECD, 2011: 79-80). And although boys are still behind girls in their reading skills, the gap is much narrower in case of digital reading than of the paper one (OECD, 2011: 79). Keeping in mind the

crucial role of reading in history education, digital reading materials should be given serious consideration in order to give those pupils more opportunities to learn and perhaps meet their preferred learning styles. Last but not least, the examples of Poland and Hungary – where contrary to many other countries 15 year-olds perform significantly worse in digital than in paper reading (OECD, 2011: 19) – lead to a hypothesis of a co-relation between training prospective teachers in ICT and digital literacy of pupils. As the tables above show, in these two countries incorporating ICT into the teaching-learning process is hardly trained during the teacher's studies, at least in history and civic education

3. How to organize media training?

Having proved that training teachers to incorporate media into their teaching-learning process is worth its efforts, let us discuss some practical issues of the contents and forms of such a training. This part of the paper is based on the subject literature and on case studies within the teacher training institutions where members of the Media Group work as teacher trainers.

The members of the group agreed that (based on their professional experience) no matter what medium (and/or other pedagogical tool) is presented during the initial teacher training courses, the pros and cons of incorporating it into the teaching-learning process are worth discussing with the trainees, taking into consideration both technical advantages and disadvantages (e.g. financial costs, reliability of the hardware and software, time needed for teacher preparations, for setting up the learning environment in the classroom, keeping students' discipline and motivation etc.), but also potential educational benefits and threats (e.g. skills developed, emotions involved, but also manipulation, adhering to stereotypes etc.) (Norton & Sprague, 2001).

Criteria for evaluating a particular medium (e.g. particular documentary, slideshow, webpage or game) are an important issue to be introduced into ITT. Examples of good media to present during the training are usually helpful.

Reflection if and to what extent using a certain medium will let teachers and pupils go beyond the traditional tools and approaches is worthwhile, as researchers prove that often, perhaps too often, teachers implement ICT to support traditional methods of teaching instead of using their potential for innovations, especially for moving from teacher-centered to student-centered and project-based teaching and learning (Norton & Sprague, 2001; Scott, 2003; Noyuri, 2003). Arranging a special lesson in a computer lab only to make pupils read electronic (instead of paper) encyclopedia or a set of webpages carefully chosen by a teacher, and to take notes in a word processor's file (instead of a copybook) probably does not make a good use of the ICT. Neither does investing in an interactive board just to use it as a screen for presentations. How to make them really worth the costs and efforts? How to use the unique features of each medium? David H. Jonassen (as cited in Norton and Sprague, 2001, 5-6) suggested that:

"Technology can support learning that is:
Active – Learners are engaged by the learning process in mindful processing of information and are responsible for the result.
Constructive – Learners can accommodate new ideas into prior knowledge in order to make sense or make meaning or reconcile a discrepancy, curiosity, or puzzlement.
Collaborative – Learners work in learning and knowledge building communities, exploiting each others' skills while providing social support and modeling and observing the contributions of each member.
Intentional – Learners are actively and willfully trying to achieve a learning objective.
Conversational – Learning is inherently a social, dialogical process in which learners benefit from being part of knowledge-building communities both in and out of school.
Contextualized – Learning tasks are situated in meaningful real-world tasks or simulated through some case-based or problem-based learning environment.
Reflective – Learners articulate what they have learned and reflect on the processes and decisions that were part of the process."

Scott Harrison (2003) gives examples of good and of not so good pedagogical practice, based on inspections in fifty secondary schools in the United Kingdom and

points to another problem: how to avoid overwhelming a lesson with ICT issues to the detriment of historical ones, or to use the words of Alf Wilkinson (2003: 227): how "to use ICT to learn history, not the other way round."

Harrison (2003: 43-44) argues that good planning is essential for the success of lessons with ICT. Some questions to be answered in the stage of planning are: is ICT to be used in a classroom or as a homework? If in a classroom, then as a part of instructive lesson structure (e.g. with one computer and a beamer) or as for individual or group work (with more equipment involved)? How numerous the groups? How long the tasks? How to manage pupils' discipline? How to control their usage of the Internet? What about time constraints? How to prevent spending too much time on low-level activities? In which circumstances (e.g. technical problems) to give up using ICT and resort to more traditional tools?

