**Social Constructivism and Clinical Teaching in a Selected Higher Education Institution in Cavite, Philippines**

Jonathan R. Adanza, RN, PhD

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jadanza@sdca.edu.ph/09158291819

**Abstract--** For the past years in the Philippines, health sciences have been guided by the Competency-Based curriculum that primarily champions the behavioural and cognitive aspects of learning through massive reading of voluminous materials, familiarizing, memorizing, and understanding concepts and honing skills through repetitions, as promoted by demonstrations and return demonstrations. Just recently, the Outcomes-Based Education (OBE) was introduced with the focus on outcomes of students. This advocates learner centeredness , which is a major component of Vygotsky’s Social Constructivism theory. This paper aims to formulate a model of social constructivism in clinical teaching by first assessing to what extent social constructivism has been practiced in clinical teaching and education. With the 358 student-participants recruited selected through cluster sampling and using the descriptive, comparative, design, the following conclusions emerged; participants believe that social constructivism is occasionally useful in clinical teaching; application of social constructivism is not uniform and consistent with all disciplines and programs; practices of social constructivism in clinical teaching are highly observed by students because these manifest in educational environment; and practice or application of social constructivism in clinical teaching promotes positive perceptions about its usefulness in clinical teaching. Students may appreciate social constructivism better if teachers maximize its use in clinical teaching.

**Key words:** Social constructivism; clinical teaching; scaffolding; learner centeredness; social interaction; cooperative learning

Dr. Jonathan Adanza is presently the Research Development Officer of St. Dominic College of Asia in Bacoor City, Cavite, Philippines. He is both a registered nurse and professional teacher. His research interests are nursing science, nursing education, educational management, qualitative research, phenomenology, and environmental science and education.

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**Abstract--** For the past years in the Philippines, health sciences have been guided by the Competency-Based curriculum that primarily champions the behavioural and cognitive aspects of learning through massive reading of voluminous materials, familiarizing, memorizing, and understanding concepts and honing skills through repetitions, as promoted by demonstrations and return demonstrations. Just recently, the Outcomes-Based Education (OBE) was introduced with the focus on outcomes of students. This advocates learner centeredness , which is a major component of Vygotsky’s Social Constructivism theory. This paper aims to formulate a model of social constructivism in clinical teaching by first assessing to what extent social constructivism has been practiced in clinical teaching and education. With the 358 student-participants recruited selected through cluster sampling and using the descriptive, comparative, correlational design, the following conclusions emerged: majority of the students of health science professions have good or average academic performance; social constructivist environment is occasionally observed in major courses of health science professions students (x=2.93, S=.63); students believe that social constructivism is occasionally useful in clinical teaching; application of social constructivism is not uniform and consistent with all disciplines and programs; practices of social constructivism in clinical teaching are highly observed by students because these manifest in the educational environment; and practice or application of social constructivism in clinical teaching promotes positive perceptions about its usefulness in clinical teaching. Students may appreciate social constructivism better if teachers maximize its use in clinical teaching.

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**Introduction**

Clinical teaching is a complex area of education. There are few researches in this field as DeYoung (2009) commented that little of the present clinical teaching is grounded in research but rather is grounded in tradition, common sense, and feasibility. DeYoung continued by saying, “We don’t really know, for example, how many hours of clinical experience are needed for undergraduate nursing education , for graduate education, for orientation of new staff nurses, or for teaching ancillary staff.” There is scarcity of empirical evidence of which model of clinical education yields the best results. DeYoung asserted that it is the complexity of the clinical setting that makes research so difficult. There are so many variables that are difficult to control: “the severity of patient illness, widely varying settings, differences in nursing and educational personnel, variable staffing patterns, and varied student motivation and preparation, to name a few”(p.237). However, she added that it is the same complexity that makes the clinical setting such a rich learning environment.

The Philippine health sciences education is basically anchored on competency-based curriculum that primarily champions the behavioural and cognitive aspects of learning through massive reading of voluminous materials, familiarizing, memorizing, and understanding concepts and honing skills through repetitions, as promoted by demonstrations and return demonstrations. Juxtaposing social constructivism and Philippine health sciences education one could readily discover the supposed irreconcilable differences of the two. The author utilized this theory in one of his classes. He was expecting a very low performance rating because there was a sudden shift of instruction. However, he was wrong because his students liked it and even affirmed how they learned so much from what he did. This motivated the author to do a seminal and in-depth study about social constructivism through this research. Explicitly, the purpose of this research is to formulate a contextual framework of social constructivism in clinical teaching.

