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**Critical mathematics education and climate change**  
**A teaching and research partnership in lower-secondary school**

Thesis for the degree *Philosophiae Doctor* (PhD) at the  
Western Norway University of Applied Sciences

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## **Scientific environment**

This study was conducted at Western Norway University of Applied Sciences, Faculty of Education, Arts and Sports, and Department of Language, Literature, Mathematics and Interpreting.

### **Research programme:**

The study takes place within the Bildung and Pedagogical Practices PhD programme at Western Norway University of Applied Sciences. I have also participated in the Western Norway Graduate School of Educational Research research programme II WNGER II.

### **Research group:**

The study is associated with the research group Lived Democracy at HVL, where Kjellrun Hiis Hauge was the previous research group leader and Suela Kacerja the current one. My research is directly affiliated with the project: “Lived democracy – Classroom engagement on environmental issues and development of critical mathematical competence.”

### **Other scientific environments:**

During my PhD research, educational conferences have provided meeting places and communities, as well as courses and lectures. These include, for example, MES, PME, AERA, BERA, ICME, ICTMA, JURE/EARLI, NOMUS, and Erasmus.

In addition, the scientific environment introduced by supervisors, colleagues (e.g. seminar series from the research group LATACME at HVL) and co-authors, even in research articles not included in the thesis (Suela Kacerja, Ragnhild Hansen, Peter Gøtze, Yasmin Abtahi, Richard Barwell), has contributed to expanding my perspectives.

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Being born in Norway has provided me with privileges such as comprehensive welfare, free education, gender equality, little poverty, peace, a working democracy, and lastly, the opportunity to conduct this PhD research. These privileges I value immensely.

## Preface

My journey towards this PhD study started way before my date of employment, and my interpretations can be seen in the light of this journey. My educational background constitutes different strings, and looking back, they partly come together in this study. One degree in environmental technology and another in mathematics education come together in the topic of this study: critical mathematics education in the context of climate change.

The culture at my educational institution, partly inspired by the ideas of Stieg Melin-Olsen, has influenced my perspectives: First as a teacher-student, then as a teacher-educator, and now as a participant in the PhD programme. Another significant contribution in my journey towards this PhD-study came during a research project I attended as a student, led by Marit Johnsen-Høines. Here the focus was on investigative dialogical approaches to mathematics education, real-life education, critical mathematical competencies, empowerment and critique, all of which are relevant and could be used as keywords for this study.

As a former mathematics (and science) teacher in lower secondary school, and as a mathematics teacher educator, it is a concern of mine that mathematics education should matter to the students, engage them, and potentially lead to engagement in society. I have always been interested in the socio-political aspects of mathematics, and the choice of climate change as a context is deliberate. The interest concerns the mathematical and scientific-related nature of this topic, but indeed also the social and political aspects. I regard it as vital to prepare students for dealing with complex real-life problems and enable them to be critical citizens in society.

I want to end this preface by quoting one of the students from my empirical study. The first time I spoke to her, she said to me, in a straightforward and somewhat condemning tone: “It’s about time you are here!” I was caught off guard at first and did not know what she meant. When talking to her, it became clear that she considered climate change as an unprioritised topic in school. Although this student did not express anything about the role of mathematics education, this comment has stuck with me throughout this PhD-study. I agree. I do think it is time. Time for mathematics educators to engage in socio-political issues such as climate change and enable students to be critical citizens in a lived democracy.

## Abstract

**Keywords:** Critical mathematics education, critical mathematical competencies, teachers, students, the formatting power of mathematics, climate change, real-world problems, controversies, values, dialogues, critical citizens and lived democracy.

This study took place at Western Norway University of Applied Sciences. The research question is: *How can teachers facilitate students' critical mathematical competencies in a climate change context?* To enable students to act as critical citizens and empower them for a lived democracy is a crucial task for education. From a critical mathematics perspective, students can become aware of mathematics' role in shaping society. They can be capable of critiquing the use of mathematics and applying mathematical competencies to empower themselves both personally and for the greater good of society.

The question contains four research focuses that are addressed in four individual papers. Research focus no. 1 identifies and critically reflects on concepts and perspectives emphasised as important in the literature of two fields – critical mathematics education and post-normal science – and is addressed in a literature overview (paper I). Research focuses 2, 3, and 4 involve a research partnership (papers II, III, and IV) with three teachers and their four classes in lower-secondary school. For about a year, 42 classroom lessons were designed by the teachers to develop students' critical mathematical competencies in a climate change context. Research focus no. 2 involves how teachers' values can influence their teaching by investigating their facilitation and reflections of value-aspect with respect to climate change and school mathematics. Research focus no. 3 identifies the potential for facilitating students' awareness and understanding of the formatting power of mathematics. Lastly, research focus no. 4 identifies how students' critical mathematical competencies can appear in their argumentation. This study has, therefore, a perspective on students' critical mathematical competencies and how teachers facilitate them.

The findings from the four papers are structured and discussed in six themes. In the first theme, *lived democracy and critical citizens*, I discuss how the teachers connect climate change, students' critical mathematical competencies, and democracy. They emphasise critical competencies as a crucial skill for students and treat the students

as critical citizens by engaging them in discussion and debates. In the second theme, *the mathematical formatting of climate change*, I identified, amongst others, how the teachers express it as vital that students identify, understand and reflect on how mathematics can influence how we perceive climate change issues. I also discussed how teachers deliberate or un-deliberate that choices of graphs, numbers or topics can influence students or others.

In the third theme, *critique and critical reflections*, I identify how the teachers facilitate students' critical reflections regarding mathematics-based argumentation in complex scientific issues. In addition, I explore how they prepare them to deal with uncertainties, consider implications of graphs, and include their critical agency in taking justified standpoints. In the fourth theme, *mathematical literacy and kinds of knowing*, I discuss students' intertwined mathematical, technological, and reflective knowing. Examples of how students sometimes struggle to move beyond the mathematical borders of a task are contrasted with how they use their everyday knowledge and relate the task to the real-world. The students' mathematical literacy is discussed in relation to local and global climate change concerns and 21<sup>st</sup>-century skills.

In the fifth theme, *controversies and values*, I identify how the teachers emphasise the controversies in climate change issues to deliberately create debate and reflections, instead of avoiding the controversies. In the sixth theme, *student-centred and dialogic learning*, I discuss six aspects characterising the learning environment in the research partnership, for instance, student-centred approaches, types of understanding, and the content and qualities of dialogues.

These six themes are relevant when teachers facilitate students' critical mathematics competencies in a climate change context. They are neither exhaustive nor exclusive but can provide a foundation for teachers and researchers who consider including complex real-life problems in the mathematics classroom and aim at developing students as critical citizens in a lived democracy.

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# List of publications included in the PhD thesis

## **Paper I:**

Steffensen, L. (2017). Critical Mathematics Education and Post-Normal Science: A literature overview. *Philosophy of mathematics education journal*, 32.

## **Paper II:**

Steffensen, L., Herheim, R., & Rangnes, T. E. (in press). Wicked problems and critical judgment in school mathematics. In N. S. Kennedy & E. Marsal (Eds.), *Dialogical Inquiry in Mathematics Teaching and Learning: A Philosophical Approach*. Berlin: LIT Verlag.

## **Paper III:**

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## **Paper IV:**

Steffensen, L. (2020). Climate change and Students' critical competencies: A Norwegian study. In J. Anderson & Y. Li (Eds.), *Integrated Approaches to STEM Education: An International Perspective*. Switzerland: Springer publishing.

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# 1 Introduction

Mathematics influences our lives in numerous ways, from small everyday tasks to urgent global challenges, and it is vital to enable students with the necessary mathematical competencies to deal with these challenges. That being said, what kind of competencies are required, and how can these be facilitated? Before starting this PhD-study, I was interested in how mathematics education could be meaningful in a student's life and become something more than school knowledge. I pondered how mathematical competencies could empower students to make a difference for themselves and society. To be an engaged and active citizen can involve taking a standpoint, being reflective and critical, or potentially taking action, for instance, by adjusting a way of life. I was thus interested in how mathematics education could encourage students to be critical citizens that engage in meaningful contexts for themselves and a lived democracy.

Recently, students world-wide have engaged in school strikes demanding action on climate change by governments, decision-makers, private companies, and others (Kohli, 2019; Marris, 2019; Wearden & Carrington, 2019). Climate change is an urgent socio-political issue (United Nations, 2020) and can be regarded as one such meaningful context. Climate change involves complexity, uncertainty, knowledge from several disciplines, and ethical questions. Barwell (2013) emphasises that the issues of climate change requires other forms of citizen participation, partly inspired by the ideas from post-normal science. Post-normal science was developed by Funtowicz and Ravetz (1993, 2003) and provides insights into how urgent and complex societal problems can be addressed when knowledge is uncertain and values are conflicting. An essential aspect of post-normal science is that scientific knowledge is not sufficient to provide answers to complex problems and that citizens should participate more in the decision-making process. Although there is a scientific consensus on anthropogenic climate change (Cook et al., 2013; Hulme, 2009; Oreskes, 2018), politicians and policymakers struggle to interpret and make decisions regarding how society should deal with it. Such indecisiveness, combined with the complexity, can lead to public confusion, uncertainty and disinterest among citizens. Mathematics education has a role to play in preventing such a lack of interest and enabling students to deal with complex problems.

From a Critical Mathematics Education (CME) perspective, students can become aware of the nature of mathematics; identify how mathematics can be used; critique its use in society; and, apply mathematical competencies to empower themselves both personally and as critical citizens (Ernest, 2002; Skovsmose, 1994). If students are to be empowered as critical citizens, how can mathematics education facilitate this? Some aspects of such facilitation are described by Ernest (2002); mathematics education should include socially relevant topics, the use of factual and real data, classroom discussions, and allowing conflicts of opinions. A Norwegian mathematics classroom typically involves teachers instructing students; students working individually with textbook-task training for competencies to solve routine tasks; and less student interaction and exchange of ways of thinking and argumentation (Bergem, Kaarstein, & Nilsen, 2016; Vavik et al., 2010). Internationally, Echazarra, Salinas, Méndez, Denis, and Rech (2016) report a similar trend that those teaching strategies referred to as traditional still dominate in most countries. This classroom reality differs from the one Ernest (2002) emphasises. To address this, I decided to design an empirical study, situated within CME, to enhance the understanding of how to facilitate students' critical mathematical competencies when dealing with complex problems.