Not only for these latter problems, but also for other issues mentioned above there is some research-based evidence, there are opinions from practitioners (teachers), and there is a lot of research still to be done.

Films[2]

*Documentary film*s in the classroom offer factual and narrative structure similar to that of a textbook or teacher's lecture. But, the benefits of using *historical feature films,* which offer dramatized and fictionalized accounts of the past, are not so clear. Films, however, are certainly among the most stimulating aids to the understanding of historical interpretations.

The use of films, as Haydn et al. (2001) suggest, "does raise legitimate questions about the use or neglect of historical evidence, the purpose of the interpretation and how the nature of intended audience can affect the interpretation". Secondly, teachers should take into the

2I wish to thank Snjezana Koren from the University of Zagreb (Chroatia) for developing this part of the report.

consideration that the great deal of what students "know" about the past comes from movies – their influence on pupils should not be underestimated because many of them see such presentations of certain events and people as "objective" and "truthful" (Marcus et al., 2010; Arndt, 2003). Last but not least, there is the power of movies to motivate students, to strengthen their personal interest for learning about the past. Such interest could be used to nurture students' analytical and critical approach to films.

When using film to teach history, there are different ways and purposes. These are (according to A. Marcus et al., 2010):

- *Using film to visualize the past*: students cannot directly experience the past, only its traces. Films therefore have the potential to help students visualize the past, illustrate certain historical events and motivate students' interest. This tends to be the most frequent way of using films by history trainees.
- *Using film to develop empathy*: the educational value of empathy through "caring" (about historical experiences of the people in the past) and "perspective recognition".
- *Using film to develop analytical and interpretative skills*: "films function as 'texts' that can be analyzed, questioned, and discussed just like any other kind of historical document". Films can be analyzed as primary sources, as artefacts from the time period in which they were made: they reflect or criticize prevailing values and norms of the society of their time. Films could be also used as secondary sources and evaluated by comparing them to primary sources. Films can also be analyzed as a historical narrative about people and events from the past; therefore there is a possibility to investigate the past by using films that offer conflicting accounts of the past. When analyzing a film as an attempt to (re)construct the past, there are also questions about using and interpreting historical evidence in order to present the past in a certain way.
- *Using film to teach about (contemporary or past) controversial issues* which films implicitly or explicitly address.

There are some methodological and didactical questions/issues that should be thought of when using film in the classroom (A. Marcus et al., 2010; Arndt, 2003):

- How to select the appropriate film in order to achieve planned educational goals: when intentions of the teacher are unclear, the educational achievements often remain unclear as well and students may end up simply watching the movie for its entertaining value. Key criteria for choosing films may include factual validity of the film, the "age" of the film, the teacher's goals, the perspectives of a film etc.
- How will students be introduced to the film? What content knowledge, concepts, and analytical skills are needed to make sense of the film? What should students do before, during and after a movie? Are these whole class activities or small group activities? How should they collect information (list of questions/ideas, graphic organizer)? What should students focus on during the viewing?
- Should teachers structure the viewing of a film? Should teachers choose to show the entire film or clips? How to deal with violence, obtrusive language and sexual content?
- If movies present only one side of a complex historical issue, what should teachers do to help students recognize multiple perspectives? For example, teachers may instruct students to view the film with a particular perspective in mind: What messages are conveyed by the film about gender roles, marginalized groups, political and/or social values etc.?

Museums

Museums are collections of artifacts, useful also in history and civic education. More recently they started including not only material artifacts in their collections, but also different sorts of media. Museology classes may be included in initial teacher training curricula as separate courses or as elements of other courses (e.g. of subject didactic courses). Lessons in museums may be a part of practical training for history and civic education teachers. Museums may

also organize their own activities: lectures, workshops, special programmes, summer schools aimed at teachers and teacher trainees.