This study aimed at exploring and examining the clinical teaching in Philippine health sciences education vis-a-vis social constructivism. Consequently, to what extent is the practice of social constructivism in clinical teaching, as to: (1) Scaffolding, (2) Social interaction and cultural setting, (3) Cooperative learning, and (4) Learner-centered learning. Furthermore, is there a significant difference on the extent of practice and level of usefulness of social constructivism in clinical teaching when grouped according to profile variables? These are the questions that this study addressed.

Constructivism

Broadly speaking, constructivism refers to the view that “knowledge is constructed by individuals through the use of language and other symbolic and cultural systems” (Light, Cox, and Calkins, 2009 citing Bruner, 1996). Olssen (1996) emphasized the major influences of constructivism on present day education. He mentioned that the central tenet of constructivism “can be defined in terms of the proposition that knowledge does exist independently of the subjects who seek it, and in this sense it constitutes a human construction recognizing the active capacity of the cognising subject” (Olssen, 1996, p. 275).

Active Construction of Knowledge

Constructivism emphasizes *active construction of knowledge* by the students(Boyle and Scanlon, 2010). Historically, this argument was a reaction to empiricism and many forms of behaviourist psychology of the 1920’s and 1930’s. It was a “healthy antidote” to those various forms of “grey materialism” including the focus on interpretative structures of science, the theory dependence of observation, and the efficacy of mind in the active quest for knowledge (Olssen, 1996, p.276). Basically those claiming to be “radical”, “social”, “sociohistorical”, “pragmatic”, “Piagetian”, can be traced back to the constructivist movement (Good, Wandersee and St. Julien, 1993, p.74; Olssen, 1996, p. 276).

This active construction of knowledge is a process. For Good and Brophy (1994), this construction process involves “making connections between new information and prior knowledge” (Boyle and Scanlon, 2010, p. 98). Poplin (1988) specifically asserted that this construction of new knowledge comes about through the processes of transformation and self-regulation. Transformation of knowledge occurs when students learn new knowledge or new experiences, and their prior knowledge is then transformed into new knowledge. This construction of new knowledge occurs when students assimilate the new knowledge and not just by simply adding new information.

Contemporary Form of Constructivism

Constructivism was a movement that has its origins in developmental psychology particularly in the work of Jean Piaget and with its modern interpretation and expression in the radical constructivism of von Glasersfeld and others (Olssen, 1996). Radical constructivism believed that all understanding and communication is the interpretation of the experiencing subject. It rejected “metaphysical realism” that views knowledge of the world outside the knowing mind. Putman (1981) advocated this view which was the main contention in epistemology, long before the Kantian philosophy and after the pre-Socratic philosophy. Radical constructivism involved a conviction that truth was always connected to notions of “objective validity” and claimed that “something is true only if it *corresponds* to an independent objective reality” (Olssen, p.277).

Cognitive Constructivism

Cognitive constructivism describes the cognitive processes involved in knowledge construction. These were the theories that adhere to a system of explanations of how learners, as individuals, impose intellectual structure on their worlds (Windschitl, 2002, citing Piaget, 1971). Piaget (1985) defined it as a system of explanations of how learners, as individuals, adapt, and refine knowledge. Windschitl (2002) posited that in cognitive constructivism, “learners actively restructure knowledge in highly individual ways, basing fluid intellectual configurations on existing knowledge, formal instructional experiences, and a host of other influences that mediate understanding” (p. 140). It asserts that meaningful learning is rooted in and indexed by personal experience (Brown, Collins, & Duguid, 1989) and that learners maintain ideas that seem intuitively reasonable to them (Windschitl, 2002).

Social Constructivism

The theory of social constructivism addresses the social nature of learning and comprehending, which includes the importance of meaningfulness for learning (Boyle and Scanlon, 2010; Moll, 2004). It focuses less on the behavioural and cognitive aspects of learning. Lev Vygotsky (1978) the founding father of social constructivism believed in social interaction and that it was an integral part of learning (Powell and Kalina, 2009). Vygotsky (1978) put it, “learning is a social process in which learners interact with others in their environment to learn concepts and skills and gradually internalize them” (cf. Boyle and Scanlon, 2010, p.97). Salandanan (2008) corroborated by contending that learning in this view is the “interaction of prior knowledge and new learning events” (p.113). Learning, as Salandanan posited, is an active process in which the learner continuously revises past learning and “reconstructs” concepts as they interact daily with the environment.

Further, in this type of constructivism, it is argued that knowledge is a cultural product (Vygotsky, 1978, cited by Windschitl, 2002). Furthermore, Vygotsky’s work is based on two key ideas. First, he proposed that the understanding of intellectual development lies within the understanding of the historical and cultural contexts a child is into. Secondly, he argued that development heavily depends on the *sign systems* that individuals grow up with. These systems refer to the symbols that cultures create to help people think, communicate, and solve problems. These symbols are language, writing system, and counting system. In contrast to Piaget, Vygotsky asserted that development is strongly link to input from others. However, he shared the same idea with Piaget that signs and symbols are developed in sequence which is common to all growing and learning children (Slavin, 2006). Development to Vygotsky is preceded by learning and learning involves the acquisition of signs by means of instruction and information from others.

