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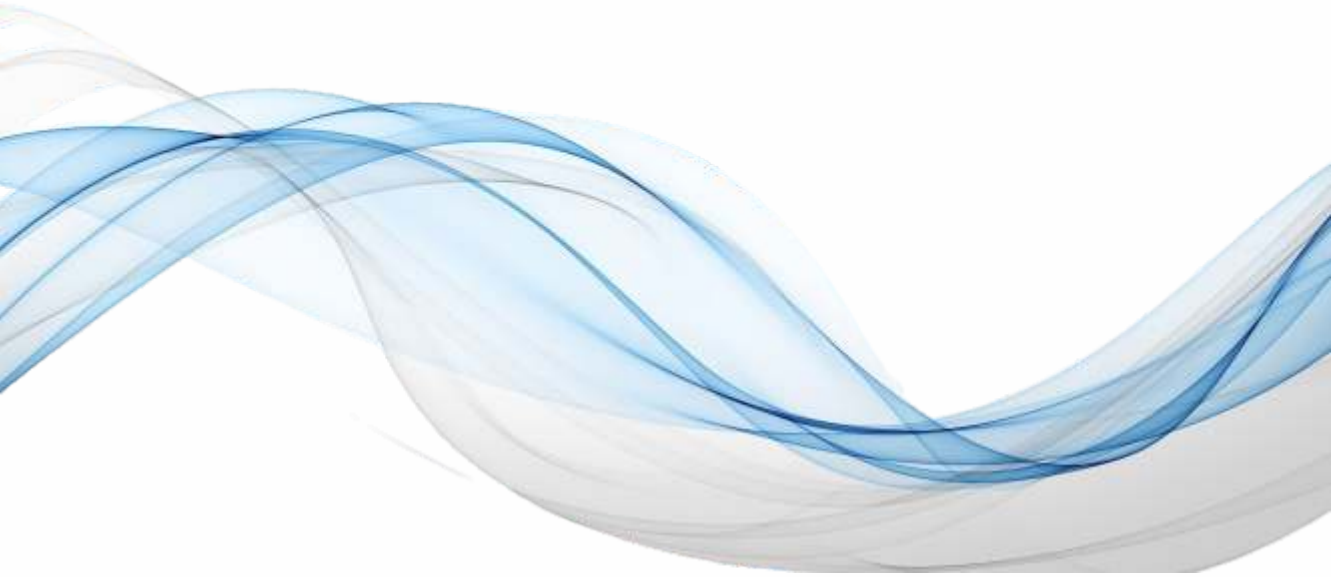

Rajendra Kumar Shah

Pedagogy in Practice: Theoretical Frameworks, Instructional Strategies, and Contextual Influences

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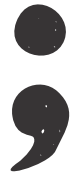

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Preface

Teaching is an inherently intricate, intellectually demanding, and multifaceted endeavor. Since antiquity, eminent educational philosophers, from Socrates and Plato to contemporary scholars, have engaged in profound discourse on optimizing pedagogical effectiveness. With the institutionalization of formal education, teaching predominantly evolved within a teacher-centered paradigm, a model that continues to exert considerable influence in educational settings. However, mounting critiques of this approach have catalyzed the advancement of learner-centered pedagogy. Notably, Rousseau's advocacy for child-centered pedagogy served as a pivotal foundation for subsequent theoretical and practical developments in learner-centered pedagogy. Consequently, efforts are underway to integrate this paradigm, to varying degrees, into educational systems across the globe.

During the 1970s, the field of education witnessed the emergence of groundbreaking intellectual discourses that critically examined various dimensions of formal education, including its objectives, pedagogical frameworks, curricular structures, and assessment methodologies. This period also marked the growing recognition of education as an inherently political enterprise, inseparable from broader sociopolitical dynamics. Within this context, the distinguished educational theorist Paulo Freire conducted a profound critique of conventional education systems, characterizing them as the "banking model of education." He vehemently opposed traditional instructional practices, advocating instead for a critical and emancipatory pedagogical approach designed to facilitate societal transformation.

