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Oona Haapakorpi

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CHALLENGES OF TEACHING IN ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE
Case: Finnish Cuisine

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Oona Haapakorpi

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Tekijä	*Haapakorpi Oona Isabella* *Merivalkama 12 C 39* *02320 Espoo*
Tilaaja	*Pädagogische Hochschule Tiro* *Christa Meliss* *Pastorstraße 7* *A-6020 Innsbruck*
Ohjaaja	*Lignell Irmeli*
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Tekijä(t)	Haapakorpi, Oona Isabella	**Vuosi** 2009
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TIIVISTELMÄ

Tämän lopputyön lähtökohtana on aiheen ajankohtaisuus. Työn tarkoituksena on analy-
soida opettajien sekä luennoitsijoiden haasteita opetettaessa englanniksi ulkomaalaisille
oppilaille, joille englanti on myös vieraskieli. Tänä päivänä englannin kielestä on tullut
itsestäänselvyys ja tärkeä asia ihmisten jokapäiväisessä elämässä. Tästä syystä työssä
arvioidaan sitä, mikä olisi paras mahdollinen tapa opettaa omaa substanssialuetta eng-
lannin kielellä.

Lopputyön päätarkoitus on selvittää erilaiset viitekehykset, jotka määrittelevät englan-
ninkielisen opetuksen pedagogiset ääriviivat. Työssä selvitetään lisäksi opintosuunni-
telmalle annettava vaikeustaso opetettaessa englanniksi. Kolmanneksi ja tärkeimmäksi
aiheena työssä on henkilökohtaisen opintosuunnitelman teko ns. case-materiaalille
”Finnish Cusine”. Materiaali tullaan esittämään Pädagogische Hochschule Tirolin yli-
opistolle.

Tulokset viittaavat siihen, että englannin kielen leviäminen on aiheuttanut monia muu-
toksia esim. sekä englannin kielen kieliopissa että sanastossa. Tällä hetkellä maailman
laajuisesti englannin kielen opettajista jopa 80 % on kaksikielisiä.

Seuraavan projektin tarkoitus on selvittää miten opiskelijat ovat oppineet ”Finnish Cu-
sine” –case-esimerkissä.

Asiasanat   Englanti kansainvälisenä kielenä**,** kaksikielisyys, toinen kieli, kielikylpy

Sivut   44 s. + liitteet 13 s.

Author(s)	Haapakorpi, Oona Isabella	**Year** 2009
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ABSTRACT

The aim of this study was to analyse challenges of teaching in English as a foreign language to students whose native language is not English. The English language has grown to be a self-evident and important subject in people's everyday life. For that reason, the study is an evaluation as to what would be the most effective way to teach one's own area of expertise in English as foreign language.

One of the project's initial focuses is on the different strategic frames that define the pedagogic guidelines in the foreign teaching environment. Secondly, attention is paid to the curriculum level. The third and most significant level of study is the personal syllabus of the case material "Finnish Cuisine" taught at the Pädagogische Hochschule Tirol, which will also be presented at the university.

This study indicated that the spread of English is going to have a variety of changes, e.g. with English grammar and vocabulary levels. In fact, 80% of 'English teachers' around the world at present are bilingual users of the English language.

The next project is aimed to examine the quality of the students' learning during this case study.

CONTENTS

1. INTRODUCTION

English is one of the most spoken languages today and people around the world are involved in the study of English. Globalization and internationalization have resulted in the situation where English has become the multinational language of the twentieth century. Moreover, it is unlikely that the situation will soon change due to the role that the English language plays in business such as the knowledge-based economy. (Bolton & Kachru 2006.)

At present, we are seeing that multi-national companies worldwide are choosing to have English as their official language. This may create big challenges to employees with regards to communication, translation and giving lectures in English to others. Therefore, many employers nowadays have to be at least bilingual. As a result, being bilingual offers a bridge between cultures. Individuals are able to get wider communication frameworks and a wider range of people with whom to communicate (Baker 2003, pp. 2). Today, more than ever, English has become an international language (EIL).

The English language has grown to be a self-evident and important subject in people's everyday life. For that reason, finding out what would be the most effective way to teach one's own area of expertise in English as one's foreign language has become a point of interest.

The purpose of the project is to examine the pedagogical challenges when teaching in English as a foreign language. This project initially focuses on the different strategic frames that define the pedagogy guidelines in the foreign teaching environment. According to McKay (2002), educators need no longer look to Inner Circle countries to provide target models in pedagogy. Secondly, attention is paid to the curriculum level, and it is examined as to what kinds of directions have been set in the curriculum for pedagogical choices. The third and the most significant level of study is the personal syllabus of the case material taught at the Pädagogische Hochschule Tirol. The focus of the case material is the pedagogical differences of studies through literature on the aspects of theory and practice in situations where we need to think of teaching in English as a second lan-

guage to foreign students. Furthermore, the next project is aimed at examining how the students learnt during this case study.

The case study projects will take place in Austria at the Pedagogische Hochschule Tirol which is located in Innsbruck. The case material selected as the context of this study is "Finnish cuisine", which will be presented at the university. The main aim of this project is to be able to present this case material to students at the Pädagogische Hochschule Tirol.

At the same time the centre of attention is the students' levels of language skills as the main teaching language in Austria is German. Therefore, the syllabus has to be taught to the students in 'simple English'. As in many other cases, employees also have to use 'simple English' when communicating with other employees on a daily basis.

2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

In this section, an introduction as to what learning involves and which have been the most examined areas of research of teaching in English as a second language will be provided. The studies and examples used in the project are mainly from the US, the UK and New Zealand with some further examples from Finland and other parts of the world. The studies have been carried out from the middle of the 1990's to the beginning of 2000. Many of the studies are concerned only with the teaching of a second language and not teaching in English as a second language. This is also a deciding factor as to which curriculum is included in the case material.

Nevertheless, the findings from studies of language immersion examining it as a method of teaching a second language are numerous. Teaching in English as a second language differs from traditional languages courses. In the former case English is a teaching tool whereas in the latter case the language is simply the subject material. The term 'immersing' can also be used to describe the former case because in the learning situation stu-

dents are surrounded by the second language. The situation is also extended outside the class into everyday events in order to 'expose' students to the target language as much as possible. (Language immersion 2009 and Barbara Prashing 2006.)

However, in Europe a committee called the Common European Framework (CEFR) defines common guidelines for the development of language teaching by providing assistance in designing syllabuses and examinations for language courses across Europe. The CEFR also defines common reference levels which describe the requirements for a student to reach a certain learning level in language studies. These requirements help learners to better understand what knowledge and skills they have to develop. The CEFR's essential focus is for multicultural development into lifelong learning, where students are active learners. The aim will be motivation from knowledge and self-confidence that the students are able to communicate with others. (Piironen M. & Timonen L. 2008, 2.) However, CEFR concentrates on a second language (L2) English learner and not on giving specific substance lectures in English as a second language to foreign students. (TELC 2009 and CEFR 2008.)

There are several perspectives to observe the material available such as: language immersion, Second Language Acquisition, English as an international language, and particularly L2 English teaching. In this thesis the main focus is to look at this material from the point of teaching in English as an international language (EIL).

2.1 English as an international language (EIL)

Smiths (1976) defines the term 'international language' (EIL) as a language "*which is used by people of differing nations to communicate with one another*". McKay (2002) argues that international English is the concept of the English language as a worldwide means of communication in several dialects. It is also referred to as: Global English, World English, Common English, or General English. Sometimes, these terms simply refer to the collection of different varieties of English spoken all over the world. McKay

(2002) also says that today there are still more native speakers than non-native speakers of English, but the situation will change in coming years.

According to McKay (2002), the use of English as an EIL has continually spread. She argues that bilingual speakers use English on a daily basis within their own country for cross-cultural communications within their own borders. This spread of English is going to encounter a variety of changes, e.g. with English grammatical and vocabulary levels. This also is going to indicate how English is spoken today and how it will eventually lead to some changes in the way it is spoken. In the future, these are important facts for international lecturers - that there are already bilingual learners around the world who have different dialects. When foreigners speak English with each other, their differences in pronunciation, translation of local phrases and idioms will slowly enter into common use within their own country.