The amount and role of mathematics in climate change call for mathematics education to be involved. As emphasised by Barwell (2013), mathematics contributes to *describing, predicting* and *communicating* climate change. Describing climate change can include measures of global temperatures, sea-levels, or degrees of glacial melting. Measurements are relevant for understanding climate change, but also often disputed. Lloyd (2018) describes one such disagreement where climate researchers came to different conclusion using the same raw data. The processes of predicting climate change makes use of advanced mathematical modelling. Oreskes (2018) underlines that prediction is by definition, uncertain, thus while most climate scientists agree on anthropogenic climate change, debates exist regarding its predicted tempo and how severely the impact will be. Communicating climate change involves text, pictures, charts, graphs, and can be used by, for example, scientists, politicians, journalists, and students for various reasons. Interest organisations can sometimes spread organised denial of anthropogenic climate change (Krange, Kaltenborn, & Hultman, 2019). If teachers or students use graphs or other data

influenced by these interest organisations, they could be misled and potentially make judgments based on misinformation. Citizens need to understand and reflect on these descriptions, predictions and communications to develop informed argumentation and standpoints on climate change issues. Informed, critical, and engaged citizens are vital to a democratic way of living.

Facilitating students' critical mathematics competencies in the context of climate change corresponds with the Norwegian Education Act (1998), where the preamble states that students should "learn to think critically and act ethically and with environmental awareness" (§ 1-1). Critical thinking is a core activity in several subjects. The preamble is elaborated in the Core Curriculum (Utdanningsdirektoratet, 2017), where critical thinking is described as enabling students to take a standpoint on important questions in their own life.

Utdanningsdirektoratet underlines three interdisciplinary topics: democracy and citizenship, sustainable development, and public health and wellbeing. The first two are particularly relevant for this study. Climate change is an essential aspect of sustainable development, as the United Nations (2020) emphasises by including climate action as one of the 17 goals for sustainable development.

In the Norwegian mathematics curricula, Utdanningsdirektoratet (2019) highlights that students should be able to do the following: explore and analyse findings from real data from nature and society; evaluate these; become aware of the assumptions and premises of mathematical models; formulate their own arguments; argue for how mathematical representation can be used to promote different standpoints; and, participate in the public debate. Public debates on climate change often involve mathematical information combined with a variety of standpoints. If students, as a part of their mathematics education, critically reflect on links between mathematical information and how claims are presented and promoted, they can develop their critical awareness of how mathematics can be used and abused in society and thereby become critical citizens in a lived democracy.

Internationally, the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) relates mathematical literacy to climate change. For instance, in the PISA 2003 framework, they point to mathematical literacy as an essential competency when dealing with "global warming and the greenhouse effect" (2003, p. 24). In the

PISA 2018 framework, OECD (2018a) accentuates students' global competence as "students' ability to interact with the wider world" (p. 165) to examine climate change risk critically. They further describe climate issues as a relevant scientific context for the development of mathematical literacy. Lastly, in the PISA 2021 framework (draft), mathematical competencies are described as evolving from performing basic arithmetic operations to addressing complex areas such as climate change (OECD, 2018b).

Therefore, if the goal is that students shall develop critical mathematical competencies vital to their role as critical citizens in the context of climate change, the question remains: how can this be facilitated through mathematics education? In this PhD-study, I elaborate on this question in an empirical study, where teachers facilitate students' critical mathematical competencies in the context of climate change. The research partnership took place in lower secondary school and consisted of three mathematics teachers and their four classes, where the teachers planned and conducted the teaching.

## **1.1 Research question and focus**

The overarching research question for this PhD-study concerns how mathematics education can contribute to students becoming critical citizens who engage in societal and complex problems like climate change. The research question is formulated as follows:

### **How can focusing on climate change facilitate students' critical mathematical competencies?**

The concept of critical mathematical competencies is not clearly defined in the research literature. Alrø and Johnsen-Høines (2016), Kennedy (2018), and Mamolo (2018), and Sikunder (2015) refer to aspects such as understanding the world, empowering, critical citizens, society, mathematical literacy, and CME. A related concept is critical democratic competence. Based on the work of Blomhøj (1992, 2003), Hansen and Hana (2012) describe this as "the ability to evaluate, analyse, and criticise the use of mathematics in society". The ability to *apply mathematics* can be added to this latter description. To clarify how I understand the concept of critical

mathematical competencies<sup>1</sup> in this study, and based on literature from CME, I highlight four aspects: (1) The formatting power of mathematics, (2) Mathemacy and mathematical literacy, (3) Critique and critical reflections, and (4) Values.

The formatting power of mathematics (1) contributes to shaping our society, in sometimes invisible ways. Barwell (2013, 2018) and Skovsmose (1994) draw attention to how mathematics could be an essential construct in social issues such as climate change and format how people perceive these. A vital part of students' critical mathematical competencies is to develop an awareness and critical reflections regarding how the mathematical formatting of climate change can take place.

The research question is based on the understanding that students' mathematical literacy and mathemacy (2) should include competencies above and beyond mastering basic skills. Students should be enabled to reflect, make argumentation, make well-founded judgements, and have the competencies to apply learning outcomes to meet complex challenges. Skovsmose (1994) described mathemacy as taking justified stands as a means for social and political reforms as well as for self-empowerment. Mathematical literacy can be described as "the capacity of individuals to reason mathematically and solve problems in a variety of 21<sup>st</sup> century contexts" (OECD, 2018b, p. 6). 21<sup>st</sup>-century skills constitute a variety of competencies<sup>2</sup>. For instance, highlighted by Care, Kim, Vista, and Anderson (2018), Partnership for 21<sup>st</sup> Century Learning (2019), and OECD (2018b) are concepts such as critical thinking, reflection, communication and collaboration, research and inquiry, problem-solving, ethical obligations, global awareness, and environmental literacy.

The research question builds on the understanding that students should have opportunities to critique and critically reflect (3) *on* and *with* mathematics. They can be invited to ask questions; explore; look for multiple explanations; and, learn to question what is included/not included. Furthermore, they should be encouraged to question what graphs and numbers are based on, the underlying assumptions, the purpose, how data is collected, how data is simplified, and how the use of mathematics can impact our opinions and judgments. Reflective knowing, that is, the competence to take a justified stand (Skovsmose, 1994), is related to these

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<sup>1</sup> In paper IV, the concept of critical mathematical competencies is also discussed.

<sup>2</sup> It does not exist a global, fixed or unified set of competencies which defines the 21<sup>st</sup>-century skills.

exemplifications of critique and critical reflections. Critique, critical reflections and reflective knowing are essential parts of students' critical mathematical competencies. Hauge and Barwell (2017) accentuate that a critical approach in mathematics education concerns students' democratic participation through an emphasis on critiquing by e.g. using a mathematical method to examine environmental problems. They suggested facilitating students' "discussion of the meaning and consequences of calculations of global temperature changes, discussion of possible actions, and discussion of the role of mathematics, such as the limitations of the statistical methods" (p. 28). Critiquing real-world issues can broaden students' critical reflections to involve more than pure mathematics by including real-world aspects.

Lastly, the research question is based on the understanding that values (4) are vital for students' critical democratic competencies. They can become aware of own and others' ethical considerations and reflect on how values and ethical considerations can be involved in seemingly neutral mathematics. Moreover, they can identify how values are embedded in societal issues such as climate change. Ernest (2019) underlined that mathematics education could empower learners as critical and mathematically literate citizens, and use mathematics to raise ethical concerns, e.g. on "care for the earth and the environment" (p. 86). He points to that if this is done well, it is both an asset to the student and society.

Facilitating students' critical mathematical competencies can either have a focus on teacher's facilitation or students' critical mathematical competencies. I focus on both these aspects and consider them interrelated. Teachers' facilitation can be described by students' statements, or students' competencies can be aided and described by teachers' facilitation. To answer the research question and give consideration to the perspectives of both teachers and students, four research focuses were designed and addressed in four individual papers (listed chronologically):

**(1) Identify and critically reflect on concepts and perspectives emphasised as important in the literature from two fields, CME and post-normal science (paper I).**

**(2) Explore how teachers' values can influence their teaching by investigating their facilitation and reflections of value-aspect in regard to climate change in school mathematics (paper II).**



**(3) Identify the potential for facilitating students' awareness and understanding of the formatting power of mathematics (paper III).**

**(4) Identify how students' critical mathematical competencies can appear in their argumentation (paper IV).**

Focus (1) involves systematic approaches to acquiring an overview of the existing research literature concerning CME and post-normal science. During the process of constructing the literature overview, I developed insights into areas such as theoretical perspectives, methodology and methods, terminology, and key journals. I also designed and refined the research question and the four research focuses. This literature overview also provided insight into potential research gaps. A limited number of empirical studies from the mathematics classroom were found, and these supported the choice of conducting a qualitative empirical study. This empirical study is based on the understanding that mathematics teachers and researchers need to be engaged in enabling students as critical citizens who can participate in the extended peer communities described in post-normal science. The findings of the literature overview partly serve as a basis for the three following papers. For instance, one of the findings was the identification of 19 key concepts or phrases within the two fields. Two of these, *controversies* and *values*, were used as a conceptual framework in paper II, "Wicked problems and critical judgment in school mathematics". Three others, *the formatting power of mathematics*, *uncertainty*, and *critical citizens*, were used as theoretical perspectives in paper III, "The mathematical formatting of how climate change is perceived: Teachers' reflection and practice". Another three, *three kinds of knowings*, *critical reflections*, and *(inquiry-based) dialogues*, were used in the conceptual framework of paper IV, "Climate Change and Students' Critical Competencies: A Norwegian Study".

Focuses (2), (3) and (4) involve a research partnership with three teachers and their 15-16 year old students. The methodological framework for these three papers was inspired by action research. Focuses (2) and (3) concern teachers' facilitation, how teachers' values can impact their facilitation, and how teachers could facilitate students' awareness of the formatting power of mathematics, while focus (4) addresses students' critical mathematical competencies.

Inspired by Herheim (2012), an overview of the research question, research focus and title of paper are shown in Table 1.

***Table 1. The title of the papers, the four research focuses, and the research question***

<b>Title of paper</b>	<b>Focus of paper</b>
<b>I. Critical Mathematics Education and Post-Normal Science: A literature overview</b>	To identify and critically reflect on concepts and perspectives emphasised as important in the literature from two fields: critical mathematics education and post-normal science.
<b>II. Wicked problems and critical judgment in school mathematics</b>	To explore how teachers' values can influence their teaching by investigating their facilitation and reflections of value-aspect in regard to climate change in school mathematics.
<b>III. The mathematical formatting of how climate change is perceived: Teachers' reflection and practice</b>	To identify the potential for facilitating students' awareness and understanding of the formatting power of mathematics
<b>IV. Climate Change and Students' Critical Competencies: A Norwegian Study</b>	To identify how students' critical mathematical competencies can appear in their argumentation
<b><i>RESEARCH QUESTION: HOW CAN FOCUSING ON CLIMATE CHANGE FACILITATE STUDENTS' CRITICAL MATHEMATICAL COMPETENCIES?</i></b>	

Table 1 recurs throughout the thesis, gradually adding columns that provide overviews of methodology, methods, analysis, and findings.