The teaching-learning process can be categorized into teacher-centered, learner-centered, and transformation-centered approaches, each with distinct philosophical underpinnings and pedagogical implications. However, a significant gap persists in the availability of comprehensive scholarly resources that facilitate an in-depth assessment of these pedagogical paradigms. How can teacher-centered pedagogy be refined to optimize its efficacy? Despite its emphasis on active engagement, learner-centered education has also been subject to critique - how can its limitations be systematically addressed to enhance instructional effectiveness? Furthermore, what constitutes transformative education, and how can it be meaningfully integrated into classroom practice? These questions are of paramount significance to educators, parents, students, educational administrators, and curriculum developers. This book endeavors to explore these critical themes, with the aspiration that it will provide valuable insights to its readers, however modest the impact may be.

Dr. Rajendra Kumar Shah

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Chapter 1

Paradigms of teacher-centred teaching

Part 1

Worldview of teacher-centred teaching

Context of the Study

The Teacher-Centred Teaching (TCT) model, often called the 'Sage on the Stage' style, puts the teacher in charge as the expert who shares knowledge with students through lectures or direct teaching. In this approach, students are sometimes seen as 'empty vessels,' simply listening and taking in information. While this method is traditionally considered the standard approach to teaching, education has shifted to highlight the value of involving students more actively in their own learning. Even so, there are still many examples where students are deeply challenged and inspired by teachers passionately lecturing on subjects, they have devoted their lives to understanding. Important features of a TCT environment include: the instructor is the primary focus of the classroom; the teacher selects the topics to be covered; the teacher speaks, and students listen; the teacher's expertise takes precedence over student input; students work individually rather than collaboratively; the teacher oversees and corrects student work as necessary; the teacher is the sole authority for answering questions; the teacher assesses student performance and learning outcomes; and the classroom is generally quiet and orderly. This traditional setup likely evokes the image of a classic schoolroom where the teacher leads and directs their pupils.

TCT and Learner-Centred Teaching (LCT) represent two distinct pedagogical approaches to effective teaching and learning. TCT, often referred to as traditional education, positions the teacher as the primary source of knowledge and authority in the classroom (Mascolo, 2009). In this model, the teacher assumes the role of a lecturer, transmitting information to students, who are expected to absorb and internalize the content. The teacher is tasked with preparing lesson plans and assessments, while students bear the responsibility of completing these tasks and constructing meaning from the provided information. TCT contrast with LCT due to their differing philosophical and psychological foundations Naruemon (2013). TCT are founded on behaviourism which focuses on the need to impart a body of knowledge. TCT place the emphasis on

teaching in which rote learning is often used as its aim is academic content coverage (Harden & Crosby, 2000, Naruemon, 2013; Thamraksa, 2003; Weimer, 2013). The strengths of TCT include teachers' authority to control the classroom and to give a lecture to 'efficiently' and 'comprehensively' cover the desired content. As noted in Weimer (2002), teachers typically give a lecture, explain the content, demonstrate, ask questions and assign seat work in the teacher-centred classroom. Within a TCT, students follow the models of learning steps that teachers provide for them to learn. Contrary to the benefits of TCT mentioned above, this guided pattern of teaching can limit students' thinking skills for problem solving, their social interactions, and knowledge discovery. Students can thus become passive recipients (Thamraksa, 2003; Weimer, 2002).

