An Implementation and Evaluation of “Media and Information Literacy Curriculum for Teachers” in Japan

Masato Wada & Yosuke Morimoto

This article aims to examine the efficiency of media and information literacy education in the Japanese Normal University based on using the UNESCO Media and Information Literacy Curriculum for Teachers (MIL Curriculum). In Japan, some teachers have been teaching media literacy, and others information literacy. Additionally, Japanese teachers sometimes misunderstand media literacy; they have students connect the notion of critical autonomy in media, to moral education using media or education through media. This confusion about the definition of media literacy is one of the major obstacles when we try to teach media and information literacy in Japan. An authorized curriculum is needed. We have been implementing the UNESCO MIL Curriculum for in-service and pre-service teacher education. We evaluated the effect of the Curriculum on teaching using quantitative and qualitative methods. Students learned Module 3 (Representation in Media and Information), Module 4 (Languages in Media and Information) and Module 6 (New and Tradition Media) of the MIL Curriculum. Activities included a student comparison of a Japanese movie to a Korean movie and students playing an online game, Food Force. These activities increased student motivations to learn.

Keywords: media and information literacy curriculum for teachers, media and information literacy, media literacy, Japan, teacher training

Introduction

This article aims to examine the efficiency of media and information literacy education, focusing on the Japanese Normal University (Tokyo Gakugei University). In Japanese education, many Japanese teachers sometimes misunderstand media literacy; they have students connect the notion of critical autonomy in media, to moral education using media or education through
media. This confusion about the definition of media literacy is one of the major obstacles when we try to implement media and information literacy in Japan. This obstacle arises because there is a need for an authorized media and information literacy education curriculum for teachers.

The following passages describe this Japanese situation in detail and explain some obstacles that arise when we promote media and information literacy in Japanese schools. These discussions will demonstrate the value of using the UNESCO MIL curriculum “Media and Information Literacy Curriculum for Teachers” in pre-service teacher training. This is followed by a discussion of the Japanese pre-service teacher training system. Finally we examine the efficiency of the MIL curriculum in Japan.

The situation about MIL education in Japan

Media literacy came to the attention of Japan’s citizens around 1994, when Japanese mainstream media reported some biased news that had influenced all Japanese people (Suzuki, 1997). For instance, when the Matsumoto sarin attack occurred in 1994, one man (Mr. Kono) was falsely accused, mainly because of the mass media (Suzuki, 1997). Another example is when the Great Hanshin Earthquake occurred in 1995; mainstream media reported mainly emotional scenes and shocking footage (people rescued from a collapsed building, and collapsed raised motorway or express railway). Because of these reports, some disaster areas could not get the support they needed, and some people who lived away from the disaster area could not get necessary information (Suzuki, 1997).

However, some believe the term ‘Media Literacy Education’ was brought from Canada to Japan earlier, but was not specifically called ‘media literacy education’. Nakamura said that language education text used from 1952-1954 included a unit on ‘how to listen to the radio’, and also that text for grade nine junior high school students used from 1959-1961 included a unit on ‘the necessity of reading the newspaper’ (Nakamura, 2013). Because the description in those texts included a critical thinking process similar to those requested in media and information literacy, Nakamura argued Japanese teachers had already been teaching media and information literacy education since the late 1940s (Shimomura, 2002).

Japanese educators had been interested in education using media since television was brought to Japan in the 1950’s (Kasahara, 2012). On the other hand, the term ‘screen education’, or teaching correct understanding of moving images plus viewing and analysis skills, was also introduced in the 1950’s and attracted the attention of audio-visual educators. However, ‘screen education’ did not become popular among ordinary teachers and educators (Kasahara, 2012).

It can be said that Japanese media divided into two streams and each stream is information literacy that focuses on the concepts of media and information literacy. For instance, Ishikawa (2006) described that junior high school teachers partake of media literacy education on Hitachi-city in 2006. Teachers how well they understand media literacy in their classes. Themes like “copyright”, “how to use media”, and “convenience and the internet” are paid attention to.