2.1.1 Bilingual users of English

McKay (2002) considers that bilingual users of English are individuals who use English as an L2 alongside one or more other languages they speak. Kachru's model categorizes countries in which English is used to three circles: the Inner Circle (e.g. USA, the UK, Australia 230-380 million people), the Outer Circle (e.g. India, the Philippines, Singapore about 150-300 million people), and the Expanding Circle countries (e.g. China, Japan, Germany 100-1000 million people). According to McKay, the difference between the Outer Circle and Expanding Circle can be explained in how the language has spread to the country in question. On the Outer Circle English is a result of colonisation whereas on the expanding circle it is a result of foreign language learning within the country. However, this distinction is inadequate because sometimes English is used on the Outer Circle in very similar ways to the Inner Circle. (McKay 2002, pp. 10. and TESL-EJ 2009.)

McKay also states that due to the fact that English has spread all over the world, 80% of English language teaching professionals are bilingual users of English. If assumed that English continues to spread, the same bilingual characteristic applies to the users of

English in the coming decades. This creates a problem in meeting the pedagogical needs of such users. To that end, McKay writes that: "*It is important that the native speaker fallacy be challenged. Challenging this fallacy will hopefully lead to a more complete picture of how English is used in many communities around the world.*" (McKay 2002, pp. 41 – 45 and TESL-EJ 2009.)

2.1.2 Things to consider when giving lectures in a foreign language

Today there are more and more bilingual English lectures around the world. Therefore it is important that lecturers consider where they get their material from and how they present it. They need to rework the material to suit their own teaching needs, match it to the level of students and ensure it is fully understood, e.g. PowerPoint slides, as most English material mainly originates in native English speaking countries (the USA, the UK, Australia, etc.).

2.3 Second Language Acquisition (SLA)

The Second Language Acquisition (SLA) studies investigate how people learn their L2 (as it is more commonly known). According to the English Wikipedia, "*the term 'second language' is used to describe the acquisition of any language after the acquisition of the mother tongue.*" Research on the field of SLA is active with a growing number of ongoing research areas. Currently there are more questions than answers. (TESL-EJ 2002, Vol. 5. No. 4)**.** Therefore we have to keep in mind that this research has been conducted for teachers' education programs to prepare future teachers to become second language (ESL) teachers. Nevertheless, there are a lot of similarities among lecturers who are concerned about their ability to acquire L2 skills and students'/audiences' understanding of lectures that are given in L2.

Some studies consider that L2 learners make different kinds of errors. These errors could be a failure in the ability to use grammatical features correctly either due to omis-

sion or overuse. Another observation is that L2 learners tend to gather a collection of phrases and expressions which they apply to their communication in order to enhance their verbal impression. (Ellis 2008, pp. 12.)

Pienemann (1995) asks, "*Why it is important for a 'language teacher' to know about language acquisition?*" According to a research paper, looking at the learner provides vital information on the methods of learning as well as insights on what can and cannot be taught. Normal patterns of acquisition help teachers to map their students' current position in the language acquisition process, which is valuable because according to Pienemann knowing what is learnable at what point in time is also important. (TESL-EJ 2009-2.)

2.3.1 Learning theory in SLA

The dominant learning theory for SLA has been based on behaviourism. Ellis says: "*According to this theory, language learning is like any other kind of learning in that it involves habit formation. Habits are formed when learners respond to stimuli in the environment and then have their response remembered.*" It means that students had to know core answers to questions when they were speaking to their teacher. (Ellis 2008, pp. 31.)

There are several problems with this theory, the main problem being that students are not able to learn most effectively. The same conclusion is reached by using classroom data from a number of students. Based on various sources, the most effective way to give a lecture or to teach would be a combination of methods that teachers/lecturers should try to develop in their classrooms. (TESL-EJ 2002, Vol. 5. No. 4.)

2.4 Language immersion

According to Vesanto, "*there are various descriptions of what immersion teaching actually means. They differ slightly depending on the ages of the students and amount of time being used for teaching in the immersion language.*" Mainly, language immersion is a method of teaching a second language. The origin of the today's immersion program is 1960's Canada where an experimental French immersion program helped children to appreciate and acknowledge the traditions and culture of French-speaking as well as English-speaking Canadians. (Language immersion 2009 and Vesanto 2008.)

In language immersion, teaching methods have to be different from the normal language learning methods. A teacher has to thoroughly understand the student's mother language in order to let them start learning slowly. The teacher's main focus should be to help the students in understanding the language. They have to support them even if they find learning difficult. The teacher should keep speaking in the second language even if the students do not understand what is being said. Therefore, one of the most important techniques of immersion teaching is to visualize and illustrate everything that is being taught. (Lauren 2000, pp. 85-86.)

This is something to consider when a lecturer or teacher gives lessons in English as a foreign language. It is especially so when the goal of the language immersion is to teach young people a new language in order to survive in their own country.

2.4.1 Language immersion in Finland

In Finland there are Swedish-speaking Finns who have been introduced to immersion programs. Swedish is a minority language compared to Finnish, but as there are two official languages in Finland - Finnish and Swedish - both have to be learnt by all students. Therefore, according to the model used in Canada, Finland's immersion language program is also suitable.

Lauren (2000) states that the first Finnish immersion group was founded in Vaasa in 1987 (see e.g. http://lipas.uwasa.fi/kiky-yhd/kikykylpy.html). From the Finnish point of view, Vaasa developed the main didactics for immersion teaching in Finland. Even today, the University of Vaasa is the main institute which resources language immersions in Finland. However, it is important to remember that the use of the Finnish term 'kieli-kylpy' or 'language bath' has been confusing and sometimes has been used incorrectly. (Buss & Mård 2001, pp. 162. and Vesanto 2008.) Nevertheless, Buss & Mård (2000) argue that in the small-scale studies, it has been found that immersion students are more advanced users of English than those who have not participated in language immersion.

3. LEARNING STYLES

3.1 The ways of learning and teaching

Prashing (2006) says that everyone has a unique style of learning, thinking and working. However, very few people learn or work in a way which is best for them. Prashing argues that "*most educators have never thought about the effects on conventional classrooms on students' learning, attitudes, behaviours, and most significantly how they are able to get the best academic achievement*".

Prashing (2006) believes that increased awareness and knowledge about learning styles "*has given us an understanding of the differences in learning needs between analytic (left-brain dominant), reflective learners and holistic (right-brain dominant), impulsive learners*". According to her, the classroom set-up has an effect on how different types of learners respond. She further elaborates: "*Traditional, formal classrooms will affect analytic learners positively but inhibit concentration and the learning potential of holistic learners - in the worst case switch them off from learning for good!*" (Learning conference 2009.)

3.2 Learning Style Analysis (LSA)

With the Learning Style Analysis (LSA), we are able to reveal students' biophysical makeup and conditioned style elements across the six key areas which are found in the Learning Style Pyramid Model (see Appendix 5). The six style elements are: how we process information, which senses we use most, what are our physical needs or environmental preferences, social aspects and attitudes. (Learning conference 2009.)

LSA resources help us to determine students' ideal conditions for learning such as the level of required ambient light, temperature, and background noise level. In addition to environmental conditions, students prefer different senses to intake the information. This preferred sense can, for example, be visual, auditory, tactile or kinaesthetic. This explains, for example, why others find it necessary to nibble something in order to improve the learning process. Apart from giving detailed information about social aspects and learning attitudes, the LSA report helps students to find guidelines on how to learn best. (Prashing B. 2005, pp. 8-9. and Learning conference 2009.)

With the LSA resource, teachers are able to discover each student's learning style. Resources also help teachers to improve the learning environment in order to get better results from students. At the same time it guides teachers to help students concentrate better and learn most successfully. (Creative Learning Centre: Learning Style Analysis.)

