

GEFÖRDERT VOM



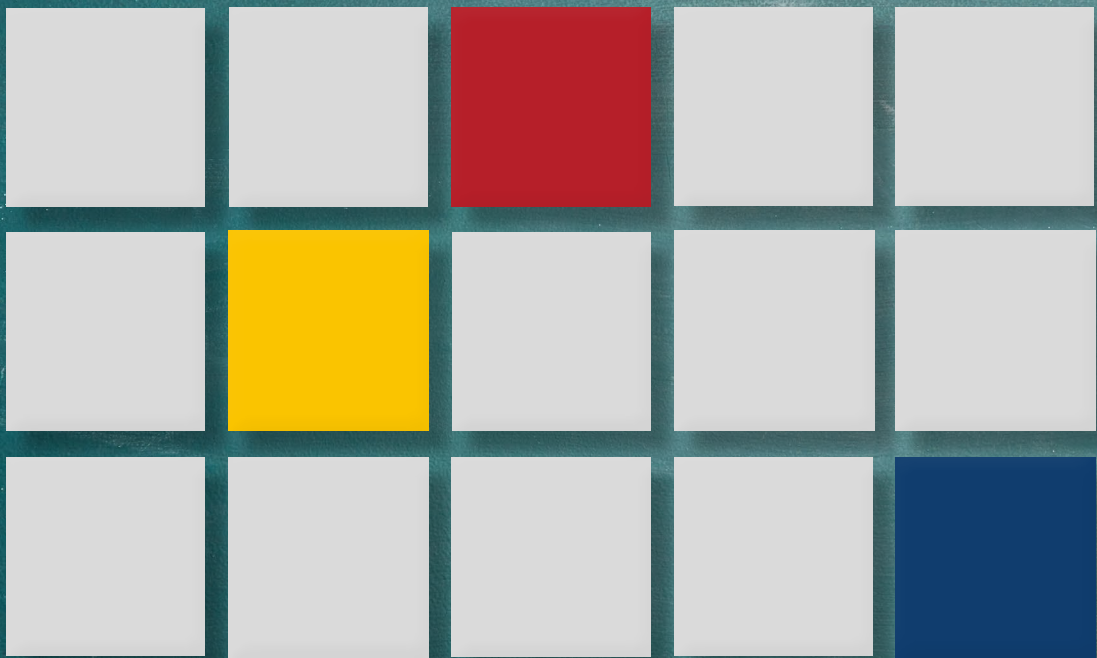
Bundesministerium
für Bildung
und Forschung



HEIDELBERG
SCHOOL OF
EDUCATION

heiEDUCATION JOURNAL

Transdisziplinäre Studien zur Lehrerbildung



10 | 2023

Critical Media Literacy in Teacher Education

HEIDELBERG
UNIVERSITY PUBLISHING

Heft 10 | 2023
Critical Media Literacy
in Teacher Education

Herausgegeben von
Lina Pranaitytė und Michael Haus

heiEDUCATION JOURNAL

Transdisziplinäre Studien
zur Lehrerbildung

heiEDUCATION Journal. Transdisziplinäre Studien zur Lehrerbildung
Jahrgang 6 | 2023

Editors

Petra Deger, Michael Haus

Assistant Editor

Bernd Hirsch

Editorial Board

Tobias Dörfler, Sebastian Mahner, Jörg Peltzer, Stefanie Samida, Christiane Wienand, Alexander Wohnig

Die Heidelberg School of Education ist eine gemeinsame hochschulübergreifende Einrichtung der Pädagogischen Hochschule Heidelberg und der Universität Heidelberg und wird über das Projekt heiEDUCATION 2.1 im Rahmen der gemeinsamen „Qualitätsoffensive Lehrerbildung“ von Bund und Ländern aus Mitteln des Bundesministeriums für Bildung und Forschung gefördert.



**UNIVERSITÄT
HEIDELBERG**
ZUKUNFT
SEIT 1386

Bibliografische Information der Deutschen Nationalbibliothek



Die Deutsche Nationalbibliothek verzeichnet diese Publikation in der Deutschen Nationalbibliografie; detaillierte bibliografische Daten sind im Internet über <http://dnb.dnb.de> abrufbar.

Dieses Werk ist unter der Creative-Commons-Lizenz CC BY-SA 4.0 veröffentlicht. Die Umschlaggestaltung unterliegt der Creative-Commons-Lizenz CC BY-ND 4.0.

Publiziert bei Heidelberg University Publishing (heiUP), 2023

Universität Heidelberg / Universitätsbibliothek
Heidelberg University Publishing (heiUP)
Grabengasse 1, 69117 Heidelberg
<https://heiup.uni-heidelberg.de>

Die Online-Version dieser Publikation ist auf den Verlagswebseiten von Heidelberg University Publishing <https://heiup.uni-heidelberg.de> dauerhaft frei verfügbar (Open Access).

doi: <https://doi.org/10.17885/heiup.heied.2023.10>

Text © 2023. Das Copyright der Texte liegt bei den jeweiligen Verfasser:innen.

ISBN 978-3-96822-212-7 (Print)
ISBN 978-3-96822-213-4 (PDF)

ISSN 2569-8524
eISSN 2626-983X

Inhalt

Editorial	5
Kelsey Darity and Suzanne Pratt “Giving them the Opportunity to Create” <i>Planning for Critical Media Literacy in a STEM+C Context</i>	17
Nina Jude Critical Media Literacy in international Large Scale Assessment? <i>Concepts, Measures and Results</i>	37
Yoo Kyung Chang, Shannon Suiru Lei and Xiaoyi Gabby Zhou Critical Media Literacy in the Times of Subjective Online Media Consumption	51
Sarah Chepkirui Creider Residents and Activists <i>Membership Categorization Analysis as a Critical Tool</i>	73
Michael Haus Towards a Political Reading of Film <i>Bringing together Critical Media Literacy and Political Theory</i>	91

FORUM

Annalisa Biehl und Kris-Stephen Besa 111
Überzeugungen zu kultureller Vielfalt angehender Lehrkräfte

Stephanie Brombach, Verena Petermann und Claudia von Aufschnaiter 133
Mentor:in sein
*Motivationale Ziele von Lehrkräften für die Aufgabenübernahme
als Mentor:in*

Editorial

Critical Media Literacy in Teacher Education

While for some of those engaged in teacher education the term ‘critical media literacy’ might be daunting, others might immediately sense fascination and curiosity. As for us, we believe that one should not be dismayed by such phrases too quickly just because they may not be as prominent in popular discourses or require a pause to grasp their full essence. Each and every single word in it bears a load of meaning, while all of them taken together hold timely, educationally valuable and purposeful content and practice. In fact, critical media literacy (CML) may be regarded as one of various crucial future literacies to be facilitated in teacher education and schools. In this *heiEDUCATION* special issue we aim to reveal the main points behind the framework of CML and simultaneously to emphasize its need in (teacher) education.

In the current media-saturated times, CML aims to expand the notion of literacy and to deepen critical engagement with the media (Kellner, Share 2007, 2019). By broadening the notion of literacy, CML starts with the presupposition that we communicate, read and write not only with letters and numbers, but with multiple forms of media: music, film, video, advertisement, popular culture, print media, television, photographs, computer games, etc. Simultaneously, CML emphasizes the need to deepen critical analysis of the various forms of media, information and communication technologies as well as those specific relationships between media and audiences, information and power (ibid.; Flores-Koulish 2005). At the heart of CML is the acknowledgement that media are not politically and normatively neutral, but an often misperceived source of cultural pedagogies “that teach us about ourselves and the world around us” (ibid.; Freire, Macedo 1987). The ultimate goal of CML is thus not only to learn with and about media, but with the same stroke of critical reading of media messages – to empower people to produce media themselves in order to be active, responsible citizens in democratic societies (ibid., p. xiii; see

also Dewey 1963, 1997; Freire 1970; Giroux 1994; Mihailidis 2014; Vincent-Lancrin et al. 2019; Trust et al. 2022; Buckingham 2000; Jenkins 2009). Accordingly, CML is a theoretical framework and practical pedagogy (Kellner, Share 2019).

In the past decades, democracies around the world have been alarmed if not shattered by the influences of (social) media. Especially in the U.S. and Europe, we are witnessing the rise of right-wing populism, historical revisionism and an increasing polarization around the topics of immigration, race, gender, sexuality, climate crisis and the like. Against this background, the voices that advocate for (critical) media literacy education¹ are rising exponentially on transnational and national levels (see e.g. UNESCO 2011; European Commission 2022; NAMLE 2007; Kultusministerkonferenz 2022). It seems that by now no one questions the need for media education all the way across pre-school to university curricula. There is just a fair amount of uncertainty of *how* to best develop those specific knowledge and skills applicable to the analysis of all kinds of media and its discourses.

‘Critical’ in CML does not mean that its practitioners are continually critiquing media or taking a negative stance towards its consumers or producers. Rather, CML emphasizes critical thinking skills and a critical approach of inquiry into the relations of power as well as their (re)production. In fact, CML is rooted in a number of historically rich and influential theories, schools of thought and disciplinary approaches: cultural studies, critical theory, critical pedagogy, feminist theory, intersectionality, positionality, social pragmatism, democracy pedagogy, social constructivism, semiotics, politics of representation, social and environmental justice, post-colonial studies, critical discourse analysis, critical race theory, etc. All of these frameworks question power disparities, socially constructed differences and categories such as gender, sexuality, race, ethnicity, class, age, (dis)ability, etc. Global axes of social and environmental injustices were and remain significant for CML as well. Influenced by such an opulent source, CML pedagogy is clearly not to be bound to one academic discipline, but comprises a spectrum of them.

- 1 There is by now a rich history of how media education has been named, especially in the English speaking countries. ‘Media literacy’, ‘media education’, ‘media literacy education’, ‘critical digital literacy’, etc., have been sometimes used interchangeably. While CML stands on the shoulders of many trailblazing scholars and relies on a significant number of interdisciplinary theories and practices that deal with critical analysis of various media texts, it aims to emphasize the word ‘critical’ in particular. While the topic of (critical) media literacy history is important, it is, however, not the focus of our introduction to this special issue. For more information and comparison see Vasquez et al. 2019; Morell et al. 2013; Flores-Koulish 2005; Kellner, Share 2007, 2019; Frau-Meigs 2012; Frau-Meigs et al. 2020.

Certainly, this makes CML everything but an apolitical framework. On the contrary, it highlights intersecting relationships of power, dominance and socially unjust representations. It also sees media communication as a transformative force of articulating alternative views towards society, experiences ignored by society's majority or the dominant discourse and the desire to play a role in a common democratic practice. For this reason, it is also worth noting that between critical media consumption and critical media production, there is a broad range of critical practices that are related to media, e.g. meeting and discussing with others, organizing critical events, etc. Consequently, biases, privileges, discriminatory experiences, lack of social justice and similar topics are at the centre of CML content and practices. This in turn means that teachers and educators are expected to possess conceptual and historical understanding, reflective and communicative competencies to skilfully stir such loaded conversations, along with showing enthusiasm and creativity while exploring the potentials of media in such conversations. Moreover, CML requires cross-disciplinary comprehension and the ability to keep up-to-date with changes in the media landscape. All of this can feel like an avoidable burden for many teachers and educators, who are already struggling with their fair share of daily workload.

The significant lack of tools, training and curricula materials to put CML theoretical framework into practice might also be the reason why CML is often stripped of the word 'critical' (as that which may cause trouble, but might be avoided), and enters the curricula only as the unquestioned 'media- and digital-literacy'. Limited guidance on how to facilitate *critical* media literacy skills is provided to educators and teachers alike. The rare examples of sound media literacy education only appear in the classrooms of media-savvy teachers, (online) offers of (non-)governmental organizations as well as one-off information and training events. However, guidance and support for a widespread implementation of CML education is missing. This challenge of CML pedagogies becomes even more complex, when one considers the multifaceted contexts in which educators try to navigate recommendations from international, national or local stakeholders.

While trailblazing their successful teacher education program at the University of California, Los Angeles, Kellner and Share also acknowledge the crux: CML is "not a pedagogy in the traditional sense, with firmly-established principles, a canon of texts, and tried-and-true teaching procedures" (2019, p. 7). There are indeed not that many teacher education programmes to tap into for comparisons or inspirations of how to teach (critical) media literacy (Nagle 2018; Tiede et al. 2015; Robertson, Hughes 2011; Mihailidis 2008; Maloy et al.

2021; Trope et al. 2021; Butler 2020). What might add more perplexity to the framework of CML is the understanding that to become critically media literate does not come with one course or training taken. One does not possess “a finite set of skills”, but rather has a “working knowledge of, and knowledge to apply, key concepts” (Buckingham 2003). Kellner and Share go further and suggest a set of questions that rely on Buckingham’s emphasized conceptual understandings, such as social constructivism, semiotics, positionality, politics of representation, etc. (2019, p. 8). Who has created the text? How could it be understood differently? Whom does it advantage or disadvantage? These are just several of the suggested questions that could lead students and teachers onto the CML path (ibid.; see also Flores-Koulish 2005). Since critical thinking is not a formula, as Kovach and Rosenstiel (2011, p. 210) argue, but a journey, asking questions is a sensible starting point for the process of deconstruction and critical inquiry.

CML classrooms are furthermore the spaces of changing power dynamics among students and teachers: “media literacy education as both content and process *per force* makes students and teachers co-learners” (Pacatte 2005, p. xi, emphasis in the original; see also Pranaitytė, Wienand 2023). Essentially, all texts (understood in the broadest sense) are socially constructed and the ways we read them are also never neutral (Vasquez et al. 2019, p. 306–307). It was Freire and Macedo (1987) who argued for a simultaneous learning to read the word and the world, emphasizing that “our reading of any text is mediated through our day-to-day experience and the places and spaces that we encounter and occupy, together with the languages we use” (Vasquez et al. 2019, p. 301). This does not mean to propagate moral relativism, but rather to stress the need to share different readings and engage in democratic talk. Inviting and recognizing diverse students’ knowledge, questions and multimodal practices into the classrooms enables discussions that are meaningful to them and to different communities, furthermore assuring the creation of a more inclusive critical curriculum (ibid., p. 306; see also Pranaitytė 2022).

There is no “one size fits all” solution in the field of CML and we emphasize the subtle combination of factors that need to be taken into consideration when creating teaching and learning programs that facilitate CML. Vasquez, Janks and Comber (2019, p. 306) argue that

Critical literacy should be viewed as a lens, frame, or perspective for teaching throughout the day, across the curriculum, and perhaps beyond, rather than as a topic to be covered or unit to be studied. What this means is that critical literacy involves having an ingrained critical

perspective or way of being that provides us with an ongoing critical orientation to texts and practices.

Learning and teaching CML is context specific (Hobbs, Jensen 2009; Vasquez et al. 2019), but we need sound research to detect to what extent, and which components and dimensions are sensitive to different learning environments. Notably, there is a significant lack of comparative studies and joint research initiatives that focus on pre-service teachers' understandings and practices of CML.

The complexity of and the need for CML in pre-service teacher education were the primary driving forces behind the transdisciplinary research and transfer cluster 'Critical Media Literacy' at the Heidelberg School of Education. Together with our colleagues from the Teachers College at Columbia University, we aim to enhance critical engagement with the media in various educational contexts by recognising the need for teacher education to include CML as a basic and crucial future literacies competence to bring into schools.

In an effort to unpack the ideas of how CML figures in pre-service teacher education across the Atlantic, we jointly conceptualized and carried out a virtual lecture series entitled *Critical Media Literacy: A Challenge for Teacher Education and Beyond*. From June to November 2021 we took turns between Heidelberg and New York and delved into the CML inquiries from different disciplinary and pedagogical angles. The present heiEDUCATION issue encompasses a significant part of the presentations that were live-streamed to the interested public. All authors are teacher educators and bring their specific expertise and experience in approaching and teaching through the CML framework.

In their contribution **Kelsey Darity** and **Suzanne Pratt** discuss ways STEM+C (science, technology, engineering, mathematics and computer science) teachers could create collaborative and experimental learning spaces that allow the enactment of CML in their pedagogies. The authors present a case study of such a space created for teacher learning within an institution of higher education, which supported newly graduated teachers working in high-need schools in New York City. As a collaborative learning space, Global Citizens united teachers and teacher educators in a 'sandbox' for interdisciplinary experimenting with teaching practices. Kelsey Darity and Suzanne Pratt simultaneously conducted research within this newly created space and were quick to indicate that CML practices of critical analysis of (multimedia) text, (re)construction and social action did not occur as a linear process. The firsthand collection of data was important in the later process of deconstruction and reconstruction, because it provided people with the knowledge of what ques-

tions to ask while analyzing data or communicating the knowledge gained from their research to peers and community members. This clearly facilitates the development of skills and goes beyond a general knowledge of scientific concepts towards a more nuanced understanding of the data and its impact. The authors addressed something particularly important in the CML context, which accentuates social action and change: STEM+C classes and their curriculum centered on data collection can help cast a light on the fact that science is slow and research takes time. Moreover, the findings suggest that a CML emphasis should not only rest on the analysis of media but also on its production (reconstruction) and distribution (social action), thus positioning students as knowers and agents of change rather than just critical consumers.

The contribution of **Nina Jude** discusses the presence and absence of CML concepts and frameworks in International Large Scale Assessment (ILSA), which assess students' competencies, attitudes and contexts of learning around the globe and in turn inform educational policies, funding decisions, curriculum and development programs. While the data from such assessments are used for long-term monitoring and play an important role in shaping the school system of the future, they focus only on a selected range of competencies in specific areas of literacy. The author thus examines existing ILSA to identify indicators and concepts relating to CML. Since CML is not 'one' competence but related to numerous qualities, for the purpose of the study Nina Jude identifies two aspects that CML includes and which serve as a starting point to approach ILSA, namely reading and digital literacies. The common aspects mentioned with regard to literacy include traces of CML, in particular while evaluating trustworthy sources, distinguishing between facts and opinions and critically assessing information found online. In the subsequent analyses of these assessments such literacy aspects are often associated with students' socio-economic background. The author concludes that CML should be more prominently targeted in ILSA, in curricula and classrooms, because young people increasingly spend time online in and outside of school and do not develop sophisticated digital skills just by growing up using digital devices.

The joint contribution of **Yoo Kyung Chang, Shannon Suiru Lei and Xiaoyi Gabby Zhou** discusses the notion of metaliteracy as an essential skill in educational contexts. The authors analyse data that illustrate online media consumption during the spread of the global pandemic and specifically examine news literacy. With social media being the primary channel where people access news, the effective understanding of such practices should be approached together with considerations of targeted news feeds, echo chambers, polarization, propaganda, conspiracy theories, fake news and misinfor-

mation. Yoo Kyung Chang, Shannon Suiru Lei and Xiaoyi Gabby Zhou argue that more studies need to be conducted while trying to cast more light on media design features, social practices and patterns of online news consumption as well as collective news production. Their research results confirm the subjective nature of online media consumption, which might be explained by media consumption habits. The authors emphasize that CML requires cognitive and metacognitive skills as a prerequisite to understand and apply appropriate strategies to navigate online media. They acknowledge that while CML is important in developing informed citizens, teaching and learning CML is a difficult endeavor primarily due to its interdisciplinarity and diverse definitions and interpretations. Yet metaliteracy, which refers to multiple literacies, promotes critical thinking as well as metacognitive awareness and skills to recognize one's practices of such literacies, is particularly important in fostering CML education. Furthermore, CML education should include the recognition that metacognition is also a sociocultural practice.

Sarah Creider offers an insightful contribution into the ways teachers can explore texts, build connections between them in local and national conversations and detect explicit as well as hidden ideologies, stereotypes and representations. The author provides concrete tools for teachers to use in their classrooms and shows how this could be done in practice with a powerful example from the U.S. context in 2020, following the murder of George Floyd. Membership categorization analysis (MCA) is used in order to cast light on the ways we tend to use (collections of) categories to refer to people and their actions. MCA is a method for understanding how speakers and authors use categorical terms (e. g. resident, activist, property-owner, mother, child, Black, White, etc.) and how close analysis of their use in texts can help in recognizing societal denials, silences and stereotypes as well as explicit racist ideologies. This makes MCA a particularly powerful tool in CML practice as it offers concrete steps for real-life conversation examples. By asking how and when people are assigned membership to certain categories, MCA also questions the ways they are built and used. One way to do this is by asking which terms were not chosen in a particular text to describe a particular context. And since texts are closely connected to the societies from which and for which they have been created, the relationships that are set up by the categories used in them should also come under scrutiny.

The contribution of **Michael Haus** discusses a 'political reading' of film. Being an essential part of popular culture, films create a tie between enjoyable entertainment and social self-thematization. Yet they are also shaped by political and economic conditions that need to be taken into consideration. The author

argues that dealing with media in the context of CML goes beyond the questioning of ‘truth’ within film content and beyond ‘harm prevention’ within the consumption of media. Michael Haus considers films not only as a tool for conveying educational content, but as a type of pedagogical text which should be based on an inherent democratic practice. While questioning the predominant power relations in society as being reinforced or challenged, films also provide expression forms for marginalized political or artistic groups. The author furthermore considers how a critical film analysis can serve the purpose of democratic education and empowerment, because, according to the author, “Learning and critical thinking, interpretation and political empowerment go hand in hand”. The importance of watching the film together with others in a group and then discussing it is highlighted for the educational and transformative effects primarily.

As the contributions to this special issue show, practical applications of CML in teaching and learning contexts are, thus, a work-in-progress on an international scale. We are delighted to facilitate this process and with this special issue – to contribute to the understanding and application of the concept in teacher education.

February 2023

Lina Pranaitytė and Michael Haus

Literatur

- Buckingham, David (2000). *The Making of Citizens. Young People, News and Politics*. London: Routledge
- Buckingham, David (2003). *Media Education. Literacy, Learning and Contemporary Culture*. Cambridge: Polity Press
- Butler, Allison T. (2020). *Educating Media Literacy. The Need for Critical Media Literacy in Teacher Education*. Leiden, Boston: Brill Sense
- Dewey, John (1963). *Experience and Education*. New York: Collier Books
- Dewey, John (1997). *Democracy and Education*. New York: Free Press
- European Commission, Directorate-General for Education, Youth, Sport and Culture (2022). *Final Report of the Commission Expert Group on Tackling Disinformation and Promoting Digital Literacy through Education and Training. Final Report, Publications Office of the European Union*. <https://op.europa.eu/en/publication-detail/-/publication/72421f53-4458-11ed-92ed-01aa75ed71a1/language-en> [02.05.2023]

- Flores-Koulish, Stephanie A. (2005). *Teacher Education for Critical Consumption of Mass Media and Popular Culture*. New York and London: Routledge Falmer
- Frau-Meigs, Divina (2012). Transliteracy as the New Research Horizon for Media and Information Literacy. *Medijske Studije*, 3:6, p. 14–27
- Frau-Meigs, Divina; Kotilainen, Sirkku; Pathak-Shelat, Manisha; Hoechsmann, Michael and Poyntz, Stuart R. (2020). *Handbook on Media Education Research*. Hoboken, NJ: Wiley
- Freire, Paulo and Macedo, Donald (1987). *Literacy. Reading the Word and the World*. Westport, CT: Bergin and Garvey
- Freire, Paulo (2010). *Pedagogy of the Oppressed*. (M. B. Ramos, Trans.) New York: The Continuum International Publishing Group, Inc.
- Giroux, Henry (1994). *Disturbing Pleasures. Learning Popular Culture*. New York: Routledge
- Hobbs, Renee and Jensen, Amy (2009). The Past, Present, and Future of Media Literacy Education. *Journal of Media Literacy Education*, 1, p. 1–11. <https://doi.org/10.23860/jmle-1-1-1> [02.05.2023]
- Jenkins, Henry (2009). *Confronting the Challenges of Participatory Culture. Media Education for the 21st Century*. The MIT Press. https://www.macfound.org/media/article_pdfs/jenkins_white_paper.pdf [02.05.2023]
- Kellner, Douglas and Share, Jeff (2007). Critical Media Literacy, Democracy, and the Reconstruction of Education. In: D. Macedo and S. R. Steinberg (eds.), *Media Literacy. A Reader*. New York: Peter Lang, p. 3–23
- Kellner, Douglas and Share, Jeff (2019). *The Critical Media Literacy Guide. Engaging Media and Transforming Education*. Leiden and Boston: Brill Sense
- Kovach, Bill and Rosenstiel, Tom (2011). *Blur. How to Know What's True in the Age of Information Overload*. New York: Bloomsbury
- Kultusministerkonferenz (2022). *Jahresbericht der Kultusministerkonferenz zur Bildung in der digitalen Welt*. https://www.kmk.org/fileadmin/veroeffentlichungen_beschluesse/2022/2022_12_08-Bericht-Bildung-in-der-digitalen-Welt.pdf [02.05.2023]
- Maloy, Robert W.; Trust, Torrey; Butler, Allison and Xu, Chenyang (2021). *Critical Media Literacy and Civic Learning. Interactive Explorations for Students and Teachers*. EdTech Books. <https://edtechbooks.org/mediaandciviclearning> [02.05.2023]
- Mihailidis, Paul (2008). Are We Speaking the Same Language? Assessing the State of Media Literacy in U. S. Higher Education. In: *Studies in Media and Information Literacy Education*, 8:4, p. 1–14

- Mihailidis, Paul (2014). *Media Literacy and the Emerging Citizen. Youth, Engagement and Participation in Digital Culture*. New York: Peter Lang
- Morrell, Ernest; Dueñas, Rudy; Garcia, Veronica and López, Jorge (2013). *Critical Media Pedagogy. Teaching for Achievement in City Schools*. New York: Teachers College Press
- Nagle, Joelle (2018). Twitter, Cyber-Violence, and the Need for a Critical Social Media Literacy in Teacher Education. A Review of the Literature. In: *Teaching and Teacher Education* 76, p. 86–94. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2018.08.014> [02.05.2023]
- NAMLE – National Association for Media Literacy Education (2007). *Core Principles of Media Literacy Education in the United States*. <https://namle.net/wp-content/uploads/2020/09/Namle-Core-Principles-of-MLE-in-the-United-States.pdf> [02.05.2023]
- Pacatte, Rose (2005). Foreword. In: S. A. Flores-Koulish (ed.): *Teacher Education for Critical Consumption of Mass Media and Popular Culture*. New York and London: Routledge Falmer, p. xi–xii
- Pranaitytė, Lina (2022). How to Use Media Meaningfully in Teaching and Learning Contexts. Jeff Share on Critical Media Literacy. In: *Fokus Lehrerbildung. Blog der Heidelberg School of Education*. <https://hse.hypotheses.org/3744> [02.05.2023]
- Pranaitytė, Lina and Wienand, Christiane (2023). Editorial. Transculturality in Teacher Education. In: *heiEDUCATION Journal*, 9, p. 5–11. <https://doi.org/10.17885/heiup.heied.2023.9.24720> [02.05.2023]
- Robertson, Lorayne and Hughes, Janette M. (2011). Investigating Pre-Service Teachers' Understandings of Critical Media Literacy. In: *Language and Literacy*, 13:2, p. 37–53. <https://doi.org/10.20360/G22S35> [02.05.2023]
- Tiede, Jennifer; Grafe, Silke and Hobbs, Renee (2015). Pedagogical Media Competencies of Preservice Teachers in Germany and the United States. A Comparative Analysis of Theory and Practice. In: *Peabody Journal of Education*, 90:4, p. 533–545. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/0161956X.2015.1068083> [02.05.2023]
- Trope, Alison; Johnson, DJ and Demetriades, Stefanie (2021). Media, Making and Movement. Bridging Media Literacy and Racial Justice through Critical Media Project. In: *Journal of Media Literacy Education*, 13:2, p. 43–54. <https://doi.org/10.23860/JMLE-2021-13-2-4> [02.05.2023]
- Trust, Torrey; Maloy, Robert; Butler, Allison and Goodman, Lauren (2022). *Critical Media Literacy in Teacher Education. Discerning*

- Truth Amidst a Crisis of Misinformation and Disinformation. In: *Journal of Technology and Teacher Education*, 30:2, p. 167–176
- UNESCO (2011). *Media and Information Literacy Curriculum for Teachers*. United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization. <https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000192971> [02.05.2023]
- Vasquez, Vivian Maria; Janks, Hilary and Comber, Barbara (2019). *Critical Literacy as a Way of Being and Doing*. In: *Language Arts*, 96:5, p. 300–311
- Vincent-Lancrin, Stéphan; González-Sancho, Carlos; Bouckaert, Mathias; de Luca, Federico; Fernández-Barrerra, Meritxell; Jacotin, Gwénaél; Urgel, Joaquin and Vidal, Quentin (2019). *Fostering Students' Creativity and Critical Thinking. What it Means in School*. Paris: OECD Publishing. <https://www.oecd.org/education/fostering-students-creativity-and-critical-thinking-62212c37-en.htm> [02.05.2023]

Kelsey Darity and Suzanne Pratt

“Giving them the Opportunity to Create”

Planning for Critical Media Literacy in a STEM+C Context

Abstract. The importance of Critical Media Literacy (CML) has been established, yet teachers, particularly those in science, technology, engineering, mathematics, and computer science (STEM+C) fields, remain unsure of how to implement these tenets in their classroom practice. In this article, we examine the ways that one group of STEM+C teachers in an experimental space grappled with taking on and implementing a CML lens and practices in curriculum development for a summer program. Our findings show that this space was vital as it allowed teachers to integrate their other spaces and work with CML practices to create something new. Critical Media Literacy does belong in the STEM+C classroom, and the space these teachers were granted allowed them the opportunity to figure out how to do it authentically. The importance of Critical Media Literacy (CML) has been established, yet teachers, particularly those in science, technology, engineering, mathematics, and computer science (STEM+C) fields, remain unsure of how to implement these tenets in their classroom practice. In this article, we examine the ways that one group of STEM+C teachers in an experimental space grappled with taking on and implementing a CML lens and practices in curriculum development for a summer program. Our findings show that this space was vital as it allowed teachers to integrate their other spaces and work with CML practices to create something new. Critical Media Literacy does belong in the STEM+C classroom, and the space these teachers were granted allowed them the opportunity to figure out how to do it authentically.

Keywords. Curriculum development, STEM+C, Critical Media Literacy

“Ihnen die Gelegenheit geben, etwas zu gestalten“

Planungen für „Critical Media Literacy“ in einem MINT-Kontext

Zusammenfassung. Die Bedeutung von Critical Media Literacy (CML) ist bekannt, aber Lehrkräfte, insbesondere in den Bereichen Naturwissenschaften, Technik, Ingenieurwesen, Mathematik und Informatik (MINT), sind nach wie vor unsicher, wie sie diese Grundsätze in ihrer Unterrichtspraxis umsetzen sollen. Der Beitrag untersucht die Art und Weise, wie eine Gruppe von MINT-Lehrkräften in einem experimentellen Raum die CML-Linse und -Praktiken in die Lehrplanentwicklung für ein Sommerprogramm aufgenommen und umgesetzt hat. Unsere Ergebnisse zeigen, dass dieser Raum von entscheidender Bedeutung war, da er es den Lehrkräften ermöglichte, ihre anderen Räume zu integrieren und mit CML-Praktiken zu arbeiten, um etwas Neues zu schaffen. Critical Media Literacy gehört in den MINT -Unterricht, und der Raum, der diesen Lehrkräften eingeräumt wurde, gab ihnen die Möglichkeit, herauszufinden, wie sie dies authentisch umsetzen können.

Schlüsselwörter. Curriculumentwicklung, MINT-Fächer, Critical Media Literacy

1 Purpose

To exist in the modern era is to be inundated with media. Teenagers in the United States engage with media (e. g., films, television, websites, blogs, social media) about nine hours a day (Media Literacies 2022)! Our lives are “increasingly crowded with dynamic digital doings” (Vasquez et al. 2019, p. 300) as we experience a soaring reliance on mass media and digital forms of communication. Because media – and producers of media – shape values, culture, and identity formation (Tebaldi, Nygreen 2022), the importance of CML (CML) has been established. The media serve as an outlet for those in power to shape dominant narrative (Morrell 2008), making vital the ability for students to analyze and create media while also interrogating power structures inherent in and often reproduced by media (Critical Media Project). This is even more true when our students are members of a much maligned and stereotyped segment of the population: youth of color in urban areas (EJI 2021). CML “positions students to assume a sense of agency and activism and desire to be civically engaged with real issues in the world” (Haddix et al. 2016, p. 34) and “allows them to develop a greater sense of self-efficacy and a deeper understanding of their self-worth” (Trope et al. 2021, p. 52). Yet teachers remain unsure of how to implement CML in their curricula.

Teachers’ dispositions and pedagogical practices are essential to the work of preparing students to engage with texts (including media) critically (Vasquez et al. 2019) as they must understand institutional systems and the ways that power circulates in them while also interrogating texts for these aspects. To teach CML skills, “it is therefore crucial that K12 educators understand the messages that they and their students receive and internalize” (Joanou 2017, p. 41). How can teachers be expected to do this without themselves being equipped with the necessary skills? Supports for this work are minimal (Robertson, Hughes 2011), and “media education in K12 schooling [...] has never really been established and developed” (Kellner, Share 2007, p. 4). Even with a growing number of media literacy organizations, teachers continue to be provided mostly with “text-only guidance and resources that remain largely descriptive in nature” (Trope et al. 2021, p. 45). Teachers cannot be expected to teach what they have not been taught, and we argue that teachers need space to play with CML approaches so they can figure out what these look like for them in order to create authentic experiences for their students. In this article, we seek to explore the outcomes of hosting an experimental space for secondary science, technology, engineering, mathematics, and computer science (STEM+C) teachers to develop a CML lens and practices so they can take them up in their own teaching and curriculum development.

2 Theoretical Framework

2.1 Critical Media Literacy

We cannot discuss CML without also tracing its foundations of critical pedagogy and critical literacy. CML is, at heart, informed by critical pedagogy. The Frankfurt School developed critical theory as social critique to bring about change, taking into account the social, historical, and ideological contexts in which we all operate. Those who undertake critical theory can work to understand the ways they, as members of a society with a constructed power hierarchy, exist in that society while also understanding none of this is inherent and can be changed (Yosso 2002). Freire (1970) took up critical theory as he taught reading the world alongside reading the word such that we can make “visible and examin[e] relations of power in order to change and dismantle inequitable ways of being” (Vasquez et al. 2019, p. 301).

From Freire’s use of critical pedagogy comes seminal ideas of critical literacy, or “a way of being through which to participate in the world in and outside of school” (ibid., p. 300). Through a focus on the ways language, images, and other

semiotic systems are used to create meaning, the critically literate are able to more deeply understand how power structures are developed and maintained through discursive practices (Vasquez et al. 2019), particularly in representations of class, gender, race, sexuality, and other forms of identity used to justify inequities and oppression.

Though there is no single correct way to ‘do’ critical literacy, there are several key tenets. Critical literacy is a lens through which to view multimodal texts, draws on students’ funds of knowledge, assumes the importance of real-world relevance, rests on the foundational assumption that texts are constructed and are therefore never neutral, asserts the ways we read text are not neutral but instead informed by our life experiences, views the world as socially constructed and readable, allows us to both understand and question the sociopolitical systems in which we exist, and makes transformation possible through creation of new texts (ibid.).

In this article, we expand upon Kellner and Share’s (2007) early definition of CML as critical analysis of media sources by adding the Critical Media Project’s (Media Literacies 2022) conception of CML skills: “the ability to access, analyze, evaluate, and create media in a variety of forms” while also interrogating the power structures inherent in media. Here, the focus is on not just analysis of media but also emphasizes the importance of production (reconstruction) and distribution (social action) in ways that push students’ thinking (Trope et al. 2021). In this way, students are positioned as knowers and agents of change rather than just critical consumers; they are able to “produce texts that matter to them in different formats and for different audiences and purposes” (Janks 2010, p. 156), to see themselves as people whose ideas, and therefore identities, matter, while also “better understand[ing] the process of media construction” (Mason 2016, p. 83).

2.2 Space

A dedicated experimental space is necessary for teachers to collaborate, play, and take ownership of a pedagogical lens such as CML. Space holds a ‘becoming’ or changing and unfolding nature such that multiple and interrelated narratives of and in that space are possible. In this “emergent, incomplete, and unpredictable” (Talbut 2000, p. 19) space, participants, or co-producers of the space, are simultaneously impacted by the other spaces in which they exist (e.g., home, community). At the same time, they are inherently able to alter the spaces in which they participate, and are actively working to create the new shared space. Through this lens, an open and democratic space is a space of a vast array of

future possibilities, of potential for change to be enacted. For STEM+C teachers who bring a great deal of other spaces (e.g., content knowledge, skills) to create a new curriculum-making space, a spatial lens allows us to honor the ways these past experiences and areas of expertise have impacted teachers’ ideas about the ways they could enact CML in their pedagogies.

3 Methods

3.1. Context

We focus on an experimental space, Global Citizens (GC), created for teacher learning, which is hosted by an institution of higher learning (IHE). It grew from a new-teacher induction program supporting newly graduated teachers working in high-need schools in New York City that runs in association with a residency-model teacher preparation program. Graduates often continue to collaborate with the IHE in various ways for years beyond the formal residency and induction programs including mentoring pre-service teachers, leading/participating in professional development workshops, and joining a range of extended collaborative learning spaces.

GC is a collaborative space that grew from graduates’ interest in enhancing their practice through experimentation with theoretical pedagogical ideas they aspired to enact in their classrooms. From this, teachers and teacher educators created a ‘sandbox’ for experimenting with teaching practices. They worked to make an autonomous interdisciplinary space where they felt safe to be vulnerable while innovating around ambitious pedagogical ideas. Teachers who participate in the space have a range of teaching experience and move in and out of the space depending on their band-width and current professional goals. Some teachers are graduates from the IHE residency program, and others have worked as mentor teachers or are affiliates of the IHE collaborating in other ways. In 2022, the team consisted of 15 members (characteristics of the group illustrated in Figure 1). The cycle of planning typically follows the layout in Figure 2.

There are no limits to the kind of curriculum the team can create but to date the group has divided into two clusters, both of which are focused on creating and implementing STEM+C curriculum:

Citizen Scientist (CS): Centers on developing knowledges, skills and mind-sets related to scientific inquiry with emphasis placed on field-based and data collection experiences as modes of better understanding the root of a

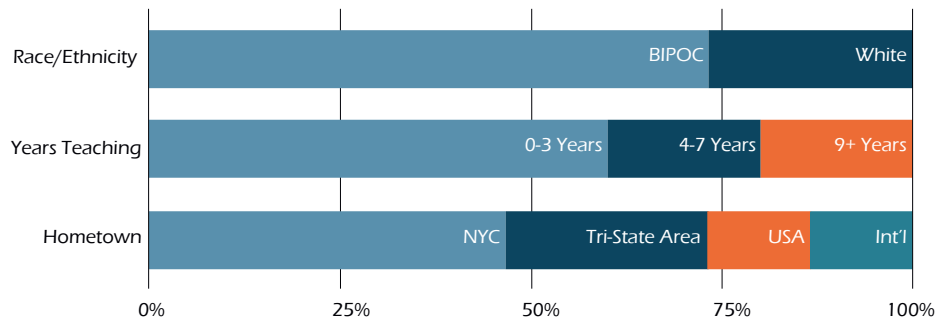


Figure 1: Participant Characteristics

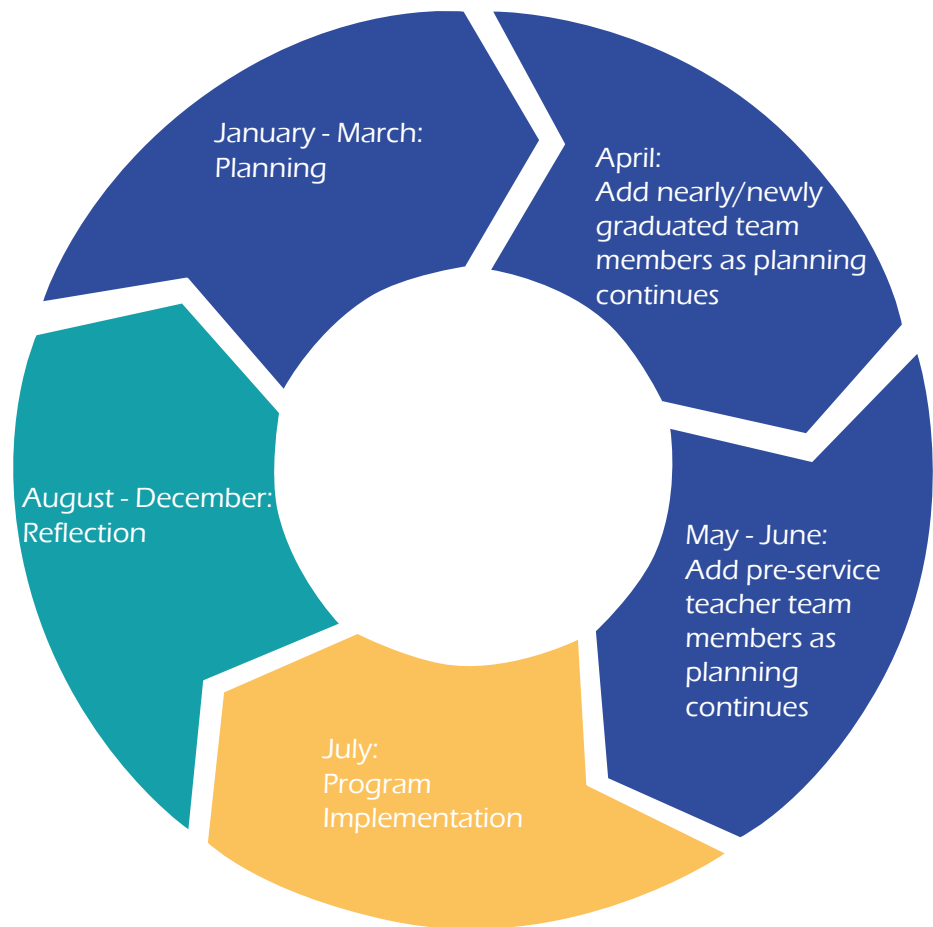


Figure 2: Gloabel Citizens Timeline

problem. In its fifth iteration of design, the curriculum has typically focused on the health of local water bodies in collaboration with environmental science partners in the city.

