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JOURNAL OF THE INTERNATIONAL SOCIETY FOR TEACHER EDUCATION

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ABOUT THIS EDITION

This edition of JISTE examines international perspectives on teacher education, teaching, and learning. The articles in this issue conditions and contexts for teacher education, teaching, and learning which vary from country to country throughout the world. The interest of enhancing teacher education, teaching, and learning through addressing, researching, and discussing vital questions of current development is what unites both researchers and practitioners publishing in this issue.

Several of the articles in this edition of JISTE were presented at the annual seminar in Bhutan in 2012. Each article selected for publication received feedback from the paper group in which its author(s) presented it, went through a double-blind review, and further editing by the author(s). We are especially glad that

many of our experienced members of ISfTE took the opportunity to act as mentors for practitioners from Bhutan, who in this way have been able to publish their articles in JISTE.

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Karen Bjerg Petersen and Peggy J. Saunders, Editors

TEACHER QUALITY IN A POLITICAL AND SOCIAL SETTING: GOALS, DISCOURSES, CONSTRAINTS AND AFFORDANCES – IMPLICATIONS FOR A TEACHER EDUCATION REFORM

by Hans Dorf

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Abstract: *Drawing on theoretical contributions and empirical data the article examines the relationship between educational paradigms in the school debate as well as their presence as tools for reflection and choice of action in teaching practice. Special attention is paid to the role of knowledge and skills as a vehicle for personal development and social emancipation, and some implications for the recent Danish teacher education reform are discussed.*

Key words: teacher education reform, educational paradigms, school debate

Teacher Quality in a Social Setting

Over the last decades, transnational politics of education has focused strongly on teacher quality, the obvious interest being to find the missing link between teacher competence and student learning outcomes for the sake of either competitiveness, employability, inclusion, citizenship, democracy or other images of the common good. Establishing such a link has proved difficult, however, due to the methodological difficulties of isolating direct cause and effect relationships between teacher performance and student learning. The issue of the criteria of success complicates this further and, hence, it is no surprise that transnational educational policies and research tend to abstract from educational goals when assessing teacher quality or learning outcomes.

However, teaching does take place within socio-cultural settings, on the basis of national traditions, particular educational programs, in local environments and school cultures etc. (Alexander, 2000, p.

4). Teaching practice and the concept of teaching quality are influenced by all these. This article assumes that an understanding of teacher quality must by necessity reflect not only goals and discourses held to be valid in varying socio-cultural (local, national or transnational) contexts, but also the constraints, affordances and situational challenges which invariably complicate teaching practice and make it more complex than any theory of it. Teachers have to mediate between a rich variety of social and situational factors determining their real choice of action in a process of constant improvisation (Kelly *et al.*, 2012; Schön, 1983). On the other hand, since it must be considered a teacher quality to be able to reflect on the functions of teaching practice (Schön, 1987), educational paradigms are necessary professional assets, and the interplay of prevalent goals, discourses, constraints and affordances of teaching must therefore be analyzed at more than one level. This is what the present article will set out to do using the case of Denmark as its example and paying special attention to the role of

subject knowledge and skills. We start with a brief sketch of educational paradigms in current circulation.

Paradigms and Dualisms in Educational Discourse

The Danish school has seen an array of educational paradigms.¹ The 1975 school reform reflected fundamental social changes and corresponding changes in educational thinking. The unprecedented economic development of the sixties and early seventies allowed unprecedented public spending, compulsory schooling had been extended to nine years, democracy had become the ‘say of the day’, and a lot of young teachers were being ‘poured’ into the school. School goals were changed remarkably from an emphasis on knowledge and skills and character formation to a paradigm combining child centered ideas with ideas of democracy, community and equality (Dorf, 2010, pp. 199-201).

However, this paradigm was increasingly challenged politically from the 1980s onwards, while at the same time becoming part of the furniture of Danish educational discourse in school and teacher education.

In the early 1990s a cultural awareness dimension was added to the goals. At the same time, however, the 1990s saw an increasing political interest in cross curricular and personal competences relating them to the demands of the labour market and society (Undervisningsministeriet, 1996). One may see this as reflecting a shift in educational goals towards generic competences promoted by international economic institutions (*cf.* CERI, 1997).

The 2006 government ‘Globalisation Strategy’ had a strong focus on the role of education in economic competitiveness and in mobilizing the 20% of an age cohort not getting any education after

basic schooling. Mediocre PISA results had served to bring subject knowledge and skills back on the political agenda, and along with this concern, went a new focus on citizenship education concerning itself with issues of ‘social cohesion’ and ethnic minorities, which was written into the 2007 teacher education reform. Similarly, the revised goals of the 2007 school reform emphasized the transmission of knowledge and skills necessary for further education, cultural awareness as well as the virtues of citizenship in a Danish liberal democratic society (Regeringen, 2006; Dorf, 2010, pp. 202-210).

Since, by their political nature, changing educational goals are often expressed by different agents in disorderly linguistic garments, it is tempting to impose order on them by looking behind agents’ statements for ideological paradigms and align them with periods in which they exert particular influence. Thus, Hermann (2007) has suggested that the educational paradigm of the 1960s is concerned with the nature and development of the ‘whole’ child as a prerequisite to its productive function in society. In the 1970s, this paradigm is replaced by a dominant focus on democratic participation and solidarity with ‘the community’ added to ‘the individual’ as a new focus of pedagogic intervention and with social emancipation as its lodestar. In contrast, the 1990s conceived the role of education as stimulating the child to become an entrepreneur committed to lifelong learning and responsible for its own personal development in order to maximize its competences within the framework of a ‘knowledge society’. Finally, the 2000’s saw a return from ‘learning’ to ‘teaching’ emphasizing the importance of subject knowledge and skills as well as cultural rearmament (Hermann, pp. 169-172).

The array of currently contending educational paradigms could be expressed like this:

¹ A brief historical account is given in Dorf, 2010.

- *a child centred discourse of individual and social development*
- *a cultural identity discourse of citizenship*
- *a discourse of democratic participation and community*
- *a discourse of overcoming 'negative social heritage'*
- *a discourse of competences for a competitive knowledge society*
- *a discourse of the importance of subject knowledge and skills*

To these we may add a reappearing *discourse of civilized conduct* (Gilliam & Gulløv, 2012).

However, in real life a plurality of contending educational paradigms coexist. This becomes clearly visible once we move from the level of theoretical analysis to the level of teaching practice (section 4). In public educational discourse different paradigms tend to take antagonistic positions vis-à-vis each other. Thus, for example, in the Danish debate the goals of individual and social development and of democratic participation have been contrasted to the goals of subject knowledge and skills and of competences for the knowledge society. We are far from suggesting that there are no conflicts between educational goals, indeed, agents often use identical educational terms with different meanings to serve different purposes. There certainly is a difference between striving for democratic participation and equality, for mono-cultural citizenship or for capitalist economic growth. However, following John Dewey's call to avoid untenable dualisms in education (Dewey, 1902 and 1966; cf. Alexander, 2000, pp. 548-563), we wish to discuss in particular the relationship between the paradigm of subject knowledge and skills and other educational paradigms. This will be the topic of the next section. Subsequently, we wish to show how educational paradigms are transposed and used by teachers to reflect on their choices of action in their

teaching practice. In the concluding section, we use these discussions to briefly comment on a couple of elements of a new Danish teacher education reform.

Bringing Knowledge Back In

In an analysis of articles and letters in the Danish teacher union's weekly journal *Folkeskolen* over a three month period, Loftager (2004) found a strong tendency to oppose the goal of subject knowledge and skills with the goal of personal and social development. This result accords with a tendency to associate subject knowledge and skills with the goal of developing competences and competitiveness for a knowledge society (or with a cultural identity discourse of citizenship). The tendency is understandable in so far as right wing parties tend to support these goals. Contrariwise, left wing parties and many professionals have tended to support the goals of personal and social development, of democratic participation and community, and of social equality and, hence, to associate them with each other. Thus, these syndromes function as signifiers of contrasting educational positions. It is our contention, however, that they are educationally inconsistent and dysfunctional and ought to be dissociated especially regarding the role of subject knowledge and skills (cf. Hermann, 2007, section 3.3).

Dewey made an analytical distinction between the experience of the child and the structured content of the curriculum but at the same time warned against the danger of separating and opposing them. As a point of departure for education, pupils' experience already has a particular structure, but

Organized subject matter represents the ripe fruitage of experiences like theirs, experiences involving the same world, and powers and needs similar to theirs. It does not represent perfection of infallible wisdom; but it is the best

at command to further new experiences (Dewey, 1966, p. 182)

Swedish anthropologist Jonas Frykman has applied a similar distinction to the shift of pedagogic focus away from educational content to the personal development of the child, which he discerns in Swedish post-war school development. He sees this shift as a potential brake on social mobility, because it deprives pupils of the cognitive tools necessary to transcend their social background and outlook (Frykman, 1998). Hermann has voiced a related critique, comparing the paradigm of subject knowledge and skills to that of competences for the knowledge society:

Competences are not part of a common cultural heritage and not defined via the knowledge inherent in subjects, but rather closely associated with personal characteristics and personal identity with a focus on providing a readiness enabling the individual to actively handle situationally defined projects in various contexts. While knowledge and teaching are closely connected with subjects, the pedagogic arena is considerably widened by learning and competences, and the whole human being hence becomes the focus of an individualized pedagogy which is totalitarian in its ambition. (Hermann, 2003, p. 110)

Young (2007) has explored these issues further distinguishing between three 'models' of education: (a) the traditional elitist model of transmission of a fixed body of 'the right' knowledge; (b) the model of learning outcomes in the shape of competences; and (c) a 'social realist' model based on a dynamic understanding of the role of specialized knowledge.

The elitist model has been criticized by Marxists and reformists for transmitting the *knowledge of the powerful* and in doing

so effectively educating the masses to submit to the given positions of an unequal social order or, alternatively, for being unable to provide educational mobility or put an end to the inequality of educational privilege. According to Young, however, while the left-reformist critique of schooling is empirically justified, it fails to make an important distinction: Like Frykman, Young suggests that mass education has had not only a domination effect but also an emancipation effect. Why else would mobility have increased in its wake, and why else would it have been in the center of all ideas of progress and democracy?

The focus of neo-liberalist critique of traditional education has been its insensitivity to the educational requirements of the market, which the learning outcome or competence model allegedly takes better care of. Young's critique of this model is twofold: (1) it shifts focus from subject content (knowledge and skills) to generic criteria though it is questionable whether generic competences such as 'learning to learn' can be acquired separately from specific domains, contents and contexts; (2) the demarcation lines not only between subjects but between specialized knowledge and daily life knowledge is blurred with the risk that knowledge is de-differentiated (Young, 2010; 2011).

Young's argument for the 'social realist' alternative runs at two levels: As pointed out by Durkheim, due to historical social differentiation processes, specialised areas of knowledge (and skills) have developed as a necessity. Consequently, a de-differentiation of knowledge represents a loss of potential. Secondly, referring to Bernstein Young warns that blurring subject boundaries will create problems of invisibility especially for the very (disadvantaged) learners that an 'open' curriculum wants to favor. The idea of school as a special institution should be taken seriously:

The purpose of (formal) education is to ensure that as many as possible of each cohort or age group are able to acquire the knowledge that takes them beyond their experience and which they would be unlikely to have access to at home, at work or in the community' (...) Recognising the differentiation of knowledge both between domains and between the curriculum and experience as a basic educational principle implies that concepts, skills and content are all important and must be stipulated in any curriculum. How this principle is applied will depend on the purposes of specific programmes and the prior experience of the learners. Failure to recognise this principle of differentiation will lead to a slowing down of any progress that has so far been made towards equalising epistemological access. (Young, 2010, pp. 5-6, 10)

Young asserts that theoretical rather than practical knowledge qualifies as *powerful knowledge*. But the notion of specialised knowledge implies that the educational freedom of choice is limited and the relationship between teacher and pupil asymmetrical. This doesn't mean that the knowledge pupils bring to school should not be taken seriously, but it cannot define the level of knowledge conceptualization. Thus, there is a potential tension between the conservatism of school knowledge and the development of the pupil. To overcome this, i.e. to offer *epistemic access* and *powerful knowledge* to those in need of it, a number of issues must be dealt with, e.g.: What should be the criteria for selection and organization of changeable knowledge? What is the relationship between academic knowledge, school knowledge and daily life experience? Or how can specialised knowledge be pedagogised? A similar tension is

addressed by Bernstein, who discusses the distributive effects of strong classification and framing and vertical discourse in terms of their making explicit and hence increased content demands on pupils (Young, 2010; 2011; Bernstein, 1990; 2000). The next section indicates how this tension is mirrored in teachers' reflections.

Before that, however, three issues will be considered: (a) the characteristics of subject specific knowledge and skills, (b) the pedagogic challenges inherent in an emphasis on them, and (c) the relations between educational paradigms and subject knowledge and skills which our discussion seems to imply.

(a) The recurring political emphasis on knowledge and skills, which has been associated with a conservative preference for the economic or the cultural identity function of education, but seems in a process of being adopted by the center-left government (Regeringen, 2012), is as yet little more than an empty signifier operating on a single 'more or less of it' scale. However, following Young's argument there is a need to qualify the notion of subject knowledge and skills. This may be done in terms of taxonomic levels (Dorf & Rasmussen, 2011; cf. Bateson, 1973; Bloom, 1956):

- Acquiring 'basic' factual knowledge and 'basic' skills of approaching and collecting it
- Acquiring advanced knowledge and skills (competences if you like) of organizing (differentiating, linking, patterning) knowledge by means of concepts; putting it into various perspectives by means of theories (hypothesizing relationships between knowledge elements); reflecting on the scope, reliability and nature of knowledge; considering its origin and genesis, the values and interests attached to it; and examining one's own preferences and prejudices concerning it

- Advanced knowledge and skills also encompass creative 'production' of new knowledge and skills as well as ability (competences) to use ones knowledge and skills in action (including anticipation and evaluation of the conditions and effects such action).

(b) Basically, the model implies that the competences inherent in learning progression rest on domain knowledge. However, from a pedagogic point of view a number of qualifications are necessary: The *relevance* of learning cannot be defined solely at the level of the learner or learning process, but has to take the social and societal contexts and goals into account. Conversely, any progression fails if it does not take the unequal conditions and the heterogeneous potentials and experiences of learners into account.

Advanced knowledge and skills make reflection and involvement possible, but do not ensure it; normative criteria and motives are necessary elements of personal engagement, although it can be supported and changed by knowledge, skills and competences.

For these reasons, teachers should know not only their subjects but also their society and their pupils, just as they should be empathetic supervisors and inspirers. Moreover, schools should provide collective, organized support in terms of a 'visible pedagogy', clearly structured and stated plans, goals and expectations, differentiated methods of teaching, supplementary study facilities, good working discipline and codes of social conduct – especially if pupils from less privileged backgrounds are concerned. This seems affirmed by international and Danish empirical research on the links between teacher qualities and pupils' learning results – thus supporting arguments set forth by Young and Bernstein (Dorf & Rasmussen, 2011;

Nordenbo *et al.*, 2008; Mehlbye, 2004; Winter & Nielsen, 2013).

(c) Returning to the issue of relations and antagonisms between educational paradigms, it has become transparent that we must distinguish between a 'traditional' one-way-transmission, fact-reproducing conception of the knowledge and skills paradigm and the advanced and critical conception discussed above. The latter conception would seem to be not only compatible with but indeed beneficial to the goals of personal and social development, as well as of competences for a knowledge society or of democratic participation and social equality. However, if competences for a global economy are understood solely in terms of 'generic' competences such as flexibility, adaptability or similar affirmative dispositions, or if citizenship is understood in terms of conformity to 'imagined communities', both are antagonistic to an advanced conception of powerful knowledge and skills. Such goals rather call for the restricted version of knowledge and skills of the powerful (*cf.* Alexander, 2000, p. 560).

Conflicts over educational goals remain. Conflicting goals are associated with different understandings of knowledge and skills. To treat the goal of subject knowledge and skills as a unified educational paradigm is nonsense; to develop knowledge and skills as a vehicle for enlightenment and emancipation is a relevant challenge.

An Empirical Study of Teacher Expertise – Examples of Teacher Reflections on Educational Goals

Once we move from the political or theoretical levels of inquiry to examining teachers' use of educational paradigms, goals and discourses under the conditions of situational constraints and affordances things become more complicated. Teachers' practice at the classroom level,

however circumscribed by the school and political levels, have dynamics of its own; while theories and political or organizational ideas are independent from interactional dynamics and situational ‘noise’, practice is not (*cf.* Alexander, 2000, pp 4, 540-1, 562-3). To illustrate this, we present a few results from our study of teacher expertise in national language and literature and math teaching at the lower secondary level of English and Danish schools conducted in 2009-11 (Dorf *et al.*, 2012; Kelly *et al.*, 2012).

For each subject, the study was based on two double lesson observations followed by two interviews conducted with three week intervals with two teachers in each of four schools in each country. The purpose of the interviews was to tap the teachers’ reflections on the relationships between goals, instructional discourses and actual course of events in the teaching sequences observed. Teachers were also asked to supply their written plans and reflection papers and examples of student work. The selection of schools were made to ensure variation and contrast in terms of social catchment area, whereas the selection of teachers was made by headmasters on the criteria of teaching experience and recognition as a competent subject teacher without disciplinary difficulties. Our conception of teacher expertise was as follows:

Expert teachers work effectively towards the achievement of important outcomes for their communities; they are able to carry out or modify their plans according to the needs, affordances and constraints of the situation (...) they do ‘what works’ to deliver ‘what they perceive to be required.’ (Dorf *et al.*, 2012, pp. 18-20).

Our research data do not allow generalisations about Danish teachers’ attitudes to the educational paradigms discussed above. What they *can* present is

an illustration of the way in which experienced teachers reflect on their many choices of *direction* in their teaching planning and practice as it proceeds. The teachers did not refer explicitly to all the paradigms as they were listed in section 2, though they did refer to the importance of subject learning, personal and social (citizenship) development and democracy. They also referred to national goals and tests. They did not single out any one educational paradigm as their special preference, while their arguments were often based on a double reference to child and society. In the course of empirical analysis we discerned sets of goal dimensions inherent in the reflexive practice of the teachers but varying with national and local contexts; for Denmark, we ended up working with the following ‘ideal types’ of goal-related teacher roles (Dorf *et al.*, 2012):

- Roles with a subject related focus
- Roles with a development oriented focus
- Roles with a socialization focus

As it will appear in the following interview excerpts, the teachers typically treated these dimensions as interrelated. Only data from the Danish language and literature study are presented, and we limit ourselves to presenting a few teachers’ reflections on the subject goals, their relationship to other goal dimensions, and the conditions of enabling pupils to achieve them.

Teacher A, working in a multicultural school environment, was teaching about the genres of historical myths, sagas and folk tales. *“Working with genres is among the most important you can do in Danish, it’s about acquiring categories, different ways of writing – it’s about identifying some genre characteristics which help you to identify... These are old narratives, but later it will be many new media, we meet all sorts of media in our daily life, everything from reality TV to documentaries and soap documentaries, and I think it is very important to know,*

what you see – what are the ‘rules of the game’ of what you are occupied with – to be able to understand and see through your daily life.”

A’s pupils were absorbed by the historical myth chosen for their work, and to explain their fascination he suggested: *“First of all I think they are engaged by the form, the fact that I tell the story, and then I think from their comments that they are engaged in who wins the fight and they are fascinated that he dug out his father’s sword [twice, pupils gasped at the symbolic strength of this]. And then they are absorbed by the transformation Uffe goes through, that he personally changes his character – that, I think, is a good motor for a story (...) Themes can do something which genres can’t – engage the person (...) If there’s personal development [Bildung] in this, it must be about taking charge when it really matters – to do it when time has come to do it. And then there is the father – son relationship. It’s a classic theme that the father doesn’t really appreciate his son, but then the son takes charge, and his father is happily surprised. I think it’s good for the children to know that as a child you can make your parents happy.”*

Though Teacher A reported giving a lot of attention to the pupils’ understandings prior to new learning sequences, regularly used everyday language and referred to earlier lessons as a pathway to subject specific conceptual progression, his planning was organized around genre characteristics and not general human topics. A thought that this kind of strong subject framing (Bernstein) or ‘scaffolding’ (Bruner) in an open dialogue is particularly important in a multicultural school environment: *“I think that one of the gifts of teaching out here is that you are forced by the circumstances to be sharp on the pupils’ frames of reference, things like categories – that we need concepts which must be clearly stated to make it clear what we are supposed to*

learn (...) and you don’t get anywhere unless you are very explicit about this out here, because they lack language, they lack concepts, they lack categories of stuff. But I actually think that the way I do it here is really the way it should be done elsewhere, and which purely Danish pupils would benefit from too. Out here it is easy to see the difference between their frame of reference and mine, but if you stepped into another school, you might be deceived into believing that there is an identity of frames and would be tempted not to consider their contexts and social backgrounds.”