These studies show that the teachers’ inability to distinguish the concepts of media and information literacy in the MIL curriculum can influence a teacher’s understanding about media and in-service teacher training is busy that they don’t have time involved. One of the big elements of this can influence a teacher’s literacy as well.
It can be said that Japanese media and information literacy education has been divided into two streams and each stream has developed independently. One stream is media literacy that focuses on critical media analysis. Another stream is information literacy that focuses on education using media. Those two streams about media and information literacy cause a vague understanding of the concepts of media and information literacy for Japanese classroom teachers. For instance, Ishikawa (2006) studied Japanese elementary and junior high school teachers understanding of media literacy. Thirty-nine elementary and junior high school teachers participated in the training of information morals education on Hitachi-city in 2005. Ishikawa used a questionnaire to ask those teachers how well they understood media literacy and whether they had taught media literacy in their classes. Teachers stated that they taught "privacy protection", "copyright", "how to use media in a right way", "utilization ability of the media", and "convenience and the risk of the media". Ishikawa's research shows that those teachers tended to confuse audiovisual education and information education with media and information literacy education.

These studies show that the main problem in Japanese schools is teacher's inability to distinguish the concepts of media literacy and information literacy. UNESCO points out the difference between media literacy and information literacy in the MIL curriculum as follows.

... information literacy emphasizes the importance of access to information and the evaluation and ethical use of such information. On the other hand, media literacy emphasizes the ability to understand media functions, evaluate how those functions are performed and to rationally engage with media for self-expression. (Wilson et al., 2011, p. 18)

The UNESCO MIL curriculum explains how the concepts of media and information literacy can be seen as ambiguous, and it is possible that the ambiguity of the definition will lead classroom teachers to misunderstand the concepts. As was mentioned earlier, some Japanese educators believe they have already been practicing media and information literacy education. However, those are partial practices. Japanese educators and classroom teachers still do not have a comprehensive understanding of media and information literacy education. If Japanese educators and classroom teachers want such an education, they are encouraged to gain the knowledge, teaching skills and understanding about media and information literacy during their pre-service and in-service teacher training. However, Japanese classroom teachers are so busy that they don't have time to learn it. In addition, other obstacles may be involved. One of the big elements in Japanese schools is culture or habitus and this can influence a teacher's willingness to learn about media and information literacy as well.
School culture

In Japanese school education, most educators tend to consider it is not the school’s responsibility to teach contemporary culture, in particular youth culture, because youth culture is recognized just as ‘entertainment’. However, this is not only true in Japan. In England, David Buckingham said “the term ‘media’ still often appears to be a synonym for anything that is not ‘literature’ – so that it is not uncommon to find popular fiction being studied in a Media Studies classroom” (Buckingham, 2003). In the USA, Renee Hobbs argued “some spectacularly bad decisions on the part of some teachers, who may use movies as a reward for good behavior, take the kids to the computer lab as a break from “real” learning, or use music, media, or technology to keep disruptive classrooms quiet and orderly” (Hobbs, 2011). In Canada, Robert Morgan said that English teachers tend to regard traditional English literature, such as William Shakespeare, as important, and they do not discuss television programs, comics, and teen magazines in their classrooms (Morgan, 1998).

These cases demonstrate even in countries and regions where media and information literacy education has been done, school culture tends to not accept popular culture as a serious aspect of classroom work. Japanese school culture is no exception. At least in the case of media use and teacher’s recognition about media, Japanese schools are similar to those countries and regions mentioned. However, when we focus on practice, Japanese school is different from other countries and regions.