Digital Citizens (DC): Focuses on using computer science, engineering and design-thinking knowledges, skills and mindsets to understand and address a problem in the local community. In its third iteration of design, emphasis is placed on building, iterating and aligning ideas with voiced concerns of community members.

2022 represented a shift in curriculum as both groups were connected to new local partners affiliated with Morningside Park (i.e., the NYC Parks Dept and a volunteer association), who were looking for people to help address an issue with a Harmful Algal Bloom in the park’s pond. The park is historically a site of racial and class contention; in 1968 the majority white IHE attempted to build a university gym on the city-owned land that would offer only limited access, through a separate door, to largely minoritized members of the community. This led to protests from both community members and IHE students, and the project was disbanded, leaving a partially dug foundation in the middle of the park (Collins 2015). Twenty years later, the community worked to transform the hole into a pond for park-goers to enjoy; now the pond is in a state of disrepair, hence the new partnership.

The curriculum team was excited about this opportunity as they discussed how the park’s history represented “an example of communities addressing a problem” while also allowing students to participate in addressing a new problem in intersecting ways – CS focusing on data collection and understanding the scientific aspects contributing to the problem; DC emphasizing developing potential ways to address the varied aspects of the problem.

3.2 Study Design

This year, a GC focus was considering how to align both curricula with CML tenets. Members of the curriculum team spent time considering CML principles and practices to plan what it might look like for students to engage in learning through this lens.

This case study investigates the complexities and “abstract aspect(s) of human experience” (Dyson, Genishi 2005, p. 3) that encompass the learning and experimentation of teachers engaged in the development of GC curricula while also

making sense of old and new pedagogical practices. We were particularly interested in better understanding how ideas, meanings, and creative considerations centered around CML principles aligned with their work in this context.

Data were collected in the spring and summer of 2022 as the team prepared for implementation of their curriculum in July. Data collection methods included participant observation by both authors, audio recordings of working sessions, and collection of artifacts developed by the team (e.g., curriculum documents, primary source materials).

3.3 Data Analysis

Though team members experimented with the application of a range of pedagogical approaches, our analysis centered around teachers' grappling and planning in connection to CML principles. Data were initially analyzed inductively using a coding system of deconstruct/reconstruct/social action (Jones 2006) to provide an initial foundation for making sense of how planning in the space was (or was not) aligned with tenets of critical literacy, of which CML is one particular application. By *deconstruct* we refer to the aspect, "that promises to keep us aware that all texts are constructed and therefore can be deconstructed, taken apart bit-by-bit to unveil power, perspective, and positioning" (Jones 2006, p. 75). *Reconstruct* refers to the act of creating new information, objects, and written texts and "also encompasses the overt reconstruction of identities" (ibid., p. 76). *Social action* is connected to the act of communicating and connecting and "comes in all shapes and sizes from short-term campaigns in classrooms [...] to long-term inquiry and action projects around a particular social issue" (ibid., p. 78). After this process, we looked deductively for patterns within the data to identify general themes that emerged.

4 Findings

Here we interpret how participants in this study made sense of and took up components of CML in their practice by developing curricula for students. The process of doing CML is not linear; deconstruction, reconstruction, and social action do not always appear in that order nor are they discrete stages, which may be due to the disciplinary context. Teachers designed opportunities for students to construct, rather than reconstruct, media as they would be creating something new rather than redesigning extant media or texts. Therefore, we refer to the act of reconstruction as (re)construction throughout our findings and discussion;

this stage took the form of an iterative process of perspective-taking and mastering tools to take on this work.

4.1 A Nonlinear Process

As participants collaborated to build curriculum, we learned that CML practices need not occur in a linear format. Though deconstruction and critical analysis of (multimedia) text may seem as if it should precede (re)construction and social action, this is not always the case. Teachers participated in deconstruction of text before designing opportunities for students to practice skills and gain mastery of the tools needed to produce their own knowledge base and share this with relevant parties (e. g., NYC Parks Dept).

Data collection for (re)construction was frontloaded for students; in this way, they were not only positioned as knowers but were also able to talk about the process of collecting data from a firsthand perspective. This experience led to students understanding data production methods such that in later deconstructions (and subsequent reconstructions), they know what kinds of questions to ask. During the creation of these curricula, teachers prioritized student opportunities to build a toolkit of ways knowledge can be constructed so that students can practice these before moving to another phase.

4.1.1 Teacher Work

Teachers facilitated the CML process by first working to choose relevant problems for students to engage with. Students were able to select their own focal micro-problem, but teachers pre-selected the larger problem of the pond in Morningside Park based on its relevance to NYC rather than something more general, such as oil spills. A teacher reflected on this specificity by saying,

[n]ow we can look at the actual New York City problem and the power of that, we were saying is, sometimes you have these problems; you never know what happens to it, it seems removed, even if I bought into it. But when's the last time they've been in the bottom of the ocean? So, the difference, like, they see this overridden with algae park in the middle of New York City [...] [and can] now think of it as, oh, I can enact change.

This teacher is identifying a problem for students to work on and defending its relevance. Another teacher also spoke of the necessity of “an authentic invitation or an authentic call to action that kind of sets up the stage for everything”

to “move accountability and motivation,” whether from a community leader or member of the NYC Parks Department.

To provide more context for students before they set out to (re)construct a text about the pond, these STEM+C teachers engaged in their own deep dive (deconstruction) of the sociohistorical context of the pond. Though they did not plan to have students replicate this work, students did still benefit from a critical analysis, as one teacher suggested,

[w]hy don't we talk about the advocacy that happened in Morningside Park where Columbia tried to make this gym but wanted people to go in the back entrance in the community, and how people stood up and basically said, no, we don't want that and instead made the pond.

Here, it is evident teachers have asked their own questions about the pond. Where did it come from? Who created it? Why? In answer to these questions, they were able to learn of racial and class tensions between (largely white and higher SES) university faculty and administrators and (largely BIPOC and lower SES) members of the West Harlem and Morningside Heights community. Therefore, teachers planned to have students interrogate the research they had already undertaken in order to gain context on the pond.

4.1.2 Student Work

Because of teacher efforts to identify a multi-faceted, relevant problem and their efforts at deconstructing the social, historical, and political aspects of that problem, the teachers were able to design a curriculum where students could build skills and knowledge to address the part of the problem they saw as most pressing. This resulted in a STEM+C curriculum intended to teach students the tools of (re)construction such that they can then effectively deconstruct future texts. Teachers spoke of the importance of “recognizing there's different tools [students] could use to communicate there's a problem. So I think providing opportunities and showing students that one tool is not more effective than another, but it's just a pathway you can choose to communicate.” This teacher speaks to the importance of students' ability to decide which media to use in their creations (Marsh 2016) because the type of media selected for (re)construction impacts what can be communicated to an audience. Another teacher agreed, saying,

One of the things we're doing is giving them the opportunity to create [...] using that media. So we're going to use algorithms to create a solution so that the critical part is them having the ownership of what they're creating,

because right now, the structure, the power, the way it is [...] doesn't really tell them that they are allowed to create.

Both of these teachers highlight the importance of students beginning with a phase of (re)construction rather than through deconstruction of text. By prioritizing media production, these teachers equip students with essential knowledge and skills such that they can question and critically analyze future texts.

Another teacher built on this concept by discussing the ways students are able to “use [a digital media algorithm] for our advantage” by gaining “a better understanding of how code works, so that when [they]’re looking at a program, they have that experience, and they can interpret it differently.” He explained that by empowering students with knowledge of an algorithmic function, they won’t be left “wondering why you just said something that’s showing up on TikTok,” and can instead “understand that it’s not magic. There’s something happening with this device that’s creating the feed to that gate here, right, so that creates a better understanding of the world.” This knowledge demystifies the ways media and texts find their way to students so they can, in the future, ask questions of and manipulate algorithms that work to maintain balances of power. In this way, students are able to “extend their range of semiotic resources” (Janks 2010, p. 156) to more effectively deconstruct media messages.

These teachers, in the building of a curriculum focused on (re)construction of media, never lose sight of the greater purpose for learning these skills. One teacher concretely envisions students applying their knowledge production skills to critical reading of media when he says, “they hear something, like, the Hudson River is disgusting and dirty. What does that actually mean? How dirty is it? They’ll be able to ask those questions and then know the tools they can use to actually measure that.” When students lack the disciplinary skills to understand how a message can or should be formed, the curriculum must focus first on building that foundation. Otherwise, students cannot know what questions they should be asking to discern the implied messages of the media. When students are able to collect their own data, decide if they need more data and if so, what kind, and then consciously and intentionally decide “what story can we tell based off what we just saw here,” they better understand and can engage in the process of wondering what story someone else is trying to tell.

Though much of the curriculum developed by these teachers is focused on (re) construction, skill-building, and demystification of the ways in which knowledge is produced, their end goal, which connects to the authenticity of the project and requires a targeted audience, is social action. The teachers proposed a com-

munity event for students to present their findings to interested stakeholders through, “[a] time series of Morningside, some kind of public service announcement about what’s going on, or a proposal to the Parks Department. Obviously, there can be more than that, as long as all these things include evidence and data.” By engaging in this activity, students are positioned as people whose knowledge matters and are able to advise community members as to “how they could contribute to helping the health of the pond.” However, teachers were all too aware that affecting any substantive social action in the short time frame was not possible and was therefore not prioritized.

4.2 (Re-)Construction: Teachers Create Opportunities for Text Production

Curriculum team members considered potential approaches for student experiences of (re)construction while reflecting on the role of data transparency in directing a broad narrative that informs how we consume and make sense of information. As one teacher put it,

[m]any times media outlets will take the data, not share what they’re collecting and then use it as a way to manipulate [...] a dominant perspective. We talk a lot about how algorithms are used to actually push inequity rather than finding equity. I feel like [...] we’re being transparent about what data we’re collecting and how we’re using [it] to support our community [...] [it] is a component that’s weaved in both our programs.

Teachers wanted students to have a firsthand understanding of the process of data collection, analysis and synthesis, and worked to build entry points that would prepare students to ask questions about, “Where did [the data] come from? [...] What was the purpose of getting that data?” while also considering the reliability of sources. In one conversation, teachers considered, “explicitly building around identifying when given reliable data but reliable sources are using the data in a biased way [...] it’s happening so often and I feel like it’s key [...] and it’s not enough [...] to say we should understand data better.” As teachers negotiated these challenges, they developed learning experiences that offered iterative opportunities for students to visit data collection and problem solving skills while focusing on a central problem. These cycles were designed to build understanding through science and engineering lenses while also having students evaluate where data comes from and how it is reported.

4.2.1 Citizen Scientist

CS teachers built the curriculum to utilize data collection methods focused on looking at water bodies from biological, chemical, and physical perspectives. “There’s also the qualitative aspects and quantitative aspects of the data that they’re collecting that I feel like creates various access points,” one teacher stated as the group worked to consider how to build the curriculum in ways that offered opportunities to delve deeply into the discipline.

Students collect data using the three methods while moving between four sites that offer points of comparison to their central location. This intentional aspect of iteration is both educative and scientific; it offers various opportunities to practice data collection skills and consistently review scientific concepts introduced at each instance of data collection. Teachers designed this process so,

[...] we similarly have an end product in which students have to think about ways in which they communicate their knowledge they’ve been gaining through all the [...] data analysis they’ve been doing, and how they can communicate that to communities to make sure that we’re involving everybody.

This mixture of (re)construction and social action provides space for students to collect and work with data to a point where they are able to “communicate their knowledge” to others. This requires students to move beyond a general knowledge of scientific concepts toward a more nuanced understanding of the data and its impact. Students must be able to make decisions about how to discuss their findings to peers and community members to help them understand the implications, potential solutions and possible impacts on the surrounding ecosystem. In this way, students are considering multiple perspectives and their audience as they (re)construct text to share with others.

Teachers were also thinking about this process as a way to introduce students to better understanding, “the relationship between who’s collecting or doing the science and who the science is on, or about, or supposed to help [...] there’s often a disconnect between those two.” This relationship takes on new meaning when students have firsthand experience of the data collection cycle. Teachers worked to enhance this connection by designing opportunities for students to meet scientists who worked in and were from the local community and developed ways for student data to be added to larger scientific data sets. By seeing scientists who share their demographics, students are able to envision themselves as pro-

ducers of knowledge that impacts their daily lives rather than subject to someone else making decisions that perpetuate a dominant narrative for them.

4.2.2 Digital Citizens

Iteration was central to the development of the DC curriculum as it was built using the design thinking framework (in this case, discover, define, design, develop, deliver). A framework commonly used in engineering and other creative problem-solving industries, design thinking is iterative by nature. One teacher described the approach of this cycle:

Each week, they'll go through the cycle [...] how am I collecting data about the issue? [...] write them down and com[e] up with a question. They're going through the cycle, so they will have opportunities at first to collect data [...] from the [CS], try prototyping a solution, getting feedback from each other and also from engineers [...] revisiting the problems they are saying that they have to kind of iterate on their solution.

Within the program, teachers aim to support students in “getting really good at iteration” and “incorporating new [...] things we're talking about [...] especially sciences” into the way they are thinking about understanding a problem and approaching solving it. Here, the problem is concrete and provides a tangible illustration of something they are working to solve. Being able to see it, touch it and talk with people in the area about it, provides students an opportunity to access multiple perspectives including some that are not often considered (e.g., BIPOC community members who use the park) as they develop potential solutions.

Teachers are also using this experience as an opportunity to introduce students to concepts such as computational and algorithmic thinking and connecting those to considerations of “communities, [...] relationships and how we build relationships and how narratives inform how we build relationships.” Teachers are developing curriculum meant for students to spend time working with the literal nuts and bolts of technology while enhancing a lens through which to consider the role of technology in addressing the park problem and also beyond. In this way, through (re)construction, students are simultaneously learning the skills of the discipline.

4.3 CML in STEM+C

As the GC team created curricula, they represented two scenarios that lent themselves to non-sequential, almost haphazard applications of the deconstruct/(re)construct/social action framework. Curriculum planning in general included a recognition of many unknowns. One teacher stated, “I don’t know exactly what’s gonna play out. And I think the beauty of that, when we first got introduced to the pond, it’s a complex problem.” At the same time, the contextual and situational nature of the problem created opportunities to develop learning experiences designed to approximate processes used by professionals working in relevant STEM+C fields. These were layered in ways where CML principles were present but not predictably sequenced. This allowed teachers to consider how students might critically engage in the discourse of science and engineering through a CML lens while also making space to situate the disciplinary fluency students were developing in a local context. This meant teachers needed to grapple with the realities of work in these fields, as they came to recognize that data collection and problem solving in science and engineering do not fit neatly into the three-week timeline of a summer program.

4.3.1 “Science is Slow”

Teachers’ focus on data collection and analysis methods in the CS curriculum offered space for students to develop insight into where data comes from. Data collected by students would be shared with community partners who would incorporate it into more extensive data sets. At the same time, this process also meant introducing students to the reality that, “science is actually really slow, it takes a really long time to do.” Teachers considered how to “mitigate the instant gratification dilemma” of students (and teachers) wanting to see their own impact by witnessing some sort of social change from their actions.

By situating the curriculum in a way that centered data collection, teachers introduced aspects of research rarely discussed when data is presented in a published form. The slow timeline, dilemmas of understanding the nuanced research process, and frustration with the unknown are rarely topics of conversation once research is finalized. Introducing these elements into the students’ experience required teachers to consider how to remove an expectation of “figur[ing] out the whole problem” in a short period and develop a new understanding of the complexity of the relationship between “data collection, problem solving, it takes time.” Teachers had to consider the implications for CML in a STEM+C context due to this extended timeline of doing science.

4.3.2 “I Don’t Have an Answer”

DC teachers had to acclimate themselves to being OK with instructional spaces where, “I don’t have the answer, you don’t have the answer.” This meant there were significant levels of ambiguity within the curriculum as the aim was to, “push the students so we’re not solving the problem for them, that’s what they’re learning to do, think about different ways to solve the problem.” Because students would be contributing to the work of a real problem with NYC Parks Department collaborators (e. g., engineers and scientists), there would be no solution that teachers could ‘give’ students at the end of the program. Instead, their aims would be to help students understand the parallel processes that community collaborators were going through to contribute to addressing an issue that extended beyond the walls of a classroom and to emphasize the cyclical nature of the problem. One teacher said, “[t]hat kind of ties into the whole process of always thinking of new innovative ways to address a problem [...] just because it’s a solution now doesn’t mean it’s gonna be a sustainable one forever.”

This idea of on-going problem solving as a mindset rather than destination extends to developing a critical eye that looks beyond a situational problem toward the future. In this way, CML presents itself as a cycle; the (re)constructed text will not always be applicable or useful because sociopolitical contexts change, and as these contexts change, the produced text can continue to be deconstructed and reconstructed as needed.

5 Significance

These findings inform our thinking of how teachers can take up CML when provided with an experimental space to do so. Teachers need space to think about how to enact theoretical practices in their classrooms and refine their teaching practice with colleagues who are working toward similar aims.

Because a pedagogical lens can look different in different disciplines, providing teachers a ‘sandbox’ space to play in, where they are able to bring each of their identities to create a space that can become something new or more, is essential. These teachers were granted time and physical space to engage with new ideas, allowing them to create curricula informed by CML where there previously was none. Professional development often consists of being presented with an array of resources; teachers then return to their classrooms without having had the opportunity to engage with the resources, so their practice remains unchanged (Butler 2019). Instead, when taking on a new approach to teaching content and

skills, teachers need to experience “critically engag[ing] the media and popular culture and connect[ing] these texts to critical theory” to “open the possibility for them to transform their classrooms into sites for social change” (Joanou 2017, p. 41). These spaces are necessary for teachers to discover and plan a sustainable CML connection to their disciplines (Butler 2019).

Too often, teachers believe CML and other literacies belong in humanities classrooms, but we argue it fits naturally into all disciplines though it may take on a different form in STEM+C settings. Science moves slowly and involves a great deal of risk-taking and failure; this means sustainable social change takes time. Therefore, social action in this context may look like contributing to a data set or joining a conversation that is ongoing after students are no longer a part of it, so teachers need to find manageable bits of social action so students remain motivated to see their projects through. In these curricula, teachers defined social action as students sharing their findings with stakeholders so that, though the project is on-going, students are able to complete the program with the sense that what they did mattered. These small acts align with Kuby’s (2013) argument that “social action can happen in day-to-day occurrences and relationships as well as large-scale group endeavors” (p. 107). In addition to students walking away with new ways of thinking about and understanding the world around them, teachers also hope students leave the program with an understanding that, though positioned by the media as “other” (EJI 2021), they are people whose words and ideas matter and are worthy of being shared with a wider audience. In this way, change in student identities is the social action.

Implementing CML practices takes time. Our participants found they did not have space to include opportunities for students to authentically deconstruct, reconstruct, and plan for and participate in social action. These findings suggest it cannot be a one-time project or assignment but rather needs room to breathe. When engaging with new content and skills, however, students may benefit from the concrete act of constructing before the more abstract phases of deconstructing and reconstructing media. Yet students also need spaces where they are able to take up the work of deconstructing and taking social action. For our participants, this may take the form of extending this project throughout the school year so students are able to take the skills they have learned to more effectively question, or deconstruct, the texts they encounter in the classroom and beyond. Teachers then need to develop follow-up opportunities for students to engage in reconstruction of these texts.

Teachers need space to continue to reflect and reconsider their pedagogical practices and the ways in which pedagogical theories and practices show up in

their classrooms. The GC space was vital to the work that happened as it acted as a space to figure out how to integrate teachers' other spaces and work to create something new. CML does belong in the STEM+C classroom, and the space these teachers were granted allowed them the opportunity to figure out how to do it authentically.

Bibliography

- Butler, Allison T. (2019). *Educating Media Literacy. The Need for Critical Media Literacy in Teacher Education*. Leiden: Brill
- Collins, Christiane C. (2015). *A Storm Foretold*. Columbia University and Morning-side Heights, 1968. EBook Bakery
- Dyson, Anne H. and Genishi, Celia (2005). *On the Case. Approaches to Language and Literacy Research*. New York: Teachers College Press
- Equal Justice Initiative (2021). *Report Documents Racial Bias in Coverage of Crime by Media*. <https://eji.org/news/report-documents-racial-bias-in-coverage-of-crime-by-media/> [13.04.2023]
- Freire, Paulo (1970). *Pedagogy of the Oppressed*. New York: Continuum
- Haddix, Marcelle; Garcia, Antero and Price-Dennis, Detra (2016). *Youth, Popular Culture, and the Media. Examining Race, Class, Gender, Sexuality, and Social Histories*. In: K. A. Hinchman and D. A. Appleman (eds.), *Adolescent Literacies. A Handbook of Practice-Based Research*. New York: The Guilford Press, p. 21–37
- Joanou, Jamie P. (2017). *Examining the World Around Us. Critical Media Literacy in Teacher Education*. In: *Multicultural Perspectives*, 19:1, p. 40–46. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15210960.2017.1267514> [13.04.2023]
- Jones, Stephanie (2006). *Girls, Social Class, and Literacy. What Teachers Can Do to Make a Difference*. München: Heinemann
- Kellner, Douglas and Share, Jeff (2007). *Critical Media Literacy Is Not an Option*. In: *Learning Inquiry*, 1:1, p. 59–69
- Kuby, Candace R. (2013). *Critical Literacy in the Early Childhood Classroom. Unpacking Histories, Unlearning Privilege*. New York: Teachers College Press
- Marlatt, Rick (2020). *Encounter and Counter. Critical Media Literacy in Teacher Education*. In: *Journal of Media Literacy Education*, 12:2, p. 93–99. <https://doi.org/10.23860/JMLE-2020-12-2-8> [13.04.2023]
- Mason, Lance (2016). *McLuhan's Challenge to Critical Media Literacy. The City as Classroom Textbook*. In: *Curriculum Inquiry*, 46:1, p. 79–97. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03626784.2015.1113511> [13.04.2023]
- Media Literacies (2022). *Critical Media Project*. <https://criticalmediaproject.org/media-literacies/> [13.04.2023]

- Morrell, Ernest (2008). *Critical Literacy and Urban Youth. Pedagogies of Access, Dissent, and Liberation*. New York: Routledge
- Robertson, Lorayne and Hughes, Janette M. (2011). Investigating Pre-Service Teachers’ Understandings of Critical Media Literacy. In: *Language and Literacy*, 13:2, p. 37–53. <https://doi.org/10.20360/G22S35> [13.04.2023]
- Talbert, Susan (2000). *Subject to Identity. Knowledge, Sexuality, and Academic Practices in Higher Education*. Albany, NY: State University of New York Press
- Tebaldi, Catherine and Nygreen, Kysa (2022). Opening or Impasse? Critical Media Literacy Pedagogy in a Posttruth Era. In: *Cultural Studies, Critical Methodologies*, 22:2, p. 143–153. <https://doi.org/10.1177/15327086211065810> [13.04.2023]
- Trope, Alison; Johnson, DJ and Demetriades, Stefanie (2021). Media, Making, and Movement. Bridging Media Literacy and Racial Justice Through Critical Media Project. In: *Journal of Media Literacy Education*, 13:2, p. 43–54. <https://doi.org/10.23860/JMLE-2021-13-2-4> [13.04.2023]
- Vasquez, Vivian M.; Janks, Hilary and Comber, Barbara (2019). Critical Literacy as a Way of Being and Doing. In: *Language Arts*, 96:5, p. 300–311. https://hilary-janks.files.wordpress.com/2020/09/vasquezjankscomber-cl_as_a_way_of_being_and-copy-3-1.pdf [13.04.2023]
- Yosso, Tara J. (2002). Critical Race Media Literacy. Challenging Deficit Discourse About Chicanas/os. *Journal of Popular Film and Television*, 30:1, p. 52–62

Authors

Kelsey Darity, Ed. D. Teachers College, Columbia University. Research focuses: critical literacy, disciplinary literacy, curriculum development
kkd2125@tc.edu

Suzanne Pratt. Co-Directory, Teachers College, Columbia University. Research focuses: teacher education, teacher learning, learning partnerships
sp2801@tc.edu

Correspondence Address:

Suzanne Pratt
Teachers College, Columbia University
525 West 120th Street
New York, NY 10027
USA

Nina Jude

Critical Media Literacy in international Large Scale Assessment?

Concepts, Measures and Results

Abstract. International Large Scale Assessment (ILSA) assess students' competencies, attitudes, and context of learning around the globe. Their results inform policy makers and guide decisions on funding, curriculum and development programs. This data is used for long-term monitoring and reporting on the progress of educational systems. The indicators measured by these assessments are reported in international monitoring databases used by the World Bank and the UNESCO, and thus play an important role in shaping the school system of the future. Most prominent examples for ILSA are the studies initiated by the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) and the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA). While these studies most often assess basic competencies and literacy, like reading, mathematics and science, latest assessments also focus on more broader aspects of education, like civic and citizenship or information and technology skills. Interestingly, critical media literacy (CML) has not been in the focus of these studies so far. This article aims to analyze the concepts implemented in existing studies regarding their relation to the concept of CML.

Keywords. Critical Media Literacy, International Large Scale Assessment, Educational Assessment

„Critical Media Literacy“ in international vergleichenden Bildungsstudien

Konzepte, Erfassung und Ergebnisse

Zusammenfassung. Internationale Bildungsstudien (ILSA) erfassen die Kompetenzen von Schüler:innen sowie darüber hinausgehend Kontextfaktoren von Lernen im internationalen Vergleich. Die Ergebnisse dieser Studien fließen in bildungspolitische und administrative Entwicklungen wie bspw. die Zuwei-

sung von Ressourcen und die Entwicklung von Bildungsplänen ein. Daten aus diesen Studien sind die Grundlage für langfristiges Bildungsmonitoring und Rechenschaftslegung über die Qualität von Bildungssystemen. Die erfassten Indikatoren fließen in internationale Berichtssysteme ein, die u. a. von der Weltbank und der UNESCO genutzt werden. Sie spielen also eine wesentliche Rolle bei der Weiterentwicklung von Bildungssystemen. Die bekanntesten Studien werden von der Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) und der International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA) initiiert. Diese Bildungsstudien erfassen in der Regel grundlegende Kompetenzen in Mathematik, dem Lesen und den Naturwissenschaften. Aktuelle Studien beziehen auch breitere Kompetenzaspekte ein, bspw. Demokratiekompetenz und computer- und informationsbezogene Kompetenzen. Der Aspekt „Critical Media Literacy“ hat in diesen Studien bisher keine explizite Berücksichtigung gefunden. Dieser Beitrag analysiert die Konzepte ausgewählter internationaler Bildungsstudien hinsichtlich ihres Bezugs zur „Critical Media Literacy“.

Schlüsselwörter. „Critical Media Literacy“, Internationale Bildungsstudien, Educational Assessment

1 International Large Scale Assessment and Educational Policy

International Large Scale Assessment (ILSA) are international surveys assessing competencies of students in schools, sometimes also focusing on adult competencies (for example the Survey of Adult Skills, PIAAC) or the perspective of teachers (with the Teaching and Learning International Survey, TALIS) (OECD 2019a; OECD 2019b). ILSA have been implemented into many educational systems since the 1960s. Most prominently they gained interest and power in the neo-liberal approaches of educational policy governance since the 2000 which allowed for more school autonomy while introducing new accountability structures (Lietz, Tobin 2016; Teltemann, Jude 2018; Verger et al. 2018). This turn to a more outcome-oriented educational policy called for measurable indicators of educational progress, including context factors of school quality. In many cases, this includes setting measurable benchmarks and quantifiable targets, for example national educational standards. But also global objectives like those of the UNs sustainable development goals can be seen as long-term indicators of education (United Nations 2015).

In ILSA, these indicators are a) trackable on the national level over time, as well as b) comparable on an international scale across educational systems around the globe. Continuous monitoring of these indicators helps inform governance, identify target points for policy interventions and may influence educational practice. Data from ISLA is in many cases an essential component of a countries' own strategy of educational monitoring and can inform about current developments relevant in a global society.

Educational research plays a key role when it comes to defining the theoretical foundation of the desired indicators in ILSA, like for example the definition of literacy. Moreover, its empirical approaches offer the methodological foundations for developing sound instruments to measure these indicators (Kuger et al. 2016; Wagemaker 2020). In-depth empirical analysis of interrelations between indicators, context factors and educational practices on different system levels provide empirically grounded links for quality improvement of teaching and learning practices.

While ILSA and the data they provide clearly aim to inform and guide educational policy, it needs to be reflected that they focus only on a selected range of competencies in specific areas of literacy. Consequently, areas which are not covered by empirical approaches and where sound data is missing, might be neglected when it comes to educational policies. Accordingly, as regards CML, it needs to be discussed where meaningful measures are already in place, and – if they are missing – which measures could be implemented in future ILSA to address CML as part of policy relevant indicators of education quality.

This article tries to identify potential concepts of CML in existing ILSA. By analyzing the underlying theoretical frameworks of the most prominent studies, and comparing already existing measurement approaches, connections are made to elementary definitions of CML.

2 CML and Educational Frameworks

Before thinking about measuring indicators, the theoretical foundations of the aspect to be assessed need to be specified. In the assessment of literacy, it needs to be clear what defines this literacy, i.e. which kind of behavior or knowledge can be expected of a person with a “high amount of literacy” versus a person with a “lower amount of literacy” (Hartig et al. 2008). Moreover, separate dimensions must be distinguishable to enable a clear-cut measurement. This might be an easy task when we think about, for example, mathematical literacy, but can be

quite a difficult endeavor when it comes to more complex areas of literacy. By looking at different definitions of CML, the complexity of the construct is evident. In the following, exemplary definitions are highlighted that have been selected to illustrate its multidimensionality and potential challenges for a comparative assessment.

Critical media literacy is an educational response that expands the notion of literacy to include different forms of mass communication, popular culture, and new technologies. It deepens the potential of literacy education to critically analyze relationships between media and audiences, information, and power. (Keller, Douglas 2007, p. 60)

A critical media literacy approach also expands literacy to include information literacy, technical literacy, multimodal literacy, and other attempts to broaden print literacy concepts to include different tools and modes of communicating (ibid., p. 62).

Recent approaches include data literacy as a kind of meta-CML, as “we are now entering a new stage of technological development, where human attitudes, ideologies, and power relationships are not only expressed through technology, or even built into technology – these days, they also inform and direct technology’s autonomous behaviour.” (Jandric 2019, p. 34)

When comparing these definitions, it becomes clear, that CML is not ‘one’ competence. It has many facets, dimensions and is related to numerous other competencies. Still, it could be argued that the aspect of interacting with mass media in digital networks can be identified as a common ground. CML would then include aspects of a) overall reading literacy and b) digital literacy, which are both necessary when critically engaging in and using digital media. Taking these aspects as a starting point, we can find aspects of CML in many of the current educational policy frameworks (see table 1).

Table 1: Aspects of CML in global educational frameworks

European Council (2018)	“Digital competence involves the confident, critical and responsible use of, and engagement with, digital technologies for learning, at work, and for participation in society. It includes information and data literacy, communication and collaboration, media literacy, digital content creation (including programming), safety (including digital well-being and competences related to cybersecurity), intellectual property related questions, problem solving and critical thinking.”
-------------------------	--

Council of Europe (2022)	“Digital Citizenship may be said to refer to the competent and positive engagement with digital technologies and data; participating actively and responsibly (values, skills, attitudes, knowledge and critical understanding) in communities [...] at all levels [...]; being involved in a double process of lifelong learning [...] and continuously defending human dignity and all attendant human rights.”
UNESCO (2022)	“Beyond its conventional concept as a set of reading, writing and counting skills, literacy is now understood as a means of identification, understanding, interpretation, creation, and communication in an increasingly digital, text-mediated, information-rich and fast-changing world.”
UNICEF (2019)	“Digital literacy implies a set of competences that goes beyond digital and technical skills. It includes the ability to search, evaluate and manage information found online; interact, share and collaborate online; develop and create content; use safety and protection features, and solve problems and be creative.”

These different approaches have in common that they include a critical, evaluative, reflective usage of digital media in their broader definitions. Aspects of CML can also be found in the definitions of 21 century skills (OECD 2019c) and innovative definitions of reading literacy:

Reading is increasingly embedded into a faster-paced digital- and screen-based culture. News is in real-time 24/7 and social media reactions spread across the globe in a matter of seconds. At the same time, disinformation and fake news are jeopardizing democracies that function poorly when citizens are not well informed or worse, misled. Disinformation is not unique to digital technologies but the Internet spreads and amplifies its impact. Students need to learn how to think critically, assess the accuracy of information on the Internet, and solve problems on their own more than ever. (OECD 2021, p. 20)

3 Aspects of CML in ILSA

Based on these selected definitions of CML, which all refer to reading literacy in various aspects, it can be discussed if selected aspects of CML are already being measured in existing ILSA. Even though these studies are not designed specifically to assess students' CML, they refer to overall concepts of literacy that include digital media. Consequently, their definition of literacy differs depending on the aim of the study.

The OECD study *Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA)* assesses reading literacy, mathematical and science of 15-year-old students in 80 countries around the globe every three years. It is based on the UNESCO's overall concept of literacy with the content domains being specified and updated by an expert group for every cycle of assessment. While reading literacy was originally seen in the context of paper-based linear texts in the first cycles of PISA between 2000 and 2006, the framework for the 2009 assessment included a component of digital reading. Accordingly, the aspect of reflecting and evaluating the source and content of texts in digital media was already included in the definitions of students' competencies (Lumley, Mendelowitz 2012). The latest definition of reading literacy PISA reads as follows: "Increasingly, reading requires evaluating the quality and validity of different sources, navigating through ambiguity, distinguishing between fact and opinion and constructing knowledge. (OECD 2021, p. 22)."

The theoretical framework of PISA further specifies reading literacy as the ability to evaluate and reflect a given source, which requires the reader to assess the quality and credibility and evaluate the source of information. Moreover, content and form including the author's intentions and viewpoint need to be taken into account and conflicting information need to be questioned (OECD 2019d).

This definition is the foundation for test and questionnaire items in PISA which measure students' competencies, but also assess context factors of teaching and learning that might influence the acquisition of literacy and CML. The individual test items of PISA are confidential and thus not publicly available, but they include tasks which ask students to distinguish facts from opinions and to judge the credibility of a source (Schleicher 2019). Students need to solve these tasks by using information about the content and the source of information they need to evaluate (OECD 2019e). Moreover, the questionnaires for students participating in PISA assess the meta-cognitive strategies students use when facing texts, including their strategies in dealing with a not trustworthy digital source (i.e. a phishing E-Mail). The questionnaires also include items to assess the context of learning and teaching. Here, students are asked if they have been taught how to decide whether to trust information from the Internet and detect whether information is subjective or biased in school lessons (OECD 2019f).

The IEAs *International Computer and Information Literacy Study (ICILS)* assesses computer and information literacy of 8th grade students on an international scale. It measures the "individual's ability to use computers to investigate, create, and communicate in order to participate effectively at home, at school, in the workplace and in society" (Fraillon et al. 2020, p. 1). The theoretical framework

of ICILS further defines aspects of this literacy as “Identifying information needs, searching for and locating information, and evaluating the quality of information.” (ibid., p. 15). This includes the ability of individuals to use ICT appropriately to access, manage, integrate and evaluate information, as well as to use information responsibly and safely. ICILS thus bases its literacy approach on reading literacy, which is not assessed separately, but can be seen as a prerequisite when dealing with digital information in written form. It also addresses both the access and the usage of digital information in its definition of literacy.

The corresponding test items are also not published but cover tasks which ask the students to explain potential issues when making private information publicly available and to judge and evaluate the trustworthiness and reliability of information found online (Fraillon et al. 2019). The respective questionnaire for students enquires about learning settings where students were taught how to work out whether to trust information from the Internet. It also asks about a self-assessment on how well they can judge whether you can trust information you find on the Internet (IEA 2023).

When comparing these definitions to the different concepts of CML, it can be argued that the concepts of literacy in both PISA and ICILS at least contain traces of CML when it comes to dealing with facts and opinion and the evaluation of trustworthy sources. In PISA, they are embedded into the reading tasks and related questionnaires, referring to CML as an aspect of reading literacy. In ICILS, it is the computer literacy that could be linked to CML, covering the media aspect. Even though these relationships are somewhat weak, and should not be over-interpreted, a look at the results of both studies might highlight the importance of covering CML more strongly in educational assessment.

4 Results of ILSA on CML

ILSA assess a broad context of students’ learning, including time spent online in and outside of school. Looking at the results, it becomes clear why CML is an important aspect of overall literacy and will become increasingly important in the future: The total time 15-year-old students spent online has been increasing in the last decade, for some countries even doubling (OECD 2017). But: Fewer than 1 in 10 students in OECD countries are able to distinguish between fact and opinion (OECD 2019g). Most alarmingly: These aspects of CML are associated with students’ socio-economic background, showing a disadvantage for those students with less educational and monetary resources at home (Suarez-Alvarez 2021). Consequently, students need to be aware of their online behaviors as

well as regarding the intention of any information they receive. Based on these results, one could claim that CML as an essential part of literacy needs to be targeted more prominently in curricula and classrooms.

This is even more important when looking at the learning opportunities regarding digital skills at school. A broad range exists between countries when it comes to digital literacy taught in school, both regarding the quantity of respective learning settings, but also the implemented content. In some countries, these topics are included in curricula across subjects, others feature specific ICT-related subjects. Learning opportunities how to detect biased information are strongly associated with the assessment on distinguishing facts from opinions (OECD 2021).

When it comes to learning settings in school, 65 % of students report being taught to work out whether to trust information from the Internet, still over 40 % of students were found to have only minimal ability to critically assess information found online. And only 2 % of students say they exercise control and use evaluative judgment when searching for information online (Fraillon et al. 2020). These findings might be related to context factors of schools and curriculum: Based on data from the ICILS study, teachers report feeling rather confident with finding teaching resources on the internet and producing digital presentations, however least confident with using learning management systems and collaborating with others online. More than 50 % of the pupils are enrolled at schools where insufficient ICT skills among the teachers were reported to hinder the use of ICT for teaching. On the school level, schools report a need for effective professional learning resources for teachers as well as incentives to integrate ICT in teaching settings.

5 Outlook: The Potential of Measuring CML in ILSA

Young people do not develop sophisticated digital skills just by growing up using digital devices. If we want to know how the competence develops in the society and learn about the role of school in teaching CML, we need more indicators focusing on the various aspects of CML in different age groups of students. Moreover, existing teaching and learning settings which enable a critical view on media need to be analyzed, as well as educational standards and curricula focusing on CML. ISLA could be a way to deliver policy relevant indicators on a global scale. The challenge, however, is to develop instruments that can be used for measuring CML: This means, that as a first step the different concepts of CML would have to be clearly defined or even aligned within a framework. In a second step, potential measurement instruments would need to be developed

and validated, to assess CML in an international comparable way. In addition to the international approaches on educational monitoring, national educational frameworks and studies need to consider country specific topics and developments which add to the global perspectives. This is especially important when it comes to linking the topic of CML to country specific curricula.

Already, various approaches exist to measure media literacy in specific age groups and usually in a defined national context. They differ in their definition of media literacy, but usually include aspects related to CML. These instruments mostly use questionnaire scales for self-reporting (see for example Lee et al. 2015; Literat 2014).

On a system level, different initiatives have set out collecting information on the topic of media literacy in society and community, curriculum, and educational contexts. On a European level, the Council of Europe publishes recommendations regarding “Media and Information Literacy” (see for example Chapman et al. 2020), and the European Commission is reflecting on criteria for assessing media literacy on a country level (Celot et al. 2009; European Commission 2011). Still, the existing challenges in assessing CML have been a topic for scientific discussion for a while now (see for example Schilder et al. 2016).

Given these challenges, it needs to be discussed how CML could be assessed in an international context to derive policy indicators. ILSA might offer an opportunity to analyze CML as an aspect of students’ competencies in the 21st century, and also to inform about educational contexts of teaching and learning as prerequisites for acquiring CML in schools. However, precise measures of any kind of literacy require precise definition of the theoretical construct underlying the measurement. In existing literature, the definitions of CML are manifold. Different aspects of CML are being considered, and the models mentioned above postulate various underlying dimensions. Consequently, latest quantitative measurement approaches which focus on student’s competencies, attitudes and values, but also learning settings can only be seen as a starting point.

In summary, we can state that single aspects relating to students’ CML can be found in current ILSA frameworks, assessment instruments, and reporting. They contribute to national reporting and international indicators and database which are being used for policy measures. However, the existing measures are not specifically developed to assess all aspects of CML as described in specific theoretical approaches mentioned above. They can be used to highlight the importance of these constructs alongside the notion that CML is an implicit aspect when it comes to teaching 21 century skills. Future frameworks of 21 century skills should

consider specific aspects of CML as distinguishable indicators that can be related to teaching and learning settings. Accordingly, measures need to be developed which reflect the different aspects of CML in a reliable and valid way.

The data currently available shows huge variance in both teachers' and students' competencies, within and between countries, when it comes to dealing with media in a digital world. Consequently, the topic of CML is relevant for educational policy and practice in a rapidly changing world. Therefore, we need assessments which target educational outcomes and competencies related to CML, and context factors relevant in teaching and learning settings. Indicators systems are needed which do not only focus on technical resources, but also analyze learning processes at schools and areas of curriculum development, including resources and innovative approaches for teacher training.