The lessons of teacher B, working in another multicultural school, were different in terms of the relationship between the goals of subject knowledge and skills and the goals of personal and social development. His pupils were shooting and editing their own films according to their own scripts. B stated the goals as acquiring technical skills and knowledge of concepts related to film production, but actually his guidance during lessons were of a practical character, the practical outcome of the project being to produce a film to be shown to the pupils’ families. As B put it in the interview, he saw his role as ‘disturbing’ a self-directed, constructive process, but an inherent dilemma was present: *“I really try to ask questions, and then they should try to reach conclusions. I sometimes have a tendency to take charge, and I must really restrain myself in order not to make it my project but appreciate that now we are here, and now they have some discussions. There is no doubt that most of the pupils in this class need a very explicit and visible guidance, to have the frame drawn up very clearly. Within that frame they can operate on their own.”* B obviously felt a dilemma between making explicit knowledge and skills demands and facilitating ‘child centered’ work processes.

While other teachers in our material dealt with citizenship development as a wider

goal of subject teaching, B articulated it within the less strongly framed context of daily life experience: *“Quite a few of the pupils have never been outside the local area, and you could say that the ethnic Danes they meet apart from their teachers are often – this is according to the pupils, but you have to take their view of things seriously – addicts, drunkards and racists letting their dogs loose on them or yelling at them, who give them a distorted impression of ethnic Danes. That’s why it was important that one film group went to the stadium in the city centre and an employee said ‘Hello friends, won’t you come in and film?’ And they were allowed in and were even offered a hot sausage, really friendly – and this cultural meeting, I think, could be really important for their development.”*

Teacher C, who is working in a socially mixed but ethnically homogeneous school has a strong personal and social development ambition too, but explained that understanding texts is essential. This includes being *“able to analyse how an author uses the language to express himself... and Danish as a subject must also work with how a sentence is constructed, and the different word classes must be known. But I think that precisely in order that we can deal with texts and films and poetry it is important that the subject includes a development aspect meaning that we can work with books and themes which the children can relate to. The development aspect in this context could be that the pupils can use ‘Death Mass’ to think about issues like diseases – in this period it’s leprosy – the prejudices which exist, the way people can think and put other people into boxes, is this something you can compare to the present situation – what they do? They are quick to call each other ‘homo’ and ‘argh! you have AIDS’ (...) and they become aware that some things may repeat themselves. (...) And this contributes to giving these children a sensibility to the fact that we*

are where we are in the present, because we have been where we were.”

C found the concept of competences useful to work with, but commenting on the political requirement to draft ‘pupil development plans’ she said: *“I haven’t quite reached the point where I can use them. Actually I think that my own pupil plans are up here [points to her head] rather than in the official template.”* She said she had not planned a common line of progression, but monitored the pupils’ progressions during her supervision rounds making sure that all pupils had been through the required subject knowledge and skills. She used two types of tasks, one with specific, rather strongly framed demands and another type of open, rather weakly framed tasks. She said she could demand more of *“some of the girls who can do analytical work (...) When it’s some of the blokes, then my feedback, my way of asking questions is different, because I know whom I can put pressure on.”* She admitted to sometimes setting less specialized aims for particular pupils. *“Some of the boys find it difficult to work under forms such as these, but then they’re not good at handling group work either, and if I make only highly defined demands on them, they are never brought into a cooperative situation, which I think is also very useful for them.”*

In her reflection paper C wrote: *“In our planning we emphasized that the tasks were to have a high degree of freedom and creativity with varied ways of putting the novel into perspective. At this stage the waters are divided between those pupils who are able to work with free reins and take responsibility for the outcome of their work and those who quickly lose focus and have a greater need for teacher guidance. Creative tasks that I thought would have been suitable for the ‘non-writing’ boys turned out to make too high demands on their inventiveness and creativity.”* C reflected further: *Is there too much free movement, how are the threads pulled*

together?" (...) "If it becomes too guided, then it becomes passive, then it becomes only as I want it, but I need to have them with me, their inputs, their sense of humour and their eccentricities (...) But here with these free tasks I think 'fuck, what have they really learned? I wonder if there has been too little structure' (...) Some of them would have been able to work better within a course structure, some of the less able. The demands are high, and some of them would have been able to meet them if I had articulated them more explicitly and pinned them out better."

At the same time C questioned whether some of these pupils could have been pushed to a better result: "It's not because I have doubts about my authority (...) but I think they would feel punished and isolated and then they would have punished back by making a really poor result. They find it hard to bear criticism, as you could see from the role play. And I had to consult them a lot of times to ask them 'Where are you? Which clues have you made?' and as soon as we approach criticism of how much they have fooled about – they are very sensitive, they take that very personally." Subject dimensions, personal and social development dimensions and socialisation dimensions are deeply intertwined.

Thus, teacher D said that norms governing social interaction are a prerequisite to subject learning. In this particular class she had initially had to give socialization goals more focus than subject knowledge and skills goals: "Of course I would like a lot of subject learning to happen, but if there are tensions or stuff then they don't learn what they must learn, because then that stuff is in their heads, and then we have to sort out those problems and then we can go on with the subject – and I think we solve this problem, for the pupils we see at exams have managed well, external examiners have said they are really surprised at their achievement. I always

have the subject in focus, I always think about it, the other stuff I have to handle, because I have to create an environment which makes learning possible, you know. The first half year or so – I broke my back and very little was achieved as far as the subject was concerned. Now I can get their attention, now they can learn." To achieve this, she switched smoothly between hierarchical and democratic discourses.

Teacher A expressed the importance of the socialisation dimension in another way: "We are not supposed to be 'friends', but they must sense that we like them and respect them and whatever they do we are there for them, and at the same time they must be quite sure where we stand. I need to have their acceptance – and that of their parents. If they don't accept the person I am, I would never be able to maintain teaching power or influence in the room." For A, this also requires the teacher to be engaged in the subject matter (Dorf *et al.*, 2012, pp. 17-23).

Educational paradigms are translated, transposed and transformed on their way from politics or theory to practice. It is apparent in the excerpts presented that none of the teachers can be confined within a single goal dimension, they rather move across dimensions, handling them as interrelated, and mediate between them according to contextual demands and with pedagogy's quintessential double reference to the pupil-in-society. They explicitly referred to the needs, constraints or affordances of the local school environment – and to issues of pedagogic and regulative discourse, classification and framing (Bernstein, 1990; 2000) – when discussing and explaining their choices in practice; and their references to political demands and conditions were transposed to their own educational 'pitch' (Alexander, 2000, p 552). Finally, notions of the functions of subject knowledge and skills in the context of wider educational goals appeared prominently in their reflections. In sum, these excerpts

demonstrate that the teachers' use of educational paradigms to inform their practical work is much more complicated, flexible and integrated than the use made of them in theory or public political debate.

In the final section, we will apply our discussions of the role of subject knowledge and skills and of teachers' use of educational paradigms in their practice to the new Danish teacher education reform.

Comments on a Teacher Education Reform

In recent years, Danish teacher education has been criticized on a number of grounds. It is not the topic of this article to go into this.² But if we combine the notion of an advanced and critical conception of specialized subject knowledge and skills developed in section 3 with the distinction between abstract, theoretical or political paradigms of education (section 2) and concrete discourses for reflection and choice of action in teaching practice (section 4), interesting implications for crucial elements of the 2013 Danish teacher education reform emerge.

One important change introduced by the reform is a shift from 'central knowledge and skills' to competences in terms of learning outcomes. This shift is accompanied by a second shift replacing the academic disciplines of pedagogy, psychology and didactics by an umbrella

category of 'basic teacher competence' including the following dimensions of teacher work: *pupils' learning and development; teaching knowledge; special pedagogy; teaching of immigrants; and a general 'Bildung' dimension including religion, philosophy and citizenship.* The third element in our focus concerns the relationship between theoretical studies and school practice as envisaged in the reform. Only minor changes have occurred here, though: the quality criteria for school practice have been nominally increased by means of competence goals, examinations, appeals for stronger college – school cooperation, and a very modest target for training school practice supervisors (one per school) (Regeringen, 2013).

Before discussing these elements of the reform, a note on the theory and practice relationship should be made. Teachers need to be able to bridge this gap some way or another, because they need to reflect as well as to decide. It was Dewey's view that neither the position of theory representing descriptive truth nor the position of practice representing normative, emergent reality can stand alone as a basis for social action. We must accept that we live in a contingent reality demanding action, but try to order it as reflexive experience. The conclusion for teacher education would be that neither a purely *academic* model nor an *apprenticeship* model is functional in educating for the teaching profession. In either case, teachers will end up unequipped. Rather, a *laboratory* model should be adopted in which school practice is not simply training but an opportunity for observation and theoretical reflection, for which academic studies are the support (Dewey, 1904; Munch, 2008).

In a recent study, Riih  et al. (2012) have examined a Finnish program of teacher education with a particular emphasis on the functional integration of theory and practice. Graduates from the program reported in a group interview that their

² For a summary of the critique see Dorf, H., Reimer, D., and Rasmussen, J. (2012): Who becomes a teacher – and why? Teacher recruitment in Denmark in a Nordic comparative perspective, in Madalinska-Michalak, J., Niemi, H. & Chong, S. (eds.): *Research, Policy, and Practice in Teacher Education in Europe*, University of Łódź; Rasmussen, J. & Dorf, H. 2010: Challenges to Nordic Teacher Education Programs, in Hudson, B. (ed.): *Advancing Quality Cultures for Teacher Education in Europe: Tensions and Opportunities*, University of Ume ; Dorf & Rasmussen, 2011.

ability to contextualize and reflect on teaching practice had been enhanced by the fact that theory was taught in close connection with practical experience. Riih  *et al.* conclude that, due to this, the teachers had developed a research attitude and improved their analytical understanding of teachers' work (*cf.* Brouwer & Korthagen, 2005).

We will now return to the Danish teacher education reform.

The shift to competences and outcomes. Obviously, all competences for all elements of teacher education cannot be analyzed here. We limit our focus to the theoretical area of 'basic teacher competence' (Regeringen, 2013, bilag 1). In the reform, competences are stated in terms of knowledge and skills. However, with very few exceptions, they are stated at a basic taxonomic level in terms of the 'advanced model' of subject knowledge and skills that we presented in section 3. Secondly, with very few exceptions, the skills dimension refers to practical skills, which in a strict sense cannot be developed in theoretical studies in isolation, but require practical experience. Requirements to deal with knowledge at a higher taxonomic level to educate the reflective practitioner (Sch n, 1987) are all but absent.

The shift from scientific disciplines to dimensions of teacher work. No doubt, the intention of the reform has been to emphasize the practical nature of teaching. However, if this ambition is seen in the context of explicitly stated political goals of strengthening knowledge and skills for a democratic and competitive knowledge society and an ambition to base teacher

education on research, the shift from scientific disciplines such as pedagogy, psychology, sociology or didactics (curriculum theory) to dimensions of teachers' work seems hazardous. It represents a risk of 'de-differentiating' knowledge and skills (Young) leaving it to colleges and individual educators to decide how to organize this subject area and put it into perspective to support students' theoretical learning progression.

The relationship between theory and practice. Even though the competences stated for school practice encompass theoretical knowledge as well as practical skills (Regeringen, 2013, bilag 3), the weakness of a lack of higher order competences of reflection is striking. This is only half of the problem, however, the other half being the failure to ensure the integration of theory and practice at an organizational level. Unlike *e.g.* Finland, Denmark has no specialized practice schools, and no particular education is required for school practice supervisors just as no formal organizational set up for the functional integration of theoretical and practical studies is established.

Without the insistence on higher order knowledge and skills; without ensuring the scientific disciplinary tools of organizing them; without general access to school practice supervisors and educators with particular competences of setting up a dialectic relationship between theory and practice; and without unambiguous institutionalization of a strong framework for practicing such theory-practice reflection, it is difficult to envisage an improvement of teacher quality, whichever educational paradigms or goals it is imagined to be serving.

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HEALTH PROMOTION IN A LEARNING PERSPECTIVE – CONSTRUCTION OF A PRAGMATIC MATRIX TO INVESTIGATE VIEWPOINTS ON LEARNING, MOTIVATION AND REFLECTION IN SCIENTIFIC HEALTH PROMOTION ARTICLES

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Abstract: *In this paper we take the standpoint that health promotion (WHO 1986) requires health literacy which means teaching and learning, and we claim that every time we talk of health promotion we could as well talk of education and pedagogy. At the core of both fields is learning processes; a major element of learning is motivation. Learning and motivational processes are always involved in health promotion and in teaching. As in teaching in the classroom, so in health promotion activities there is often a mismatch between the spoken and the practiced views on learning. There is often a difference between what the practitioner claims about his/her view of learning and what unfolds in praxis. We think that this phenomenon has great importance to the outcome of teaching as well as the outcome of projects in health promotion; hence our research interest in finding out what are explicit or implicit learning viewpoints in research articles about health promotion and whether there is a mismatch between theory and praxis. More specifically how do we recognize the viewpoints on learning in papers written by Nordic researchers about health promotion?*

Key words: health promotion, motivation, learning viewpoints, learning and motivational processes

Introduction

Health promotion and health literacy are interconnected since health literacy plays a role in gaining and maintaining health (Povlsen & Borup, 2009). Likewise health promotion and learning are closely connected since health promotion activities require participation, motivation and practice (Borup & Borup, 2011).

Health promotion and health literacy share some core issues and values with teaching and learning. In health promotion contexts the practitioner often acts as a teacher facilitating learning in a class room or as a social worker supporting a group of citizens cope with life style related health issues. The noble art of facilitating and supporting is the essence of teaching and health promotion and is to some extent paradoxical. If a person helps others, he or she might

prevent them from trying for themselves; if the person does not help them, they may not learn. So paradoxically, too much help can create helplessness and too little help can result in not knowing and therefore not doing. In both fields – teaching and health promotion – to help the student or citizen become self reliant is at the heart of the practitioner's mission; yet, it is a very difficult one to accomplish.

In this paper we take the standpoint that health promotion requires health literacy which means teaching and learning, (World Health Organization [WHO], 1986), and we claim that every time we talk of health promotion we could as well talk of education and pedagogy. At the core of both fields is learning processes; a major element of learning is motivation. Learning and motivational processes are always involved in health promotion and

in teaching. As in teaching in the classroom, so in health promotion activities there is often a mismatch between the spoken and the practiced views on learning. There is often a difference between what the practitioner claims about his/her view of learning and what unfolds in praxis. We think that this phenomenon has great importance to the outcome of teaching as well as the outcome of projects in health promotion; hence our research interest in finding out what are explicit or implicit learning viewpoints in research articles about health promotion and whether there is a mismatch between theory and praxis. More specifically how do we recognize the viewpoints on learning in papers written by Nordic researchers about health promotion?

Purpose

The over-arching purpose of the study was to analyse a selected number of health promotion articles published by Nordic (Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway, and Sweden) researchers over a ten-year period (2000-2010) for the viewpoints on learning and motivation and for any mismatch between articulated viewpoints and practice. In order to do so it was necessary to develop an analytic tool. This tool – a matrix – is described in this paper. A subsequent study will report the process and results of examining the selected research articles. In constructing the matrix we identified core variables in motivation and major learning theories as well as associated folk psychology about learning, and determined related keywords in order to arrive at learning viewpoints.

Constructing a Matrix on Learning and Motivation

In a study of learning and motivation there are different forms of knowledge to be considered. There are theoretical knowledge, empirical knowledge and folk knowledge (common opinion), and they are all inter-related. We know from practice in schools and educational activities in general that theoretical and empirical based arguments on what works in education (teaching and learning) often is moderated by common opinion, for example, there are lengthy discussions on the use of shouting and talking hard to pupils (Lewis et al. 2005).

Hard scientific facts can be quickly replaced by folk knowledge. This is even more so when the learners are adults with life experience as in the case of health promotion activities. So a matrix to be used to identify learning viewpoints in health promotion articles must embrace the assumption that research in this field will contain scientific as well as folk related viewpoints on learning.

The basis of the matrix. The basis of the matrix is intrinsic and extrinsic motivation where the intrinsic will represent the salutogenic perspective on health. In this paper learning is defined as: When something new might be connected to something old or something old is differentiated and it is brought into meaningfulness. ('Det er læring, når noget hos den, der kunne komme til at lære kobles sammen med noget eller differentieres og det giver mening') (Hermansen 2006, p. 18).

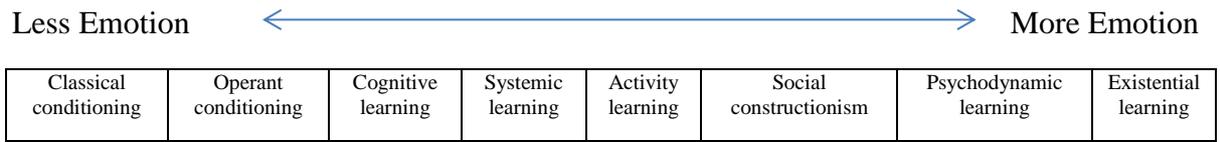


Figure 1. The horizon of learning theories

Learning theories as well as common opinions explain how this connection or differentiation is processed and supported. Learning theories can be organised into a pattern around the construct of emotion whereby theories are positioned close to or more distant from emotion according to how much influence from emotion is involved. The horizon of learning in figure 1 shows this pattern (Hermansen 1996).

Theories where emotion counts less are to the left side of the model; theories where emotion counts very much are to the right side of the model. In this way the model is to be seen as a scale on theoretical viewpoints going from less to more and more as influenced by emotion. Increasing complexity is also embedded in the scale going from left to right. Although the position of a learning theory on the scale does not show how emotions interact with cognition it has to be stressed that emotions are always involved in learning processes.

Activity learning and social constructionist learning represent to some extent the middle of the horizon (with a slight bias to the right, and we see classical and operant conditioning as two aspects of the same principle). It shows that these theories, to a broad extent, integrate cognitive and emotional aspects of learning.

Theoretical Framework

Theories of learning have developed over a time span of about 100 years, starting with Pavlov’s (Pavlov, 1968) classical conditioning to Rogers’ (1983)

existentialism. The main principle(s) of each learning theory in Figure 1 will be briefly described.

Classic conditioning claims that one learns when two matters occur at the same time a couple of times and new matters are connected to old (Pavlov, 1968).

The main principle in **operant conditioning** is that what is rewarded tends to be learned. New matter is connected to old because it fits and it is rewarded and conditioned (Thorndike et al., 1932, Skinner 1947, 1974).

Cognitive learning is about perception and thinking processes. All knowledge is from the beginning gained during motor activity, but later on speech gets into a dynamic relationship with motor activities and this relationship conditions the process. What is learned is stored in schemata (mental models or script). Schemata are changed and restructured during learning processes (Bruner, 1956; Bruner, Olver, & Greenfield, 1966). These processes take place in a struggle between contradictions where assimilation and accommodation processes shift. Assimilation is the kind of learning where a person becomes more competent along the same line (i.e. being faster). Accommodation is the kind of learning where a person restructures and constructs schemata (i.e. being able to gain and store greater complexity). Growth in learning continues in an everlasting interaction between assimilation and accommodation, always working towards a state of equilibrium. Cognitive learning is a

dynamic theory (Inhelder & Piaget 1958, Bruner, 1956; Bruner et al., 1966). Cognitive learning has developed further into constructivist learning (Luhmann 1988). In the main processing, they are the same.

In *systemic learning (cybernetic learning)* the main principle is that learning is correction because of feedback from someone in a self-regulation feedback system. It differs from operant conditioning in the way the process is organized, and the subject is to some extent proactive. Feedback is negative or positive as in operant conditioning learning theory. There are 'first order' and 'second order' feedback systems. First order system is a simple system, a closed system. Negative feedback in such a system can be very effective. Second order system is more complex; subject and communication (feedback) are involved. Such a system can manage meta-communication. From a second order system position the person understands that what is learned, as a result of positive or negative feedback, is filtered through a process of reflection upon what happened (Bateson, 1973).

In *activity learning theory* learning is based on activity, which has a goal, is motivated and is embedded in a social setting (Leontiew, 1977).

Social constructionism learning consists of negotiating and constructing meaning in a social setting. We tell and someone listens. By telling we construct meaning and create our understanding of the world (Gergen & Gergen, 1977).

Psychodynamic learning is based on the assumption that learning takes place when and in order to unfold libido (Freud, 1980). But in social interaction situations one cannot jump to the satisfaction of libido (i.e. sex), so it is necessary to cope with libido in an indirect way by

negotiating and communicating with other subjects embedded in the culture. To do so it is important to learn to talk, behave, incline, etc.