Various studies have found that TCT still dominate in non-western countries which have recently introduced LCT (Abahussain, 2016; Aliusta, 2014, Chang, 2011; Mangan, 2011; Nonthaisong, 2015). Aliusta (2014) studied the teaching practice of 309 teachers in 11 high schools across North Cyprus and found that even though LCT had been adopted as policy by high schools since 2005, traditional approaches still dominated. Reasons for the continued dominance of traditional approaches were put down to a range of factors. These included large class sizes (more than 30 students per class) within physically small classrooms, classrooms not equipped with technology, and a lack of teachers' learner-centred knowledge and necessary skills, due to insufficient teacher training. Nonthaisong (2015) also examined how two teachers at a public secondary school understood the English language policy outlined within the BECC 2008 and how they implemented this in their classroom practice. It was found that TCT was dominant as teachers imparted knowledge to students and used translation and choral repetition drills. There was little evidence of LCT and communicative approaches used in the classroom. The study suggests that further professional development and training for these teachers may be required.

TCT have been widely used in the classroom in formal education (Peters, 2000) and have been found to be deeply rooted in the Thai education system (Foley, 2005; Naruemon, 2013). Nonkukhetkhong et al. (2006) asserted the TCT are also embedded in English as a foreign language class. Naruemon (2013) outlined some typical characteristics of teacher-centred practices in Thai classrooms where the teacher controls the learning process, decides on what to learn, how to learn it and sees their role as imparting their knowledge to their students. They rely on a given textbook, use whole class teaching methods and make use of standard instruction materials. Their teaching strategies tend to focus on lower order thinking skills and the recall of factual information, learnt by memory, with rote and drill practice. Vanichakorn (2003) explored the experiences of four in-service English teachers from four different schools in Thailand using interviews, classroom observations and self-reporting. The findings showed that teacher-centred assessment of student learning was used with tests focused

on giving the 'right' answers. The focus on the correct answers made the students hesitate to express their opinions as they were afraid that they would give incorrect answers. The prominent use of teacher-centred approaches in classrooms may explain the resistance that some teachers have in implementing learner-centred approaches in their classroom teaching practices. As noted in Nunan (2013) and Weimer (2013), some teachers think that LCT diminish their roles. Regarding Thai cultural norms, some teachers may feel that students do not pay respect to them as the senior teachers in the classrooms due to their role as active learners within learner-centred approaches, and that this goes against the authoritative role that teachers have in a teacher-centred approach.

Conventional Teacher-Centred Teaching

TCT is probably one of the oldest methods of teaching (Bilesanmi, 2000). It is also a traditional type of method. The teacher conducts him/herself as the custodian of knowledge which he/she dishes out in form of ideas, opinions, and information and backs them up with citations of reputable authors. It is characterized by teacher dominance and little or no pupil participation. Conventional method turns the teacher and the student into depositor and receptors respectively, wherein the teacher functions as a depositor and students the receptors who only receive file and store the deposits. According to Aguele (1997), the conventional or TCT is a traditional method of teaching in which knowledge flows from the teacher to the students. According to the educator, conventional teaching method may include recitation, dramatization and others. TCT is teacher-centred. Aguele likened the learner's mind to a blank slate. A 'Tabula rasa' to which the teacher has the compelling duty to fill up. Aguele further stated that the teacher does this by telling while the learner absorbs by listening passively. In the same vein, it was stated that students find this method dull as it involves them very little in the learning process. On students' activity, students in the conventional class are passive, gullible and they do more of listening and note-taking. On the teacher activity, teachers engage in speaking and reading and often use some visual illustrations such as pictures, chalk board, models, transparencies, textbooks and other visual or auditory aids. The TCT involves a formal discourse or exposition on a subject matter to attain a stated instructional objective, the teacher does the talking while the learners listen and occasionally take notes (Ukoha and Eneogwe, 1996). Okoro (1999) asserted that in lecture method the teacher or some other knowledgeable person supplies information to the students. Awotua-Efebo (2003) explained that lecture method is a teaching method whereby the teacher transmits information (subject matter, content) verbally to the students. Sometimes, it involves writing on the chalkboard or using instructional materials. The students listen and take notes of facts that are considered important; sometimes the students are allowed to ask questions for clarification.