Some media and information literacy education practices in Japanese schools are carried out in ‘Japanese Language’, ‘Social Studies’, ‘Information Studies’, and ‘Arts’ classrooms, but most practices are carried out in ‘Integrated Studies’, ‘Moral’, and ‘Special Activities’ classrooms (Morimoto, 2008). This fact means that Japanese media and information literacy education is a sporadic approach, and is not a comprehensive approach. The Japanese Ministry of Education locates ‘The Period for Integrated Studies’, ‘Moral Education’, and ‘Special Activities’ as being outside of the main subjects. The Japanese Ministry of Education explains “these are referred to as subjects etc.: special activities are limited to classroom activities, excluding school lunch programs” (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, Japan: MEXT, 2011). These ‘subjects etc.’ have some different features when compared to regular subjects. First, ‘subjects etc.’ do not have government authorized textbooks. Second, teachers do not need a specific license to teach these topics. Third, teachers do not need to assess student’s achievement about those classes. Finally, the number of times their classes meet is less than for regular subjects.

The Japanese Ministry of Education says “the annual teaching program should be made to cover 35 or more school weeks (34 weeks for Grade 1) for all subjects, including moral education, foreign language activities, the period for...
integrated studies and special activities" (MEXT, 2011). Japanese teachers have to teach 'Moral Education' and 'Special Activities' in just one hour per week, and do 'The Period for Integrated Studies' in two hours per week. In these classes, it is difficult for teachers to teach media and information literacy using a comprehensive approach.

Taking into account Japanese teacher's work environment, they may have no choice. Japanese elementary teachers have to teach almost all subjects, provide instruction during school lunch, contact parents, attend committee meetings, do counseling, and so on. In addition, class size in Japanese elementary schools is 27.9 students per classroom, and 32.8 students in junior high school. These numbers are greater than the 6 to 9 students noted as the OECD average (OECD, 2012). Japanese teachers have so much work that they only do their class with the government authorized textbook. Almost all of the government authorized textbooks lack content about media and information literacy because it is not included in the national curriculum. As many effective media and information literacy education practices demonstrate, teachers should include discussions about contemporary media texts, such as movies, music, video games and television programs (Hobbs & Cooper Moore, 2013). When teachers teach media and information literacy, they have to examine those media texts first and determine whether they can use those texts in their class. However, Japanese teachers do not have time to consider those things and they do not have the flexibility to create teaching materials. Further, as Hobbs and Cooper Moore discuss, teachers do not include popular culture texts because they often lack knowledge about them (Hobbs & Cooper Moore, 2013).

As many media literacy educators have stated, we have to teach and learn about the media that is around us in our daily lives, with students (Masterman, 1985; Buckingham, 2003; Luke, 2003; Tornero, 2008). In other words, we should connect student culture outside of the classroom with the culture inside of the classroom (Hobbs, 2011; Silverblatt, 2014). If Japanese teachers are eager to change the current situation and teach students about media and enable them to discuss democratic society, they have to learn about media and information literacy before they become a teacher. Although it is hopeful that classroom teachers learn media and information literacy during their in-service teacher training, they do not have much time to learn and in-service teacher training often results in independent learning. Since a comprehensive understanding of media and information literacy education is necessary, it will be appropriate to introduce MIL curriculum into pre-service teacher training.
Japanese teacher training course

Japan has authorized requirements that must be common to all teacher training courses in universities, but it is difficult to speak generally about them because they vary in every university (university, teachers college, and junior college). Generally speaking, a teacher training course in Japan is four years of concurrent course work. This means students acquire their diploma and teacher qualification simultaneously.

Tanahashi and Imai (2009) developed the media literacy curriculum for the students of the teachers college, and assessed the curriculum. Furthermore, Teraoka et al. (2009) discussed the class practice in the university that viewed media literacy education as one of the current education problems and brought it up in the teacher training course of the university. Through their work, some universities have tried to introduce education about media literacy and the information literacy.

However, research around these practices is not comprehensive. This research just focused on a particular field. The practice that focuses on just one field or a few particular fields will cause some problems. One of the major problems is that so called ‘intertextuality’ that is explained as "the idea that texts are inextricably bound up in their relationships with other texts" (Buckingham, 2003, p. 136).

When we consider the contents of the MIL curriculum and the existing Japanese teacher training course, we can introduce the MIL curriculum into teacher training in two ways. One method is to incorporate it into an existing unit and another is to introduce an additional unit. However, it is thought that the latter method is unrealistic. This is because the number of lesson hours required of university students is already overloaded. The UNESCO curriculum states that the "MIL curriculum focuses on "required core competencies and skills which can be seamlessly integrated into existing teacher education without putting too much of a strain on (already overloaded) teacher trainees" (Wilson et al., 2011, p. 19).