In *existential learning theory* learning is connected to the necessity of coping with life. The coping with life goes through 'ordinary learning' and 'significant learning' and significant learning are more than an accumulation of facts (ordinary learning). It is learning that means a difference for future attitudes, activity, and thinking. Significant learning is life and is self-challenging; it involves self meaning with life and the notion that in the end humans are lonely and have to die (Rogers, 1983).

Levels of Learning

Learning by whichever theory is about connecting something new with something old. This is sometimes incompatible. Bateson (1973) created a model to cope with this challenge of incompatibility, moving through levels of learning. He proposed five levels, 0-4 Learning 0 is when something is learned. Learning 1 is when two elements meet and fit (e.g. in operant and classical conditioning). Learning 2 is when learners have to choose between options in order to connect the proper element with the others, or where they have to make a differentiation on a matter in order to understand what is different. Learning 3 is when learners have several options but none fit. No matter what learners do, they meet a dead end. To cope with that challenge they have to reframe and make a paradigm shift. Learning 4 is transgression of learning level 3. Bateson did not tell much about this level of transgression, but suggested that it has been rarely reached during mankind's developing story (Bateson, p. 293).

Based on Bateson's levels of learning Hermansen (1996) developed a model for understanding learning processing that includes the horizon of learning theories (figure 1) and a vertical dimension (figure 2): Learning 0 (habitus) and 1 (bodily) is that the person was aware of being involved in a learning process. These two levels in Bateson's theory are collapsed because they reflect the same issue in our paraphrase of Bateson's theory. Learning 2 is learning through reflection. Learning 3 is learning by reflecting and correcting the reflection process.

Bateson's levels of learning are presented briefly here because we used it as the basis for developing a vertical dimension

in a goal-oriented model of reflection which is being aware of one's own thinking and problem solving, and meta-cognition which is being aware of one's own process of thinking and problem solving.

This model of the vertical dimension of learning (figure 2) categorizes three (maybe four if transgression is reached) levels of reflection. The three levels are non-reflection, reflection, and meta-reflection.

The model was used together with the matrix for learning (figure 3, on the next page) to provide the chosen categories for the examination of scientific articles in health promotion.

Reflection	Meta-cognition
0 It is learned	No reflection (habitus or habit)
1 It is coupled automatically	No reflection (bodily learning)
2 Investigation before coupling	Reflective coupling
3 Reframed investigation	Reflective investigation (meta-reflection)
4 Transgression of level 3	? (Maybe unlearning in order to be able to learn new things)

Figure 2. The vertical dimension of learning

Basically motivation is the drive to action; to be motivated is to be moved to act. In classical psychological literature there are many theories of motivation, and consequently different approaches to defining the term. For this work Ryan and Deci's (2000) more current elaboration of motivation is used. They present a theory that bridges to older theories of motivation and provides a link to the existentialistic drive, which especially Maslow (1943) has highlighted. They categorize motivation as intrinsic and extrinsic. Intrinsic motivation is mostly inner driven by amusement, joy and work with both process and content. Extrinsic motivation is more outer driven

by work towards goals to get a fee or reward. However there are inner and outer issues involved in both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, but the weight of forces (or drives) differs.

In health promotion articles we want to investigate the question: Do they claim to have intrinsic goals, but are they in practice orientated more towards extrinsic goals? In other words, do they describe projects that ideologically identify intrinsic goals but in practice work with extrinsic goals? Key words are existentialistic drive, libido as drive, conditioning (classical or operant) and punishment.

Classic research done by Skinner (1974) and Laird (1985) shows that punishment is a very poor or useless reinforcer of learning. Of course it has an effect on the learning outcome but this is related to more anxiety or fear than to enhancing learning progress. Punishment therefore has an effect on learning outcome, but not a controlled one related to reinforcement in the desired direction, but in many other uncontrolled directions. So to some extent one might say that punishment is uncontrolled and contra productive to progress in learning. In this article we use punishment as a key word as a strategy and not as a theory. Punishment is embedded in Skinner's Theory of Reinforcement (Skinner 1947, 1974). The matrix developed in this paper is not a model on learning theory but a model on learning viewpoints. In figure 3 punishment is a category to pinpoint a

classification of a deeply rooted folk psychology view that punishment enhances learning.

The Extracted Model for Investigation

Extrinsic and intrinsic motivations are the first variables to be identified. To a large extent it is common sense that extrinsic motivation fits with learning (connecting something new to something old or differentiating something old and it is brought into meaningfulness). It serves as a drive for possible learning processes by random reinforcement, positive reinforcement or punishment reinforcement. Therefore we connect these categories (figure 3). Intrinsic motivation is identified by existentialistic drive: joy, work and play as forces. We look for what kind of learning viewpoints could be enhanced by these intrinsic motivational factors?

Motivation/ Learning			
Extrinsic	1. Learned/connected by random (appearing in a close connected moment)	2. Learned/connected by positive reinforcement	3. Learned/connected by punishment
Intrinsic	4. Learned/connected by assimilation/accommodation	5. Learned/connected by social interaction (storytelling)	6. Learned/connected by constructing meaningfulness into a meaningfulness life

Figure 3. The matrix for learning viewpoints

We reduce this complexity to the following learning viewpoints: learning by assimilation/accommodation, by social storytelling and by construction of meaningfulness from meaningfulness. These viewpoints on learning are dynamic, and they tend towards reflection (it is possible within the viewpoint to understand under which circumstances we have to change levels to increasing complexity, e.g. reflection to be able to do problem solving. In health promotion these viewpoints are compatible with salutogenese. In summary, the matrix

(figure 3) has six categories of learning viewpoints that account for extrinsic and intrinsic motivation and most of the learning theories from figure 1.

Activity theory (learning by doing) and psychodynamic theory (learning because people must transform libido) are omitted because they do not, to the same extent, match comparability as the chosen viewpoints. However in using this matrix to study published research articles on health promotion, we will be observant of articles that exhibit these two learning theories.

Implications for Teacher Education

At the beginning of this paper comparisons were made between health promotion and teaching showing that there are similarities in each field for the goal is to promote learning and literacy and to help learners be self reliant. The theories of learning that have been described are widely known in education. They apply as well in the field

of teacher education. The matrix, without any modification can be used by teacher educators and by teachers in the study of teaching and learning, and in being more analytical about the craft of pedagogy. The question of coherence between a professional learning theory and practice in the classroom is open to investigation in teacher education as it is in health promotion.

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IS FOOD AND HEALTH EDUCATION IN NORWAY SUSTAINABLE?

by

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Abstract: *The aim of this article is to describe the extent to which education for sustainable development is integrated in Food and Health (Home Economics) in Norway. We examine how sustainability is included in Food and Health in the Knowledge Promotion Reform (2006a). We also look at the availability of teaching material in sustainable development. Furthermore a small scale survey with a questionnaire was used to investigate how and the extent to which education for sustainable development is carried out in Food and Health both in primary and lower secondary school and in teacher training. The Norwegian government is committed to fulfill the intentions of the UN Decade of Education for Sustainable Development by including Education for Sustainable Development (ESD) in the curriculum plans for several subjects, including Food and Health in the Knowledge Promotion Reform. In the curriculum plans for teacher training it is also a theme. Our analysis shows that Education for Sustainable Development is not given its rightful place in Food and Health neither in primary and lower secondary school nor in teacher training. In our small survey we find that there is a need for strengthening the teaching of sustainability on all levels.*

Key words: sustainability, food, health, sustainable development

Introduction

This article examines the curriculum plans for primary and lower secondary school and teacher training and presents the results from a survey carried out amongst teachers in Food and Health on both levels. The focus is on how and to which extent education for sustainable development is integrated in Food and Health (Home Economics) in Norway, and what challenges the teachers meet in their work.

The term “sustainable development” was first used in 1987 by the World Commission on Environment and Development chaired by the Norwegian Prime Minister Gro Harlem Brundtland. The commission defined sustainable development as: “Development that meets the need of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs” (Our Common Future, 1987). Since first used,

the concept of sustainable development has continued to evolve. It has expanded and included many areas, such as culture and education.

In December 2002 the General Assembly of the United Nations proclaimed the Decade of Education for Sustainable Development (DESD) 2005-2014. The DESD’s vision is a world where people have the chance to benefit from educational opportunities and learn about the values, behaviour, and lifestyles which will facilitate what they need to have for a future which is sustainable and for positive societal transformation (UNESCO, 2004). The General Assembly emphasized the importance of education in achieving sustainable development. The first objective of the DESD is, “Give an enhanced profile to the central role of education and learning in the common pursuit of sustainable development” (UNESCO, 2004).

Education is often described as the great hope for creating a more sustainable future (UNESCO, 2005). Training teachers in sustainability is important in transforming education and society. Teacher training institutions also update the knowledge and skills of in-service teachers (UNESCO 2005). Home economists on all levels are ideally placed to play a key role in sustainable development through education for sustainability.

According to UNESCO, education alone will not be able to help to facilitate a more sustainable future. However, education and learning are needed to attain the goal for sustainable development (UNESCO, 2004). The task of leading DESD was given to UNESCO, the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization. Member states and civil society organizations and also the private sector can get help and advice in their efforts to integrate the theme of sustainable development in education, not only in formal, but also non-formal education on all levels.

Education for sustainable development (ESD) is a lifelong challenge to individuals, institutions, and societies all over the world. It must be integrated in the whole curriculum on all levels of education and not be made a separate subject. The values, principles, and practices of sustainable development should be integrated into all aspects of education and learning (UNESCO, 2009). Education for sustainable development must consequently be a natural and important part of Food and Health. The nature of the subject, especially working with food, probably gives more possibilities for ESD than many other subjects. According to Åhlberg, Aanismaa, and Dillon (2005), “both home economics and education for sustainable development are concerned deeply with the everyday life of people, and a combined focus is education for sustainable living” (p. 168).

The Norwegian government is committed to fulfill the intentions of the UN Decade of Education for Sustainable Development by including Education for Sustainable Development (ESD) in the curriculum plans for several subjects, including Food and Health in the Knowledge Promotion Reform.

Nutrition researchers in Norway focus on the diet as an important factor in sustainable development. They give advice as to how people ought to eat in order to eat sustainably, e.g. eat low in the food chain, choose locally produced and organic foodstuffs, not eat more than one needs and reduce food waste (Nymoene, Bere, Haugen, & Meltzer, 2009).

The extent to which home economics has integrated sustainable development in the teaching in primary and lower secondary schools and in teacher training is not known. Therefore the aim of the study reported in this article is to look at the place of sustainable development in Food and Health in the curriculum plans and in “real life.”

In this article literature related to the need for sustainable development, education for sustainable development in the knowledge promotion and teacher training, and a variety of teaching materials are presented. This is followed by a description of the findings of a small scale survey conducted to find out the situation concerning education for sustainable development in various educational contexts.

The Need for Sustainable Development

In the 1970s-80s there was a growing concern about the fact that current production and consumption patterns in the industrialized countries could not be sustained in terms of the planet's resources. Nor could the developing nations adopt the model of consumption of the industrialized nations. This was the basis for the start of the sustainable development movement (UNESCO, 2004).

Although the awareness of the consequences of the production and consumption patterns has increased over the years, it has not led to more sustainable development. Particularly in the industrialized countries, the patterns of consumption are unsustainable. The rate of pollution has gone down, but at the same time, the rate of consumption has gone up, also in some of the developing countries (UNESCO, 2004). The pressure on the earth's natural systems and resources is growing together with the growth in the economies (Brown, 1998). This is a development that cannot continue, as the ecosystems that the growth depends on, are limited. Sandås and Benedict (2010) point out that a key factor to sustainable development is the awareness of the interconnection between ecology, economy, and society, and the formation of values in society.

People in developed countries have the possibility to adopt a more sustainable lifestyle, but they are reluctant to do so. In the poorer countries, the population often does not have any other option than to use their immediate environment. This again leads to overuse of resources like firewood and water and to environmental degradation. Both over-consumption and over-development have to be addressed in the struggle for sustainable production and consumption (UNESCO, 2004).

The wish to know how food and other products are produced is increasing. More and more of the products we buy and use are produced in developing countries where salaries are low and conditions unsatisfactory (Milford, 2009). However, some consumers think of price and quality only, and we get what Milford calls "a race to the bottom" when it comes to ethics, health, and environmental costs (Milford). The introduction of labelling has given the producers a possibility to choose to fulfil certain criteria for the production of their products. The criteria could be for example no child labour, fair trade or ecologically

produced. This may not change the quality of the product, but it might make it more attractive to some consumers (Milford). However, not all consumers are willing to pay the increase in price as a result of labelling.

Education for Sustainable Development in the Knowledge Promotion

In September 2006, the Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training produced a document about sustainable development. The document described the Directorate's effort for education for sustainable development in the primary and lower secondary school during the Decade of Education for Sustainable Development. It also states that the perspective of sustainable development is ensured in the curriculum of many subjects in the Knowledge Promotion Reform (Utdanningsdirektoratet, 2006b).

The Core Curriculum in the Knowledge Promotion Reform talks about the environmentally-aware human being. It states that human beings are constantly making decisions that have consequences for their own welfare as well as for other humans and the environment.

The interplay between economy, ecology and technology must make unique demands, scientific and ethical, on our age, if we are to ensure sustainable development. Education must therefore provide a broad awareness of the interconnections in nature and of the interplay between humans and nature. (Core Curriculum, 1996, p. 36)

In the curriculum plan for Food and Health, sustainable consumption is mainly covered in the theme Food and Consumption. The theme discusses the role of humans as critical and responsible consumers. The intention is to develop skills and motivation to enable the pupils to choose a responsible lifestyle showing

consideration for people and the environment. They should develop consumer competence so that they can make choices with awareness of what will benefit both their own health and the environment. One of the competency aims after year 7 is to “assess, choose and shop with environmental awareness”, and after year 10 the pupils should be able to “assess and choose foodstuffs based on ethical and sustainable criteria” (Utdanningsdirektoratet, 2006a)

Curriculum plans in other subjects also include themes that concern sustainable consumption, and it is possible for Food and Health to cooperate and work together with these subjects. In the subject Religion, Philosophies of Life and Ethics, one competency aim is that the pupils should be able to talk about current philosophical and ethical questions and discuss challenges connected to the areas of the poor and the wealthy, war and peace, nature and environment, ICT, and society. After year 10 they should be able to discuss values and contemporary issues in society locally and globally: social and ecological responsibility, technological challenges, works for peace and democracy (Utdanningsdirektoratet, 2006a).

The purpose of the subject Natural Science is to give the pupils knowledge about, understanding of, and experiences in nature that can further the will to take care of natural resources, conserve biodiversity, and contribute to sustainable development. The main subject area “The Emerging Researcher” deals with conditions for sustainable development, human’s place in nature, and how human activities have changed and still change the natural environment locally and globally. In the curriculum for first year of secondary school there is a main subject area called Sustainable Development. One of the competence aims is that the pupils should be able to evaluate environmental aspects of consumer choice, waste management

and use of energy. They should also be able to explain the term sustainable development and how the international community works on global environmental challenges (Utdanningsdirektoratet, 2006a).

As illustrated, there are different aspects of the term sustainable development in many subjects. It is therefore important to use interdisciplinary education in the teaching of sustainable development.

Sustainable Development in the New Teacher Training

In August 2010 the plans for a new teacher training were implemented in Norway. The training which had been the same for all levels of primary and lower secondary school, was now divided into two streams, one training teachers for years 1-7, another training teachers for years 5-10. National Guidelines for all subjects were developed. The learning outcomes for every subject are gathered under the headings: knowledge, skills, and general competence.

The National Guidelines are based on the National Regulations for the curriculum for Primary and Lower Secondary Teacher Training. In the national regulations sustainable development is mentioned only once. It appears under the heading Skills and states “The candidate has a good understanding of global issues and sustainable development” (Kunnskapsdepartementet, 2010, p. 4).

The guidelines for the training in the subject Food and Health are nearly identical for both levels. The guidelines state that students should develop competence in the subject's dimension of health, environment, and culture. The teachers should be able to make children and young people able to act as responsible consumers in the area of food and give them an understanding of the cultural importance food and meals have for the individual and society. The students

should have knowledge about the different food groups and different labelling of foods. They should also have knowledge about food safety and how the processing of food and the combination of foodstuffs influence the nutritional quality of a meal. The students should also know how the food system affects food availability and the action potential for the consumers (Kunnskapsdepartementet, 2010).

Concerning skills, the students should be able to plan and produce safe and inviting food according to the National Dietary Recommendations. The students should be good role models for the pupils in connection with different cultural and social meal contexts. They should be able to find, read, and evaluate the content of scientific articles and reports with relevance to the subject Food and Health. Furthermore, they should be able to transform scientific findings into practical advice about the diet. They should also be able to evaluate claims about food, nutrition, and health, and evaluate the relevance of different learning materials for the subject. The teacher training student should be able to stimulate the pupils to reflect on their food choices (Kunnskapsdepartementet, 2010).

Under General Competences it is stated that the students should be able to convey key subject matter, problems and solutions and contribute towards a professional role for the teacher. They should be able to discuss ethical issues in connection with teaching and also implement policy documents relevant for the teaching of Food and Health (Kunnskapsdepartementet, 2010).

Teaching Materials in Food and Health

Teaching materials for education for sustainable development are readily available. The textbook *Matlyst*, (Food and Health for lower secondary school) has a chapter about ethical and sustainable food consumption (Ask, Bjerketvedt, & Jensen, 2006a). The chapter deals with poverty in

the world, the unfair distribution of resources, sustainable development, organic food, and ethical trading. Furthermore, theoretical and practical information are given as well as problems for discussion so that the pupils are able to use their knowledge to solve the problems. The book also has a website where the pupils can test their knowledge (Samlaget, 2006). In the Teacher's Resource Book several methodological proposals are given on how to teach sustainable development (Ask, Bjerketvedt, & Jensen, 2006b).

Another textbook, *Takk for mat* (Food and Health for lower secondary school), by Thommessen, Arsky, and Borschenius (2006) discuss many of the same issues as *Matlyst*. The Teacher's Resource Book for *Takk for mat*, has a chapter "From field and fjord to table" – Food and Consumption. The chapter gives a short introduction to food production and food consumption in Norway, focusing on ecological and ethical aspects, genetically modified and functional foods (Thommessen et al., 2006). These are the only textbooks currently available.

The Partnership for Education and Research about Responsible Living, PERL, based in Norway, aims to advance education for responsible living by focusing on consumer citizenship, education for sustainable consumption, social innovation and sustainable lifestyles. Part of their work is to develop teaching methods and materials which are available on their website (Perl, 2011).

A Norwegian website called "Den naturlige skolesekken," (The Natural Rucksack) is focusing on nature, environment, and sustainable development in the primary education. The website is meant as resource base for teachers. The environment outside the classroom is used as an area for learning. The teachers can find teaching plans in Food and Health related to relevant competence aims, and

suggestions for interdisciplinary education in sustainability (Kleppang, 2009). It is possible for teachers to find good and relevant teaching materials.

Background for the Survey in Food and Health

Sustainable consumption is an important part of Food and Health. In our own teaching at the University, we realize that sustainable consumption is not given the place it should have. The situation is probably similar in primary and lower secondary schools. The teachers may feel that they do not have enough or the relevant knowledge in this area, and when it comes to foodstuffs for practical teaching; they may be forced by the school's economy to buy the cheapest option. They are probably unable to buy organic produce, as this is often more expensive and not always readily available. In order to see whether our assumptions are correct, we conducted a small-scale survey to find out what the real situation concerning education for sustainable development is in primary and lower secondary schools and universities and university colleges.

Research Methods

A small scale survey was conducted by sending a questionnaire by e-mail to the 12 primary and lower secondary school teachers who are connected to University of Agder and responsible for our students' practical teacher training in Food and Health. Eight of the 12 teachers responded.

The questionnaire was adapted for teachers in Food and Health in teacher training and sent by e-mail to all ten universities and university colleges in Norway that offer Food and Health. Six of the ten lecturers responded.

The questionnaire had 14 questions, 10 structured with possibility for comment and four open ended. Due to the limited

size of our sample, we have used simple calculations in describing the results.

In the questionnaire we asked them to provide information about three broad themes:

- use of ecological foods
- methods of integrating sustainability in teaching
- handling waste in practical Food and Health

Results from Primary and Lower Secondary Schools

Findings are presented according to the three main themes covered in the questionnaire.

Use of Ecological Foods

Seven of the eight respondents answered that they never or once or twice a year use organic food in practical Food and Health. None use it every week. The main reason for this is that organic food is expensive and not easily available. However, every now and then they use organic milk, tea, and vegetables. Many schools have an agreement with a particular store where they have to shop. Consequently, the range of goods available is determined by the store. Six teachers say they use locally produced food once or twice a year, while two teachers use it every month. As locally produced food they mention elk meat, berries, fish, and bread. When it comes to eco-labelled goods, only two teachers answered that they are used. All schools use eco-labelled washing powder.