One purpose of this study is to explore and describe if and how tackling a complex and urgent socio-political issue such as climate change in the mathematics classroom can enable students to act as critical citizens in a lived democracy. Another purpose is to provide insights into teachers practice and how CME can be applied in the classroom. According to Skovsmose (1994), the integration of CME in the classroom should not be reduced to certain activities, topics, or a set of teaching principles. The

activities, topics, or teaching principles might constitute certain qualities, and it can be relevant to gain insights into these qualities. Both a literature overview and an empirical study can provide valuable insights into this context. The insights can be relevant and valuable for mathematics researchers and educators, pre-and in-service teachers, and teachers.

CME consists of a variety of concerns and topics, such as social justice, power, and language. Researchers like Coles, Barwell, Cotton, Winter, and Brown (2013), Wolfmeyer and Lupinacci (2017), and Radakovic, Weiland, and Bazzul (2018), Yasukawa (2007) indicate links between mathematics education and sustainability. Other researchers connect climate change and mathematics education, for instance, Abtahi, Gøtze, Steffensen, Hauge, and Barwell (2017), Barwell (2013, 2018), Hansen (2010), Hauge and Barwell (2015, 2017), and Hauge et al. (2015). My review of the research literature in this particular field shows limited empirical studies in this area (see Appendix A for an overview of previous literature).

## **1.2 Philosophical assumptions**

It is important to be transparent and bring forth the underlying assumptions one holds as a researcher. Creswell (2013) highlights four philosophical assumptions important for transparency: ontology, epistemology, axiology, and methodology. Ontology is described as “the nature of reality and its characteristics”, epistemology as “what counts as knowledge and how knowledge claims are justified”, and axiology as “the role of values in research” (p. 20). In the following, aspects of the underlying philosophical<sup>3</sup> assumptions relevant for this study are described.

When studying the teaching and learning of climate change, ontological, epistemological, and axiological questions can arise. Whether climate change is real or not is an ontological question, and something people disagree about (Esbjörn-Hargens, 2010). However, as Hulme (2009) points out, disputes about climate change may often be presented as scientific disputes, but they in fact concern epistemological disagreements such as how one establishes knowledge or the values in knowledge-seeking. This study is based on the understanding that anthropogenic climate change is real and independent of its human conception and the observed reality of climate change as socially constructed through human observations and

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<sup>3</sup> Aspects of underlying assumptions regarding methodological are reflected upon in the chapter 3.

interpretations. These assumptions comply with the ideas from critical realism. Cornell and Parker (2010) underline that critical realism involves an epistemology recognising social dimensions of knowledge and an ontology asserting an objective reality of earth systems while recognising the complexity and difficulty of the prediction of phenomena. This study is founded on a subjectivist ontology: describing reality as something being constructed by individuals and groups (Wood & Smith, 2016). The reality of climate change is shaped by political and social power, e.g. through the formatting power of mathematics. Based on this foundation, it is essential to empower people and their ability to critique aspects of society.

I regard knowledge as value-loaded and as socially constructed. This view is in contrast to classical epistemology, where the view on knowledge is associated with “justified, true belief” (Hollis, 1994, p. 9). Emphasising teachers’ facilitation of students’ critical mathematical competencies is based on the view that participants construct meanings within a situation. Participants’ views are considered relevant and formed through social interactions such as discussions. This view is consistent with ideas from social constructivism, where Creswell (2013) describes that individuals develop subjective meanings of the experiences they have of the world they live in. This view of knowledge as socially constructed influenced this PhD-study’s design, for instance, when choosing a research partnership with three teachers and their students, where participants’ social interactions can form views on how to facilitate CME in the classroom or standpoints on climate change issues.

Related to my view of knowledge, mathematics and mathematics education is neither neutral nor value-free as socially constructed. Mathematics can be considered a language that in different ways interprets or represents reality. These interpretations and representations depend on humans and are thus socially constructed. Skovsmose (2012a) argues that many people in society celebrate and trust the rationality of mathematics. Such confidence in rationality was challenged by critical theories rooted in the Frankfurt School. In the Frankfurt School, traditional views on science were rejected, and they were critical to the ideal of “scientific and technological knowledge to control nature and the development of a calculative, impersonal kind of reasoning” (Alvesson & Sköldbberg, 2009, p. 147). Mathematical rationality should not automatically triumph ethical considerations. Furthermore, mathematics can have anti-democratic consequences if citizens consider mathematics as value-free (Ernest,

2009). For instance, if politicians present selected statistics according to their political agenda, and citizens have a non-critical filter toward mathematics, citizens could be influenced accordingly.

Values can influence and act as a filter of how we interpret information and read research articles (Corner, Markowitz, & Pidgeon, 2014). For instance, values could influence the choice of particular graphs (as discussed in paper III), or influence how we solve mathematical tasks. Nurse and Grant (2019) found that political interest influenced how people used their numeracy abilities and solved mathematical problems. An absolutist approach to the philosophy of mathematics, by which perceptions of mathematics are objective and neutral, do not include the human dimension. Stemhagen (2009) underlines that if students are encouraged to acknowledge their ability to construct new knowledge and evaluate the value of their constructions, they could develop a mathematical agency and epistemological empowerment beyond the mere mastering of calculation. Thus awareness of the normative aspects of the school is, for me, essential. Schools and curricula are normative, e.g. as seen in the Education Act (1998) stating that students should “act ethically and with environmental awareness” (§ 1-1). Whether these norms concern environmental awareness, enabling the workforce to satisfy the free-market capitalism, or promoting neoliberalist ideas on economic growth, this is relevant for all teachers to reflect on.

### **1.3 The context of real-world problems**

Real-world problems range from tasks with weak links to the problem, accompanied by artificial questions (e.g. How many legs have 20 polar bears?), to tasks with strong connections to the actual real-world problems (e.g. What actions should we take on climate change?). Teachers can sometimes equate real-world tasks with contextualised problems such as pizza-cutting, as described by Simic-Muller, Fernandes, and Felton-Koestler (2015). The relatively large span between the objects of such tasks is underlined by Jurdak (2016a, 2016b) who argues that school mathematics and real-world problem solving should be more interconnected. Justification for such interconnectedness is rooted in the discrepancy between solving problems in the mathematics classroom and the real world. Jurdak (2016) highlights that “school problem solving practices to be more embedded in real world problem solving” (p. 68). Researcher such as Busse (2005), Maaß (2006) and

Christiansen (2001) emphasise that such interconnectedness is not without challenges. When students do modelling tasks based in real-world situations, they either neglect the mathematical aspects, neglect the real-world aspects, try to balance these two aspects, or disassociate them.

I consider approaches that do not neglect or disassociate aspects of the problem as relevant for students' critical mathematical competencies. Such holistic approaches can be in agreement with a transdisciplinary approach, described by English (2016b) as knowledge and skills from several disciplines applied to real-world problems to improve learning. Teachers who implement real-world problem-solving in the mathematics classroom could, therefore, consider how developing students' mathematical competencies includes competencies such as calculating as well as learning about the real-life problem with all its implications.

Climate change is sometimes referred to as a wicked or a super wicked problem (Levin, Cashore, Bernstein, & Auld, 2012). Rittel and Webber (1973) characterise a wicked problem as one that is unique with no definite formulation and solutions that are good-or-bad (rather than true-or-false); it is not known when solutions are found, there is no ultimate test of solutions and no set of well-described potential solutions, as these can be considered a symptom of another problem and explained in numerous ways. Levin et al. (2012) expands this characterisation by referring to climate change as a super wicked problem, since time is running out to deal with the problems, there is no central authority who can make decisions, and decisions made at present can have an irreversible impact on future generations. Climate change exhibits many characteristics that make it especially wicked. For instance, there are the cross-sectional aspects, it is a global problem, and those who cause the problem might not be those who are most affected by it. In addition, it involves a tension between rich and poor states, there are no quick technological fixes, and it challenges existing practices (e.g. a very carbon-dependend way of living). In wicked problems, mathematical representation can quickly become complicated, unclear, or misleading. When students face wicked problems, they need a different set of competencies than those used when solving more straightforward mathematical tasks. Engaging students in wicked problems in the mathematics classroom could be one approach to bridging the gap between the school environment and real-world problems as described by Jurdak (2016a, 2016b). Learning with real-world problems

could contribute to developing students' critical mathematical competencies, thereby helping them become critical citizens in a lived democracy.

The context of climate change involves competencies and knowledge from multiple subjects, in particular those related to *realfag*. *Realfag* is a term used in the Norwegian curriculum and includes the subject mathematics, natural science, physics, chemistry, biology, geology, and astronomy<sup>4</sup>. For practical reasons, the related term STEM (Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics) is used in this thesis. The interdisciplinarity of climate change involves different aspects of how competencies can be perceived. I particularly point out competencies relating to critical perspectives that are relevant to critical citizens in a climate change context. Maaß, Geiger, Ariza, and Goos (2019) state that complex problems like climate change have caused different stakeholders to “emphasising the urgent need to identify and improve the competencies young people will require to meet the demands of their futures—personal, civic and workplace” (p. 2). To identify and improve such competencies is not a straightforward task, and I refer to 21<sup>st</sup>-century skills<sup>5</sup> and key competencies, partly inspired by Maaß et al. (2019). Key competencies were described by the European Commission (2019) as a combination of knowledge, skills, and attitudes to gain work, social and personal fulfilment, and participate in active citizenship. Knowledge concerns established concepts, facts and theories; skills involve the ability to use existing knowledge; while attitudes concern the disposition to (re)act to ideas and situations. These key competencies, together with the 21<sup>st</sup>-century skills, are essential for students' critical mathematical competencies.

Competencies related to the STEM-field are described as important by the Norwegian Ministry of Education and Research (2015) in their strategy for *realfag*, and underlined as crucial for providing a qualified workforce for society (Bybee, 2013; English, 2016a, 2016b, 2017; Maaß et al., 2019). Although enabling a qualified workforce is vital for society, this study gives attention to personal and civic concerns as critical citizens critiquing society. The ability to foster critical reasoning and enquiry supported by the use of knowledge from various disciplines was underlined by Geiger (2019) as essential.

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<sup>4</sup> In lower-secondary school only mathematics and natural science are *realfag*; however, technology is integrated into the curriculum of mathematics and natural science.