Bibliography

- Celot, Paolo (2009). Study on Assessment Criteria for Media Literacy Levels. European Commission. https://ec.europa.eu/assets/eac/culture/library/studies/literacy-criteria-report_en.pdf [11.04.2023]
- Chapman, Martina; Bellardi, Nadia and Peiss, Helmut (2020). Media Literacy for All. Supporting Marginalised Groups through Community Media. Council of Europe. <https://rm.coe.int/cyprus-2020-media-literacy-for-all/1680988374> [11.04.2023]
- Council of Europe (2022). Digital Citizenship Education Handbook. Being Online. Well-being Online. Rights Online. Council of Europe. <https://rm.coe.int/16809382f9> [11.04.2023]
- European Commission (2011). Testing and Refining. Criteria to Assess Media Literacy Levels in Europe. <https://op.europa.eu/o/opportal-service/download-handler?identifier=4cbb53b5-689c-4996-b36b-e920df63cd40&format=pdf&language=en&productionSystem=cellar&part=> [11.04.2023]
- European Council (2018). Recommendation of 22 May 2018 on Key Competences for Lifelong Learning, ST/9009/2018/INIT. In: Official Journal of the European Union 189, 4 June 2018, p. 1–13
- Fraillon, Julian; Ainley, John; Schulz, Wolfram; Duckworth, Daniel and Friedman, Tim (2019). ICILS Instruments. In: IEA International Computer and Information Literacy Study 2018 Assessment Framework. Springer, Cham. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-19389-8_5 [11.04.2023]
- Fraillon, Julian; Ainley, John; Schulz, Wolfram; Friedmann, Tim and Duckworth, Daniel (2020). Preparing for Life in a Digital World. IEA International Computer

- and Information Literacy Study 2018 International Report. Springer. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-38781-5> [11.04.2023]
- Hartig, Johannes; Klieme, Eckhard and Leutner, Detlef (eds.) (2008). *Assessment of Competencies in Educational Contexts*. Göttingen: Hogrefe
- IEA (2023). *International Computer and Information Literacy Study Data Repository and Documentation*. <https://www.iea.nl/data-tools/repository> [11.04.2023]
- Jandrić, Petar (2019). *The Postdigital Challenge of Critical Media Literacy*. In: *The International Journal of Critical Media Literacy*, 1:1, p. 26–37. <https://doi.org/10.1163/25900110-00101002> [11.04.2023]
- Kellner, Douglas and Share, Jeff (1998). *Multiple Literacies and Critical Pedagogy in a Multicultural Society*. In: *Educational Theory*, 48:1, p. 103–122
- Kellner, Douglas and Share, Jeff (2007). *Critical media literacy is not an option*. In: *Learning Inquiry*, 1, p. 59–69. https://pages.gseis.ucla.edu/faculty/kellner/essays/2007_Kellner-Share_CML-is-not-Option.pdf [11.04.2023]
- Kuger, Susanne; Klieme, Eckhard; Jude, Nina and Kaplan, David (eds.) (2016). *Assessing Contexts of Learning. An International Perspective*. Cham: Springer
- Lee, Ling; Chen, Der-Thang; Li, Jen-Yi and Lin, Tzu-Bin (2015). *Understanding New Media Literacy. The Development of a Measuring Instrument*. In: *Computers & Education*, 85, p. 84–93. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compedu.2015.02.006> [11.04.2023]
- Lietz, Petra and Tobin, Mollie (2016). *The Impact of Large-Scale Assessments in Education on Education Policy. Evidence from Around the World*. In: *Research Papers in Education*, 31:5, 499–501. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02671522.2016.1225918> [11.04.2023]
- Literat, Iona (2014). *Measuring New Media Literacies. Towards the Development of a Comprehensive Assessment Tool*. In: *Journal of Media Literacy Education*, 6:1, 15–27
- Lumley, Tom and Mendelovits, Juliette (2012). *How Well Do Young People Deal with Contradictory and Unreliable Information On Line? What the PISA Digital Reading Assessment Tells Us*. <https://research.acer.edu.au/pisa/3> [11.04.2023]
- OECD (2017). *PISA 2015 Results. Volume 3. Students' Well Being*. Paris: OECD <https://doi.org/10.1787/9789264273856-table215-en> [11.04.2023]
- OECD (2019a). *Skills Matter. Additional Results from the Survey of Adult Skills*. Paris: OECD. <https://doi.org/10.1787/1f029d8f-en> [11.04.2023]
- OECD (2019b). *TALIS 2018 Results. Volume 1. Teachers and School Leaders as Lifelong Learners*. Paris: OECD. <https://doi.org/10.1787/1d0bc92a-en> [11.04.2023]
- OECD (2019c). *Future of Education and Skills 2030. Transformative Competencies for 2030*. https://www.oecd.org/education/2030-project/teaching-and-learning/learning/transformative-competencies/Transformative_Competencies_for_2030_concept_note.pdf [11.04.2023]

- OECD (2019d). PISA 2018 Assessment and Analytical Framework. Paris: OECD Publishing. <https://doi.org/10.1787/b25efab8-en> [11.04.2023]
- OECD (2019e), PISA 2018 Results. Volume 1. What Students Know and Can Do, PISA. Paris: OECD Publishing. <https://doi.org/10.1787/5f07c754-en> [11.04.2023]
- OECD (2019f). Student Questionnaire for PISA 2018. Main Survey Version. https://www.oecd.org/pisa/data/2018database/CY7_201710_QST_MS_STQ_NoNotes_final.pdf [11.04.2023]
- OECD (2019g), PISA 2018 Results. Volume 2. Where All Students Can Succeed, PISA. Paris: OECD Publishing. <https://doi.org/10.1787/b5fd1b8f-en> [11.04.2023]
- OECD (2021). 21st-Century Readers. Developing Literacy Skills in a Digital World. Paris: OECD. <https://www.oecd.org/publications/21st-century-readers-a83d-84cb-en.htm> [11.04.2023]
- Schleicher, Andreas (2019). PISA 2018. Insights and Interpretations. Paris: OECD
- Schilder, Evelien; Lockee, Barbare and Saxon, D. Patrick (2016). The Challenges of Assessing Media Literacy Education. In: *Journal of Media Literacy Education*, 8:1, p. 32–48
- Suarez-Alvarez, Javier (2021), Are 15-Year-Olds Prepared to Deal with Fake News and Misinformation? In: *PISA in Focus* 113. <https://doi.org/10.1787/6ad5395e-en> [11.04.2023]
- Teltemann, Janna and Jude, Nina (2019). Assessments and Accountability in Secondary Education. *International Trends*. In: *Research in Comparative and International Education*, 14:2, 249–271. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1745499919846174> [11.04.2023]
- UNESCO (2022). Literacy. <https://en.unesco.org/themes/literacy> [11.04.2023]
- UNICEF (2019). Digital Literacy for Children. Exploring Definitions and Frameworks. <https://www.unicef.org/globalinsight/media/1271/file/%20UNICEF-Global-Insight-digital-literacy-scoping-paper-2020.pdf> [11.04.2023]
- United Nations (2015). Transforming our World. The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. <https://sdgs.un.org/2030agenda> [11.04.2023]
- Verger, Antoni; Parcerisa, Lluís and Fontdevila, Clara (2018). The Growth and Spread of Large-Scale Assessments and Test-Based Accountabilities. A Political Sociology of Global Education Reforms. In: *Educational Review*. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00131911.2019.1522045> [11.04.2023]
- Wagemaker, Hans (ed.) (2020). Reliability and Validity of International Large-Scale Assessment. Understanding IEA's Comparative Studies of Student Achievement. Cham: Springer

Author

Prof. Dr. Nina Jude. Chair for National and International Education Studies at the University of Heidelberg. Research focuses: international comparative education, large-scale assessment methods, and the recording of contextual factors of education
jude@ibw.uni-heidelberg.de

Correspondence Address:
Prof. Dr. Nina Jude
Universität Heidelberg
Institut für Bildungswissenschaft
Akademiestraße 3
69117 Heidelberg
Germany

Critical Media Literacy in the Times of Subjective Online Media Consumption

Abstract. Critical Media Literacy (CML) is a complex construct that includes a range of knowledge and skills. Due to its complexity, understanding and studying CML is a difficult challenge, starting with the definition of CML. It is ever more challenging to define and teach CML under the current media ecosystem, where online media consumption is highly subjective and varied. We present a conceptual framework to define and observe the subjective nature of online media consumptions as informed by information sciences and media studies. A multimodal observation of how the participants of our study consumed online media during the spread of the global pandemic was analyzed using the framework. The findings manifest patterns of subjective online media consumption behavior as influenced by individual factors, but not by explicit tasks for media consumption. As such, authors present metaliteracy as an essential skill for individuals to develop subjective and personal CML.

Keywords. Online Media Consumption, Critical Media Literacy, Metaliteracy

Critical Media Literacy in Zeiten des subjektiven Online-Medienkonsums

Zusammenfassung. Critical Media Literacy (CML) ist ein komplexes Konstrukt, das eine Reihe von Kenntnissen und Fähigkeiten umfasst. Aufgrund seiner Komplexität ist es eine große Herausforderung, CML zu verstehen und zu studieren. Es wird immer schwieriger, CML im Kontext des aktuellen Medienökosystems zu definieren und zu lehren, da der Online-Medienkonsum sehr subjektiv und vielfältig ist. Der Beitrag stellt einen konzeptionellen Rahmen vor, um die subjektive Natur des Online-Medienkonsums zu definieren und zu beobachten, der von den Informations- und Medienwissenschaften geprägt ist. Eine multimodale Betrachtung des Online-Medienkonsums von Teilnehmer:innen während der Ausbreitung der globalen Pandemie wurde anhand

dieses Rahmens analysiert. Die Ergebnisse zeigen, dass das subjektive Online-Medienkonsumverhalten von individuellen Faktoren beeinflusst wird, aber nicht von expliziten Aufgaben für den Medienkonsum. In diesem Sinne stellen die Autorinnen Metaliteracy als eine wesentliche Fähigkeit für Individuen dar, um subjektive und persönliche CML zu entwickeln.

Schlüsselwörter. Online-Medienkonsum, Critical Media Literacy, Metaliterazität

1 Background of the Study

Critical media literacy (CML) is an important skill necessary to make sense of the world we live in. It governs how we process the information about the world around us and make sense of it. Reading media messages critically is a foundation for responsible civic engagement, as we need to scrutinize media makers' intention to frame information for certain audience interpretations. By viewing media messages beyond their face values, deconstructing layers of information for the underlying stereotypes and assumptions (Bass et al. 2022), CML enables us to make informed decisions, maximize life opportunities (Robertson, Hughes 2011), and open up spaces for alternative voices representing marginalized groups to address social problems (Kellner, Share 2005). Despite the importance of supporting CML in education for critical citizenry, scholars found a decline in media education (Mesquita-Romero et al. 2022). Educators have the mission to foster CML in school settings to better prepare students as informed and active citizens in our society.

However, educators have multiple challenges in relation to CML. Teaching and learning CML is a difficult endeavor, especially as CML is defined widely and is constantly changing with the advances in communication technology and media. CML is an interdisciplinary concept with a variety of complex choices and topics that can be included, and educators of different backgrounds and perspectives hold diverse interpretations of CML. Scarcity of time devoted to media literacy education, inequity of educational resources in schools and districts, and external factors from national administrative policies all impact the implementation of media literacy education (NAMLE 2019). Under the changing demand, educators are challenged in developing and practicing effective CML themselves, as well as modeling and supporting the development of CML in their classroom.

This paper will examine news literacy specifically, a component of CML, to provide guidance on how to conceptualize, observe, and approach teaching and learning of CML. With the widespread use of social media, researchers have found that there are fundamental changes to how people consume news across platforms: news consumption is highly subjective (Zeller et al. 2013) as driven by personal goals and preferences; developments in communication technology, such as social media and news aggregators that allow for different modes of online news consumption and participation (Siapera, Veglis 2012; Thorson 2008), targeted news feed, and propaganda led to a new media ecosystem. A recent global study finds that social media is the most popular channel (28 %) where people access news, with smartphones being the device used most often (Newman et al. 2022). In the U.S., 53 % of adults get news from social media platforms (Liedke, Matsa 2022), with more people getting news from smartphone, tablet, and computer (49 %) than from television (31 %) (Forman-Katz, Matsa 2022). In Germany, 32 % of adults get news from social media specifically, and 57 % of adults use smartphones to access news throughout the day (Newman et al. 2022). The design of social media provides users diverse and evolving ways to engage with news. At the same time, it also cultivates an environment that (Mitchelstein, Boczkowski 2010) exacerbates problems such as media echo chambers, polarization, and conspiracy theory (Gretter et al. 2017; Lee et al. 2014; Marwick, Lewis 2017; Mason 2013), and exacerbation of fake news and misinformation (Allcott, Gentzkow 2017).

Contrary to the ever-evolving technological landscape, a review of online news consumption research (Mitchelstein, Boczkowski 2010; Steensen et al. 2019) shows that current methods of study have significant limitations in drawing effective understanding of the practice. For example, there is a need to consider the interaction between media design features and social practices, patterns of online news consumptions, and the collective news production between journalists and consumers (Bentley et al. 2007; Boczkowski 2004; Deuze 2003; Pavlik 2000; Russell 2007), and diversification of methods and approaches to observation (Moller et al. 2019).

In order to better understand how news consumers develop their understanding of the world through online news platforms, and to inform media literacy education and policy, researchers, especially in the United States, have called for new approaches, which includes alternate methods of observation and analysis to conceptualize and interpret their behavior given the qualitative differences, to study online news consumption beyond traditional means of research (Mitchelstein, Boczkowski 2010; Siapera, Veglis 2012; Tewksbury 2003; Zeller et al. 2013).

2 Research Questions

This paper examines the following research questions to address the challenges of lack of conceptual framework and methodology in understanding and conceptualizing complex and subjective online media consumption behavior. The goal is to inform the definition and design of the CML curriculum and objectives by identifying important factors that influence online media consumption behavior.

1. Given the changing landscape of media ecosystem and media consumption behavior, what are the important factors to consider when understanding online media consumption across platforms and sources?
2. How do the contextual and individual factors influence different types of media consumption behavior across online media platforms?

The first research question was addressed through literature review which led to a development of a conceptual framework that identifies and aggregates important factors to consider as part of CML. The second research question was explored through a study where participants' online news consumption behaviors were observed.

3 Literature Review

3.1 Subjective Online Media Consumption

The proliferation of social media as the dissemination platform for online news has two large implications on Critical Media Literacy (CML). One, media consumption behavior is influenced by multiple factors that lead to varied but subjective patterns of consumption behavior (Mitchelstein, Boczkowski 2010). These may include individual factors, such as demographics, goal, and motivation towards consumption, sociocultural factors, source and platform characteristics as well as one's perception towards them. There is also qualitatively different behavior that can be observed in online news consumption due to changes in the definition of news and personalization of news consumption, warranting the need to study subjective dimensions of news consumption (Zeller et al. 2013). In terms of CML, recognizing such subjective and varied paths in accessing and interpreting information about the world around us is an important skill. Another implication for CML is that as a consumer of online media, one is not just a passive user but a contributor to how online media is shared and disseminated through these platforms (Mitchelstein, Boczkowski 2010). An individual may passively participate in the role whereby simple actions of reading and scanning through media

influence algorithmic feed that impacts dissemination through their social networks, or actively participate by sharing, saving, or commenting on the media (Duffy, Ang 2019). In such a way, consumers of media are simultaneously involved in developing and shaping the media environment. Being critically media literate requires that they understand and are mindful of such impact that they themselves and others have on their meaning making process.

3.2 Development of Conceptual Framework

While there has been much discussion on the needs to identify and observe varied factors that lead to subjective online media consumption (Boczkowski, Mitchelstein 2017; Duffy, Ang 2019; Lewis, Westlund 2015), there is little consensus on this theoretical debate (Steensen et al. 2019). In response to such needs, the first research question asks, “What are the important factors to consider when understanding online media consumption across platforms and sources?”. A conceptual framework was developed to identify important factors that influence news consumption behavior and observable behaviors characteristic of online media platforms. Suggestions from previous studies on subjective and varied context of news consumption (Zeller et al. 2013), consumption across platforms and medium (Mitchelstein, Boczkowski 2010), complex and changing characteristics of the media and their influence on sociocultural context of news consumption (Siapera, Veglis 2012) were considered.

Largely two sources of literature informed the design of the conceptual framework. One was Wilson and Walsh’s (1996) information behavior model selected for its comprehensiveness and extensive empirical support. It is revised to integrate the varied nature of individualized consumption behavior and characteristics of media platforms. Second was Meijer and Kormelink’s (2015) definition of digital news behavior, which was synthesized into the framework. Providing a framework to understand high-level information processes, Wilson’s model contextualizes media consumption by framing them within the environmental, psychological, and social context. Meijer and Kormelink’s (2015) list of behaviors add manifestations of information processing on the behavioral level.

3.3 Online Media Consumption – A Conceptual Framework

We developed the Online Media Consumption Behavior (OMCB) framework (Fig. 1) to include factors and behaviors found to be important in online media consumption as identified in the fields of information sciences, and media and

communication studies. The purpose of the framework was to provide a systematic framework to guide the observation and understanding of online media behavior, which can be widely varied amongst individuals, by identifying relevant factors, behaviors, and their relationships. The framework can also be used to evaluate critical media literacy through definition of important competencies that contribute to online media consumption behavior and inform the teaching of CML.

Online Media Consumption Behavior (OMCB) Framework

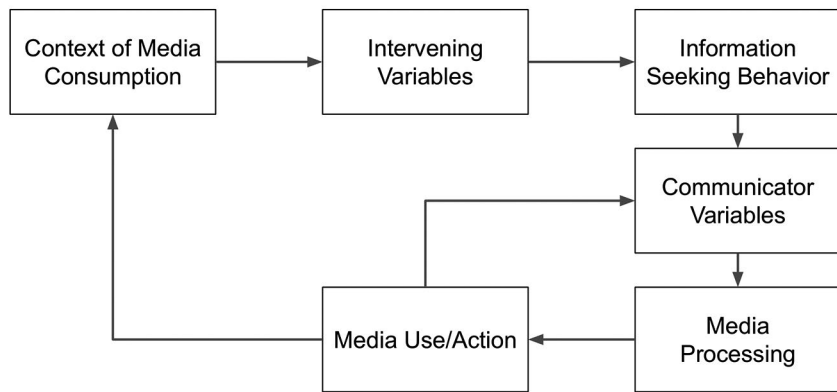


Figure 1: Online Media Consumption Behavior (OMCB) Framework.

The resulting framework consists of six factors and each factor consists of observations as presented in the Appendix. The framework assumes that news consumption behavior goes through iterative cycles to capture the behavior that is varied in complexity, frequency, and duration across participants.

3.4 Multimodal Observation of Online Media Consumption

Traditional approaches to studying media consumption behavior are often limited to self-report surveys or interviews, journals (Moller et al. 2019), or behavioral data alone. These approaches are limited in providing data and observation of relevant factors and consumption behavior; they also lack triangulation across self-report, qualitative observation, and objective measures. As such, researchers have called for different approaches to study online media consumption beyond traditional means of research including alternate methods of observation and analysis to conceptualize and interpret behaviors given the qualita-

tive differences (Mitchelstein, Boczkowski 2010; Siapera, Veglis 2012; Tewksbury 2003; Zeller et al. 2013).

To observe and understand qualitatively different nature of online media consumption behavior across platforms and media (Mitchelstein, Boczkowski 2010) and subjective dimensions of media consumption (Zeller et al. 2013), an integrated, multimodal approach was developed for the study. With the increased number of online media consumers and ease of collecting behavioral data through online platforms, it has become easier to collect precise information on the media consumption behavior beyond traditionally used subjective means (Moller et al. 2019). Online media consumption was captured through video screen capture of the behavior along with audio annotation for triangulation. By combining direct observation of what participants actually do with their self-report of what was going through their mind during the manifest behavior, researchers can interpret behaviors that may sometimes be difficult to distinguish from observation alone. While there are known limitations of introspection and self-report measures, the articulation of one's thought through think-aloud protocol may reveal additional details of the behavior that may not be observable through behavioral manifestation. The mixed-methods approach to triangulate the objective measure of the consumption behavior and subjective, self-reported account of the cognitive processes can be efficient in that it requires very little effort and technical skills from the participants, but provides rich data for the observation of media consumption behavior.

4 Methods

How do contextual and individual factors influence different types of media consumption behavior across online media platforms? In order to address the second research question, online news consumption behavior was captured through multimodal methods and analyzed through the conceptual framework of online media consumption behavior (OMCB).

4.1 Participants

Participants were recruited by posting flyers in social media platforms, including Facebook, Instagram and WeChat, on bulletin boards in public spaces such as public libraries, university campuses, and restaurants for in-person protocol in a metropolitan city in the United States. Online participants were recruited through Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk), a platform often used for remote

empirical studies. In total, 59 participants completed the study, with 24 in-person and 35 MTurk participants.

4.2 Procedure

Data collection was conducted within a span of five months, between October 2019 to March 2020. This provided us with an unanticipated factor that influenced online news consumption, the spread of the global pandemic. Data was collected using the same procedure either in-person or online using MTurk. A protocol was developed to ensure consistency of the data collection process, with the only difference being the modality (in-person vs. online). Participants were first asked to share their demographic information, news value, and their location. Then, participants were asked to engage in five minutes of online news interaction activities as they naturally would, and record their screen during the process. After the screen capture, participants were prompted with questions and asked to provide audio annotation while playing their five minutes of news interaction activities. The annotation was inspired by photo elicitation method (Harper 2002) to capture participant's self-reported thought processes while minimizing the cost of cognitive load, which may be implicated with think-aloud protocol. The self-reported measure would reveal what the participants perceived and remembered as their cognitive processes behind their behavioral engagement with the online media, providing further explanation for their subjective decisions and experience. After audio annotation, participants were asked about their general news consumption behaviors. Of the 59 participants, 8 participants (all recruited through MTurk) were given an additional task to examine how the global pandemic might influence their online news consumption behavior. Once they completed the protocol as everyone else, they were additionally asked to search specifically for the latest COVID-19 news.

4.3 Independent Measures

Age Demographic information such as age has been found to influence one's choice of platform or source of news (Tewksbury 2003). Participants' age group was collected to examine possible relationships with their online consumption behavior.

Relevance to Global Crisis During data collection, the global pandemic began spreading throughout the world. Due to the unforeseen factors, participants fell naturally into two groups based on their perception of personal impact from

the crisis, one were participants whose immediate community had not yet been affected by the pandemic and they did not report any perception of threat (N = 26) and the other from the community that was directly affected by the pandemic or self-reported impact of the pandemic (N = 33).

News Value While there is no accepted definition of news, news value is used as a way to define the characteristics of news by reflecting what is believed to be important qualities of news (Harcup, O’Neill 2017). News values are used to examine gatekeeping in traditional media, as well as individual news consumption. Participants were asked to define news and their response were coded into 18 news values based on Harcup and O’Neill (2017)’s list of news values: exclusivity, bad news, conflict, surprise, audio-visuals, shareability, entertainment, drama, follow-up, power elite, relevance, magnitude, celebrity, good news, news organization’s agenda, immediacy, novelty, and being informed. News values were examined as individual factors in relation to their online news consumption behavior.

4.4 Dependent Measures

Dependent measures were collected to reflect different patterns of online news consumption behavior to examine their relationship with individual characteristics as previous studies have found (Tewksbury 2003).

Online News Consumption Behavior was coded according to the rubric as presented in the Appendix. Video capture of the content and interaction of the participants’ online news consumption behavior was coded into news seeking (initiating new consumption cycle, read linked article, search related news), news processing, and news use (initiating new consumption cycle, read linked article, search related news) behavior, which was triangulated with the audio annotation.

Source Type Credibility is a factor often used to categorize the type of news source. Traditional news outlets value objectivity and reliability of their product, whereas non-mainstream media sources may include opinions and likely disseminate biased information (“The Ohio State University Pressbooks”, n. d.). The sources that participants engaged with were coded into the two source types: verifiable and non-verifiable sources.

Platform Type Search engine, social media, and news sites are commonly used to access news (Olmstead et al. 2011) and were used to identify which types of platforms the participants engaged with.

Types of information Atkin (1973) proposed that people seek information for non-instrumental (based on personal interest) and instrumental (knowing how to adapt to the environment) needs. Instrumental needs are particularly relevant during a crisis where uncertainty is high as they guide one's reaction to the changing environment. Content of the news that the participants engaged with were coded into either surveillance or guidance information (Atkin 1973). The coded data was analyzed to examine whether the participants' relevance to global crises related to the type of information they engaged with. Under the changing environment, people seek for surveillance information as cognitive adaptation, to be aware of the extrinsic elements that could potentially put the individual in harm's way. Guidance information is driven by the need for affective adaptation. Guidance information supports individuals to relate and orient one's thoughts and feelings towards the changing environment in a correct or socially appropriate manner (Atkin 1973). Given the subjective nature of online media consumption, participants may be driven by either cognitive or affective needs to gain different types of information on the global crisis as it unfolded.

5 Findings

5.1 Data Analysis

Data was coded using the conceptual framework as the coding scheme in combination of priori and grounded theory coding. Research team coded the subjects' screen recording videos, identifying the observed behavior and variables. Prior to coding, intercoder reliability was calculated amongst the coders for two categories of codes, types of information and the coding scheme, to evaluate the consistency among coders. The percentage of reliability for types of information was 97.44% and 75.27% for the coding scheme. The coding scheme was modified to better capture the emerging patterns of behavior. A series of data analysis was conducted to examine the second research question, where we asked "How do the contextual and individual factors influence different types of media consumption behavior across different online media platforms?"

5.2 Finding 1: Depending on the intervening factors, participants show different online news consumption behavior

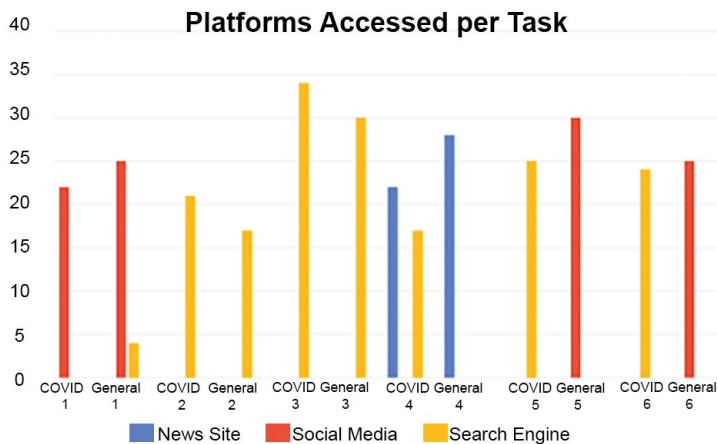
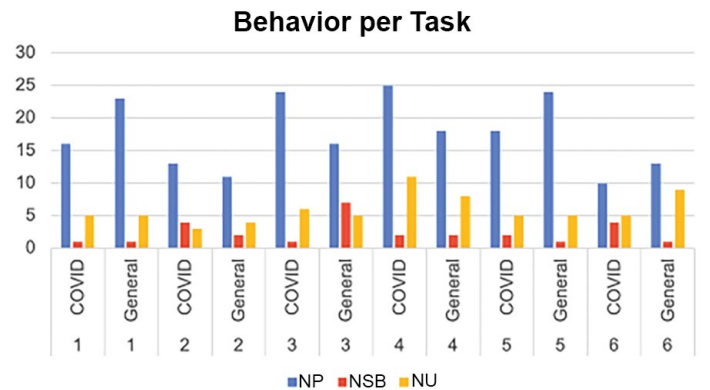
A series of one-way ANOVA analyses were conducted to examine the difference in online news consumption behavior, the types of source and platform accessed by participants based on their *individual factors*, age, and news value. According to One-Way ANOVA conducted with the age group as the independent factor, there was no statistically significant difference in the types of source, platform, or online news consumption behavior. Participants' news value, on the other hand, shows varied differences in how they engaged with online news. Participants who value novelty (something new) in news show a trend of difference ($F(52,1)=2.9$, $p=0.09$) by engaging less with new processing behavior ($M=0.64$) than those who do not value novelty ($M=0.56$). Participants who value being informed through news show a trend ($F(52,1)=3.21$, $p=0.08$) of engaging more with new processing behavior ($M=0.64$) than those who do not ($M=0.54$). Participants who value immediacy (immediacy of reporting and information access) engage less with news seeking behavior ($M=0.15$) compared to those who do not value immediacy ($M=0.28$) ($F(52,1)=4.48$, $p < 0.05$). However, they engage more with news use behavior ($M=0.16$) compared to those who do not value immediacy ($M=0.1$) ($F(52,1)=4.57$, $p < 0.05$). Similarly, participants' news value also showed varied differences in the platforms they access. Participants who value novelty (something new) show statistically significant differences in their use of search engines ($F(51,1)=5.75$, $p < 0.05$), by accessing search engines more often ($M=8.45$) than those who do not value novelty ($M=3.12$). Participants who value agenda (stories that set or fit the news organization's own agenda) consume news sites more often ($M=13.75$) than those who do not value agenda ($M=3.76$) ($F(51,1)=6.12$, $p < 0.05$). Participants who value being informed through news show a trend of difference ($F(51,1)=2.82$, $p=0.09$) by engaging less with verifiable sources ($M=11.89$) than those who did not prioritize being informed ($M=15.94$).

A series of one-way ANOVA was also conducted to examine the difference in online news consumption behavior based on the participant's *environmental factor*, relevance to the global pandemic. One-way ANOVA with relevance as independent variable and average news seeking behavior (proportion of news seeking behavior over overall behavior) as dependent variable shows a trend of difference ($F(52,1)=2.2$; $p=0.14$) where participants who were not influenced by the pandemic engaged more with news seeking behavior ($M=0.28$) than those who were influenced ($M=0.2$). Participants who were influenced by the pandemic showed statistically significant differences ($F(52,1)=4.75$; $p < 0.05$) by engaging more with news use behavior ($M=0.15$) than those who were not affected ($M=0.09$). No difference was found between the two groups in relation to news processing behav-

ior. Further, there was a trend of difference ($F(52,1) = 8.37, p = 0.06$) where the participants influenced by the global crisis ($M = 4.25$) searched for more guidance information than those who were irrelevant ($M = 1.15$).

5.3 Finding 2: Contextual factors do not influence one's online consumption behavior

One-way ANOVA was conducted with eight participants who were given first the general news consumption task followed by a specific task to search for the latest COVID-19 news to examine whether participants consume online news differently based on their goal of news consumption. The result showed no statistically significant difference in the participants' online news consumption behavior, types of source or platforms they engaged with between the two tasks.



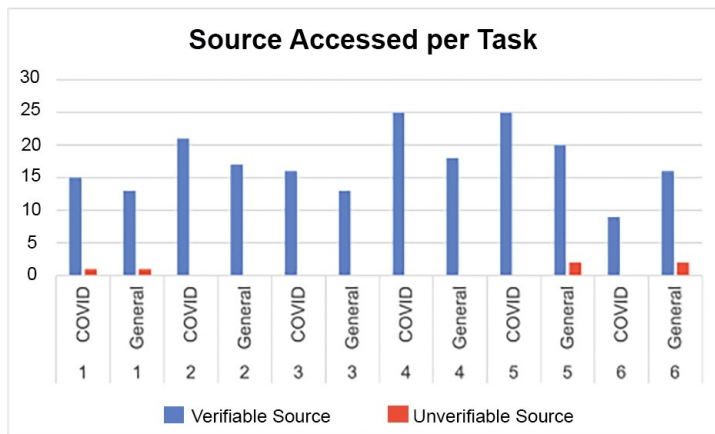


Figure 2: Online News Consumption (behavior, platform, source) organized by participants per task (COVID vs. General).

6 Conclusion

6.1 Challenges of CML Education

While the importance of Critical Media Literacy (CML) in developing informed citizens is widely accepted, there is a decline in teaching and learning of CML in an educational context (Mesquita-Romero, Fernández-Morante, Cebreiro-López 2022). There may be multiple reasons associated with such decline, but one of the challenges lies in the complexity and difficulty in defining CML. Historically, how to conceptualize CML skills and the component literacies has been a challenging endeavor, especially with the evolution of media technologies that constantly requires new skills to navigate and make sense of the world through them. Current media ecosystem is further complicating how one engages with online media and what factors drive such behavior, leading to varied and subjective patterns of consumption behavior. In defining what competencies should be fostered through CML and to design curriculum around them, understanding these factors and their influence is important.

In response, the paper examined two research questions, to identify important factors involved with online media consumption behavior and to understand how the contextual and individual factors influence different types of consumption behavior across different online media platforms. An online media consumption behavior (OMCB) framework was developed to provide a foundation

to define, educate, and observe the practice of CML with online media. As per researchers suggestions for interdisciplinary approach across computer science, information science (Boczkowski, Mitchelstein 2017; Steensen et al. 2019), social sciences, and journalism to take qualitatively different approaches to identify the unique and diverse interplay between media characteristics and news consumers (Lewis, Westlund 2015; Siapera, Veglis 2012; Zeller et al. 2013), OMCB framework integrates research from information sciences and digital journalism to identify online media consumption behavior and the important factors that influence the behavior, and accounts for the characteristics of the new media ecosystem (Couldry et al. 2007; Lewis, Westlund 2015; Siapera, Veglis 2012).

The relationships between contextual and individual factors and online media consumption behavior were examined through multimodal observation of online news consumption behavior and analyzed through the OMCB framework. The results show that individual factors such as news value and environmental factors such as global pandemic are related to different online media consumption behavior, including the type of source and platforms engaged. However, explicit goals of the media consumption task do not show any difference in the type of source or platform participants access, nor the media consumption behavior they engage with.

The result confirms the subjective nature of online media consumption. Participants' online consumption behavior was related to individual and environmental factors, as opposed to objectively exhibiting no preference or pattern. Interestingly, having a particular goal for news consumption did not change their strategy and behavior. Instead, they manifested the same, subjective media consumption behavior despite the explicit goal at hand. This may be explained by what researchers call media habits, a subjective and implicit pattern of media consumption behavior that dictates one's consumption behavior.

One of the challenges of CML education is that different factors have influence on how and why one may choose a source, media platform, or the type of media they access. Development of digital devices expands the choices for people to consume news and drastically changes media consumption behaviors (Mrah 2022). People form media consumption habits driven by subjective and socially mediated credibility and trust for the media source and platform, as well as implicit heuristics (Mrah 2022). As people increasingly turn to social media and search engines to seek information, media consumers' relationship with traditional media organizations are disrupted. The ever-changing media consumption habits pose a challenge of how news consumers can effectively retrieve trustworthy information as informed by CML skills. Awareness of the complexity and subjec-

tive nature of online media consumption will be important in developing CML. Further, awareness and monitoring of implicit factors such as one's preference, familiarity, and habit that drive one's media literacy practice is difficult, especially as they are not easily subjected to our explicit examination or reflection.

6.2 Metaliteracy as a Foundational Skill for CML

Due to varied and complex patterns of online media consumption, being critically media literate requires cognitive and metacognitive skills to understand and apply appropriate strategies to effectively navigate and make sense through online media. Metaliteracy refers to multiple literacies that promote critical thinking and participation in the online media ecosystem (Mackey, Jacobson 2011), as well as the metacognitive awareness and skills to recognize one and others' practice of such literacies (Mackey, Jacobson 2014). While media literacy pertains to the cognitive aspect of literacy practice, metacognitive metaliteracy allows one to examine their own online media consumption behavior such as the choices and the assumptions they make on a behavioral level as well as implicit cognitive level. CML education, therefore, should not only focus on fostering the development of cognitive strategies to effectively navigate the online media ecosystem, but metacognitive skills to monitor and regulate one's cognitive and affective processes that drive such behavior. Further, CML should include social metacognition, recognition and practice that metacognition is a sociocultural practice (Jost et al. 1998), that our beliefs and knowledge also stems from our metacognitions about other people and our collective, cultural practices. Current study did not examine the participant's media literacy nor metaliteracy, but exploring one's online media consumption behavior in relation to these competencies would further expand our understanding of the needed competencies and how to support them.

Then, how do we practice and support metaliteracy? Jacobson and Mackey (2013) proposed seven essential elements in gaining metaliteracy. The essence in becoming metaliterate is to consciously practice critical thinking and to engage in the digital participatory environment. To be a critical media consumer, information quality should be evaluated independent of its delivery format, design of the platform, and metadata associated with the information such as comments. Critical thinking should be extended beyond the information itself with recognition of how information is generated and presented to meet the needs of the consumer. To learn to adapt to the evolutionary digital realm, individuals should also be an active contributor to the digital world by producing and sharing content in different media formats (Jacobson, Mackey 2013), a process

that helps individuals understand media formats and its impact on the content. Lastly, understanding of ethical practice in the digital realm, especially on issues around privacy and property, is important. The OMCB framework can be used to guide the endeavor to develop social, metacognitive metaliteracy by identifying the necessary skills and knowledge in relation to the factors that influence media consumption behavior.

7 Implications and Limitations

While traditional approaches to define and teach CML may be limited in capturing multiple factors that influence one's online media consumption behavior and necessary literacies to navigate these factors, Online Media Consumption Behavior (OMCB) framework provide a foundation of personal, contextual, and media factors that influence online media consumption behaviors. Becoming proficient with CML skills requires that one understands the complexity of factors that influence online media consumption behavior as identified by the OMCB framework. Further, in order to be critically media literate, one should be able to monitor and regulate multiple literacies, metaliteracy, and their role in participating and impacting the online media ecosystem.

While the conceptual framework and multimodal observation led to observation of subjective patterns of news consumption behavior, a few limitations emerged from a methodological perspective. When sharing their online consumption through social media, which some consider a personal space, a few participants raised concerns for possible invasion of privacy. This may have limited their news consumption behavior overall. Also, some of the news consumption behaviors and internal factors were difficult to observe or distinguish using direct observation and self-report. Unless the participants explicitly annotated, it may be difficult to capture which of the multiple content they were attending to. Also, distinguishing between news seeking and processing behaviors may be difficult as newsfeed tends to be provided in bitesize and there is very little temporal and qualitative difference between searching through the gist of news and reading through the entire post. Similarly, it was difficult to distinguish between scanning and snacking behavior. Many of the intervening variables (such as one's trust for news platforms, motivation for the news consumption) cannot be captured through direct observation unless the participants are prompted to share this information or through experimental design. Lastly, since the participants were aware that their news consumption behaviors would be observed, their interactions with the online news, such as liking, sharing, posting comments, might have decreased due to the Hawthorne effect (McCarney et al. 2007). For

example, Sang et al. (2020) in a study of signaling and expressive interactions with online news found more diverse and active interaction with the news platforms and features. While the OMCB may present a framework to define CML as practiced through online media platforms, further validation of the framework may be needed.