Methods of Integrating Sustainability in Teaching

One of the competency aims after year seven is that the pupil shall be able to "assess and choose foodstuffs based on ethical and sustainable criteria" (Utdanningsdirektoratet, 2006a). The teachers were asked what the school does to fulfill this competency aim. Some answered that they consciously looked for

goods produced in Norway; while others answered that they did very little. One teacher remarked, "There is a big difference between life and learning." Two teachers said they had special programmes in this area. They gave their pupils homework; the pupils had to make a dinner at home using organic, locally produced, and ethical food. The pupils have to write a report where they describe how and why they made their choices. One teacher says that she uses a project from the textbook *Matlyst* (Ask et al., 2006a, 2006b). She brings apples to class and lets one of the pupils show the class how the resources in the world are distributed by giving out different numbers of apples to pupils representing people in different parts of the world. At the same time, it is possible to show how much resources each person needs. The teacher comments that this usually gets strong reactions from the pupils. Some teachers report that they talk about the theme and show the eco-label on goods if used.

Asked about how many lessons are given to this theme, seven teachers answer that they use six lessons or less in a year. Only one teacher uses more lessons. Seven teachers know that teaching materials on sustainable development are available on the Internet, and six of them have used such materials in their teaching. The websites they mentioned are www.gronnhverdag.no, www.maxhavelaar.no, www.forbrukerportalen.no, and www.no.wikipedia. Only two teachers cooperated with the homes about sustainable development, asking the pupils to write a report after a practical task at home.

Handling Waste Products

Most areas in Norway have a system for sorting waste materials. In the area where our respondents work, it is possible to sort waste into the following categories: food scraps, paper, plastic, glass and metal, and rest materials. Food scraps, paper, and rest

materials are picked up, while plastic, glass, and metal have to be delivered to collection points. When it comes to sorting the waste materials in the kitchen, all teachers sort food scraps and paper. Seven teachers sort plastic, and four glass and metal. The sorting works ok or very well. Any leftovers from the Food and Health lessons may be taken to the staff room, taken home by some of the pupils (often for pets), or put in the compost. Some foodstuffs may be frozen for later use. Two teachers mentioned that their schools have a herb and spice garden, but none of the schools has a vegetable garden. Two of the teachers bring herbs from the municipal's herb garden or from their own.

Results from Teacher Training

Use of Ecological Foods

Three of the lecturers answered that they use organic produce like fruit and vegetables, flour, coffee, meat, and milk every month, two once-twice a month, and one every week. Availability and poor storage life are reasons for the infrequent use. Two lecturers also mentioned that the produce was not always of good quality. All six say that they use locally produced foodstuffs every month if available and not too expensive. Five lecturers use eco-labelled goods in practical Food and Health, while one had no influence on the purchasing.

Methods of Integrating Sustainability in Teaching

Questioned on how they give their students knowledge about ethical and sustainable food, one lecturer answers that she takes the students on an excursion to a local organic farm. Another lecturer lets the students participate in a one day seminar given by Idébanken (www.idebanken.org), Grønn hverdag (www.gronnhverdag.no) and local organic farmers. All give lectures about sustainability and small reminders about sustainable alternatives in the ordinary

teaching as well as practical and didactical examples. The students are given practical tasks like looking for sustainable and ethical goods in the shops. They are also shown a film on the subject. In one University College sustainability is discussed together with product development in connection with entrepreneurship and student enterprise. At another university the students have a project where they follow a food product from the field to the table.

The lecturers use 10-15 lectures on this theme and all the lecturers report that they have used part of the teaching material on the net. The websites they have used are www.skolenettet.no, www.miljolare.no, www.matportalen.no, www.gronnhverdag.no, www.debio.no, www.naturesekken.no, and www.framtiden.no. Three of the lecturers say that they have no herb or vegetable garden; one has access to a garden with some herbs and spices. One university has started a garden where they produce some herbs, Jerusalem artichoke, different types of berries like garden blueberries, chokeberries or aronia, blackberries, and red currants. They have also planted a couple of plum trees, but these have not come into production yet.

Handling Waste Products

All university colleges and universities sort food scraps, and three of them sort paper, plastic, and glass/metal, but it does not always work well. In some institutions, the cleaners do not feel responsible to do their part, and other places the students have to bring the waste to containers far away from the kitchens. It is usually easier to follow the routine of the institution and only sort out paper. Leftovers from the Food and Health practicals are handled much the same way as in the primary schools. Students may take leftovers home; the leftovers are frozen or served to staff members.

In summary, the answers given by the lecturers in the universities and university

colleges coincide very much with the answers from the teachers in the primary and lower secondary schools. However, none of the lecturers in the academic institutions mention economy as a reason for not using organic food. Universities and university colleges give more education about sustainable development and use more different methods to do so than primary and lower secondary schools. However, the responses we received indicated that very little is being taught about sustainability in Food and Health in Norway both in primary and lower secondary school and in teacher training.

Summary and Conclusion

In this article we have seen that the Norwegian government is committed to fulfill the intentions of the UN Decade of Education for Sustainable Development by including ESD in the curriculum plans for several subjects, including Food and Health in the Knowledge Promotion Reform. We have also looked at how ESD has been included in the plans for Teacher Training in Norway.

In the small scale survey conducted amongst Food and Health teachers in primary and lower secondary school and lecturers in teacher training, we have found that the schools are doing well when it comes to waste management; however, they use few organic foods, little locally produced food, and sustainable development is not a major theme on any level in the education system.

The number of respondents is very small, and therefore it is difficult to draw any definite conclusions, but we see that most of the answers point to the same direction: Sustainability is not given a prominent place in the teaching of food and health.

There are good teaching materials available to teachers, if they want to use them. Our study has shown that teachers who feel they need extra teaching material

can find this, both in textbooks and on the internet. The teaching materials cater for all levels, from primary school to university.

New research may tell us why so few of the teachers and lecturers use these materials and spend so little time on education for sustainable development. This study can also be replicated in a variety of other levels of education and possibly in other subjects where sustainable development is included in the curriculum.

It is important to emphasize and give more space to education for sustainable

development in the curriculum for teacher training. Students have to be educated in sustainability and learn to use the available teaching materials. Our research shows that there is a great need for in-service training for teachers on all levels in sustainable development.

If teachers are better equipped with knowledge and skills to effectively teach at each level of education (primary through to university) then the government's plans can be more effectively realized which will impact well on sustainable education.

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PEDAGOGIES FOR STIMULATING STUDENTS' RESPONSES TO FIRST LANGUAGE ORAL LITERATURE: AN ACTION RESEARCH PROJECT IN A SECONDARY SCHOOL IN BHUTAN

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Abstract: *This paper explores the role of Bhutanese folk literature as pedagogic resource for culture development in secondary education in Bhutan. The study was conducted with a Grade 11 class in a secondary school in south west Bhutan using an action research approach. In this study, Bhutanese folk literature includes genres that exist in the oral form as well as those in English translations. We found that students' exploration of their own folk literatures developed not only their understanding and appreciation of their own cultural identities but also their respect for cultural diversity. The focus of this paper is the five pedagogical strategies we used to achieve the success as evidenced in improved student knowledge and attitudes. We found that active processes such as collecting oral literatures in the students' home languages and discussing them for their literary, aesthetic and cultural values greatly assisted their learning of the English curricula.*

Key words: folk literature, Bhutan, culture, curricula, pedagogy, student learning

Introduction

While globalisation does have positive effects, it can have serious consequences for minority languages and cultures. The challenge of keeping them alive is by no means small (Lo Bianco, 2001, p. 469; see also GNHC, 2009, p. 161). Government policy in Bhutan considers the role of teachers and students vital for keeping the richness and diversity of Bhutanese cultures alive, for example, via oral traditions in school curricula. However, a survey conducted in this study showed that Bhutanese oral literatures were only known to a minority of English teachers in Bhutan. This paper briefly reports some of the outcomes of an action research project where a series of pedagogic interventions were tried out to develop cultural understandings among a secondary (Grade 11) class.

Although one of Asia's smallest nations, Bhutan is a multicultural and multilingual

society with a diverse linguistic heritage. Significantly, one of the four pillars of Bhutan's development philosophy of Gross National Happiness (GNH) is the preservation and promotion of culture (Ura, 2009, pp. 32-53). The four pillars – "sustainable and equitable socio-economic development, environmental conservation, the preservation and promotion of culture, and good governance" (Ura, Alkire, Zangmo, & Wangdi, 2012, p. 9) – are actively used to guide government policy. Bhutan's nineteen different languages, most of which are oral, carry a rich tradition of oral literature such as poetry, heroic tales, and ballads. Although the national language Dzongkha is promoted as an "instrument for fostering national identity" (DDC, 2002, p. xv), it has not spread as quickly as English (van Driem, 2004, p. 322). This is often attributed to Dzongkha's complexity and English's pragmatic advantages such as career opportunities (Gyatso, 2004, pp. 271-272)

and its international status (DDC, 2002, p. xv). Even as the popularity of English grows rapidly, the minority languages and their cultures (GNHC, 2009, p. 161), and even Dzongkha with its rich oral tradition, face the danger of declining use and influence. Translating the culture-laden Bhutanese oral traditions into English will be a useful intervention, and it is already in evidence, but translations can also cause at least some cultural loss.

Teaching Cultural Knowledge in School Curricula

Dzongkha and English are taught in schools from kindergarten. In fact, English is the language of curricula and instruction for most academic subjects in school. The old school curricula have been renewed over the last decade or so, and they emphasise the basics (CAPSD, 2005c, p. v; CAPSD, 2005d, p. x) as well as the importance of culture. Hence, the students are expected to learn the English curricula in the context of Bhutanese culture or the “Bhutanese way of life and thinking” (CAPSD & BBED, 2003, pp. 28-29).

Teachers teaching a culturally-sensitive English curriculum are likely to face at least two kinds of difficulty. First, they need to strike a balance between their emphases on communicative competence and cultural knowledge (Byram & Kramersch, 2008, p. 33). The difficulty is by no means less for teachers of English in Bhutan because the curriculum expects the students to acquire competencies in English basics in the context of Bhutanese culture.

Second, not many teachers may feel comfortable dealing with culture in relation to notions of language, power, diversity, and loss (Byram & Kramersch, 2008, p. 23-24). For example, the new English curricula for Class 7 to 12 (CAPSD, 2006, p. v; CAPSD, 2005a, p. 3; CAPSD, 2005b, p. 4) do not suggest the pedagogy required to approach the concept

of cultural diversity. Hence, teaching it can be a delicate task.

In this study we assumed that ‘respect’ and ‘engagement’ would deepen understandings of and attitudes towards one’s own culture and those of others. This is echoed in Pennycook and Coutand-Marin’s (2003) model of teaching English based on “a position of respect and engagement with students’ cultures and ideas” (p. 35). Likewise, the National Council of Teachers of English and International Reading Association ([NCTE & IRA], 2010) emphasize the need for students to “develop an understanding of and respect for diversity in language use, patterns, and dialects across cultures” (p. 1). In the Bhutanese context, the teacher education curriculum does not orient teacher candidates to teaching in a multicultural context using the students’ first language as a pedagogical catalyst. So, the challenge is to harmonize teaching pedagogies and GNH intentions.

Bhutanese Teachers’ Knowledge of Folk Literature Pedagogy

Not many studies have been done on the “interaction of culture and curriculum in school contexts” (Chan, 2006, p. 161) and this was certainly the case in Bhutan. This study found that English teachers in Bhutan had little knowledge of Bhutanese folk literature, but there was also a small minority who used oral literatures in their teaching practice. When followed up, they said,

I have encouraged the students to come up with maxims and proverbs in their own dialect or language, and then we have shared it in the class ... I [would then] translate these into English and write them on the board as they tell them in the [English] class (Tshoki 8, p. 3).

In my English class we used riddles. For example, I would tell the class, "A beautiful woman with

long hair sitting behind the door" and ask them "Who am I?" This would help the class to think and the students who had heard the riddle before would reply at once and say "It is a broom!" (Tashi 7, p. 2).

These examples are consistent with good practices mentioned above. There were a few English teachers who apparently went beyond the prescription of the curriculum.

Informants attributed their inability to explore Bhutanese folk literature to its lack of substantive presence in the English curriculum and the need to have to complete the prescribed syllabus. Thus, two particular pedagogical attitudes are evident: conformity to the pressures of curriculum, and lack of attention to the authenticity of learning experiences. This then is the background to the research question: "What strategies work in developing knowledge and attitude in relation to Bhutanese folk literatures and their cultural values in a secondary classroom?" undertaken in phase 2 of the study.

Methodology

The study, essentially constructivist, used an action research (AR) approach because, as O'Leary (as cited in Koshy, 2005) said its purpose was the "production of knowledge to produce change and the enacting of change to produce knowledge" pp. 26-27). The Kemmis and McTaggart (1988) AR model was used. Reflecting in action (Schön, 1995) helped to shape the lesson activities as they progressed. Guba and Lincoln's (1989) criteria for quality—credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability—were applied (pp. 233-243).

Data Gathering and Analysis

The data were triangulated using questionnaires, interviews, and diaries. The whole Grade 11 class completed a specially-prepared, pre-tested

questionnaire with 13 items at the beginning and at the end of the study. Semi-structured interviews with probes were undertaken with a same group of six students at the beginning, middle, and end of the study to see change in knowledge and attitude over time. Selection of the six interview participants was, first, stratification (gender, language, and home district), then purposive, that is, "most useful" (Babbie, 2004, p. 183). All the interviews (15-22 minutes each) were recorded with permission and feelings of anxiety and discomfort were minimised. The researcher and the collaborating teacher kept diaries. An information sheet and consent form was used to obtain students' consent. Anonymity of informants was assured.

While responses to closed items in the questionnaire were simply counted, the interview data were analysed thematically using the method Gillham (2005, pp. 71-75) recommends. Thematic comparison tables were developed to assist analysis (Creswell, 2008, p. 261). Data were analysed separately to aid comparison. All data were considered problematic until cross checked.

Change in student knowledge and attitude within each of the five identified themes were examined. Evidence of knowledge change was indicated by informants' ability to shift progressively from factual, static knowledge, or lack of knowledge, to more explicit, complex, differentiated, deeper knowledge forms. In relation to attitude, change was evident in the informants' ability to shift progressively from implicit, neutral, noncommittal, ambivalent, and negative attitudinal stances, or absence of attitude, to attitudinal stances that were more explicit, positive, proactive, legitimised. Evidence for both changes was sought in specific lexical shifts (Painter, 2003) in the interviews.

Situational Analysis

Following the Kemmis and McTaggart (1988) AR model, an internal and external situational analysis (reconnaissance) was undertaken. The external situational analysis is represented in the first third of this paper where the wider policy context, the gaps in curricula, the challenges of teaching cultural knowledge, English teachers' knowledge of pedagogy, and student learning were set out. Internally, information was gathered from the school principal, the collaborating teacher, the Grade 11 class, and the school library. The principal's perspectives, especially the remark that the class "won't know much about Bhutanese folk literature as it is not there in the curriculum" (DT diary, p. 4), were valuable as they assisted in revising the questionnaire and interviews. This was confirmed by the collaborating teacher, who said that although a Bhutanese traditional ballad was already included in the Class 10 English curriculum, "it was never taught because it was not assessed in the Class 10 exams" (DT diary, p. 5). This echoed the phase 1 teacher findings sketched above. There were only a few books in Bhutanese folk literature in the school library (DT diary, p. 5). At the first meeting when the class was asked what they read, no one mentioned any title from Bhutanese writing in English.

Because information gathered externally and internally indicated that students generally had limited understanding of Bhutanese folk literature, it was necessary to find out more accurately what knowledge and attitude they initially had. Accordingly, data were gathered through the first round of questionnaires and interviews.

Planning Learning Experiences

A total of 17 classroom lessons were taught in three months. A range of strategies that actively engaged the students were used, which helped to maximise student response over time

through close interaction with the genres and reflections about their literary, cultural, and aesthetic values. The pedagogic approach included collecting folktales, proverbs, riddles, beliefs, and superstitions, to name a few, from/in their first languages, producing English translations and presenting these to the class. Also, selections from six published books of Bhutanese folk literature in English were used. The students reflected on their readings and engaged in critical thinking about folk literature including its cultural dimensions. It was a mixed class so the tasks had varying levels of intellectual complexity (Kratwohl, 2002).

Significant Findings

Before looking at the pedagogy used to develop cultural knowledge and attitudes we will briefly illustrate students' knowledge and attitude gains in cultural understandings. A more comprehensive account is given in Thinley and Maxwell (in press).

Students' Cultural Learning

Over a three month period most Grade 11 students improved their cultural knowledge and developed their cultural attitudes. The change, for example, in Jigdrel's knowledge of Bhutanese folk literature is illustrative. Jigdrel's opinion about his knowledge in the first interview was rather non-committal - "It's just OK." While in the second interview he simply said, "In the past it was not good ... [because] the teachers did not share their knowledge of it." In the last interview, he was able to state affirmative action: "I am interested to know more about our culture ... I will be interested to write down some of the folk literature which is in the oral form." There were thus significant lexical shifts across the three interviews.

One of the five themes developed from phase 2 was 'cultural values' and Class 11's knowledge of and attitude towards this issue were explored. Here Chonyi was

a good example. She said nothing in the first interview. In the second interview she identified basic thematic and stylistic elements of Bhutanese folk literature, for example, “characters with heroic qualities.” In the third interview she could state the relative importance of different genres with evaluative understanding, for example, “blessings, imprecations and superstitions ... because they mostly reflect our customs.”

Remembering Chan’s (2006) view that little research has been done into teaching cultural values, the study achieved considerable success. We discuss five strategies that facilitated knowledge and attitude change.

Pedagogies and Students’ Responses

Most of the seventeen lessons focused on developing the students’ knowledge and appreciation of the cultural and aesthetic qualities of Bhutanese folk literature. The pedagogies enabled the students to explore knowledge beyond the confines of the official curriculum. Responses to the questionnaire item concerning the students’ experience of the pedagogies that assisted their knowledge and attitude development showed a wider range of strategies during the study compared to those the students had experienced previously. In the first round of questionnaires, the students generally reported strategies such as “teacher telling stories and students listening to them,” “students reading the stories on their own,” and “lecture and summary of stories by the teacher,” among others. By contrast, student responses to the same questionnaire administered at the end of the study showed more active strategies such as “narrating stories from different parts of the country,” “teaching stories from our own languages,” “translating stories from our own languages,” “teaching local oral materials in English,” and “doing projects” among others.

Clearly the strategies in the study were more student active. There is evidence to show that the following five strategies were influential in the students’ learning.

Reading Culturally Familiar Materials

The students were given opportunities to read and discuss English translations of Bhutanese folk literature and explore oral literatures in their own languages. These improved their motivation to write. Although many texts were used, the students responded most readily to ‘A Change of Fate,’ (Kinga, 1998); ‘The Departure,’ (Kinga); ‘Liberation,’ (Kinga); ‘Why Must I Go to War?,’ (Ura, 1996); ‘The Buffalo with Sixteen Horns,’ (Acharya, 2004); ‘The Ani and the Migoi,’ (Choden, 2002); and ‘The Phob that Provided Food’ (Chaoden). The diverse nature of the collection contributed to discussion and encouraged comparison and eventually respect for diversity.

The students responded positively to the genres they read. In our first meeting the collaborating teacher had said that “when connections are made to real life experience ... personal experience,” the level of student motivation and interest was higher. This was evident after several weeks. For example, in Lesson Eight, after reading ‘The Buffalo with Sixteen Horns,’ the class was asked to tell the story’s most significant theme. A student raised his hand and said, “The theme of the story is that a person who [sprang] from vile dust must ultimately fall from where he sprang.” There was disbelief in the class because this student, considered shy and not outspoken not only said the theme of the story but also wrote it on the chalk board. The collaborating teacher later wrote, “When asked to share the moral or theme of a book they had read over the weekend, even the ever-elusive X [the student in question] seemed to take deep interest to share his work.” Clearly, when the materials were culturally familiar, the motivation levels displayed were high.

Talking about Bhutanese Writers and Their Works

Repeated exposure to nearly all the contemporary Bhutanese writers writing in English not only increased the students' knowledge of folk literature, but it also developed positive attitudes towards Bhutanese writing generally. For example, Wangyal commented that Bhutanese writers and poets were able to "reflect their feelings and describe the beauty of nature in poetic forms." Through repeated exposure to these works the students developed substantive knowledge of Bhutanese folk literature. Some of them demonstrated interest to preserve this cultural heritage by writing it down. They argued that Bhutanese writing in English would not only promote the country's literary and cultural heritage more widely, it would also preserve them.