As an example we would like to mention the Summer School of Museology Celje (Slovenia)[3], which operates under the umbrella of the Museum of Contemporary History Celje. It prepares and provides multi-modular educational programme, training and proficiency courses for different target groups engaged in the preservation and promotion of cultural heritage and in the raising of overall awareness of the cultural heritage. This programme fills a gap in the Slovene educational system governing the field of cultural heritage: e.g the 2011 theme was that of the International Councils of Museums (ICOM) 2011, "Museums and Memory", which opens up critical perspectives on the museum work and on the understanding of heritage in terms of individual and collective historical memory. The preservation of people's national memory and the interpretation of their cultural heritage and history in times of global crises have become ongoing issues that raise critical questions as well as analytical views on museums and other heritage institutions. Among the participants of the summer school were students of humanities from the Koper Faculty of Humanities and the University of Primorska. The summer school programme combined lectures from experts and scholars, debates, talks, workshops and analysis, and above all, it offered participants a good deal of active creative work with simultaneous feed back and updates in practice, presentations of domestic and foreign practices, tasks to be done in study rooms, fieldwork, and professional excursions..

Multimedia presentations

Multimedia presentations have become everyday tools for many people, including teachers and teacher trainees. Research (Jędryczkowski, 2006) prove that they help keep attention of the audience who remains focused on oral presentations (lectures) for much longer than without support of slides. They make the structure of a presentation clearer and easier to grasp for the audience and help enrich its contents by media of different kind (pictures,

3I wish to thank Andreja Rihter for providing these examples.

including photos, are probably the most popular, but videos, sounds, animations, schemes can also be used). Presentations are usually prepared by a particular speaker for a particular audience – if at school: by a particular teacher for his/her class(es). Arranging the material into the presentation can be also a task for pupils. In this case software serves as a tool that facilitates structuring data and limited amount of space on slides helps select essential information (Haydn, 2003: 20).

The problem remains, however, how to produce a good presentation. What does a term "good" mean in this case? Good presentation is effective, it keeps the pupils focused on the lesson, helps them understand the learning material and memorize its important elements, it can also facilitate taking notes. A good presentation should accompany a lecture (or a lesson) but not dominate it. It should not replace other teaching materials nor should it be a form of a teacher's notebook from which he or she reads his/her lesson.

How can a teacher trainer teach students to create multi-media presentations?

1. Adaption of the trainer's role model: At the University of Wroclaw, to take my personal experience as a teacher trainer, we use multi-media presentations, especially during the lectures, with the intention that these presentations are taken by our students as examples of good presentations which they will follow later on while working with pupils.
2. Mini-labs: If there is an opportunity to work in a computer lab, at first students are asked to prepare a short presentation (5 slides) with very precise specification re. fonts, background color, pictures etc. to make sure that they know how to control those parameters. Then they choose a topic and prepare a presentation for an imaginary class. They present it during the classes and other students comment on it in detail. The students find all the positive elements of the presentation and then suggest changes that could improve it.
3. When students have no access to computers, we inform the students about all the requirements mentioned above. Then we present them selected slides from

presentations that we have in our archive of history didactics and we invite the students to discuss the construction of such presentations. Finally we ask them to prepare a project of a comparable presentation (on paper) as homework and later give them written feedback on their projects.

e-learning

On-line learning originates from a longer tradition of distant learning, where it has been developed since the 1990ies. In regular teacher training courses e-learning has been implemented more and more often as a supplement to a face-to-face learning, and thus forms "blended learning", when a part of the teaching-learning process takes place in the classroom in a face-to-face format, while another part is completed on-line (the discussions on the definitions and models of blended learning can be found in: Heinze and Procter, 2004 and in NACOL: 4-5). The meta-analysis of the research on on-line and blended learning from 1996-2008 (U.S. Department of Education, 2009) proves the growing interest in these forms of learning (and teaching) and in researching them (most of the research was conducted after 2004). It also proves the effectiveness of on-line and blended learning. One of these findings states that "students who took all or part of their class online performed better, on average, than those taking the same course through traditional face-to-face instruction". Blended learning was slightly more effective than purely on-line one, though both proved their superiority over traditional face-to-face learning. What the meta-researchers noticed, however, is that the better results need not be a result of the very form of ON-LINE learning. Students can simply benefit from the fact that on-line learning "was likely to have included additional learning time and materials as well as additional opportunities for collaboration that produced the observed learning advantages".