3.2.1 Teachers and their everyday practice

Teachers or lecturers have to make a lot of different decisions in their everyday practice. However, research can help teachers in making a decision. A variety of SLA researchers now support the idea that there are some forms to follow. Explanations on why certain forms may be required fall in the following categories:

1. *Salience in the input: If learners notice certain forms or constructions, for whatever reason, for example, frequency or unusualness, they are more likely to acquire them.*

2. *Communicative function or meaningfulness in the output: Even if learners notice a form, or it is pointed out through instruction, without a communicative need, or if language forms fulfil no (unique) function, acquisition may be delayed.*

3. *Natural difficulty of rules: Learners tend to acquire "easier" rules early and may never acquire "hard" rules. The definition of easy has variously included functional and formal complexity, reliability, scope and prototypicality.*

(Doughty & Williams 1998 and TESL-EJ 2009-2.)

4. MOST RECENT KEY FACTS IN CASE STUDY

4.1 How people learn; brain, mind, experiences and school

It is important to know how we learn, as then we are able to provide better lectures/lessons. To get a better understanding of the issue, we first have to define what we mean by learning. The term 'learning' can be described as an attempt to create a memory that lasts (AARP.org). It is also quite obvious that what the students learn does not equal to what is taught, but it helps to explain a few other things. Learning, which occurs when people manage to incorporate new information into their life, is a process which involves helping people and all the things that are needed to make it happen. For example, if a teacher is working with students that lack basic cooking skills, one of the lesson objectives is to make sure that people learn and are able to use these skills. (Bransford, Brown, and Cocking 1999, pp. 1-16. and Learning and Teaching.)

Some criticise current educational debate on constructivism, which is being described merely as a slogan that separates modern and obsolete learning practices (Development of Learning Theories). Furthermore, it does help us to understand in which circumstances people learn and when they do not learn.

Humans can, however, be seen as machines that learn as a result of a complex process (AARP.org). This process involves a hundred billion or more nerve cells which together form the heart of the learning machine - the brain. The brain is ready to transfer our experiences into our internal network from the day we are born.

Fischer and Eden (Learning: From Speculation to Science, 1999) noted that there are also new ideas about ways to facilitate learning and about who is the most capable of learning. These new ideas can have an effect on the quality of people's lives. Throughout the history it has been a common concern among scholars that formal educational environments are better suited for selecting talent rather than developing it. New instructional practices would have been beneficial both for those who had difficulty in school (e.g. dyslexic people) and even for those who did well in traditional educational environments.

According to Wikipedia, learning is a lifelong process which means that we can and should remain open minded for new ideas, decisions, skills or behaviours. Like it or not, lifelong learning continues despite the educational environments around us. But the most suitable environment can be a booster when uploading data to our brains. In this respect, in this case study, the aim is to find the most optimal way to teach in English as a foreign language to foreign students.

4.2 How can we improve learning

This part aims to find an answer to the question of how we can improve our learning. At the same time, the goal is to consider the issues that might hinder the development of our skills and knowledge. We have to remember that people of all ages have the poten-

tial to learn, although some learn faster than others. *"Age may or may not affect a person's speed of learning, and individuals vary in the way they like to learn."* (Edwards 1981, Chapter 9.) Furthermore, learning is the process of different information which facilitates memorisation and understanding of what is to be learnt. (Koli & Silander 2003, pp.10.)

What does improving learning and knowledge development mean for us? Unpacked, this question suggests that our choice of methods will be more appropriate, if we know whom we are going to lecture to, how different their cultural and educational backgrounds are, whether or not their expectations of university teaching and learning are similar to your own, how aware or well-informed they are about their own progress as learners and what helps or hinders their learning. This is something that needs to be considered even when giving lectures in one's own language!

4.2.1 What we mean by teaching and learning

One of the means of understanding 'good' teaching and learning is by use of feedback and evaluation. Koli and Silander (2003) believe that giving feedback and evaluation is an effective means with which to direct the learning process. Having successful and meaningful feedback and evaluation depends on two things: the teacher's ability to step aside from the instructor's role and become a good listener and the student's ability to accept the teacher as somebody who is genuinely interested in finding out what the student's experience of learning was like.

A teacher's 'knowledge of the subject' can be measured by asking students to comment on the teacher's ability to break the subject content into small parts, explain the relationships between the parts and help students see how the parts relate to the whole. Teachers may answer questions for enlargement or clarification, or explain and illustrate aspects of the subject in a variety of ways. All of these things are appropriate to introduce into a conversation or a feedback session with students, but the principal rule remains – listen. Students may have concerns about what your agenda includes, and they are the only ones who can tell you what it is like to be your student. Without this feedback, how

can one improve one's teaching? However, it is important to keep in mind that students are not always right. Most importantly, teachers have to remember that they are in charge of their audiences at all times. (Koli & Silander 2003.)

4.3 The role of culture when giving lectures in English

Language is tightly bound to culture and they walk hand-in-hand (McKay 2002). Language is a means to cherish our culture and express where we are from. It all starts when we are born. (TEFL.)

McKay (2002) indicates that language is a part of culture and plays a very important role in it, i.e. without language, culture would not be possible. On the other hand, Jiang (English Channel 2005) states that culture causes language to evolve over time. Language can be seen as a portrait of people, reflecting their history, culture, values, and ethics. Language and culture interact and understanding of one requires understanding of the other. (McKay 2002, pp. 103-107.)

All cultures are different from one another. In order to learn a foreign language well, the person does not only have to master the linguistic part of the language but needs to also view the world from the same perspective as the native speakers do. It all boils down to ways of utilising the language that does not open up communication by merely understanding the literal meaning of words. (McKay 2002, pp. 103-107. and Wang 1999.)

The English language provides such a rich set of euphemisms that it is sometimes difficult to interpret a person's answer to a question. Consider for example a situation where one person enquires about another person's opinion on an art exhibition. The person might respond: "I found it interesting." This answer can be interpreted either literally or it can be interpreted as a way of saying that the person did not actually appreciate the exhibition. In another example one might ask: "What do you think about my new hairstyle?" and the other answers: "Didn't you use to be a blonde?" In this situation, the person evaded answering the question directly in order to avoid saying unpleasant

things at the other one's face. In general, people use "white lies" or indirect answers to cover an unpleasant truth. More examples can be found in (3WJY) and McKay (2002).

Sometimes one's cultural background leads to situations where communicating parties interpret words and expressions differently. This is particularly true for such a natural thing as humour. Jokes are usually not bound only to a language but to a culture, and for this reason some people might find it difficult to laugh at jokes, for example, in foreign TV talk shows. In other cases people from diverse backgrounds find themselves in a confusing situation due to a misunderstanding. This is further illustrated in the following example (from 3WJY): a conversation between people of different cultures could go like this – a foreigner tells a Chinese man that he has a really pretty wife and he responds: "Where, where?" This puzzles the foreigner and so he responds to the literal words: "Eyes, hair, nose, etc." And now the Chinese man is confused, because in his mind by saying "Where, where?" he was actually thanking the other person.

Teachers need to realise and acknowledge the existence of these language barriers. For this reason, teachers can use material from real life such as audio samples from daily conversations or even home made videos. This material helps students to see and understand how the language is used in normal life situations, which, on the other hand, also helps students to better understand the culture behind the language. (3WJY.)

Englebert (2004) says: "*…to teach a foreign language is also to teach a foreign culture, and it is important to be sensitive to the fact that our students, our colleagues, our administrators, and, if we live abroad, our neighbours, do not share all of our cultural paradigms.*" This means that, according to Leveridge, language teachers entering a different culture must respect their cultural values (TEFL). She further emphasises that language and culture cannot survive without the other, which means that language teaching must also involve cultural aspects. This is an important fact that needs to be considered when giving lectures.

4.4 Teaching methods

Teaching methods must take into account the fact that students may have diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds. The ability to use English in the classroom as well as outside the classroom can prove to be challenging for international students. This is due to many reasons such as lack of confidence or difficulties in following the conversation in general. (*Teaching International and Non-English speaking background (NESB) students in lectures and tutorials, 2 February 2009.*)

Students, or even teachers, with diverse backgrounds have an effect on the policies made regarding language teaching. In practice this means that policies for language teaching must reflect cultural values from the origins of the languages as well as from the society where the teaching is taking place. Language teaching policies that are designed from this perspective help the policy maker to avoid making assumptions about students based on one's own cultural values. In other words, what works in one culture might not work in another culture. (Englebert 2004 and TEFL.)