<sup>5</sup> 21<sup>st</sup> century skills are described in sub-chapter 1.1

Another aspect concerns the degree of integration. Integrated approaches to teaching and learning complex problems use competencies from different subjects (Sanders, 2008). As highlighted by English (2016a), integrated STEM education should not be four disciplines taught in isolation but should deal with problems equivalent to how real-world problems are handled: in integrated ways. Students should be able to pose, solve and interpret questions and solutions mathematically, as well as analyse, reason and communicate. Problems like climate change calls for an increased emphasis on integrated STEM approaches “reflecting the interdisciplinary solutions required in tackling today’s complex economic, social and environmental problems” (English, 2017, p. 57). Relatedly, Tan, Teo, Choy, and Ong (2019) emphasise that an integrated STEM approach should build on “solving complex, persistent and extended real-world problems using practices unique to the four disciplines while drawing on the connections within and between disciplines” (p. 7).

Linked to the previous aspect is a third aspect: how mathematics is utilised in STEM education or interdisciplinary approaches. English (2016a), Geiger (2019), and Maaß et al. (2019) argue that the role of mathematics is underutilised and overlooked within STEM education, especially regarding critical aspects. When including climate change, an awareness of the role of mathematics is relevant, and although I relate to integrated approaches, this study focuses its attention on mathematics.

In this introduction, the background for the research question and focus was presented. The rest of this thesis is structured into three chapters. Chapter 2 presents the theoretical perspectives and conceptual framework. Here perspectives from CME are particularly relevant. Chapter 3 provides an overview of the research methodology and research methods, where the research partnership with the three teachers and their students is described and reflected upon. In chapter 4, the findings are presented and discussed. They are first briefly presented chronologically by papers before being discussed according to six identified themes: lived democracy and critical citizens, the mathematical formatting of climate change, critique and critical reflections, mathematical literacy and three kinds of knowing, controversies and values, and student-centred and dialogic learning. In this last chapter, I point out the limitations of the study and implications for future research, before ending with some concluding comments.



## 2 Theoretical perspectives

This chapter presents the theoretical foundation for this study. Theoretical perspectives from CME, the broader fields of mathematics education and education, the STEM-field, and post-normal science were essential when designing the research and formulating the research question. These perspectives contribute to the conceptual framework and provide a framework for analysing and reflecting on results and findings. The different role of theories in this study relates to what Hiebert and Grouws (2007) highlight: “Theories are useful because they direct researchers’ attention to particular relationships, provide meaning for the phenomena being studied, rate the relative importance of the research questions being asked, and place findings from individual studies within a larger context” (p. 373). The theoretical perspectives vary in the four papers; for instance, post-normal science is prominent in paper I and less emphasised in papers II, III, and IV, and perspectives from STEM are used more extensively in paper IV. This combined theoretical foundation provides insights that would perhaps be missed if only one field were used. The inclusion of several theoretical perspectives is underlined by Lester (2010) as relevant when using realistic, complex situations because the problem itself typically involves a variety of theories.

The role of practice and collaboration with teachers and students is a key part of this PhD-study. This view is consistent with Skovsmose’s (1994) emphasis on both educational theory *and* practice: “Philosophy may provide clarification and supply new interpretations, but basic guidelines for educational reforms must be produced by educational practice” (p. 8). Educational practices are both teachers’ and students’ reflective practices in the classroom, and three of the papers address educational practices. Papers II and III concern teachers’ educational practices and their reflections, while paper IV involves students’ practices.

Table 2 presents an overview of the titles, research focuses, and theoretical and conceptual frameworks for each of the papers. This table is an extension of Table 1. The rest of this chapter is structured into three parts: the first presents the theoretical foundation and previous research; the second the conceptual framework; and the third includes some concluding reflections on the theoretical perspectives.

**Table 2. An overview of each paper's title, research focus, and theoretical and conceptual framework**

Title of paper	Research focus	Theoretical perspectives and conceptual framework
<b>Critical Mathematics Education and Post-Normal Science: A literature overview</b>	<i>1. To identify and critically reflect on concepts and perspectives emphasised as important in the literature from two fields, CME and PNS.</i>	<b>Theoretical perspectives</b> Two theoretical fields, Critical Mathematics Education (CME) and Post-normal Science (PNS) were used to identify concepts emphasised in the literature as important.
<b><i>Wicked problems and critical judgment in school mathematics</i></b>	<i>2. To explore how mathematics teachers' values can influence their teaching by investigating their facilitation and reflections on value-aspects regarding climate change.</i>	<b>Conceptual framework</b> Two main concepts were used to analyse and discuss the data: controversies and values.
<b><i>The mathematical formatting of how climate change is perceived: Teachers' reflection and practice</i></b>	<i>3. To identify the potential for facilitating students' awareness and understanding of the formatting power of mathematics.</i>	<b>Theoretical perspectives</b> Three main concepts were used to analyse and discuss the data: the formatting power of mathematics, uncertainty, critical citizens.
<b><i>Climate Change and Students' Critical Competencies: A Norwegian Study</i></b>	<i>4. To identify how students' critical mathematical competencies can appear in their argumentation.</i>	<b>Conceptual framework</b> Theoretical perspectives from CME and STEM were used. The conceptual framework constitutes of three main concepts: critical reflections, mathematical, technological and reflective knowing, and inquiry-based dialogues.

## 2.1 Critical Mathematics Education

In this PhD-study, I take a critical mathematics perspective. Inspired by researchers like Skovsmose (1994), Yasukawa, Skovsmose, and Ravn (2012), Ernest (2015), Sriraman, Roscoe, and English (2010), Gutstein (2006), and I challenge the view that mathematics education, mathematics, and its applications, are universal, objective, neutral, culture-free, and value-free. One reason to challenge this view is how the perception of mathematical representation as neutral can potentially hide (political) choices made through the process of collecting and presenting the data. Another reason is how mathematics education can itself hide values, for instance, through the curriculum. Mellin-Olsen's (1987) argues that openness and reflectiveness about how politics is embedded in mathematics education, the curriculum, or the examination system was necessary. To critically reflect on mathematics education, mathematics, and its applications, can offer awareness of the political nature of these areas to both teachers and students.

Climate change is used as a context for facilitating students' critical mathematical competencies. This choice builds on the socio-political turn in mathematics education, a term coined by Gutiérrez (2013) to describe an increased focus on CME in recent mathematics education research. This turn connects mathematics education with complex socio-political issues such as conflicts, controversies, social justice, inequality, and global crisis. Barwell (2013, 2018) proposes CME as a theoretical perspective that can conceptualise how teaching and learning mathematics can engage in climate change. He considered the role that mathematics education can play in both understanding, formatting, and responding to climate change, and suggests one "get behind the data to consider political issues" (2013, p. 13). To get behind the data can involve investigating the role mathematics can play in creating climate change (for instance by facilitation of the technology) and in constructing our understanding of climate change. Barwell suggests that students could engage in climate change, for example by working with quantities of climate and emissions data or weather station data, and by communicating with climate scientists, politicians, or representatives of the community.

Mathematics education can enable students to interpret and challenge socio-political issues. For instance, Frankenstein (1998, 2010a) mentions several goals regarding curriculum, e.g. to understand: (1) The mathematics, (2) The mathematics of political

knowledge, (3) The politics of mathematical knowledge, and (4) The politics of knowledge. All these goals are relevant for this PhD-study: Students' understanding of the mathematics used in climate change (e.g. statistics and graphs) is relevant for understanding climate change<sup>6</sup> and reflecting on how mathematics deepens our understanding of climate change. Reflecting on how these data came about is also relevant, as is considering how knowledge (mathematics) is learned in school.

Climate change can be a matter of social justice; for instance, the consequences of climate change are not distributed equally. One example that illustrates this is that the predicted physical effects of climate change in Norway, such as flooding, drought, and storms, will not be as harsh as in other regions. As a well-developed country, Norway can adapt to changes in a more sufficient way than the least-developed countries (CICERO, 2018). At the same time, Norway profits significantly by the extracting of oil and gas, and by that, is part of a continued greenhouse gas-emission. The social justice perspective was underlined by Skovsmose (2014), who described CME in terms of concerns: "To address social exclusion and suppression, to work for social justice in whatever form possible, to try open new possibilities for students, and to address mathematics critically in all its forms and application" (p. 116). Although the social justice issue is relevant, I emphasise addressing mathematics critically, by critiquing with mathematics, to develop students' critical mathematical competencies and enable critical citizenship.

Skovsmose (2012a) elaborates three views of mathematics that are relevant for this study: (1) "mathematics is essential for understanding nature", (2) "mathematics is a powerful resource for technological invention", and (3) "mathematics is a pure rationality which operates almost as an intellectual game, divorced from other human activities" (p. 49). Mathematics is, along with other disciplines, crucial for our understanding of climate change. In such a view lies a recognition that when mathematics is used to describe, predict, and communicate about climate change, it becomes a potent part of formatting our understanding of climate change (Barwell, 2013, 2018; Skovsmose & Yasukawa, 2009). Technological development has created a positive impact on society, e.g. in medicine, but it has also facilitated technology that

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<sup>6</sup> I also regard that students need not always understand the advanced mathematics behind, for instance, climate models in order to reflect on these issues, in line with findings emphasised by Hauge (2016a); Hauge et al. (2015).

causes problems such as climate change (Hauge & Barwell, 2017). Skovsmose (2012a) refers to the wonders and horrors of mathematics in action. A crucial part of CME is to consider how mathematics can both be a powerful resource as well as contribute to the destruction of the environment. Lastly, the view on mathematics as pure rationality is problematic when mathematics is involved in complex issues such as climate change. For instance, choices are made by mathematicians involved in measuring global temperature and CO<sub>2</sub>-levels and when projecting climate change models (see discussion in paper III). It is therefore relevant to draw attention to this aspect when facilitating students' critical mathematical competencies. Summarised, I emphasise addressing mathematics critically as a way of achieving insights into climate change, as a powerful resource in technological development, and as pure rationality.

I combined and coordinated theoretical perspectives to develop a conceptual framework for studying the inclusion of climate change in mathematics teaching. The term combining is used when “the theoretical approaches are only juxtaposed” (Prediger, Bikner-Ahsbals, & Arzarello, 2008, p. 173), while the term coordinating is used when the elements in the conceptual framework are “well fitting” and coordinated in a “harmonious way” (Wedege, 2010, p. 67). Within mathematics education, there is a diversity of theories, and they exist in complicated networks (Bikner-Ahsbals, 2016; Prediger et al., 2008).

Several perspectives and concepts developed within mathematics education concern specific ways of teaching. As pointed to in the introduction, a Norwegian classroom can be characterised by a teacher giving instructions and students working with tasks, referred to as the exercise discourse by Mellin-Olsen (1991) and the exercise paradigm by Skovsmose (2001, 2011). Skemp (2006) and Mellin-Olsen (1981) argue that such teaching and learning is based on an instrumental approach to mathematical understanding. It also concerns what types of tasks students work with. Tasks can, for instance, be problem-solving tasks related to the real-world, as emphasised by Jurdak (2016a). Another perspective is how one perceives mathematics and the potential students can have for learning. For instance, Boaler (2015) emphasises that mathematics is an area with the potential for a growth mindset. These perspectives from mathematics education are often intertwined with

perspectives from CME, and rather than distinguish between these two fields, I acknowledge this interrelationship.