Regardless of the precise reason of the effectiveness of on-line learning (and admitting the need for further research), this form of organizing teaching-learning process should not be neglected in the initial teacher training process of CHE-teachers.

Similarly to other ICT methods and techniques, e-learning can be trained two-fold during the ITT process of trainee students for history and civic education.

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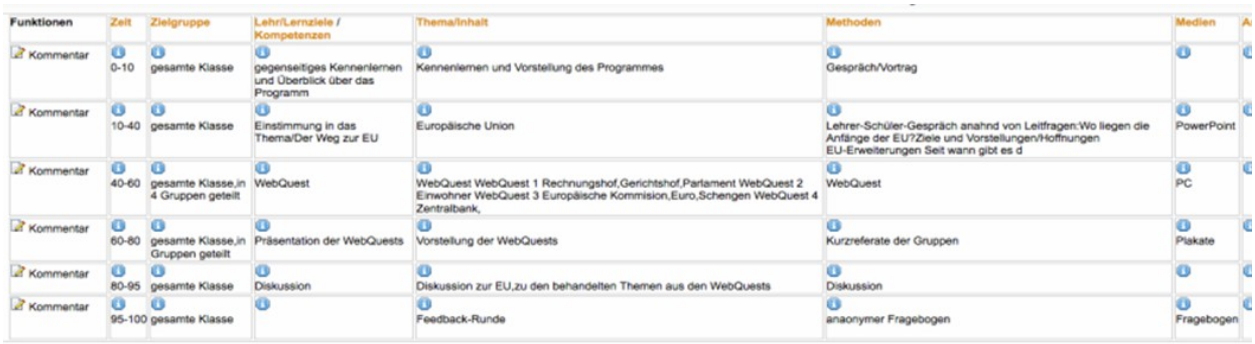
A. In form of an experience oriented action-research process: As a part of the training process itself – trainees being subjects of actions developed by the trainer can personally experience its advantages and disadvantages, analyze and evaluate their individual learning process and relate their learning experience to general theories of (subject) didactics.

An example of the „Planungsmatrix“, an interactive tool for planning, carrying out and observing lessons, developed at the University of Vienna can serve as a good example of such a practice[4]. The Planungsmatrix helps teachers and teacher-trainees to plan and carry out history/civic education lessons. Lessons can be planned using an interactive table.

Figure 4: Planungsmatrix: Planning table[5]



Funktionen	Zeit	Zielgruppe	Lehr/Lernziele / Kompetenzen	Thema/Inhalt	Methoden	Medien
Kommentar	0-10	gesamte Klasse	gegenseitiges Kennenlernen und Überblick über das Programm	Kennenlernen und Vorstellung des Programmes	Gespräch/Vortrag	
Kommentar	10-40	gesamte Klasse	Einstimmung in das Thema/Der Weg zur EU	Europäische Union	Lehrer-Schüler-Gespräch anahnd von Leitfragen:Wo liegen die Anfänge der EU?Ziele und Vorstellungen/Hoffnungen EU-Erweiterungen Seit wann gibt es d	PowerPoint
Kommentar	40-60	gesamte Klasse,in 4 Gruppen geteilt	WebQuest	WebQuest WebQuest 1 Rechnungshof,Gerichtshof,Parlament WebQuest 2 Einwohner WebQuest 3 Europäische Kommision,Euro,Schengen WebQuest 4 Zentralbank,	WebQuest	PC
Kommentar	60-80	gesamte Klasse,in Gruppen geteilt	Präsentation der WebQuests	Vorstellung der WebQuests	Kurzreferate der Gruppen	Plakate
Kommentar	80-95	gesamte Klasse	Diskussion	Diskussion zur EU,zu den behandelten Themen aus den WebQuests	Diskussion	
Kommentar	95-100	gesamte Klasse		Feedback-Runde	anaonymer Fragebogen	Fragebogen

4I would like to express my gratitude to Alois Ecker and Robert Beier from the University of Vienna for developing this part of the report.