4.4.1 Strategies for enhancing learning

A webpage from the University of South Australia (UniSA) provides a comprehensive list of strategies that are compiled with special consideration to international student. These strategies help teachers take international students into account as well as provide a tool that the students themselves can use to enhance their studies. The complete list is included in Appendix 6. The following examples are extractions from the attached list.

- *"Speak clearly and face students when addressing them—the more cues to meaning that are available to students, the better is their comprehension.*

- *Use outlines and simple overheads—these provide visual aids to aural comprehension and assist students to build a mental framework for organizing concepts and information. They also assist students to take effective notes.*

- *Distribute lecture notes or outlines—these do not need to be highly detailed, but should set out the scope, intentions and major concepts thus providing a 'road-map' to assist students to navigate and organize new meanings."*

(Teaching International and Non-English speaking background (NESB) students in lectures and tutorials, 2 February 2009)

5. EDUCATION IN FINLAND

According to the Education System of Finland (EDU), Finnish education policy builds around the following key words: quality, efficiency, equity and internationalisation. (EDU.fi 3.2.2009). Whilst education of the work force is important from a business point of view, it also serves a greater good by improving the overall standard of living. EDU lists Finland's current priorities in educational development which concentrate on competitiveness, improving the education system itself and the opportunities provided by it, and deals with the risk of social exclusion.

The compulsory education (comprehensive school) of the Finnish school system starts at age seven and lasts for nine years which cover primary and secondary levels. During these nine years the pupils go to their local schools which serve a free meal on all school days. The mandatory part is followed by voluntary general (3 years) and vocational secondary education (2 – 6 years), and higher education (universities and art academies). The Finnish school system is highly acknowledged and ranked worldwide which is reflected in Finland's consistent high scores in the OECD Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) test. (Education in Finland and LAMK.fi.)

In 2006, Finland was the highest-performing country on the PISA 2006 science scale (PISA 2006). Another measure for a school system's efficiency is the nation's competitiveness which is kept track of by the World Economic Forum. Currently the World Economic Forum ranks Finland sixth in global competitiveness. (World Economic Forum.)

Overall in Finland, 78% of the population between the ages 25 and 64 have completed upper secondary or tertiary education, and 35% have university or other tertiary qualifications. Incidentally, 35% is the highest percentage of all the EU countries. Finnish statistics (2009) also show that in upper secondary schools, over 60% of students study three different languages compared to only 9% of all EU countries' studies. (Statistics Finland 2009.)

5.1 Finnish educational styles

According to Turunen, the basis for the pedagogical thinking in University of Jyväskylä is a student-centred model for guidance. The aim in this model is to look at the learning from the student's point of view. In the university, the model is especially visible in the curriculum of pedagogical studies of the adult educator. In the pedagogical structures emphasis is on providing the students with a learning process that respects and utilises their life experience. (Turunen 2009.)

6. HIGHER EDUCATION IN AUSTRIA

According to the official portal of the Austrian economy abroad, compulsory education in Austria starts at the age of 6 and lasts for nine years. Like Finland, Austria provides an education system where state schools are for the most part free of charge and are accessible by all students. Universities (including Universities of the Arts) and Fachhochschulen (introduced in 1994) are providing higher education in Austria. The Austrian school system also comprises Academies, for example Teacher Training Colleges. (Advantageaustria.org and Two Worlds United.)

The current relationship between the universities and the state was defined in 1993 and is generally known as "the 1993 University Reform". Whilst the universities are authorised to handle internal matters and are responsible for their statutes, they remain state

institutions which are financed by the state. Each institution has a university board called 'Universitätsbeirat', which consists of people of high positions and status. The overall responsibility of the administration of university policy and evaluation measures is held by the University Curatorium. The role of the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture is mainly supervisory but remains responsible for strategic planning and research. (Two Worlds United.)

The Universities Studies Act of 1997 sets the boundaries of university education. It controls which degree programmes are available, and regulates admissions and the award of academic degrees. The Schools of Art and Music were reorganised into Universities of the Arts in 1998. Private universities were made possible in 1999 by the University Accreditation Act, which allows the Accreditation Council to grant such power to private institutions. (Two Worlds United.)

6.1 The dual education system

In Austria, the business community and educational institutions are engaged in wide-ranging co-operation. The education combines theoretical and practical teaching in a way that prepares students for careers requiring apprentice training as well as in higher vocational schools. This combination is called as the dual education system. (ABA Invest in Austria.)

The requirements of the business world shape the content of the curriculum and training courses. Apprentices learn either from the professionals or improve their competence by gaining on-the-job experience. Schools also enable research and development in order to live in a symbiosis with the business community which enables exploitation of bottom line results in a practice-oriented manner. (ABA Invest in Austria.)

6.2 Career-oriented nature of the educational system

In addition to its practice-oriented approach, the Austrian educational system considers specialisation to be a top priority. Students continually have the opportunity to gain a high level of specialised know-how, whether in commercial or technical secondary schools or colleges. In the worldwide ranking of the World Competitiveness Yearbook 2008, Austria is rated among the seven best countries (see Table 1, below) in terms of the quality of its educational system. (ABA Invest in Austria.)

Educated for the economy
10 = Education meets the needs of a competitve economy (Source: World Competitiveness Yearbook 2008)

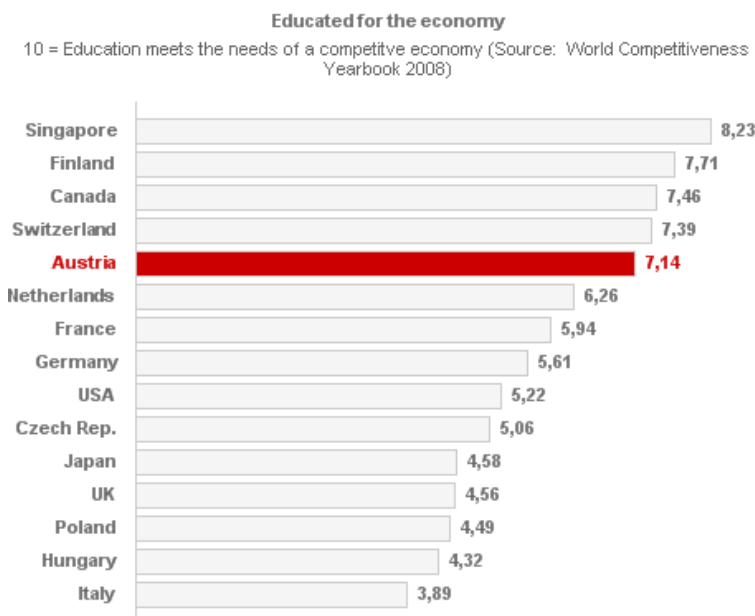| Country	Value
Singapore	8,23
Finland	7,71
Canada	7,46
Switzerland	7,39
Austria	**7,14**
Netherlands	6,26
France	5,94
Germany	5,61
USA	5,22
Czech Rep.	5,06
Japan	4,58
UK	4,56
Poland	4,49
Hungary	4,32
Italy	3,89

TABLE 1 *World Competitiveness Yearbook 2008*

The initial education plays a crucial role in a person's life. However, the importance of 'life-long' learning and further professional development is being acknowledged more and more. According to the information available on the ABA web pages, Austria has the EU's highest level of participation in the category of life-long learning. It also ranks among the top in the global ranking. The Statistical Office of the European Communities shows in a study from 2005 that the number of adults involved in professional training within the EU is the highest in Austria. The figure in Austria is 89% while the average in the EU is 42%. (ABA Invest in Austria.)

7. CASE MATERIAL "FINNISH CUISINE"

This section will introduce the learning material based on the case study 'Finnish Cuisine' which was chosen by the Pädagogische Hochschule Tirol. Based on these studies the research on learning and teaching styles with the lesson plan used will be presented. The following offers more detail about the 'Finnish Cuisine.'

7.1 Learning material

After observing all the relevant material it is necessary to consider the ways that teachers give lectures. After all, everyone has individual learning styles and teachers too have their own teaching styles. It is important to take into consideration the way students learn and process their information: by seeing and hearing, reflecting and acting, analysing and visualising. Therefore, teaching methods must also be very different and should depend on where the lectures are given. For that reason, teachers apply different methods of teaching and rely on various other approaches to learning. This can be seen in such a way that some teachers, for example, demonstrate or lead students to self-discovery, some focus on principles and others on applications. (NCSU.)