TCT used chalk and talk method, dictation method and reading method. Iyamu (1996) stated that teaching methods are lecture where teachers dictate learning materials from notes and write then on the chalkboard, for the students to copy and memorize. Iyamu opined that lecture method is a teaching/learning situation in which the teacher plays dominant role in producing and presenting the knowledge for the students to learn passively. This approach according to Iyamu has been condemned by many educators (Uwameiye and Aduwa-Ogiegbean, 2006; Imhanlahimi and Aluede, 1997) as it makes the learners inactive, uncreative, gullible and narrow-minded. In the lecture method, according to Iyamu, the learners do more of listening and note-taking, accepting the teacher as the ultimate source of knowledge and lacking the skill to reason and think beyond what the teacher has taught them. TCT according to Ukoha and Eneogwe (1996) encourages self-study and research; the method is convenient for teaching large member of students at the same time; it is useful to cover a considerable amount of lesson content in a very short time. It is essential for setting out course objectives, providing explanations and analyzing relevant aspect of a course of study, and finally using the lecture method. The learners develop communication skills such as note taking, listening and summary writing. However, Ukoha and Eneogwe noted that lecture method is a further extension of the traditional view point that the teacher is an embodiment of knowledge. It is thus, the responsibility of the teacher to dish out or disseminate the knowledge to the learners who are supposedly ignorant and blank. They maintained that lecture method is one-way communication affair which is autocratic and encourages students' passivity; rote learning and is inappropriate for teaching and encouraging students to think for themselves. Nwachukwu (2001) stated that good teaching always provides for a two-way communication between the teacher and the students and for this reason other methods such as demonstration are more effective than the conventional teaching method in many situations. However, Nwachukwu opined that short talks and verbal explanations are common and necessary in all practical instructions.

In the TCT, the teacher transmits information verbally to the students, sometimes writing on the chalkboard (Awotua-Efebo, 2003). He stated that in the process students listen and take notes of facts and ideas that are considered important, sometimes asking the teacher questions for clarification. Conventional teaching method is used to describe teaching in which a large part of the lesson is occupied by the teacher in exposition and by the students in listening. Adewale (2004) asserted that conventional teaching method provides limited values in promoting behavioural changes. It does not permit active participation of learners and it is largely unsuited to the teaching of skills which requires constant practice. Curzon (1994) reported that conventional teaching method exemplifies the process of "one-way communication". However, TCT could be effectively used when a new topic is being introduced, when presenting important materials, which are not easily available to students and when summarizing important points after a unit of study. For effective teaching to take place, the teacher must consider

his/her communication problem, nature and background of the learners. There must be time for discussion, questioning must be well organized and teaching aids must be used for effective teaching. Curzon (1994) listed the advantages of lecture method to include: (i) assembling scattered information of materials, which are not available in prints or only available in scattered sources; (ii) using the learning technique for a very large number of students at a time; (iii) covering more grounds by the teacher meticulously; (iv) Good organization and planning of the lesson. The teacher is able to demonstrate his/her technique and logical presentation of ideas; (v) controlling learning situation by the teacher to reduce management problems to a minimum; (vi) The lesson is entirely teacher-directed.

Ukadike (2005) stated that one of the criticisms against lecture method is that it spoon-feeds learners. It does not challenge them. The tendency is for the learners to forget most of what is told them by the teacher. So ultimately, the teacher wastes his/her time pouring, as it was meaningless information into the students' minds. Ogunsanya (1994) stated that in spite of the obvious and serious limitations of the conventional method, the popularity of the approach is still being experienced nowadays as a result of the persistent and remarkable expansion in students' enrolment at all levels of the educational system, as well as the acute shortage of classroom accommodations, teaching and learning aids, facilities and equipment. Given this circumstance, therefore, it would appear that the conventional method has the advantage of being able to cope with large classes and foster teaching through the syllabus, though, of course at the expense of much depth. In nutshell, the major characteristics of TCT are: (i) focus is on Instructor; (ii) focus is on language forms and structures (what the instructor knows about the language); (iii) instructor talks and student listens; (iv) students work alone; (v) instructor monitors and corrects every student utterance; (vi) instructor chooses topics; (vii) instructor evaluates student learning; and (viii) classroom is quiet.