The teachers' role in developing educational practices concerning socio-political issues is crucial. Giroux (2013) argues that educational reforms seem to place little confidence in the ability of teachers to provide "intellectual and moral leadership for our youth" (p. 165). It is essential to bring forth teachers voices from this empirical research, and papers II and III thus have a focus on the teachers.

Climate change issues can differ from other problems included in the mathematics classroom. For instance, no single, correct approach exists for reaching the right answer. Therefore, teachers who facilitate such problems encounter other challenges than those with more traditional tasks. These challenges can also be faced in the real world. Funtowicz and Ravetz (1999, 2003) suggest that issues like climate change, with characteristics such as urgency, complexity, uncertainty, values, and a plurality of perspectives, need other approaches to the science-policy interface than do more «normal» scientific problems, as science alone cannot provide answers to what is the best decision. They refer to complex science-related problems where "typically facts are uncertain, values in dispute, stakes high, and decisions urgent" (2003, p. 1) as post-normal issues. Approaches and solutions designed to solve "normal" problems are insufficient because of the plurality of perspectives, and they argued that a post-normal approach was required. This approach can involve citizens critically assessing the relevance and validity of the research and contributing with insight and perspectives in the public debate. Moreover, policymaking and actions should consider the uncertainties, values and the plurality of legitimate perspectives in complex issues like climate change.

Funtowicz and Ravetz (1993, 2003) argue that post-normal science should involve a wide range of participants, not only experts. They refer to such involvement as an extended peer community. An extended peer community may include local inhabitants with local knowledge, investigative journalists, members of pressure groups, people "with a stake in the dialogue on the issue" (1993, p. 739) or those with a "desire to participate in the resolution of the issue"(2003, p. 7). If citizens should contribute to these extended peer communities, they can benefit from learning to deal with complexity and uncertainty in school.

A criticism of post-normal science concerns the view that these extended peer communities can undermine research conducted by scientists or other highly qualified people. However, as Bremer et al. (2018) emphasises, within these extended peer communities, it is important to acknowledge “that each perspective is unique and important, but will be critically scrutinized” (p. 261). Students or other non-researchers have different roles to play than researchers. Young people can sometimes have other perspectives or other concerns than older people, or laypeople can contribute with local knowledge from their community. An essential aspect of such communities is to include value-perspective and the uncertainty connected to complex problems. In terms of education, Hauge and Barwell (2017) argue that the ideas from CME combined with the ideas from post-normal science could prepare students to attend in such extended peer communities. In school, students can interact with different participants such as scientists, politicians, public media, and the general public to understand and act on climate change. The role of CME is to develop students’ critical mathematical competencies so students can, amongst others, participate more effectively in extended peer communities.

## **2.2 Conceptual framework**

In this part, the conceptual framework is presented and discussed. The concepts are chosen partly from the literature overview, partly by a careful reading from the fields emphasised in sub-chapter 2.1, and based on the observed qualities in the research partnership and analytic process. Some concepts, such as critique, are explosive: “any attempt to clarify them brings us to use other concepts just as complex as the ones we set out to clarify” (Skovsmose, 2012b, p. 359). A clarification of the concepts is provided in the following text as is how they contribute to addressing the research question and the four research focuses found in Table 1. Some concepts have a more prominent place than others. For instance, lived democracy and critical citizens relate to the research question and the foundation for this PhD-study, while concepts like dialogues were used as analytical tools in paper IV.

### **2.2.1 Lived democracy and critical citizens**

Lived democracy and democratic practices can be understood as more than formal systems of government. It is about ways of associated living, a socio-political engagement, and it is infused in our everyday life. Dewey (2011) emphasises that “democracy is more than a form of government; it is primarily a mode of associated

living, of conjoint communal experience” (p. 50). A lived democracy and democratic practices should also involve education and matters of social justice (Chomsky, 2003; Dewey, 2011; Lund & Carr, 2008). Mathematics education researchers and teachers can contribute to ensuring that a lived democracy is included in the mathematics classroom. Breivega, Rangnes, and Werler (2019) describe lived democracy as a way of living, that learning should happen through democratic participation. Such participation can take place both *inside* and *outside* school. Participation *inside* the classroom can include students working with authentic and controversial problems as a part of a lived democracy. For instance, teachers can facilitate students’ discussions and debates on real-world problems that are relevant for a student’s personal life and emphasise the ability and willingness to listen to peers’ argumentation, as well as allow students to investigate mathematical and scientific information. Although these activities take place within a school context, this can be one way of including students’ everyday lives outside school and a way of exercising democratic values inside the classroom.

There are multiple ways of participating as a form of lived democracy. The recent school strike for climate actions initiated by Greta Thunberg (Kohli, 2019; Marris, 2019; Wearden & Carrington, 2019) can be considered as one example of participation. Young people can also engage in blogging and environmentally-friendly consumer behaviour (Wagner, Johann, & Kritzinger, 2012). Wagner et al. (2012) underlines that a low voter turnout could be an indicator of the health of a democracy and an alleged crisis in democracy. Although voter participation is important for a lived democracy, in this PhD-study, the attention is directed towards other forms of associated living, for instance, understanding, reflection, argumentation, and discussions on complex socio-political issues in the classroom.

Teachers are essential for students’ lived democracy. They can facilitate students’ opportunities to be engaged as critical citizens and be a critical voice in education. Teachers can engage and critique education itself, and the role that education (and teachers) can play for students’ opportunities to participate in a just, lived democracy (Giroux, 2002, 2011) is significant. Giroux (2011) argues that educators should “reclaim schooling as an emancipatory project” to enable “critical thought, agency, and democracy itself” (p. 43). In this study, I focus on teachers’ facilitation for students’ critical thoughts and agencies relevant to a lived democracy.

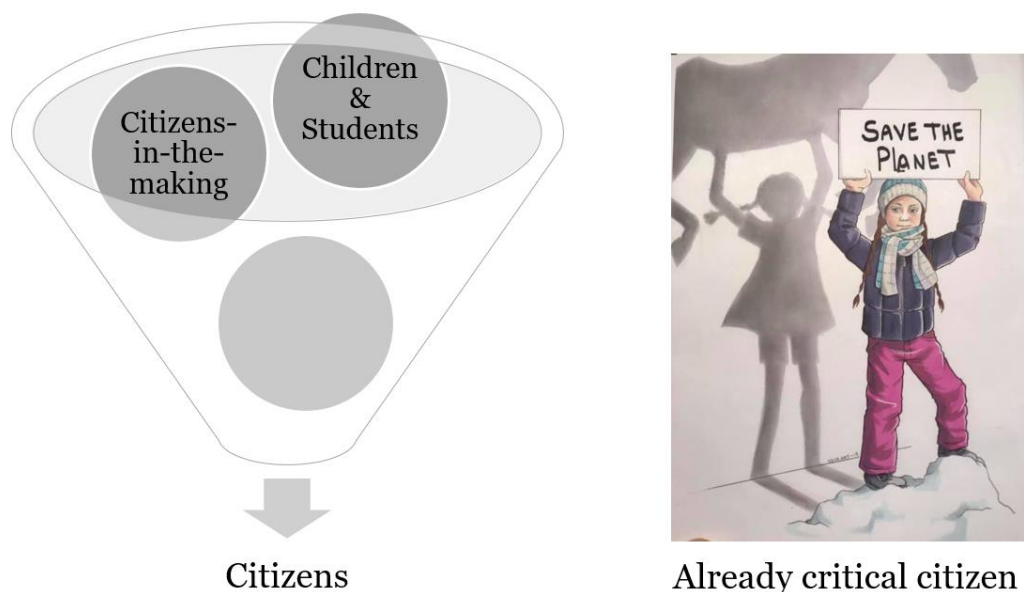


To develop students as critical citizens in their lived democracy is a key aspect of this study's rationale. A critical citizen is someone who can provide a constructive critique that is vital for democracy and their own life, and education has a role to play in enabling students as critical citizens. Giroux (1989) asserts that school should educate critical citizens "who can think, challenge, take risks, and believe that their actions will make a difference in the larger society" (p. 214). He suggests that schools should provide opportunities for shared experiences, to fight for equal quality of life, and to work in social settings emphasising care and concerns. Facilitating such opportunities in the mathematics classroom can involve different contexts. Climate change can be one context that can provide opportunities for students to think, challenge, and act in society, out of concerns for others and quality of life. Climate change can facilitate reflections on real-world issues in the mathematics classroom, which is relevant when developing students as critical citizens. Critical thinking, independent critical judgments, critical awareness of aspects of society, individual and social empowerment, and a long-term goal towards a more just and democratic society, are essential for developing critical citizens (Ernest, 2002).

Developing students' critical competencies as critical citizens is not unique to CME. It has its roots in thoughts from the Frankfurt School and critical theory, as seen in the work of, e.g. Freire and Macedo (2005). These ideas involve political and societal condition and changes for citizens in society. Critical thinking can involve enabling citizens' understanding of mathematics-based information, e.g. of numbers, tables, or graphs. Critical judgments were discussed in paper II, and a relevant part of such judgments is to understand positions in debates. In particular, when controversies are apparent, as the case can be in climate change issues, it becomes relevant to comprehend argumentation for different views, as a first step to take a justified stand. Understanding the consequences of choices or actions (or no-action) is crucial in order to make critical judgments. OECD (2018a) underlines in the PISA 2018 framework that: "only those students who have some degree of knowledge of the consequences of climate change can fully understand conflicting positions in a debate on the reduction of carbon emission in cities" (p. 191). Critical awareness can involve the ability to identify how mathematics is used in a debate on climate change to substantiate different views and is thus vital for being critical citizens.

Another aspect of critical citizens is the capability to make your voice heard in society. Mathematics education, along with other fields, has a responsibility to enable students to participate in, for instance, to raise your opinions in the classroom or public debates, to make well-founded argumentation, and to critique aspects of society. Skovsmose (2008) claims that citizens should not only be enabled to understand and “receive from authorities as a functional receptive consumer but also to ‘talk back’ to authorities” (p. 14). To talk back to authorities can involve engaging students to critique and making well-founded argumentation, based on mathematical, scientific, and ethical considerations.

Teachers should consider students as citizens. Although I might use terms such as develop and enable when writing about critical citizens in this PhD-study, I understand students as already (critical) citizens in an ongoing and continuous process and not only as critical citizens-in-the-making. The term citizens-in-the-making, introduced by Marshall (1950), could imply considering students as not yet citizens, and the role of education could become a form of transformation. Biesta, Lawy, and Kelly (2009) addressed concerns for such a role of education as a developmental trajectory, with assumptions of critical citizens as the outcome (see Figure 1). A critical citizen is then only achieved when completed the trajectory outlined.