In order to integrate these core competencies, University teachers who teach the MIL curriculum should understand the contents (mainly analysis using semiotics) of Cultural Studies in particular. Sometimes a university teacher is in charge of a subject about the teaching profession and its pedagogy (i.e. educational science and each subject pedagogy), but may not be taught the sociological field where that specialty is regarded differently. This may be so even if the teacher can teach pedagogical approach and literacy theory. Therefore teachers who are in charge of the MIL curriculum should have interdisciplinary knowledge. How to best train such a talented teacher is a critical issue. Conversely, one might consider letting a sociologist be in charge of a part of

An implementation and evaluation

We implemented Curriculum Modules 3 and 4, students compared a Japanese drama/movie and using the media representation theory. We experimented with forty-two students using the MIL curriculum for examining the pedagogy of MIL. To solve those problems, an implementation and learning the MIL curriculum in the teacher training. We experimented with forty-two students at Tokyo Gakugei University. Modules 3 and 4, students compared a Japanese drama/movie and the media representation theory. We experimented with forty-two students using the media representation theory. We experimented with forty-two students at Tokyo Gakugei University. Modules 3 and 4, students compared a Japanese drama/movie and using the media representation theory. We experimented with forty-two students using the media representation theory. We experimented with forty-two students at Tokyo Gakugei University.

Drama/Movie comparisons

Forty-two students reviewed a Japanese drama/movie and using the media representation theory. In our experience, Japanese students think “critical” is a negative word leading to deny their favorite drama/movie. They need to understand that TV advertisements are conflicted when they think about doing comparative analysis. So instead, they say to do comparative analysis of the drama/movie in detail? If the comparative analysis is effective for MIL curriculum? We have two research questions:

Question 1: Do students have comparative analysis?

Question 2: Is their motivation compared to TV advertisements?

Methods

Forty-two pre-service teachers at Tokyo Gakugei University. They compared a Japanese drama/movie and using the media representation theory. We experimented with forty-two students at Tokyo Gakugei University. Modules 3 and 4 in the MIL Curriculum.
the MIL curriculum for example. In this case, the sociology teacher must first
learn the pedagogy of MIL.

To solve those problems, at Tokyo Gakugei University we are teaching and
learning the MIL curriculum, and we are also in charge of pre-service teacher
training. We experimented with teaching some MIL modules in our classes.

An implementation and an evaluation of MIL Curriculum

We implemented Curriculum Modules 3, 4, and 6 for pre-service teacher
training students at Tokyo Gakugei University in Japan. As suggested in
Modules 3 and 4, students compared a Japanese drama/movie with a foreign
drama/movie. Other students learned the Food Force game from Module 6.
We measured their teaching motivations and evaluated the Modules.

Drama/Movie comparative analysis in Module 3 and 4

Forty-two students reviewed the MIL Curriculum and decided to compare
a Japanese drama/movie and a foreign version of the same drama/movie. In
our experience, Japanese students dislike critical analysis. Of course, analysis
is an important method to learn for media and information literacy. However,
‘critical’ is a negative word for Japanese. Japanese students think that they have
to deny their favorite dramas/movies in order to do critical analysis. Students
understand that TV advertisements contain some misinformation. They think
that the advisement can be corrected by critical analysis. However, they are
conflicted when they think about their favorite dramas/movies and critical
analysis. So instead, they say they do not like critical analysis. When they have
to do comparative analysis of a drama/movie, will they happily evaluate this
drama/movie in detail? If they will not, one must ask whether comparative
analysis is effective for MIL education in Japan?

We have two research questions.