Ontological Stance of Teaching-Centred Teaching

The positivist paradigm is based on the ideas of the French philosopher, Auguste Comte (1798-1857). According to the positivists, there is single reality and reality can be measured and known. The key principle of positivism is that only factual knowledge gained through observation, including measurement, is trustworthy. In this teaching, the role of the teacher is to collect data and interpret it in an objective way. The outputs of the students are usually observable, quantifiable and developed using statistical analysis. It has been noted that "as a philosophy, positivism is in accordance with the empiricist view that knowledge stems from human experience. It has an atomistic, ontological view of the world as comprising discrete, observable elements and events that interact in an observable, determined and regular manner" (Collins, 2010 p. 38). Crowther and

Lancaster (2008) argue that, as a general rule, positivist studies usually adopt a deductive approach. The viewpoint of the researcher is independent from the study and the research concentrates on 'facts' to ensure that there is no 'human interest' within the study (Creswell and Poth, 2018). In a nutshell, teaching learning activities framed within a positivist paradigm are based purely on facts and consider the world to be external and objective.

Positivism (also known as logical positivism) holds that the scientific method of teaching is the only way to establish truth and objective reality. The positivists would conclude that, since the scientific method does not yield any tangible results on the nature of witches, then witches do not exist. Positivism is based upon the view that science is the only foundation for true knowledge. It holds that the methods, techniques and procedures used in the natural sciences offer the best framework for investigating the social world. The term positivism was coined by Comte to reflect a strict empirical approach in which claims about knowledge are based directly on experience; it emphasizes facts and the causes of behaviour (Bogdan & Biklen, 2003). Comte sought to distinguish between empirical knowledge and knowledge derived from metaphysics or theology; he proposed that scientific knowledge was more representative of truth than that derived from metaphysical speculation (Schwandt, 2001, p. 199). Positivism typically applies the scientific method to the study of human action. Positivism today is viewed as being objectivist-that is, objects around us have existence and meaning, independent of our consciousness of them (Crotty, 1998). The middle part of the 20th century saw a shift from positivism to post-positivism.

The positivist paradigm of social reality is based on the idea that one can best gain an understanding of human behaviour through observation and reason. Stated differently, only objective, observable facts can be the basis for science. According to the positivist paradigm true knowledge is based on experience of senses and can be obtained by observation and experiment. Positivist thinkers lean strongly on determinism, empiricism, parsimony and generality. Determinism' means that events are caused by other circumstances; and hence, understanding such causal links is necessary for prediction and control. 'Empiricism' means collection of verifiable empirical evidences in support of theories or hypotheses. Knowledge stems from human experience. Furthermore, the teacher is seen as being independent from the teaching and follows a deductive approach. The teacher concentrates on facts rather than human interests, making this approach a deductive one. 'Parsimony' refers to the explanation of the phenomena in the most efficient way possible. 'Generality' is the process of generalising the observation of the particular phenomenon to the world at large.

A positivist approach to knowledge is based on a real and objective interpretation of the data at our disposal. Such knowledge can be transmitted in tangible form-knowledge is