**Figure 1. To the left are citizens-in-the-making portrayed as a developmental trajectory, and to the right is recognising that young people are already critical citizens (here by Greta Thunberg & Pippi. The picture is by Andersson (2019), and adapted with permission).**

Currently, young people all over the world contribute towards shedding light on the challenges of climate change and demanding action. They act as critical citizens by making their voices heard. They challenge and talk back to authorities, and they believe that their actions can improve their own and other's quality of life. In Figure 1, a picture of Greta Thunberg<sup>7</sup> (Andersson, 2020) with a link to Pippi, the strongest girl in the world, represents these young people as critical citizens. Regarding climate change issues, long-term consequences affect young people to a larger extent than older people, and it is even more important to acknowledge the fact that they are already (critical) citizens when facilitating students' critical mathematical competencies.

### **2.2.2 The formatting power of mathematics**

Students who understand how mathematics format their lives could potentially be empowered on issues relevant to a lived democracy and become critical citizens. The concept of *the formatting power of mathematics*, coined by Skovsmose (1994), refers to the role of mathematics in not only describing the world but in creating our world. Skovsmose (1994) accentuates that "Mathematics has an important social influence; it follows that to understand this formatting power becomes an essential aspect of critical mathematics education" (p. 207). Yasukawa et al. (2012) expresses similar ideas: "mathematical thinking affects how we view, interpret and negotiate our surroundings, and in many ways (sometimes invisible) shapes our society" (p. 268). Also, Greer (2009) underlines that it is essential to make students aware of the way mathematics are intertwined in practically all human activities, and potentially be used as an agenda. By the formatting powers of mathematics, I understand how mathematics can shape our society, and how people's intentional and unintentional use of mathematics can format our understanding and behaviour.

It can be challenging to identify how and where this formatting takes place. The mathematics is often hidden in mathematical models where calculations are invisible. Therefore, it follows that to identify and become aware of the mathematical formatting, which is relevant when facilitating students' critical mathematical competencies. In terms of climate change, it is crucial to become aware of and

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<sup>7</sup> By referring to Thunberg, I do not intent to diminish young environmental activist located geographically or historically elsewhere. I do acknowledge that all play a crucial role. However, by using Thunberg as an example, my intention is to refer to the movement receiving an increased attention world-wide, by being "louder and more coordinated" than previously (Marris, 2019, p. 471).

understand the mathematical formatting of climate change (Barwell, 2013, 2018). Mathematics based statistics and models can influence how we perceive climate change and related challenges. In public debates on climate change, one can observe an extensive use of graphs and numbers (as discussed in paper III). The use of mathematics can deliberately (or un-deliberately) influence people to downplay the magnitude of the problem. This type of influence is a challenge for critical citizens in a lived democracy.

### **2.2.3 Mathematical literacy, mathemacy, and three kinds of knowing**

In the research literature, there is a variety of concepts associated with mathematical literacy and mathemacy<sup>8</sup>. In this study, these two concepts are used interchangeably. They were chosen because both are established in the mathematics education research, curriculum, and white papers, partly overlapping; however, they may involve slightly different meanings. In PISA 2021, mathematical literacy is defined as follows:

*Mathematical literacy is an individual's capacity to reason mathematically and to formulate, employ, and interpret mathematics to solve problems in a variety of real-world contexts. It includes concepts, procedures, facts and tools to describe, explain and predict phenomena. It assists individuals to know the role that mathematics plays in the world and to make the well-founded judgments and decisions needed by constructive, engaged and reflective 21<sup>st</sup>-century citizens. (OECD, 2018b, p. 7)*

Three aspects are of particular interest for this study: the emphasis of a real-world context, the role that mathematics plays in the world, and the reflective 21<sup>st</sup>-century citizen. For instance, what characterises a real-world context, or what does it involve when students should know the role that mathematics can play? Is it to praise this role, or does it involve critiquing the formatting powers of mathematics? Moreover, when being a constructive, engaged, and reflective 21<sup>st</sup>-century citizens, what does this mean? Barwell (2013) problematises how OECD framed mathematical literacy<sup>9</sup>,

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<sup>8</sup> Related conceptions are e.g. numeracy, criticalmathematical numeracy (Frankenstein, 2010b), critical literacy in mathematics (Gutstein, 2006), and reformist critical mathematics (Brantlinger, 2014), matheracy (D'Ambrosio, 2003, 2008, 2010).

<sup>9</sup> Barwell used the PISA 2003 Assesment Framework (OECD, 2003).

as an ability that “would help clarify, formulate or solve a problem” (p. 8). He argues that due to the complex nature of problems like climate change, the rather narrow perspective on mathematical literacy from OECD is no longer tenable. In the definition from PISA 2021, it can still be argued that the focus is on “to solve problems” rather than on critique. Traditionally, the role of mathematics education has been connected to solving problems. However, mathematics should not only be a tool to interpret and solve problems but an approach to critically reflect *on* and *with* mathematics concerning issues such as climate change.

The concept of mathematical literacy can be interpreted narrowly concerning arithmetic-related competencies and basic calculation skills, or with a more broad definition. A broad interpretation differs slightly from more pure mathematical competencies, moving away from school mathematics as a product where algorithm and techniques are in focus and towards more process-oriented mathematics where argumentation, reasoning and communicating is essential. When facilitating and enabling students’ mathematical literacy in this broader meaning, Jablonka (2003, 2015) underlines the social aspects of mathematical literacy. Social aspects could be competencies to interpret and read socio-political setting as open to change, support environmental awareness, and evaluate mathematics itself. These broad conceptions of mathematical literacy are associated with the political, moral, and ethical dimensions of mathematics and *mathemacy*.

Mathemacy, described by Skovsmose (1994), is linked to Freire's *literacy*. Literacy involves more than just reading and writing, and it entails a critical engagement in society. Freire and Macedo (2005) express literacy as “a set of practices that functions to either empower or disempower people” (p. ix). Freire (1998) argues for a problem-posing approach to facilitate literacy. He urges teachers to consider their students as conscious, thinking beings, rather than consider students as empty containers in need of deposit (a banking-education). Mathemacy is the capability of moving beyond calculation and formal techniques and “a capacity of making responses and as reading the world as being open to change” (Skovsmose, 1994, p. 94). Mathemacy should “be rooted in the spirit of critique” and “a preconception for social and cultural emancipation” (Skovsmose, 1994, p. 27). In terms of climate change, mathemacy can be more than the ability to interpret graphs correctly; it can involve critically investigating graphs to consider potential consequences for people and who

can be empowered to act toward a more environmental-just society. In this study, mathematical literacy is used in the broadest meaning of the word, equal to Freire's literacy and Skovsmose's mathemacy, where the ideas of enabling and empowering people to critically evaluate and cope in a society highly influenced by mathematics.

Knowledge is often associated with truth, absolutism or authority. However, from the perspective of CME, knowledge can be seen as being subjective and open for modifying and changes (Skovsmose, 1994). The use of *knowing*, therefore, suggests a preference towards a process, rather than the more traditional *knowledge of*. Skovsmose (1994) distinguishes between three types of knowing important for mathemacy and CME: mathematical, technological, and reflective knowing. The *mathematical knowing* "refers to the competencies we normally describe as mathematical skills" (p. 100). On the subject of climate change, these competencies could involve the learning and mastery of algorithms relevant to calculate an increase in global temperature or a decrease in sea-ice. *Technological knowing* "refers to the ability to apply mathematics and formal methods in pursuing technological aims" (pp. 100-101). With respect to climate change, such competencies could involve questioning approaches used in measuring the temperature.

*Reflective knowing* refers to "the competence needed to be able to take a justified stand in a discussion of technological question" (p. 101). It is not necessary to be an expert to take a justified stand, but some basic competencies are valuable. In terms of climate change, such competencies could involve abilities to participate in real-world discussions. When students are encouraged to discuss controversies on climate change in the classroom, more than mathematical knowing is needed; technological and reflective knowing is necessary as well. Reflective knowing considers the societal and ethical aspects and the norms and values related to the issue. All three types of knowing are vital parts of developing students' critical mathematical competencies. Students can learn more than just "the mathematics"; they could be enabled to critically reflect on and with mathematics, as well as combine mathematical, technological and reflective knowing.

#### **2.2.4 Critique and critical reflections**

In this study, I do not draw a line between the concepts of critique and critical reflections and use these interchangeably. Being critical can be understood as

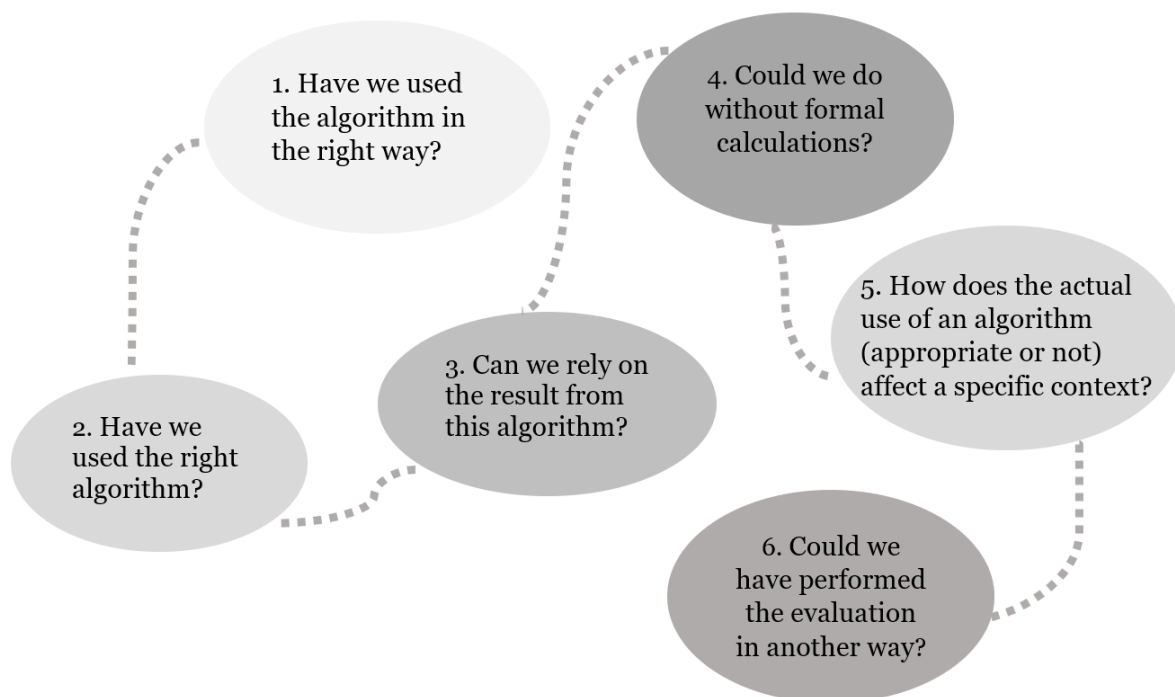
engaging in critique, making careful and balanced judgments and reasoning, evaluating claims, questioning authorities, not taking explanation for granted, and independent thinking (Ernest, 2002). All these characteristics are essential qualities for students' critical mathematical competencies. Mezirow (1990) highlights that critical reflection involves a critique of assumptions and beliefs. The concept of critique has a unique role in CME and involves processes that identify, interpret, analyse, evaluate and act. Skovsmose and Greer (2012b) highlight different ways of how critique can be understood, for instance, to critique arguments (a logical endeavour), epistemological scenarios (an epistemic endeavour), or real-world activities (a political endeavour). Students can critically examine the logical aspects of mathematics-based arguments in climate change issues. They can critically reflect on what knowledge is and how it is established, or they can critically investigate the political, economic, or social aspects of climate change issues.