5(http://didactics.eu/index.php?id=2303&type=5555&uid=183, 17/05/2012)

Teacher trainees can work online as individuals or in groups on their „Planungsmatrix“. Teacher trainer(s) can control and comment on the plan. Every column is linked to an online learning unit (www.didactics.eu), which provides basic information on key factors of the planning process: the analysis of the addresses, the identification of the goals/aims of a lesson, the selection of the content, the choice of didactic arrangements (methods and media), the forms of assessment, the forms of feedback and of reflection on the learning process. Teacher trainees can easily look up information such as which media to use or how to get feedback from their students.

Figure 5: Online learning unit about organizing the learning process and learning methods [6]

6http://didactics.eu/index.php?id=93, 17052012

The whole table is based on the process-orientated didactics of history and civic education developed by Alois Ecker,.

The head of each „Planungsmatrix“ shows basic information about the author(s), the learning group, important keywords, the thematic issue dealt with in the lesson and the context of the teaching situation.

Figure 6: The head of the Planungsmatrix showing basic information

Every „Planungsmatrix“ can be saved, sent via email or printed. Therefore, the Planungsmatrix can also be used as a script during carrying out the concrete lesson.

Figure 7: Preview of a print-version of the ‘Planungsmatrix’.[7]

7http://didactics.eu/index.php?id=2303&type=5555&uid=183, 17/05/2012

Zeit	Zielgruppe	Lehr / Lernziele	Thema / Inhalt	Methoden	Medien	Anwendungen	Rueckkopplung	(Selbst-) Reflexion	Sonstiges
0 - 10	gesamte Klasse	gegenseitiges Kennenlernen und Überblick über das Programm	Kennenlernen und Vorstellung des Programmes	Gespräch/Vortrag					Vorstellung der Studentinnen, Namenskärtchen für die Schüler
10 - 40	gesamte Klasse	Einstimmung in das Thema/Der Weg zur EU	Europäische Union	Lehrer-Schüler-Gespräch anahnd von Leitfragen: • Wo liegen die Anfänge der EU? • Ziele und Vorstellungen/Hoffnungen • EU-Erweiterungen • Seit wann gibt es den Euro und wo überall/wo nicht? • Wie funktioniert die EU? • Wie schaut das mit den Grenzen aus? (Schengener Abkommen) • Europawahlen	PowerPoint		Multiple Choice Test		anhand von Leitfragen wird gemeinsam mit den SchülerInnen der Weg in die EU erarbeitet

Preview of a print-version of the 'Planungsmatrix'.
(http://didactics.eu/index.php?id=2303&type=5555&uid=183, 17/05/2012)

Finally the Planungsmatrix can also be linked to and included incorporated into another online tool, developed at the department of Didactics of History and Civic Education at Vienna University, the Mediagraph. This tool which is also accessible online can connect the Planungsmatrix with e.g. a video film which had been taken during the history lesson under discussion. The video of this lesson can be annotated, synchronized with the Planungsmatrix and by this the learning and teaching process can be investigated and analyzed systematically.

B. eLearning cas also be used as a teaching-learning strategy to be presented, discussed and trained in order to make the trainees capable of implementing it into their own school practice.

   Content and Learning managmentManagement systems, the so-called e-learning platforms, such as , Moodle, Blackboard, Fronter, Ilias etc., seem to be the relevant software to be included into the ITT. They offer a wide range of tools to provide learners with teaching material, structure it into the teaching units and to organize, monitor and assess the teaching-learning process. Such Learning management Management systems provide teachers with full computer support for the organization

and execution of online courses. Some of the important features of for example Moodle are[8]:

• creation of a large number of courses in one system

• planning course - schedule of activities, calendar

• managing users, user roles and user groups on the course

• work with existing files and educational facilities

• knowledge test and evaluation of user

• monitoring user activity

• numerous tools for communication and collaboration among users (e.g. chat module for synchronous communication; wiki tool for collaborative work of students; develop a survey – questions to students; forums or discussion groups)

• management system - the backup, statistics, logs

• a comprehensive help system.

The Working Group was not able, however, to reach the experiences nor the literature on training how to best use content and learning management systems in the classroom, as a part of ITT courses. The book by John Mannion (2011) can be recommended as a starting point for discussion and practical training, and more research in this area is certainly required.