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Part 3

Teacher-centred teaching as banking model of education

Banking Model of Teaching

The business model of education revolves around different processes of facilitating learning or procuring skills, knowledge, beliefs, habits, or values. Education is indeed one of the basic needs of man. There is hardly any chance of earning a living without proper education. When education is run like a business, with a focus on making money and treating education as a product, schools and universities tend to adopt a strict top-down structure. This means that decisions are made by those at the top, and everyone else follows orders. You can see this structure clearly in the way schools and universities are organized, often shown in charts that outline who has the most authority. However, critical pedagogy (a way of thinking that challenges traditional teaching methods) is concerned about how these top-down systems affect teaching and learning. In universities where leaders have all the control, the focus often shifts away from the actual needs of students and teachers. Instead, the main goals become earning more money for the institution and improving its rankings, which can take priority over providing a meaningful education. Another significant feature of the business/banking model is the instrumental approach to knowledge dissemination that is taken from the business and financial sectors of society. This approach is a way of measuring the maximum amount of a business's value by analyzing the relationship between stakeholders in the company. Yet there are problems associated with the instrumentalist approach when applied to the educational system. As American cultural critic Giroux (1988) argues, a major threat facing the teaching profession is the increasing development of instrumental ideologies that emphasize a technocratic approach to university protocol and classroom teaching.

The use of the top - down, technocratic approach to education is reminiscent of Frederick Taylor's idea of scientific management (Kohn, 1999). Taylor, a Progressive Era mechanical engineer, is regarded as the father of scientific management that sought to improve industrial efficiency (Kohn, 1999). The idea of - Taylorism has become the standard for businesses worldwide in improving economic efficiency (Monasta, 2000). According to Taylor's ideological perspective:

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Part 4

Teacher-centred teaching and learning theories

Context of the Study

Learning theories provide a systematic explanation of how knowledge is acquired, retained, and applied, shaping pedagogical approaches that influence curriculum design, instructional strategies, and assessment methods. Historically, pedagogy has evolved through various theoretical perspectives, including behaviorism, cognitivism, constructivism, and socio-cultural theories, each offering distinct insights into learning processes. Behaviorist theories, influenced by scholars such as Skinner and Watson, emphasize observable behavior and reinforcement. Cognitivist approaches, advanced by Piaget and Bruner, focus on mental processes and knowledge construction. Constructivist theories, particularly those of Vygotsky, highlight social interaction and active learning, while socio-cultural perspectives emphasize the role of culture and community in shaping learning experiences. This study is significant in exploring how these theories provide a foundation for learner-centered pedagogy, instructional decision-making, and educational policy development. By analyzing the theoretical underpinnings of pedagogy, it contributes to a deeper understanding of effective teaching strategies, the role of teachers and learners, and the ongoing shift towards student-centered and inclusive education. Furthermore, it offers insights into how learning theories continue to shape contemporary educational practices in response to technological advancements and changing societal needs. Theoretical perspectives on learning serve as the foundation of pedagogy, shaping how educators design instructional strategies, develop curricula, and facilitate student learning. Learning theories provide systematic explanations of how individuals acquire, process, and apply knowledge, influencing teaching methodologies across diverse educational settings (Schunk, 2020). By examining these theories, educators can make informed decisions about how to support learners effectively, foster meaningful engagement, and enhance academic achievement.

Several dominant learning theories have significantly shaped pedagogical practices. These include behaviorism, cognitivism, constructivism, and socio-cultural theories, each offering distinct perspectives on the learning process. Behaviorism, rooted in the works of John B. Watson (1913) and later expanded by Skinner (1953), posits that learning occurs through conditioning, where external stimuli shape behavior. In this view, reinforcement and punishment play key roles in strengthening or weakening responses (Pavlov, 1927). This theory has profoundly influenced pedagogy by