Bibliography

- Allcott, Hunt and Gentzkow, Matthew (2017). Social Media and Fake News in the 2016 Election. In: *Journal of Economic Perspectives*, 31:2, p. 221–236
- Atkin, Charles (1973). Instrumental Utilities and Information Seeking. In: P. Clarke (ed.): *New Models for Mass Communication*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications, p. 205–242
- Bass, Christopher; Mayo, Russell and Rodesiler, Luke (2022). “Because 99 is not 100”. *Teaching Critical Media Ecoliteracy*. In: *English Journal*, 111:4, p. 84–91
- Bentley, Clyde; Hamman Brian; Littau Jeremy; Meyer, Hans; Watson Brendan and Welsh Beth (2007). *Citizen Journalism. A Case Study*. In: M. Tremayne (ed.), *Blogging, Citizenship and the Future of Media*. New York: Routledge, p. 239–259
- Boczkowski Pablo J. (2004). *Digitizing the News. Innovation in Online Newspapers*. Cambridge: The MIT Press. <https://doi.org/10.7551/mitpress/2435.001.0001> [27.03.2023]
- Boczkowski, Pablo J. and Mitchelstein, Eugenia (2017). Scholarship on Online Journalism. Roads Traveled and Pathways Ahead. In: P. J. Boczkowski and C. Anderson (eds.): *Remaking the News. Essays on the Future of Journalism in the Digital Age*. Cambridge: MIT Press, p. 15–26
- Couldry, Nick; Livingstone, Sonia and Markham, Tim (2007). *Media Consumption and Public Engagement. Beyond the Presumption of Attention*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan. <https://doi.org/10.1057/9780230800823> [27.03.2023]
- Deuze, Mark (2003). The Web and its Journalisms. Considering the Consequences of Different Types of News Media Online. In: *New Media & Society*, 5:2, p. 203–230
- Duffy, Andrew and Ang, Peng H. (2019). Digital Journalism. Defined, Refined, or Re-Defined. In: *Digital Journalism*, 7:3, 378–385. <https://doi.org/10.1080/21670811.2019.1568899>
- Forman-Katz, Naomi and Matsa, Katerina Eva (2022). *News Platform Fact Sheet*. Pew Research Center. <https://www.pewresearch.org/journalism/fact-sheet/news-platform-fact-sheet/> [27.03.2023]

- Gretter, Sarah; Yadav, Aman and Gleason, Benjamin (2017). Walking the Line between Reality and Fiction in Online Spaces. Understanding the Effects of Narrative Transportation. In: *Journal of Media Literacy Education*, 9:1, p. 1–21
- Harcup, Tony and O’Neill, Deirdre (2017). What is News? News Values Revisited (again). In: *Journalism Studies*, 18:12, p. 1470–1488. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1461670X.2016.1150193> [27.03.2023]
- Harper, Douglas (2002). Talking about Pictures. A Case for Photo Elicitation. In: *Visual Studies*, 17:1, p. 13–26
- Jacobson, Trudi E. and Mackey, Thomas P. (2013). Proposing a Metaliteracy Model to Redefine Information Literacy. In: *Communications in Information Literacy*, 7:2, p. 84–91
- Jost, John T.; Kruglanski, Arie W. and Nelson, Thomas O. (1998). Social Metacognition. An Expansionist Review. In: *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 2:2, p. 137–154. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327957pspr0202_6 [27.03.2023]
- Kellner, Douglas and Share, Jeff (2005). Toward Critical Media Literacy. Core Concepts, Debates, Organizations, and Policy. In: *Discourse. Studies in the Cultural Politics of Education*, 26:3, p. 369–386. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01596300500200169> [27.03.2023]
- Lee, Jae Kook; Choi, Jihyang; Kim, Cheonsoo and Kim, Yonghwan (2014). Social Media, Network Heterogeneity, and Opinion Polarization. In: *Journal of Communication*, 64:4, p. 702–722. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jcom.12077> [27.03.2023]
- Lewis, Seth C. and Westlund, Oscar (2015). Actors, Actants, Audiences, and Activities in Cross-Media News Work. In: *Digital Journalism*, 3:1, p. 19–37. <https://doi.org/10.1080/21670811.2014.927986> [28.03.2023]
- Liedke, Jacob and Matsa, Katerina Eva (2022). Social Media and News Fact Sheet. Pew Research Center. https://www.pewresearch.org/journalism/fact-sheet/social-media-and-news-fact-sheet/?utm_source=Pew+Research+Center&utm_campaign=15de90170c-Weekly_2022_09_24&utm_medium=email&utm_term=0_3e953b9b70-15de90170c-400456061 [27.03.2023]
- Mackey, Thomas P. and Jacobson, Trudi E. (2011). Reframing Information Literacy as a Metaliteracy. In: *College & Research Libraries*, 72:1, p. 62–78
- Mackey, Thomas P. and Jacobson, Trudi E. (2014). *Metaliteracy. Reinventing Information Literacy to Empower Learners*. Chicago: American Library Association
- Marwick, Alice and Lewis, Rebecca (2017). *Media Manipulation and Disinformation Online*. New York: Data & Society Research Institute. <https://datasociety.net/library/media-manipulation-and-disinfo-online/> [27.03.2023]
- Mason, Lilliana (2013). The Rise of Uncivil Agreement. Issue versus Behavioral Polarization in the American Electorate. In: *American Behavioral Scientist*, 57:1, p. 140–159. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0002764212463363> [28.03.2023]
- McCarney, Rob; Warner, James; Iliffe, Steve; van Haselen, Robbert; Griffin, Mark and Fisher, Peter (2007). The Hawthorne Effect. A Randomised, Controlled

- Trial. *BMC Medical Research Methodology*, 7:30. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2288-7-30> [28.03.2023]
- Meijer, Irene C. and Kormelink, Tim G. (2015). Checking, Sharing, Clicking and Linking. Changing Patterns of News use Between 2004 and 2014. In: *Digital Journalism*, 3:5, p. 664–679. <https://doi.org/10.1080/21670811.2014.937149> [28.03.2023]
- Mesquita-Romero, Walter-Antonio; Fernández-Morante, M.-Carmen and Cebreiro-López, Beatriz (2022). Critical Media Literacy to Improve Students' Competencies. In: *Comunicar. Media Education Research Journal*, 30:70, p. 41–51. <https://doi.org/10.3916/C70-2022-04> [28.03.2023]
- Mitchelstein, Eugenia and Boczkowski, Pablo J. (2010). Online News Consumption Research. An Assessment of Past Work and an Agenda for the Future. In: *New Media & Society*, 12:7, p. 1085–1102. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1461444809350193> [28.03.2023]
- Möller, Judith; van de Velde, Robbert Nicolai; Merten, Lisa and Puschmann, Cornelius (2019). Explaining Online News Engagement Based on Browsing Behavior. *Creatures of Habit?* In: *Social Science Computer Review*, 38:5, p. 1–17. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0894439319828012> [28.03.2023]
- Mrah, Isam (2022). Digital Media Literacy in the Age of Mis/Disinformation. The Case of Moroccan University Students. In: *Digital Education Review*, 41, p. 176–194. <https://doi.org/10.1344/der.2022.41.176-194> [28.03.2023]
- NAMLE. (2019). Snapshot 2019. The State of Media Literacy Education in the U.S. National Association for Media Literacy Education. https://namle.net/wp-content/uploads/2020/10/SOML_FINAL.pdf [28.03.2023]
- Newman, Nic; Fletcher, Richard; Robertson, Craig T.; Eddy, Kirsten and Nielsen, Rasmus Kleis (2022). Reuters Institute Digital News Report 2022. Reuters Institute. https://reutersinstitute.politics.ox.ac.uk/sites/default/files/2022-06/Digital_News-Report_2022.pdf [28.03.2023]
- Olmstead, Kenneth; Mitchell, Amy and Rosenstiel, Tom (2011). Navigating News Online. Where People Go, How They Get There and What Lures Them Away. Pew Research Center. <https://www.pewresearch.org/journalism/2011/05/09/navigating-news-online/> [28.03.2023]
- Pavlik John (2000). The Impact of Technology on Journalism. In: *Journalism Studies*, 1, p. 229–237. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14616700050028226> [28.03.2023]
- Robertson, Lorayne and Hughes, Janette M. (2011). Investigating Pre-Service Teachers' Understandings of Critical Media Literacy. In: *Language and Literacy*, 13:2, p. 37–53. <https://doi.org/10.20360/G22S35> [28.03.2023]
- Russell, Adrienne (2007). Digital Communication Networks and the Journalistic Field. The 2005 French Riots. In: *Critical Studies in Media Communication*, 24:4, p. 285–302. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07393180701560880> [28.03.2023]

- Sang, Yoonmo; Lee, Young Jee; Park, Sora; Fisher, Caroline and Fuller, Glen (2020). Signalling and Expressive Interaction. Online News Users' Different Modes of Interaction on Digital Platforms. In: *Digital Journalism*, 8:4, p. 467–485. <https://doi.org/10.1080/21670811.2020.1743194> [28.03.2023]
- Siapera, Eugenia and Veglis, Andreas (2012). Introduction. The Evolution of Online Journalism. In: E. Siapera and A. Veglis (eds.): *The Handbook of Global Online Journalism*, p. 1–17
- Steensen, Steen; Larsen, Anna M. Grøndahl; Hågvar, Yngve Benestad and Fonn, Birgitte Kjos (2019). What Does Digital Journalism Studies Look Like? In: *Digital Journalism*, 7:3, p. 320–342. <https://doi.org/10.1080/21670811.2019.1581071> [28.03.2023]
- Tewksbury, David (2003). What Do Americans Really Want to Know? Tracking the Behavior of News Readers on the Internet. In: *Journal of Communication*, 53:4, p. 694–710. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1460-2466.2003.tb02918.x> [28.03.2023]
- The Ohio State University Pressbooks (n. d.). News as a Source. PB Pressbooks. <https://ohiostate.pressbooks.pub/choosingsources/chapter/news-as-a-source/> [28.03.2023]
- Thorson, Emily (2008). Changing Patterns of News Consumption and Participation. In: *Information, Communication, & Society*, 11:4, p. 473–489. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13691180801999027> [28.03.2023]
- Wilson, Tom D. and Walsh, Christina (1996). *Information Behaviour. An Inter-Disciplinary Perspective. A Review of the Literature*. London: British Library Research and Innovation Centre
- Zeller, F., O’Kane, J., Godo, E., & Goodrum, A. (2013). A Subjective User-Typology of Online News Consumption. In: *Digital Journalism*, 2:2, p. 214–231. <https://doi.org/10.1080/21670811.2013.801686> [28.0.2023]

Author

Yoo Kyung Chang. Senior Lecturer at Teachers College, Columbia University.
Research focuses: Metacognition and Design
yoo.chang@tc.edu

Shannon Suiru Lei. Master of Arts, Teachers College, Columbia University.
sl4406@tc.columbia.edu

Xiaoyi Gabby Zhou. Master of Arts, Teachers College, Columbia University.
xz2943@tc.columbia.edu

Correspondence Address:
 Yoo Kyung Chang
 Teachers College, Columbia University
 525 W 120th Street, Box 8,
 New York, NY 10027
 USA

Appendix

Table 1: Factors and Behaviors of Online Media Consumption Behavior (OMCB) Framework

Factors	Observations
Context of Media consumption	Person in context (context of media consumption needs and goals)
Intervening Variables	Psychological (e. g., personal interest, emotion)
There is 'us' on the one side and 'the others' on the other side. The 'us' group represents the 'normal'. 'The others' deviate from the 'normal'.	Demographic (e. g., social group, age)
	Environmental
	Role-relation or interpersonal (credibility, trust)
	Source characteristics
Information Seeking Behavior	Checking (to find out "new" information)
	Monitoring (actively surveying, get ready for actions if needed)
	Searching (looking for an answer to a specific question)
	Viewing (subordination of the activity, a background of the main task)
	Listening (akin to viewing, background)
Communicator Variables	Author and source (Who wrote the original news content)
	Platform design (What actions can you do with the news)

Factors	Observations
	Algorithm feed (What news feed is provided, how?)
	Social context (Information related to action/behavior trace of other news consumers, e. g., comments, affective tagging such as emoji, liking, sharing, viewing such as information that gets fed into the algorithm)
	Reading (paying great attention to understand the piece and the context it situates)
	Watching (full attention, cinematic experience, discussion afterward)
	Snacking (consume bits and pieces of information to gain a sense of what is going on)
	Scanning (get the highlights, the gist, efficiency)
	Metadata (Accessing and readings/viewing additional information around the media – i. e., comments, emojis, likes)
Media Use	Internal, cognitive use/action (Initiation of new media consumption loop e. g., I want to look at different post leading to new goal and context of consumption)
	External, behavioral use/action (Clicking, linking, sharing, liking, creation of recommendation, commenting, voting leading users back to communicator variables)

Sarah Chepkirui Creider

Residents and Activists

Membership Categorization Analysis as a Critical Tool

Abstract. This article uses Membership Categorization Analysis (MCA) (Sacks 1992) to offer an example of concrete tools that can be used by teachers who wish to develop critical media literacy skills with their students. Specifically, the article suggests that MCA can be a way to deal with the societal silence that often accompanies discrimination. As an example, three texts that implicitly reference Race in the United States are examined. The texts, all authored during Summer, 2020, offer accounts for a situation where a person carried, pointed, or fired a gun. In each case, those with the gun are characterized as residents or property owners, and are put in opposition with a group of people termed as activists, or members of a mob. Thus, the article shows how category terms and their associated actions and descriptors can be used to set up racist inferences, including inferring the presence of people who were not actually present in a given situation, or actions which did not occur. The study's findings also offer a pathway for teachers by suggesting: 1) that putting local texts in conversation with national ones can help students uncover societal patterns that relate to their own lives; and 2) that MCA is a tool that teachers can use to find concrete examples of the silences that often surround discrimination.

Keywords. Membership Categorization Analysis (MCA), text analysis, tools for teachers, conversation, race, discrimination, silence.

Anwohner:innen und Aktivist:innen

Die Analyse der Mitgliedschaftskategorisierung als kritisches Instrument

Zusammenfassung. In diesem Beitrag wird die Membership Categorization Analysis (MCA) (Sacks 1992) verwendet, um ein Beispiel für konkrete Inst-

umente zu geben, die von Lehrer:innen eingesetzt werden können, die mit ihren Schülern Critical Media Literacy entwickeln wollen. Insbesondere schlägt der Artikel vor, dass MCA ein Weg sein kann, um mit dem gesellschaftlichen Schweigen umzugehen, das oft mit Diskriminierung einhergeht. Beispielfähig werden drei Texte untersucht, die sich implizit auf die Kategorie Rasse in den Vereinigten Staaten beziehen. Die Texte, die alle im Sommer 2020 verfasst wurden, schildern jeweils eine Situation, in der eine Person eine Waffe trägt, damit ein Ziel anvisiert oder sie abfeuert. In jedem Fall werden die Personen mit der Waffe als Anwohner:innen oder Immobilienbesitzer:innen charakterisiert und einer Gruppe von Menschen gegenübergestellt, die als Aktivist:innen oder Mitglieder eines Mobs bezeichnet werden. Der Artikel zeigt also, wie Kategoriebegriffe und die damit verbundenen Handlungen und Deskriptoren dazu verwendet werden können, rassistische Schlussfolgerungen zu ziehen, einschließlich der Schlussfolgerung, dass Personen anwesend waren, die in einer bestimmten Situation gar nicht zugegen waren, oder dass es zu Handlungen kam, die nicht stattfanden. Die Ergebnisse der Untersuchung bieten auch einen Weg für Lehrkräfte, indem sie nahelegen: 1) dass die Gegenüberstellung lokaler und nationaler Texte Schüler:innen helfen kann, gesellschaftliche Muster aufzudecken, die sich auf ihr eigenes Leben beziehen; und 2) dass MCA ein Instrument ist, das Lehrer:innen nutzen können, um konkrete Beispiele für das Schweigen zu finden, das Diskriminierung oft umgibt.

Schlüsselwörter. Membership Categorization Analysis (MCA), Textanalyse, Tools für Lehrkräfte, Diskurs, Ethnizität, Diskriminierung, Schweigen

1 Introduction

When we teach critical media literacy (CML), we ask our students to explore the media they consume (and create), focusing on questions of power and discrimination in their daily lives. In other words, we try to build connections – among different texts; among texts and societal patterns; and between texts and our students’ own experiences. Most teachers agree that this kind of work is crucial for today’s young people, particularly given the ever-increasing rise in social media as a powerful force for both dividing communities and bringing them together – for propagating lies and conspiracies *and* for sharing hidden truths and realities. However, it is not enough to simply ask teachers to explore texts with their students. Those of us who study CML must offer tools for exploration, and examples of what that exploration might look like. This article is an attempt to do just that, via a case study exploring three different, but related texts.

Specifically, I hope to suggest two tools that could be used by teachers in their own classrooms. First, I show how examining texts from local *and* national media outlets is a powerful way to connect students' lived experiences with societal issues. By examining similarities between the language used to describe issues in their local communities and that used to describe events on the national scale, students can begin to understand the cultural patterns which shape our views and actions. Secondly, I suggest that *membership categorization analysis* (MCA) (Sacks 1992) –a method for understanding how speakers and authors use categorical terms – can be a powerful tool for uncovering hidden “stereotypes, values, and ideologies” (Kellner, Share 2019, p. 5). One of the difficulties entailed in teaching CML is that societal discrimination is almost always accompanied by societal denial. Because denial usually leads to resistance towards uncovering societal discrimination, it is particularly important for teachers to use concrete, real-life examples. The catch-22, however, is that because discriminatory ideologies are often hidden rather than being explicit, it can be difficult to find concrete examples with which to start classroom conversations.

As I will discuss, the history and current reality of racism in the United States offers an incredibly potent example of this pattern (Baldwin 1992; Rawls, Duck 2020). At the same time as a shared legacy of racism impacts almost every aspect of daily life in the United States, denial of this reality is an ever-growing phenomenon. Thus, this article uses three texts related to Race¹ and racism in the United States as an example of one kind of critical media critique that might be appropriate for teachers grappling with both discrimination and denial in their own contexts. Each of the texts I explore below was written during the summer of 2020, and all three relate to a nationwide reckoning with Race and racism which grew out of protests following the murder of George Floyd. My focus in analyzing the texts will be on the quiet, or implicit ways that the texts' authors reference societal constructs related to Race.

Below, I start with a brief explanation of membership categorization analysis and then describe the three texts and their contexts. Next, I use MCA to look at how the authors of the texts use categorization to account for their own actions and those of others in their communities. I suggest that each text uses two opposing categories, which I am calling ‘residents’ and ‘activists’.

1 In this article, I follow the work of Rawls and Duck (2020) in capitalizing the words “Race,” “White,” and “Black.” I do so in order to emphasize the fact that these words are not based on biological reality, but are social constructions, or as Rawls and Duck write, “social facts.”

Additionally, I reflect on how the “apparatus” (Sacks 1992, p. 237) of categorization allows speakers and writers to imply people, actions, and results that may or may not have counterpoints in the physical world. In other words, I attempt to show how MCA offers a tool for uncovering textual silences and gaps – in this case, those related to Race and racism. I conclude with a discussion of how this case study offers a set of procedures that could be used by teachers and students to critically engage with a variety of texts.

2 Method and Data

In this section, I start with a discussion of Membership Categorization Analysis and how it is used in this project. I then offer background on MCA as a method, and on the context for two of the texts described here. Finally, I present the three texts I will analyze in this article.

2.1 Membership Categorization Analysis

Membership categorization refers to the way ordinary people use categories of people to account for their actions, and the actions of those around them. Harvey Sacks (1992), the sociologist who first used the term, wrote that “there’s a collection of categories [...] and (people) apply them to populations to say things about them” (p. 238). One extremely important point about these categories is that, although Sacks writes about them as if they already exist, somewhere in the world (i.e. “there’s a collection [...]”) – he was, in fact, very clear that these categories are created by those who use them. In a sense, the word ‘membership’ in the phrase “membership categorization” can have dual meanings. On the one hand, we can ask how and when people are assigned membership to certain categories, such as ‘woman’, or ‘citizen’, or ‘mother’. But we can also ask how members – by which Sacks basically meant members of a given society or culture (Sacks 1992, p. 237) – build and use the categories in question. Thus, rather than inserting people into predetermined categories, MCA asks researchers to look closely at how categories are constructed and used by members.

Sacks started with two simple sentences, from a child’s story: *The Baby Cried. The Mommy Picked It Up* (1992, p. 237). He argued that although the speaker of the two sentences does not explicitly describe a connection between the baby and the mommy in this miniature story, their connection is perfectly clear. As listeners or readers, we all understand that it is the baby’s mommy who picked it up –

not some random mommy from the street. At first glance, this may seem so obvious as to be hardly worth discussing. However, as Sacks, and many researchers who use MCA have found, this simple observation turns out to be a powerful tool for understanding an “apparatus” (Sacks 1966, p. 237) we all use to both account for and create our worlds.

For the purposes of this article, it is worth highlighting three observations Sacks made about these two sentences, all related to the inferences we make when we hear the name of a given category. First, we can think in terms of “collections” (Sacks 1966, p. 238), or groups of categories that belong together. These sets are one reason that the relationship between the baby and mother is so apparent. Babies and mothers are part of a set we might call ‘family’ – along with, perhaps, father, sister, brother, aunt, grandmother, etc. The important point here is that pretty much any member of a given society will have the same understanding of what belongs in this collection. So, if I say ‘mother’, I am inferring many other categories, including those in the list above. To put it differently, ‘mothers’ have ‘children’ – and we do not need to say this explicitly. I can use the word mother to infer a host of other categories. The other kinds of inference Sacks describes has to do with actions and descriptors we connect with categories. For instance, the category ‘mother’, at least in some societies, might be related to actions such as ‘teaching’, ‘loving’, ‘feeding’, etc. and to descriptors which might range from caring to controlling. These “category-bound activities” (Sacks 1992, p. 241) and “category-tied predicates” (Stokoe 2012, p. 281) are, according to Sacks, a primary way that we understand and describe our world.

2.2 Method and Participants

In working with the texts described below, I started by simply looking closely at the terms used to describe people or groups of people. For each text, I then traced the category-bound activities that seemed to be associated with different groups. Finally, I looked across texts for similarities in categories and in category-bound activities. Text A is a transcription of a video that was found on YouTube. Texts B and C are part of a larger corpus of material, including Zoom interviews, video recordings of meetings, meeting notes, and published texts, such as Letters to the Editor and newspaper articles. All materials are related to the work of a group of community members from a rural area in the mid-Western United States². The group has been meeting regularly since 2016, and they share a wish

2 In the tradition of MCA, and its parent field of ethnomethodology, I have attempted to anonymize local texts and participants.

to build connections in their local community while also working to change what they see as racist and sexist policies and actions in their area. As is typical of MCA-related research, my goal in this project is not generalizability. Instead, I hope to use this case study to show a set of possible tools for further research of other contexts and other texts. MCA, at heart, focuses on an emic perspective. Our aim is to uncover the perspective of participants, as it is displayed in their verbal choices. That said, although my goal in this study was to stay with the concrete textual choices made by the writers I describe below, I must also note that this particular context is important to me personally. Two of the texts described below are from the county where I spent my childhood. Thus, my understanding of the clear racial undertones in these documents is based on both academic analysis and personal experience. Specifically, and to use my own set of category terms, I am a White woman and my family is Black. My insistence on the importance of seeing connections among texts, bodies, objects, and places stems from my own fear for family members who were threatened and targeted after these incidents I describe below. For this reason, and in the interest of triangulation, I have checked my understandings and analyses of all three texts with local community members.

2.3 The Texts

The following texts were all created between August 24 and August 30, 2020, in the United States. In order to clearly portray their contexts, I present the texts chronologically. Note: In order to preserve anonymity in texts B and C, references to specific people, places, and times are replaced by a general term in brackets. For instance, [place name] is used instead of the name of a town or county.

(A) McCloskey Speech (MS)

On August 24, 2020, at approximately 8:30pm, a prerecorded speech by Mark and Patricia McCloskey was presented as part of the nationally televised Republican National Convention. Prior to the convention, the couple had received considerable coverage in national news media after they were photographed and videotaped while aiming a handgun and semi-automatic rifle (CNN 2021) at protestors who were walking towards the house of the St. Louis mayor. The walkers' purpose was to protest the mayor's decision to read aloud the names of people who had written to her in favor of defunding the police. The following transcriptions are from the McCloskey's speech.

Patricia McCloskey (0:23):

01 America is such a great country that not only do you
02 have the right to own a gun and use it to defend yourself,
03 but thousands of Americans will offer you free advice on
04 how to use it. At least that's what we experienced. What
05 you saw happen to us could just as easily happen to
06 any of you who are watching from quiet neighborhoods
07 around our country ...

Mark McCloskey (0:46):

08 It seems as if the Democrats no longer view the
09 government's job as protecting honest citizens from
10 criminals, but rather protecting criminals from honest
11 citizens. Not a single person [...] in the out-of-control mob
12 you saw at our house was charged with a crime, but you
13 know who was? We were. They've actually charged us
14 with felonies for daring to defend our home.

Mark McCloskey (1:28):

15 On top of that, consider this: The Marxist [...] liberal
16 activist leading the mob to our neighborhood stood
17 outside our home with a bull horn screaming, "You can't
18 stop the revolution." Just weeks later, that same [...] Marxist
19 [...] activist won the Democrat nomination to hold a seat in
20 the US House of Representatives in the city of St. Louis –
21 that's the same as winning the general election. That
22 Marxist [...] revolutionary is now going to be [...] the
23 congresswoman from the first district of Missouri.

(B) Police Press Releases (PR)

A few hours after the McCloskeys' speech, on August 24, 2020, at approximately 11:30pm, a man who lived in a rural, mid-Western area of the United States stood on his porch. His porch faced out onto a state highway, and across the highway were a garage and parking lot, both of which belonged to him. Standing on the other side of the road were a group of approximately 50 people, including men, women, and children, all of whom were walking across the country towards Washington, DC, where they planned to participate in a march celebrating Dr. Martin Luther King Jr. They later stated that they had parked their cars there in order to prepare for the next stage of their walk. The man standing on his porch shot his gun towards these people. One person was shot in the face and had to receive

medical care. After the shooting incident, the state police issued a series of press releases via Twitter and then held several press conferences. The texts below are from the initial Twitter press releases, and were both issued on August 25.

Press Release #1:

01 The [place name] State Police in [place name] is currently investigating a
02 shooting that took place on [place name] on 08/24/2020 at [time]. An area
03 residence (sic.) and a group of individuals engaged in an argument, which
04 culminated in gun fire. One person was struck and is being treated in
05 [place name] hospital. Two individuals are currently being questioned at the
06 [place name] Barracks.

Press Release #2:

01 The [place name] State Police in [place name] was contacted by a property
02 owner on Monday, August 24, 2020 regarding a group of people in a private
03 business parking lot. Troopers later learned that the group was composed of
04 approximately 30 activists who are travelling on foot from [place name] to
05 Washington, D.C. At [time] at the same location and before state
06 police arrival, the property owners confronted the activists. The
07 confrontation escalated and gun shots were exchanged between the property
08 owners and the activists.

(C) Letter to the Editor (LTE)

On the evening of August 26, 2020, a group of 250-300 people gathered in the town square of a small rural town. The town is the county seat (center of local government) in the county where the shooting had taken place. Most of people in the square were from that same county, and most of them carried rifles or assault weapons (open carry laws are in effect in this state.) According to witnesses, social media postings, and an article in the local newspaper, they stated that they were there to 'protect' the court house from Black Lives Matter marchers and to 'support' the local police force. Importantly, there is no credible evidence of any threat to the courthouse. There is also no evidence that any group of people, besides those who gathered with guns were (or had planned to be) in the town square that night. The third text, then, is a letter to the editor, written by someone who participated in the incident in the town square. The letter was published in the August 29/30 edition of the local newspaper.

01 I just wanted to say how proud I was to be standing among
02 the patriots of [place name]. We all gathered to protect
03 our courthouse and monuments and to back our law

04 enforcement. All night long there were cars and trucks
05 driving by beeping their horns in show of support and
06 waving American flags. It's pretty amazing also how
07 clean it stayed down in the square. Early the next morning I
08 drove through and there was no trash that I could see.
09 There was no broken glass, no burnt out automobiles,
10 or burning buildings or looted businesses.
11 We all heard the call and we came down to defend our
12 town. Maybe more towns will start doing what we did.
13 I moved here a little over 21 years ago because I fell in love
14 with the area. I love [place name] even more now. Thank
15 you people of [place name] and God Bless America.

3 Analysis

In this analysis, I start by looking at the physical events for which these authors provide an account. Next, I look at how the people involved in these events are described using a similar set of categories in all three texts, with related category-bound activities and predicates.

Despite differences in genre and intended audience, all three texts include an account of an event where people stood outside while carrying, pointing, or firing a gun. On the surface, the McCloskey Speech can be seen as an attempt to unify Republican voters, or perhaps to persuade undecided voters to choose the Republican presidential candidate. However, at least part of the actual content of the speech was a description of the action that brought the speakers to the attention of national news media: pointing guns towards protestors. The Police Press Releases were written in response to an incident that included at least one person firing a gun. Finally, while the Letter to the Editor (LTE), does not mention firearms explicitly, witnesses, photographs, and the local newspaper all agree that most of the people described by the writer were, in fact, carrying guns (see also Text D, below).

Interestingly, all three texts use parallel categories to describe the person or people who carried, pointed, or fired guns. Below, I describe this category, which I call 'residents', in more detail. I then discuss another, related category, which I call 'activists', whose members are described in juxtaposition to 'residents'.

Other examples of plural possessive pronouns modifying locations in the McCloskey speech and the Letter to the Editor follow:

(2) *our* plus noun (MS and LTE)

our country (MS, line 07)

our house (MS, line 12)

our home (MS, lines 14 and 17)

our neighborhood (MS, line 16)

our courthouse and monuments (LTE, line 03)

our town (LTE, lines 11 and 12)

Finally, it is interesting to note a moment where the writer of the letter to the editor uses personification to suggest that ‘residents’ of a town and the town itself are, in fact, the same. The writer first describes the actions she and her group took, and then goes on to say that “maybe more towns will start doing what we did” (line 12). Here, it is as if the town does not just belong to the people, but that they are in fact the town.

Two related categories are ‘citizen’ (MC, lines 9 and 11) and ‘patriot’ (LTE, line 2). Of course, not all citizens are residents of their countries. In the McCloskey’s speech, however, the term is used in a general statement that contrasts citizens with criminals, and then goes on to contrast Mark and Patricia McCloskey with members of an ‘out-of-control’ mob (MS, line 11). Thus, the implication seems to be that the McCloskeys (who live in the United States) are members of the group ‘citizen’. Similarly, the writer of the Letter to the Editor names herself as being a member of the group ‘patriots’, and then goes on to explicitly describe herself as living in the town she is describing. Indeed, one category-bound predicate, for the writers of the MS and the LTE, seems to be ‘patriotic’. We notice this in a mention of American flags (LTE, line 06), and in the phrase “God Bless America” (LTE, line 15), as well as in the reference to “America” as a “great country” (MS, line 01).

Thus far, we have seen that ‘residents’ are also ‘property owners’ and ‘home owners’, as well as citizens of ‘towns’, and that they are also patriotic citizens of ‘America’. The relationship between ‘citizens’/‘residents’/‘patriots’ and property is particularly important because of a key category bound activity in these texts: namely, ‘protect’ and ‘defend’. Importantly, both defend and protect are transitive verbs requiring a direct object – something that is protected or defended. For

these authors, that object is a location⁴. Below, I show the uses of the verbs ‘protect’ and ‘defend’ in the McCloskey’s Speech and the Letter to the Editor, along with the direct object for each use of these verbs.

(3) defend and protect

defend *our home* (MS, line 14)

protect *our courthouse and monuments* (LTE, lines 02 and 03)

defend *our town* (LTE, lines 11 and 12)

In the McCloskey speech, Mark McCloskey claims that “they” (the government) charged him and his wife with felonies for “daring to defend our home” (line 14). Although firearms are not mentioned in this portion of the speech, given the reference to legal proceedings which resulted from the actions the pair took during a protest (aiming their guns at protestors), it seems clear that the phrase “defend our home” is used to describe the action of pointing a gun at a person. It is also interesting that this phrase is used directly after the reference to ‘citizens’ (lines 9 and 11). The implication seems to be that Mark and Patricia McCloskey are ‘citizens’, and that, as such, they ‘defend’ (their) ‘home’.

In the letter to the editor, ‘defend’ is used in a similar manner, with the difference being that the location being defended is ‘our town’ (lines 11–12). Additionally, the letter begins with the author noting that one purpose of the ‘gather’(ing) she describes was to “protect our courthouse and monuments” (lines 02–03). And, in this case, the sentence using ‘protect’ is preceded by a sentence that designates those doing the protection as ‘patriots’ (line 02). Thus, we see a pattern where the action of carrying or pointing a gun is described as defending or protecting. Those doing the protecting and defending are ‘citizens’ and ‘patriots’, and they are defending places or locations which belong to them.

3.2 Activists

Along with possession, the category of ‘resident’ seems to be associated with danger from another, opposing group of people. To put it differently, not only do

4 Note: I do not include three other uses of ‘defend’ and ‘protect’ in the McCloskey speech (lines 02, 09 and 10), all of which are references to generalized events with no specific human actor, rather than descriptions of the speaker’s own actions. The movement from descriptions of specific actions to generalized events that might occur (or might need to occur) is fascinating in and of itself – but this is outside the scope of this article.

residents need to protect and defend their property, towns, etc. – they protect these locations from a specific category of people. Below, I discuss this category, and its explicit and implicit appearance in these texts.

In the McCloskey speech, we can note that ‘neighborhood’ (line 06) is used to describe the make-up of the United States, which seems to consist of a series of ‘quiet neighborhoods’ where people are watching the Republican National Convention (lines 06 and 07). Thus, one attribute of Americans is that they live in ‘quiet neighborhoods’. However, these neighborhoods are in danger. Thus, the quiet described by Patricia McCloskey can be contrasted with a ‘mob’ of ‘activists’, ‘screaming’ into ‘bull horns’, about ‘revolution’ (lines 15–18). Notably, this group of people is described as being led into ‘our neighborhood’ (line 16). We see a similar juxtaposition in lines 8–12. Here, Mark McCloskey sets up a direct contrast between ‘citizens’ (that is, Americans) and ‘criminals’. The ‘criminals’ in this case are members of an ‘out of control mob’, and the ‘citizens’ are ‘honest’. In a sense, then, this speech implies a set of categories, or membership categorization device (Sacks 1992, p. 40), that consists of two connected groups: citizens and criminals.

(4) two groups, MS

honest citizens (line 09)	vs.	criminals (line 10)
home-owner (“our house,” line 14)	vs.	out of control mob (line 11)
residents of “quiet neighborhoods” (line 06)	vs.	Marxist liberal activist ... leading a mob ... bull horn ... screaming ... (lines 15–22)

Interestingly, despite their theoretically objective genre, and despite being written in the 3rd person, the press releases juxtapose two groups of people in a similar way. In the first press release, ‘an area resident’ (sic) is juxtaposed against ‘a group of individuals’ (lines 02 and 03). Thus, one person is defined in terms of his location – his residence in the area – and, on the other hand, we have a nameless, unlocated “group.” This juxtaposition becomes even clearer in the second press release, when the ‘resident’ becomes a ‘property owner’ and the ‘group’ becomes ‘30 activists’ who were on a ‘private parking lot’ (lines 02, 03 and 04). Thus, we see again the pattern of referring to those who carry – and, in this case fire – guns in terms of their ownership of property, and in juxtaposition to groups of activists. It is also interesting to note that the term ‘activist’, in the McCloskey speech, is associated with being a ‘Marxist revolutionary’ and ‘leading a mob’ (lines 15–22).

In the Letter to the Editor, those who might commit dangerous acts are only implied. This makes sense, given the fact that there was no group of people to commit such acts. In this text, what is explicit are the dangerous (imaginary) results of a series of dangerous (imaginary) actions. In lines 09 and 10, the writer describes coming back to the square and seeing “no burnt out automobiles, or burning buildings or looted businesses.” It is not clear whether or not the writer is suggesting that members of his/her group did not commit these actions, or that they prevented others from committing them. In either case, he/she is clearly implying a group of people who do or would commit the actions that lead to such results. That is, automobiles are set on fire by someone, stores are looted by someone or some ones, etc. Thus, the letter implies a group of actors – actors who engage in actions strikingly similar to those implied by the “out of control mob” in the McCloskey Speech. Figure one, below, shows the categories of people and place associated with protection and defense in these two texts:

<i>Someone</i>	<u>protects or defends</u> a location	from <i>someone</i> .
<i>American</i>	<i>Neighborhood</i>	<i>mob</i>
<i>Patriot</i>	<i>Town</i>	<i>activist</i>
<i>Citizen</i>	<i>Home/House</i>	<i>criminal</i>
<i>Resident (of town)</i>	<i>Monuments & Courthouse</i>	<i>Marxist / revolutionary</i>
<i>Home-owner</i>		<i>[people who] burn, loot, break glass, etc.</i>

Figure 1: Protect and Defend

In sum, each of these texts includes a category which I am calling ‘resident’. This category is associated with possession and belonging related to specific locations: country, town, neighborhood, and home. It is also associated with the category bound action of defending and protecting said locations. Based on the real-life actions of these authors, we can suggest that this protection also involves the possession of a firearm. In addition, we see the opposing category of ‘activist’. This category is defined in terms of actions rather than location, belonging, or possession. Category-bound activities for this category involve the destruction of property, such as burning cars and buildings, and looting businesses.

4 Discussion and Conclusion

In this article, I have tried to show how three texts, all created within a few days of each other, use membership categorization devices in similar ways. Below, I sum-

marize the findings described above, with a focus on how teachers and students might look at texts such as these.

First, teachers can help students understand how membership categorization is used as an ideological tool by looking at which terms are not chosen in a particular text. That is, a close analysis of category terms asks us to wonder why any one category (or set of categories) was chosen to be highlighted in a given context. For instance, if someone is described as a ‘woman’, students might be asked to think about why the author chose gender over nationality, profession, familial role, or even hobby. In the texts described here, participants could have been described in terms of their age, gender, political affiliation, Race, familial role, profession, educational background, hobby (such as “gun owner”), etc. (Sacks 1992, p. 41). For instance, the people described as ‘activists’ in the Police Press Releases were also men, women, children, ministers, home-owners, parents, etc. Similarly, those described in the Letter to the Editor as ‘patriots’ were also men, women, parents, home-owners, gun-owners – and presumably also teachers, doctors, business-owners, etc. Thus, the choice to use terms such as ‘activist’, ‘resident’, and ‘patriot’ can be seen as salient, in the sense that it sets up a specific set of inferences, as I have attempted to describe above.

A next step, after asking what inferences and relationships are set up by the terms that are used, is to look outwards for societal patterns, both vis-à-vis terms that are found in given text, and vis-à-vis terms that seem to be avoided. As I mentioned above, CML asks us to look beyond texts themselves, to connect texts to the societies from which – and for which – they are created. In this case, we can note a set of categories that is unspoken in all three texts presented here – namely, categories related to Race. The situations described in the convention speech, and in the letter to the editor and police report were both bound up with a nationwide conversation regarding Race and racism which took place in the summer of 2020 across the United States. As I note above, Mark and Patricia McCloskey pointed their guns towards a group of people marching to protest a mayor’s decision regarding publicizing the names of those who supported defunding the local police department (defunding the police is an important part of the platform of protestors associated with the Black Lives Matter movement.) In the case of the other texts, many of the people standing across the road from the man on the porch were African American, and all were on their way to an event celebrating the civil rights activist Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. and, the people with guns on the town square were responding to social media postings falsely suggesting that Black Lives Matter protestors planned to come to the town (personal communication and interview data). In a sense, then, the category of ‘resident’ (with the associated ‘citizen’, ‘patriot’, ‘property owner’, etc.) seems to

be a code for ‘White’, while that of ‘activist’ (with the associated ‘mob’, ‘looter’, etc.) is code for ‘Black’. Thus, by choosing a set of two connected categories (‘resident’ and ‘activist’), these authors manage to silently suggest another set of two opposing categories: ‘Black’ and ‘White’. Indeed, as many writers have suggested, the category-bound activity of ‘looting’ was used throughout that time period in a variety of contexts in order to discredit those associated with Black Lives Matter protests (Kelley 2020).

In fact, as I mention above, silence related to Race is, in and of itself a cultural pattern, related to a long history of silence around racism in the United States (Baldwin 1992; Rawls, Duck 2020). As many writers and scholars have shown us, racism is intertwined with all aspects of the United States, historical and present-day (Baldwin 1992; Essed 1991; Rawls, Duck 2020). At the same time, a denial of racism can be found in a multitude of interactions: from current attempts to prevent teachers from talking about slavery (Hannah-Jones 2021) to everyday conversations that do – and do not – occur in communities across the United States.

That said, the point of describing coded language found in these texts is not to prove that the speakers and writers of these texts are racist. Nor is it particularly fruitful to ask if the choices involved in creating the texts were made consciously. Instead, this kind of analysis can allow us to uncover patterns, and to notice how those patterns play themselves out, across texts and across contexts. In other words, I hope to have shown how MCA can offer information regarding the apparatus of denial – the specific methods with which silence around racism may be perpetuated.

For teachers, then, I hope that this study suggests two questions that can be useful starting points for a critical textual analysis: 1) What societal patterns do we see across related texts? and 2) What is accomplished via the authors’ categorical choices? By applying these questions to local, national, and global texts, teachers can provide a concrete basis for conversations about the silences that so often surround discrimination and domination.

Bibliography

Baldwin, James (1992). *The Fire Next Time*. New York: Random House
CNN 2021, <https://www.cnn.com/2021/06/17/us/st-louis-mccloskeys-plead-guilty-to-misdemeanors/index.html> [05.04.2023]

- Essed, Philomena (1991). *Understanding Everyday Racism. An Interdisciplinary Theory*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage
- Hannah-Jones, Nikole (2021). *The 1619 Project. A New Origin Story*. New York: Penguin Random House
- Kelley, Robin D.G. (2020). What Kind of Society Values Property over Black Lives? In: *New York Times*, 2020/6/18. <https://www.nytimes.com/2020/06/18/opinion/george-floyd-protests-looting.html> [05.04.2023]
- Kellner, Douglas and Share, Jeff (2019). *The Critical Media Literacy Guide*. Boston, MA: Brill Sense
- Sacks, Harvey (1992). *Lectures on Conversation, Vols I and II*, (Edited by Gail Jefferson). Oxford: Blackwell
- Stokoe, Elizabeth (2012). Moving Forward with Membership Categorization Analysis. *Methods for Systematic Analysis*. In: *Discourse Studies*, 14:3, p. 277–303. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1461445612441534> [05.04.2023]
- Rawls, Anne Warfield and Duck, Waverly (2020). *Tacit Racism*. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press

Author

Sarah Chepkirui Creider. Lecturer at Columbia University's Teachers College. Research focuses: Conversation analysis; Membership Categorization Analysis; Teacher-student interaction; Teacher-reflection; Critical media analysis; Community conversations
scc2120@tc.columbia.edu

Correspondence Address:
Sarah Chepkirui Creider
Teachers College, Columbia University
525 West 120th Street
New York, NY 10027
USA

Michael Haus

Towards a Political Reading of Film

Bringing together Critical Media Literacy and Political Theory¹

Abstract. This contribution asks how a ‘political reading’ of film can be conceptualized and how a critical film analysis can serve the purpose of democratic education and empowerment. For this, the discourse on critical media literacy (CML) serves as a reference, making clear that dealing critically with media means far more than questions of ‘truth’ and ‘harm prevention’. It also requires regarding media as sites of political struggle and a politics of representation. There are several sources and reference points for engaging in critical film analysis thus understood, reaching from the analysis of conditions of production over reception analysis to content analysis. The article also asks how political theory as an academic discipline can be used productively in this context. Going beyond activist and everyday understandings of politics, political theory might offer deeper political readings. Against that backdrop, a systematic distinction of different approaches for a political reading of film with the help of political theory is presented, with ‘raising awareness’, ‘situating politically’, ‘understanding concepts’ and ‘widening the horizon’ as four ideal types. Finally, practical implications are discussed with respect to two worlds of film: the ‘world of cinema’ and the ‘world of television’.

Keywords. Film analysis, movies, popular culture, culture industry, political theory, democracy

¹ A German version of this contribution is also published in Mladenova (forthcoming). I am grateful for comments to Radmila Mladenova and Lina Abraham, who also helped with the English translation of the German text.

Filme politisch lesen

Anregungen für die kritische Filmanalyse aus dem Diskurs der Critical Media Literacy und der Politischen Theorie

Zusammenfassung. Der Beitrag behandelt die Frage, wie Filme ‚politisch gelesen‘ werden können und eine kritische Filmanalyse begründet werden kann, die einen demokratiepädagogischen Anspruch verfolgt. Er nimmt zum einen Bezug auf den Diskurs zu Critical Media Literacy. Dabei zeigt sich insbesondere, dass sich eine kritische Medienpraxis über Gesichtspunkte der ‚Wahrheit‘ von Medieninhalten und der ‚Schädlichkeit‘ von Medienkonsum hinaus mit der Relevanz von Medien als Ort der Austragung politischer Deutungskämpfe und einer Politik der Repräsentation befasst. Eine solche Praxis kann sich auf verschiedene Quellen und Bezugspunkte beziehen, die von Analysen der Rahmenbedingungen von Filmproduktion über Rezeptionsanalysen bis zu inhaltsanalytischen Zugängen reichen. Zum anderen fragt der Beitrag danach, was die Politische Theorie als wissenschaftliche Disziplin für eine solche kritische Filmpraxis leisten kann. Dieser Beitrag wird in einer über alltagsweltliche und aktivistische Zugänge hinausgehenden Weise des Interpretierens filmischer Inhalte gesehen. Im Anschluss lässt sich eine systematische Differenzierung eines politischen Lesens von Filmen mit Hilfe Politischer Theorie vornehmen, die demokratiepädagogisch als ‚Erzeugen von Aufmerksamkeit‘, ‚politische Verortung‘, ‚Konzepte verstehen‘ und ‚Horizontenerweiterung‘ gefasst werden können. Abschließend werden Überlegungen zu praktischen Ansätzen für eine kritische Filmanalyse angestellt, die sich auf ‚die Welt des Kinos‘ und die ‚Welt des Fernsehens‘ beziehen, wobei erstere in besonderer Weise für den Spielfilm, letztere für die Serie steht.