Looking both at cognitive, as espoused by Piaget and social constructivism, as espoused by Vygotsky; one can conclude that they are not that far from each other. Vygotsky himself admitted that his disagreement with Piaget’s theory centers only on one point, *but an important point*. For Piaget, development and instruction are two separate entities. Cognitive ability of a growing child could develop sans instruction and that “the function of instruction is merely to introduce adult ways of thinking that conflicts the child’s own and eventually supplant them” (Vygotsky, 1962, p. 117). Vygotsky continued, saying, “Studying child[‘s] thought apart from the influence of instruction[...] excludes a very important source of change and bars the researcher from posing the question of the interaction of development and instruction peculiar to each age level. Our own approach focuses on this interaction” (p.117).

All of Vygotsky’s research and theories are collectively involved with social constructivism such as, zone of proximal development, cognitive apprenticeship, social interaction, culture and inner speech (Powell and Kalina, 2009 citing Vygotsky, 1962).

Zone of Proximal Development

The Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) has been described as a zone where learning occurs when a child is helped in learning a concept in the classroom (Vygotsky, 1962, as cited in Powell and Kalina, 2009). Vygotsky’s theory implies that “cognitive development and the ability to use thought to control our own actions require first mastering cultural communication systems and then learning to use these systems to regulate our own thought processes”(Slavin, 2006, p. 44). Vygotsky emphasized the sociocultural nature of learning (Vygotsky, 1978; Karpov and Haywood, 1998; Slavin, 2006). Vygotsky believed that learning takes place when children are working within this so-called zone of proximal development.

With this concept that underscores assisting a child in learning, many theorists and educators have proven that Vygotsky’s theory works. Powell and Kalina asserted that children learn easiest inside this zone when others are involved. Slavin (2006) added by underscoring that the tasks within the zone of proximal development are ones that a child cannot yet do alone but could do with the assistance of more competent peers or adults. An example of this is when students have assignment and the teachers are assisting them. Once students achieve the goal of the initial activity, their zone grows and the students can do no more. Students act first on what they can do on their own and then with assistance from the teacher, they learn the new concept based on what they were doing individually.

Social Interaction and Cultural Setting

Social interaction and cultural influence greatly the students and how they learn. Therefore, the teachers should always recognize and respect the diversity of the class. This diversity in the class is more than the ethnic backgrounds of the students. Aside from ethnicity, diversity could also be in the form of identity and biological differences that offer varied experiences and understanding to each student (Woolfolk, 2004).

Powell and Kalina asserted that before the students learn the curriculum in school, they first need to understand themselves and others around them. Furthermore, teachers should allow students to talk about themselves, as well as they talk about the subject matter of the day. Teachers should ensure that students could critically think through the promotion of the dialogue of the material in the class. If the students think critically, they will go out of the classroom with a personal meaning that was constructed on their own. Accordingly, “[t]he idea of discussion is echoed throughout social constructivism and is enriched through diversity” (Powell and Kalina, 2009, p. 245).

Scaffolding

Related to the zone of proximal development is the concept of scaffolding. Scaffolding is a key idea derived from Vygotsky’s notion of social learning (Slavin, 2006; Wood, Bruner, & Ross, 1976). This refers to the assistance provided by more competent peer or adults. Slavin (2006) citing Rosenshine and Meister (1992) noted that scaffolding is the provision of support to a growing child during one’s early stages of learning and then diminishing support and having one take on increasing responsibility as soon as one is able. Powell and Kalina (2009) termed this as an “assisted learning process” that supports the ZPD. A good example of this is when parents teach their children to play a new game or to tie their shoelaces (Rogoff, 2003).

Likewise, when a child learns to count objects alone he or she may miss a number; however, if a teacher holds their finger and points directly to the object with them, counting out loud together, the child can then do the counting correctly by themselves. There is a unique type of internalization that will occur for each student. This happens when a student is asked to perform a task that has some meaning to the student and with assistance, will complete it. The task is difficult for the student to perform but there is a support system which is available for the student to ultimately solve the problem (Powell and Kalina).

Cooperative Learning

According to Vygotsky, cooperative learning is an integral part of creating a deeper understanding. It is part of creating a social constructivist classroom because in this type of learning, students do not only work with teachers one-on-one but also with other students. Students work together to help one another learn (Powell and Kalina, 2009; Slavin, 2006; Slavin, Hurley, and Chamberlain, 2003). All of the learners are within the ZPD, therefore, they provide models for each other of slightly more advanced thinking.