**Question 1:** Do students have high motivations to do drama/movie
comparative analysis?

**Question 2:** Is their motivation high on movie/drama comparative analysis
compared to TV advertisement analysis?

**Methods**

Forty-two pre-service teacher training students were divided into six groups.
They compared a Japanese movie/drama with a similar foreign movie/drama,
using the media representation from Module 3 and the media language from
Module 4 in the MIL Curriculum. Students made a presentation of their
comparison of the movies/dramas and wrote comments. They answered a questionnaire about their motivation. The motivation analysis evaluated four sub-motivations; attention, relevance, confidence, and satisfaction. Those motivations are detailed in the ARCS motivation model developed by John Keller (1983). We measured students’ motivations on a nine point scale, ranging from 1 (lowest) to 9 (highest).

Results
Students selected six movies/dramas. The movies/dramas were 1) Godzilla (Japan/USA), 2) Shall we dance? (Japan/USA), 3) "Sekai no Chushin de Ai o Sakebu" (Japan)/Crying out in Love, in the Centre of the World (Korea), 4) "Ikemen desu ne" (Korea/Japan), 5) "Hana Zakari no Kimitachi he (Hana Kimi)" (Japan)/For you in Full Blossom (Taiwan), and 6) "Hana Yori Dango" (Japan)/Boys over Flowers (Korea). Students selected Asian movies more than Hollywood movies, since Hollywood movies are not popular in Japan. Japanese movies account for 60.4% of the box office and imported movies account for 39.6% of the box-office (Motion Picture Producers Association of Japan, 2013). "Hana Yori Dango" was the most popular series of all time in Japan. It is an animated TV drama (available in Japan, Korea, Taiwan and China), and a movie, written in "Manga".

Hana Yori Dango is a secondary school drama about a poor girl and four rich boys. Students selected a five-minute scene from Hana Yori Dango and compared the Japanese drama version with the Korean version. They analyzed every thirty-seconds for media language and representations. In the Japanese drama, Tsukushi Makino, the main girl’s character, is staying in the classroom and drama progresses with her narrations. In the Korean drama, the TV news announces that these are rich students and a rich school. There is one bullied boy and the main girl character helps him in both dramas. The bullied boy commits suicide from the top of the school building and a girl helps him in the Korean drama. However, there is no suicide scene in the Japanese drama. Students wrote impressions of their drama comparisons. "It was easy to understand the difference of two drama’s sounds and shots. I was surprised that the main character did not appear sooner in the Korean drama. I had seen Japanese drama before. I am very interested in Korean drama that reflects Korean culture, thinking style, sound, and screen structures. The expressions of two dramas were very different." Students analyzed TV advertisements too. We compared their learning motivations for drama/movie comparisons with their motivations for TV advertisement analysis. The motivations of drama/movie comparison were over 5.00 (middle). There was a marginally significant difference in attention (one sided t-test: t(17)=1.56, p<.10) and confidence (one sided t-test: t(17)=1.64, p<.10) between drama/movie comparison and TV advertisement analysis (Table 1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1. Drama/movie comparison</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>M</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Attention</td>
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<tr>
<td>Relevance</td>
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<tr>
<td>Confidence</td>
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<tr>
<td>Satisfactions</td>
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</table>

Discussion
The motivations of drama/movie had high motivations on drama/movie’s average score of attention, advertisement analysis scores. Students analyzed TV advertisements too. We compared their learning motivations for drama/movie comparisons with their motivations for TV advertisement analysis. The motivations of drama/movie comparison were over 5.00 (middle). There was a marginally significant difference in attention (one sided t-test: t(17)=1.56, p<.10) and confidence (one sided t-test: t(17)=1.64, p<.10) between drama/movie comparison and TV advertisement analysis (Table 1).

Online game on Module 8
An online game is an interactive one of the pedagogical approaches to the MIL Curriculum.

**Online games:** Play a free online Peacemaker, Food Force or help you to think creatively outcomes form these games.

Activity: Develop a lesson plan and learning, to raise awareness conflict and peace. Teach students to respond to the issues, not games helped to address this.