In Finland, skills such as self-directedness, assertiveness and problem solving are highly valued by teachers and lecturers. They are both expected and rewarded. In this case study, we also need to consider the students' level of language skills which can make methods and options more challenging.

Finnish teachers mainly use a facilitator model teaching style, which tends to focus on activities. This teaching style underlines student-centered learning. This way of teaching enables learners to have more responsibility and initiative to meet the demands of various learning tasks. In the facilitator model teaching style, teachers design a lot of group activities in order to encourage active learning groups, teamwork and different kinds of problem solving cases. (Teaching Online.)

Another teaching style used in Finland is called delegator. In this style the teacher delegates the responsibility for learning to individuals or groups of students by giving them most of the control. In this teaching method the students have the flexibility of choosing their own methods for complex learning projects and the teacher will simply assume the role of a consultant. (Teaching Online.)

The formal authority teaching style means that the teacher tends to focus on content and is widely used in the central and south of Europe. In contrast to previously described styles, in this style the teacher is mainly in control and provides the content to the students. Student participation can stay on a relative low level and to that end this style is applied by teachers who have a demonstrator or personal model teaching style. The teacher is a role model who first demonstrates skills and processes and then later continues as a coach or a guide for the students who seek ways to further develop and apply these skills and knowledge. (Teaching Online.)

7.1.1 Lesson plan

This lesson plan is not selected as the one and only way to present the material. It is a general overview that highlights the key points of creating a case material lesson plan.

The first task was to give a name to the case study and this was based on what was required for teaching at BH Tirol. The main consideration was the level of language skills of the students and whether they would be able to understand the lectures given. This greatly impacts the success of one's teaching and the students' achievement in their learning.

When writing a lesson plan for cooking, it is important to know what the local standards are as it helps to reach the goals of the lesson. It is also reassuring when students are being taught what their national legislation requires.

Next, there have to be clear and specific objectives (see APPENDIX 1.) An objective has to be clear, concise and measurable so that teachers/lecturers are able to monitor their students' progress and work towards meeting the requirements. In this case material, the objective was to understand the guidelines of Finnish cuisine. After having set out an objective, it is useful to break the session down by writing the step-by-step procedures that will be performed to reach the objective. (see APPENDIX 1.)

Materials and time sections of the lesson plan (see APPENDIX 1) have two functions: they help other teachers quickly determine a) how much preparation time and management will be involved in carrying out this plan and b) what materials, books, equipment, and resources they will need. A complete list of materials needed for this case study has been included.

At the conclusion of the session, it is ideal to have an assessment or some kind of evaluation. Some lesson plans do not necessarily need an assessment, but most should have a form of evaluation to check whether or not the objectives were met. This case study did not use a traditional form of assessment, instead there was a quiz. (see APPENDIX 2.) This quiz allows the teacher/lecturer to estimate students' knowledge of Finnish cuisine. The key in this assessment is to make sure that it specifically measures whether the objectives were met. Thus, there should be a direct correlation between the objectives and the assessments.

Many visual aids were provided during this case study - i.e. a lot of pictures and some tangible objects - this is especially useful for students with learning disabilities and is an additional feature for other students. It can be said that the more senses you can appeal to with your students, the more memory of the learning is secured in their brains.

7.2 Finnish food and culture

Traditional Finnish food consists of quite simple ingredients such as fish, meat and potato, which are served with some vegetables like salad and tomato. Food is lightly spiced and to that end salt and pepper are the most common spices (OAMK). It has also

been said that national cuisines tell us about the local history - in this sense Finland is not an exception. (6d.) Food economy in Finland ever since the beginning of the 20th century was based on storing the ingredients used whenever they were available. Because methods used in food preservation were limited due to facts such as cost and availability of salt, various other methods such as leavening, drying and cold smoking needed to be applied. The ingredients found in Finnish kitchens to this day remind us of the time that has passed. (6d and Mäkelä, Palojoki & Sillanpää 2003, 12-33.)

Across the time Finland has been divided into eastern and western food cultures on which both Sweden and Russia have had an impact. This division was most visible between the Middle Ages and the 19th century and is said to be explained by different oven types. In the western food culture, the oven was used mainly for heating and not for baking, whereas in the eastern food culture the oven was used for both purposes. (Mäkelä, Palojoki & Sillanpää 2003, 12-33.)

7.2.1 Fast food culture in Finland

Sociologists have noted that the good old tradition of family dinners is fast departing. This is especially true for weekday meals. Generally, family members come back from school or work, take what they find in the fridge and eat it in front of the television. Anni-Mari Syväniemi, Executive Director of the Federation of Home Economics Teachers says: "*while the increasing popularity of ready-made food in Finland may be a threat to domestic cooking skills, the food industry is producing traditional items that few of us have the time to prepare from scratch anymore*". (Food from Finland 12.3.2008.)

The hamburger which can be seen as the symbol of fast-food established its position in the Finnish consumers' basic shopping basket in 1993. Although, international food chains such as McDonalds were first introduced to Finland in the late 1970's, and since then other well-known chains have followed selling hamburgers, pizzas and TexMex, too. Pizza itself came to Finland in the late 1960's and is here to stay. You can find a

pizzeria on almost every block, as well as in cafes, service stations or supermarkets. To Finnish people, pizza was easy to adopt, because of the already existing 'Karelian pasties.' (Food from Finland-2).

Finland also has its own specialties which can be seen as a form of fast food. Examples of such fast food are 'Lihapiirakka', which is a pastry filled with meat, rice or jam, and a sausage which you can find grilled at various events such as music festivals. Also, a healthier choice such as a rye bread filled with butter, prepared in the traditional way of cutting the top off and making a hole in the middle can be an example of Finnish fast food. (Food from Finland 2009.)

7.3 What do we eat

According to the Balance Sheet information on the web pages of TIKE, Finnish people ate 76.7 kg of meat per capita in 2008, which is half a kilogram more than in 2007. This is further broken down into: beef 18.2 kg, pork 35.3 kg, and poultry 18.5 kg which also includes game and edible offal. (Tike, Information Centre of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry 10.7.2009.)

The Balance Sheet argues that milk and dairy products have also increased, but that the consumption of whole milk, low-fat milk, sour milk and 'viili' (curdled milk) have less users than before. The total milk consumption was at 137.2 litres per capita, which is 0.4 % lower than in 2007. (Tike, Information Centre of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry 10.7.2009.)

Grain is easy to grow in Finland and is traditionally used a lot in Finnish food. It can be used in drinks, porridges, 'mämmi', and bread. (NetSAFI.) According to the Balance Sheet, Finnish people ate 80.2 kg of grain per capita in 2008, almost half a kilogram more than in 2007.

Finnish people also eat many types of vegetables - the total fresh vegetable consumption was at 56.2 kg per capita in 2008. The consumption of tomatoes increased by 0.6 kg to 11.9 kg in 2007. At the same time figures for fresh vegetables fell by 0.8 kg to 44.3 kg. A light increase, 0.2 kg to the previous year, was measured in the consumption of frozen vegetables, which was 4.4 kg per capita. Fresh and frozen vegetables consumption was at 68.6 kg per capita in 2008, roughly the same as in 2007. (Tike, Information Centre of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry 10.7.2009.)

7.4 Finnish mealtime schedule

Finnish people start the morning with a healthy way of eating. Sometimes they have coffee and *'pulla'* (a sweet bun), or open-face sandwiches of cheese and/or meats and some vegetables, or *'puuro'* porridge. For lunch, at approximately 12.00 noon, the Finns prefer a full meal which consists of meat or fish with potatoes and gravy, and bread with butter. Quite often some salad is included. (Suomalaiset ravitsemussuositukset 2005, pp. 35-39 and Food and Culture Resources.)

Any time after lunch there is a break called 'kahvipöytä' or 'coffee table'. It is a favourite break of the day. It is usually just a simple serving of 'pulla' and cookies, or sometimes open-face sandwiches served with excellent coffee. If guests come to visit, original Finnish *'Voileipäpöytä'* may be served. 'Voileipäpöytä' is the name given to the traditional Finnish 'sandwich table.' (Suomalaiset ravitsemussuositukset 2005, pp. 35-39.)