Vygotsky (1978) himself recognized the significance of interaction with peers in motivating the students to think. He explicitly believed that “internalization occurs more effectively when there is social interaction. Woolfolk, 2004, put it by saying: “A common question about knowledge is whether it is constructed internally, depending on a situation in a point of time or generally and some theorists claim that social constructivism and situated learning confirm Vygotsky’s notion that learning is inherently social and embedded in a particular cultural setting.” In this cultural setting teachers can create work experiences for students to collaborate with each other to construct cognitive or individual internalization of knowledge (Powell and Kalina).

Cognitive Apprenticeship

Cognitive apprenticeship is a derivation of Vygotsky’s arguments regarding the social nature of learning and the ZPD (Greeno, Collins, and Resnick, 1996; Harpaz and Lefstein, 2000; Slavin, 2006). This refers to the process that each learner must go through as one gradually acquire the expertise through interaction with an expert, which can either be an adult or an older or more advanced peer. Basically, student teaching is a form of apprenticeship. Teachers transfer this effective model of teaching and learning everyday to their students when one engages them in more complex, learner-centered tasks (Hamman, Berthelot, Saia, and Crowley, 2000; Newmann and Wehlage, 1993; Slavin, 2006). More advanced students help those struggling students.

Communication in Social Constructivism

The concepts discussed above such as the ZPD, scaffolding, social interaction, cultural setting, cooperative learning and cognitive apprenticeship are woven together by the concept of communication. Communication is the key and for it to be most effective, all participants must be on the same common ground, which is referred to as the ZPD. Communication, aside from the context, needs the language, which is considered as the most important aspect in a social constructivist setting (Vygotsky, 1962). Without language, learning, knowledge or thinking will never take place. Kozulin (1990) quoting Vygotsky put it, “it is incorrect to consider language as a correlative of thought; language is a correlative of consciousness. The mode of language correlative to consciousness is meanings. The work of consciousness with meanings leads to the generation of sense, and in the process consciousness acquires a sensible (meaningful) structure” (p.190; cited in Powell and Kalina, p.245).

**Method**

This research utilized the descriptive design, in which validated and tested researcher-made questionnaires was used for the participants to accomplish. The study used the cluster sampling, a type of non-probability sampling in which the population that is composed of teachers and students of health science professions were chosen.

**Results and Discussion**

The retrieval rate of this research is 85%. Further, Table 1 (see Table 1 below) shows that 57% of the participants are female, while these participants mainly ranges from 19 years old and below (64.5%) while those who belong to the age bracket 20-24 account for 32.1%. Moreover, most of them come from the Medical Laboratory Science program that accounts for 24.3% of the entire sample for this study which is 358. Meanwhile, 62% of the participants consider themselves as good (81.25%-87.49%) when it comes to academic performance from the previous year of study.

*On the extent of practice of social constructivism in clinical teaching, as to:*

*Scaffolding.* Overall result (see Table 2.1 below) shows that scaffolding is occasionally observed in clinical teaching (x=2.95, SD=.61). Table 2.1 further exhibits that students are asked to perform a task that has some meaning to the student and with assistance from the teachers (x=2.99, SD=.85); teachers allow students to learn other more knowledgeable, skillful and competent and more advanced peers until they reach a certain level of understanding and skills (x=2.98, SD=.82); teachers do something to assist students to learn new concepts, principles and skills in a subject (x=2.93, SD=.82); and teachers gradually withdraw assistance when the student shows certain knowledge and capability or skills in a subject matter (x=2.90, SD=.79).

*Social Interaction and cultural setting.* It can be gleaned from the results (see Table 2.2) that overall, social interaction and cultural setting is occasionally observed (x=2.94, SD=.63). This implies that teachers do not only recognize cultural diversity (x=2.86, SD=.84) but also respect it (x=2.98, SD=.77); they allow students to talk about themselves as they talk about the subject matter of the day (x=2.96, SD=.83) and ensure that students critically think through the promotion of discussion and dialogue in the class (x=2.96, SD=.80).

*Cooperative Learning.* Results also (see Table 2.3) suggests that cooperative learning can also be observed occasionally (x=2.99, SD=.70). This implies that in the class, teachers allow students to work with other students in achieving objectives as teachers devise plans for the students to interact with each other and with that they think.

*Learner-centered learning.* The institution supports learner-centeredness, as shown by the overall mean of 2.99 out of possible 4 (SD=.71) (see Table 2.4). This is interpreted as occasionally observed or three in four occasions. Advocating learner-centered approach, teachers act as facilitators who provide students the needed opportunities for stimulating dialogues that are meaning-making, thus, ideas are constructed.