World Wide Web (WWW) resources

The role of WWW resources in teaching-learning CHE subjects is unquestionable today. They provide information, offer divergent interpretation of the facts, events, processesand processes and contain huge amounts of visual materials, sound recordings, motion pictures etc. to be incorporated into teaching units.

8I wish to thank Mire Mladenovski and Mario Antas for providing details on Moodle.

There are two main issues of interest to the teacher-trainees related to the use of WWW resources:

A. **How to find appropriate resources?** Evaluating WWW pages/resources is one of the crucial skills in today's world, not only for studying history. Examples of useful links (for teachers and teacher-trainers) can be presented, but on the one hand the list can never be closed, and on the other hand, sites constantly change, appear and disappear. The list will be neither complete nor sustainable. Therefore, providing trainees with such a comprehensive list of useful websites is neither possible nor desirable. For the same reasonthis reason the Working Group – although madethey made attempts to compile a list of websites of particular interest to teacher trainers – eventually gave up this task.

   What is more important is to discuss the criteria of finding relevant pages and the ways of how to implement them into the teaching-learning practices. The following criteria for evaluating "general" web pages and electronic (also on-line) educational materials can form a basis for discussion with trainees, although the Working Groups believes that more research in this area, resulting in publications and recommendations, would be desirable.

   General web pages (according to Beck (n.d.)):

   I. Authority

   Is there an author? Is the page signed?
   Is the author qualified? An expert?
   Who is the sponsor?
   Is the sponsor of the page reputable? How reputable?
   Is there a link to information about the author or the sponsor?
   If the page includes neither a signature nor indicates a sponsor, is there any other way to determine its origin?
   Rationale:
   Anyone can publish anything on the web.
   It is often hard to determine a web page's authorship.
   Even if a page is signed, qualifications are not usually provided.

Sponsorship is not always indicated.

II. Accuracy

Is the information reliable and error-free?
Is there an editor or someone who verifies/checks the information?
Rationale:
See number 1 above
Unlike traditional print resources, web resources rarely have editors or fact-checkers.
Currently, no web standards exist to ensure accuracy.

III. Objectivity

Does the information show a minimum of bias?
Is the page designed to sway opinion?
Is there any advertising on the page?
Rationale:
Frequently the goals of the sponsors/authors are not clearly stated.
Often the Web serves as a virtual "Hyde Park Corner", a soapbox.

IV. Currency

Is the page dated?
If so, when was the last update?
How current are the links? Have some expired or moved?
Rationale
Publication or revision dates are not always provided.
If a date is provided, it may have various meanings. For example,
It may indicate when the material was first written
It may indicate when the material was first placed on the Web
It may indicate when the material was last revised

V. Coverage

What topics are covered?
What does this page offer that is not found elsewhere?
What is its intrinsic value?
How in-depth is the material?
Rationale
Web coverage often differs from print coverage.
Frequently, it's difficult to determine the extent of coverage of a topic from a web page. The page may or may not include links to other web pages or print references.

Sometimes web information is "just for fun", a hoax, someone's personal expression that may be of interest to no one, or even outright silliness.

On-line educational materials: (according to Branch et al., (n.d.))

(1) Judge the accuracy of the information and take note of the date modified.
Sub-questions to ask yourself:
Does the site provide evidence that it comes from reputable sources?
Does the site contain any obvious biases, errors, or misleading omissions in the document?
Does the site contain advertising that might limit the nature of the content?
Is the information current and up-to-date?

(2) Is the level of information in this site appropriate for the intended audience?
Sub-questions to ask yourself:
Does the site contain information appropriate for the intended learners with respect to their maturity and cognitive abilities?
Does the site contain any extraneous and unsuitable vocabulary, language or concepts, bias, or stereotyping?

(3) Is the information in this site presented clearly?
Sub-questions to ask yourself:
Is the information arranged in an orderly fashion?
Is the information presented clearly?