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Part 5

Teacher-centred teaching as positive paradigm

Context of the Study

Positivism, also often referred to as empiricism, foundationalism, instrumentalism, logicism, modernism, objectivism, or scientism, is the orthodox metatheory deployed in natural and social science. In general, positivists do not engage in (allegedly useless and sterile) metatheoretical discussions. Positivists just get on with research, taking for granted the metatheory available (positivism) and ignoring metatheoretical alternatives (postmodernism and critical realism). Positivism builds on several assumptions: An empirical realist ontology, equivalence of explanation and prediction, large-scale deployment of induction and deduction, and universality of closed systems and the conception of causality as cause-effect relations (resulting from presumed ontology and epistemology). Hempel and Oppenheim's (1948) analysis of the essential characteristics of scientific explanations is a fine example of the positivist standpoint in science-one encounters passim therein both explicit and implicit references to positivist postulates on latent assumptions of ubiquity of closed systems and constant conjunctions of events). Commonly associated with experiment and quantitative research, Positivism is considered a form of empiricism, first labeled as a positivism by Auguste Comte in the 19th Century. Philips and Burbules (2000) would suggest that empiricism is one of two forms of fundationalist philosophy (rationalist and empiricist see figure 1) that believe knowledge should be objective and free form bias; that is free from the values and beliefs of the researcher. Positivism is referred to as an umbrella term for a host of philosophical ideas or perspectives which include or overlap with positions such as empiricism, behaviourism and naturalism, etc. In short, positivism embraces any approach which applies scientific method to human affairs (Grix, 2010).

Positivism has been the most dominant paradigm of last century. Inspired by Descartes' famous saying, 'cogito ergo sum,' 'I reflect therefore I am', which epitomizes the 'dualism' concept of mind and matter as separate entities. It comprises theories that view reality as independent of the observer. It also excludes all non-empirical concerns from its preview (Cohen et al. 2007; Grix, 2010). Positivist researchers assume that the world is stable and organized and their job is to measure data, process information and propose

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Chapter 2

Paradigms of teacher-centred teaching

Part 1

Worldview of teacher-centred teaching

Context of the Study

The term Learner-Centred Teaching (LCT) is widely used in educational literature (Trigwell et al., 1994; Kember, 1997; Samuelowicz & Bain, 2001; Gibbs & Coffey, 2004; Akerlind, 2008) and appears in many policy documents. However, a preliminary review of professional literature (Davies, 1997; Houghton, 2007; Mills, 2000) found no clear definition or shared understanding of the term. One common idea is that LCT is different from the traditional 'empty vessel' model, where students simply receive information without actively engaging in learning. Empirical studies also support this idea (Kember, 1997). Since LCT is a key goal in schools, it is important to explore how it is put into practice. Sparrow et al. (2000) mentioned that LCT connects to many ideas, such as self-directed and independent learning, collaboration, hands-on experiences, real-world learning, problem-solving, and constructivist thinking. This means that learner-centered learning can be understood in different ways. It can be a teaching method, like learning through experience or solving problems. It can also be a way of understanding learning, such as the idea that learners build their own knowledge (constructivism). Additionally, it can describe a learning environment, where lessons feel real and relevant to students' lives.

The LCT also known as child-centered learning, puts the learner's needs first instead of focusing on what teachers, administrators, or others in the education system want (Al-Zu'be, 2013). NIED (1999) in Namibia explains that in this approach, teachers plan their lessons based on what learners need, rather than making learners adjust to a fixed teaching plan. Teachers start by finding out what learners already know, what skills they have, and how well they understand the topic (NIED, 1999). They then create activities to assess learners' knowledge before teaching new ideas. According to Al-Zu'be (2013), the LCT makes the teacher a facilitator who supports learning by focusing on the learner's interests, needs, and learning styles. Banning (2010) explains that in this approach, teaching is no longer about simply giving knowledge to learners but about guiding them to take charge of their own learning. To do this effectively, teachers need

to be skilled, confident, and authoritative in the classroom. They should also be compassionate, respect each learner, and use different teaching methods to meet diverse learning needs (Banning, 2010). Banning (2010) also states that this focus on facilitating learning aligns with the humanistic approach, shifting from a lecture-based method to one that empowers learners to understand both theory and skills on their own.

Quinonez (2014) identified two types of LCT: inquiry-based learning and cooperative learning. In inquiry-based learning, learners take an active role in their own learning. Quinonez (2014) describes three ways teachers can support this process: (i) facilitator - the teacher creates an open classroom where they learn alongside students. This approach encourages learners to be more independent, explore new ideas, and engage in hands-on learning; (ii) personal model - The teacher learns with the students, showing them how to explore and experiment with new ideas; and (iii) delegator - the teacher takes a step back and gives students more control over their learning, promoting independence.