*On the level of usefulness of social constructivism in clinical teaching*

*As to Scaffolding.* Occasionally, social constructivism is useful to clinical teaching (x=2.96, SD=.58). As manifestations of this, students were asked to perform a task that has some meaning to them and with assistance from the teachers (x=3.01, SD=.78). Similarly, teachers also allow students to learn through peer mentoring, in which more advanced peers assist their low performing peers in their academic endeavours until they reach a certain level of understanding and competency (x=2.95, SD=.82), as teachers gradually withdraw assistance when the students show certain knowledge and capability or skills in a subject matter (x=2.95, SD=.76). (See Table 3.1)

*As to Social Interaction and Cultural Setting.* Likewise, occasionally, social constructivism is useful to clinical teaching (x=2.96, SD=.58). This means that for the students, it is occasionally useful for teachers to recognize the cultural diversity of the class, specifically, ethnicity (x=2.93, SD=.77), respect cultural diversity (x=3, SD=.77), allow students to talk about themselves as well as they talk about the subject matter of the day (x=3, SD=.79), and ensure that students critically think through the promotion of discussion and dialogue in the class (x=2.93, SD=.83). (See Table 3.2)

*As to Cooperative Learning.* This study (see Table 3.3) also suggests that social constructivism is occasionally useful in clinical teaching (x=3.01, SD=.69). In this context, teachers devise plans for the students to interact with each other with what they think (x=3.02, SD=.79) and allow students to work with other students in achieving a particular objective (x=3, SD=.83).

*As to Learner-Centered Learning.* Nevertheless, similarly, Table 3.4 implies that social constructivism is occasionally useful in clinical teaching (x=3.04, SD=.68). Teachers maximized involvement and engagement of students in their learning and less that of the teacher (x=2.99, SD=.81), as teachers only acted as facilitators (x=3.09, SD=.82).

*On the difference in the extent of observed practice of social constructivism (SCAFFOLDING) in clinical teaching when grouped according to profile variables and academic performance*

Table 4 shows that all the variables in this study have an influence on how scaffolding has been practiced by different programs. Gender (z=3.63, df=356, p=.000), age (F=4.41, df=357, p=.001), discipline/area (F=11.41, df=357, p=.000), and academic performance of students (F=2.89, df=357, p=.022) affect significantly the extent to which scaffolding is practiced in school. For instance, female students believed that scaffolding is, indeed, practiced significantly (x=3.05) than male (x=2.81). Older students also believed that scaffolding is practiced. Other students coming from different disciplines have different perceptions and beliefs about the extent to which scaffolding is practiced. People with different academic performance also believe differently when asked about their experiences of scaffolding.

*On the significant difference in the extent of observed practice of social constructivism (SOCIAL INTERACTION AND CULTURAL SETTING) in clinical teaching when grouped according to profile variables and academic performance*

It is implied in Table 5 that except age (F=2.03, df=356, p=.000), variables such as gender (z=-4.50,df=356,p=.000), discipline/area (F=16.28, df=357, p=.000), and academic performance (F=6.89, df=3.57, p=.000) influence significant differences on the observed practice of social constructivism, as to social interaction and cultural setting, thus, hypothesis is rejected.

*On the significant difference in the extent of observed practice of social constructivism (COOPERATIVE LEARNING) in clinical teaching when grouped according to profile variables and academic performance*

Table 6 demonstrates that age (F=1.45, df=357, p=.21) and academic performance (F=1.50, df=357, p=.20) do not necessarily affect any difference on the level of practiced cooperative learning in clinical teaching. On the contrary, gender (z=-3.73, df=356, p=.00) and discipline/area (F=1.50, df=357, p=.20) yield significant difference.

*On the significant difference in the extent of observed practice of social constructivism (LEARNER CENTEREDNESS) in clinical teaching when grouped according to profile variables and academic performance*

It can be gleaned in Table 7 that observed practice of learner centeredness varies significantly according to profile variables gender (z=-2.98, df=356, p=.003) and discipline/area (F=8.59, df=357, p=.00) unlike in age (F=1.02, df=357, p=.41) and academic performance (F=2.09, df=357, p=.08).

*On the difference in the extent of perceived usefulness of social constructivism (SCAFFOLDING) in clinical teaching when grouped according to profile variables and academic performance*

Table 8 shows that gender (z=-2.28, df=356, p=.02) and discipline/area (F=9.05, df=357, p=.00) results to significant difference on how students perceived the usefulness of scaffolding in clinical teaching, while age (F=.63, df=357, p=.68) and academic performance (F=2.12, df=357, p=.08) do not show difference statistically.