Schlüsselwörter. Filmanalyse, Filme, Populärkultur, Kulturindustrie, Politische Theorie, Demokratie

1 Introduction

How can we ‘politically read’ film? To what extent can such a ‘political reading’ be part of a critical media educational practice that takes social power relations into account? And: What role does political theory, being rooted in academic discourse and subject to scientific research as well as university teaching, play? In the following, I seek to explore those questions. In particular, I will focus on the link between the perspective of CML on the one hand, and film as a medium as well as film studies or rather film analysis on the other, and I will examine the link

to my own academic discipline, political theory. By doing so, I especially aim to show how the critical perspectives of theory and analysis can be used productively in critical film practice. ‘Political reading’ of film can be understood as a central approach to critical media education. In this context, popular culture acts as the basis for the struggle over power relations, media formats, content, and cultural semantic meaning (Rauter-Nestler 2018, p. 3).

Films are an essential part of popular culture because they can impressively create a tie between en masse experienced pleasure and social self-thematization. At the same time, this characteristic is shaped by the economic and political conditions of successful commercialization of film which is a medium that mostly demands heavy financial investments for production. Yet, the popular cultural medium of film is also able to cross the border in the direction of ‘art’ and ‘alternative culture’ (however socially constructed such categories are). Therefore, film does not only provide an (enjoyable) representation for mainstream recipients in a capitalistic setting but also gives vanguards, activists, and minorities the (political and artsy) possibility to express themselves in a space wrung from prevailing societal relations. Films imagine and discuss ‘normal’ but also ‘alternative’ forms of reality, while at the same time constantly creating a ‘different’ form of reality. This takes the shape of enacting and displaying, thus ‘authenticating’, what is narrated by the film. Daniel Frampton refers to a “film world” or rather film as “a cousin of reality”, “the second world we live in” as well as “[a] second world that feeds and shapes our perception and understanding of reality” (Frampton 2006, p. 1). According to that view, well before the ‘digitalization’ of our life and the emergence of the ‘virtual world’, we have been living in more than what we consider our ‘real’ reality. A ‘political reading’ of film means raising the question of to what extent the reality being generated by film reinforces or challenges the ruling power relations in society.

In the following, I am going to further discuss the conceptual relation between CML and film. In particular, it will be shown that critical media practice in the context of CML means far more than just posing questions of ‘truth’ within the content and ‘harm prevention’ within the consumption of media. Therefore, the relevance of media as a site of political struggle over interpretation will be underlined. Additionally, it will be emphasized that films can not only serve as a tool for conveying educational content but also as a type of pedagogical text which should be based on an inherent democratic practice. By doing so, the analytic perspective on the representation of social values, interests, and conflicts in films will be combined with the requirement for the use of an inherent democratic practice. Against that backdrop, different sources of critical film analysis and ways to read film politically will be presented. As a result, there are many

ways to approach critical film analysis. They differ in their approach to the social framework of film production, the ways of film reception, and in understanding the language of the film itself. At the same time, the main contribution of political theory might be a specific way of decoding and interpreting film-related content. With the help of political theory, I propose a way to further differentiate the ‘political reading’ of film. I conclude with observations about the practical implications of critical film analysis in the context of CML will be discussed.

2 Critical Media Literacy, Popular Culture, and Film

Like other contributions to the special issue, the understanding of CML referred to in the following draws on Douglas Kellner and Jeff Share (Kellner, Share 2005; 2007; 2009). In particular, the work of Kellner needs to be emphasized due to his focus on society-critical theoretical traditions (critical theory, cultural studies, American pragmatism, see Kellner 1982) and his outstanding achievements for critical film analysis informed by social research (Kellner 1993; 2010; Ryan, Kellner 1988; see Winter 2018). There is no other author doing film analysis on the basis of such an intimate knowledge of critical theoretical approaches and with such a broad inclusion of popular films. Kellner has offered impressive accounts of film production as embedded in struggles for hegemony. Contemporary society, according to his view, is shaped by a ‘media culture’ that illustrates and conveys identities, everyday practice, and political orientation – and in turn, is characterized by the (often latent) presence of hegemonic conflicts. At the same time, contemporary society is subject to the functional imperatives of the social system – particularly the imperatives of a commodity character and profitability in a capitalist economy.

What are the characteristics of CML and critical film analysis drawing on Kellner’s work? On the one hand, despite its rootedness in critical social philosophy Kellner’s and Share’s understanding of CML relates to broader understandings of media literacy as it is formulated for example by the Association for Media Literacy (AML) and programmatically presented by the Center for Media Literacy² (see Kellner, Share 2005, p. 374–377), highlighting five key assumptions regarding media competence (Media Literacy):

2 Kellner and Share condensate the original eight ‘key concepts’, which are mentioned by the Center for Media Literacy referring again to the definition of the AML from 1987 (see Jolls and Wilson).

- Media is always constructed, but generally this is not made visible;
- Media uses (creative) codes (conventions, stylistic devices, narratives, quotations, etc.), which at the same time need to be anchored in society in order to be understood;
- Media gets (differently) decoded and appropriated by (different groups of) media recipients;
- The content of media is attached to the representation of values and political perspectives, usually in an ambiguous way;
- The production of Media is shaped by economic and political interests.

On the other hand, those five key assumptions are themselves obviously already influenced by a ‘critical’ perspective. They view media competence as a *representation* of social reality and political concepts – and not just a tool used for an assessment of ‘information’ (see Jolls, Wilson). This view contrasts with the (in the words of Browne and Brennan: “simplistic”) understanding of media competence, which is primarily aimed at “to protect young people and other media users against a plague of fake news and filter bubbles” (Browne, Brennan 2018, p. 2). No doubt, the ability to detect fake news and to question predominant opinions within a filter bubble is necessary for responsible handling of information. Campaigns spreading disinformation are a serious threat to the public debate. However, the representation of social realities, moral concepts, and perspectives can’t be divided as simply as truth vs. falseness, or rational discussion vs. sinister manipulation.

First of all, the affirmation of derogatory stereotypes and the essentialization of problematic qualities of specific groups within media coverage does not necessarily equal the spreading of ‘lies’. It is rather the way of displaying reality or creating a fictional reality that often causes ‘othering’ – starting by the specific camera settings which suggest specific groups being fundamentally ‘different’, up until the regularly made connection between the ‘different’ groups and social problems without taking the living conditions faced by the affected group into account (see for example End 2014 for interpretative patterns characterized by anti-gypsyism in the German media).

Secondly, media or media culture and by this media education is not just about ‘information’ but also about ‘infotainment’ and ‘entertainment’ – with the sphere of entertainment being not less relevant for our view of society (Grubb, Posick 2021, p. 2). Likewise, the question can be posed how we can deal critically with the representation of societal relations, beliefs and experiences within media products centered around ‘entertainment’ (understood as an experience of pleasure in a fictional world). It is precisely because the media is part of the

entertaining-fictional domain, Kellner (but also Henry Giroux 2002) sees media and especially entertainment film as suitable for critical media education. In that way, we have a particularly broad access to different perspectives on how we view ourselves, the society we live in, and how to understand or possibly understand the political struggles we face today. Lies and conspiracy theories within the media that are spread by anti-democratic forces might in principle be quite easily exposed by individuals sharing a solid democratic attitude and sufficient knowledge or skills to gain it. It is a much harder task, though, to understand why lies and manipulative strategies are so efficient and how they change our society, in how far we still can find ways of approaching one another and engage in a dialogue, or where exactly the fine line between likable maniacs and those leaning toward fanaticism, etc. needs to be drawn. Taking theory and method as a basis, scientific research might be able to provide some clues. Having said that, day-to-day knowledge and related practices are much more reliant on narrative interpretations. Entertainment films are the medium for such narratives and interpretations – and precisely because of that they are a suitable subject for critical analysis: Through them, one can view and understand the world in a specific way, and therefore they are part of the interplay of media, culture, and power.

By going beyond “understanding” the world we live in and critically engaging with the ways in which film makes us understand it, though, the occupation with entertaining media also offers specific possibilities to learn how to deal with media in a creative and self-empowered way. At this point, the characteristically ‘critical’ move of CML in comparison with a protective but also a more aesthetic-artistic approach of media education (such as ‘media arts literacy’) can be illuminated. CML focuses on a widely shared media culture consisting of “products of social production and struggle”, with the aim of “teaching students to be critical of media representations and discourses, but also stressing the importance of learning to use the media as modes of self-expression and social activism” (Kellner, Share 2005, p. 372). In doing so, popular culture is regarded as a “relay of the articulation of power relation” and a (mostly implicit) “educational space” of utmost importance, since there pleasure is the vehicle of meaning-construction and identity-production (Rauter-Nestler 2018, p. 2, my translation). Film is the outstanding medium for this (probably only paralleled by popular music).

Against this background, it is necessary not to regard film as something “given” but as an initial text which allows many possibilities of connection and which thus can be continuously re-written, not least by its reception and by the reception of reception(s). In educational terms, when read politically in that way, film is not just “another tool teaching material” “but turns to an independent edu-

cational text which can help develop a critical media competence as it connects the private with the public sector” (Rauter-Nestler 2018, p. 2 with reference to Giroux). Following this, film “can [become] a mouthpiece for predominantly marginalized (subject-) positions as it opens up new spaces and possibilities” (ibid.). Democratic practice and education can’t be strictly separated from one another.

3 Reading Film „Critically“ and „Politically“ – Critical Theory and Cultural Studies

In his standard work *understanding film* James Monaco mentions two critical approaches to film analysis: the semiotic perspective, which reads film as a system of signs, and the dialectic perspective that analyses film as a product, a mirror, and an expression of social (especially political and economic) relations (Monaco 2017, p. 33). If we take Kellner’s understanding of critical film analysis as a basis, the two perspectives intertwine and get politicized. In the following, I am going to touch upon this double way of ‘political reading’ and its theoretical base. On that basis, I am going to propose a modified perspective which, first of all, takes the different ways of film reception by specific cultural players and social groups into account more systematically. Secondly, this proposed perspective will broaden critical film analysis by a programmatic approach one could call “working with ideas in film”.

In Kellner’s CML approach to film analysis film is regarded as a medium used for ‘transcoding’, in other words as a filmic translation of social experiences, identity, and conflict (Kellner 2020, p. 20). Films are read politically by understanding the transcoding it entails, considering who appears (or not) and in which way they appear (and not in a different way), whose perspective is articulated and whose perspective remains unseen and which ideals and concepts we are led to consider as ‘normal’ or to tackle. At the basis of this lies a specific connection between ‘old’ critical theory and ‘new’ cultural studies. Already Kellner’s notion of a “multiperspectival” film theory and criticism (Kellner 1993) draws upon such a theoretical basis. This may raise questions. On the one hand, one may doubt that the reception and reflection of this theoretical basis is really essential or facilitates a critical film practice according to CML. On the other hand, one might ask whether this theoretical basis needs a revision in order to overcome rigidities not compatible with a real multiperspectivism.

‘Old’ critical theory followed a critique of ideology and culture industry, which expands the Marxist critique of capitalism to the sphere of media analysis. In that way, critique of ideology was completed, since now the ‘totality’ of capitalist

relations was conceptualized to encompass all areas of human action. According to the original critic of Marx, dominant ideas must be unmasked as the ideas of a ruling class, and the ‘wrong consciousness’ of an alleged world of ideas and cultural values that is independent of the means of production and specific forms of existence must be uncovered. By this and in conjunction with a revolutionary movement, a revolutionary form of cultural production must be supported by siding with the oppressed class. Horkheimer and Adorno presumed the assumption that the dominant forms of consciousness and media production have an ideologic character and extended Marx’s view by the analysis of a “culture industry” (Horkheimer, Adorno 1969). In the form of culture industry, the capitalist logic pervades and transforms also the area of cultural means of expression, and with that the last remaining realms of resistance vanish. Cultural products now mirror the nature of commodities and articulate and reproduce a mentality in line with the production of commodities. They are produced to gain profit and are customized for trouble-free consumption. Only rare ‘real art’ can escape this logic of ‘objectification’ by resisting complying to the mainstream scheme.

The remaining importance of Adorno’s and Horkheimer’s dialectic analytic approach, which is based on their conception of the culture industry, is that it succeeds in maintaining a societal-theoretical justifiable claim of objectification. Therefore it can help to argue against an uncritical postmodern arbitrariness or a constructivist indifference (see Kellner 2020, p. 29–31 and Prokop 2003). At the same time, the classic perspectives go hand in hand with a certain rigidity (Kellner 1982; Kellner 2020, p. 30). Firstly, it appears questionable that all products of the media are part of a coherent system that uses entertainment to reproduce ideologies which affirm existing relations and that recipients play a largely passive role. Secondly, the dichotomy of mainstream culture and advanced culture (or rather ‘real art’) seems problematic. It paves the way for an avant-garde understanding of art which enables art critics to glorify their elitist habitus as the highest form of society-critical vocation. Finally, the concept of cultural industry has an ahistorical tendency: The theory of society taken as a basis is set, individual phenomena are adjusted to fit into the timeless pattern, and a real empiric analysis that would approach the phenomena unbiased doesn’t seem to come into play.

Therefore, a “multi-perspectival” critique of media according to Kellner (Kellner 1993; 2020) builds on Cultural Studies and makes four claims: Firstly, film is regarded as one of many areas of permanent struggle over cultural hegemony in society. According to Antonio Gramsci, this struggle is not about ultimate victory but a perpetual “war of position” between the ruling and the dominated class in which the ruling class always needs to compromise. Secondly, hegemonic strug-

gles have a multi-dimensional structure that does not allow power relations to be reduced to a single logic. The categories of ‘race’, ‘class’ and ‘gender’ – just like other categories in which specific groups play a subordinate role – have to be regarded as functioning each in specific ways, and the intersections between them needs to be taken into account. Thirdly, a multi-perspectival critique of media is based on the conviction that an individual film can never be fully captured by ideology. Even films that can easily be associated with one side of the struggle over cultural hegemony have semantic content that goes against this clear association or rather have facets that can be interpreted in a way ‘against the grain’. Fourthly, multi-perspectival film criticism regards itself as part of a critical practice in which numerous individuals and communities with different motives and experiences having varied perspectives engage with media and therefore ‘decode’ its content in diverse ways (Kellner 2020, pp. 41–42 in reference to Hall 1980).

4 Sources and Theoretical Approaches to a Critical Film Analysis – A Broader Understanding

Against this background, it is possible to consider possible sources for film analysis in the meaning of CML and how they can best be used. Kellner himself distinguishes between three areas that have to be considered: (1) the area of political and economic relations as conditioning the production of media; (2) the “text analysis” as a way of addressing the codes, narratives, and tropes within a medium, (3) the analysis of reception concerning the manner how media is received by different groups of recipients and which discourse and practices it connects (2020, p. 36). On that basis, different sources and analytic points of reference can be differentiated (fig 1).

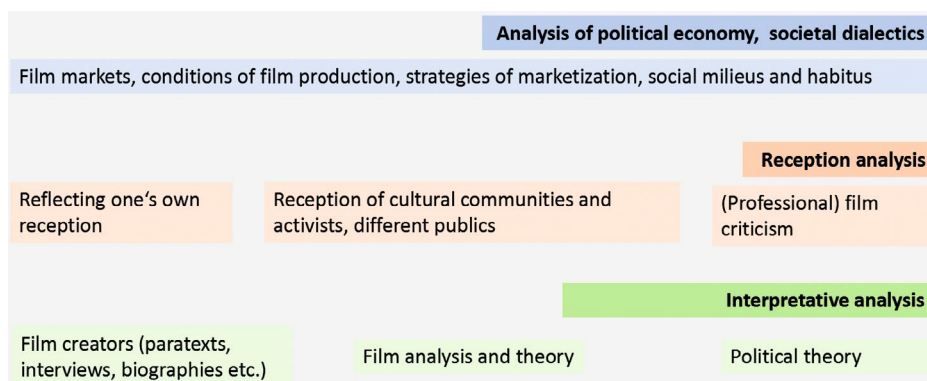


Figure 1: Sources of critical film analysis

A critical film analysis can thus draw upon a large number of approaches or access points – and in my opinion, one should honor all of them, while thinking also about their respective relevance for specific purposes and target groups. At this point, I am interested in the significance that is attached to the meaning of the term “political theories” in figure 1 – the field which deals professionally with fundamental ways of political thinking or the criticism and justification of social relations. In what ways can a critical film practice be stimulated by the reception of theory?

As already mentioned, especially the tradition of critical theory and cultural studies are not just an interdisciplinary context of discourse and research (cultural studies even more clearly) but both are discussed within political theory as important perspectives. Kellner and his congenial fellow campaigner for CML, Jeff Share, both acknowledge explicitly a normative concept of politics that is systematically reflected in the academic discourse of political theory, for example the concepts of “radical democracy” and “critical intersectional multiculturalism” (Kellner, Share 2005, p. 372–373; Kellner, Share 2009; Kellner 2020, p. 53–58). Concepts of radical democracy view democracy as a political project that frequently needs to redefine its normative basis and find societal support. Whereas it cannot rely on eternal certainty, it should be committed to a progressive agenda of combatting every dominant form of inequality and exclusion (Comtesse et al. 2019). Elite multiculturalism in the meaning of Kellner underlines the necessity of articulation of different identities while maintaining a joint framework of democratic citizenship.

Therefore, it is fair to say that CML already implies and presupposes a lot of normative ‘political theory’! On the one hand that might be regarded as a burden, firstly because due to this firm positioning of oneself one becomes politically vulnerable; and secondly because it is necessary to follow up with abstract theoretical thoughts and texts before starting to work with the actual material. On the other hand, only by doing so this approach improves its specific critical profile and conceptual depth. It also escapes the accusation of being conceptually arbitrary as well as neglects the questionable expectation of being ‘neutral’ (see Wohnig, Zorn 2022). Therefore, a ‘theory-free’ film analysis does not present a convincing alternative. Instead of promoting ‘less’ theory, I want to make the case for ‘more’ but ‘more open’ and differentiated reference to political theory. It seems to me that the way Kellner deals with film analysis does not fully exhaust the potential that the critical use of political theory might have. In addition to a quite rudimentary way of reception analysis which is limited to established categories and the reception of prominent representatives of critical perspectives, I am missing a creative way of experimenting with political concepts that have

been developed, passed on, and critically reflected in the discourse of political theory and history of ideas. There seems to be a certain tendency to narrow film analysis down to a statement on a quasi-objective struggle over hegemony as well as the emergence of motives and negotiations of the different ways of reception. The critical theorist (in this case Kellner himself) still seems to overlook the whole scenery and issues relevant opinions – in a pleasing but quite confident ductus. He or she does not seem to be irritated by the individual film.³

No doubt, one can suggest, as Kellner does, that *Wonder Woman* (2017) is not only a thrilling superheroine movie, but that it can be read politically as a positioning in regards to feminism, and this certainly opens up a range of exciting possibilities for observation and evaluation (see Kellner 2020, p. 69–73). Such a political reading, focused on current hegemonic struggles, however, does not reach a level of interpretation that enables a deeper reflection on political concepts which have developed in the course of the history of ideas and that can help to make sense of experiences narrated in films. Such a deeper reading would require and simultaneously make it possible to focus on individual films instead of regarding them – as it is generally apparent in the case of Kellner – as a kind of more or less creative and entertaining commentary on the existing lines of conflict (in the United States).

The approach I would like to sketch here can also be understood as expressing a basically pragmatist understanding of (political) concepts: With the help of film, the interpretative strength and practical implication of concepts of political theory can be explored and at the same time problems of paradigmatic conceptions can be better understood. In that way, the classic texts and authors and their political ideas lose their standing as the timeless truth of hovering above temporary opinions – they get tested out impiously and are understood as a tool of reading film politically. Especially regarding an undogmatic, empowering, and divers media education, this approach seems to have significant potential. Learning and critical thinking, interpretation and political empowerment go hand in hand. Ultimately, also the great theorist of pragmatic education John Dewey can

3 In regards to a detailed analysis of film involving an even broader research on reception as a desideratum to film analysis of social science, see in the follow-up to Kellner Winter 2012, p. 57. Kellner himself is cautious of over-emphasizing of the reception if the audience and a ‘fetishization’ of reception studies: „[I]n past years, media/cultural studies has overemphasized audience reception and textual analysis while underemphasizing the production of culture and its political economy. This type of cultural studies fetishizes audience reception studies and neglects both production and textual analysis, thus producing populist celebrations of the text and audience pleasure in its use of cultural artifacts” (Kellner 2020, p. 43).

be seen as the pioneer of a ‘radical’ understanding of democracy (Jörke, Selk 2019). He was not in need of grand Marxist or poststructuralist theory for this.

The outlined way of appropriating the legacy of the history of ideas and relying on a repertoire of political thinking can be empowering in its own way. From my point of view, being ‘critical’ cannot be reduced to mere reformulation of the old critic of cultural industry and holding capitalism responsible for everything. Moreover, it can’t be understood as just a quasi-agent in support of a critical, intersectional multiculturalism whose duty it is to watch over racist, classist, and sexist messages and who regards itself as always fighting for the right side in a political struggle and therefore is able to categorize film accordingly.

In the second figure I distinguish between four approaches to critical film analysis accordingly. They refer differently to political theory and take a different look at film. Therefore, a particular meaning and educational value in terms of CML can be attached to each of them. The four approaches result from crossing two dimensions with two manifestations each and thus generate a four-field-matrix of critical film analysis.

In the first dimension, the role of political theory can be understood as either a *reflection on the ‘political’* (in the sense established within the discourse on radical democracy), addressing the underlying power relations in film, or as a systematic reflection on the meaning of the guiding principles of politics. As a reflection of the ‘political’, theory serves primarily as a way of making transparent the terms of hegemonic struggles and the articulations of dominant and anti-hegemonic views and collective subjects. In doing so, political theory is, on one hand, a form of reflection that is targeted at the ‘totality’ of social conditions regarding media production, and on the other hand it is a theoretical version of the ‘emancipatory’ discourses of social movements. If one adopts the alternative view and understands the role of political theory rather as an *ideator*, enabling us to gain novel or inspiring perspectives on politics, society and its representation in media, one highlights the conceptual work done by political theory. Notions like ‘democracy’, ‘justice’, the ‘state’ are contested concepts and specific conceptualizations (for example ‘elitist democracy’, ‘equal opportunities’, ‘responsibility’ or ‘social contract’) can be used to interpret film material with a specific focus.

In the second dimension, I distinguish between approaches that view film either ‘analytically’ or ‘holistically’. The analytical view means that film is regarded as a kind of data material that is scanned for specific aspects (similar to a content analysis within social research). The manifest occurrence of these aspects is of interest, everything else is tendentially regarded as unimportant ‘noise’. On the

contrary, the ‘holistic’ view means that film is understood as a whole, an embedded oeuvre or a text within a text. It will then be viewed in a comprehensive social context to which it relates as a horizon of meaning and a site of complex political struggles and which it reflects, contests and/or transcends with the specific means of the medium film.

		<i>Focus on film</i>	
		analytical (motives within film)	holistic (film as embedded whole)
<i>Role of political theory</i>	Reflection of „the political“ (power relations)	Representations of A <i>(race, class, gender)</i> in film X Ideological, utopian, transformative aspects I Raising awareness	Position of films in the hegemonic struggles of (a) society (incl. production and consumption) II Localizing politically
	Reflection of the meaning of basic concepts	Scenes and story-lines as exemplifications of basic concepts (e.g. power, trust, corruption, tyranny, poverty, justice) III Understanding concepts	Film as an interpretation of the (social) world, a way of seeing society, a vision of possible ways of life IV Widening the horizon

Figure 2: Relating political theory and film analysis.

From my point of view, every approach is a legitimate and productive form of practicing critical film analysis and can play an integral role in critical media education. We can distinguish between four such roles related to the four resulting fields. If an *analytic* understanding is combined with an approach to theory that focusses on power relations (field I), the way how particular groups and identities are represented in film is central to the analysis. First and foremost, I would consider the purpose of this approach in drawing attention to the problematic representation of specific groups (for instance Roma people) using derogatory constructs and stereotypical images (of the ‘Gypsy’ in the antigypsyistic discourse, clearer in the German word ‘Zigeuner’), to criticize and deconstruct such stereotyping and to demand alternative ways of representation. In contrast to that kind of critical film viewing, an analytical focus in connection with a conceptual perspective (field III) comes down to thematizing the exemplification, the illustration, and the interpretation of fundamental concepts in scenes and storylines. For example, we might see “Parasite” as a way of putting Bourdieu’s understanding of the *habitus* into film motives. The two approaches within the *holistic* approach firstly thematize the positioning of a film in the hegemonic struggles of society (field II), which can be regarded as a ‘political localization’; secondly, film is treated as a specific way of imagining the world and social coex-

istence in a way transcending ordinary ways (field IV), which in turn can be summarized as a ‘broadening of the horizon’ or as creative imagination.

It seems to me that political activists mostly lean towards approach I. Activism focuses predominantly on what is problematic in media representation, for example of groups, and the evidence of criticism seems highest when we have positively identified manifestations of stereotypes or ideological narratives (“white men save black men” etc.). Experiences with students of political theory in an academic context show that they find the first approach to be the easiest, too. The approach is supported by guides and methods, which have gained popular awareness, like e.g. the feminist ‘Bechdel test’ developed by the artist Alison Bechdel in her graphic novel *Dykes to Watch Out For* in 1985. I would see Kellner’s analyses as an example of approach II – it mainly draws from embedding film or rather a cluster of film into the concrete political disputes of their time which requires not only the skilled use of a theoretical vocabulary and intimate understanding of complex concepts but also a broad knowledge of historical (or contemporary) contexts and topics. At the same time, it can include all facets of popular culture and practices of reception. Professional representatives of political theory seem to lean more towards approach III. By doing so, the approach is often connected with the aspiration for political education explaining how political concepts are illustrated or played out by film or can be used to give film a more sophisticated reading (Besand 2018; Hamenstädt 2014; 2016a; 2016b). Approach IV can be found mainly in more philosophical and film theoretical work, stressing the aesthetic potentials and the political as part of or inherent in the artistic form (see for example Frampton 2006; Rancière 2013). It can take popular, practical forms (experimenting with media, trying out oneself extraordinary ways of expression etc., thus coming close to arts education), but is also affine to more vanguard types of discourse on the arts and cultural expression.

So much for the conceptual sources of reading film politically. These four approaches correspond to different paths for teachers to increase their professional competences and bring CML as critical film analysis into the classroom. To fully understand the challenges and potentials of a critical film analytical practice and how it relates to popular culture, we should also consider settings in which is experienced and how these settings can be transformed in CML settings.

5 Practical implications of film for a critical educational practice

What film actually is and how it affects us varies not only depending on the social and historical context and our position in society. It also depends on the setting

of film watching. Today, we experience 'film' mainly within the settings of two worlds: The 'world of cinema' and the 'world of television'. The ways in which film can be 'read politically' relates differently to those worlds. The world of cinema consists of an independent, time-consuming, and expensive system of producing film, its commercialization, and viewing. For a long time, particularly motions pictures were produced to succeed in this particular system – meaning primarily they needed to pay off the high costs of production. If not as a single product, the range of motions pictures produced by the studio needed to make a profit. At least within the European film industry, state subsidies for film have become an important source of funding which creates a different logic of film production. This logic is characterized less by a dependency on profitability but by the requirement to meet the funding criteria defined by politics and regulation agencies. Film production and distribution on the one hand and cinemas on the other have for a long time become separated so that, in effect, the 'survival of cinemas' as a place of film presentation has become a source of public concern. The COVID-19 pandemic has brought a new round of such concerns. In the world of cinema film is experienced more intensively. That is because films are often seen for the first (and only) time, the audience gives it their full attention, and a complex technology is being used. Only in the cinema setting may the 'politics of the form' have a chance for real articulation, since it most strongly relates to the artistic side of film (but will most of the time depend on public funding in one or the other way).

The world of television is defined here as the privatized type of film consumption: in the comfort of one's home, with the use of privately owned and supplied technical devices, and in company with persons one knows and mostly likes (or alone). The streaming of programs, over a computer or a receiver, falls in this category in the same way that playing a DVD or something similar does. In comparison to the cinema, the experience of film in the world of television is less intensive as an aesthetic experience even if private technical devices have better quality than they used to have and are more and more affordable. At the same time, the world of television has more options for an individual to choose from, it is part of cultivating individual taste and identity. Furthermore, there is higher control: film material can be replayed or be watched in controlled sequences which serve as a good basis to enter into a deep film analysis. The privacy can be used for self-organization, e.g. activist groups sharing political beliefs and seeing common film watching as part of their broader critical activities. The world of television for one part consists of films that have originally been shown in the cinema and of films that are produced for the very format of television. Most importantly, however, the world of television (regarding fictional entertainment) consists of *series*. Today, series are viewed as a particularly suitable material for

a critical film analysis characterized by CML. Not only do they score high regarding fascination, identification, and consumption. In the last decades they have also massively improved in quality and variety. Finally, series can offer particularly interesting insights into the interactive effects between filmic narratives and reception. The extension of a (successful) series to the next season often mirrors the way how the series has been received. Whereas films shown in the cinema (particularly in alternative ones or at festivals) are generally more disposed to approximate 'art', series have an advantage regarding interactive social reception.

A critical film practice can connect with both worlds by using the potential each of them offers. It is less important to pick the 'right' film or to limit oneself to 'exemplary' films. Within the outlined critical film practice, the way of dealing with the material is often more important than the material film itself. Accessing the world of cinema for purposes of CML first of all means using the intensive experience of fully concentrating on a technically complex presentation of film and connecting it with a public thematization of political readings. In contrast to television, cinema has always been characterized by the fact films are watched together with other people who are not friends or relatives. Having said that, within this basic framework, cinema is factually targeted at the minimization of the public – and the maximization of an individual experience of consumption. Generally, in the commercialized world of the cinema no conversations are happening and the notification of others is regarded as something tendentially negative (the sound of popcorn, annoying talks, heads that block the view). Rather, than watching the film together, the challenge is to tolerate the presence of the others if one wants to experience the film in a cinema. Therefore, to put CML in the world of cinema into practice, cinema needs to be transformed into a public space of conversation again or at all. This by the way relates to the early film theory proposed by Vachel Lindsay (see Monaco 2017, p. 468). In order to transform cinema into a place for watching together rather than alongside with others, public events are essential. For critical media education, the right thing to do could be to organize a public film event, for example together with students, pupils, and committed individuals (see Haus 2021). In doing so, practical experience in debating over a suitable film, interacting with civic society, campaigning for subsidies, the organization, and implementation of a movie night with public interaction can be gained. Such an event is also possible with fewer resources in the context of school or higher education. Important is the shared experience of watching the film together and talking about it.

As mentioned, in the world of television, series are particularly suitable for achieving CML. Compared to the cinema setting, critical film practice here aims

at a more intensive analytic analysis of filmic material, making use of the wider limits of time and ownership. At the same time, only specific 'others' (fellow students or classmates) can come into question and are therefore rather regarded as co-analysts than a real 'public'. A wide range of sources can be used and interconnected. Reception analysis regarding a) professional film criticism and journalistic reviews, b) discourses among activists and minority communities and their supporters, and finally c) academic analysis of film can be carried out. A higher level of common knowledge on political theories can be achieved, students can become researchers. The same potential cinema has for generating a public sphere, the format of television has regarding analytic intensity. It is relevant for personal relations, too, as many people within society regard a series or a specific series as a story accompanying their daily lives (and for some, it is an opportunity to connect to others via practices of fandom and to step out of daily routines). In accordance with that, such a practice opens the opportunity for a critical self-reflection regarding one's own 'gaze'. Finally, in the world of television the turn towards the public sphere can be attained by creating (media) products that can be used by others, for example as a digital learning unit for a specific series. This can be a vehicle to enter into a public debate.

6 Conclusions

I have outlined the theoretical-conceptual basis of CML and its implications for a critical film analysis on the premises of media education, and I have discussed the question which theoretical tools are useful regarding critical film analysis and especially what my own discipline, political theory can contribute. As it has become clear, Kellner's and Share's concept of CML and the connected critical film analysis of Kellner is characterized by the tradition of critical theory and cultural studies. By that, political theory is already considered the starting point in what can be considered the most important approach presented so far. Having said this, in my opinion, a broader approach that not only focuses on neo- and post-Marxist approaches and commitment to intersectional multiculturalism seems promising. In line with American pragmatism, I have supported the idea of a reckless experimenting with political concepts on filmic material. By doing so, the basic approaches to critical film analysis could be systematized and hopefully inspiration for practicing distinct ways of practicing critical film analysis was given. Such practices can then be based on the distinction between the 'world of cinema' and the 'world of television' and can establish a transformational practice of reading film politically together with others. For the purpose of teacher education, my account can serve as a conceptual road map for finding a way to practice critical film analysis with peers and establish it in school.

Bibliography

- Besand, Anja (ed.) (2018). Von Game of Thrones bis House of Cards. Politische Perspektiven in Fernsehserien. Wiesbaden: Springer Fachmedien
- Browne, Harry and Brennan, Deborah (2018). Editors' Introduction. *Critical Media Literacy – Who Needs It?* In: *Irish Communication Review* 16:1, p. 1–4. <https://doi.org/10.21427/4361-AV62> [04.05.2023]
- Comtesse, Dagmar; Flügel-Martinsen, Oliver; Martinsen, Franziska and Nonhoff, Martin (eds.) (2019). *Radikale Demokratietheorie. Ein Handbuch*. Berlin: Suhrkamp
- End, Markus (2014). *Antiziganismus in der deutschen Öffentlichkeit. Strategien und Mechanismen medialer Kommunikation*. Heidelberg: Dokumentations- und Kulturzentrum Deutscher Sinti und Roma
- Frampton, Daniel (2006). *Filmosophy. A Manifesto for a Radically New Way of Understanding Cinema*. London: Wallflower
- Giroux, Henry A. (2002). *Breaking in to the Movies. Film and the Culture of Politics*. Malden, Mass.: Blackwell
- Grubb, Jonathan A. and Posick, Chad (2021). Introduction. In: J.A. Grubb and C. Posick (eds.): *Crime TV. Streaming Criminology in Popular Culture*. New York: New York University Press, p. 1–3
- Hall, Stuart (1980). Encoding/Decoding. In: S. Hall, D. Hobson, A. Lowe and P. Willis (eds.): *Culture, Media, Language*. London: Routledge, p. 128–138
- Hamenstädt, Ulrich (2014). *Theorien der Politischen Ökonomie im Film*. Wiesbaden: Springer
- Hamenstädt, Ulrich (2016a). *Politik und Film. Ein Überblick*. Wiesbaden: Springer (Essentials)
- Hamenstädt, Ulrich (ed.) (2016b). *Politische Theorie im Film*. Wiesbaden: Springer VS
- Haus, Michael (2021). *Bewegende Bilder – Bewegte Menschen*. In: Medienforum Heidelberg e.V. (ed.): *25 Jahre Karlstorkino Heidelberg. Kommunales Kino im Karlstorbahnhof*. Heidelberg, pp. 162–172
- Horkheimer, Max and Adorno, Theodor W. (1969). *Dialektik der Aufklärung. Philosophische Fragmente*. Frankfurt am Main: Fischer
- Jolls, Tessa and Wilson, Carolyn. *The Core Concepts. Fundamental to Media Literacy Yesterday, Today and Tomorrow*. Center for Media Literacy. <https://www.medialit.org/reading-room/core-concepts-fundamental-media-literacy-yesterday-today-and-tomorrow> [04.05.2023]
- Jörke, Dirk and Selk, Veith (2019). John Dewey. In: D. Comtesse, O. Flügel-Martinsen, F. Martinsen and Martin Nonhoff (eds.). *Radikale Demokratietheorie. Ein Handbuch*. Berlin: Suhrkamp, p. 78–87

- Kellner, Douglas (1982). Kulturindustrie und Massenkommunikation. In: W. Bonß and A. Honneth (eds.): *Sozialforschung als Kritik. Zum sozialwissenschaftlichen Potential der Kritischen Theorie*. Frankfurt am Main: Suhrkamp, p. 482–515
- Kellner, Douglas (1993). Film, Politics, and Ideology. Towards a Multiperspectival Film Theory. In: J. E. Combs (ed.): *Movies and Politics. The Dynamic Relationship*. New York: Garland, p. 56–92
- Kellner, Douglas (2010). *Cinema Wars. Hollywood Film and Politics in the Bush-Cheney Era*. Hoboken: John Wiley & Sons
- Kellner, Douglas (2020). *Media Culture. Cultural Studies, Identity, and Politics in the Contemporary Moment*. London, New York: Routledge, Second Edition
- Kellner, Douglas and Share, Jeff (2005). Toward Critical Media Literacy. Core Concepts, Debates, Organizations, and Policy. In: *Discourse. Studies in the Cultural Politics of Education* 26:3, p. 369–386. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01596300500200169> [04.05.2023]
- Kellner, Douglas and Share, Jeff (2007). Critical Media Literacy, Democracy, and the Reconstruction of Education. In: D.P. Macedo and S.R. Steinberg (eds.): *Media Literacy. A Reader*. New York, Berlin, Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang, p 3–23
- Kellner, Douglas and Share, Jeff (2009). Critical Media Education and Radical Democracy. In: M. W. Apple, W. Au and L. A. Gandin (eds.): *The Routledge International Handbook of Critical Education*. New York, N.Y.: Routledge, p. 281–295
- Mladenova, Radmila (ed.) (forthcoming). *Counterstrategies to the Antigypsy Gaze*. Heidelberg: Heidelberg University Publishing
- Monaco, James (2017). *Film verstehen. Kunst, Technik, Sprache, Geschichte und Theorie des Films und der Neuen Medien. Mit einer Einführung in Multimedia*. Reinbek bei Hamburg: Rowohlt Taschenbuch Verlag, 5. Auflage
- Prokop, Dieter (2003). *Mit Adorno gegen Adorno. Negative Dialektik der Kulturindustrie*. Hamburg: VSA-Verlag
- Rancière, Jacques (2013). *Aisthesis. Scenes from the Aesthetic Regime of Art*. London u. a.: Verso Books
- Rauter-Nestler, Sebastian (2018). Film und kritische Medienpädagogik. In: A. Geimer, C. Heinze and R. Winter (eds.): *Handbuch Filmsoziologie*. Wiesbaden: Springer Fachmedien. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-658-10947-9_80-1 [04.05.2023]
- Ryan, Michael and Kellner, Douglas (1988). *Camera Politica. The Politics and Ideology of Contemporary Hollywood Film*. Bloomington, Ind.: Indiana University Press
- Winter, Rainer (2012). Das postmoderne Hollywoodkino und die kulturelle Politik der Gegenwart. Filmanalyse als kritische Gesellschaftsanalyse. In: S. Moebius,

- C. Heinze and D. Reicher (eds.): Perspektiven der Filmsoziologie. Konstanz: UVK Verlagsgesellschaft, p. 41–59
- Winter, Rainer (2018). Douglas Kellner und die Filmsoziologie. In: A. Geimer, C. Heinze and R. Winter (eds.): Handbuch Filmsoziologie. Wiesbaden: Springer Fachmedien. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-658-10947-9_11-1 [04.05.2023]
- Wohnig, Alexander and Zorn, Peter (eds.) (2022). Neutralität ist keine Lösung! Politik, Bildung – politische Bildung. Bonn: Bundeszentrale für politische Bildung

Author

Prof. Dr. Michael Haus. Since 2012 Chair for Modern Political Theory at Heidelberg University. Research focuses: contemporary political theory, interpretative policy analysis, urban research
michael.haus@ipw.uni-heidelberg.de

Correspondence Address:
Prof. Dr. Michael Haus
Ruprecht-Karls-Universität Heidelberg
Institut für Politische Wissenschaft
Bergheimer Straße 58
69115 Heidelberg
Germany

Überzeugungen zu kultureller Vielfalt angehender Lehrkräfte

Zusammenfassung. Im Kontext zunehmender transkontinentaler und -nationaler Migrationsprozesse ergeben sich durch die wachsende sprachlich-kulturelle Vielfalt der Schüler:innen für die Lehrkräfte neue, aus ihrer Perspektive partiell herausfordernde Bedingungen des Unterrichtens. In Bezug auf den (professionellen) Umgang mit vielfältigen kulturellen Hintergründen kommt in kompetenztheoretischer Betrachtung den Überzeugungen und Werthaltungen der (angehenden) Lehrkräfte eine besondere Bedeutung zu, da diese in einem gewissen Maße als prädisponierend für das (spätere) Unterrichtshandeln gelten. Anknüpfend an diese Prämisse untersucht der vorliegende Beitrag auf Basis einer Befragung von N=296 Lehramtsstudierenden deren differenzielle Überzeugungen bezüglich kultureller Vielfalt im schulischen Kontext. Neben der Betrachtung von Geschlechterunterschieden werden die Persönlichkeitsmerkmale der Studierenden hinsichtlich ihres Einflusses auf die Überzeugungen zu kultureller Vielfalt hin überprüft, um unter anderem die Unterschiede zwischen männlichen und weiblichen Studierenden zu erklären.

Schlagwörter. Lehrerbildung, Überzeugungen, kulturelle Vielfalt, Persönlichkeit, Geschlecht

Personality and Gender as Predictors of Beliefs About Cultural Diversity of Prospective Teachers

Abstract. Due to increasing transcontinental and transnational migration processes, teachers are confronted with new challenges regarding a growing linguistic and cultural heterogeneity of their students. Considering the (professional) handling of diverse cultural backgrounds, the beliefs and values of (prospective) teachers are of particular importance, since they are considered

to be highly predictive for (later) teaching activities. Following this premise, the article examines the differential beliefs regarding cultural diversity in the school context of N=296 student teachers. Furthermore gender differences and students' personality traits are examined as influential factors on acculturation beliefs in regression analysis to explain differences between male and female students.