In the evening, Finns have the second meal of the day which consists of the same basic ingredients as lunch. In contrast to European customs, dinner is often served quite early in the evening (around 6.00 p.m.) and is therefore often followed by coffee and sweets later in the evening. (Food and Culture Resources.)

Overall, most Finnish people have three meals per day: breakfast, lunch and dinner. It is worth noticing that in all primary and secondary schools students are provided with a hot free meal. (Suomalaiset ravitsemussuositukset 2005, pp. 35-39.)

7.4.1 Food culture begins in early childhood

According to Ms Syväniemi, "*food culture begins at home and powerful, lifelong memories linked to taste influence how and what we choose to eat as adults*". Education also plays a key role as does home economics teaching. For that reason, good school lunches provide excellent opportunities to improve our appreciation of food. Schools can take advantage of a menu planning system called 'Healthy School Meals' which provides assistance in meeting VRN (Valtion ravitsemusneuvotelulautakunta 2005) nutritional goals.

One of the most challenging tasks is to design a balanced diet and have a regular meal time schedule. Currently, the Finnish nutrition recommendations are based on the Nordic Nutrition Recommendations 2004. These recommendations are not static but change over time which causes our food culture to gradually transform as well. More information can be found in Suomalaiset ravitsemussuositukset published in 2005 or Ravitsemustieto WSOY published in 2008.

7.5 Some local foods

Game meat is an important part of the Finnish culture and tradition. Hunting goes on all year round, however the season normally starts in August. One of the highly respected game meat is elk. Elk meat has a strong taste of game and is normally prepared the same way as beef, except it takes longer to cook. Perhaps due to this fact, elk meat is rarely served at restaurants. (Finnish food.)

Another delicacy is reindeer that are mainly pastured in northern Finland, usually by native Finns called 'Lappalaiset'. Reindeer as a type of meat is widely known throughout the world. Bear meat, which has a strong and unique flavour, is a delicacy that is considered extremely rare by even the hunters themselves. (Finnish food-2.)

Game meat is the most common traditional food served all over Finland. However, it is important to remember that every region has its own food specialties.

7.5.1 Festival and seasonal dishes

Finnish food depends on the season and the location. Food served during big family celebrations such as Christmas is no exception. It consists of elements such as ham with mustard, or 'Kareilian' style hot pot. The Christmas table additionally includes, for example, a salad called 'rosolli' (which is made with herring, onions, carrots, eggs and pickles), sautéed reindeer with cowberries, and different casseroles. Casseroles are made of rutabaga, potato and carrot. (NetSAFI and Pulli, M. & Virta, M.)

The traditional Easter food is 'mämmi', which is made of rye flour, water, syrup and sugar. 'Mämmi' is brown in colour and is served with cream and sugar. Chocolate eggs are also part of the Finnish Easter celebrations. Donuts with or without jam with a drink called 'sima' are a tradition at 'Vappu' which is celebrated on the 1st of May. 'Sima' is made of lemon, brown sugar, water, and yeast. (Pulli, M. & Virta, M.)

It is also worth pointing out that all throughout the year, Finns eat candy called 'salmiakki,' which is double salted liquorice. 'Karelian' rice pasties that are normally topped with mashed butter and eggs are also enjoyed throughout the year.

As mentioned earlier in this chapter, different Finnish provinces have their own specialties. Food preparation, tastes and styles continue to evolve through mixing with other cultures which can be seen in Finnish cultural food.

7.5.2 Food from Lapland

The influence of Lapland is strong in Finnish cooking. Exotic dishes like salmon, reindeer or willow grouse, followed by golden collared cloudberries for dessert, are part of the Lapp menu on special occasions. According to The Global Gourmet web pages, the fastest growing Finnish food industry segment is the export of reindeer meat. One of our national dishes called 'Poronkäristys' is made from reindeer and translates to sautéed reindeer. Nowadays serving a Lappish dish on their A`la Carte menus is very popular with restaurants all over Finland. (Global Gourmet.)

7.6 Finnish food quality and safety

Today the Finnish people judge quality from diverse perspectives. They presume that food is fresh and safe. The Finnish Food Safety Authority Evira report says that "*there were no significant special situations related to feed and food safety or animal health and welfare in 2008*". (Evira 2009.) The Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry Department of Food and Health also states that "*the control of foodstuffs of animal origin in Finland focuses on food safety and ensuring that the foodstuffs are fit for human consumption*". (Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry 2009.)

The national research areas for Finnish food production according to Husu-Kallio, the Director General of the Finnish Food Safety Authority Evira, are safety, healthiness and technical innovation. She emphasises that the research areas as a whole should be utilised as much as possible and suggests that expertise can be brought together in a form of a Strategic Centre for Science, Technology and Innovation in the field of food and nutrition. (Husu-Kallio 2009 and Sitra.)

An example of Finnish food quality is the fact that the use of pesticides or 'kasvismyrkky' is minimal in Finland. This makes Finland the only country in Europe where

the use of pesticides is at a mere 10% of the allowed maximum. Finland's effort for the cleanliness and purity of our food products is acknowledged abroad. This is indicated by the internationally recognised label 'Produced in Finland' which often serves as a promise of cleanliness. In South Korea, all Finnish food products are labelled as organic food says Jaana Husu-Kallio. (6d.)

7.7 Food research

World-leading development of functional or health-enhancing food is considered to occur in Finland. One of the reasons being is that in the past diet has been functional in Finland. It has even been suggested that Finland can be seen as the 'Silicon Valey' of European functional foods. (Heasman & Mellentin 2001 and Ministry for Foreign Affairs of Finland.)

According to the Savola (4/11/2008), "*Functional foods have not as yet been defined by legislation in Europe. Generally, functional foods are considered to be products which, in addition to their nutritional function, have been scientifically proven to enhance health or prevent illness.*" As a result of either an impact of the traditional Finnish diet or just general dietary, Finnish food science today has health-food as an area of special expertise. (Savola 2008 and Finnish Innovations.)

Internationally recognised functional food products such as Benecol, xylitol and Lactobacillus GG have been developed in Finland. The first flagship of the Finnish functional food is xylitol. Studies of xylitol's improving effects on dental health date back to the early 1970's, and the results have since been confirmed by many studies. (Savola 2008 and Finnish Innovations.)

Benecol (1995) is one of the best known Finnish functional food products. It is "*the first ever commercial food ingredient to utilize the specific effect of plant sterols on cholesterol absorption*". The first commercial food product was margarine with added vegetable sterol. (Savola 2008 and Finnish Innovations.)

The Finnish Ministry of Employment and the Economy (2008) believes that lactose free and gluten free products are new Finnish food products which we are able to export. Lactose free and gluten free products are in great demand in Finland.

Jaana Husu-Kallio emphasises that it is worth noting that "*the EU membership and globalised markets will require that Finnish experts in the field of food and nutrition engage in closer co-operation with each other. Many food innovations need to obtain a decision in Brussels, which in turn requires national campaigns involving companies, scientists and authorities.*" (Husu-Kallio 2009.)

7.7.1 A 'Way of life' disease i.e. diabetes, obesity, cardiovascular diseases

Obesity, insulin resistance, and type-2 diabetes are rapidly increasing in the world as a result of unhealthy habits such as westernised dietary and a lazy lifestyle. There is sufficient evidence that type-2 diabetes can be avoided by changing one's lifestyle - the most common cause of type-2 diabetes is obesity. It can, however, be concluded that the involvement of the dietary factors still remains mostly unknown. (Fosket & Ceserani 2007, ss.208; Suomalaiset ravitsemussuositukset 2005, 8-17 and Norden.)

8. CONCLUSION

It has been said that there is not only one learning style but many. The learning style always depends on the student. Studying in English is both a challenge and an adventure at the same time. (Prashing 2006, pp. 189.) It is at all times an experience which can have a determining impact on the students'/learners' professional life and career. In today's knowledge-based society, there is a strong trend of students who attend international lectures in English in order to improve their knowledge and to gain new experiences and information. Studying in English presents multifarious challenges.