*On the difference in the extent of perceived usefulness of social constructivism (SOCIAL INTERACTION AND CULTURAL SETTING) in clinical teaching when grouped according to profile variables and academic performance*

With the exception of age, gender (z=-3.91, df=356, p=.00), discipline/area (F=7.42, df=357, p=.00), and academic performance (F=2.89, df=357, p=.02) yields significant difference in the extent of perceived usefulness of scaffolding in clinical teaching, thus, null hypothesis is rejected. (see Table 9)

*On the difference in the extent of perceived usefulness of social constructivism (COOPERATIVE LEARNING) in clinical teaching when grouped according to profile variables and academic performance*

Age is not a factor that vary how the participants perceive the usefulness of cooperative learning in clinical teaching but gender (z=-2.69, df=356, p=.007), discipline/area (F=8.88, df=357, p=.00), and academic performance (F=3.47, df=357, p=.009) do promote significant difference. (see Table 10)

*On the difference in the extent of perceived usefulness of social constructivism (LEARNER CENTEREDNESS) in clinical teaching when grouped according to profile variables and academic performance*

Table 13 shows that discipline/area (F=4.93, df=357, p=.00) and academic performance (F=2.48. df=357, p=.04) significantly caused difference on how the participants perceived usefulness of learner centeredness in clinical teaching. Gender and age do not effect into significant differences of perceived usefulness. (see Table 11)

**Conclusion**

This study suggests that:

1. Students believe that social constructivism is occasionally useful in clinical teaching.

2.1 Gender, age, discipline and academic performance affect students observation of the application of scaffolding in clinical teaching.

2.2 Age does not affect students’ observation of the practice of social interaction in clinical teaching but gender, discipline and academic performance do.

2.3 Gender and discipline do affect of how students observe the practice of cooperative learning and learner centeredness but age and academic performance do not.

2.4 Gender and discipline do affect how students perceive scaffolding as useful in clinical teaching although age and academic performance do not.

2.5 Gender, discipline and academic performance influence how students perceive social interaction and cultural setting and cooperative learning useful in clinical teaching.

2.6 Discipline/area and academic performance affect how students perceive learner centeredness useful in clinical teaching. Age and gender are not significant factors in their perception about the use of learner centeredness clinical teaching.

3. Practices of social constructivism in clinical teaching are highly observed by students because these manifest in the educational environment. The more that a teacher practices social constructivism, the more that it promotes observable manifestations of a social constructivist environment.

4. Likewise, practice or application of social constructivism in clinical teaching promotes positive perceptions about its usefulness in clinical teaching. Students may appreciate social constructivism better if teachers maximize its use in clinical teaching.

**Recommendations**

The following are recommended:

1. Regular curriculum review and evaluation can be done to determine ways to improve students’ academic performance.

2. Fully integrate scaffolding, social interaction and cultural setting, cooperative learning, and learner-centeredness across the curricula of health sciences programs.

3. Religiously monitor the implementation of social constructivism, focusing on how the students accept it and their academic performance.

4. After integration and implementation, conduct an evaluation and comparative researches about the impact of social constructivism to each program’s curriculum.

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**List of Tables**

**Table 1.** Summary of Demographic Profile and Academic Performance (n=358)

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Demographs** | **Frequency** | **Percentage** |
| **Gender** | | |
| Male | 154 | 43 |
| Female | 204 | 57 |
| **Age** | | |
| 19 and below | 231 | 64.5 |
| 20-24 | 115 | 32.1 |
| 25-29 | 4 | 1.1 |
| 30-34 | 4 | 1.1 |
| 35-39 | 3 | 0.9 |
| 40-44 | 1 | 0.3 |
| 45-49 | 0 | 0 |
| 50-54 | 0 | 0 |
| 55 and above | 0 | 0 |
| Discipline | | |
| Nursing | 80 | 22.3 |
| Pharmacy | 68 | 19 |
| Physical Therapy | 54 | 15.1 |
| RT | 63 | 17.6 |
| Medtech | 87 | 24.3 |
| Biology / Predentistry | 6 | 1.7 |
| Academic Performance | | |
| Poor (Below 75) | 35 | 9.8 |
| Fair (75-80.24) | 65 | 18.2 |
| Good (81.25-87.49) | 222 | 62 |
| Very Good (87.50-93.74) | 33 | 9.2 |
| Excellent (93.75-100) | 3 | 0.8 |

**Table 2.1** Extent of Observed Scaffolding

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Indicators** | **Mean** | **S** | **Verbal Interpretation** |
| 1.Teachers do something to assist students to learn new concepts, principles and skills in a subject. | 2.93 | .82 | Occasionally observed |
| 2.Teachers gradually withdraw assistance when the student shows certain knowledge and capability or skills in a subject matter. | 2.90 | .79 | Occasionally observed |
| 3. Teachers allow students to learn from other more knowledgeable, skillful, and competent and more advanced peers until they reach a certain level of understanding and skills. | 2.98 | .82 | Occasionally observed |
| 4. Students are asked to perform a task that has some meaning to the student and with assistance from the teachers. | 2.99 | .85 | Occasionally observed |
| **Overall** | **2.95** | **.61** | **Occasionally observed** |