Exploring Oral Literatures

A key strategy used was for the students to collect different genres of oral literature from their first or other languages and translate these into English. The students collected proverbs, tales, beliefs, superstitions, and blessings, and other oral genres from their first language and produced English translations. They then presented these works to the class. This enhanced their understanding and appreciation of their community's literary and cultural heritage. Rabsel said in his third interview:

The project was very interesting. I got two days to collect these from my parents and I wrote them down. I was very interested to learn about them and I shared my writing with my friends and my parents. (R3.19, p.4)

In the third interview Khandro said, "Collecting folk literature made us more aware of our own literature" (K 3.21, p. 3)

When the students presented their translations to the class, they displayed

high level of interest and intellectual engagement. For example, in one of the lessons the class presented the English translations of the proverbs they had collected. One student said, "One who sees a banana for the first time will eat it along with its skin." Another student said, "The rat eats the grain but the frog gets the punishment." Thus, through working with the oral literatures in their first and other languages, the students not only learned to collect and generate English translations of these genres, but they also learned to value their cultural and aesthetic merits.

Critical Appreciation of the Aesthetic and Cultural Values of Folk Literature

The students also examined particular cultural and aesthetic aspects of the genres they read. In doing so, in the early stages of the study, most of the students mentioned only the surface features of a poem (e.g. "the tattered scarf," the "glorious Punakha Dzong," and the "hamlet of Phangyulgang"). But over time, their understandings deepened. For example, in lesson 5, following their reading of 'Why Must I Go to War?' the class commented on the depiction of culture, spirituality, art, architecture, and landscape that they identified in the poem. Likewise, by lesson 16 they were able to identify more abstract qualities of the genres they read.

The students also carried out culture appreciation activities aimed to develop varying levels of understanding of folk literature. For example, in lesson 12, after reading 'Why Must I Go to War?' the class answered questions that required varying levels of cognitive effort. Bloom's Taxonomy was useful here. For example, the first question concerning Chamberlain Pemi Tshewang Tashi's willingness to go to war required only literal comprehension, but the fifth question concerning abstract ideas about 'duty' as portrayed in the poem stimulated inferential comprehension. Thus, it seems

highly likely that some of these higher order thinking activities deepened the students' knowledge of Bhutanese folk literature and their cultural values. They were able to express their attitudinal stances on the cultural and aesthetic merits of the genres they worked with (DT diary, p. 27).

Recitation of Memorable Passages from Traditional Ballads

The class displayed visible knowledge gaps in relation to Bhutanese folk literature at the beginning of the study. Hence, they were encouraged to enhance their knowledge by working with texts of their choice – materials that appealed to them intellectually or emotionally. For example, in lesson 7 the students were asked to choose a stanza from 'Liberation,' a poem from the ballad 'Gaylong Sumdar Tashi' and perform it orally in the class as well as defend their choice. Through these activities the students learned to develop interest in the genre and the culture it carries and develop their personal, interpretive voice.

Discussion

This study showed that the policy that regards children as the custodians of Bhutanese culture (GNHC, 2009, p. 20) in the face of globalisation *can* be matched by the teachers' pedagogical beliefs and practices. It has shown that in a culturally familiar and unthreatening context children not only respond positively to the language curricula but they also learn to deal with knowledge with a sense of autonomy and independence.

Quite unlike most existing pedagogical practice in English classrooms in Bhutanese schools, the teaching strategies used in this study deepened the students' cultural knowledge and understanding. However, such an approach would be possible only if policy makers, teachers, and parents can see authentic learning as a result of the creative integration of

community resources into children's language and cultural learning experiences.

Calling it a "unique" pedagogical approach, Porcaro (2002) acknowledged that "translation of literature [from] the students' native language into English ... affords students an opportunity to learn language, culture, and literature from the inside out" (p. 7). Working with English translations of Bhutanese folk literature not only enhanced the students' knowledge and understanding of the genre but it also taught them to value the role of translators in culture maintenance and promotion.

The teaching strategies used in the study enabled the students to develop substantive knowledge and more explicit and targeted attitudes. Abarry (1994) suggested that a good way to teach literary appreciation is to "isolate a dirge [in his case] and treat it for its beauty as a piece of poetry" and help the students to recognise its "techniques and sources of pleasure" (p. 326). In this study, when this was done, student learning progressed from literal comprehension to abstract and symbolic interpretations of the genres. This is a strategy Bhutanese teachers of English could use in their literature lessons.

Children as 'custodians of culture' must acquire the right level of knowledge and attitudes regarding culture through authentic learning experiences. The AR lessons enabled the students to "explore themselves - their experiences and their worldviews ... their personal choices and preferences" (Pennycook & Coutand-Martin, 2003). They promoted self-expression and fostered respect for cultural differences.

The improvement that the study showed in terms of student knowledge and attitudes concerning folk literature suggests that improved teacher knowledge of the genres and of pedagogy will likely improve the students' learning experience.

These strategies and their positive impact on student learning have implications for professional practice. This study suggests possibilities for improving the current situation. The positive change observed in student knowledge towards the end of the AR was facilitated mainly by the student active learning strategies used in the study. This confirms Hayes, Mills, Christie, and Lingard's (2007) observation that students demonstrated "deep knowledge" when they felt a sense of success in "producing new knowledge by discovering relationships" (p. 43). What then of professional practice? English teachers attributed their inability to use local literature as a pedagogical catalyst to reasons such as lack of folk literature studies in teacher training, narrow scope of school curricula, and lack of professional development in school. These are precisely the areas that must be addressed to improve teacher knowledge.

Conclusions

The general lack of knowledge of folk literature and related pedagogy among

Bhutanese teachers of English contrasts with the high value government policy attaches to the oral traditions. Using culturally familiar materials from English translations of folk literature in the English curriculum stimulates student interest and motivation to learn the English curricula. The changes evident in the students' knowledge and attitude as a result of the pedagogical strategies used in this study suggests that Bhutanese folk literature can be taught in the English curriculum and that it can enhance the students' understanding and appreciation of the oral traditions and their rich cultural values, including the value of diversity. This is possible only if the English curriculum is made sufficiently flexible to allow innovation. There is no dearth of cultural resources as many of the English teachers claimed, but for the literary and cultural resources available in different languages to be identified and used, the schools' formal and informal curricula and teaching practices must be prepared to accept these as valuable resources for student learning.

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MANAGEMENT OF SCHOOL RESOURCES

by

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Abstract: *This study reports on the management of school resources and contributions to effective teaching and learning. Qualitative phenomenological design was employed, with semi-structured interviews, in order to collect data from selected participants in four schools of the Trashiyangtse Dzongkhag. The study found that the principals were performing well in terms of human resource management. The school affairs were being managed collectively and the empowerment of the schools' key players were seen to be a notable characteristics carried out in the schools. However the shortage of material resources was seen to be a continuing problem in the schools.*

Key words: resources management, resources mobilization, GNH Pillars, human/material/financial resources, staff development, supervision

Introduction

It is a common perception of the educationists that teaching becomes more meaningful when appropriate resources are optimally mobilized by teachers in schools. Teachers frequently express the view that if adequate resources were at their disposal, teaching and learning would become more effective. Apart from textbooks and ready-made charts, Bhutanese teachers rarely improvise teaching and learning materials. Materials such as crayons, colored pencils, drawing paper, assorted chart papers, and many more items remain unused in the stores with teachers rarely using them for teaching. This concern arises from the author's own experience as learner, teacher, and principal. To make classroom teaching and learning more effective, lesson preparation is considered an important tool. According to Kaushik and Sharma (1990), "the unprepared teacher gives lessons which lack the details and illustrations" (p. 62).

The author recalls some of the lessons taught by such teachers. Rote learning, copying notes from the board, teacher talk, and textbooks were the usual characteristic

of teaching. The learners were made to memorize texts and tables with regular tests and examinations. It was quite interesting to note that a child who was ranked in first position in a term one examination may fail in term two. The marks from term one had nothing to do with term two results or promotion of a child to the next higher grade. Testing was rarely diagnostic.

Both human capital and capital in terms of tangible assets, such as teaching and learning materials and appropriate equipment, are needed and should be used by teachers for effective teaching and learning. Use of teaching aids helps to clarify concepts and makes lessons more interesting for learners. The teacher education colleges maintain that the trainees are required to make teaching and learning materials in order to make their lessons more effective.

On appointment to schools some teachers continue making teaching materials and using them in their classes whereas a large majority of the teachers resort to the very traditional forms of teaching using textbooks, chalkboards, and lectures. Teaching through lectures and providing

notes is typically a traditional approach. As Kochhar (1998) said, “an extensive use of this method tends to substitute the teacher for the pupil, and deprives students of their chance ... [for a better] learning experience” (p. 96).

The resource management in the school where the author works has not always been satisfactory despite a transparent working atmosphere. Hence the author, a novice researcher, has undertaken this investigation.

Literature Review

Three main aspects of resources, human, material and fiscal, are examined by considering the views of educators, managers, and school leaders. Resources provide a means of transforming educators’ hopes and aspirations for children’s education from daily learning opportunities and experiences to long term outcomes of schooling. Blandford (1999) explains, “Resources are a means of supply or support that assist school managers in the achievement of goals” (p. 7).

Whatever else was done to improve schools, little would be accomplished without improving teaching (Sergiovanni & Starrutt, 2002, p. 15). Therefore human, material, and fiscal resources become the tangible assets of a school situation to accomplish effective teaching and learning. Teachers are the key decision makers in the practice of teaching and learning; therefore, improving teacher quality has become the mantra as reformers have pushed hard to make desirable changes. Staff development in school programs as part of human resource development is necessary.

Human Resources

Human resources constitute a range of qualified and experienced teachers and support staff. Support staffs are those people who work as administrative, library and laboratory assistants, caretakers,

cleaners, drivers, and trades people as required.

Gold and Evans (1998) said “human resource management is all about improving performance or productivity through effective use of human capital; always acknowledging that humans in an organization are the most important part of getting things done” (p. 62). Weller and Weller (2002) defined staff development as “programs targeted to improve a school system, and teachers, to help them achieve their respective goal and strengthen their task performance” (p. 164). Staff development can enable schools to enhance teaching/ learning effectiveness; such programs consequently ensure continued teacher personal development in relevant areas including subject knowledge and teaching methods. Efficient deployment of classroom support and productive teamwork can be a highly desirable outcome.

Duke (as cited in Weller & Weller, 2002) examines terms such as in-service education, human resource development, and professional or continuing staff development each implying a common goal: to change teacher behavior. Staff development is a planned, structured process in which activities are delivered to improve classroom performance, increase professional competence, and satisfy personal growth needs.

Quality teaching is guaranteed only when teachers make best use of school resources and building on human capital is an important element. The term ‘human capital’ was coined by Schultz (as cited in Armstrong, 2006) as:

Human capital represents the human factor in the organization; the combined intelligence, skills and expertise that gives the organization its distinctive character. The human elements of the organization are those that are capable of learning, changing,

innovating and providing the creative thrust which if properly motivated can ensure the long-term survival of the organization. (p. 33)

It is indeed the knowledge, skills and capabilities of individuals that create value, which is why the focus has to be on the means of attracting, retaining, developing and maintaining the human capital they represent. Davenport (as cited in Armstrong, 2006) comments that “people possess innate abilities, behaviors and personal energy and these elements make up the human capital they bring to their work” (p. 33).

The concept of human capital is an overarching concept which includes intellectual capital, defined as the stocks and flows of knowledge available to an organization. These can be regarded as the intangible resources associated with people who, together with tangible resources (money and physical assets), contribute towards achieving quality. As delineated elsewhere, human capital in schools is comprised of administrators, teachers, support staff, and students. Teachers do not work in isolation, rather they interact and share with each other as they contribute to effective teaching and learning. Darling-Hammond, Austin, Orcutt, and Martin (2003) stated, “everything we learn takes place in a social context” (p.126). Teachers can increase their capabilities as they work constructively with other members of the school community to enrich teaching learning.

Material Resources

School premises, buildings, furniture, books, stationery, science apparatus, health and sporting equipment, electronic devices, the media, and other material items make up the material resources in the school. Sullivan (2006) defined learning as “the construction of meaning from experience” (p. 49). Learning is not ‘delivered’ by one person to another rather

it occurs when the learner observes, thinks, feels, and interacts with others and relevant materials, especially through hands-on experiences. With the provision of appropriate material resources learning is enhanced and meanings more readily constructed. When classroom materials are relevant to students’ own experiences they can make better connections as they learn.

Kaushik & Sharma (1998) suggested resource allocation, control, location, and use must be addressed and evaluated by planners in order to maximize benefits. Hence leadership is necessary to provide training and guidance to teachers and support staff so that students’ learning is not inhibited due to ignorance, mismanagement, or neglect.

In developing countries such as Bhutan, there is a perception of a shortage of material resources in schools. In many instances much can be achieved by improvisation by teachers and marshalling local community support.

Fiscal Resources

Financial resources are an important determinant of educational attainment because without proper budgeting and allocation of funds human and material resources cannot be acquired. As in most state education systems the Bhutanese Government determines and pays salaries and most capital expenditure through departmental systems. Individual schools have direct control over relatively limited monetary funds such as office supplies, school enrichment funds, maintenance, and some utilities. Notably at the school level there is the School Development Fund, school fees, and other contributions. The School Development Fund is allocated for various events such as sports, literary activities and cultural activities.

The Bhutanese School Management Guidelines and Instructions (MoE, 2005) provides directions for financial management in schools including

budgeting, bookkeeping, submission of statements to authorities, and auditing for transparency, efficiency, and accountability. It is therefore important that the school management is competent in fiscal management procedures.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was designed to consider three aspects of resource management in schools: human, material, and fiscal. An additional purpose was to propose relevant strategies for enhancing proper management of school resources by school leaders. The study addressed the following questions:

1. Why do teachers rely on traditional forms of teaching despite being trained and knowing the importance of making use of school resources in their teaching?
2. What are some of the common resources teachers require in teaching?
3. Are teachers making use of resources available in their school such as the school library, stores and laboratories?
4. Do teachers explore other resources besides those available in their school?
5. Is the allocation of resources in schools adequate?
6. How does management of school resources contribute to effective teaching and learning?
7. What do the schools do to build on their resources?
8. Is supervision of resources by the school principal appropriate?

Methodology

A phenomenological design was used in this study. Two primary schools, one lower secondary school, and one middle secondary school in Trashiyangtse Dzongkhag were selected. The Trashiyangtse Dzongkhag is a remote Himalayan province in the far east of

Bhutan. The research aimed to draw the 'essence' of lived experiences of participants on the proper management, development, and the use of school resources.

Polkinghorne (cited in Creswell, 2007) recommends 5 to 25 as a suitable number of participants for qualitative research. Therefore, two teachers from each of the two primary schools, two teachers from the lower secondary school, and two teachers from the middle secondary school, three principals from the four selected schools, and four storekeepers were interviewed – a total of fifteen participants. Four participants were interviewed on each day of the author's visits to the sample schools. Semi-structured interviews were employed, audio recorded, and transcribed by the author.

Data Presentation, Analysis, and Discussion

This section presents findings of the study, as well as analysis and discussion. For ethical reasons participants are coded: P for principals, TR for teachers, SI for storekeepers – termed 'store in-charge,' and numbered in each category. Literature has been cited to support or refute the data. The data are presented under three broad headings: human, material, and financial resources.

Human Resources

Success of a school largely depends on the human resources available and how they are organized and developed. P1 said, "We have subject heads, committees, and a welfare head." In the same vein P3 has a management team comprising of an academic head, a non-academic head, and a pastoral care head.

One interviewee, SI3 who is not a store in-charge by profession said, "Training and workshops on resource management in school is to be contemplated by the authorities. Appointment of separate

storekeeper will promote the efficient management. It is difficult to do multiple jobs, which results to lower efficiency.”

There was advice that human resource management should focus on having a range of learning opportunities and access to the use of other resources. Confirming this view P3 emphasized the value of school based in-service programs (SBIP) in order to improve the capacity of his faculty with knowledge, skills, and expertise. P1 responded, “We mostly focus capacity building through formal and informal sharing. Human capital is regarded [as] a priority to enhance effectiveness and efficiency.”

The roles of school principals and teachers have changed radically as governments continually transform their education systems to prepare young people to function in the modern world of rapid technological change, economic globalization, and increased demand for skills required in the workforce. Sergiovanni and Starratt (2002) proposed that schools need to, “Fix up the human relationships and the teachers will gladly cooperate with the administration in implementing [a] new system” (p. 12). This statement implied observing interpersonal respect and sharing responsibilities in the school because each school is an inclusive organization in which everyone should be able to make a valid contribution.

Nader (cited in Percival & Tranter, 2006) provided an apparent alternative view of leadership: “I start with the premise that the function of leadership is to produce more leaders, not more followers” (p. 9). This view draws attention to the leadership potential in each person in the school by assigning managerial responsibilities in addition to teaching responsibilities. All three principals interviewed agreed that teaching faculty in their schools should carry additional responsibilities such as mess-in-charge, coordinator of an

agriculture program, office secretary, teacher-on-duty, master-of-ceremonies (MC) during rituals and celebrations, sports coordinator, storekeeper, health and sanitation in-charge, and school accountant.

Material Resources

In this study material resources refers to school premises, buildings, furniture, books and stationeries, teaching aids, equipment, and apparatuses. Questions of resource acquisition, control, location, allocation, and use must be addressed and evaluated by planners to maximize their benefit for students (Kaushik & Sharma, 1998).

P1 believed that teaching and learning materials were a major source for teachers to generate and sustain children’s curiosity. P2 said, “The use of teaching learning materials enriches the effectiveness of teaching. Students will be able to understand more vividly and it provides hands-on experience for concrete understanding.” P3 believed material resources immensely enhanced quality teaching and learning.

P2 explained that materials were generally procured by the District Education Office and supplied to schools. At each school, stock entry is made, and the store in-charge stacked and labeled the shelves before they were issued to different stakeholders. P1 stated, “Teachers need to get approval from the principal for any materials to be issued from the store.” P3 maintained that the issue of materials to staff is done according to criteria contained in the Ministry of Education (MoE, 2005) policy. The recording of stock entries of materials ensured use-by dates were known. This principal also maintained that proper resource management in schools saves time and reduces the expenditure of the government stating that “wastage is minimized, conducive and attractive classrooms are ensured ... and students retain what they

have learned.” The author believes that such precautions are signs of good management of material resources which ultimately transform children’s daily learning experiences into longer-term outcomes of education (Blandford, 1997). In this way good resource management in schools contributes to effective teaching and learning.

SI1 explained how she managed the resources in her school store. Requisitions to the Dzongkhag were submitted and verified on arrival, stored, and labeled for ease of retrieval. She also indicated that her school borrowed from and lent resources to other schools when there was a local shortage. SI2 confirmed these practices while SI3 described experiences as follows:

During four years of experience as a store keeper, I have learnt the following: properly [conduct] stock entry and issue materials, [know] how to update the stock with the new arrivals ... check balance of school resources, put up requisitions and catalogue resources for effective management such as text books and references, stationery goods, games and sports goods, science equipment etc.

SI4 said that he shouldered the responsibility of store in-charge for eight years during which his duties included: “maintaining stock ledger, made requisitions, keeping enough resources to last for [the] next year and issue as per the need of students and teachers with detail records maintained.”

It becomes obvious that teaching becomes effective and better learning is ensured with adequate material resource that support student learning. Darling-Hammond, Austin, Lit, and Nasir (2003) stated, “When classroom materials reflect students’ experiences, students feel validated and can better connect to the learning at school” (p. 108).

Darling-Hammond et al. (2003) stated, “Learning with understanding is more likely to occur when students are helped to see how concepts are related, and when a map of the intellectual terrain is provided, as opposed to an unrelated list of facts” , (p.18) In the same vein, TR3 affirmed, “Teaching and learning goes smoothly when a school has enough resources. Knowledge transfer becomes faster and easier with the help of visual aids.” TR7 said, “Teaching as well as learning becomes interesting with the use of abundant resources.” TR8 stated, “Lessons are incomplete when teaching aids are not used.” TR1 expressed, “Teaching [and] learning is better with varieties of resources. It makes teaching easy and the learners understand better.”

TR5 said that it is sometimes claimed that resources such as a workbook or worksheets are insufficient. He refuted this and maintained that such resources are often misused. He also said that, “Sometimes scarcity of teaching/learning materials, misusing of resources by some colleagues, and sometimes lack of information on availability of resources in the school make it difficult to [produce] teaching aids for all lessons.”