Davies (1997) sees independent learning and LCT as closely connected to art and design education. However, he does not clearly define LCT or explain what he means by independent learning. He contrasts LCT with the 'sitting with Nellie' method (p. 2), which refers to the traditional atelier approach in early art schools. In this method, students learned by observing and imitating their teachers, who passed down skills and cultural knowledge through apprenticeship. Davies suggests that LCT focuses on creating learning experiences that encourage deep learning, an idea supported by Biggs (1998). Deep learning, which is based on constructivist views of learning, helps students build knowledge through meaningful engagement. He also refers to Gibbs (1991) to support the idea that deep learning happens when students are actively involved in their learning process, especially through interaction with others (Davies, 1997). However, different interpretations of deep learning exist, and Davies does not make it clear which specific view he follows.

Houghton (2007) argues that LCT is essential in art and design education. He explains that since teachers in this field adapt their instruction to meet each student’s unique knowledge and skill needs. This flexibility reflects the principles of LCT. Similarly, Berghahn (n.d.) describes workshops as learner-centred because students took charge of planning, organizing, advertising, and managing the events (p. 2). Mills (2000) also used a LCT by having students organize their own seminars and reflect on the process. He believed this method helped students become more aware of the politics of learning, participation, power dynamics, and their own empowerment.

Oosthuizen et al. (2003) discuss LCT by referring to Knowles (1993), Beyer (1995), and Wade (1995). They focus on student participation and responsibility to build critical thinking skills and highlight the importance of metacognition in LCT. Likely, Brennan et al. (2009), mainly citing O'Neill and McMahon (2005), explain LCT from a

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About the Book

In the contemporary world, education serves as a fundamental force shaping all dimensions of society, with teaching positioned at its core. Within the domain of pedagogy, three predominant teaching-learning paradigms are recognized: teacher-centered, learner-centered, and transformation-centered pedagogy. A rigorous and systematic assessment of these pedagogical practices is imperative in the present era to advance both educational theory and practice. Acknowledging this critical need, this book has been meticulously developed over an extended period to offer a comprehensive analysis of these practices. The first chapter presents a thorough critique of teacher-centered instruction, systematically examining its foundational principles and implications. This chapter is structured into five distinct sections, encompassing a worldview of teacher-centered pedagogy, the business and banking model of education, relevant learning theories, and an analysis of its positive paradigms. The second chapter delves into learner-centered teaching, offering a structured discourse divided into two key sections: the worldview of learner-centered pedagogy and the theoretical foundations underpinning this approach. The final chapter explores critical pedagogy in depth, providing a thorough assessment of its theoretical and practical dimensions. This chapter includes a worldview of critical pedagogy, an analysis of fundamental critical theories, critical literacy, and other key aspects that define this transformative educational paradigm.

About the Author

Rajendra Kumar Shah, PhD, MED, BCom, earned his bachelor's degree from Shankar Dev Campus and his master's degree from Mahendra Ratna Campus, Tribhuvan University, Nepal. He obtained his Doctorate in Education from Lucknow University, India. Dr. Shah is an Associate Professor at Sanothimi Campus, Tribhuvan University, with an illustrious teaching career spanning over four decades. As a senior member of the university's Education Department, he has gained extensive administrative experience, serving in various capacities, including Member of the Standing Committee, Head of the Department (HOD), Chairman of the Research Management Cell, Chairman of the Thesis Evaluation Committee, and Member of the Subject Committee. He has also contributed his expertise to numerous organizations and institutional committees. A versatile faculty member, Dr. Shah is proficient in teaching a wide range of subjects. In recognition of his contributions to education, he was honored by the Government of Nepal with the Nepal Bidhya Bhusan 'Ka' Padak in 2014 AD.

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