Keywords. Teacher education, beliefs, cultural diversity, personality, gender

1 Einleitung

Bedingt durch zunehmende globale Migrationsbewegungen nahm der Anteil an Personen mit Zuwanderungsgeschichte in den letzten Jahren in vielen Staaten Europas kontinuierlich zu (Statistisches Bundesamt 2019). Dieses zeigt sich auch durch einen steigenden prozentualen Anteil von Schüler:innen mit Migrationshintergrund an allgemeinbildenden und beruflichen Schulen, der mittlerweile bei circa 37% liegt (ebd.). Die damit einhergehende, wachsende sprachlich-kulturelle Vielfalt der Schüler:innenschaft und die Zunahme individueller Lernheraus- und -anforderungen erfordert in vielerlei Hinsichten eine Auseinandersetzung aller schulischen Akteur:innen. Auf interaktiv-didaktischer Ebene kommt insbesondere den Lehrkräften eine Schlüsselfunktion zu (Hachfeld, Syring 2020; Paraschou, Andersen 2019). Im Hinblick auf den Umgang mit den vielfältigen kulturellen Hintergründen der Schüler:innen sind ihre Überzeugungen und Werthaltungen in einem gewissen Maße präzisierend für ihr Unterrichtshandeln (Busse, Göbel 2017; Hachfeld et al. 2012), weshalb diese unter dem Stichwort ‚interkulturelle Kompetenz‘ (KMK 2019) gezielt im Rahmen der universitären Lehrer:innenbildung gefördert werden sollen. Sowohl die politische als auch die wissenschaftliche Auseinandersetzung mit den Lehrkraftüberzeugungen zu (kultureller) Vielfalt verbleibt bislang jedoch überwiegend auf theoretisch-konzeptioneller Ebene; eine differenzierte, insbesondere empirisch-quantitative Erforschung dieses Feldes findet kaum statt. Dieses Desiderat aufgreifend sollen im Folgenden (angehende) Lehrkräfte hinsichtlich ihrer differenziellen Überzeugungen zu kultureller Vielfalt im schulischen Kontext sowie deren Ursachen untersucht werden. Neben der Betrachtung von Geschlechterunterschieden sollen die Überzeugungen zu kultureller Vielfalt auf mögliche Zusammenhänge mit den Persönlichkeitseigenschaften der Lehramtsstudierenden hin überprüft werden.

2 Theoretischer Hintergrund

2.1 Perspektiven zur semantischen Annäherung an das Konstrukt ‚kulturelle Vielfalt‘ im Kontext der erziehungswissenschaftlichen Forschung

Der Kulturbegriff dominiert in der gesellschaftlich-politischen Auseinandersetzung mit migrationsbedingter Vielfalt als inflationär angewandte „Leitvokabel“ (Römhild 2018, S. 17), die auch im Diskurs um eine ‚deutsche Leitkultur‘ offensichtlich wird (Paraschou, Andersen 2019). So impliziert der Kulturbegriff die Vorstellung von genuinen, in sich geschlossenen und vermeintlich anhand von verschiedenen Eigenschaften (und Zuschreibungen) voneinander differenzierbaren Kulturen, die häufig an eine nationale Zugehörigkeit gekoppelt werden (Mecheril 2016). Diese essentialistische Begriffsdeutung wird nicht nur der Realität postmoderner, pluralistischer Gesellschaften nicht gerecht, sondern begünstigt Diskriminierung und *Othering*-Prozesse, also die auf einer Zuschreibung bestimmter Eigenschaften basierenden Abgrenzung von (vermeintlich) anderen Menschen(-gruppen) (Hamburger 2009). Auch wird in diesem Zusammenhang vielfach vor einer ‚Kulturalisierung‘ gewarnt (siehe z. B. Hamburger 2009; Auernheimer 2012), bei der ohne Berücksichtigung sozialer Machtverhältnisse und anderer Dimensionen von Diversität ausschließlich das Merkmal Kultur zur Erklärung gesellschaftlicher Probleme herangezogen wird. Angesichts dessen wird im (erziehungs-)wissenschaftlichen Diskurs für eine Neudeutung sowie Öffnung des Begriffs plädiert, der Kultur als ein weitgefasstes und wandelbar-dynamisches Konstrukt begreift (siehe z. B. Krüger-Potratz 2005). Durch „kulturelle Hybridisierung“ (Gruber, Rothfuß 2016, S. 125) sollen (vermeintliche) kulturelle Grenzen überschritten werden (Gruber, Rothfuß 2016).

In Abgrenzung zum Begriff der Interkulturellen Pädagogik, der semantisch noch auf separatistischen sowie homogenisierenden Vorstellungen von Kultur(en) beruht (Paraschou, Andersen 2019; Krüger-Potratz 2018), brachte Charles Taylor – zwar immer noch semantisch am Kulturbegriff angelehnt, aber auf die Kritik am Begriff der Interkulturellen Pädagogik antwortend – das Konzept des Multikulturalismus auf (siehe Taylor 1992), welches mitunter angesichts seiner gesellschaftlich negativen Konnotation später um das Konzept der Transkulturalität ergänzt wurde (siehe Welsch 1997). Letzteres geht von der Vorstellung pluraler, sich vermischender und nicht mehr zu unterscheidenden kulturellen Identitäten aus (ebd.), wobei auch dieses Konzept angesichts seiner Semantik dahingehend kritisiert wird, kulturalisierende Assoziationen hervorzurufen. Im Fokus erziehungswissenschaftlicher Forschung steht mittlerweile nicht mehr die Untersuchung der Existenz von vermeintlichen kulturellen Unterschieden selbst,

sondern die der „diskursive[n] Erzeugung“ (Fürstenau 2012, S. 2) derer. Der Abriss verdeutlicht die (auch im wissenschaftlichen Diskurs bestehende) Unsicherheit im Gebrauch von Begrifflichkeiten in Verbindung mit kultureller Vielfalt. In der vorliegenden Untersuchung wird ebenfalls auf Skalen zurückgegriffen, die (unter anderem) zwischen multikulturalistischen und assimilativen Orientierungen unterscheiden und somit hinsichtlich ihres erzeugenden Gehalts hin hinterfragt werden können. Allerdings wird sich in anderen jüngeren, in diesem Feld durchaus einschlägigen Publikationen ebenso auf die entsprechenden Begrifflichkeiten bezogen (vgl. Hachfeld et al. 2012; Hachfeld, Syring 2020); es handelt sich in der folgenden Untersuchung außerdem um etablierte Skalen der COACTIV-R-Studie.

2.2 Auseinandersetzung mit kultureller Vielfalt in der Institution Schule

Ergebnisse der PISA-Studie belegen einen Leistungsnachteil von Personen mit Migrationshintergrund, der auch unter Berücksichtigung der sozio-ökonomischen Herkunft signifikant wird (OECD 2016; 2018). Hinsichtlich der Erklärung möglicher Ursachen von herkunftsbezogener Bildungsungleichheit und deren Reproduktion wird auf Prozesse der institutionellen Diskriminierung verwiesen (Gomalla, Radtke 2009). Institutionelle Diskriminierung meint die dauerhafte Benachteiligung von sozialen Gruppen durch organisatorisches, nicht beabsichtigt diskriminierendes Handeln im Raum gesellschaftlicher Institutionen und den dort tätigen Professionen (ebd.; Hasse, Schmidt 2012). In Bezug auf den schulischen Kontext wird institutionelle Diskriminierung beispielsweise bei Selektionsentscheidungen, wie dem Übergang von der Grundschule in die Sekundarstufe I, ersichtlich (Gomolla 2008). Vor diesem Hintergrund wurde vielfach die Notwendigkeit der thematischen Implementierung von (kultureller) Vielfalt in Curricula sowie in Konzepte der Schulentwicklung und Lehrer:innenbildung artikuliert (KMK 2013). Durch die ‚Interkulturelle Öffnung der Schule‘ soll eine chancengleiche Partizipation aller ermöglicht werden, indem neben der Anerkennung ethischer, kultureller und sprachlicher Vielfalt auf Interaktionsebene auch die strategische Ausrichtung (u. a. das Leitbild der Schule) als essenziell betrachtet wird (Haag 2015; Schröder 2007). Dieser Prozess stellt sich als eine schulische Querschnittsaufgabe unter Beteiligung aller Akteur:innen dar (Haag 2015; Karakaşoğlu, Gruhn, Wojciechowicz 2011; Schröder 2007), deren Realisierung bei Karakaşoğlu, Gruhn und Wojciechowicz (2011) in Anlehnung an das Drei-Wege-Modell von Rolff (2012) in vier Handlungsebenen untergliedert wird. Es wird unterschieden zwischen der strukturellen bzw. schulorganisatorischen, der inhaltlichen bzw. didaktischen und curricularen, der sozialen sowie

der personalen Ebene (Rolff 2012). Letztere umfasst Einstellungen und Prozesse der Identitäts- und Kompetenzentwicklung von Lehrkräften im Kontext von kultureller Vielfalt, deren Förderung beispielsweise durch Fortbildungen realisiert werden soll (ebd.). Hinsichtlich der ‚Interkulturellen Öffnung‘ und Entwicklung der Institution Schule kommt gerade den Überzeugungen der Lehrkräfte eine entscheidende Funktion zu (Edelmann 2007; Hachfeld, Syring 2020; Paraschou, Andersen 2019) zu, weshalb diese Gruppe in folgender Untersuchung genauer in den Blick genommen werden soll.

2.3 Überzeugungen von Lehrkräften in Bezug auf den Umgang mit kultureller Vielfalt

Die Relevanz der expliziten Untersuchung der Überzeugungen von (angehenden) Lehrpersonen lässt sich durch deren Vorhersage in Bezug auf den (späteren) unterrichtlichen Umgang mit kultureller Heterogenität erklären (Busse, Göbel 2017; Glock et al. 2020; Hachfeld et al. 2012). Gleichzeitig werden Überzeugungen in einem gewissen Maße als erlern- bzw. vermittelbar betrachtet (Baumert, Kunter 2006; in Bezug auf Einstellungen zu Heterogenität siehe z. B. Junker et al. 2020), weshalb die (positive) Entwicklung derer Gegenstand und Ziel universitärer Lehrer:innenbildung ist. In kompetenztheoretischer Betrachtung werden sie neben motivationalen Orientierungen, selbstregulativen Fähigkeiten und dem Professionswissen als eine von vier Dimensionen professioneller Kompetenz verstanden (Baumert, Kunter 2006; siehe auch Blömeke et al. 2008). Zur nuancierten Untersuchung der Überzeugungen von Lehrkräften zu kultureller Vielfalt wurde im Rahmen der COACTIV-R Studie die *Teacher Culture Belief Scale* (TCBS) entwickelt (Hachfeld et al. 2011; Hachfeld 2013), welche auf dem Modell interethnischer Ideologien (Hahn, Judd, Park 2010) basiert. Dieses differenziert zwischen multikulturellen, egalitären, assimilativen und separatistischen Überzeugungen (Hahn, Judd, Park 2010; Hachfeld 2013). Während Personen mit multikulturellen Überzeugungen die kulturellen Unterschiede zwischen Gruppen als gegenseitig anerkennens- und schätzenswert deuten, sind Personen mit egalitären Einstellungen gegenüber anderen kulturellen Hintergründen zwar auch positiv eingestellt, sehen eine Auseinandersetzung damit jedoch nicht als zwingend notwendig an und fokussieren so eher auf Gemeinsamkeiten (Hachfeld et al. 2011; Hachfeld 2013). Assimilative Überzeugungen äußern sich ebenfalls durch die Konzentration auf Gemeinsamkeiten zwischen verschiedenen kulturellen Hintergründen, gehen jedoch mit einer negativen Bewertung dieser einher (ebd.). Personen mit separatistischen Überzeugungen sehen kulturelle Andersartigkeit als negativ und dessen Differenz zur Eigengruppe als unüberwindbar an (Hachfeld et al. 2011).

Bisherige Ergebnisse deuten darauf hin, dass (angehende) Lehrkräfte hinsichtlich der Akzeptanz von Aspekten der Vielfalt im Vergleich zur Gesamtbevölkerung liberaler eingestellt sind (Lorenz, Müller 2017; Merten, Yildirim, Keller 2014). Die Ergebnisse von Merten, Yildirim und Keller (2014), die in einer quantitativen Erhebung Lehramtsstudierenden nur geringe stereotypisierende Einstellungen gegenüber Personen mit Migrationshintergrund nachweisen konnten, decken sich mit den Befunden anderer Untersuchungen, die bei angehenden Lehrkräften überwiegend multikulturelle bis egalitäre Überzeugungen feststellten (Hachfeld et al. 2011; Hachfeld et al. 2012; Taylor, Kumi-Yeboah, Ringlaben 2016). Dies korreliert ebenso mit Nachweisen eines positiven Kompetenzzuwachses hinsichtlich der Überzeugungen zu (kultureller) Vielfalt im Verlauf der Lehrer:innenausbildung (siehe z. B. Goddard, Evans 2018), der jedoch nach Bender-Szymanski (2001) mit Blick auf die in ihrer Untersuchung von Referendar:innen in Teilen geäußerten assimilativen Überzeugungen nicht pauschal auf alle Lehrkräfte übertragen werden kann. Der Fokus weiterer Arbeiten liegt stärker auf der Untersuchung des Zusammenhangs zwischen den Überzeugungen zu kultureller Vielfalt mit individuellen Eingangsvoraussetzungen von Lehramtsstudierenden bzw. Lehrkräften wie z. B. der Persönlichkeit (siehe z. B. Syring et al. 2018) oder dem Migrationshintergrund (siehe z. B. Bello, Leiss, Ehmke 2017; Bonefeld, Karst 2020; Gebauer, McElvany, Klukas 2013; Hachfeld et al. 2012).

Die explizite Betrachtung möglicher Geschlechterdifferenzen in Bezug auf die Überzeugungen von Lehrkräften zu (kultureller) Vielfalt blieb im (erziehungswissenschaftlichen) Forschungsdiskurs bislang weitestgehend aus. Es existieren jedoch Hinweise, dass insbesondere männliche Lehrkräfte Konflikte im Klassenraum eher durch den ethnischen und/oder religiösen Hintergrund der Schüler:innen bedingt vermuten (Fine-Davis, Faas 2014). Darüber hinaus scheinen weibliche Lehrkräfte im Hinblick auf kulturell-ethnisch heterogene Schüler:innengruppen eher dazu bereit zu sein, diversitätssensiblen Unterricht anzubieten (Gebauer, McElvany 2020). Keine Zusammenhänge zwischen Geschlecht und multikulturellen Überzeugungen finden sich hingegen bei Mlinar und Krammer (2021), die eine Gruppe slowenischer Lehramtsstudierender untersucht haben. Allerdings waren in der ohnehin kleinen Stichprobe von lediglich 74 Proband:innen nur sechs männliche Befragte, so dass dort kaum signifikante Unterschiede zu erwarten waren.

2.4 Zusammenhänge mit der Persönlichkeit

Die Erfassung der Persönlichkeit erfolgt in der (bildungs)psychologischen Forschung häufig über das Big-Five-Modell, welches von einer validen Beschreibung

eines breiten Spektrums menschlichen Erlebens mittels von fünf Persönlichkeitsdimensionen ausgeht (Rammstedt, Danner 2016). Ursprünglich von McCrae und Costa (1987) für den englischen Sprachraum entwickelt sowie validiert, etablierte es sich folgend auch im deutschsprachigen Raum (Borkenau, Ostendorf 1993; Rammstedt, John 2005). Das Big-Five-Modell differenziert zwischen den Persönlichkeitsdimensionen Neurotizismus, Extraversion, Verträglichkeit, Gewissenhaftigkeit und Offenheit für Erfahrungen. In hohem Maße verträgliche Personen kennzeichnen sich durch Altruismus und Kooperation sowie Zwischenmenschlichkeit, wohingegen weniger verträgliche Personen kühl und misstrauisch bis feindselig auftreten (Borkenau, Ostendorf 1993; Rammstedt et al. 2013). Neurotizismus drückt den Grad der emotionalen Labilität aus; hohe Ausprägungen deuten auf nervös-ängstliches und tendenziell depressives Verhalten hin (Rammstedt et al. 2013). In Abgrenzung dazu umfasst die Persönlichkeitsdimension Offenheit für Erfahrungen Neugierde und die Bereitschaft, sich auf Fremdes und Ungewohntes einzulassen (Borkenau, Ostendorf 1993). Gewissenhaftigkeit kennzeichnet sich durch diszipliniertes und ausdauerndes Verhalten, welches mit einer hohen Leistungsbereitschaft einhergeht, während Personen mit hohen Ausprägungen der Persönlichkeitsdimension Extraversion als aktiv, gesprächig und durchsetzungsfähig charakterisiert werden (Rammstedt et al. 2013).

Untersuchungen, die die Persönlichkeitsdimensionen von Personen mit Blick auf mögliche Geschlechterdifferenzen mitunter transnational bzw. transkulturell betrachteten, wiesen den weiblichen Befragten hinsichtlich sämtlicher Persönlichkeitsdimensionen mehrheitlich höhere Ausprägungen nach, wobei die Unterschiede insbesondere bei der Persönlichkeitsdimension Neurotizismus signifikant wurden (Costa, McCrae 2001; de Bolle et al. 2015; Dumfart, Krammer, Neubauer 2016; Vecchione et al. 2012). Nur sehr vereinzelt zeigen sich konträre Geschlechterunterschiede, wie in der Studie von Rothland, König, Darge, Lünemann und Tachtsoglou (2014), die bei den befragten Grundschullehramtsstudenten eine höhere Offenheit vorfanden als bei deren Kommilitoninnen.

In Bezug auf die Überzeugungen der Lehramtsstudierenden zu kultureller Vielfalt ist die Untersuchung der Big-Five-Persönlichkeitsdimensionen dahingehend interessant, als dass diese als relativ zeitstabile Merkmale betrachtet werden (Herzberg, Roth 2014; Mayr, Neuweg 2006). Wenngleich von einem Kompetenzerwerb im Sinne einer positiven Entwicklung der Überzeugungen im Verlauf der Lehramtsausbildung auszugehen ist, könnten anhand der Persönlichkeitseigenschaften der angehenden Lehrkräfte Aussagen in Bezug auf deren tendenzielle Überzeugungen und damit den (späteren) unterrichtlichen Umgang mit kultureller Vielfalt getroffen werden. Bisherige Befunde zum Zusammenhang zwischen Persönlichkeit und Überzeugungen zu kultureller Vielfalt von (angehenden)

Lehrkräften beschränken sich auf wenige Studien. Basierend auf den Daten der COACTIV-Studie zeigte sich in der Untersuchung von Hachfeld et al. (2009) ein positiver Zusammenhang zwischen Verträglichkeit und Multikulturalismus, während das Konstrukt Soziale Ängstlichkeit negativ mit egalitären Überzeugungen einherging. Syring et al. (2018) untersuchten im Gegensatz zu Hachfeld und Kolleg:innen zwar sämtliche Big-Five-Persönlichkeitsdimensionen, jedoch wurden die Überzeugungen zu kultureller Vielfalt hier weder differenziert noch explizit, sondern ausschließlich zusammengefasst mit anderen Heterogenitätsdimensionen erfasst: Den Persönlichkeitsdimensionen Extraversion, Gewissenhaftigkeit und Offenheit für Erfahrungen wurde ein positiver Zusammenhang mit der wahrgenommenen Kompetenz in Bezug auf den schulischen Umgang mit Heterogenität nachgewiesen, während sich bei Personen mit hohen Neurotizismus-Werten Gegensätzliches zeigte. Parallel korrelierte letzteres Konstrukt mit negativen Emotionen und einer gering ausgeprägten Motivation hinsichtlich des Umgangs mit Heterogenität. Darüber hinaus zeigten sich positive Zusammenhänge für die Konstrukte Offenheit für Erfahrungen und Verträglichkeit sowie insbesondere Gewissenhaftigkeit mit der intrinsischen Motivation der angehenden Lehrkräfte in Bezug auf den Umgang mit Heterogenität in der Schule.

Zusammenfassend ist die Befundlage in Bezug auf die Untersuchung der Überzeugungen zum Umgang mit kultureller Vielfalt inkonsistent, wobei insbesondere mögliche Geschlechterdifferenzen sowie Zusammenhänge mit der Persönlichkeit noch nicht explizit betrachtet wurden.

3 Hypothesen

Anknüpfend an das oben skizzierte Forschungsdesiderat sollen die Überzeugungen von Lehramtsstudierenden zu kultureller Vielfalt untersucht und in einem weiteren Schritt auf mögliche Geschlechterdifferenzen und Zusammenhänge mit den Big-Five-Persönlichkeitsdimensionen hin überprüft werden. Es wird angenommen, dass

1. die Lehramtsstudierenden stärker multikulturelle bis egalitäre als assimilative Überzeugungen zeigen,
2. die weiblichen Lehramtsstudierenden dem Umgang mit kultureller Vielfalt positiver gegenüberstehen, d. h. einerseits stärker multikulturelle und egalitäre sowie geringer ausgeprägte assimilative Überzeugungen als die männlichen Lehramtsstudierenden aufweisen, sowie höhere Werte auf allen Skalen der Persönlichkeitsdimensionen zeigen und

3. Persönlichkeitsmerkmale, insbesondere die Extraversion, Offenheit für Erfahrungen und Verträglichkeit, einen positiven Einfluss auf multikulturelle bzw. einen negativen Einfluss auf assimilative Überzeugungen haben.

4 Studiendesign und Stichprobe

Für die Untersuchung wird auf Daten einer im Jahr 2019 durchgeführten Erhebung an Bachelorstudierenden der Universität Trier zurückgegriffen. Die Studierenden befanden sich zum Zeitpunkt der Befragung am Beginn ihres zweiten Studiensemesters. Insgesamt konnten Daten von 296 Lehramtsstudierenden eingefangen werden, wobei sich die Stichprobe aus einem lehramtstypischen, höheren Anteil weiblicher (65,2 %) als männlicher (34,5 %) Studierender zusammensetzt. Lediglich eine Person gab bei der nicht-binären Abfrage des Geschlechtes eine weitere Option an, weshalb diese im Rahmen der geschlechtsspezifischen Analysen nicht berücksichtigt wurde. Das Medianalter der Befragten lag zum Zeitpunkt der Erhebung bei 21 Jahren. Ein Großteil der Studierenden gab an, ein für das Gymnasium qualifizierendes Lehramt zu studieren (84,8 %), andere Schulformen wurden weniger häufig bis selten genannt (Haupt-/Realschule 20,3 %, Grundschule 2,0 %, Förderschule 1,4 %, Berufsschule 1,0 %), wobei die verschiedenen verteilten prozentualen Angaben auf die Möglichkeit von Mehrfachnennungen zurückzuführen sind.

Bei dem eingesetzten Erhebungsinstrument handelt es sich um Skalen, die im Rahmen der COACTIV-R Studie von Hachfeld entwickelt wurden, wobei auf ausgewählte Items des Messzeitpunktes 1 zurückgegriffen wird. Multikulturalistische Überzeugungen wurden mittels vier Items erfasst, die eine noch akzeptable Reliabilität aufweisen ($\alpha = .68$; Bsp.: „Es ist wichtig für die Kinder zu lernen, dass andere Kulturen auch andere Wertevorstellungen haben können.“). Sowohl die Skala zur Erfassung egalitärer Überzeugungen der Lehrkräfte (3 Items, $\alpha = .76$; Bsp.: „Ein Ziel der Schule sollte es sein, Gemeinsamkeiten von Kindern mit unterschiedlichem kulturellem Hintergrund zu fördern.“) als auch die assimilativer Überzeugungen (3 Items, $\alpha = .75$; Bsp.: „Schülerinnen und Schüler haben oft Schwierigkeiten in der Schule, weil die sich nicht an die deutsche Kultur anpassen wollen.“) bilden zufriedenstellende interne Konsistenzen ab. Dabei wurden alle Items auf 6er-Likert-Antwortskalen mit den Polen 1 = „stimme gar nicht zu“ bis 6 = „stimme völlig zu“ erfasst. Die Erfassung der Persönlichkeitsmerkmale erfolgte in Anlehnung an die Operationalisierung der Big-Five-Persönlichkeitsdimensionen nach Rammstedt und John (2005). Auch diese Skalen zeigten noch zufriedenstellende bis gute interne Konsistenzen für die Subdimensionen Extraversion (4 Items, $\alpha = .80$; Bsp.: „Ich gehe aus mir heraus, bin gesellig.“), Offenheit

für Erfahrungen (5 Items, $\alpha = .70$; Bsp.: „Ich bin vielseitig interessiert.“), Verträglichkeit (4 Items, $\alpha = .65$; Bsp.: Ich schenke anderen leicht Vertrauen, glaube an das Gute im Menschen.“), Gewissenhaftigkeit (4 Items, $\alpha = .74$; Bsp.: Ich mache Pläne und führe sie auch durch.“) sowie Neurotizismus (4 Items, $\alpha = .73$; Bsp.: „Ich werde leicht nervös und unsicher.“). Die Mittelwertvergleiche zur Beantwortung der Forschungsfrage wurden mit SPSS 26 durchgeführt; für die manifeste, lineare multiple Regressionsanalyse wurde zur besseren Berücksichtigung der multivariaten Struktur des Modells auf mPlus 8.4 zurückgegriffen.

5 Ergebnisse

Die Skalenmittelwerte zeigen, dass die angehenden Lehrkräfte in einem hohen Maße egalitäre bis multikulturelle Überzeugungen haben. Dort liegen die Werte deutlich über dem theoretischen Skalenmittel von 3,5. Die assimilativen Überzeugungen hingegen liegen deutlich niedriger und in der Mitte zwischen Zustimmung und Ablehnung. Die hohe Standardabweichung der Assimilationskala zeigt darüber hinaus die starke Schwankung innerhalb der Gruppe der Lehramtsstudierenden.

Tabelle 1: Mittelwerte der Skalen zu den Überzeugungen der Lehramtsstudierenden zu kultureller Vielfalt

Skala	M	SD
Multikulturalismus	5,18	,67
Egalitarismus	5,36	,72
Assimilation	3,52	1,15

Anmerkungen: M = Mittelwert; SD = Standardabweichung

Die Mittelwerte aller Skalen zeigen signifikante Unterschiede zwischen den Geschlechtern, wobei der durchgeführte t-Test für den Egalitarismus sowie Multikulturalismus jeweils auf dem 1%-Niveau, die Mittelwerte der Assimilationskala auf dem 5%-Niveau signifikant werden. Bei den männlichen Studierenden finden sich deutlich ausgeprägtere assimilative Überzeugungen, während die Mittelwerte der Skalen Multikulturalismus und Egalitarismus bei den weiblichen Studierenden stärker ausgeprägt sind. Die berechneten Effektstärken zeigen, dass es sich bei den Unterschieden um kleine bis mittlere Effekte in den Konventionen Cohens (1988) handelt.

Tabelle 2: Mittelwertvergleich zwischen männlichen und weiblichen Lehramtsstudierenden hinsichtlich ihrer Überzeugungen zu kultureller Vielfalt

Test	Weiblich		Männlich		d (* p < .05; ** p < .01)
	M	SD	M	SD	
Multikulturalismus	5,28	,68	5,02	,63	.39**
Egalitarismus	5,48	,66	5,15	,79	.48**
Assimilation	3,41	1,16	3,70	1,14	-.25*

Anmerkungen: M = Mittelwert; SD = Standardabweichung

Hinsichtlich der Persönlichkeit von weiblichen und männlichen Studierenden zeigen sich ebenfalls Unterschiede. Die Mittelwerte der Dimensionen Extraversion, Verträglichkeit sowie Gewissenhaftigkeit werden jeweils auf dem 1 %-Niveau, die Mittelwerte der Dimension Offenheit für Erfahrungen auf dem 5 %-Niveau signifikant. In Bezug auf die Persönlichkeitsdimension Neurotizismus unterscheiden sich männliche und weibliche Studierende nicht signifikant voneinander, wobei die Werte im Vergleich zu den anderen Dimensionen niedrig ausgeprägt sind. Bei den nachgewiesenen Unterschieden handelt es sich um kleine (Extraversion, Offenheit für Erfahrungen, Neurotizismus) bis mittlere Effekte (Verträglichkeit, Gewissenhaftigkeit).

Tabelle 3: Mittelwertvergleich zwischen männlichen und weiblichen Lehramtsstudierenden hinsichtlich ihrer Persönlichkeit

Test	Weiblich		Männlich		d (* p < .05; ** p < .01)
	M	SD	M	SD	
Extraversion	3,99	,79	3,63	,75	.47**
Offenheit für Erfahrungen	4,05	,71	3,88	,68	.25*
Verträglichkeit	3,56	,76	3,07	,71	.67**
Gewissenhaftigkeit	3,95	,66	3,43	,69	.78**
Neurotizismus	2,69	,82	2,52	,82	.21

Anmerkungen: M = Mittelwert; SD = Standardabweichung

Für die nachfolgende Regressionsanalyse wurden vorab Korrelationen der im Modell als Prädiktoren verwendeten Persönlichkeitsmerkmale berechnet, um Hinweise auf mögliche Multikollinearität zu bekommen. Da die Korrelationskoeffizienten zwischen den unabhängigen Variablen jedoch allesamt im eher niedrigen Bereich ($r = .06$ bis maximal $.30$) lagen, wird nicht von einer Verzerrung

ausgegangen. Betrachtet man den Einfluss der Persönlichkeitsmerkmale auf die Überzeugungen im Kontext von kultureller Vielfalt, so zeigt sich, dass diese unterschiedlich wirksam werden. Signifikante standardisierte Regressionskoeffizienten zeigen dabei nur die Persönlichkeitsmerkmale, für die vorab geschlechtsspezifische Unterschiede gefunden werden konnten, nicht jedoch für den Neurotizismus. Die aufgeklärte Varianz liegt für die multikulturellen Überzeugungen bei $R^2 = .12$, für assimilative Überzeugungen bei $R^2 = .09$ und für die egalitären Überzeugungen bei $R^2 = .15$, sodass ein nicht unerheblicher Teil der Varianz unaufgeklärt bleibt, jedoch immerhin bis zu 15 % Varianzaufklärung der Ausprägung auf die Persönlichkeitsmerkmale zurückzuführen sind. Erwartungskonform sind es insbesondere die Offenheit für Erfahrungen und die Extraversion, die positive Effekte zeigen und bei stärkerer Ausprägung zu höheren multikulturellen und egalitären Überzeugungen führen. Die Verträglichkeit liefert hingegen nur einen negativen Effekt für die assimilativen Überzeugungen, sodass also bei höherer Ausprägung dieses Persönlichkeitsmerkmals geringere assimilativen Überzeugungen vorliegen. Eine höhere Gewissenhaftigkeit hingegen führt zu stärkeren egalitären Überzeugungen, allerdings auch zu einer geringen Zunahme der assimilativen Überzeugungen (vgl. Abb.1).

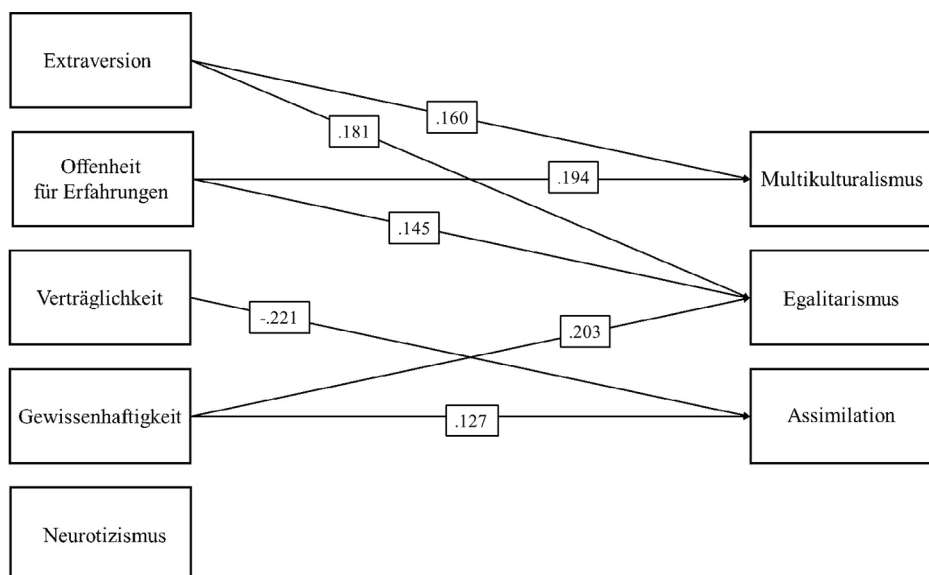


Abbildung 1: Modell der multivariaten Regression zur Vorhersage der Überzeugungen zu kultureller Vielfalt; Anmerkung: eingezeichnet sind nur die signifikanten Regressionskoeffizienten

In einem weiteren Analyseschritt wurde das Geschlecht als zusätzlicher Prädiktor in Form einer dichotomen Dummy-Variable in das Modell mit aufgenommen.

Jedoch zeigte sich dadurch für keine der abhängigen Variablen eine wesentlich erhöhte Varianzaufklärung, beziehungsweise das Geschlecht lieferte für keine der getesteten Überzeugungen signifikante Regressionskoeffizienten. Daher ist anzunehmen, dass nicht das Geschlecht als solches, sondern (geschlechtsspezifische) Persönlichkeitsstrukturen stärkere Relevanz für die Überzeugungen zu kultureller Vielfalt haben.

6 Diskussion

Analog zu den Ergebnissen von Hachfeld et al. (2011), Hachfeld et al. (2012) und Taylor et al. (2016) zeigen die befragten Lehramtsstudierenden überwiegend egalitäre bis multikulturelle Überzeugungen. Wenngleich dies grundsätzlich für eine hohe Akzeptanz im Umgang mit kultureller Vielfalt im schulischen Kontext spricht, sei auf eine mögliche Verzerrung der Ergebnisse durch sozial erwünschtes Antwortverhalten hingewiesen, was mitunter Grund für die hohen Skalenausprägungen sein könnte. Des Weiteren verdeutlicht der im Verhältnis zu Egalitarismus und Multikulturalismus zwar niedrig ausgeprägte, aber dennoch über dem theoretischen Skalenmittel liegende Wert der Assimilationsskala, dass trotz starken multikulturalistisch-egalitären Überzeugungen bei den angehenden Lehrkräften dennoch Vorbehalte im Umgang mit kultureller Vielfalt bestehen, die auch an anderer Stelle nachgewiesen wurden (siehe z. B. Bender-Szymanski 2001).

Weiter zeigten sich in der Untersuchung Geschlechterdifferenzen, wobei den weiblichen Lehramtsstudierenden stärker multikulturalistische sowie egalitäre, den männlichen wiederum stärker assimilative Überzeugungen im Umgang mit kultureller Heterogenität nachgewiesen werden konnten. Dieses Ergebnis deckt sich mit den Befunden diverser Studien zu den heterogenitäts- und inklusionsbezogenen Überzeugungen von Lehramtsstudierenden (Fine-Davis, Faas 2014; Boyle et al. 2013; Gebauer, McElvany 2020), wobei Hachfeld und Syring (2020) durch einen möglichen Einfluss „länderspezifische[r] Rahmenbedingungen“ (S. 664) auf die Lehrkraftüberzeugungen die Vergleichbarkeit mit internationalen Untersuchungen kritisch betrachten.

In Bezug auf die Ursächlichkeit der Geschlechterdifferenzen wurde angenommen, dass möglicherweise geschlechterspezifische Persönlichkeitsstrukturen die unterschiedlichen Überzeugungen zu kultureller Vielfalt bedingen. Der Vergleich zwischen männlichen und weiblichen Lehramtsstudierenden zeigte in Übereinstimmung mit bisherigen Untersuchungen stärkere Ausprägungen bei den weiblichen Befragten hinsichtlich sämtlicher Persönlichkeitsdimensionen

(siehe Costa, McCrae 2001; de Bolle et al. 2015; Dumfart et al. 2016; Vecchione et al. 2012), wobei ein signifikanter Unterschied beim Neurotizismus zu erwarten gewesen wäre. Demnach lassen sich die weiblichen Lehramtsstudierenden als tendenziell offener und extravertierter sowie gewissenhafter und verträglicher als ihre Kommilitonen charakterisieren. Gerade diese Persönlichkeitsdimensionen zeigten sich folgend in der Regressionsanalyse als prädizierend für die Überzeugungen der Lehramtsstudierenden, wobei sich die signifikant werdenden Einflüsse als fast ausschließlich positiv bewerten lassen: Eine größere Offenheit sowie Extraversion bedingen höhere egalitäre sowie multikulturalistische Überzeugungen, was sich mit den Befunden von Syring et al. (2018) deckt und mutmaßlich auf eine mit diesen Eigenschaften einhergehende Aufgeschlossenheit und Zugewandtheit (Neugierde und Geselligkeit) gegenüber unterschiedlichen Schüler:innen zurückzuführen ist. Dass sich in Bezug auf die Verträglichkeit ein negativer Einfluss auf die assimilativen Überzeugungen zeigte, jedoch damit keine höheren multikulturalistisch-egalitären Vorstellungen einhergingen, lässt sich darin vermuten, dass verträgliche Menschen zwar als mitfühlend und loyal charakterisiert werden (Danner et al. 2019), sie jedoch im Unterschied zu stärker offenen und extravertierten Personen gegebenenfalls weniger proaktiv Begegnungen mit anderen Menschen suchen. In Bezug auf die Gewissenhaftigkeit ist anzunehmen, dass die nachgewiesenen positiven Einflüsse auf egalitäre und assimilative Überzeugungen durch ein größeres Bedürfnis nach Kontrolle, Ordnung und Routinemäßigkeit bedingt werden, das im Kontakt mit unterschiedlichen Schüler:innen, die ggf. individuelle Lernanforderungen aufweisen, möglicherweise schwerer befriedigt werden kann.

Im Hinblick auf die Übertragbarkeit der Ergebnisse auf im Beruf tätige Lehrkräfte gilt zu berücksichtigen, dass es sich bei der Befragung ausschließlich um Bachelorstudierende handelt. Gemäß kompetenztheoretischer Annahmen ist eine positive Entwicklung bzw. ein Kompetenzzuwachs in Bezug auf die Überzeugungen der Lehramtsstudierenden im Umgang mit kultureller Vielfalt während der (hochschulischen) Lehramtsausbildung zu erwarten (siehe z. B. Baumert, Kunter 2006; Goddard, Evans 2018; Junker et al. 2018) und wurde bereits belegt (Abacioglu, Volman, Fischer 2020), sodass z. B. der hier nachgewiesene Unterschied zwischen männlichen und weiblichen Studierenden womöglich zu einem späteren Zeitpunkt (z. B. bei Eintritt in den Vorbereitungsdienst) nicht mehr signifikant wird, wenn hier eine Lücke geschlossen werden kann. Dies könnte auch ein Hinweis darauf sein, dass in den Arbeiten zu inklusionsbezogenen Überzeugungen von bereits ausgebildeten Lehrkräften (siehe z. B. Bosse, Spörer 2014) keine Geschlechterdifferenzen festgestellt werden konnten. Gleichzeitig lässt sich jedoch auch auf die Zeitstabilität der Big-Five-Persönlichkeitsdimensionen verweisen (Herzberg, Roth 2014; Mayr, Neuweg 2006), welche wiederum

die mögliche Persistenz geschlechterspezifischer Überzeugungen zu kultureller Vielfalt rechtfertigen würden. Möglicherweise ist es in dem Kontext lohnenswert, Studierende mit entsprechenden Studienergebnissen zu konfrontieren, um so insbesondere männlichen Studierenden hierrüber die Möglichkeit zur reflektierten Auseinandersetzung mit ihren Überzeugungen zu kultureller Vielfalt zu ermöglichen. Auch im Falle der Abhängigkeit der Überzeugungen zu kultureller Vielfalt von den Persönlichkeitsdimensionen und damit der möglichen tendenziellen Persistenz dieser scheint die Etablierung von Sensibilisierungs- und Weiterbildungsangeboten im Rahmen der (universitären) Lehrer:innenbildung im Hinblick auf den Umgang mit kultureller Vielfalt zumindest nicht nachteilig.