(4) Is the information in this site closely related to purpose, content, activity, and procedures?
Sub-questions to ask yourself:
Is there a clear tie among the purpose, content, and procedures suggested?
Does the site contain any activities irrelevant to the topic?
Does the site contain any redundant or isolated activities without a relationship to objectives?

(5) Is the information in this site complete in scope and ready for use?
Sub-questions to ask yourself:
Does this site contain complete breadth and depth of information related to the topic it claims to cover?
Are there any content gaps in concept development?

(6) If a website has activities, are the content, presentation method, and learner activity potentially engaging?
Sub-questions to ask yourself:

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Are the suggested activities challenging, interesting, and appealing for the intended learners?
Does the information in the site emphasize and promote relevant action on the part of the learner?
Does the site have the potential for developing confidence and satisfaction as a result of learner effort?

(7) If it claims to be comprehensive, is the information in the site well organized?
Sub-questions to ask yourself:
Is the information in the site easy to use and logically sequenced, with each segment of the resource related to other segments?
Does the information flow in an orderly manner, use organizing tools (e.g., a table of contents, a map, or headings), and avoid the use of unrelated elements that are potentially ineffective or overpowering?
Are references, bibliographies, or other supporting evidence provided?

B. **How to make a rational use of the resources in order to avoid the situation where gathering information is an end in itself;** , how to "digest them and translate them into worthwhile learning experience for pupils" (Haydn, 2003, 20)?

The group pointed the **Webquest** as one of the teaching-learning strategies that encourage pupils to both effectively search the Internet and transform the newly-acquired information. Moreover, as the Webquest is project-based and problem-oriented, it has a potential to effectively motivate students. According to the WebQuest homepage at www.webquest.org, "WebQuest is an inquiry-oriented lesson format in which most or all the information that learners work with comes from the web". It was developed in 1995 at San Diego State University. Trainees (and teachers) tend, wrongly, to regard every assignment based on the Internet resources as a webquest. Thus, it should be stressed over and over again that Webquest is an inquiry- or problem-based technique. Therefore, a general training of developing problem-based or project-based lessons should be helpful. Most tips and tricks on the project-based learning (available at www.bie.org and from the literature on educational projects, e.g. Helle et al. 2006; Barron et al., 1998) can be applied to the Webquests.

A good summary of a webquest as a project- and problem-oriented activity can be found at http://webquest.org/index-create.php:

"A real WebQuest:

- is wrapped around a doable and interesting task that is ideally a scaled down version of things that adults do as citizens or workers.
- requires higher level thinking, not simply summarizing. This includes synthesis, analysis, problem-solving, creativity and judgment.
- makes good use of the web. A WebQuest that isn't based on real resources from the web is probably just a traditional lesson in disguise. (Of course, books and other media can be used within a WebQuest, but if the web isn't at the heart of the lesson, it's not a WebQuest.)
- isn't a research report or a step-by-step science or math procedure. Having learners simply distilling web sites and making a presentation about them isn't enough.
- isn't just a series of web-based experiences. Having learners go look at this page, then go play this game, then go here and turn your name into hieroglyphs doesn't require higher level thinking skills and so, by definition, isn't a WebQuest."

Trainees may evaluate existing Webquests or develop their own (to be assessed by their peers). Simulating the Webquest-based lessons, with trainees first developing Webquests, and then completing tasks set by their peers, is also a good exercise (Class 1. Trainees A and Trainees B develop webquests individually or in pairs. At the end of the class they exchange their webquests with another person or pair (Trainees B or Trainees A, accordingly). Class 2. Trainees follow the instructions from the Webquests they acquired during the final stage of Class 1. Class 3. Trainees A evaluate the work of Trainees B while Trainees B evaluate the Webquest they completed, and vice versa.)