Mathematics and critique are sometimes connected to certainty. However, Skovsmose and Greer (2012b) underline that the different forms of critique should not be associated with obtaining certainty. Dealing with uncertainty in climate change issues is relevant when it concerns facilitation for students' critical mathematical competencies. For instance, as highlighted by Hauge (2016b) and Hauge and Barwell (2015, 2017), students can critique an argument involving mathematical choices. It is vital to acknowledge that absolute certainty may never be achieved, and that such an uncertainty need not necessarily be flawed, or automatically lead to the search for more certainty. To wait for more certainty in climate change can potentially lead to irreversible damage.

Critique can involve both reflections and actions, a critical agency. A critical agency can mean that critique is not only reflective but can include attempts to make changes (Skovsmose & Greer, 2012b). Actions can be concrete activities such as eating less meat but could also include students' argumentations. Herheim and Rangnes (2016) argue that argumentation is an action that can contribute to change. Students' argumentation can also include forms of judgments. Atweh (2012) underlines that every critique involves a judgment about "what is good" (p. 332) and thus enters an ethical discourse. Relatedly, Brookfield (2009) discusses critical reflection as a normative aspect. Regarding climate change, Gardiner (2008, 2011) and Wardekker, Petersen, and van der Sluijs (2009) highlight that critique and critical reflections

involve values as well as ethical and moral dimensions. Thus, facilitating students' critical reflections in the context of climate change can involve normative aspects and ethical judgments, and teachers can be aware of this aspect when including this topic in the mathematics classroom.

Skovsmose (1992) provides educational meaning to mathemacy and critical reflections by describing six types of questions teachers and students can work with that generate reflections on different levels. Figure 2 visualises these questions. The first two questions focus on “pure” mathematics, while the following two concern the relationship between mathematics and the problem. The fifth question focuses on the general effect of pursuing the problem with the chosen mathematical tool, while the sixth takes a meta-perspective on the process of reflection. Together, these types of questions can guide students before, during, and after lessons and function as a tool for teachers (and researchers) to facilitate and reflect on students' critical mathematical competencies.



**Figure 2. Six types of questions students can ask that generate reflections on different levels (Skovsmose 1992, p. 9).**

Figure 2 was used during research partnership meetings to initiate communication about how critical reflections could be included in the mathematics classroom.

Hauge, Gøtze, Hansen, and Steffensen (2017, accepted) connect Skovsmose's (1992)



six steps of reflections to climate change. Four relevant categories of critical reflections are highlighted concerning; mathematics itself; the relevance and reliability of a mathematics-based argument; the topic of climate change as a result of applying mathematics; and, the role of mathematics in climate change. They discuss whether some types of critical reflections are more present in the classroom than others, for instance, those concerning the algorithm and the mathematics itself rather than the role of mathematics in climate change. Some of the mathematics in climate change are too advanced for students to understand. Teachers can, therefore, find it challenging to use climate change as a context to make critical reflections in the mathematics classroom (Abtahi et al., 2017; Steffensen & Hansen, 2019). However, Hauge et al. (2015) found that “students are capable of reflection on mathematical information, although the underlying mathematics is too advanced to grasp” (p. 1582). Climate change can provide situations where students can use mathematics and mathematics-based argumentation, and in which they can participate in critique and critical reflections.

### **2.2.5 Values and controversies**

From a strictly positivistic view, one can argue that mathematics is neutral, objective, and value-free. As previously described, from a CME-perspective, mathematics and mathematics education is neither value-free nor neutral. For instance, the curriculum can bind teachers “to act ethically and with environmental awareness” (The Education Act, 1998, § 1-1). Values in mathematics education can also be manifest when teachers advocate for specific values and act as “moral agents and value educators” (Seah, 2016, p. 2). Values are an essential part of students’ critical competencies and can serve as a foundation as well as provide guidelines.

Freire (2007) describes critical consciousness as representing “the development of critical awareness” (p. 15). He argues that education should include dialogue, investigation and research, and debate real problems. Moreover, the school should have “faith in the student and his power to discuss, to work, to create” (p. 33). Mathematics education should have faith in students’ power to be engaged in discussions on socially relevant issues, and these discussions could involve ethical dilemmas involving values and critical consciousness. In real-world public debates about climate change, conflicting perspectives are present, as well as perspectives on righteousness, justice, and fairness (Johansen, Hegdal, & Vetlesen, 2000). Students’

discussion in the mathematics classroom should also include such perspectives. Students in Norway feel a moral duty to prevent climate change (Fløttum, Dahl, & Rivenes, 2016). At the same time, they know that their welfare are in part beholden to the petroleum industry. This so-called Norwegian paradox sometimes influences public climate change debates in Norway; while the government argues for actions on climate change, they continue with oil-exploration and exploitation. These conflicting values and interest cause political controversies regarding how to proceed.

Many teachers consider their task limited to convey factual information (Monroe, Plate, Oxarart, Bowers, & Chaves, 2017), and regard teaching about climate change as a matter of giving the students the appropriate scientific knowledge (Hicks, 2014). Facilitating discussions where values, critical consciousness and controversies are apparent may differ from this view. Ernest (2009) and Atweh and Brady (2009) argue that mathematics education should be considered and recognised as a socially responsible discipline because our society is partly enabled by mathematics. Also, Abtahi et al. (2017) suggest that mathematics education could take an ethical and responsible approach to climate change. Including values and controversies in school mathematics through debates and discussions is one way of making mathematics education a more responsible discipline.

Controversies are an essential feature of climate change. A controversial topic is typically disputed, for instance, there are political controversies on how we should deal with climate change. Should nations instantly stop oil exploration? Or corporations pay (higher) carbon tax? Should individuals stop eating meat or only be allowed a certain number of flights? Hess (2009) describes a controversial political issue as “questions of public policy that spark significant disagreement” (p. 37). The controversies in climate change involve scientific and political concerns, such as disputing whether anthropogenic climate change exists. When deciding on what is a controversy, Hess (2009) outlines the “tipping point” for when a topic goes from being a controversy to become a “settled case” (p. 113). Anthropogenic climate change can be regarded as a settled issue, based on a substantial scientific consensus (Cook et al., 2013; Oreskes, 2018).

Many teachers can avoid controversial topics, reasoned by the fear of indoctrination, discomfort, the need for safety, and a feeling of fairness (Hess, 2009; Hess & McAvoy,

2014). Relatedly, Simic-Muller et al. (2015) found less willingness amongst teachers to teach controversial topics in a real-world-context. Teachers can consider it a challenge to be objective and neutral (Steffensen & Hansen, 2019; Steffensen & Rangnes, 2019). Nevertheless, researchers like Atweh (2012), Gutstein (2006), Hess (2009) emphasise that education should include controversial topics. For instance, Hess (2009) argues that schools should include controversial topics “to help students discuss and envision political possibilities” (p. 6). Facilitating discussions in the classroom on the controversies of climate change could prepare students to participate in public debates in society as informed and critical citizens. An important feature of these discussions is students’ acknowledging each other’s standpoint and that genuine views and differences should be respected (Gutstein, 2006; Hess, 2009; Hess & McAvoy, 2014). In a lived democracy, different perspectives should be treated with respect. Moreover, citizens should be encouraged to express their views, listen to other standpoints, and potentially adjust their views accordingly; everyone’s perspective is important. Disrespecting perspectives that differ from your own, in particular where controversies and values are present, can be deconstructive in debates, unproductive in dealing with challenges, and potentially contribute to a polarised society.

Teachers motivating their students to act is less likely to cause debate in issues with little controversy. Motivating them to action becomes riskier when controversies are involved. However, in climate change, inaction can be a form of action. Teachers who avoid including controversial issues do not choose a neutral path, but actively choose one form of action. Gutstein (2006) suggests that students could investigate and take action on issues in society through the use of mathematics. The recent interest amongst young people seen in the school strikes for climate actions (Kohli, 2019; Marris, 2019; Wearden & Carrington, 2019) could be an entry point for CME to investigate and take forms of action. For instance, as suggested by Steffensen and Kacerja (accepted), this can be done through mathematical modelling when exploring CO<sub>2</sub>-footprints and by argumentation and standpoint.

### **2.2.6 A student-centred and dialogic learning environment**

Learning environments can be characterised by teachers show and tell and students’ exercise of mathematical tasks from books (Bergem et al., 2016; Echazarra et al., 2016; Vavik et al., 2010). Students are evaluated by how able they are to solve the

task. Mellin-Olsen (1991), Skovsmose (2001, 2011), and Maaß (2018) refer to these learning environments as task discourse, exercise paradigm, and teacher-centred transmission-based teaching, respectively.

In contrast to these learning environments stands inquiry-based learning and landscapes of investigation. Inquiry-based learning involves student-centred learning. Students can be involved in observing phenomena, posing questions, carrying out hands-on experiments, seeking explanations, prioritising evidence, interpreting and evaluating solutions, and communicating their solutions (Artigue & Blomhøj, 2013; Maaß, 2018; Maaß & Dorier, 2012; Maaß & Engeln, 2018; Maaß, Swan, & Aldorf, 2017). In landscapes of investigation, there are similar characteristics. The mathematical tasks in a landscape of investigation can refer to pure mathematics, semi-reality, or real-life references (Skovsmose, 2001, 2011). The tasks do not necessarily involve only one correct answer; textbooks are seldom used, the real-life references are meaningful, the teacher becomes a supervisor rather than the one with the correct answer, and students participate in inquiry-oriented discussions. A move towards landscapes of investigation is highlighted by Skovsmose (2001, 2011) as making the students the acting subject in their learning processes, and a move from pure mathematics to real-world problems could facilitate reflections on mathematics and its applications. These kinds of learning environments invite students to formulate questions and explore and look for explanations, qualities that are relevant when facilitating students' critical mathematical competencies. The role of the teacher can shift. Instead of providing explanations and exercises, they can challenge students by probing questions, managing and encouraging discussion where alternative standpoints are present, and helping students connect their ideas (Maaß & Dorier, 2012).