**Table 2.2** Extent of Observed Social Interaction and cultural setting

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Indicators** | **Mean** | **S** | **Verbal Interpretation** |
| 1. Teachers recognize the cultural diversity of the class specifically ethnicity, | 2.86 | .84 | Occasionally observed |
| 2. Teachers respect cultural diversity of the class particularly ethnicity. | 2.98 | .77 | Occasionally observed |
| 3. Teachers allow students to talk about themselves as well as they talk about the subject matter of the day. | 2.96 | .83 | Occasionally observed |
| 4. Teachers ensure that students critically think through the promotion of the discussion and dialogue in the class. | 2.96 | .80 | Occasionally observed |
| Overall | 2.94 | .63 | Occasionally observed |

**Table 2.3** Extent of Observed Cooperative Learning

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Indicators** | **Mean** | **S** | **Verbal Interpretation** |
| 1. Teachers devise plans for the students to interact with each other with what they think. | 2.99 | .79 | Occasionally observed |
| 2. In the class, teachers allow students to work with other students in achieving a particular objective. | 3 | .85 | Occasionally observed |
| Overall | 2.99 | .70 | Occasionally observed |

**Table 2.4** Extent of Observed Learner-Centered Learning

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Indicators** | **Mean** | **S** | **Verbal Interpretation** |
| 1. Activities in the class mostly engage the students themselves and less of the teacher. | 3.03 | .82 | Occasionally observed |
| 2. Teachers act as facilitators providing opportunities for a stimulating dialogue so that meaning could evolve and be constructed. | 2.94 | .85 | Occasionally observed |
| Overall | 2.99 | .71 | Occasionally observed |

**Table 3.1** Level of Usefulness of Social Constructivism in Clinical Teaching as to Scaffolding

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Indicators** | **Mean** | **S** | **Verbal Interpretation** |
| 1.Teachers do something to assist students to learn new concepts, principles and skills in a subject. | 2.91 | .81 | Occasionally useful in clinical teaching |
| 2.Teachers gradually withdraw assistance when the student shows certain knowledge and capability or skills in a subject matter. | 2.95 | .76 | Occasionally useful in clinical teaching |
| 3. Teachers allow students to learn from other more knowledgeable, skillful, and competent and more advanced peers until they reach a certain level of understanding and skills. | 2.95 | .82 | Occasionally useful in clinical teaching |
| 4.Students are asked to perform a task that has some meaning to the student and with assistance from the teachers. | 3.01 | .78 | Occasionally useful in clinical teaching |
| Overall | 2.96 | .58 | Occasionally useful in clinical teaching |

**Table 3.2** Level of Usefulness of Social Constructivism in Clinical Teaching as to Social interaction and Cultural Setting,

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Indicators** | **Mean** | **S** | **Verbal Interpretation** |
| 1. Teachers recognize the cultural diversity of the class specifically ethnicity. | 2.93 | .77 | Occasionally useful in clinical teaching |
| 2. Teachers respect cultural diversity of the class particularly ethnicity. | 3 | .77 | Occasionally useful in clinical teaching |
| 3. Teachers allow students to talk about themselves as well as they talk about the subject matter of the day. | 3 | .79 | Occasionally useful in clinical teaching |
| 4. Teachers ensure that students critically think through the promotion of the discussion and dialogue in the class. | 2.93 | .83 | Occasionally useful in clinical teaching |
| Overall | 2.96 | .58 | Occasionally useful in clinical teaching |

**Table 3.3** Level of Usefulness of Social Constructivism in Clinical Teaching as to Cooperative learning

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Indicators** | **Mean** | **S** | **Verbal Interpretation** |
| 1. Teachers devise plans for the students to interact with each other with what they think. | 3.02 | .79 | Occasionally useful in clinical teaching |
| 2. In the class, teachers allow students to work with other students in achieving a particular objective. | 3 | .83 | Occasionally useful in clinical teaching |
| Overall | 3.01 | .69 | Occasionally useful in clinical teaching |

**Table 3.4** Level of Usefulness of Social Constructivism in Clinical Teaching as to Learner-Centered learning

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Indicators** | **Mean** | **S** | **Verbal Interpretation** |
| 1. Activities in the class mostly engage the students themselves and less of the teacher. | 2.99 | .81 | Occasionally useful in clinical teaching |
| 2. Teachers act as facilitators providing opportunities for a stimulating dialogue so that meaning could evolve and be constructed. | 3.09 | .82 | Occasionally useful in clinical teaching |
| Overall | 3.04 | .68 | Occasionally useful in clinical teaching |