Literatur

- Abacioglu, Ceren Su; Volman, Monique und Fischer, Agneta H. (2020). Teachers' Multicultural Attitudes and Perspective Taking Abilities as Factors in Culturally Responsive Teaching. In: *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 90:3, S. 736–752. <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/31814111/> [07.03.2023]
- Auernheimer, Georg (2012). *Einführung in die interkulturelle Pädagogik*. Darmstadt: Wissenschaftliche Buchgesellschaft, 7. Aufl.
- Baumert, Jürgen und Kunter, Mareike (2006). Stichwort: Professionelle Kompetenz von Lehrkräften. In: *Zeitschrift für Erziehungswissenschaft*, 9, S. 469–520
- Bello, Bettina; Leiss, Dominik und Ehmke, Timo (2017). Diversitätsbezogene Einstellungen von Lehramtsstudierenden mit und ohne Migrationsgeschichte. In: *Beiträge zur Lehrerinnen- und Lehrerbildung*, 35:1, S. 165–181. <https://doi.org/10.25656/01:16799> [07.03.2023]
- Bender-Szymanski, Dorothea (2001). Interkulturelle Kompetenz im Bildungswesen. Eine Herausforderung für die Weiterbildung. Beitrag zum DIE-Forum Weiterbildung 2000 „Zukunftsfelder der Weiterbildung“. https://www.die-bonn.de/esprid/dokumente/doc-2001/dieforum_bender_01.htm [12.03.2023]
- Blömeke, Sigrid; Müller, Christiane; Felbrich, Anja und Kaiser, Gabriele (2008). Epistemologische Überzeugungen zur Mathematik. In: S. Blömeke, G. Kaiser und R. Lehmann (Hrsg.): *Professionelle Kompetenz angehender Lehrerinnen und Lehrer. Wissen, Überzeugungen und Lerngelegenheiten deutscher Mathematik-Studierender und -referendare. Erste Ergebnisse zur Wirksamkeit der Lehrerbildung*. Münster: Waxmann, S. 219–246
- Bonefeld, Meike und Karst, Karina (2020). Döner vs. Schweinebraten. Stereotype von (angehenden) Lehrkräften über Personen deutscher und türkischer Herkunft im Vergleich. In: S. Glock und H. Kleen (Hrsg.): *Stereotype in der Schule*. Wiesbaden: Springer VS, S. 159–190

- Borkenau, Peter und Ostendorf, Fritz (1993). Neo-Fünf-Faktoren-Inventar (NEO-FFI). Göttingen: Hogrefe
- Bosse, Stefanie und Spörer, Nadine (2014). Erfassung der Einstellung und der Selbstwirksamkeit von Lehramtsstudierenden zum inklusiven Unterricht. In: *Empirische Sonderpädagogik*, 6:4, S. 279–299. <https://doi.org/10.25656/01:100> [07.03.2023]
- Boyle, Christopher; Topping, Keith und Jindal-Snape, Divja (2013). Teachers' Attitudes Towards Inclusion in High Schools. In: *Teachers and Teaching*, 19:5, S. 527–542. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13540602.2013.827361> [07.03.2023]
- Busse, Vera und Göbel, Kerstin (2017). Interkulturelle Kompetenz in der Lehrerinnen- und Lehrerbildung. Zum Stellenwert interkultureller Einstellungen als Grundlage relevanter Handlungskompetenzen. In: *Beiträge zur Lehrerinnen- und Lehrerbildung*, 35:3, S. 427–439. <https://doi.org/10.25656/01:16992> [07.03.2023]
- Cohen, Jacob (1988). *Statistical Power Analysis for the Behavioral Sciences*. Hillsdale: Erlbaum
- Costa, Paul T.; Terracciano, Antonio und McCrae, Robert (2001). Gender Differences in Personality Traits Across Cultures: Robust and Surprising Findings. In: *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 81:2, S. 322–331. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.81.2.322> [07.03.2023]
- Danner, Daniel; Rammstedt, Beatrice; Bluemke, Matthias; Lechner, Clemens; Berres, Sabrina; Knopf, Thomas; Soto, Christopher J. und John, Oliver P. (2019). Das Big Five Inventar 2. Validierung eines Persönlichkeitsinventars zur Erfassung von 5 Persönlichkeitsdomänen und 15 Facetten. In: *Diagnostica*, 65:3, S. 1–12. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1026/0012-1924/a000218> [07.03.2023]
- De Bolle, Marleen; de Fruyt, Filip; McCrae, Robert; Löckenhoff, Corinna E.; Costa, Paul T.; Aguilar-Vafaie, Maria E. et al. (2015). The Emergence of Sex Differences in Personality Traits in Early Adolescence. A Cross-Sectional, Cross-Cultural Study. In: *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 108:1, S. 171–185. <https://doi.org/10.1037%2Fa0038497> [07.03.2023]
- Dumfart, Barbara; Krammer, Georg und Neubauer, Aljoscha (2016). Die Rolle von Fähigkeit, Persönlichkeit und Interesse bei der Entscheidung zwischen Schule und Berufsausbildung. In: *Zeitschrift für Pädagogische Psychologie*, 30:4, S. 187–199. <https://doi.org/10.1024/1010-0652/a000184> [07.03.2023]
- Edelmann, Doris (2007). *Pädagogische Professionalität im transnationalen sozialen Raum. Eine qualitative Untersuchung über den Umgang von Lehrpersonen mit der migrationsbedingten Heterogenität ihrer Klassen*. Münster: LIT
- Fine-Davis, Margret und Faas, Daniel (2014). Equality and Diversity in the Classroom. A Comparison of Students' and Teachers' Attitudes in Six European Countries. In: *Social Indicators Research*, 119:3, S. 1319–1334

- Fürstenau, Sara (2012). Grundlagen und Einführung. Interkulturelle Pädagogik und Sprachliche Bildung. Herausforderungen für die Lehrerbildung. In: S. Fürstenau (Hrsg.): Interkulturelle Pädagogik und Sprachliche Bildung. Wiesbaden: Springer VS, S. 1–24
- Gebauer, Miriam M. und McElvany, Nele (2020). Einstellungen und Motivation bezogen auf kulturell-ethnisch heterogene Schülerinnen- und Schülergruppen und ihre Bedeutung für differentielle Instruktion im Unterricht. In: Zeitschrift für Erziehungswissenschaft, 23, S. 685–708
- Gebauer, Miriam M.; McElvany, Nele und Klukas, Stephanie (2013). Einstellungen von Lehramtsanwärterinnen und Lehramtsanwärttern zum Umgang mit heterogenen Schülergruppen in Schule und Unterricht. In: Jahrbuch der Schulentwicklung, 17, S. 191–216
- Glock, Sabine; Kleen, Hannah; Krischler, Mireille und Pit-ten Cate, Ineke (2020). Die Einstellungen von Lehrpersonen gegenüber Schüler*innen ethnischer Minoritäten und Schüler*innen mit sonderpädagogischem Förderbedarf. Ein Forschungsüberblick. In: S. Glock und H. Kleen (Hrsg.): Stereotype in der Schule. Wiesbaden: Springer VS, S. 225–280
- Goddard, Corrina und Evans, David (2018). Primary Pre-Service Teachers' Attitudes Towards Inclusion Across the Training Years. In: Australian Journal of Teacher Education, 43:6, S. 122–142
- Gomolla, Mechthild (2008). Institutionelle Diskriminierung im Bildungs- und Erziehungssystem: Theorie, Forschungsergebnisse und Handlungsperspektiven. In DOSSIER der Heinrich-Böll-Stiftung zur Tagung „Schule mit Migrationshintergrund“. Universität Hamburg, 14.-16.2.2008. https://heimatkunde.boell.de/sites/default/files/dossier_schule_mit_migrationshintergrund_1.pdf [07.03.2023]
- Gomolla, Mechthild und Radtke, Frank-Olaf (2009). Institutionelle Diskriminierung. In: M. Gomolla und F.-O. Radtke (Hrsg.): Institutionelle Diskriminierung. Wiesbaden: Springer VS, S. 35–58
- Gruber, Valerie und Rothfuß, Eberhard (2016). Interkulturelle Marketingforschung. Reflexive Gedanken über eine unreflektierte Denkschule. In: Interculture Journal, 15:26, S. 117–137. <https://nbn-resolving.org/urn:nbn:de:0168-ssoar-55553-7> [07.03.2023]
- Haag, Ludwig (2015). Expertise zu interkultureller Öffnung und Schulentwicklung. Aktueller Stand und Konsequenzen unter besonderer Berücksichtigung Bayerns. München: Sozialreferat/Stelle für interkulturelle Arbeit
- Hachfeld, Axinja; Schroeder, Sascha; Anders, Yvonne und Stanat, Petra (2009). Teachers' Acculturation Beliefs. Investigating Dimensionality and Predictors (Vortrag auf der 13. Konferenz der European Association for Research on Learning and Instruction (EARLI)). Amsterdam, Niederlande

- Hachfeld, Axinja; Hahn, Adam; Schroeder, Sascha; Anders, Yvonne, Stanat, Petra und Kunter, Mareike (2011). Assessing Teachers' Multicultural and Egalitarian Beliefs: The Teacher Cultural Beliefs Scale. In: *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 27, S. 986–996. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2011.04.006> [07.03.2023]
- Hachfeld, Axinja; Schroeder, Sascha; Anders, Yvonne; Hahn, Adam und Kunter, Mareike (2012). Multikulturelle Überzeugungen. Herkunft oder Überzeugung? Welche Rolle spielen der Migrationshintergrund und multikulturelle Überzeugungen für das Unterrichten von Kindern mit Migrationshintergrund? In: *Zeitschrift für Pädagogische Psychologie*, 26:2, S. 101–120. <https://doi.org/10.1024/1010-0652/a000064> [07.03.2023]
- Hachfeld, Axinja (2013). Kulturelle Überzeugungen und professionelle Kompetenz von Lehrenden im Umgang mit kultureller Heterogenität im Klassenzimmer. Berlin: Freie Universität Berlin. <http://dx.doi.org/10.17169/refubium-13096> [07.03.2023]
- Hachfeld, Axinja und Syring, Marcus (2020). Stichwort: Überzeugungen von Lehrkräften im Kontext migrationsbedingter Heterogenität. In: *Zeitschrift für Erziehungswissenschaft*, 23, S. 659–684
- Hahn, Adam; Judd, Charles M. und Park, Bernadette (2010). Thinking About Group Differences. Ideologies and National Identities. In: *Psychological Inquiry*, 21, S. 120–126
- Hamburger, Franz (2009). Abschied von der Interkulturellen Pädagogik. Plädoyer für einen Wandel sozialpädagogischer Konzepte. Weinheim: Juventa Verlag
- Hasse, Raimund und Schmidt, Lucia (2012). Institutionelle Diskriminierung. In: U. Bauer, U. H. Bittlingmayer und A. Scherr (Hrsg.): *Handbuch Bildungs- und Erziehungssoziologie*. Wiesbaden: VS Verlag für Sozialwissenschaften, S. 883–899
- Herzberg, Philipp Yorck und Roth, Marcus (2014). *Persönlichkeitspsychologie*. Wiesbaden: Springer VS
- Junker, Robin; Zeuch, Nina; Rott, David; Henke, Ina; Bartsch, Constanze und Kürten, Ronja (2020). Zur Veränderbarkeit von Heterogenitäts-Einstellungen und -Selbstwirksamkeitsüberzeugungen von Lehramtsstudierenden durch diversitätssensible hochschuldidaktische Lehrmodule. In: *Empirische Sonderpädagogik*, 12:1, S. 45–63
- Karakaşoğlu, Yasemin; Gruhn, Mirja und Wojciechowicz, Anna (2011). *Interkulturelle Schulentwicklung unter der Lupe. (Inter-)nationale Impulse und Herausforderungen für Steuerungsstrategien am Beispiel Bremen*. Münster: Waxmann
- KMK (2013). *Interkulturelle Bildung und Erziehung in der Schule. Beschluss der Kultusministerkonferenz vom 25.10.1996 i. d. F. vom 05.12.2013*. https://www.kmk.org/fileadmin/veroeffentlichungen_beschluesse/1996/1996_10_25-Interkulturelle-Bildung.pdf [17.03.2021]

- KMK (2019). Standards für die Lehrerbildung. Bildungswissenschaften. Beschluss der Kultusministerkonferenz vom 16.12.2004 i. d. F. vom 16.05.2019. Berlin: Sekretariat der Kultusministerkonferenz
- Krüger-Potratz, Marianne (2005). Interkulturelle Bildung. Eine Einführung. Münster: Waxmann
- Krüger-Potratz, Marianne (2018). Interkulturelle Pädagogik. In: I. Gogolin, V. Georgi, M. Krüger-Potratz, D. Lengyel und U. Sandfuchs (Hrsg.), Handbuch Interkulturelle Pädagogik. Bad Heilbrunn: Klinkhardt, S. 183–190
- Lorenz, Georg und Müller, Tim (2017). Einstellungen von Lehrkräften zu Aspekten von Vielfalt: Deutschsein, Religionspolitik und Muslime. In: Berliner Institut für empirische Integrations- und Migrationsforschung (BIM)/Forschungsbereich beim Sachverständigenrat deutscher Stiftungen für Integration und Migration (SVR-Forschungsbereich) (Hrsg.): Vielfalt im Klassenzimmer. Wie Lehrkräfte gute Leistung fördern können. Berlin, S. 10–21
- Mayr, Johannes und Neuweg, Georg Hans (2006). Der Persönlichkeitsansatz in der Lehrer/innen/forschung: Grundsätzliche Überlegungen, exemplarische Befunde und Implikationen für die Lehrer/innen/bildung. In: M. Heinrich, U. Greiner (Hrsg.): Schauen, was rauskommt. Kompetenzförderung, Evaluation und Systemsteuerung im Bildungswesen. Wien: Lit, S. 183–206
- McCrae, Robert R. und Costa, Paul T. (1987). Validation of the Five-Factor Model of Personality Across Instruments and Observers. In: Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 52, S. 81–90. <https://doi.org/10.1037//0022-3514.52.1.81> [07.03.2023]
- Mecheril, Paul (2016). Migrationspädagogik – Ein Projekt. In: P. Mecheril, V. Kou-rabas und M. Rangger (Hrsg.): Handbuch Migrationspädagogik. Weinheim/Basel: Beltz, S. 8–30
- Merten, Moritz; Yildirim, Deniz und Keller, Carsten (2014). Einstellungen zu Heterogenität und Unterrichtskriterien bei Lehramtsstudierenden: Eine quantitative Studie zu Stereotypen und Vorurteilen. Essen: Universität Duisburg-Essen
- Mlinar, Karmen und Krammer, Georg (2021). Multicultural Attitudes of Prospective Teachers. The Influence of Multicultural Ideology and National Pride. In: International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 84, S. 107–118. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijintrel.2021.07.008> [07.03.2023]
- OECD (2016). Migrationshintergrund, Schülerleistungen und Einstellungen gegenüber Naturwissenschaften. In: PISA 2015 Results (Volume I). Excellence and Equity in Education. OECD Publishing, Paris
- OECD (2018). The Resilience of Students with an Immigrant Background. Factors that Shape Well-being. OECD Publishing, Paris. <https://www.oecd.org/education/the-resilience-of-students-with-an-immigrant-background-9789264292093-en.htm> [07.03.2023]

- Paraschou, Athina und Andersen, Katja Natalie (2019). Professionalisierung von Lehrpersonen in der Migrationsgesellschaft unter dem Aspekt der Diversitätssensibilisierung. Gruppe. Interaktion. Organisation. In: Zeitschrift für Angewandte Organisationspsychologie (GIO), 50, S. 355–361
- Rammstedt, Beatrice und John, Oliver P. (2005). Kurzversion des Big Five Inventory (BFI-K). Entwicklung und Validierung eines ökonomischen Inventars zur Erfassung der fünf Faktoren der Persönlichkeit. In: Diagnostica, 51:4, S. 195–206. <https://econtent.hogrefe.com/doi/pdf/10.1026/0012-1924.51.4.195> [07.03.2023]
- Rammstedt, Beatrice und Danner, Daniel (2016). Die Facettenstruktur des Big Five Inventory (BFI). Validierung für die deutsche Adaptation des BFI. In: Diagnostica, 63:1, S. 70–84. <https://doi.org/10.1026/0012-1924/a000161> [07.03.2023]
- Rammstedt, Beatrice; Kemper, Christoph J.; Klein, Mira Céline; Beierlein, Constanze und Kovaleva, Anastassiya (2013). Eine kurze Skala zur Messung der fünf Dimensionen der Persönlichkeit. 10 Item Big Five Inventory (BFI-10). In: methoden, daten, analysen, 7:2, S. 233–249
- Rolff, Hans-Günter (2012). Grundlagen der Schulentwicklung. In: C. G. Buhren und H.-G. Rolff (Hrsg.): Handbuch Schulentwicklung und Schulentwicklungsberatung. Weinheim/Basel: Beltz, S. 12–37
- Römhild, Regina (2018). Kultur. In: I. Gogolin, V. B. Georgi, M. Krüger-Potratz, D. Lengyel und U. Sandfuchs (Hrsg.): Handbuch Interkulturelle Pädagogik. Bad Heilbrunn: Klinkhardt, S. 17–23
- Rothland, Martin; König, Johannes; Darge, Kerstin; Lünemann, Melanie und Tachtsoglou, Sarantis (2014). Mit „männlicher Wucht“ in das „weibliche Biotop“? Über Männer, die Grundschullehrer werden wollen. In: Soziale Passagen, 6, S. 141–159
- Schröder, Hubertus (2007). Interkulturelle Orientierung und Öffnung. Ein neues Paradigma für die soziale Arbeit. In: Archiv für Wissenschaft und Praxis der Sozialen Arbeit, 3, S. 80–91
- Statistisches Bundesamt (2019). Bevölkerung und Erwerbstätigkeit. Bevölkerung mit Migrationshintergrund. Ergebnisse des Mikrozensus 2019. Fachserie 1, Reihe 2.2. https://www.destatis.de/DE/Themen/Gesellschaft-Umwelt/Bevoelkerung/Migration-Integration/Publikationen/Downloads-Migration/migrationshintergrund-2010220197004.pdf?__blob=publicationFile [07.03.2023]
- Syring, Marcus; Tillmann, Teresa; Weiss, Sabine und Kiel, Ewald (2018). Do Open-Minded Student Teachers Have More Favorable Attitudes Towards Different Dimensions of Heterogeneity? In: Journal of Educational and Developmental Psychology, 8:1, S. 133–147. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/jedp.v8n1p133> [07.03.2023]
- Taylor, Charles (1992). Multiculturalism and the Politics of Recognition. Princeton

- Taylor, Roben; Kumi-Yeboah, Alex und Ringlaben, Ravic P. (2016). Pre-Service Teachers' Perceptions towards Multicultural Education and Teaching of Culturally and Linguistically Diverse Learners. In: Multicultural Education, 23:3-4, S. 42-48
- Vecchione, Michele; Alessandri, Guido; Barbaranelli, Claudio und Caprara, Gianvittorio (2012). Gender Differences in the Big Five Personality Development. A Longitudinal Investigation from Late Adolescence to Emerging Adulthood. In: Personality and Individual Differences, 53:6, S. 740-746. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2012.05.033> [07.03.2023]
- Welsch, Wolfgang (1997). Transkulturalität. Zur veränderten Verfassung heutiger Kulturen. In: I. Schneider und C. W. Thomson (Hrsg.): Hybridkultur. Medien, Netze, Künste. Köln: Wienand, S. 67-90

Autor:innen

Annalisa Biehl. Institut für Erziehungswissenschaft, Westfälische Wilhelms-Universität Münster. Forschungsschwerpunkte: Lehrerbildungsforschung, Medienbildung, Diversität im Kontext von Schule und Unterricht
abiehl@uni-muenster.de

Dr. Kris-Stephen Besa. Institut für Erziehungswissenschaft, Westfälische Wilhelms-Universität Münster. Forschungsschwerpunkte: Lehrerbildungsforschung, Medienbildung, Schulentwicklung
kbesa@uni-muenster.de

Korrespondenzadresse:

Annalisa Biehl
Westfälische Wilhelms-Universität Münster
Institut für Erziehungswissenschaft
Bispinghof 5/6
48143 Münster

Mentor:in sein

Motivationale Ziele von Lehrkräften für die Aufgabenübernahme als Mentor:in

Zusammenfassung. Angehende Lehrkräfte (Studierende, Referendar:innen) werden in Praxisphasen von schulischen Mentor:innen betreut, die eine wichtige Sozialisationsinstanz im Lehrberuf darstellen. Gleichzeitig erfolgt die Gewinnung von Mentor:innen in einem schulischen Prozess, an dem die beiden für die erste und zweite Phase der Lehrkräftebildung verantwortlichen Institutionen (Hochschule, Studienseminar) nicht beteiligt sind. Es wird dabei oft mindestens implizit angenommen, dass Mentor:innen auch vor dem Hintergrund vielfältiger anderer Verpflichtungen und möglicherweise erlebter fehlender Qualifikation die Aufgabe aus eigenem Antrieb übernehmen. Die hier vorgestellte Studie untersucht, was Lehrkräfte zur Übernahme der Aufgabe ‚Mentor:in sein‘ motiviert. Es wurde dazu ein Fragebogen auf der Basis bestehender Instrumente konzipiert und die Teilnahme im Zeitfenster von September und Oktober 2020 insbesondere in Hessen über verschiedene Kanäle beworben. Der Fragebogen wurde von $N=720$ Lehrkräften bearbeitet und die Daten mittels Faktorenanalyse sowie Tests zur Prüfung auf Mittelwertunterschiede zwischen verschiedenen Personengruppen ausgewertet. Es zeigen sich drei motivationale Ziele – *interaktionsbasierte Entwicklungsorientierung*, *Karriereorientierung* und *externale Erwartungsanpassung* –, die sich in Bezug auf verschiedene Personenmerkmale erkennbar unterscheiden und deshalb möglicherweise auch unterschiedliche Angebote der Beratung und Begleitung als Mentor:innen benötigen würden.

Schlagwörter. Mentoring, Motivation, Aufgabe ‚Mentor:in sein‘

Being a Mentor

Motivational Goals of Teachers to Engage in Mentoring

Abstract. Pre-service teachers (students, trainee teachers) are supervised in practical phases by school mentors who are important persons in the socialization of pre-service teachers for the teaching profession. These mentors are recruited at the schools, but the two institutions that are responsible for the education of pre-service teachers (university, teacher training colleges) are not involved in this recruitment process. It is often assumed, at least implicitly, that mentors take on this task of their own accord, even various other obligations and a possibly experienced lack of qualifications for this task. In the study presented, it is examined what teachers motivate to take on the task of 'being a mentor'. For this purpose, a questionnaire was developed based on existing instruments and was used primarily with in-service teachers in Hessen (Germany) in September–October 2020. The questionnaire was completed by $N=720$ teachers and the data were analyzed using factor analysis and tests to investigate mean differences between different groups. The analyses indicate three motivational goals, *interaction-based orientation towards own professional development*, *career orientation*, and *adaption to external expectations*, which differ noticeably in terms of personal characteristics and, therefore, may suggest the requirement of different support for mentors.

Keywords. Mentoring at school, motivation, 'being a mentor'

1 Einleitung

In einem weiten Verständnis des Begriffs *Mentor:in* wird in der internationalen Lehrkräftebildungsforschung jede universitäre oder anderweitig beauftragte Person gefasst, die Praxisphasen in Schulen begleitet, unabhängig davon, ob diese Person selbst an der jeweiligen Schule tätig ist oder war (vgl. dazu u. a. Frühwirth 2020). Unsere Studie setzt an einem engeren Verständnis des Begriffs *Mentor:in* an und richtet sich darin ausschließlich auf aktiv tätige Lehrkräfte in der dritten Phase der Lehrkräftebildung. Diese Lehrkräfte beraten und betreuen in der Schule vor Ort die angehenden Lehrkräfte, d. h. Praktikant:innen in den schulpraktischen Studien und/oder Lehrkräfte im Vorbereitungsdienst. Mentor:innen sollen üblicherweise Hospitationsangebote in ihrem Unterricht ermöglichen und nachbesprechen, die angehenden Lehrkräfte in deren (ersten) eigenen Unterrichtsversuchen anleiten und begleiten und, soweit möglich, an Unterrichtsbesuchen und Nachbesprechungen von Ausbilder:innen der Studienseminare und

Praktikumsbeauftragten der Hochschulen teilhaben (u. a. Justus-Liebig-Universität 2010; Landesschulamt und Lehrkräfteakademie 2013).

In den letzten Jahren hat sich die auf das Mentoring bezogene Lehrkräftebildungsforschung am Spektrum der Tätigkeiten von Mentor:innen orientiert und darin besonders auf die Beratungsprozesse fokussiert (Gergen 2019). Studien zum Mentoring – z. B. zu Gesprächen zur Vor- und Nachbereitung von Unterricht – unterstreichen, dass die Beratungsqualität von Mentor:innen maßgeblich Einfluss auf die Entwicklungsmöglichkeiten angehender Lehrkräfte hat (u. a. Mena et al. 2017). Ein in diesem Sinne qualitativ ausgestaltetes Mentoring ist arbeits- und zeitintensiv und erfordert eine professionelle Beziehungsebene zwischen Mentor:in und angehender Lehrkraft. Umso mehr stellt sich die Frage, was Lehrkräfte motiviert, die Aufgabe als Mentor:in freiwillig zu übernehmen. Genau dieser Frage geht die in diesem Artikel beschriebene Studie nach.

2 Stand der Forschung

Hascher et al. (2020) beschreiben Motivation als „ein psychologisches Konstrukt, das die Warum-Frage des menschlichen Handelns möglichst gut beschreiben und erklären will: Warum handelt ein Mensch, wie er es tut?“ (S. 175). Vor dem Hintergrund dieser begrifflichen Fassung von Motivation und in Anlehnung an die Selbstbestimmungstheorie nach Deci und Ryan (1993, 2017) liegt der hier vorgestellten Studie die Annahme zugrunde, dass menschliches Handeln dann als motiviert gelten kann, wenn es auf ein (zukünftig) zu erreichendes Ziel fokussiert ist bzw. einem Zweck dient und nicht z. B. im Affekt geschieht. Vor dem Hintergrund der Theorie der psychologischen Grundbedürfnisse – eine Teiltheorie der Selbstbestimmungstheorie – „wird davon ausgegangen, dass Individuen deshalb bestimmte Ziele verfolgen, weil sie damit ihre Bedürfnisse befriedigen können; entsprechend geht die Befriedigung dieser Bedürfnisse mit einem positiven Erleben einher und ermöglicht die Entwicklung der selbstbestimmten Motivation“ (Hascher et al. 2020, S. 181). Im Mittelpunkt dieser Teiltheorie stehen die psychologischen Grundbedürfnisse nach *Autonomie*, *Kompetenzerleben* und *sozialer Eingebundenheit*, die immer im Zusammenhang mit kontextualen Faktoren stehen (u. a. Deci, Ryan 1993, 2017; Hascher et al. 2020). Hierbei schließt sich die Frage an, inwieweit z. B. die Übernahme der Aufgabe als Mentor:in zur Befriedigung dieser Grundbedürfnisse beiträgt oder sie ggf. sogar konterkariert.

Studien zur Motivation von Lehrkräften stecken generell noch in den „Kinderschuhen“ (Daumiller 2018, S. 22). Vergleichsweise gut untersucht ist die Motivation von Lehrkräften zur Teilnahme an Fortbildungsveranstaltungen (Rzejak et

al. 2014). Die Autor:innen beschreiben vier Motivationsfacetten, die auch die o. g. psychologischen Grundbedürfnisse aufnehmen: Der fachliche Austausch mit anderen Lehrkräften (als *Soziale Interaktion* bezeichnet, impliziert *soziale Eingebundenheit*), Teilnahme aufgrund von Verpflichtung durch die Schulleitung (als *Externale Erwartungsanpassung* bezeichnet, konterkariert *Autonomie*), Fortbildung als Voraussetzung für berufliche Veränderungen (als *Karriereorientierung* bezeichnet, impliziert *Kompetenzerleben*) und die Perspektive auf eine fachliche Ausschärfung des eigenen Profils (als *Entwicklungsorientierung* bezeichnet, kann auf Bedürfnis nach *Kompetenzerleben* verweisen). Studien zur Fortbildungsmotivation fokussieren selten explizit auf Mentor:innen und ihren u. U. spezifischen Erwartungen an Fortbildungen. Eine Ausnahme stellt die Studie von Dammerer (2018) dar, in der Motivationsschreiben als Teil der Bewerbung für einen Masterstudiengang zum Mentoring ausgewertet wurden und sich die Erweiterung des eigenen professionellen Handelns und die Begeisterung und Freude für Mentoring als die bedeutendsten motivationalen Ziele abzeichnen. Da gegenwärtig jedoch kaum untersucht ist, mit welchen motivationalen Zielen Lehrkräfte die Aufgabe als Mentor:in – unabhängig von der formal dafür nicht notwendigen Teilnahme an spezifischen Qualifizierungsprogrammen – aufnehmen und wo sie spezifische Herausforderungen sehen, lässt sich aktuell nur schwer ableiten, ob die üblichen Fortbildungsangebote mögliche Ziele von Mentor:innen aufnehmen. Es ist deshalb sinnvoll, sich intensiver mit der Gruppe der Mentor:innen zu befassen, um Beratungs- und Begleitungsangebote passgenauer anzubieten.

Untersuchungen der Motivation von Lehrkräften zur Übernahme der Aufgabe als Mentor:in sind insgesamt zwar rar (Kuhn et al. 2022; Sinclair et al. 2006; Schnebel 2014; van Ginkel et al. 2016), in diesen wurde aber bereits eine Bandbreite verschiedener motivationaler Ziele identifiziert. Beispielsweise kristallisiert sich als ein zentrales Ziel heraus, dass Lehrkräfte im Kontext ihrer Tätigkeit als Mentor:in sich selbst und ihren eigenen Unterricht weiterentwickeln möchten, indem sie z. B. neue, moderne Unterrichtsmethoden kennenlernen (verweist auf die Motivationsfacette *Entwicklungsorientierung* von Rzejak et al. 2014; s. a. Gröschner, Häusler 2014; Kuhn et al. 2022; Sinclair et al. 2006; Schnebel 2014; van Ginkel et al. 2016). Darüber hinaus betonen Mentor:innen auch eine Art sozialen Nutzen als positiven Aspekt des Mentoring, den u. a. der Austausch mit anderen (angehenden) Lehrkräften bietet (verweist auf die Facette *Soziale Interaktion* von Rzejak et al. 2014; s. a. Kuhn et al. 2022; Schnebel 2014). Zudem könnten gleichwohl Faktoren wie Angst vor Sanktionen bei Verweigerung oder positive Anerkennung durch die Schulleitung oder das Kollegium, welche Mentoring tendenziell wertschätzen, die Motivation beeinflussen (verweist auf die Facette *Externale Erwartungsanpassung* von Rzejak et al. 2014; s. a. Kuhn et al. 2022; Schnebel 2014). Darüber hinaus geben vereinzelte Lehrkräfte beispielsweise an, dass sie die Auf-

gabe übernehmen, da sie sich Veränderungen durch einen beruflichen Aufstieg erhoffen (verweist auf die Facette *Karriereorientierung* von Rzejak et al. 2014; s. a. Schnebel 2014).

Bei der Untersuchung der Motivation von Lehrkräften zur Übernahme der Aufgabe als Mentor*in deuten sich auch verschiedene Personenmerkmale bzgl. der Biografie von Lehrkräften als wichtige zu berücksichtigende Variablen an (Gröschner, Häusler, 2014; Kuhn et al. 2022; Sinclair et al. 2006). Beispielsweise scheint das Alter und die damit typischerweise einhergehende Erfahrung der Lehrkräfte Einfluss auf die Ziele der Mentor:innen zu haben: Jüngere Lehrkräfte, die als Mentor:innen tätig sind, sind innovations- und erfahrungsoffener, sie sehen im Mentoring eine Möglichkeit, neue Impulse für die eigene Unterrichtsgestaltung zu erhalten. Ältere Lehrkräfte möchten angehende Lehrkräfte an ihrem Erfahrungswissen partizipieren lassen (vgl. Gröschner, Häusler 2014).

Den Studien zum Mentoring im schulischen Kontext ist gemein, dass sie sich selten auf die Übernahme der Aufgabe von Mentor:innen, sondern häufig auf Teilaspekte der Tätigkeit selbst beziehen, z. B. zur Rolle von Mentor:innen in Nachbesprechungen (Hennissen et al. 2008). Damit einher geht, dass oft ausschließlich Lehrkräfte befragt werden, die zu diesem Zeitpunkt gleichzeitig die Aufgabe als Mentor:in ausfüllen (z. B. in Kuhn et al. 2022; Schnebel 2014). Bisherige Erkenntnisse wurden zudem überwiegend auf der Basis relativ kleiner Fallzahlen und in Interviews gewonnen (z. B. in Frühwirth 2020; Kuhn et al. 2022; Schnebel 2014). Ziel unserer Studie ist es deshalb, die Motivation zur (potenziellen) Übernahme der Aufgabe als Mentor:in für ein breiteres Spektrum an Lehrkräften zu untersuchen und darin sowohl unterschiedliche motivationale Ziele zu erfassen als auch diese Ziele mit Personenmerkmalen zu verbinden. Damit könnte einerseits die Aufnahme des Mentorings und die von Lehrkräften damit verbundenen Erwartungen an die eigene individuelle Entwicklung besser durchdrungen werden, andererseits könnten diesbezüglich gewonnene Erkenntnisse aber auch zur Diskussion um Möglichkeiten und Grenzen von Mentor:innen beitragen und Fragen der Ausgestaltung von Fortbildungsangeboten bzw. Begleitprozessen empirisch anreichern.

Die Forschungsfragen (FF) sind:

FF1: Welche motivationalen Ziele verfolgen Lehrkräfte mit der Übernahme der Aufgabe als Mentor:in?

FF2: Welche Gemeinsamkeiten und Unterschiede lassen sich bei verschiedenen Personengruppen in den motivationalen Zielen identifizieren?

3 Methodisches Vorgehen

Um eine möglichst große Gruppe an Lehrkräften zu erreichen und darin den zwei FF nachgehen zu können, liegt der Studie ein Fragebogendesign zugrunde. Der Umfang des Fragebogens bewegt sich dabei im Spannungsfeld zwischen der Adressierung der Breite möglicher Ziele sowie der Aufrechterhaltung der Bereitschaft der Lehrkräfte zur Beantwortung aller Fragen.

3.1 Instrument

Der eingesetzte Fragebogen erfasst in den Kernteilen (1) Personenmerkmale zur Biografie von Lehrkräften, (2) die Motivation zur Übernahme der Aufgabe als Mentor:in sowie (3) Angaben zum Mentoring direkt. Die einzelnen Teile werden im Folgenden genauer vorgestellt.

(1) Personenmerkmale: Im ersten Teil des Fragebogens wurden die Personenmerkmale Geschlecht, Alter, Berufserfahrung, unterrichtete Schulform sowie Erfahrung als Mentor:in erfasst (siehe Tab. 1). Zusätzlich wurde erhoben, ob die Lehrkräfte sich (potenziell) auf die Aufgabe von Mentor:innen vorbereiten und ob sie ein Unterstützungsbedarf für Mentor:innen als wichtig erachten. All diese erfassten Merkmale werden auch genutzt, um die untersuchte Stichprobe näher zu beschreiben (siehe Tab. 2).

Tabelle 1: Überblick über die erfassten Personenmerkmale

Personenmerkmal	Antwortoptionen
Geschlecht	Männlich, weiblich, divers
Alter	Antwort in Jahren
Berufserfahrung	Antwort in Jahren (inkl. Vorbereitungsdienst)
Schulform	Mehrfachantwort möglich: Grundschule, Haupt- und Realschule, Gymnasium, berufliche Schulen oder vergleichbare Schulformen, Förderschule, Andere
Erfahrung	Keine Erfahrung (Ja, Nein), Mentor:in (Ja, Nein), Ausbilder:in (Ja, Nein), Praktikumsbeauftragte:r (Ja, Nein)
Vorbereitung	Ja, Nein
Unterstützungsbedarf	Ja, Nein

(2) Motivation: Zur Erfassung der motivationalen Ziele von Lehrkräften bezüglich der Begleitung angehender Lehrkräfte im zweiten Teil des Fragebogens

wurden in Anlehnung an Skalen zur Motivation von Lehrkräften zur Teilnahme an Fortbildungen (Rzejak et al. 2014) neue Skalen entwickelt. Im Rahmen ihrer Studie haben Rzejak et al. (2014) – wie bereits erwähnt – vier Motivationsfacetten beschrieben: *Soziale Interaktion*, *Externale Erwartungsanpassung*, *Karriereorientierung*, *Entwicklungsorientierung*. Teile dieser vier motivationalen Ziele für die Teilnahme an Lehrkräftefortbildungen wurden ebenso in Untersuchungen zu den motivationalen Zielen für die Übernahme der Aufgabe als Mentor:in identifiziert (siehe Stand der Forschung). Von daher scheint die Adaption der vier motivationalen Ziele auf Mentor:innen sinnvoll möglich zu sein.

Soziale Interaktion umfasst die Möglichkeit zum kommunikativen Austausch mit anderen Menschen, die sich z. B. in einer vergleichbaren Situation befinden. ‚Mentor:in sein‘ ermöglicht *Soziale Interaktion* auf unterschiedlichen Ebenen: Zusammenarbeit mit angehenden Lehrkräften, Austausch mit Ausbildungsverantwortlichen der Universitäten und der Studienseminare sowie anderen Mentor:innen z. B. bei Mentoringveranstaltungen. Daraus lässt sich folgern, dass die Möglichkeit zur sozialen Interaktion über den normalen Schulalltag hinaus auch für die Motivation bzgl. der Übernahme des Mentorings relevant sein kann (Items mit Code SI in Tab. 3).

Externale Erwartungsanpassung beschreibt das motivationale Ziel, das sich auf die Übernahme von (gefühlten oder real existierenden) Verpflichtungen und Vorgaben bezieht. Dazu gehören u. a. angenommene oder explizierte Erwartungshaltungen seitens der Schulleitung oder des Kollegiums, aber auch formale Vorgaben von Dienstaufgaben (Items mit Code EE in Tab. 3).

Karriereorientierung umfasst das motivationale Ziel, berufliche Veränderungen anzustreben. Die Aufgabe als Mentor:in wird mit dem Ziel übernommen, die eigene Laufbahn zu verbessern, z. B. sich für eine Funktionsstelle zu qualifizieren (Items mit Code KO in Tab. 3).

Entwicklungsorientierung beschreibt das motivationale Ziel zur kontinuierlichen Weiterentwicklung und dem berufsbegleitenden Professionalisierungsprozess von Lehrkräften (Rzejak et al. 2014). Dies greift dabei das bereits in anderen Studien (z. B. Kuhn et al. 2022; Sinclair et al. 2006; van Ginkel et al. 2016) als zentral identifizierte Ziel auf, dass Lehrkräfte im Rahmen des Mentorings sich selbst und ihren eigenen Unterricht weiterentwickeln möchten (Items mit Code EO in Tab. 3).

Zur Adaption der Skalen wurden die Ausgangsfrage und die Items sprachlich an die Aufgabe als Mentor:in angepasst. Es wurden zehn Items aus dem Instrument

von Rzejak et al. (2014) adaptiert sowie neun Items neu entwickelt. Für alle vier Skalen wurde eine 5-stufige Likert-Skala mit den Ausprägungen (1) „Trifft überhaupt nicht zu“, (2) „Trifft eher nicht zu“, (3) „Teils teils“, (4) „Trifft eher zu“ sowie (5) „Trifft voll und ganz zu“ verwendet. Die Reihung der Fragen erfolgte über die Skalen hinweg für jede teilnehmende Lehrkraft nach dem Zufallsprinzip.

(3) Mentoring: Im dritten Teil des Fragebogens wurde das Zeitmanagement und die Priorisierung der Aufgaben sowie erlebte Ereignisse als Mentor:in erfasst. Alle drei Aspekte betreffen die Tätigkeit selbst, nicht aber die Motivation zur Aufnahme der Tätigkeit, und werden im hier dargestellten Studienteil deshalb nicht weiter berichtet.

3.2 Stichprobe und Datenerhebung

Die Befragung wurde von September bis Oktober 2020 unter dem Titel „Mentor:innen qualifizieren – Wie erleben Lehrkräfte die Aufgabe als Mentor:in?“ als Onlineerhebung freigeschaltet. Sie wurde über die Funktionsadressen der hessischen Schulen per E-Mail verteilt und darin alle Lehrkräfte zur Teilnahme eingeladen. Hierbei wurde die Verbreitung bewusst auf ein Bundesland beschränkt, um die Varianz in den formalen Bedingungen des Mentoring möglichst gering zu halten. Die Teilnahme an der Studie war freiwillig, das Einverständnis wurde erfasst. In die Auswertung wurden die Datensätze von $N = 720$ Lehrkräften einbezogen (siehe Übersicht in Tab. 2). Das entspricht einer Antwortquote von ca. 1,2 % aller hessischen Lehrkräfte, die an ca. 14,5 % aller hessischen Schulen tätig sind (Statistisches Landesamt Hessen 2020).

Tabelle 2: Übersicht über die Personenmerkmale der Stichprobe

Merkmal	Verteilung in der Stichprobe			
<i>Geschlecht</i>	Weiblich: 67,2 %	Männlich: 21,5 %	Divers: 0,3 %	KA: 11,0 %
<i>Alter</i>	MW= 43,0 Jahre, SD=9,5 Jahre			KA: 2,5 %
<i>Berufserfahrung</i>	MW= 14,7 Jahre, SD=8,7 Jahre			KA: 0,1 %
<i>Schulform</i>	GS: 29,4 %	HR: 14,5 %	Gym: 24,2 %	KA: 0,0 %
	Beruf: 16,6 %	FS: 11,1 %	Andere: 4,1 %	
<i>Erfahrung</i>	Keine: 14,3 %	Mentor:in: 71,3 %	Ausbilder:in: 5,2 %	KA: 0,0 %
		Praktikumsbeauftragte:r: 8,2 %		
<i>Vorbereitung</i>	Ja: 71,4 %	Nein: 28,6 %		KA: 0,0 %
<i>Unterstützungsbedarf</i>	Ja: 64,7 %	Nein: 25,8 %		KA: 9,4 %

Anmerkung: KA=Keine Angabe, GS=Grundschule, HR=Haupt- und Realschule, Gym=Gymnasium, Beruf=berufliche Schulen oder andere vergleichbare Schulformen, FS=Förderschulen.

3.3 Auswertung

Die Daten wurden in zwei Schritten mittels *IBM SPSS Statistics* (Version 27.0) bzw. *IBM SPSS AMOS* (Version 27.0) ausgewertet. Im ersten Schritt wurde untersucht, ob sich die eingesetzten Skalen analytisch trennen lassen (konfirmatorische und explorative Faktorenanalyse). Im zweiten Schritt wurden anhand der Personenmerkmale Gruppen gebildet und auf Mittelwertunterschiede überprüft. Ergebnisse der Faktorenanalysen werden bereits im folgenden Abschnitt dargestellt, da sie Ausgangspunkte für den zweiten Analyseschritt bilden.

3.3.1 Schritt 1: Faktorenanalyse

Da die verschiedenen Skalen auf den vier für die Teilnahme an Lehrkräftefortbildungen empirisch trennbaren Faktoren zu den dahinterliegenden Motivationsfacetten basiert (Rzejak et al. 2014), wurde für die motivationalen Ziele zur Übernahme der Aufgabe von Mentor:innen zunächst eine 4-Faktorenstruktur angenommen. Diese Struktur wurde mittels einer konfirmatorischen Faktorenanalyse überprüft. Als Gütemaße bei Stichproben $N > 250$ wird die Verwendung der Kombination aus Comperativ Fit Index ($CFI \geq 0,95$) und Standardized Root Mean Square Residual ($SRMR \leq 0,09$) empfohlen (Weiber, Mühlhaus 2014), weswegen diese auch zur Untersuchung der Passung des angenommenen 4-Faktoren-Modells zu den erhobenen Daten herangezogen wurden. Da der CFI ($= 0,876$) den empfohlenen Schwellenwert unterschreitet und das $SRMR$ ($= 0,087$) nur knapp die Bedingung erfüllt, lässt sich auf keine akzeptable Passung des Modells mit vier Faktoren schließen. Anhand einer explorativen Faktorenanalyse sollte deshalb eine besser passende latente Faktorenstruktur basierend auf den 19 Items ermittelt werden (Hauptkomponentenanalyse, Varimax-Rotation).