SI1 said, “Late arrival of materials and not receiving [materials] requisitioned is a concern.” She complained that, “Sometimes we are getting shortage of teaching materials like low dust chalk, marker pens, newsprints, and charts.” SI3 stated that, “Resources like textbooks are never supplied [according to] the requisition. Other resources like stationery for teachers and teaching/learning [materials] for students are also very limited and hardly last for a year.”

Financial Resources

Financial resources are an important determinant for educational attainment. Without proper allocation and budgeting it is difficult to acquire either human or material resources. Furthermore effective

financial management is important when public funds are involved. Adequate funding is necessary so that the provision of human and material resources are available. Topan and Paramita (2010) said

An institution cannot deliver goods without adequate resources. Therefore, funding or financing of local self-governing body, has important implications for local autonomy, development and dramatic process. An ideal system of local self-government should have freedom to raise taxes and decide on how the resources are used rather than rely largely or wholly on resources allocated by the higher tiers of the state and central government. (pp. 21-22)

In the Bhutanese context, schools are regarded as internally self governing with higher tiers at the District Education Office and the MoE. Individual schools do not have autonomy in raising their own budget. Bhutanese School Management Guidelines and Instructions (MoE, 2005) states that, “The government’s policy is to provide free education and training to every Bhutanese from pre-primary to the university.” Parents make contributions in the form of the School Development Fund (SDF), but a ceiling is determined by the MoE. Those modest fees are as follows: for classes PP-VI, the charge is Nu. 30/-; for classes VII-VIII, the charge is Nu. 100/-; for classes IX-XII, the charge is Nu. 200/-; the token fee for day school children is Nu. 5/-, and the fee for boarding students is Nu. 50/- [US\$ 1 = 60Nu] (MoE, p. 82).

Nevertheless some lower, middle and higher secondary schools have quite a sizeable school budget at their disposal but mostly directed and controlled by the District Administration. P1 said the financial resources handled at his school are, “The School Development Fund, fees, government approved budget items such as the enrichment funds, maintenance, and

office supplies.” Stipends of all government school staff are paid and controlled by the MoE through government agencies and constitute the great majority of financial cost of schools which are the subject of this research. There are some private schools in Bhutan, and these generally have to rely on payment of much higher fees.

The authority for budgeting pretension, utilization, and procuring formalities requires approval from the controlling official such as the Dasho Dzongda (Mayor), head of accounts, and the District Education Officer. This procedure has the potential to take considerable time and may cause the delay or even non-fulfilment of school plans.

Financial resource management is not so burdensome in primary schools. One TR8 said, “SDF is not utilized to purchase teaching learning materials. To date our school fund is used for giving away prizes for the co-curricular activities conducted in the school.” TR7 stated, “We use the school fund for conducting some co-curricular activities such as quizzes, debates, and games, and observing some important days.” The data from the interviews revealed that an overwhelming majority of the respondents have expressed interest in purchasing teaching and learning materials with the School Development Fund instead of mainly dedicating the Fund to extra-curricular activities.

Purchasing Materials

A bulk of the material resources are supplied by the District Education Office and the Ministry’s procurement division. Some items are purchased directly by schools and concerning such discretionary expenditure. The following question was asked of those being interviewed: “Do you (your school) buy teaching learning materials and how is the purchasing done, and who are involved?” S11 said, “Immediate needs are purchased from our

SDF budget. We involve the principal and other SMT (school management team) members.” SI2 reported a similar practice is followed at his school: “The school management team is involved in purchasing, with refer [to] the Dzongkhag quotation rates. The operation policy guidelines in Bhutanese School Management Guidelines and Instructions, suggests areas on which the SDF is to be spent. The school needs are discussed with the teachers in a staff meeting for approval.” The schools seem to be guided by these instructions.

Unlike the two schools discussed above SI3 has a different opinion. He said, “Our school never buys teaching/learning materials from anywhere. Whatever the Dzongkhag Education Office and the MoE sends, we manage [with] it. If it is not enough, we improvise and manage it in the school. If it all became impossible, we ask to Dzongkhag Office and Ministry of Education for additional supply.”

SI4 supported SI3’s practices. His school has not purchased any materials to be used for teaching and learning. He further mentioned that teaching and learning materials are collected and kept safely in the store to be used in future years.

All of the schools visited by the author reported having a user policy incorporated in the school policy document. This policy is made known to the teachers and students. SI2 acknowledged that “the school has a user policy. Children are made aware [of] these policies. Even class teachers are instructed by the principal.” With regard to lost items issued by the store, SI1 affirmed collecting a fine that goes to government revenue.

TR4 responded, “Almost all materials are not sufficient. But I go on improvising it as per my limited knowledge and sometimes buy from the local shops, for example, a cello tape, sketch pen, etc.” To a great extent, TR3 also shared similar views. He stated, “To be honest I should

say no [materials are not sufficient].” The perception is that there is generally no excess of materials in schools. However, some schools confirm that there are instances of spare materials which are shared with neighbouring schools. SI1 stated, “We had a problem of excess materials, especially when the textbooks are revised or reprinted or whenever the syllabus is revised. We sell the materials and remit the money so generated to the Dzongkhag revenue section. Other materials we share with the cluster schools whenever they ask for [them].” SI2 and SI3 agreed that “[any] excess of materials are made known to the principal. The principal [offers such excess materials] to the neighboring schools.”

Findings

The findings are based on the data collected from the principals, teachers and store in-charges of four schools of Trashiyangtse Dzongkhag. The findings and recommendations are organized and discussed under three headings: human resource management, material resource management, and fiscal resource management.

Human Resource Management

The data reveal that the principals are managing the human resources at their disposal in schools well with school affairs being managed collectively. Committees, departmental heads, and school management teams are established to look after various day-to-day matters in each of the schools. Empowering school members is yet another notable feature of all of the schools. Professional development programs have become annual features of the schools enabling members of the school staffs to acquire new knowledge and skills for better performances.

Material Resource Management

All the teachers interviewed affirmed that teaching and learning materials play a vital role in making the lessons interesting and

successful. They believed that knowledge transfer and conceptualization becomes faster and easier with the help of visual aids. There was some evidence of shortage of material resources which continues to be a hindrance in the schools. Many of the participants said there were inadequate teaching and learning materials. Shortages were filled on occasions by neighboring schools or by requesting the Dzongkhag Education Office for additional supplies.

The stores in-charge have informed and constructive ideas on handling stores such as making stock entries, stacking by categories with proper labeling for retrieval, maintain records of items issued to students and staff, processing requisitions, and disposing obsolete materials. Conversely, one store in-charge suggested additional training of staff in order to achieve more efficiency.

Financial Resource Management

Given the bulk of school financial resources, especially salaries and capital works which are determined by the national education authorities, the financial resources at the discretion of principals are of a minor nature. Nevertheless such limited funds available are significant for promoting the teaching and learning in the schools. Approval is sought from the Dzongkhag Administration for operating current budgets. At the school level, committees have been formed for prudent use of SDF. There is evidence that transparency is maintained for the financial mobilization of funds at the school level.

Recommendations and Limitations

This study found that resources are generally deployed efficiently within the schools and teaching areas. Some additional resources are needed to contribute to improved teaching and learning. In sum it is recommended that principals monitor for proper checks and

balances in the management of all resources.

The allocation of equipment in schools requires regular reviews for adequacy and relevance of materials for different subject areas. Seeking approval from the principal for access to stores by teachers is apparently a common practice while devolving authority to store in-charges is less common. It is recommended that building of trust with staff be encouraged along with appropriate accountability measures.

The Ministry of Education should provide training of school administrative staff in bookkeeping and basic managerial skills. The teachers who are currently handling the management of stores need to be replaced by the full-time professional store keepers. Teachers need to concentrate more on their teaching roles. Considering the findings and the recommendations made in the preceding paragraphs, the researcher recommends that Bhutan education authorities develop a training manual on resource management in schools to improve performance and ensure good governance in schools.

While this study has provided some insights on management of school resources, there are some limitations. This study was conducted in only four schools of Trashiyangtse Dzongkhag, one of the more remote provinces of Bhutan. It gathered data from 15 interviewees: three principals, eight teachers and four stores in-charge. Hence the study has limited scope for making generalized findings. Future research in this area should be of wider scope geographically and involve more participants. Furthermore the use of questionnaires could encourage critical comments and prove useful in gathering more data and preserving anonymity of participants. The data was also gathered in a short period of time. A follow up study might reveal changes over a longer time period.

Conclusion

The study was an initial exploration of management of school resources in Bhutan schools. The study indicated an uncritical acceptance and relaxed attitude toward current practices in resource management practices in schools. Some problems emerged that need remediation on the part of planners and decision makers. To enhance school outcomes in the future, resource management needs to receive a higher priority in school management.

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TEACHER-CENTERED INSTRUCTIONAL DELIVERY AFFECTING STUDENTS' LEARNING

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Abstract: *This qualitative study focused on teacher-centered instruction with an extensive review of the literature and an in-depth look at how this practice affects the teaching and learning in Bhutan's Gonpasingma Lower Secondary School. Semi-formal interviews and observational protocols were employed to gather data from six teachers and six students at the school. Observational data corroborated the literature review concerning the characteristics of teacher-centered instruction and its impact on student learning. Findings suggested that Bhutan teachers favor the lecture as the major means for instruction; their classes tend to be teacher-centered generally with little interaction between teacher and students. The study analyzed the impact of teacher-dominated classrooms on student engagement from the perspectives of both teachers and students. Recommendations for faculty development in student-centered pedagogy and administrative support for innovative teaching practices conclude the study.*

Key words: teacher-centered instruction, lecture, student-centered pedagogy

Introduction

When this researcher was a secondary school student (1976-1985), teaching in Bhutan meant mere dissemination of information. A test or examination was the single method used to judge students' learning. Parents supported caning as necessary discipline to make children study or pay attention. Consequently, children were not permitted to ask questions to their teachers. Teachers did not consider the diverse learning styles of their students nor ways to implement Gross National Happiness (GNH) values in the classroom such as creative thinking, perseverance, insightfulness, openness, and patience. If it's true that "successful societies depend upon educating each succeeding generation in the values that are at the core of the social existence" (Mancall in Galay and Ura, 2004, p. 37), then what do such conditions suggest about the relationship between teaching and learning in Bhutan society?

Teacher-dominated instruction continued while studying at Rigzhung School

(located at Semtokha near Thimphu which its primary task is to preserve and promote Dzongkha, the national language of Bhutan; it was originally founded in 1961 as a monastic school) where an emphasis was placed on student memorization and recitation. As a result, it was difficult for students to explore ideas beyond the prescribed textbooks. As a college student, I became more aware of how classes were being conducted: the lecturer would pass on knowledge through lecture-method teaching, and students would grasp as many points as possible by taking notes. Without some group discussion, students learned primarily from self study in isolation from other peer learners. Although self study has some benefits, learning as a social give-and-take of ideas is not one of them. Ames and Archer (1988) stated, "In self study, students use more self instruction, self monitoring strategies and self improvement rather than social comparison" (p. 261).

Once I became a teacher myself, I attempted to use strategies that would

create an environment where children can learn in multiple ways: from peers as well as from teacher, from presentations, and from small group tasks and consensus. But, my efforts did not go as expected due to getting habituated in using chalk and talk method. I then wondered if my failure was the result of my particular school's cultural expectations or the nature of the Bhutanese educational system generally.

Today's children, however, seem to be more bold, outspoken, perhaps critical thinkers. Describing this generation of digital learners, Prensky (2001) observed, "It is now clear that as a result of a ubiquitous environment and the sheer volume of their interaction with it, today's students think and process information fundamentally different from their predecessors" (p. 1). In light of what we know about today's learners, the climate may be conducive for Bhutanese teachers to minimize the traditional teacher-centered approach and concentrate on student-centered learning. Interactive, cooperative, and collaborative learning may have a better probability in engaging the individual child in all class activities than when this researcher was a student and teacher.

Hence, this study focused on answering the following questions:

1. What are current teacher-centered strategies being practiced by Bhutanese teachers?
2. What situations directly influence Bhutanese teachers to choose a teacher-centered approach?
3. What impact does teacher-centered instructional delivery have on student learning?
4. What roles do students take in the teacher-centered classroom?

Literature Review

The literature review is divided into five sections: (a) a definition and description of teacher-centered instruction within a universal view of the teacher-centered classroom; (b) teaching strategies used in teacher-centered classrooms; (c) students' roles in teacher-centered classrooms; (d) situations that influence teachers to exercise a teacher-centered approach; and (e) the impact of teacher-centered instructional delivery on students' learning.

Definition

Teacher-centered instructional delivery chiefly is associated with the transmission of knowledge. Alvermann (2002) described it as a "lock-up step to literacy learning, and for emphasizing subject with little depth" (p. 201). Tagg and Barr (1995) stated that in teacher-centered classrooms, the teacher is perceived primarily as the disciplinary expert who imparts knowledge by lecturing. A familiar analogy is the teacher as an actor on a stage whose performance is the central means for communicating information to an audience of students. Transmission of knowledge is generally one-way, with little interaction between teacher and students. Similarly, Ahmad and Aziz (2009) suggested that students do not participate unless called upon. Participation in the classroom remains at the minimum and most of class time is controlled and dominated by the teacher. Estes (2004) confirmed, "Teacher-centered... describes a learning process where the power resides with the teacher" (p. 145).

Teaching Strategies

Strand, Morley, and Cippolle (1987) indicated several ways that teachers transmit information in a teacher-centered classroom, including "through lecture, assigned readings, self study, or

demonstration" (p. 76). Similarly, Vella (1992) said, "The lecture, formal presentation of content by the teacher for subsequent learning and recall in examinations by students, is the dominant habit of mind of most teachers when they think of or plan their teaching" (p. 811).

In such class settings, teachers are clearly in charge of both instruction and the means of demonstrating learning. While they "talk and explain, students listen and follow" (Ahmad & Aziz, 2009, p. 22). Strategies for learning include students "practicing, listening, and reproducing" (Pandey, 2007, p. 24). Assessing learning in a teacher-centered environment may include question-answer sessions in which the teacher expects students to be able to recite answers at the literal level when responding to the questions of what, who, where, when, why and how (Ahmad & Aziz, 2009).

Students' Role

Because the teacher selects the content for study, initiates the questions to be answered, and assesses the students' understanding, the students' role is to demonstrate mastery of the skill or knowledge to the teacher's satisfaction (Herrington, Oliver, & Reeves, 2002). Students in a teacher-dominated environment are expected to be "passive listeners" (Pandey, 2007, p. 24) or "passive vessels" whose roles are fixed and whose goal is simply to "ingest knowledge for recall or tests" (Tagg & Barr, 2009, p. 705). However, Kelly (2011) argued that those students who understand the verbal clues of their teachers and acquire methods of organizing and taking notes will be successful learners in such classrooms.

Situations That Influence a Teacher-Centered Approach

Teachers' instructional decisions may be influenced by the beliefs and actions of others in the educational system as well as

by their own beliefs (Grant, 1979, as cited in Shavelson & Stern, 1981). When the emphasis is placed on learning a specific curriculum with perceived right answers and static information, teachers are prone to adopt a teacher-centered approach that controls what and how students learn. In these scenarios, Tagg and Barr (1995) clarified, "Any expert can teach partly because the teacher knows which chunk of knowledge is most important" (p. 705). Additionally, where knowledge is perceived as "transmittable, reproducible, and linear" (Pandey, 2007, p. 24), the teacher becomes the critical insurer of its transmission via teacher-centered methodology. Teacher-centered philosophies emphasize the importance of transferring knowledge, information, and skills from the older generation to the younger one (Sadker and Zittleman, 2006).

Tradition also influences teachers' pedagogical choices, particularly if teaching receives the nod of importance rather than students' learning needs. Many schools adhere to the traditional assumption that if the teaching is done well, any ambitious student with a modicum of ability will learn (Maruyama and Oblinger, 1996). Additionally, extrinsic motivation with an emphasis on grades complements a teacher-centered delivery system because teachers are not only the means of knowledge transmission, but also the means of motivating and assessing all student response.

Impact of Teacher-Centered Instruction on Students' Learning

Research suggests that the teacher-centered approach does not positively impact students' learning as much as traditionally assumed because so much of the learning depends on the students' ability to absorb what the teacher is saying or demonstrating (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002). Kelly (2011) affirmed that when an

instructor stands before a class and presents information for students to learn, very little exchange occurs. Similarly, Maruyama and Oblinger (1996) found that in an average lecture, the instructor delivers about 5000 spoken words of which students record only about 50.

When transmission of knowledge is only one-way, little opportunity may occur for divergent thinking or inquiry. Lecturers may not be able to adapt pedagogical strategies. Schoenfeld (1998, cited in Hmelo-Silver & Barrows, 2006) described an observation of such a teacher-centered classroom as follows:

The teacher asked for the answer to a problem, the student responded correctly, and the teacher answered “OK”, and then elaborated on the student's correct response. All this proceeded according to teacher's plan. When students' responses diverged, his limited pedagogical content knowledge prevented him from adapting his plan. (p. 22)

Additionally, time is closely and carefully monitored which may give a false sense that student learning is occurring within the restrictions set by the teacher. Taag and Barr (1995) stressed, “The rule of time priority affects every instructional act of the school. Time is learning's warden. Time bound mentality fools all into believing that school can educate all of the people at the same time” (p. 703).

Methodology

In order to answer the study's four research questions regarding teacher-centered pedagogy in Bhutan schools, the researcher employed a qualitative and phenomenological methodology that included classroom observations and semi-formal interviews. A phenomenological design allows for a collection of data from persons who have experienced a phenomenon (i.e. teacher-centered

instruction) in an attempt to “reduce individual experience with a phenomenon to a description of universal experience or a grasp of the very nature of a thing” (Creswell, 2007, p. 58). In other words, the nature of teacher-centered instruction and its impact on students may be discerned in a single Bhutanese school, but might also be “reduced” to a universal description of such instruction as practiced throughout Bhutan.

Following this design approach, only one school was selected for the in-depth study, namely Gonpasingma Lower Secondary School under Pemagatshel Dzongkhag in eastern Bhutan. It is a rural school established in the year 1992. Presently, it has 13 teaching faculty and nine administrative staff with 342 students in grades from Pre-Primary to VIII. It is fairly representative of Bhutan curriculum that diverse subjects are taught such as English, math, science, history (world history and Bhutan history), geography, social studies, information technology (IT), environmental studies, and Dzongkha (national language).

Inquirer had selected 12 competent participants from the school by considering individual willingness and that they would purposefully inform an understanding of the research problem. Of the 12 participants, six were teachers (2 teachers teaching English in grade VII and VIII, 2 teachers teaching math in grade VII and VIII, 1 teacher teaching science in grade VII and VIII, & 1 teacher teaching Dzongkha in grade VIII) who will be referred to as T1, T2, T3, T4, T5, T6; and six students (3 girls and 3 boys from grade VII and VIII) who will be referred to as S1, S2, S3, S4, S5, S6.

A series of semi-structured interviews were conducted with all twelve participants. Similar to the interviews, observations were conducted because “observing in a setting is a special skill

that requires addressing issues such as the potential deception of the people being interviewed, and the potential marginality of the researcher in a strange setting” (Hammersley & Atkinson, 1995, in Creswell, 2007, p. 134). Therefore, as arranged in advance, six teacher participants’ classes were observed by employing specific observational protocols: (a) describing the teaching strategies used by the teachers; (b) portraying the position of the teacher in the class; (c) expressing the behaviour of the students while teachers teach; (d) describing the relevancy of the assigned activities and the materials being used by the teachers; and (e) describing the overall classroom interaction.

Findings

Data from observations and interviews at the sampled school have been organized under the following descriptive headings: (a) classroom setting; (b) diverse teaching strategies; (c) situations/beliefs that influence teacher’s choice of teaching strategies; and (d) participants’ views and researcher’s observations on the impact of teacher-centered approach.

Classroom Setting in Sampled School

Allwright (1983) proposed that the classroom is the first place to look if we really want to understand how to help our learners learn effectively. Therefore, six teacher participants’ classes were observed at least once. Class size ranged from 39 to 46 students with desks arranged in rows facing the front of the class. The observer noted that such an arrangement and number of students made it difficult for either teacher or students to walk freely between the rows. Teaching materials used were mostly of chalk and chalkboard, text-books, and exercise books.

Observations of T1, T2, T4 and T5’s classes indicated that these teachers stood only in the front center during the time of

delivering lessons and meticulously controlled the time. For example, T1 assigned a task to the children and instructed them to finish within a set time. T1 did not monitor the children’s progress nor attend to those students who could not keep up with the others. T2 tried to cover two lessons in one period without adjusting the pace of the lessons to accommodate student understanding. As the teacher lectured, using a chalk-and-talk method, the students stared at the teacher as if listening but did not copy the points written on the board. T3 read from the textbook and explained the content matter-of-factly without humor or enthusiasm. During T3’s lesson, the observer noted several students yawning and others not following instructions.