**Table 4.** Difference of Practiced Scaffolding when Grouped According to Profile Variables and academic performance

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Profile Variables** | **Z/F – Value** | **Df** | **p-value** | **Verbal Interpretation** | **Decision** |
| Gender  (Mean-M:2.81, F:3.05) | -3.63 | 356 | .000 | S | Reject Null Hypothesis |
| Age | 4.41 | 357 | .001 | S | Reject Null Hypothesis |
| Discipline/Area | 11.41 | 357 | .000 | S | Reject Null Hypothesis |
| Academic Performance | 2.89 | 357 | .022 | S | Reject Null Hypothesis |

**Table 5**. Difference of Observed Practice Social Interaction and Cultural Setting when Grouped According to Profile Variables and Academic Performance

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Profile Variables** | **Z/F – Value** | **Df** | **p-value** | **Verbal Interpretation** | **Decision** |
| Gender | -4.50 | 356 | .000 | S | Reject Null Hypothesis |
| Age | 2.03 | 357 | .074 | NS | Retain Null Hypothesis |
| Discipline/Area | 16.28 | 357 | .000 | S | Reject Null Hypothesis |
| Academic Performance | 6.89 | 357 | .000 | S | Reject Null Hypothesis |

**Table 6.** Difference in the Observed Practice of Cooperative Learning when Grouped According to Profile Variables and Academic Performance

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Profile Variables** | **Z/F – Value** | **Df** | **p-value** | **Verbal Interpretation** | **Decision** |
| Gender | -3.73 | 356 | .000 | S | Reject Null Hypothesis |
| Age | 1.45 | 357 | .207 | NS | Retain Null Hypothesis |
| Discipline/Area | 7.37 | 357 | .000 | S | Reject Null Hypothesis |
| Academic Performance | 1.50 | 357 | .202 | NS | Retain Null Hypothesis |

**Table 7.** Difference in the Observed Practice of Learner Centeredness when Grouped According to Profile Variables and Academic Performance

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Profile Variables** | **Z/F – Value** | **Df** | **p-value** | **Verbal Interpretation** | **Decision** |
| Gender | -2.98 | 356 | .003 | S | Reject Null Hypothesis |
| Age | 1.02 | 357 | .405 | NS | Retain Null Hypothesis |
| Discipline/Area | 8.59 | 357 | .000 | S | Reject Null Hypothesis |
| Academic Performance | 2.09 | 357 | .082 | NS | Retain Null Hypothesis |

**Table 8.** Difference in the Extent of Perceived Usefulness of Scaffolding in Clinical Teaching

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Profile Variables** | **Z/F – Value** | **Df** | **p-value** | **Verbal Interpretation** | **Decision** |
| Gender | -2.28 | 356 | .023 | S | Reject Null Hypothesis |
| Age | .631 | 357 | .676 | NS | Retain Null Hypothesis |
| Discipline/Area | 9.05 | 357 | .000 | S | Reject Null Hypothesis |
| Academic Performance | 2.12 | 357 | .078 | NS | Retain Null Hypothesis |

Table 9. Difference in the Extent of Perceived Usefulness of Social Interaction and Cultural Setting in Clinical Teaching

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Profile Variables** | **Z/F – Value** | **Df** | **p-value** | **Verbal Interpretation** | **Decision** |
| Gender | -3.91 | 356 | .000 | S | Reject Null Hypothesis |
| Age | 1.65 | 357 | .146 | NS | Retain Null Hypothesis |
| Discipline/Area | 7.42 | 357 | .000 | S | Reject Null Hypothesis |
| Academic Performance | 2.89 | 357 | .022 | S | Retain Null Hypothesis |

**Table 10.** Difference in the Extent of Perceived Usefulness of Cooperative Learning in Clinical Teaching

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Profile Variables** | **Z/F – Value** | **Df** | **p-value** | **Verbal Interpretation** | **Decision** |
| Gender | -2.69 | 356 | .007 | S | Reject Null Hypothesis |
| Age | .862 | 357 | .507 | NS | Retain Null Hypothesis |
| Discipline/Area | 8.88 | 357 | .000 | S | Reject Null Hypothesis |
| Academic Performance | 3.47 | 357 | .009 | S | Retain Null Hypothesis |

**Table 11**. Difference in the Extent of Perceived Usefulness of Learner Centeredness in Clinical Teaching

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Profile Variables** | **Z/F – Value** | **Df** | **p-value** | **Verbal Interpretation** | **Decision** |
| Gender | -1.92 | 356 | .056 | NS | Retain Null Hypothesis |
| Age | .957 | 357 | .444 | NS | Retain Null Hypothesis |
| Discipline/Area | 4.93 | 357 | .000 | S | Reject Null Hypothesis |
| Academic Performance | 2.48 | 357 | .044 | S | Retain Null Hypothesis |