Computer games

Learning through play is the basic way of learning, "practiced" since early childhood. Computer games have become a part of playing experience for many teenagers, especially

male. Why not use (and stimulate) pupils' gaming experience in the teaching-learning process? As the researchers prove, "play, far from being merely frivolous, can provide deep, meaningful learning experiences, and develop creative thinking in ways unachievable by traditional pedagogies alone." (McCall, 2011: 4) There are numerous examples of using computer games in education. There is an on-line scholarly journal dedicated to educational use of computer games („Game Studies. The International Journal of Computer Game Research", published since 2001, available at www.gamestudies.org). CHE subjects educational area isare covered quite well by the computer games and computer-games research. Some enthusiasts tend to find educational values even in first-person-shooters put in historical realities of real conflicts from the past, but most authors usually refer to simulation games as the most useful for history and civic education. Jeremiah McCall proves that in an effective simulation game "its core gameplay must offer defensible explanatory models of historical systems" (McCall, 2011: 23) and he distinguishes seven genres of historical simulations: city-building, nation-building, trade, political management and tactics, life managements, war and combined nation-building/real-time battle (McCall, 2011: 31).

There are quite encouraging reports of incorporating computer games into academic courses, in economy Economics and in European civilization (McMichael, 2007; Dobbins et al., 1995; McCall, 2011). They prove that students are better motivated and they spend more time preparing for their classes. They also point that playing games is probably not the best way to get to know basic facts, but is very helpful in understanding processes, reconstructing structures and in other higher-order operations. Students (or pupils) learn the cause-effect chains easily. They understand social structures, military and political strategies, interdependence of different spheres of life (economy, politics, culture, military) and, ways of dealing with limited resources. By replaying certain decision-making processes they can explore the impact of certain decisions over time. They can also notice that games are only interpretations of the past that can be critically assessed (just as any other interpretation). The mMain weakness of this kind of pedagogical tools is that it is time consuming and sometimes requires technological skills that a teacher may not be able to offer (if a computer does not

work properly). Most simulation games today do not offer effective tools to model interactions between individuals (contrary to e.g. board game simulations).

The researchers argue that personal gaming experience of a trainer (teacher) is essential before proposing playing to students (McCall, 2011: 181). This is why if only a computer lab is available, teacher trainees at the university of Wrocław have an opportunity to play for about an hour in "Ceasar III" or "Pharaoh". This lets them feel how it is to get involved in a game, to concentrate on a task, to become a part of the game's world. It also helps them understand why people (and especially teenagers) are so excited about games. Students' own proposals regarding the strategies of incorporating games into the teaching-learning process usually do not go beyond the ideas like: use games as a homework, refer to examples from games during several lessons, appreciate pupils' interest in history, even if only via games, encourage further research that can be also helpful during the game, focus attention on game's help (e.g. in a form of accompanying "encyclopedia") that often refers not only to game controls but also to the past times where the action of the game takes place. The literature of the subject is richer in the ideas. Jeremiah McCall (2011) suggests e.g. taking notes while playing (and provides several models for the notes, starting from writing down the observations and ending with annotated screenshots or causal diagrams); solving certain problems (provided by a teacher), applying historical knowledge (e.g. historical strategies) into a game and observing how the game's model responds, writing a blog that would register one's gaming experiences or developing a game-based research paper. Thus, playing can be a step in developing CHE knowledge, skills and attitudes.

CONCLUSIONS

Capability to teach media literacy is one of the key competences to be trained during the initial teacher training process of history and civic education teachers. The term media literacy must not be limited though to technical skills of using information technology in the classroom. Analysing media, understanding their specifics and adjusting (or completely changing) teaching-learning strategies in order to make best use of the opportunities they

offer are of far larger significance. Strategies for collaborative teaching and using Web 2.0, as well as incorporating media education into a wide range of academic courses, not only into didactics of history and of civic education, require special attention. More empirical research in practical implementations of different concepts and ideas pertaining to media usage is needed as well as theoretical discussion of the concept of effectiveness of media and ICT. So far, too often recommendations presented in literature are based on personal ideas or experiences (even if tested then on a small sample) and effectiveness is measured by test scores not necessarily including all the skills developed thanks to using media, while comfort, motivation, attractiveness, enjoyment are neglected. The call for practical examples of introducing media literacy training into the ITT is even more urgent. We hope that our report that puts together practices and experiences from different European countries as well as the publications in the area of ICT and education, will rather open than close discussions and will set paths for further research, including the one concentrated onconcentrated on the use of media that are not covered in this report, e.g. social media, music and voice recordings, television and newspapers (including their electronic editions).

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