Zur Prüfung der Voraussetzungen für eine explorative Faktorenanalyse wurden die folgenden Kennwerte herangezogen: Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy ($KMO > 0,5$) und Signifikanz des Bartlett-Tests ($p < 0,001$; Field 2018). Diese Prüfung bestätigt die Stichprobenadäquanz ($KMO = 0,858$) sowie die ausreichend großen Korrelationen zwischen den Items (Bartlett-Test mit $p < 0,001$) und damit das Erfüllen der Voraussetzungen für eine explorative Faktorenanalyse. Berücksichtigung fanden gemäß dem Kaiserkriterium Faktoren mit einem Eigenwert > 1 (Guttman 1954; Kaiser 1960). Ergänzend wurde der Scree-Plot, eine Darstellung der Faktoren mit zugehörigen Eigenwerten, zur Bestimmung der Anzahl der Faktoren interpretiert (ebd.). Dieser weist eine Knickstelle bei „drei“ auf, die über dem Eigenwert von 1 liegt. Basierend auf dem Kaiserkriterium und dem Scree-Plot deutete sich eine Lösung mit drei Faktoren an, die gemeinsam eine Gesamtvarianz von 52,7% aufklären (siehe Tab. 3).

Erwartungskonform laden Items aus dem Bereich *Karriereorientierung* (KO1–5; *KarOri*) und *Externale Erwartungsanpassung* (EE1–4; *ExtE*) jeweils auf einen eigenständigen Faktor (siehe Tab. 3). Eine Veränderung zur vorher angenommenen 4-Faktorenstruktur zeigt sich für Items zu Entwicklungsorientierung (EO1–5) und Soziale Interaktion (SI1–5), die gemeinsam auf einen Faktor laden. Wenn davon ausgegangen wird, dass die eigene Entwicklung gleichwohl durch Impulse und Anreize von außen geschieht, z. B. durch Gespräche über Unterricht und Schule mit außerschulisch tätigen Ausbilder:innen und Praktikumsbeauftragten, so lässt sich auch inhaltlich der Zusammengang der Items zu einem Faktor erklären. Im Folgenden wird dieser als *Interaktionsbasierte Entwicklungsorientierung* (*IntEnt*) bezeichnet. Insgesamt deutet sich eine 3-Faktorenstruktur mit *KarOri*, *ExtE* und *IntEnt* somit nicht nur empirisch an, sondern erweist sich darüber hinaus als inhaltlich plausibel. Daher basieren die weiteren Analysen auf dieser 3-Faktorenstruktur und den daraus resultierenden Skalen, welche jeweils eine akzeptable bis sehr gute Reliabilität aufweisen (siehe Tab. 3).

Tabelle 3: Überblick über die 3-Faktoren-Lösung

Code	Item	Faktorladungen		
		<i>IntEnt</i>	<i>KarOri</i>	<i>ExtE</i>
	Ich übernehme die Aufgabe als Mentor:in bzw. werde diese zukünftig übernehmen, weil...			
EO4	... ich aus der Tätigkeit Impulse für die Ausrichtung meines Unterrichts nach dem aktuellen pädagogischen und didaktischen Forschungsstand erwarte.	0,776		
EO1	... ich mir Anregungen und Impulse für meine Unterrichtsgestaltung erhoffe.	0,740		
EO2	... ich durch Gespräche und Reflexion mit angehenden Lehrkräften meine eigene Lehrerpersönlichkeit weiter entwickeln möchte.	0,740		
EO3	... ich mich für methodisch-didaktische Innovationen interessiere.	0,719		
SI5	... ich die Zusammenarbeit mit angehenden Lehrkräften schätze.	0,673		
EO5	... ich meine sozial-kommunikativen Kompetenzen erweitern möchte.	0,610		
SI2	... ich den Austausch mit Ausbilder:innen der Studienseminare schätze.	0,585		
SI1	... ich Kontakt zu angehenden Lehrkräften aufbauen kann.	0,563		
SI4	... ich Kontakt zu anderen Lehrkräften knüpfen kann (z. B. an Mentorentagen, an Informationsveranstaltungen der Studienseminare).	0,508	0,380	

SI3	... ich den Austausch mit Praktikumsbeauftragten der Universität schätze.	0,466		
KO1	... ich meine beruflichen Aufstiegschancen erhöhen kann.	0,873		
KO2	... ich mich für Leitungsfunktionen/Funktionsstellen in der Schule qualifizieren möchte.	0,855		
KO5	... ich mich für Personalentwicklung interessiere, um meine zukünftigen Aufstiegschancen zu erhöhen.	0,849		
KO3	... mein Engagement in der Schule wahrgenommen werden soll, damit es zukünftig meine Aufstiegschancen erhöht.	0,801		
KO4	... ich mich für eine Tätigkeit in der Lehrerbildung (Universität, Studienseminar, Fortbildung) qualifizieren möchte.	0,720		
EE2	... ich dazu verpflichtet werde.	0,724		
EE4	... es zu den dienstlichen Verpflichtungen einer Lehrkraft gehört.	0,695		
EE1	... die Übernahme der Mentorentätigkeit in unserem Kollegium üblich ist.	0,671		
EE3	... ich sonst mit Restriktionen rechnen muss.	0,588		
	Anzahl Items	9	5	4
	Eigenwert	5,17	3,12	1,73
	Varianzaufklärung	27,2 %	16,4 %	9,1 %
	Cronbachs α	0,84	0,89	0,60

Anmerkungen: Ladungen < 0,3 sind nicht angegeben. Da das ausgegraute Item SI4 auf zwei Faktoren mit > 0,3 lädt, wurde dieses aus den weiteren statistischen Analysen ausgeschlossen.

3.3.2 Schritt 2: Gruppenvergleiche

Um Gemeinsamkeiten und Unterschiede in den drei motivationalen Zielen zwischen verschiedenen Personengruppen hinsichtlich unterschiedlicher Personenmerkmale (siehe Tab. 2 zur Übersicht über die Personenmerkmale) zu untersuchen (FF2), wurden die Mittelwerte der jeweiligen Gruppen jeweils für die drei motivationalen Ziele (*IntEnt*, *KarOri* und *ExtE*) verglichen. Abhängig von dem Personenmerkmal und der daraus resultierenden Anzahl an Vergleichsgruppen wurden entsprechende parametrische Tests zur Untersuchung von Mittelwertunterschieden durchgeführt, um die zugehörige Signifikanz (signifikant: $p < 0,05$) und Effektstärke zu bestimmen (Cohens d , klein: $0,2 \leq d < 0,5$; mittel: $0,5 \leq d < 0,8$; groß: $d \geq 0,8$; Cohen 1988).

Bei den Personenmerkmalen *Geschlecht*, *Schulform*, *Erfahrung in der Begleitung von angehenden Lehrkräften*, *Vorbereitung* und *Unterstützungsbedarf* wurde eine Gruppeneinteilung entlang der im Fragebogen unterschiedenen Ausprägungen vorgenommen. So wurden beispielsweise für die Variable *Geschlecht* die Gruppen weiblich und männlich unterschieden; divers wurde aufgrund zu kleiner Gruppengröße nicht berücksichtigt. Als Grundlage für den Vergleich verschiedener *Schulformen* wurden alle Daten von Lehrkräften genutzt, die nur eine Schulform als Tätigkeitsfeld angegeben haben. Aufgrund der geringen Anzahl wurde die Angabe „andere Schulform“ aus diesem Vergleich ausgeschlossen. Bezüglich der *Erfahrung in der Begleitung von angehenden Lehrkräften* wurde die Stichprobe in vier Gruppen aufgeteilt: Lehrkräfte ohne Erfahrung, Lehrkräfte, die als Mentor:in Erfahrung haben, Lehrkräfte, die darüber hinaus Erfahrung als Ausbilder:in haben, und Lehrkräfte, die als Praktikumsbeauftragte tätig (gewesen) sind. Lehrkräfte, die sowohl als Praktikumsbeauftragte als auch als Ausbilder:innen tätig (gewesen) sind ($n=7$), wurden in die Gruppe der Ausbilder:innen gezählt. Für die Personenmerkmale *Alter* und *Berufserfahrung* wurde eine Einteilung in vier Gruppen entsprechend der Quartile vorgenommen.

Für Personenmerkmale mit zwei Vergleichsgruppen – *Geschlecht* (männlich/weiblich) sowie *Vorbereitung* (ja/nein) und *Unterstützungsbedarf* (ja/nein) – wurden ungepaarte *t*-Tests zur Untersuchung von Mittelwertunterschieden genutzt. Für die Vergleiche entlang von Personenmerkmale mit mehr als zwei Vergleichsgruppen – *Alter*, *Berufserfahrung*, *Erfahrung in der Begleitung von angehenden Lehrkräften* sowie *Schulform* – wurden Mittelwertunterschiede mittels einer einfaktoriellen Varianzanalyse überprüft. Bei fehlender Varianzhomogenität wurde bei beiden Analysen der robuste Welch-Test interpretiert. Um die Unterschiede bei den Vergleichen von mehr als zwei Personengruppen genauer zu analysieren, wurde mit Post-Hoc-Tests gearbeitet (Tukey HSD bei Varianzhomogenität, Games-Howell bei fehlender Varianzhomogenität; Field 2018).

4 Ergebnisse

4.1 Motivationale Ziele bei der Übernahme der Aufgabe als Mentor:in

In allen drei motivationalen Zielen *Interaktionsbasierte Entwicklungsorientierung* (*IntEnt*), *Karriereorientierung* (*KarOr*) und *Externale Erwartungsanpassung* (*ExtE*) wird das gesamte Spektrum zwischen vollkommener Zustimmung und strikter Ablehnung abgebildet (siehe Abb. 1). Die drei motivationalen Ziele scheinen für jede individuelle Lehrkraft somit unterschiedlich bedeutsam bei der Über-

nahme der Aufgabe als Mentor:in zu sein. Dennoch zeigen sich teils erkennbare Verschiebungen der Verteilungen in den Zustimmung- oder Ablehnungsbereich, was darauf hindeutet, dass manche Beweggründe zur Übernahme der Aufgabe als Mentor:in für den Großteil der Lehrkräfte typischerweise grundsätzlich eher wichtig bzw. unwichtig sind (siehe Abb. 1).

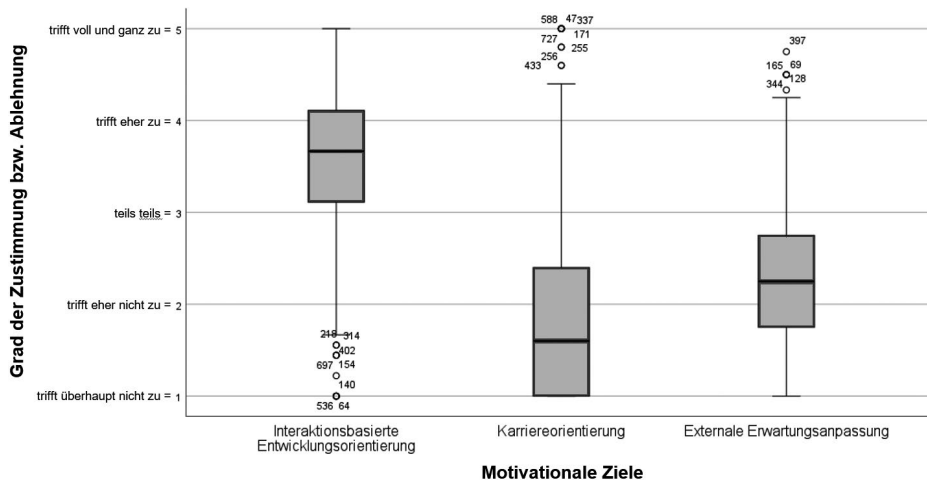


Abbildung 1: Verteilungen über die drei motivationalen Ziele

Für das Ziel *KarOr* ist die deutlichste Tendenz der Verteilung zum Ablehnungsbereich erkennbar; ein Großteil der Daten liegt zwischen *trifft gar nicht zu* und *trifft eher weniger zu* ($MW=1,84$; $SD=0,93$). Dies deutet darauf hin, dass ein Großteil der Befragten mit der Übernahme des Mentorings keine Karriereambitionen verbindet. Die Verteilung zur *ExtE* liegt im Mittel ebenfalls eher im Ablehnungsbereich mit einer Tendenz zur Mitte ($MW=2,27$; $SD=0,74$). Auch wenn die Aufgabe als Mentor:in einer gesetzlichen Vorgabe entspricht, so scheinen Lehrkräfte hier mehrheitlich eher keinen motivationalen Druck von außen zu empfinden. Die Verteilung bezüglich des Ziels *IntEnt* liegt eher im Zustimmungsbereich ($MW=3,53$; $SD=0,71$). Das motivationale Ziel, durch die Übernahme der Aufgabe Impulse für die eigene Tätigkeit als Lehrkraft zu erhalten, begünstigt durch die Interaktion mit allen an der Ausbildung beteiligten Personen, scheint für die Mehrheit der befragten Lehrkräfte das wichtigste der drei motivationalen Ziele zu sein.

4.2 Gemeinsamkeiten und Unterschiede in den motivationalen Zielen zwischen verschiedenen Personengruppen

Bezüglich des Geschlechts gibt es statistisch signifikante Unterschiede mit kleinem Effekt in der *IntEnt* und in der *ExtE* (siehe Tab. 4). Beide motivationalen Ziele werden von Frauen typischerweise etwas bedeutsamer als von Männern für die Übernahme der Aufgabe als Mentor:in eingeschätzt. Kein Unterschied zwischen den Geschlechtern lässt sich hinsichtlich der *KarOri* feststellen.

Tabelle 4: Ergebnisse des *t*-Tests für die Vergleiche der Geschlechter

Ziel	Geschlecht	<i>N</i>	<i>MW</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>t(df)</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>d</i>
<i>IntEnt</i>	Männlich	154	3,42	0,70	634	3,210	< 0,001	0,297
	Weiblich	482	3,63	0,71				
<i>KarOri</i>	Männlich	153	1,84	0,93	630	-0,046	0,963	-0,004
	Weiblich	479	1,84	0,92				
<i>ExtE</i>	Männlich	153	2,17	0,66	632	2,116	0,035	0,196
	Weiblich	481	2,31	0,76				

Die vier Gruppen bezüglich der Berufserfahrung bzw. des Alters unterscheiden sich signifikant im motivationalen Ziel *KarOri* (siehe Tab. 5). Mit zunehmender Berufserfahrung bzw. zunehmendem Alter verfolgen die Lehrkräfte (noch) weniger Karriereambitionen bei der Übernahme der Aufgabe als Mentor:in (mittlerer Effekt). Keine signifikanten Unterschiede zeigen sich zwischen den Gruppen in Bezug auf Berufserfahrung bzw. Alter bei den Zielen *IntEnt* und *ExtE*.

Unterschiede in Bezug auf die Schulformen liegen nur im motivationalen Ziel *KarOri* mit einem kleinen Effekt vor (siehe Tab. 6). Der Games-Howell post-hoc Test zeigt einen signifikanten Unterschied zwischen den Schulformen *Berufsschule* und *Grundschule* ($p=0,006$) sowie den Schulformen *Berufsschule* und *Förderschule* ($p=0,017$). Hierbei liegt jeweils im Mittel eine höhere Zustimmung bei den Berufsschullehrkräften vor. Die anderen Schulformen unterscheiden sich in Bezug auf die *KarOri* nicht signifikant.

Signifikante Unterschiede in den vier Gruppen, die unterschiedliche Erfahrung in der Begleitung angehender Lehrkräfte haben, zeigen sich in der *IntEnt* (kleiner Effekt), jedoch nicht in der *KarOri* und der *ExtE* (siehe Tab. 7). *Lehrkräfte mit Erfahrung als Mentor:in* schätzen im Vergleich zu Lehrkräften, die darüber hinaus Erfahrungen in der Begleitung angehender Lehrkräfte als *Ausbilder:in* haben, die *IntEnt* als etwas weniger bedeutend ein ($p=0,028$). Die Gruppen aus Lehrkräften

Tabelle 5: Ergebnisse der einfaktoriellen Varianzanalyse für die Vergleiche der Alter-/Berufserfahrungsgruppen

Ziel	Alter ^a	N	MW	SD	df Zähler	df Nenner	F	p	d
IntEnt	bis 35	185	3,63	0,67	3	695	2,290	0,077	0,201
	36–41	168	3,51	0,68					
	42–50	182	3,50	0,78					
	ab 51	164	3,66	0,69					
KarOri	bis 35	185	2,18	1,07	3	380,56	20,830	< 0,001	0,606
	36–41	168	1,97	0,94					
	42–50	182	1,67	0,75					
	ab 51	164	1,48	0,73					
ExtE	bis 35	185	2,28	0,75	3	693	0,253	0,859	0,063
	36–41	168	2,30	0,68					
	42–50	182	2,24	0,79					
	ab 51	164	2,26	0,76					
Ziel	Berufserfahrung ^a	N	MW	SD	df Zähler	df Nenner	F	p	d
IntEnt	bis 7	182	3,62	0,65	3	711	0,600	0,615	0,110
	8–13	214	3,53	0,73					
	14–21	150	3,56	0,69					
	ab 22	169	3,60	0,75					
KarOri	bis 7	182	2,27	1,02	3	387,02	27,340	0,001	0,692
	8–13	214	1,93	0,92					
	14–21	150	1,61	0,75					
	ab 22	169	1,48	0,75					
ExtE	bis 7	182	2,27	0,72	3	709	0,173	0,915	0,063
	8–13	214	2,27	0,72					
	14–21	150	2,31	0,74					
	ab 22	169	2,25	0,79					

Anmerkung: ^a Angabe in Jahren, Gruppierung erfolgte basierend auf den Quartilen.

Tabelle 6: Ergebnisse der einfaktoriellen Varianzanalyse für die Vergleiche der Schulformen

Ziel	Schulform	N	MW	SD	df _{Zähler}	df _{Nenner}	F	p	d
IntEnt	GS	216	3,68	0,67	4	227,88	1,575	0,182	0,211
	HR	66	3,50	0,87					
	Gym	142	3,50	0,76					
	Beruf	110	3,58	0,72					
	FS	72	3,60	0,52					
KarOri	GS	216	1,69	0,82	4	221,68	3,964	0,004	0,340
	HR	66	1,95	0,99					
	Gym	142	1,83	0,95					
	Beruf	110	2,08	1,01					
	FS	72	1,66	0,78					
ExtE	GS	216	2,22	0,74	4	599	1,559	0,184	0,201
	HR	66	2,46	0,79					
	Gym	142	2,22	0,76					
	Beruf	110	2,22	0,70					
	FS	72	2,31	0,73					

Anmerkung: GS = Grundschule, HR = Haupt und Realschule, Gym = Gymnasium, Beruf = berufliche Schulen oder andere vergleichbare Schulformen, FS = Förderschulen.

Tabelle 7: Ergebnisse der einfaktoriellen Varianzanalyse für den Vergleich der Gruppen bzgl. der Erfahrung als Mentor:in

Ziel	Erfahrung als Mentor:in	N	MW	SD	df _{Zähler}	df _{Nenner}	F	p	d
IntEnt	Keine	98	3,60	0,68	3	710	3,880	0,009	0,222
	Mentor:in	528	3,52	0,71					
	Ausbilder:in	36	3,86	0,67					
	Praktikumsbeauftragte:r	52	3,74	0,73					
KarOri	Keine	98	1,97	0,95	3	95,09	2,490	0,065	0,295
	Mentor:in	528	1,79	0,89					
	Ausbilder:in	36	2,12	1,07					
	Praktikumsbeauftragte:r	52	2,02	1,14					

ExtE	Keine	98	2,40	0,87	3	97,16	1,122	0,344	0,155
	Mentor:in	528	2,27	0,71					
	Ausbilder:in	36	2,31	0,70					
	Praktikumsbeauftragte:r	52	2,14	0,80					

ohne Erfahrung als Mentor:in, Lehrkräften mit Erfahrung als Mentor:in und Praktikumsbeauftragte unterscheiden sich bzgl. der *IntEnt* nicht.

Bezüglich der Vorbereitung auf die Aufgabe als Mentor:in zeigt sich, dass Lehrkräfte, die sich nach eigener Angabe auf die Aufgabe vorbereiten, einen signifikant höheren Mittelwert in der *IntEnt* haben (mittlerer Effekt) und etwas karriereambitionierter im Hinblick auf die Übernahme der Aufgabe als Mentor:in sind (*KarOri*, kleiner Effekt), als solche, die sich nicht vorbereiten (siehe Tab. 8). Keine signifikanten Unterschiede werden hinsichtlich der *ExtE* deutlich.

Tabelle 8: Ergebnisse der *t*-Tests für den Vergleich der Gruppen hinsichtlich der Vorbereitung

Ziel	Vorbereitung	<i>N</i>	<i>MW</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>t(df)</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>d</i>
<i>IntEnt</i>	Ja	517	3,69	0,65	304,54	6,600	0,001	0,601
	Nein	198	3,27	0,78				
<i>KarOri</i>	Ja	515	1,90	0,92	709	2,540	0,011	0,213
	Nein	196	1,70	0,94				
<i>ExtE</i>	Ja	516	2,28	0,73	711	0,117	0,907	0,010
	Nein	197	2,27	0,77				

Lehrkräfte, die einen Unterstützungsbedarf bei der Übernahme der Aufgaben von Mentor:innen sehen, stimmen dem motivationalen Ziel *IntEnt* signifikant höher zu (kleiner Effekt), unterscheiden sich jedoch nicht in Bezug auf *KarOri* und *ExtE* (siehe Tab. 9).

Zusammenfassend liegen zum Teil signifikante Unterschiede mit kleinen bis mittleren Effekten zwischen den Gruppen entlang verschiedener Personenmerkmale und den motivationalen Zielen *IntEnt*, *KarOri* und *ExtE* vor. Diese identifizierten Unterschiede repräsentieren jedoch keine Verschiebung der Mittelwerte vom Zustimmungsbereich für eine Gruppe in den Ablehnungsbereich für eine andere Gruppe, sondern markieren typischerweise Unterschiede entlang einer Abstufung in der eingesetzten 5-stufigen Likert-Skala (z. B. bzgl. *IntEnt* und dem

Tabelle 9: Ergebnisse der *t*-Tests für den Vergleich der Gruppen hinsichtlich des Unterstützungsbedarfs

Ziel	Unterstützung	<i>N</i>	<i>MW</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>t(df)</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>d</i>
<i>IntEnt</i>	Ja	460	3,62	0,66	298,39	2,569	0,011	0,240
	Nein	188	3,46	0,80				
<i>KarOri</i>	Ja	457	1,86	0,92	642	1,126	0,261	0,098
	Nein	187	1,77	0,93				
<i>ExtE</i>	Ja	457	2,27	0,75	644	-0,362	0,718	-0,031
	Nein	189	2,30	0,70				

Merkmal „Vorbereitung“: „Teils teils“ für Gruppe „Nein“ vs. „stimme eher zu“ für Gruppe „Ja“ in Tab. 8).

5 Diskussion

Im Kontrast zu bisherigen überwiegend qualitativen Studien zur Aufgabenübernahme von Mentor:innen wurde in dieser Studie die Motivation von (hessischen) Lehrkräften, die diese Aufgabe im Rahmen der Ausbildung von angehenden Lehrkräften (potenziell) übernehmen, anhand einer Onlineumfrage untersucht. Hierbei wurden basierend auf den Daten von 720 Lehrkräften mittels Faktorenanalyse drei latente Faktoren identifiziert, die unterschiedliche motivationale Ziele zur Übernahme der Aufgabe als Mentor:in abbilden (*IntEnt*, *KarOri* und *ExtE*). Entlang dieser motivationalen Ziele konnten durch Mittelwertvergleiche mehrere Unterschiede zwischen verschiedenen Personengruppen herausgearbeitet werden (Gruppierung entlang Geschlecht, Alter, Berufserfahrung, Schulform, Erfahrung als Mentor:in, Vorbereitung und Unterstützungsbedarf).

Das motivationale Ziel *IntEnt* umfasst die eigene Weiterentwicklung in der Rolle als Lehrkraft u. a. in Interaktion mit anderen an der Ausbildung beteiligten Personen während der Übernahme der Aufgabe als Mentor:in. Wie sich bereits in anderen Studien der Wunsch nach sozialer Interaktion der Mentor:innen mit anderen herauskristallisierte (Kuhn et al. 2022; Schnebel 2014) und auch Impulse für den eigenen Unterricht sowie die eigene professionelle Weiterentwicklung als bedeutende Gewinne gesehen wurden (Gröschner, Häusler 2014; Kuhn et al. 2022; Schnebel 2014; Sinclair et al. 2006; van Ginkel et al. 2016; s. a. Dammerer 2018), ist dieses Ziel auch für den Großteil der hier untersuchten Lehrkräfte als bedeutsame Motivation erkennbar. Das motivationale Ziel *KarOri* fokussiert inhaltlich

auf eine Veränderung der beruflichen Position von Lehrkräften. Wenn auch als latenter Faktor empirisch von den anderen beiden Zielen trennbar, zeigt sich dieses Ziel ebenso in der hier befragten Stichprobe für viele Lehrkräfte als wenig bedeutungsvoll (vgl. Schnebel 2014). Das dritte untersuchte motivationale Ziel *ExtE* beschreibt die Übernahme der Aufgabe als Mentor:in aufgrund struktureller Gegebenheiten, wie sie z. B. in der Verfügung zur Tätigkeit von Mentor:innen formuliert werden (Landesschulamt und Lehrkräfteakademie 2013). Auch dieses motivationale Ziel scheint für einen Großteil der befragten Lehrkräfte keine zentrale Rolle bei der Übernahme der Aufgabe zu spielen. Dies passt in der Tendenz zu den Befunden aus der Studie von Kuhn et al. (2022), in der die Mehrzahl der Lehrkräfte angibt, dass ihre Schule das Mentoring angehender Lehrkräfte zwar als relevant ansieht, diese Haltung aber keinen Einfluss auf ihre Entscheidung gehabt hätte, als Mentor:in tätig zu sein.

Werden die motivationalen Ziele unter Berücksichtigung verschiedener Personenmerkmale betrachtet, so zeigt sich in der *IntEnt*, dass dieses Ziel für Frauen typischerweise bedeutsamer ist als für Männer. Für Lehrkräfte, die auch als Ausbilder:innen tätig sind, scheint *IntEnt* eine größere Rolle zu spielen als für erfahrene Mentor:innen. Außerdem stellt die *IntEnt* für Lehrkräfte, die sich auf die Aufgabe vorbereiten bzw. einen Qualifikationsbedarf sehen, einen signifikant stärkeren inneren Antrieb dar als für Lehrkräfte, die diese Aspekte verneinen. Das Alter und die Berufserfahrung, welche sich in der Studie von Gröschner und Häusler (2014) als Unterscheidungsmerkmale von Lehrkräften im Wunsch der persönlichen Entwicklung gezeigt haben, konnten hier nicht bestätigt werden. Diese Ergebnisse sind als solche wenig überraschend. Sie zeigen zum einen, dass Lehrkräfte, die sich intensiver mit Ausbildung beschäftigen, altersunabhängig ein größeres Interesse an der eigenen Entwicklung aufzeigen und zum anderen, dass Lehrkräfte, die die eigene Entwicklung auf Basis der Interaktion als wertvoll erachten, diese ebenso in Aspekten wie Vorbereitung auf sowie Unterstützungsbedarf für die Aufgabe sehen. Relevant sind die Ergebnisse vor allem deshalb, weil sie zeigen, dass die eigene Entwicklung in Kombination mit Interaktion das am stärksten ausgeprägte der drei untersuchten motivationalen Ziele zu sein scheint und daran anknüpfend ein Angebot zur Beratung und Begleitung von Mentor:innen angesiedelt werden könnte.

In der *KarOri* als motivationales Ziel zeigen sich Unterschiede im Alter und der Berufserfahrung, der Schulform sowie in der Vorbereitung. Da die Forschungslage zur Motivation von Berufsschullehrkräften noch nicht aussagekräftig ist (vgl. Scharfenberg 2020), kann in Bezug auf die höheren Karriereambitionen in der Berufsschule nur spekuliert werden. Ggf. könnte es hier berufsbiografische Erklärungen geben. Vergleichbar könnte es sich mit dem Zusammenhang Alter/

Berufserfahrung und Karriereambitionen verhalten: Jüngere Menschen haben möglicherweise bereits durch die ihnen noch zur Verfügung stehende Lebens- und Arbeitszeit höhere Karriereambitionen. Auch dieses Ergebnis scheint auf den ersten Blick wenig überraschend, es zeigt aber einen möglichen Ansatzpunkt zur Etablierung beratender und/oder begleitender Angebote. Das Mentoring als solches wird auch für Mentor:innen als Personalentwicklungsmaßnahme eingestuft (u. a. Graf, Edelkraut 2017). So könnten insbesondere Lehrkräfte mit solchen Karriereambitionen beispielsweise durch ein begleitendes Coaching oder einer institutionalisierten kollegialen Beratung Kompetenzen aufbauen, die ferner für andere leitende Funktionen notwendig sind (z. B. Entwicklungsgespräche führen).

Auffällig ist, dass das motivationale Ziel *ExtE* im Zusammenhang mit Personenmerkmalen eher unbedeutend ist. Es zeigt sich hier nur ein Unterschied zwischen Frauen und Männern. Die Aufgabe wird demnach übernommen, da sie ein Bestandteil des Aufgabenspektrums einer Lehrkraft ist. Insgesamt scheint die *ExtE* ein existierendes, aber nur für einen kleinen, in dieser Studie nicht genauer spezifizierbaren Personenkreis relevantes motivationales Ziel zu sein. Dies könnte u. a. auch am Design der Umfrage liegen: Lehrkräfte, die aufgrund von Verpflichtungen die Aufgabe als Mentor:in übernehmen, nehmen ggf. nicht freiwillig an Umfragen zur Thematik teil.

6 Implikationen und Ausblick

Obwohl unsere Stichprobengröße als ausreichend groß bewertet werden kann, ist aufgrund der offenen Ausschreibung davon auszugehen, dass die Stichprobe nur bedingt aussagekräftig ist (Freiwilligkeit der Teilnahme, keine repräsentative Stichprobe z. B. bei Alter, Schulformen und Bundesland). Dennoch sind unsere Befunde insofern von hoher Relevanz, als dass sie einerseits Hinweise auf Möglichkeiten der Bildung von Anreizen für die Aufnahme der Aufgabe als Mentor:in und/oder der Differenzierung in Fortbildungsmaßnahmen geben, um der unterschiedlichen Zielsetzung gerecht zu werden. Für jüngere Lehrkräfte müsste u. U. plastisch(er) werden, wie die Mentor:innentätigkeit einen Beitrag zur eigenen Karriereplanung leisten kann. Für alle Lehrkräfte scheint zentral zu sein, Möglichkeiten für die eigene professionelle Weiterentwicklung aufzuzeigen sowie die mit der Tätigkeit einhergehende soziale Komponente explizit anzusprechen und deren Ausgestaltung ebenso zum Gegenstand von Fortbildungsmaßnahmen zu machen (vgl. entsprechende Befunde zur Motivation für Fortbildung in Rzejak et al. 2014). Etwas kontraintuitiv ist vielleicht, dass eine Fortbildung vermutlich für die Mehrheit angehender und aktiver Mentor:innen weniger entlastend auf die

ExtE ausgestaltet sein muss. Relevanz haben unsere Befunde andererseits für weitere Forschung. Der eingesetzte Fragebogen basiert auf einem spezifischen Satz an motivationalen Zielen (aus Rzejak et al. 2014), die aber nicht zwingend alle möglichen Ziele von Mentor:innen, ggf. auch in Abhängigkeit von Personenmerkmalen, abdecken müssen. So deutet sich in anderen Studien beispielsweise die Unterstützung angehender Lehrkräfte z. B. durch das Teilen von Wissen oder das Ermöglichen von praktischen Erfahrungen als weiteres sehr bedeutendes Ziel für die Übernahme der Aufgabe als Mentor:in an (Kuhn et al. 2022; Sinclair et al. 2006; van Ginkel et al. 2016). Wichtige Ergänzungen wären u. a. auch Gründe dafür, warum Lehrkräfte ggf. keine Mentor:innen werden (z. B. wegen des zu investierenden Zeitaufwands; Kuhn et al. 2022; Schnebel 2014; Sinclair et al. 2006). Hier könnten u. U. offener angelegte Erhebungen weitere Aufklärung leisten. Aus unserer Sicht ist aber zukünftig besonders interessant, wie die motivationalen Ziele mit der Ausgestaltung des Mentoring und dessen Auswirkungen auf die betreuten angehenden Lehrkräfte zusammenhängen.

Danksagung

Die Erhebung wurde in der Gießener Offensive Lehrerbildung (GOL) durchgeführt. Die GOL wird im Rahmen der gemeinsamen Qualitätsoffensive Lehrerbildung von Bund und Ländern aus Mitteln des Bundesministeriums für Bildung und Forschung unter dem Förderzeichen 01JA1629 gefördert.

Literatur

- Cohen, Jacob (1988). *Statistical Power Analysis for the Behavioral Sciences*. Hillsdale, N. J.: L. Erlbaum Associates, 2. Aufl.
- Dammerer, Johannes (2018). Zur Motivation von Lehrpersonen den „Masterlehrgang Mentoring. Berufseinstieg professionell zu begleiten“ an der Pädagogischen Hochschule NÖ zu absolvieren. In: R&E-SOURCE, 9. <https://journal.ph-noe.ac.at/index.php/resource/article/view/527> [21.02.2023]
- Deci, Edward L.; Ryan, Richard M. (1993). Die Selbstbestimmungstheorie der Motivation und ihre Bedeutung für die Pädagogik. In: *Zeitschrift für Pädagogik*, 39:2, S. 223–238
- Field, Andy P. (2018). *Discovering Statistics Using IBM SPSS Statistics*. London, Thousand Oaks, California: SAGE Publications, 5. Aufl.
- Frühwirth, Gabriele (2020). *Selbstbestimmt unterrichten dürfen – Kontrolle unterlassen können. Der Motivationsstil von Mentorinnen und Mentoren in Schulpraktika*. Wiesbaden: Springer Fachmedien

- Gergen, Andrea (2019). Mentoring in schulpraktischen Studien der Lehrerbildung. Zusammenfassung ausgewählter Beiträge zur Mentorentätigkeit. In: M. Degeling, N. Franken, S. Freund, S. Greiten, D. Neuhaus, J. Schellenbach-Zell (Hrsg.): Herausforderung Kohärenz. Praxisphasen in der universitären Lehrerbildung. Bildungswissenschaftliche und fachdidaktische Perspektiven. Bad Heilbrunn: Julius Klinkhardt, S. 329–339
- Graf, Nele; Edelkraut, Frank (2017). Einführung Mentoring. In: N. Graf, F. Edelkraut (Hrsg.): Mentoring. Das Praxisbuch für Personalverantwortliche und Unternehmer. Wiesbaden: Springer Fachmedien, S. 1–16. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-658-15109-6_1 [22.06.2023]
- Gröschner, Alexander; Häusler, Julia (2014). Inwiefern sagen berufsbezogene Erfahrungen und individuelle Einstellungen von Mentorinnen und Mentoren die Lernbegleitung von Lehramtsstudierenden im Praktikum voraus? In: K.-H. Arnold, A. Gröschner und T. Hascher (Hrsg.): Schulpraktika in der Lehrerbildung. Theoretische Grundlagen, Konzeptionen, Prozesse und Effekte. Münster, New York: Waxmann, S. 315–333
- Guttman, Louis (1954). Some Necessary Conditions for Common-Factor Analysis. In: *Psychometrika*, 19:2, S. 149–161
- Hascher, Tina; Sutter-Brandenberger, Claudia C.; Liechti, Eliane (2020). Motivationstheorien im schulischen Kontext. Universität Tübingen. <https://doi.org/10.15496/publikation-45596> [22.06.2023]
- Hennissen, Paul; Crasborn, Frank; Brouwer, Niels; Korthagen, Fred; Bergen, Theo (2008). Mapping Mentor Teachers' Roles in Mentoring Dialogues. In: *Educational Research Review*, 3:2, S. 168–186
- Justus-Liebig-Universität (2010). Ordnung für die Durchführung der Schulpraktischen Studien. Schulpraktikumsordnung in der Fassung des 28. Beschlusses vom 13.03.2017. http://www.uni-giessen.de/mug/7/pdf/7_80/PraO/PraO_28ae [21.02.2023]
- Kaiser, Henry F. (1960). The Application of Electronic Computers to Factor Analysis. In: *Educational and Psychological Measurement* 20:1, S. 141–151. <https://doi.org/10.1177/001316446002000116> [22.06.2023]
- Kuhn, Clara; Hagenauer, Gerda; Gröschner, Alexander (2022). „Because you always learn something new yourself! “ An Expectancy-Value-Theory Perspective on Mentor Teachers' Initial Motivations. In: *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 113. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2022.103659> [22.06.2023]
- Land Hessen (2017). Hessisches Schulgesetz vom 01.08.2017. <https://www.rv.hessenrecht.hessen.de/bshe/document/jlr-SchulGHE2017rahmen> [21.02.2023]
- Landesschulamt und Lehrkräfteakademie (2013). Verfügung Tätigkeit von Mentorinnen und Mentoren. Hg. v. Joachim Schmidt. https://sts-ghrf-ruesselsheim.bildung.hessen.de/mentoren/2013.11.28_Mentoren_Verfuegung2.pdf [21.02.2023]

- Mena, Juanjo; Hennissen, Paul; Loughran, John (2017). Developing Pre-Service Teachers' Professional Knowledge of Teaching. The Influence of Mentoring. In: *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 66, S. 47–59
- Ryan, Richard M.; Deci, Edward L. (2017). *Self-Determination Theory. Basic Psychological Needs in Motivation, Development, and Wellness*. New York, London: Guilford Press
- Rzejak, Daniela; Künsting, Josef; Lipowsky, Frank; Fischer, Elisabeth; Dezhgahi, Uwe; Reichardt, Anke (2014). Facetten der Lehrerfortbildungsmotivation – eine faktorenanalytische Betrachtung. In: *Journal for Educational Research Online*, 6:1, S. 139–159
- Scharfenberg, Jonas (2020). *Warum Lehrerin, warum Lehrer werden?* München: Julius Klinkhardt
- Schnebel, Stefanie (2014). Motive und Einstellungen betreuender Lehrkräfte in Schulpraktika. In: K.-H. Arnold, A. Gröschner und T. Hascher (Hrsg.): *Schulpraktika in der Lehrerbildung. Theoretische Grundlagen, Konzeptionen, Prozesse und Effekte*. Münster, New York: Waxmann, S. 359–375
- Sinclair, Catherine; Dowson, Martin; Thistleton-Martin, Judith (2006). Motivations and Profiles of Cooperating Teachers. Who Volunteers and Why? In: *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 22:3, S. 263–279. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2005.11.008> [22.06.2023]
- Statistisches Landesamt Hessen (2020). *Statistische Berichte / B / I / 2 / mit / B / II / 2. Lehrerinnen und Lehrer an den allgemeinbildenden und beruflichen Schulen in Hessen*. Wiesbaden. https://www.statistischebibliothek.de/mir/receive/HEHeft_mods_00011019 [13.03.2023]
- van Ginkel, Gisbert; Verloop, Nico; Denessen, Eddie (2016). Why mentor? Linking Mentor Teachers' Motivations to their Mentoring Conceptions. In: *Teachers and Teaching*, 22:1, S. 101–116. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13540602.2015.1023031>
- Weiber, Rolf; Mülhau, Daniel (2014). *Strukturgleichungsmodellierung. Eine anwendungsorientierte Einführung in die Kausalanalyse mit Hilfe von AMOS, SmartPLS und SPSS*. Berlin, Heidelberg: Springer, 2. erw. und korr. Aufl.

Autorinnen

Dipl.-Päd. Stephanie Brombach. Gießener Offensive Lehrerbildung, Justus-Liebig-Universität Gießen. Forschungsschwerpunkte: Schulisches Mentoring, Lehrkräftefortbildung, Erwachsenenbildung
stephanie.brombach@zfl.uni-giessen.de

Dr. Verena Petermann. Institut für Didaktik der Physik, Justus-Liebig-Universität Gießen. Forschungsschwerpunkte: Überzeugungen von Lehrkräften, Naturwissenschaftliches Denken und Arbeiten
verena.petermann@didaktik.physik.uni-giessen.de

Prof. Dr. Claudia von Aufschnaiter. Institut für Didaktik der Physik, Justus-Liebig-Universität Gießen. Forschungsschwerpunkte: Fachbezogene Lernprozesse, Diagnostische Kompetenz, Reflexionskompetenz
claudia.von-aufschnaiter@didaktik.physik.uni-giessen.de

Korrespondenzadresse:

Dipl.-Päd. Stephanie Brombach
Justus-Liebig-Universität Gießen
Gießener Offensive Lehrerbildung
Bismarckstr. 37
35390 Gießen

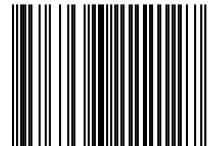


Das *heiEDUCATION Journal. Transdisziplinäre Studien zur Lehrerbildung* ist die fächer- und institutionenübergreifende wissenschaftliche Online-Zeitschrift der Heidelberg School of Education. In mindestens zwei Ausgaben pro Jahr bringt sie Beiträge zu aktuellen und relevanten Themen der Lehrerbildung aus unterschiedlichen Domänen und Disziplinen. Das Journal richtet sich an alle Akteure der Lehrerbildung: an Wissenschaftlerinnen und Wissenschaftler, Studierende, berufstätige Lehrerinnen und Lehrer, Verantwortliche für die Fort- und Weiterbildung sowie an Bildungspolitikerinnen und Bildungspolitiker.



**UNIVERSITÄT
HEIDELBERG**
ZUKUNFT
SEIT 1386

ISBN 978-3-96822-212-7



9 783968 222127