In observing class discussions, only the most assertive children participated in answering questions posed by T1, T2, and T3. In the case of T4’s class, a majority of students appeared unsure of what was discussed and hardly asked questions of the teacher. T6 knew all the names of the students and called on students individually during the question/answer activity. T6’s class appeared to be responsive and cooperative. Similarly, T5’s students seemed more involved when the teacher, using their roll number, invited them to read aloud a paragraph from the text. After doing that, all students went through the text together, sorting out difficult and unfamiliar words and asking their meanings.

Diverse Teaching Strategies

In semi-formal interviews, teacher respondents were asked to share opinions on the common teaching strategies fellow teachers use, and the particular teaching strategy they are fond of using. T3 stated, “Some teachers use lecture method, some use questioning method, some deductive method. Few teachers use group presentation. I lecture most of the time in

Class VII; in Class V and VI, I use group presentation method.” T5 replied, “...most of our teachers use lecture method and discussion method. I use deductive method, inductive, book talk, book review, reader’s theatre (like story telling). Most of the time I use question/answer.” In a similar way, T1 stated, “Some just give instruction when teaching an essay. I firstly explain the concept of an essay. Then, I group children and ask them to do a research on the essay’s features.” T4 maintained a preference for teaching through lecture and traditional method. T2 shared, “...our teachers, they are using only lecture method, but I am using lecture cum demonstration.”

When lessons of T1, T3, T4, and T5 were observed, these teachers most frequently used the lecture method, chalk and talk, demonstration, question/answer, read and explain, story narration, and instruction. T2 and T6 used deductive and inductive method. In the interview, T2 elaborated, “Inductive is a process that allows observing specific examples and inferring generalization of the entire area. Deductive is a thought process constructing a particular concept and relationship with the topic.” T3 is of the opinion that inductive and deductive methods are especially relevant in science and math subjects.

Student participants in the study were also asked to comment on the common teaching strategies their teachers use. S1 stated, “Some teachers use a kind of story, some use group work, some, they teach by reading, and some, they make us solve problems.” S6 was of the opinion that “Teachers explain using examples or showing the object to make it clearer.” S4 agreed, “...teachers explain each and every sentence; they use diagrams, ask questions, and give us words to search meaning.” S2 asserted, “Teachers teach nicely and explain well. They teach the

meaning of difficult words, and clear our doubts. But, they don’t give us notes.” S5 reported, “...teachers write on the board more than explain. Some explanations we find difficult to understand.” When asked which teaching strategies they preferred, some students were comfortable with the methods mentioned above whereas others opposed them.

Beliefs/Situations Influencing Teachers’ Choices of Strategies

Teacher participants were of the view that situations and beliefs influence the choice of teaching strategy. T4 stated, “When we stay with traditional practice, we have a direct link to our ancestors. Our teachers used to teach in this manner. Traditional practice is always a part of our context. We have no choice as we are used to it.” T5 referred to the challenges of student-centered methods in stating, “In using student-based activity, it is very difficult to follow up all the strategies for students’ level. Our students are very weak in language. Students face lots of problems communicating, presenting, and being understood. Therefore, I mostly go with lecture method.”

Degree of student responsiveness seemed to be the criteria for the instructional methods used by T3. T3 explained, “In Class V and VI, it is more appropriate to use questioning and group activity method because students are active and responsive. Lecture method is used in teaching essay and story in Class VII as the students are not that responsive.” T2 cited that time constraints and inadequate resources were reasons teachers choose the lecture method.

T1 saw advantages to other methods, stating, “I commonly give group activity considering it is more prevalent. When giving an activity, I feel children are able to interact. They can use all four skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing. But, the majority of teachers use lecture

method because it fulfills the objectives set.” T6 added, “If we always lecture, students feel sleepy, especially after lunch. If we demonstrate, then they laugh and become more active in the classroom.”

Participants’ Views/Researcher’s Observations

Both teacher and student respondents shared their own justifications and opinions on the impact of teacher-centered approach. T4 stated, “Traditional practice has lots of disadvantages. It does not create a forum for openness for our children. It is almost like a teaching system followed by the monk or in the temples.” T1 said, “The majority of the teachers use lecture method. I see from this that a child acquires only the listening skill. A child is not given room for cognitive growth. There is nothing to stimulate thinking.”

Observations of T2, T3, T4, and T5’s lessons confirmed that the most noticeable teaching strategy was lecture method. During the lecture, students, especially those at the back, were not attentive. Some were observed yawning, a few playing with pencils and some plucking eyebrows. S6 reported, “...they all teach well, but some teachers are too lazy to teach to those who are weak in understanding. Without giving more explanation, they hurry up to cover the chapter.” Conversely, S4 stated, “Teachers teach in better ways, they joke in the class, not letting students feel sleepy. When we are in doubt, they clarify nicely. If they don’t know how to solve our doubts, they seek help from other teachers.”

T2 voiced concern with group discussion as a strategy in delivering lessons and indicated, “Children who don’t join in the group don’t learn very much. Dominant children do everything themselves, and weaker students do not get a chance.” T3 stated, “In group activity, there should be more motivation from the teacher’s side.

Students must have more understanding on the topic. Then only will group understanding be effective. If not, there is a chance that students will simply read out the points from the book.” T5 felt that using different teaching strategies could result in students coming up with incorrect answers and wasting time.

However, S1, S2, and S3 agreed that teachers should give group work, correct notebooks from time-to-time, share some kind of general knowledge, and incorporate humor in teaching. As a result, students would not feel sleepy and bored. S5 suggested, “I would like my teachers to give more assignments so that we will be busy and never waste time.” S4 said, “We like our teachers to give extra class time to those who are poor in study.” S6 summarized that teachers should explain with the help of examples, give extra care to weaker students, and give opportunity to students to come in front to do presentations in order to build confidence.

Discussion

The study revealed that in the sampled school, classrooms are congested and crowded. Teachers find it difficult to cater to individual student needs and often default to a teacher-dominated class where lecture is the primary mode of dispersing knowledge and information. Many of the characteristics of teacher-centered classrooms described in the review of literature prevail: limited interaction between teacher and students, question/answer sessions dominated by a few assertive students, the pace of instruction set by the teacher with little attention to the needs of slower learners, time restrictions for task completion, inadequate space for small group arrangements, all students working on the same task through independent self-study.

Although the lecture method predominates, a variety of instructional practices were observed, including

demonstrations, story narration, book reviews, chalk-and-talk presentations, discussion, question/answer, and some student group presentations. Teachers in math and science classrooms tended to use both deductive and inductive methods to explain concepts and link general principles to specific illustrations or object lessons.

As the literature attests, teachers in this study feel constrained by tradition, influenced by past practices of former teachers they have had. Although they recognize the limitations of the lecture approach to instruction, they can voice reasons for practicing it. These include lack of space, lack of school resources, time constraints, doubt that group work leads to right answers, frustration with students' limited language ability, and inadequate teaching materials.

The study also uncovered that, in most classes, a forum for openness is not being created whereby children can interact with each other and with teachers. During lecture-style teaching students seem less attentive or engaged and do not get time to think and reflect on the lesson delivered.

Student interviews reveal that students are sensitive to the disadvantages of lectures and wish more teachers would vary instruction, cater more to slower learners, create challenging and creative assignments, and encourage student interaction. Students also want teachers to use humor in their lectures, adding interest and appeal to the information being delivered. Opportunities for individual and group presentations as well as lively teacher demonstrations are also practices students would like to see implemented. In these ways, students' roles can be expanded, and they can participate more in their own learning.

Recommendations

In Bhutan, the national goal for all its citizens is referred to as Gross National Happiness (GNH). In order to bring happiness in teaching and learning, teachers must start to understand the diverse learning styles of children and their needs. They need to create interactive and conducive learning environments so that slow learners are provided means to compete and thrive with others. Classes must provide ample time for learners to think and reflect on what has been discussed and taught. Attention to improving English language skills will facilitate communication between and among students and teachers.

Teachers need additional professional development in a variety of teaching strategies and ways to keep learners attentive and engaged. They may need additional education regarding English language learners. The four skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing must be integrated in every lesson. Teachers must encourage and motivate students to ask questions that promote a deeper understanding of content and that foster conversation and assess comprehension.

School administrators should initiate the construction of additional classrooms and hiring of more teachers in order to decrease class size. Space and room for small group work and varied seating arrangements should be provided. Team teaching and peer instruction in varied methodologies should be promoted through recognition and awards given to innovative faculty initiatives. Additionally, teachers need support and encouragement in attempting strategies beyond their comfort zone. Parents and students can be supportive of teachers as they attempt new ways to work with students in the teaching-learning process. Teacher leaders can serve as change agents

working with administrators and faculty in assessing needed improvements in instructional practices.

Conclusion

This study explored the effects of teacher-centered instructional delivery on students' learning through a review of the literature and an in-depth look at one specific Bhutan lower secondary school. In doing so, the school findings match the research literature regarding the characteristics of teacher-centered classrooms and the effects of a dominant lecture method.

These results will be shared with Bhutan educators and policymakers in an effort to improve education throughout Bhutan by aligning classroom instruction with the values inherent in Bhutan's vision of GNH. Current research on this generation of learners, with an emphasis on student-centered methods to engage them, indicates the need for Bhutan schools to revise instructional practices as recommended in this study.

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HOW DOES TEACHING OF PROCESS APPROACH (PA) HELP STUDENTS WITH THEIR WRITING?

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Abstract: *This small scale research was essentially carried out to explore teaching writing skills incorporated by the teachers and the learners in the lower secondary schools in Mongar district. The study delineates the benefits of process approach to teaching writing. It is an educational research conducted to tap the lived experiences of Grades 7 and 8 students of the three lower secondary schools in Mongar. Using the quota and purposive sampling, nine participants, namely three teachers and six students, were studied. The data were gathered using semi-structured interviews and observation tools which in turn were analyzed by using Creswell's (2007) six generic steps of data analysis. The researcher also organized the patterns and themes which emerged from the data to make meaning. The study found that teaching students how to write aptly using process approach helps them gain proficiency in their writing. The process approach model sufficiently addressed the writing deficits and writer's blocks the students encounter during their writing tasks. The study recommends the English language teachers to administer the process approach strategy to teach writing to their students. The issue of nurturing strong writing competence in students draws attention not only of the English teachers but also the national English curriculum developers in Bhutan.*

Key words: process approach writing, teaching writing

Introduction

As seen in the students of other parts of the world, writing task remains to be the major problem. It is the same with many Bhutanese students. For this very reason, the educational researchers in Bhutan have been studying the challenges of learning writing approaches to help the students write well in their writing assignments.

As reflections and recounts of one's personal, educational and professional experiences of the past unfold, the learning revives and the experiences help to pose researchable questions to confirm the redundancy and ambiguity of some expressions and knowledge claims. By the same token, the researcher recounts the teachings of his language teachers, regrettably many of them have never taught writing as a second language or third language exercises to their students but rather used it as native language speaker's task without using any writing

strategies. The writing has been the hallmark of language learning. Failing to teach students effective writing skills defeats the very purpose of language acquisition. The literature discussed that the main thrust of second language learning strategy theory and research has been toward the identification and training of so-called good language learning strategies (Porte, 2002).

Besides, as an English language teacher in three secondary schools for the last eleven years, the researcher has observed that majority of the students perform poorly in their writing tasks, be it in home or board exams. Every time the teacher gave some writing activities to students, there would be always some students not able to express their ideas. Some could hardly write a paragraph. Many times, the teacher would find their ideas disorganized, unfocused, and irrelevant to the topic.

Therefore, this paper is essentially written to address the weakness of the Bhutanese students' writing abilities. The main research question—How does the process approach to writing help students in their writing?—has been formulated to investigate the effectiveness of process approach to writing.

Literature Review

The relevant literature abounds in some approaches that seem to have been most influential in writing. These are the product approach and the process approach.

The product approach is concerned with the finished text. Particularly, it is concerned with distortion of lexical and grammatical underpinnings in the written text. All writing forms (both oral and audio-lingual methods which are technically known as controlled composition) are subsumed under this approach since they were concerned with the correct use of language structures. These forms of writing could not be expected to develop learners' abilities to compose beyond the sentence level (Silva, 1990).

However, the product approach turned into a subject of criticism in 1980s. For example, Freedman, Pringle, and Yalden (1983) conceived of it as 'pedagogically weak' for the insufficient attention it paid to the writing stages. On the other hand, Zamel (1983) argues that the product approach was "prescriptive, formulaic, and overtly concerned with correctness" (p. 165). A most comprehensive criticism comes from Krashen (1984, cited in Abdalla, 2010) who stated, "if the student-writer is 'able to master all the rules of punctuation, spelling, grammar, and style that linguists have discovered and described', then their reward would be a Ph.D. in Linguistics but they would never be competent in writing" (p. 25).

Nonetheless, grammar jeopardizes writing pedagogy as it is an open-ended phenomenon. The learners could not be expected to study and practise writing properly if writing is tied up with acquisition of grammar. English grammar is a vast subject. Nine months of school teaching might not be enough to cover the its particulars.

It is of no practical use for the students' writing needs, for example, generating surface structures from deep structures (Abdalla, 2010). He propounds the notion of segregating grammar and writing as below:

Even when the argument that mastery of grammar determines success in writing is taken for granted, there still remains the question about the nature of grammar needed in the writing programme; for grammar comes in different schools (formal/functional), theories (structural/transformational), types (theoretical/pedagogical), etc. which are for the most part mutually exclusive, and cannot, therefore, be compromised into a coherent writing programme. (p. 36)

The proponent also emphasizes that grammar in a writing course overshadows the nature of writing as a communication skill where grammar is one of many resources that writers resort to in order to enrich their communicative intent. In fact, "grammar operates at a linguistic level below that of the basic unit of writing; the paragraph where emphasis will primarily be on textuality; the relationship between sentences, rather than grammaticality; and the well-formedness of the sentence" (Xu, 1991, p. 36).

So, owing to what was considered drawbacks in the product approach, the late 1970s witnessed a shift to the process

approach (writing process). Zamel (1983) supported that approach from the point of view of the advocates of this new approach. Writing should be “an explanatory and generative process whereby writers discover and reformulate their ideas as they attempt to approximate meaning” (p.165). Thus, writing is a process. It is a recursive, not a linear product. It is like a reconnaissance analysis of a topic – moving forward and backward till a writing piece is refined, shaped and published. Writing process can be compared with an analogy of searching for gold:

First you wander around, looking at maps and squinting into the horizon for a likely source. You might start to dig in three or four places before you actually strike gold. Perhaps some of it is fool’s gold, but you gather up everything that looks like gold, even letting some sand and pebbles get into the bag, because it is getting dark and you don’t want to leave anything valuable behind. You’ll sort it out later. Once you’ve isolated the gold, it must be refined, carefully crafted into beautiful and/or useful objects (rings, coins, chains), and polished (Ziegler, 1981, pp. 35-36).

In this approach, the steps or stages are illustrated and practiced from the creation of ideas and compilation of information through a series of activities namely, planning, gathering information, drafting, revising, and editing (Ziegler, 1981, p. 11). This sequence of activities typically occurs in four stages: “prewriting, composing/drafting, revising, and editing” (Badger & White, 2000, p. 154).

Prewriting is the phase of idea gathering. Drafting is the process of writing a rough outline of what will be addressed. Once students produce a rough draft, they read it again and share it with peers or receive comments from teachers. Then they make

modifications to their writings based on the feedback from their peers or a teacher; revising, or elaborating on the first draft, takes place at this point. Editing or correcting mechanical errors, such as grammatical structures, spelling, or punctuation, is the last stage. Walsh (1998) argued that the procedures of process writing help learners to develop more effective ways of conveying meaning and to better comprehend the content that they want to express. They strongly believe that students can discover what they want to say and write more successfully through the process model, as the process approach is viewed as writer centered.

Walker, Shippen, Alberto, Houchins, and Chalk (2005) have shown that teaching students writing strategies has been successful; however, using direct instruction perhaps on writing model like PA approach has been most effective in improving and increasing written expression skills particularly for struggling students. Krashan (1984, in Abdalla, 2010) raised arguments supporting the fact that “it is mostly through writing instruction, writing practice and teacher’s feedback that students’ writing can be improved” (p. 34). The process approach to teaching writing is all about proving practices and feedbacks as it moves back and forth in the continuum of writing workshop.

Writer’s Workshop Modality using PA

The each stage of process approach to teaching writing through writer’s workshop is delineated below:

Prewriting. Here students select topic from their writing territories and generate ideas for the topic by using strategies like brainstorming, listing, webbing, quick writes, writing leads, writing title, looping, journalist questions, researching by reading, interviewing an expert, thinking about how to approach the topic, discussing the topic with a friend or peer, among others. Prewriting should account

for about 84% of writing time (WT) as recommended by Murray, 1982, as cited in Teachers Guide Book (TGB) for classes seven and eight (Curriculum and Professional Support Division [CAPSD], 2008).

Drafting. During the drafting stage, only 1% of writing time (WT) is used here in one sitting (Murray, 1982 in TGB, 2008). Students do not think of correct spelling, punctuation, and grammar during the drafting stage. Probably, some students will have difficulty getting started while others will plunge right in. A free flow of ideas is encouraged. Ebbitt and Ebbitt (1990) say that if words come out spontaneously, it gives one's style energy that cannot be achieved by deliberation and one can enjoy the pleasure of polishing later.

Revising. Revision involves adding, substituting, deleting, and moving ideas and words around as writers rework and polish their pieces. Conferencing is a significant part of this stage in the writing process. Bander and Aaron (2005) concluded that a piece of writing must have many revisions to be successful

Editing. Editing is the process of getting the piece ready for the audience. Editing can appear in different layers: editing for clarity of ideas and language, editing for grammar conventions, and editing for correctness (punctuation, mechanics, and spelling). In other words editing is proof-reading by the author before the write-up is ready for publication. Brief mini lessons in capitalization, punctuation, spelling, paragraph structure, grammar, vocabulary, and the structure of complete sentences should be offered repeatedly. (Gyeltshen, 2010).

Publishing. Finally, 1% of WT is used in editing and publishing (Murray, 1985, as cited in CAPSD, 2008). This final stage of the writing process, publishing, occurs when a completed text is reworked and

edited to the satisfaction of the author. Although many young authors will want to publish everything they write, not all pieces will reach the publishing stage.

Therefore, Peha (2010) suggests some common writing problems being solved by the process approach thus:

Students don't know how to get started: No problem, just introduce them to Pre-Writing activities like brainstorming, webbing, mapping, free writing and listing.

Students don't write because they are afraid of making errors: Tell students they will have a chance to make corrections during the Editing stage.

Low productivity; students don't write very much: Pre-Writing activities like free writing increase fluidity of expression; the knowledge that things can be changed during Revising frees students up to experiment.

No effort in Revision; no ability to rethink earlier drafts: By teaching focused lessons in specific writing skills, and showing students how to use the Six Traits criteria, young writers become interested in and committed to serious revision.

Sloppy work; no attention to detail in final drafts: By reserving a special stage for Publishing, and creating authentic publishing opportunities for your students to publish their work, you can show them how important this aspect of writing really is, and you can give them specific lessons in how to go about it.

(<https://ttms.box.net/shared/static/haq6dt8cp7.pdf>, p. 4-3)

Research Method

In planning this research, the researcher considered two research approaches (qualitative and quantitative) and viewed them with reference to the research problem. As a novice researcher, it was very difficult to select the befitting approach. Therefore, the researcher briefly analysed the differences between the qualitative and quantitative research methods and gave precedence over the former approach as it is very pertinent to current research area.

The researcher found phenomenology an appropriate design for his study. The main focus of the research is to investigate what process writing is and to find out lived experiences of teachers and students on how it has been carried out in schools in Bhutan. Therefore, the phenomenological research design has been chosen for this study. The researcher will emphasize the experience and interpretation to tell the essence of the experience. According to Anderson (1998) phenomenological study relies on retrospective reflection-thinking about experience and what it means after the fact. It is less concerned with facts but rather with understanding the nature of human activity.

Having to look at how the process approach to teaching writing help student's writing, the researcher has found out that the students' learning experiences from the phenomenologist's perspectives - using the tools like interview and observations. The phenomenological design is concerned with the life world or human experience as it lived.

The current research takes anchor of social constructivism paradigm. In this worldview, individuals see understanding of the world in which they live and work (Creswell, 2007). Because the topic was to check the effectiveness of teaching writing skills through the process approach in schools through their lived experiences with the

language teachers, the researcher examined the complexity of participants' views and then relied, as much as possible, on their views of the situation.