(Wilson et al., 2011, p. 129)

**Peacemaker and Darfur is Dying:** have no motivation to play the already been playing many kids a Japanese game maker, develops to Facebook. **Food Force** is known.
Table 1. Drama/movie comparison and advertisement analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Drama/movie comparison</th>
<th>Advertisement analysis</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>( M )</td>
<td>( SD )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attention</td>
<td>7.17</td>
<td>1.29</td>
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<tr>
<td>Relevance</td>
<td>7.06</td>
<td>1.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Confidence</td>
<td>6.94</td>
<td>1.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfactions</td>
<td>7.00</td>
<td>1.06</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\( N=18 \), \( M \): mean, \( SD \): standard deviation, scale range: 1 (lowest), 5 (middle), 9 (highest), \( +p<.10 \) (one sided t-test)

Discussion
The motivations of drama/movie comparison were over 5.00 and students had high motivations on drama/movie comparative analysis. A drama/movie’s average score of attention and that of confidence were higher than advertisement analysis scores. The drama/movie comparison has an effect on motivation.

Online game on Module 6
An online game is an interactive multimedia tool in classrooms. Game play is one of the pedagogical approaches and activities used in Module 6, Unit 3 of the MIL Curriculum.

Online games: Play a free online humanitarian simulation game, such as Peacemaker, Food Force or Darfur is Dying. How can a computer game help you to think creatively about global issues? What are the learning outcomes from these games?

Activity: Develop a lesson plan using an electronic game as part of teaching and learning, to raise awareness about global issues, such as hunger, conflict and peace. Teach this lesson and write a short report on teacher’s responses to the issues, noting the questions they raised and how the games helped to address them.

(Wilson et al., 2011, p. 126)

Peacemaker and Darfur is Dying have no Japanese tutorials. Japanese students have no motivation to play the game’s English version because they have already been playing many kinds of games with Japanese tutorials. Konami, a Japanese game maker, developed Food Force with a Japanese version on Facebook. Food Force is known as a serious game in Japan (Fujimoto, 2007),
but Japanese students are not familiar with that game. The game on Facebook is a social game. Most students have an account on Facebook and they can play Food Force. Petros & Georgios (2011) taught Food Force to primary education students. Their research showed that playing Food Force provided no significantly different results in knowledge construction compared to modern pedagogical interventions without the game, but the game contributes significantly to attitudes and views of students and the engagement of students during learning, making the learning process significantly more interesting and motivating for them. Imaeda (2010) taught Food Force to students of the training course of registered dietitians at the university. Those students had a high motivation to learn about food problems and understood nutrition improvement activities.

We have two research questions.

**Question 1:** Does the game lead to positive attitudes that will help to teach children in class?

**Question 2:** Do students who play Food Force increase their teaching ability?

**Methods**

Forty-two pre-service teacher training students were divided into eight groups and played Food Force on Facebook. They developed a lesson plan using Food Force as part of teaching and learning, to raise awareness about hunger. They wrote a short report about how the games helped to address hunger. They answered questions about their teaching motivations using the ARCS model. Teaching motivations were as follows:

- **Attention:** I have an efficacy to teach children to pay attention to food problems.
- **Relevance:** I have an efficacy to teach children to think that food problems are relevant to their life.
- **Confidence:** I have an efficacy to teach children to have a confidence that they can learn about food problems.
- **Satisfaction:** I have an efficacy to teach children to be satisfied with learning food problems.

**Results**

**1. Lesson plans and a short report**

Student teachers put children’s game play activities in the first stage in their lesson plans. They intended to use the game to raise children’s motivations to learn about food problems. They adopted a collaborative learning style and were invested in their learning.

Student teachers responses for Food Force:

- “Game provides children to show interest.”
- “Children will learn about hunger.”
- “Game is not real and teaching lesson plan.”

(2) Teaching motivations with ARCS model.

We compared students’ teaching motivations with ARCS model. There was a marginally significant difference between attention (two sided t-test: t(27)=5.31, p<.05) and relevance (two sided t-test: t(27)=5.31, p<.05) between pre-service teachers and registered dietitians.