Furthermore, it can be argued that the most effective way to teach one's own area of expertise is to know the learning preferences or styles of students when teaching in their own country. On the other hand, it needs to be said that this does not necessarily mean that a teacher has to change their whole approach to teaching as they know it. One can apply of mixture of both, the student and the teacher orientated ways of teaching. However, it has been argued that as individuals, we all favour specific ways of learning new information. As lecturers/teachers it may appeal to us to hear someone talk about new concepts. Nonetheless, we know that to mix learning practices works better, especially when visual components are involved, for example, when the lecture is supported with slides, charts, images etc.

The evidence suggests that pedagogical challenges in giving lectures are always there. This is the case whether one does it in their native or in a foreign language. It is therefore fortunate that the curriculum for learning is set out by governments to ensure students' qualifications are at the required levels and that this is more or less standard across the board. Nevertheless, perhaps the main challenge when giving lectures in English as a foreign language is to evaluate the level of language skills of the students. In fact, it is also important to know how to simplify the language, without compromising the science or details. This is by no means an easy job, but of course it is also an excellent opportunity for students to prove their adaptability – to themselves and to others.

In the global competition for young people, their future prospects are enhanced by studying in English as the working environment is becoming increasingly international and companies demand intercultural skills and competencies.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1. Learning plan module for lecturers/teachers
Case Module

FINNISH CUISINE

Code:
Extent: 1cr (27 hr)
Timing: 1st period
Language: English
Theme: Finnish Cuisine
Level: General studies
Type: Optional

Prerequisites:
None

Description:
In this lesson, students learn principles of Finnish food culture. The course offers to student's wider understanding of guidelines from Finnish cuisine.

Learning objectives:
Finnish food and culture

After to completing this course

- Students will be able to identify Finnish food and culture
- Students will know what kind of role the fast food culture has in Finland
- Students will be familiar with what Finnish people eat in everyday life
- Students will be able to analyze Finnish mealtime schedule
- Students will know about some local Finnish foods
- Students will be able to tell something about Finnish food quality and safety
- Students will be familiar with terms in Finnish food research

Methods:
- PowerPoint slides
- Quiz
- Discussion

Resources:
- PowerPoint projector, screen & computer
- Flipchart, pens
- Overhead projector and overhead pens
- Quiz
- Handouts

Materials
- Copy lecture slides and Finnish recipes to students
- Showing material "Uusi suomalianen ravinto-opas"

- Laminate packaging etc of Finnish foods
- If possible, provide some Finnish food samples e.g. reindeer

Practice

- Students will discuss in groups the similarities of Austrian and Finnish traditional food and fast food sectors.

Assessment Based On Objectives:

- At the end of class they do a quiz.

Adaptations (For Students with Learning Disabilities):

- Use a lot of pictures

- Provide some samples of food for them to try

Further reading:
- Ilamo T., Jokiniemi K. & Kuisma K. (2007) *Best Kitchen in Town: Finnish Haute Cuisine.*

Timing: 5 hours

- 30 minutes   Introduction
- 15 minutes   Group exercise
-                        PowerPoint slides
- 25-minutes   Coffee break
- PowerPoint slides
- 15 minutes   Quiz Exercise
- 15 minutes   Feedback from quiz exercise
- 20 minutes   Discussion and conclusion
- 10 minutes   Review the main messages and readings

Part 1
- Introduction to module.
  Introduction exercise; "Where they are from?"
  Describe what participants will be getting in form of handouts, etc.
  Encourage participation "As a student orientated way."

Part 2
- This shows the overall content of the Finnish cuisine, history i.e.

Part 3
- This shows the general content of game food and different berries. SHOW some pictures

Part 4

- Finnish Fields, Cereals, Breads and vegetables. SHOW some pictures.

Part 5

- What are Finnish meal times and dietary models? Where health fits in and what it includes. Use the "Uusi suomalinen ravinto-opas" statements from leipä tie-doitus

Part 6

- Festival and seasonal foods

Part 7

- Quality and safety in Finland - use laminated material.

Part 8

- Relevant food resources in Finland, take some e.g. xylitol gum

Part 9

- End by distributing quiz. Give the participants 10 – 15 minutes to write down their answers. Ask participants to put their answers to one side, and the answers will be discussed. Distribute glossary of key definitions.

Part 10

- Summarize the session at the end, reviewing the main points

APPENDIX 2. Learning plan module to students

Module title
FINNISH CUISINE

Module I.D:
Extent: 1cr (27 hr)
Submitted by: Oona Haapakorpi
Email: oona.haapakorpi@gmail.com

Academic year 2009/2010
Semester: 1st period
Language: English
Theme: Finnish Cuisine
Level: General studies
Type: Optional

Prerequisites:
None

Description:
In this lesson, students learn the principles of Finnish food culture. The course offers to student's wider understanding of guidelines from Finnish cuisine.

Goals:
  • To increase students knowledge of Finnish food culture

Learning objectives:
Finnish food and culture

After to completing this course

  • Students will be able to identify Finnish food and culture
  • Students will know what kind of role the fast food culture has in Finland
  • Students will be familiar with what Finnish people eat in everyday life
  • Students will be able to analyze Finnish mealtime schedule
  • Students will be able to identify some Finnish local foods
  • Students will be able to tell something about Finnish food quality and safety
  • Students will be familiar with terms used in Finnish food research

Teaching and learning methods:
Contact lesson, quiz and some workshops done by using DIANA-pattern (*Dialogical Authentic Netlearning Activity).*The lecture(s) is supports by PowerPoint presentations, with handouts.

The teacher with main responsibility for the course
Oona Haapakorpi

E-mail oona.haapakorpi@gmail.com
Telefone +358 50 5907202

Course materials
- Lectures slides
- Finnish recipe material
- ”Uusi suomalianen ravinto-opas”
- Laminate packaging material from Finnish foods products

Practice

- Student will discuss in groups, the similarities between Finnish and Austrian food.

Assessment:

- Quiz at the end of class.

Further reading:
- Ilamo T., Jokiniemi K. & Kuisma K. (2007) *Best Kitchen in Town: Finnish Haute Cuisine.*

APPENDIX 3. Quiz
Finnish cuisine
Quiz

1. Define Finnish culture food.

2. Since when did Finnish students have free meals nationwide?
   a. 1943
   b. 1957
   c. 1948
   d. 1977

3. What is the definition of **XYLITOL**?

4. Why has game food been important for Finnish people for a long time?

5. What are the most famous crops in Finland?

6. How would you define Finnish food quality and safety?

   a. Bad
   b. Good

   AND why you would say that?

7. How many meals Finnish typically eat?
   a. 5 to 6 per day
   b. 3 to 4 per day
   c. 6 to 7 per day

8. Why is Finland considered as being a world leader in food developments?

APPENDIX 4. Quiz answers
Finnish cuisine
Quiz Answers

1. **Define Finnish culture food**.
   - there is no right or wrong answer

2. **Since when Finnish students has had free meals nationwide**; 1948
- See PowerPoint slide 7.