The researcher also focused on the specific contexts in which people live and work in order to understand the historical and cultural settings of the participants. Here he made sense or interpreted whatever had been said by the participants about the process approach to teaching writing. In essence, it is interpretive nature of inquiry. The constructivist's worldview manifested in phenomenological studies, in which individuals described their experiences (Moustakas, 1994 in Creswell, 2007).

Research Sample

The researcher used purposive and quota strategies to gather participants. He used a set of interviewing criteria in the form of questions to collect data from the participants. Then with these set criteria, he walked into the community and – using recruitment strategies appropriate to the location, practices, and standards – found people who fit these criteria and gathered data until he met the prescribed quotas.

The participants were classes 7 and 8 students and teachers from three secondary schools in Mongar Dzongkhag (Kurichu Lower Secondary School; Gyelpozhing Higher Secondary School; and Mongar Lower Secondary School). The teacher participants participated both for observation and interviews. A purposive selection of three students and one teacher from each school was sampled to participate in the interviews. The researcher was also mindful of gender sensitivity while selecting participants. Equal numbers of girls and boys were selected for the data collection. Those students and teachers from different schools were of mixed attitudes and abilities which allowed the investigator to foster further insights into the findings and promote precision for interpretation.

Data Collection Tools

Tool 1 - Interview

Semi structured interviews were used for collecting data. The researcher created a few guiding questions so that each participant received similar questions as a basis for the interview.

The interview was conducted using the following questions.

Interview Questions for Students:

1. How important is writing to you?
2. Can you describe the steps that you follow while writing (for example)?
3. What do you do before writing, while writing and after writing? How do you refine your writing drafts?

Interview Questions for Teachers:

How important is writing to your students?

1. What are the approaches you use while teaching writing to your students?
2. In your view which approach to teaching writing is effective in our Bhutanese context?
3. Please can you tell the strengths and weaknesses of the approach you use while teaching writing in the class?
4. What strategies do you use to help students' writing become better?
5. How do you help in refining the students first write up?
6. What steps do you follow?

By and large, all of the questions were asked and a similar wording used from one interviewee to another interviewee. However, the interview was not conducted during the normal working hours. It was conducted during off hours in a quiet place. The duration of the interview was about ten to fifteen minutes.

Tool 2 - Observation

Although this tool has its roots in traditional ethnographic research, it was also used for my current research. It was necessary to observe how writing is taught in the schools. Thus, the researcher became a participant by taking notes as to how things were in context to his area of research as he observed the writing classes.

Using both interviews and observation tools helped the researcher in triangulating the data that was collected. The researcher was also mindful of the ethical issues to be considered before, during, and after transcribing the data.

Data Presentation, Analysis, and Discussion

Participating teachers (TP) and students (SP) found writing skills very important. According to them, the overriding definition of writing is that it is a process, not an end product but a recursive activity. It is not a linear activity in the continuum of writing scale. The writing gets shaped, refined, and oriented as the writers move forward and backward in the process of writing (TP2, TP3, SP1, SP3, SP4, and SP6).

Having analysed the data, the researcher conceived the ideas of process approach being used by the teachers and classes grades seven and eight students of the participant schools. When asked what approaches had been followed while teaching writing to students, TP2 said:

We have some writing skills. I follow the writing process. We let them do brainstorming, discussion. Some of them they can't come up with opinion and we let them discuss and once their opinions are shared and I let (...) make them to write. We have some writing procedures. First we have drafting, then redrafting, editing. These all

we do it while writing. Before writing I give them transitional words. So I make sure like they include some transitional words, I let them (...) I give them high frequency words and they use high frequency word and transitional words in their writing. There is a lot of improvement and the progress is seen there.

To authenticate the above statements of the participant TP2, the researcher interviewed SP4 and found that students have been taught the process approach to writing.

SP3 from a lower secondary school said that she does webbing first to collect points whatever she thinks about a particular topic and then she just writes it down in drafts. Having drafted the points into paragraphs she then arranges the points in sequence. After that she not only let nearby friends to read but also let other friends and teacher to check her first draft. The corrected draft is then redrafted and made further corrections before she puts her write-up in her writing portfolio.

Further, to validate the use of process approach to teaching writing by the teachers and students, the researcher also observed the lesson of TP2, and the lesson of TP3 for five consecutive periods. It was found that students did follow process approach to writing and benefited from it.

In one of the class observations, after the first draft was written, TP2 asked students to share their first drafts to the class (as a response to the writing activity) for comments and correction. One girl had written a very good first draft on the given topic, 'My Favorite Season'. The teacher, researcher, and students applauded her. Encouragingly, many students were raising their hands to read out their first drafts for pointing, questioning, summarizing, and questions for the author, essentially for

feedbacks and improvement in the next draft.

Similarly, the researcher perceived the idea of writer's workshop being conducted by the teacher participant, TP3, in his writing class. The researcher observed the writing class for one week. During the lessons the teacher taught the ideas of writing process using the writer's workshop approach, essentially a student-centred method.

Many were able to write a coherent essay with spelt out thesis statement in the opening paragraph with grabbing supporting points, and clear topic sentence in each paragraph with clinching supporting details. Students were also able to write concise conclusion in different idiom. This is evident from the observation diary maintained by the researcher for the five days of observation. The classes were very lively and enriching.

A more pragmatic application of stages of process approach to writing has been demonstrated in almost all the three schools the researcher visited. Some participants argued that process approach is too time consuming and does not necessarily help during exam time because of the time limit (TP2 and SP4). However, TP3 proclaimed:

Writing is a process not an end product. We revisit during redrafting and editing. It takes time but it helps. Writing is like an art or like subject. If a student they complete writing one essay, that will be his product but that doesn't mean that he has mastered in writing in that essay.

TP-02 indirectly suggested that time required for writing easier topics is less and difficult topics more depending on the capabilities of the writers. She proposed and supported the writing as below:

Writing process would be useful because we don't seem to know our mistakes. After two to three months if we go back we find a lot of mistakes, even application writing also. Letting others to read it itself is a great learning for me, if others edit for me then there would be lots of mistakes and then when I revisit again there will be always mistakes, we should do this prewriting, drafting, redrafting and then editing by others and it is very useful.

In addition, TP2 maintained the claims of PA teaching modality by saying that students are not all same. Different students come to school with multiple intelligences and for weaker group of students there cannot be a better method than teaching through PA model. She also argues that process approach to teaching writing is not a mechanical, routinely and repeated drills as stated by Badger and White (2000). TP2 also said

They are not able to come up with those details like sensory details. We have to stress more on those children. I let them write again and again. I let them sit with the high achievers and let them to share. I let them focus on usage of Dictionary. My children are writing it. We can't finish writing in a day. It goes on for one week. First time they write, they don't write well – a raw thing. Second time they write a little improvement because they look at their spellings, punctuation, and third time, they write I tell them that their sentence structures should be correct, and then forth time, they bring it to me, it is the final one without any mistakes.

Besides, administering the frequent short mini-lessons during writer's workshop classes by the teachers, specifically on

common mistakes in basic sentence structures and mechanics of writing, was deemed helping the students (TP3).

Grammar-Based Approach to Teaching Writing

Some participants were of the view that writing and grammar should go together because when teachers teach grammar in isolation, it seems to not work. TP2 and TP3 shared with the researcher from their classroom practical experiences. With the coming of the new curriculum, English teachers are asked to teach grammar along with the text. TP2 said, "I taught grammar in isolation; it didn't work because when I teach grammar in the beginning students do well when they communicate in the class but when it comes to writing, they don't use it." According to this respondent, the grammar-based approach to teaching is not at all working.

On the other hand, TP1 seemed to be in favour of the grammar-based approach to teaching writing to students. He stated, "In India, there they are focusing more on writing only. First we have to teach grammar as per our syllabus; there in Kerala also I taught for two years. Before starting the lesson first we have to make basic knowledge in grammar then only we are asked to teach writing and all."

Moreover this participant is teaching grammar in his class because in senior class students are very weak in grammar. Students do have so many ideas, but they cannot express those ideas in a manner expected. Their structures are found to be disorganized (TP1). SP4 also agreed with TP1 and claimed that before writing, students must know basic grammatical rules and vocabulary.

Nevertheless, as per Xu (1991) grammar-based approach to writing was assessed as defective. Grammar is an open-ended phenomenon to the extent that it relegates the writing pedagogy. If the fate of writing

is bound up with acquisition of grammar, learners could not be expected to study and practise writing properly and the nine months school teaching might not be enough to cover the particularities of grammar – knowing that the bulk of grammar is of no practical use for the students' writing needs (Xu, 1991). TP2's and TP3's experiences regarding the ineffectiveness of teaching grammar separately to students from writing were in agreement with Xu's (1991) criticism on teaching grammar as a separate topic or subject. So, students gain confidence in their writing by infusing grammar with PA model.

At the same time, student-teacher conferencing is the most prerequisite activity in the process approach to writing (TP3). TP2 explained her lived experiences regarding amalgamation of grammar, text, and writing in her writing classes. She said

Last year we had another specialist and I asked her that (...) like we are asked to teach grammar with the text and then she told me an idea. If you are teaching subject verb agreement and if you are reading a text so you have to compare it so if there is 'she has' then you should compare it with the text. Last year I asked her to demonstrate for me she was doing it like grammar (...) like tenses... she read the story and then she put the words on the board, those words which were in past tense, present tense, then she made students to write and in a way she was incorporating both.

In essence, this analogy TP2 suggested that studying a given genre along with grammar provides students with an understanding of why a process approach to teaching writing style is the way it is

through a reflection of its social context and its purpose.

Findings and Recommendations

The teacher and student participants were of the view that writing is by any means a process (a recursive drill) irrespective of different types of approaches people use while writing. To them writing is not a product but a process. It teaches them how to look for a topic, gather ideas for the topic, refine the content and grammar, and finally gain confidence in writing. Five of them vigorously use the writing strategies embodied in the process approach. They use strategies like pre-writing, drafting, re-drafting, editing, and publishing while writing which encompass the ways of selecting a topic, generating points, putting it in paragraphs, polishing the drafts, editing the structures and mechanics of writing, and finally publishing the writing piece in different media.

Therefore, the study recommends various stakeholders to reconsider the status quo of teaching writing to students. Firstly, process approach has been found through the literature to be effective while teaching writing to students whose English is their second or third language. Secondly, the present and previous studies have shown that teaching students strategies has been successful; however, teaching direct instruction on PA model to teaching writing has been most effective in improving and increasing written expression skills particularly for struggling students. This shift will help our students gain confidence in jumping directly on to the topic without having to ponder over from where to begin and end. If the proficiency of process approach to writing is momentarily gained by the students, they will naturally be able to tackle the unseen writing tasks assigned during the examinations in a given time.

Lastly, there have been some mixed ideas with regard to teaching grammar

separately and then teaching writing later. The existing literature aligns with some participants' views on not to teach grammar separately, but there are also some who feel the importance of teaching some basic grammar separately prior to teaching writing to students. An in-depth In the midst of carrying out this investigation the researcher discovered his strengths in qualitative research protocols and new claims in the field of knowledge production. Retrospectively, the study was an attempt to explore the effectiveness of process approach to teaching writing to the lower secondary students. Hence, the researcher was reminded of the overriding research question, "How does teaching of process approach help students in their writing?" for accurate data collection and analysis. Interviewing the participants and listening to their lived experiences on the topic gave the researcher a new experience.

study may be required to draw conclusion about teaching and not teaching grammar separately from writing. I recommend an experienced researcher to take on this investigation in the future.

Conclusion

In view of what has been said, the study suggests a revisit of the current scenario of writing classes in the schools and its impact in the future. More often than not the PA model for teaching writing will go a long way in addressing the employers' grievances and criticisms owing to the lack of writing skills of some graduates.

All in all, the study has been able to put forth a proposition of teaching writing to Bhutanese students using process approach model as the students have been greatly benefited from it. This issue draws attention not only of the English teachers in general but also the Ministry of Education, the Department of Curriculum and Research Development in particular.

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Book Review

Gert J. J. Biesta. *Good Education in an Age of Measurement: Ethics, Politics, Democracy*. 2010. Boulder, CO, USA: Paradigm Publishers. ISBN 978-1594517914.

by Lotte Rahbek Schou and Karen Bjerg Petersen
 Department of Education,
 University of Aarhus, Denmark.

What is good education? The question seems very banal. However, there is not a simple answer. At least, that is what is considered by Gert J.J. Biesta, Professor of Educational Theory and Policy, University of Luxembourg.

It is Biesta's observation that in the last decades changes in the international educational field have been directed significantly towards an evidence-based, "best practice" paradigm. Taking a point of departure in the question about the aims and ends of education, it is Biesta's ambition to change the direction to focus more on a reinvigoration of what constitutes good education: Education is, according to Biesta, by its very nature a process with direction and purpose. That is why the question of good education "always poses itself when we engage in educational activities, practices and processes" (p. 2). This turns Biesta into a normativist. Biesta has taken a normative position about education. You might even say that he does so in a double sense: by talking about "good" education, and by introducing the topic of democracy as a purpose for education.

Gert Biesta is worried that the public discourse about the purpose of education is increasingly replaced by technical and managerial preoccupations: Discussions about the effectiveness of education or on accountability in education have all displaced the question of good education and what these processes are supposed to be for (p. 2).

In Chapter 1, "What is Education For," Biesta argues that the ideas of teaching and education are being redefined by the field (and society)... "teaching as the facilitation of learning and of education as the provision of learning opportunities or learning experiences" (p. 17). The focus on learning carry us away from discussing the normative question of educational purposes. Learning is a problematic concept because learning can go in any direction. If you don't ask: why learn? You are not tackling the question of aims, ends, and values.

The next two chapters, "Evidence-Based Education between Science" and "Democracy and Education between Accountability and Responsibility" go into some details concerning the difficult character of the educational context for questions about purpose. Education's move towards "what works" makes it difficult if not impossible to ask the question what it should be *for* and who should have a say in determining the latter" (p. 32). Education's reframing of educational accountability towards a "technical-managerial" notion has "led to a situation in which [educational] practices have to adapt to the principles of the auditing process" (p. 51). Managerial accounting and evidence-based practice exacerbate the difficulty of raising the normative question of what is good education. These chapters provide the basis for the framework that Biesta developed for guiding discussions about good education.

Good education is according to Biesta formed through the interconnections between three areas: qualification, socialization, and subjectification. Qualification refers to the purpose of providing students with the knowledge and skills necessary for the workforce and for other areas of life. Socialization refers to the transmission of values and traditions so that students will be able to live within existing social orders and practices. And subjectification refers to the way that students might become a subject (p. 21), by which he means students coming into presence as individuals and becoming independent actors in society, actively contributing to its shaping.

In the chapter “A Pedagogy of Interruption” Biesta argues that central to education is “the coming into presence of unique individual beings” and that in education “spaces might open up for uniqueness to come into the world” (p. 91).

In “Democracy and Education after Dewey”, Biesta extends this into society by connecting the purpose of education to democracy, which he believes requires transforming individual desires to be “oriented towards the achievement of collective and public goods” (p. 97).

Biesta concludes his book with “Education, Democracy and the Question of Inclusion”, a chapter in which he argues that if democracy is to become more and more inclusive, education ought to maintain the distinction between socialization and subjectification, thereby helping students as unique subjects getting ready “for their participation in democratic decision making” (p. 112).

Contrary to Ton Jörg (2011) who in his review of the book criticizes Biesta for having a too narrow view on education as he is limiting the realm of possibility for education, we find that Biesta succeeds well in providing a framework for the

discussion of the purpose of education, with explicit attention to the ethical, political, and democratic dimensions of education.

We warmly recommend this book.

Reference:

Jörg, T. (2011). Review of Good Education in an Age of Measurement. *Complicity: An International Journal of Complexity and Education*, 8(2), 110-116.

Publication Guidelines

The journal (*JISTE*) publishes articles by members of the International Society for Teacher Education (ISfTE). Exceptions are made for a non-member who is a co-author with a member, or who is invited to write for a special issue of the journal, or for other special reasons.

Articles submitted to *JISTE* must be written in English, following manuscript guidelines (see below) and will be anonymously reviewed by referees. Each article must pass the review process to be accepted for publication. The editors will notify the senior author of the manuscript if it does not meet submission requirements.

Articles are judged for (a) significance to the field of teacher education from a global perspective, (b) comprehensiveness of the literature review, (c) clarity of presentation, and (d) adequacy of evidence for conclusions. Research manuscripts are also evaluated for adequacy of the rationale and appropriateness of the design and analysis. Scholarly relevance is crucial. Be sure to evaluate your information. Articles should move beyond description to present inquiry, critical analysis, and provoke discussion.

Articles pertaining to a particular country or world area should be authored by a teacher educator from that country or world area.

All manuscripts accepted for publication will be edited to improve clarity, to conform to style, to correct grammar, and to fit available space. Submission of the article is considered permission to edit to article.

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Manuscript Guidelines

- Manuscript length, including all references, tables, charts, or figures, should be 3,000 to 5,000 words. **Maximum length is 5,000 words.** Shorter pieces of 1500-3,000 words, such as policy review or critique papers are welcomed.
- All text should be double-spaced, with margins 1 inch (2.5 cm) all around and left justified only.
- Paragraphs should be indented using the “tab” key on the keyboard. No extra spacing should be between paragraphs.
- Tables, Figures, and Charts should be kept to a minimum (no more than 4 per article) and sized to fit between 5.5 x 8.5 inches or 14 x 20 cm.
- Abstract should be limited to 100-150 words.
- Include four or five keywords for database referencing; place immediately after the abstract.
- Cover page shall include the following information: Title of the manuscript; name(s) of author, institution(s), complete mailing address, email address, business and home (mobile) phone numbers, and fax number. Also on the cover page, please include a brief biographical sketch, background, and areas of specialisation for each author. Please do not exceed 30 words per author.
- Writing and editorial style shall follow directions in the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association* (6th ed., 2009). References MUST follow the APA style manual. Information on the use of APA style may be obtained at www.apa.org.

Future Issues and Submission Deadlines

2014 (Volume 18, Number 1)

No further submissions to be accepted

2014 (Volume 18, Number 2)

Open submission – Members of ISfTE are invited to contribute manuscripts related to any important topic in teacher education. Members are encouraged to co-author articles with their students or colleagues who may not be members of ISfTE. Articles that explore teacher education issues such as the practicum, mentoring in other disciplines (e.g. nursing, adult education, social work education) are particularly invited. Such articles should explore the discourse in relationship to teaching at the elementary, secondary, or tertiary (college/university) level.

Deadline for Submission: April 1, 2014: Publication by December, 2014

2015 (Volume 19, Number 1)

Theme – Teacher Education in a Volatile, Uncertain, Complex and Ambiguous (VUCA) World.

This seminar organized by Hacettepe University, Turkey will be held in Belek-Antalya, Turkey on 22-24 April 2014. Participants (including those from the Distance Paper Group) are invited to revise their seminar papers, attending carefully to the manuscript and publication guidelines, and submit them to the journal for consideration. Book reviewed on the theme are invited.

Deadline for submission: August 1, 2014: Publication by March, 2015

2015 (Volume 19, Number 2)

Currently an open submission with no specific theme – Members of ISfTE are invited to contribute manuscripts related to any important topic in teacher education. Members are encouraged to co-author articles with their students or colleagues who may not be members of ISfTE. Articles that explore teacher education issues such as the practicum, mentoring in other disciplines (e.g. nursing, adult education, social work education) are particularly invited. Such articles should explore the discourse in relationship to teaching at the elementary, secondary, or tertiary (college/university) level.

Deadline for Submission: April 1, 2015: Publication by December, 2015

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Reviews of books or other educational media are welcome. Either the review or the item reviewed must be by a current member of ISfTE. Reviews must be no longer than 1000 words.

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ISfTE members may submit an annotated reference to any book which they have published during the past three years. Annotation should be no longer than 150 words.

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Front cover: These institutions' logos appear on the front cover of this issue:

Royal University of Bhutan, was established by King Jigme Singye Wangchuck in June, 2003, to promote equitable development in the country of Bhutan. The **Paro College of Education** is one of 11 colleges which are spread across the country. It was the site for the 32nd annual seminar of the International Society for Teacher Education.

Aarhus University is the second oldest university in Denmark. It is also the largest university in the country with over 43,000 students. It offers programmes in both undergraduate and graduate studies. Although the main campus is in the city of Aarhus, Denmark, the university has small campuses in Copenhagen and Herning.

Hong Kong Baptist University was founded by the Baptist Convention of Hong Kong in 1956 as a post-secondary college and became a fully-fledged university in 1994. It now boasts eight faculties and schools and an academy offering a wide range of undergraduate and postgraduate programmes to around 8,400 students.

Weber State University in Ogden, Utah, United States, was founded in 1889. It is a coeducational, publicly supported university offering professional, liberal arts, and technical certificates, as well as associate, bachelor's, and master's degrees. Currently, over 25,000 students attend the university.