**Table 2. Teaching motivations**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attention</td>
<td>3.04</td>
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<tr>
<td>Relevance</td>
<td>3.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Confidence</td>
<td>2.71</td>
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<tr>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td>2.71</td>
</tr>
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</table>

N=28, M: mean, SD: standard deviation
+*p<.10, *p<.05 (two sided t-test)

**Discussion**

Student teachers had positive motivations in class. They hoped to use the game in their lesson. They thought that the game can be an effective teaching tool. Teachers also stated that the plan was useful to teach about food problems, but the teacher has to add a conclusion.

**Conclusion**

The drama/movie comparison can be an effective teaching tool. The value of Motivation.
"Game provides children the chance to think about food problems with interest."

"Children will learn about food problems by playing this game."

"Game is not real and teacher should add real teaching material on this lesson plan."

(2) Teaching motivations with Food Force

We compared students' teaching motivations before and after game play. There was a marginally significant difference in attention (two sided t-test: t(27)=1.99, p<.1) and relevance (two sided t-test: t(27)=1.94, p<.1) and significant difference in confidence (two sided t-test: t(27)=2.79, p<.05) and satisfactions (two sided t-test: t(27)=5.31, p<.05) between pre and post scores (Table 2).

Table 2. Teaching motivations with Food Force

<table>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attention</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>0.69+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relevance</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>0.95+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Confidence</td>
<td>2.71</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>0.90*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfactions</td>
<td>2.71</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>3.54</td>
<td>0.88*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N=28, M: mean, SD: standard deviation, scale range: 1 (lowest), 5 (highest), +p<.10, *p<.05 (two sided t-test)

Discussion

Student teachers had positive attitudes about using the game to teach children in class. They hoped to use the game at the beginning of the food problem lesson. They thought that the game would increase children's attention and motivation in external events of Instructions (Gagne et al., 2005) However, teachers also stated that the game had no reality and they should add a lesson plan with real teaching material. Students played Food Force and increased their teaching abilities (Table 2). Our findings suggest that this online game is a useful tool to teach about global issues and increases teaching motivations, but the teacher has to add a lesson plan with real teaching materials.

Conclusion

The drama/movie comparison activity had an effect on teachers motivation. The value of Module 3 and 4 on the MIL Curriculum was
verified. Students played the Food Force game and increased their teaching abilities. The value of Module 6 on the MIL Curriculum was verified. These results imply that using a few modules is a good start to fully understanding the MIL curriculum, but more is needed. We believe the whole MIL Curriculum must be introduced to pre-service teacher training. There are many other Modules in the MIL Curriculum and each Module should be verified for use in Japan.

References


A Collaboration between UNITWIN Cooperation Programme on Media and Information Literacy and Intercultural Dialogue, and the International Clearinghouse on Children, Youth and Media at NORDICOM

Global Citizenship in a Digital World

Edited by Sherri Hope Culver & Paulette Kerr
The UNITWIN Cooperation Programme on Media and Information Literacy and Intercultural Dialogue (MILID) is based on an initiative from the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) and the UN Alliance of Civilizations (UNAOC). This Network was created in line with UNESCO’s mission and objectives, as well as the mandate of UNAOC, to serve as a catalyst and facilitator helping to give impetus to innovative projects aimed at reducing polarization among nations and cultures through mutual partnerships.

This UNITWIN Network is composed of eight universities from different geographical areas. The main objectives of the Network are to foster collaboration among member universities, to build capacity in each of the countries in order to empower them to advance media and information literacy and intercultural dialogue, and to promote freedom of speech, freedom of information and the free flow of ideas and knowledge.

Specific objectives include acting as an observatory for the role of media and information literacy (MIL) in promoting civic participation, democracy and development as well as enhancing intercultural and cooperative research on MIL. The programme also aims at promoting global actions related to MIL and intercultural dialogue.

In such a context, a MILID Yearbook series is an important initiative. The MILID Yearbook is a result of a collaboration between the UNITWIN Cooperation Programme on Media and Information Literacy and Intercultural Dialogue, and the International Clearinghouse on Children, Youth and Media at NORDICOM, University of Gothenburg.