3. **What is the definition of XYLITOL**; Xylitol is the first Finnish functional food ingredient whose health impact has been scientifically proven. Xylitol sprang onto the world notes when the study of effects of xylitol on dental caries published in the early 1970's. The beneficial effects of regular xylitol use on dental health have since been confirmed by many studies.
- See PowerPoint slide 33

4. **Why has game food been important for Finnish people for a long time;** Game has been used in Finnish food for a long time because the first Finnish were hunters and fishermen.
- See PowerPoint slide 12

5. **What are the most famous crops in Finland;** rye, barley and oats.
- See PowerPoint slide 17

6. **How would you define Finnish food quality and safety;**
   - there is no right or wrong answer

7. **How many meals Finnish typically eat;** 5 to 6
- See PowerPoint slide 24

8. **Why is Finland considered as being world leader in food developments;** Finland is considered the world leader in the development of functional or health-enhancing foods. The development of functional food has long been a key area of research and development for many Finnish food enterprises
- See PowerPoint slide 31

APPENDIX 5. The Learning Style Pyramid Model

This information has been included from
http://www.creativelearningcentre.com/learningstyles.asp?page=styles&sub=pyrami
d and also be found in Prashing B. (2006).
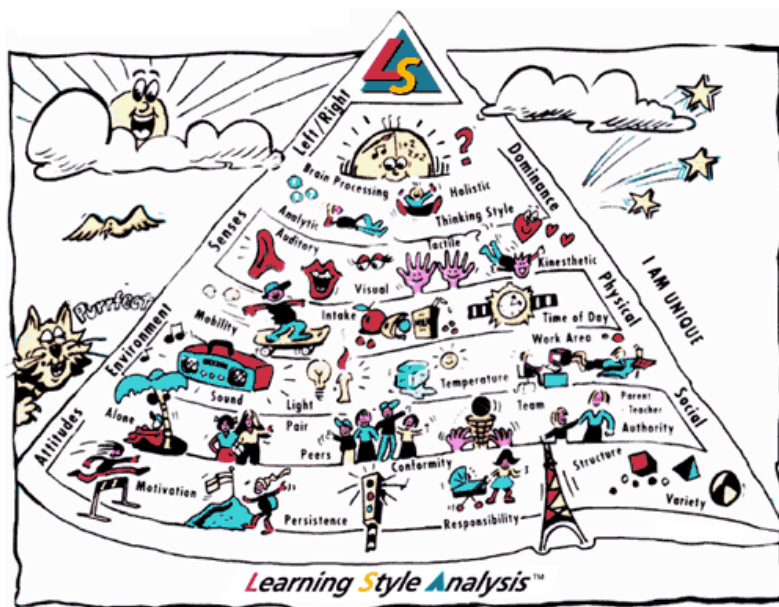
The LSA pyramid (also in Prashing B. 2006, pp. 124)

The LSA assesses 49 (see below) individual elements in the following six areas which are represented as layers of the pyramid. The first four of these layers can be described as biologically/genetically determined and the last two as conditioned or learned:

1. *LEFT/RIGHT BRAIN DOMINANCE:*

   Showing sequential or simultaneous brain processing strategies,
   Reflective *or* ***impulsive*** *thinking styles, and*
   Overall ***analytic*** *or* ***holistic/global*** *learning styles*

2. *SENSORY MODALITIES:*

   Including ***Auditory*** *(hearing, talking, inner dialogue),*
   Visual *(reading, seeing, visualising),*
   Tactile *(manipulating, touching), and*
   Kinesthetic *(doing, feeling) preferences*

3. *PHYSICAL NEEDS:*

*Identifying needs for **Mobility** (preferences for moving or being stationary),*

***Intake** (eating, nibbling, drinking, chewing, etc), and*

***Time of day** preferences (personal bio-rhythm)*

4. ENVIRONMENT:

*Revealing preferences for **Sound** (needing music/sound or wanting it quiet),*

***Light** (needing bright or dim lighting),*

***Temperature** (needing cool or warm), and*

***Work area** (wanting formal or informal/comfortable design)*

5. SOCIAL GROUPINGS:

*Including preferences for working **alone**, in a **pair**, with **peers**, or in a **team**,*
*and **authority** (wanting to learn with a teacher or a parent)*

6. ATTITUDES:

*Showing **Motivation** (internally or externally motivated for learning),*

***Persistence** (high, fluctuating, or low),*

***Conformity** (conforming or non-conforming/rebellious),*

***Structure** (being self-directed or needing directions, guidance from others),*

***Variety** (needing routine or changes/variety)*

(Also in Prashing B. 2006, pp. 124-131.)

APPENDIX 6. UniSA checklist

In lectures

- *Speak clearly and face students when addressing them—the more cues to meaning that are available to students, the better is their comprehension.*

- *Avoid using colloquialisms and abbreviations—idioms and acronyms constitute 'new and unfamiliar vocabulary' that can interfere with comprehension, particularly initially.*

- *Provide glossaries of terms—particularly discipline-specific jargon—before presentations. New vocabulary or familiar terms used in different ways can interfere with comprehension, particularly where an understanding of the new vocabulary is a foundation for subsequent concepts.*

- *Invite students to tape lectures, tutorials or other presentations—Using audio recordings provides students with the opportunity to review and decode information and also to develop their note taking.*

- *Avoid using long convoluted sentences—these may work in written text where the reader can review the sentence several times to decode its meaning. However, this is not an option with spoken language and therefore it is difficult for students to review meaning.*

- *Pause for note-taking – when presenting information orally it is useful not only to signal when a point you are making is particularly important, but also to consciously pause after you have made your point, allowing students time to take notes.*

- *Use outlines and simple overheads—these provide visual aids to aural comprehension and assist students to build a mental framework for organizing concepts and information. They also assist students to take effective notes.*

- *Distribute lecture notes or outlines—these do not need to be highly detailed, but should set out the scope, intentions and major concepts thus providing a 'roadmap' to assist students to navigate and organize new meanings.*

- *Identify essential pre-reading—this gives students the opportunity to familiarize themselves with the topic before the lecture.*

- *Use diagrams and tables to support text—these provide a different organizing framework for ideas and information and can provide 'shortcuts' to understanding.*

- *Present information in highly structured ways both during the study period and within each lecture or series of lectures— you might:*

    o *Provide a skeleton overview of the ground you will cover (an 'advance organizer' for your material). A study period overview will give students a sense of the overall course.*

> o *Make meaningful links between previous and subsequent lectures—a sense of context and relatedness assists comprehension.*

- *Provide extension to lectures in the form of reading lists or other resources that supplement your presentation. However, be explicit about how you expect students to use these.*

In tutorials (and practicals, studio sessions, discussion forums, or practicum settings)

- *Be clear about your expectations for participation—provide students with a handout that sets out clear expectations about how they need to participate and what outcomes are sought from the session. Make time to go through this in the first session and reinforce in future sessions.*

- *Assist students to get to know each other early in the course- students will feel more confident and more able to take risks if they know the group and feel comfortable with them. Simple activities designed to 'break the ice' early in the course can save much time later.*

- *Model appropriate group interaction—introduce yourself and ask all students to introduce themselves. Provide the group with a list, with pronunciation guides and preferred names. Make the effort to learn the names of all students in your tutorial groups – even if you have to get everyone to wear name-tags for the first few sessions. This will help students to learn each others names too.*

- *Make participation a positive experience—ensure that activities encourage, support and reward appropriate participation.*

- *Encourage the group to agree on appropriate guidelines for group interaction— discuss and agree on expectations for appropriate and inclusive listening and responding.*

- *Model appropriate cultural sensitivity—encourage staff and students involved in any group setting to engage, understand and respect differences and similarities among people and cultures.*

- *Pay attention to the developmental nature of learning—provide early and frequent formative feedback to all students on their understanding of the subject matter and in relation to their communication and interpersonal skills.*

- *Schedule the formal presentations of international students after they have seen other student's model good practice – let the skilled, confident students present first – their performance will provide a good model for others, including international students.*

A checklist for auditing your lectures, tutorials and other face to face teaching. This is the international students. A following check list has been developed to assist us to monitor our delivery style.

- *I know what the international profile of my student group is?*

- *I have indicated to students the difference between a lecture and a tutorial and what I expect of students in each, and I communicate that to students at the beginning of each study period.*

- *I provide an outline of the lecture topics, tutorial topics and assessment tasks and their sequence for my course before or during the first lecture.*

- *I structure my presentations clearly and effectively.*

- *I provide a handout outlining the content, structure and the aims of each teaching session.*

- *I use clear and concise visual aids to support my teaching.*

- *I ensure that all students can see my face and hear me clearly whenever I teach.*

- *I slow down when speaking and consciously pause when I have made an important point that requires noting.*

- *I permit/encourage students to tape my lectures.*

- *I routinely introduce myself and require my students to do the same in tutorials and other small group settings.*

- *I model appropriate cultural awareness and interpersonal behaviour with all students, particularly in small group settings.*

- *I provide frequent formative feedback to students early in the study program.*

- *I regularly invite and obtain feedback on my teaching from a representative sample of my students.*

- *I analyse patterns of student assessment completions and results for signs of any particular difficulties for particular groups of students.*

- *I am familiar with the learning resources for students available through Learning and Teaching Unit and refer my students to them.*