Inquiry-based learning and landscapes of investigation are potential ways of enabling students to construct meaning through inquiry-based processes. These inquiries can take the form of “what if”-inquiries and involve global temperature, CO<sub>2</sub>-emission, or consumption. In the exercise paradigm and in teacher-centred transmission-based teaching, where much revolves around solving mathematical tasks, there is a possibility that students can develop what Mellin-Olsen (1987) and Skemp (2006) refer to as instrumental understanding. Key phrases that describe this understanding is “rules without reasons” or “the ability to use a rule” (Skemp, 2006, p. 2). Opposed

to this is relational understanding, which Skemp (2006) describes as “knowing both what to do and why” (p. 2). A relational understanding can enable students to relate ways of solving one kind of problem and adopting this method to other problems. How students interact with mathematical tasks is relevant for a relational understanding, and it can be relevant to ask questions such as the following:

*Do they discuss their results when doing investigations? Do they produce their own ideas for further investigations? How much do they relate their mathematical knowledge to situations outside the classroom? Do they have ideas about examining certain situations by means of mathematics? (Mellin-Olsen, 1981, p. 366)*

The questions and concerns raised by Mellin-Olsen (1981) are applicable to reflect on before, during and after lessons. Mathematics teachers can encourage students to discuss their results, and ask what these results tell us, or what this means to us. Mathematics should not be about learning a rule to pass an exam. The connections between students’ lives and school mathematics can be relevant to providing a mathematics education that matters to students. The engagement in climate change issues shown by students all over the world (Kohli, 2019; Marris, 2019; Wearden & Carrington, 2019) indicates that climate change matters. The type of learning environment, as well as the context, can have significance for developing students as critical citizens in a lived democracy.

A particular feature of students-centred learning involves dialogues. Dialogues in the mathematics classroom appear in a variety of forms. One form is the Initiative-Response-Feedback (IRF)-dialogue. Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) describe these as teachers asking questions, students replying, and teachers giving feedback. These dialogues relate to teacher-centred learning. In contrast to IRF-dialogues are inquiry-based dialogues. Alrø and Johnsen-Høines (2010, 2012) describe inquiry-based dialogues as constituting qualities such as asking open questions, wondering, making a hypothesis, listening, making inquiries without posing an actual question, and wishing to understand more. The qualities of dialogues impact the learning of mathematics, in particular those involving inquiry, equality, and risk-taking. When I refer to dialogues in this study, I mean inquiry-based dialogues.

Inquiry-based dialogues are highlighted by Herheim and Rangnes (2016) as a way for students to identify and critique the use of mathematics in society and take a stand. To have the ability to participate in dialogues is an essential part of students' critical mathematical competencies. Alrø and Skovsmose (2002) advocate the Inquiry Cooperation Model (IC-model) and present eight aspects of inquiries through dialogues: getting in contact, locating, identifying, advocating, thinking aloud, reformulating, challenging and evaluating. Dialogues are used as an analytic tool in the papers, particularly in paper IV. The characteristics described by Alrø and Johnsen-Høines (2010, 2012), and the characteristics in the IC-model, contribute to identifying if and how students posed open questions, listening to peers argumentation, or advocate for their standpoint. Dialogic and critical approaches are highlighted by Artigue and Blomhøj (2013) as a theoretical framework that resonates with inquiry-based mathematics education.

When dealing with complex problems, dialogues are particularly relevant. Hauge and Barwell (2017) argued that focusing only on the mathematical procedure is insufficient when dealing with the controversies of climate change. There must be dialogues that engage students in discussions as well as allow them to face competing knowledge-claims, referred to as knowledge conflict by Skovsmose (1994). Hauge and Barwell (2017) exemplify a knowledge conflict when measuring the temperature of the earth; there is no absolute method, and the process involves choices on location and statistical method. These choices can become the object of disputes in public debates as well as the basis of understanding climate change. It is vital for students' critical mathematical competencies that they become aware of knowledge conflicts, and that they learn to negotiate, critique, and reflect through inquiry-based dialogues. Vithal (2003) also emphasises conflict and dialogue as two main components in CME. She describes conflicts that emerge in the classroom as having a different status: "A conflict in mathematical knowing is often given priority over a conflict in reflective knowing by teachers" (p. 344). For instance, conflicts regarding the mathematical aspects of graphs were considered more urgent than the potential implication of the graph. Furthermore, she underlines that different types of conflicts were handled differently. Teachers and students considered conflicts involving debates on reflective knowing as more open than those on mathematical knowing, the latter often expectedly resolved by the teachers.

### **2.3 Concluding reflection on the theoretical perspectives**

In this chapter, I have presented and discussed the theoretical perspectives and the theoretical foundation, with an emphasis on a CME perspective. In the conceptual framework, highlighted concepts were discussed, such as lived democracy, critical citizens, the formatting powers of mathematics, mathematical literacy, critique, values, and dialogic learning environments. Some of these concepts have a more prominent place in this study than others. For instance, critical citizens and lived democracy represent the foundation and background for the study. It is present in all four papers, either explicitly or implicitly. Other concepts have a prominent place in some of the papers and are less emphasised in the others. For instance, controversies and values are highlighted in paper II, the formatting power of mathematics in paper III, and critiquing and dialogical learning in paper IV. Although each of the concepts and theoretical perspectives makes relevant contributions, when put together, they constitute the essence of what this PhD-study is about: how focusing on climate change can facilitate students' critical mathematical competencies. The theoretical perspectives presented here, and in the literature overview (paper I), provide a framework for the research design and an analytical tool to reflect on the results and findings. In the following chapter, the research methodology and research methods are described.

### 3 Research methodology and research methods

In this chapter, I describe the approaches I have used to understand how teachers can facilitate students' critical mathematical competencies. One approach was to explore relevant literature. The examination of literature was an ongoing process throughout the research: during the literature overview (paper I), the three papers from the research partnership (papers II, III, and IV), and the theoretical chapter in this thesis. The theoretical perspectives were used to generate a conceptual framework for research and analysis. A second approach<sup>10</sup> was an online survey. Two items were published: Abtahi et al. (2017), focusing on teachers' ethical responsibilities, and Steffensen and Hansen (2019), describing challenges and opportunities expressed by teachers. Although findings from this approach are not included in this thesis, this preliminary investigation contributed to gaining an impression of how teachers facilitated climate change in mathematics education and provided valuable insight for the third approach, the research partnership. The research partnership was an empirical study, where I collaborated with three teachers on facilitating students' critical mathematical competencies in the context of climate change.

An overview is presented in Table 3 that builds on Table 1 and Table 2. This overview presents the title of the papers, four research focuses, theoretical perspectives and conceptual framework, methodology, methods, and analysis for each paper. Following Table 3, the text is structured in four parts. The first part describes the research partnership. The second part describes the research methods used, while the third part describes the analysis. The last part reflects on the quality of the research.

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<sup>10</sup> I chose not to include the findings from the online survey, mostly for practical reasons. For instance, Steffensen and Hansen (2019) is written in Norwegian and Abtahi et al (2017) had a slightly different focus.



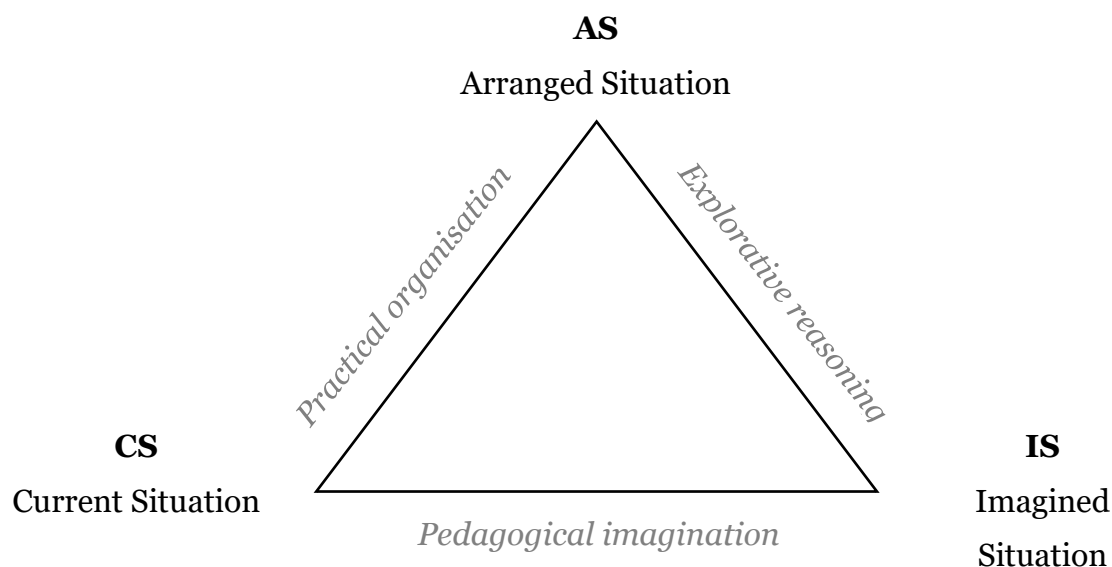
**Table 3. Overview of papers, research focuses, theoretical perspectives, and methodology & methods**

<b>Title of paper</b>	<b>Research focus</b>	<b>Theoretical perspectives and conceptual framework</b>	<b>Methodology and methods</b>	<b>Analysis</b>
<b>Critical Mathematics Education and Post-Normal Science: A literature overview</b>	<i>1. To identify and critically reflect on concepts and perspectives emphasised as important in the literature from two fields, CME and PNS.</i>	<b>Theoretical perspectives</b> Two theoretical fields, Critical Mathematics Education and Post-normal science were used to identify concepts emphasised in the literature as important.	<b>Overview study</b> Search strategies; inclusion, exclusion, and quality assessment.	Identifying focus areas through key terms and systematisation.
<b>Wicked problems and critical judgment in school mathematics</b>	<i>2. To explore how mathematics teachers' values can influence their teaching by investigating their facilitation and reflections on value-aspects regarding climate change.</i>	<b>Conceptual framework</b> Two main concepts were used to analyse and discuss the data; controversies and values.	<b>Research partnership</b> Collaborative research in iterative loops, video- and audio recording, interviews, observations, field notes, transcriptions, coding.	Identify patterns of reflections through categorisations, focusing on value-aspects.  Operationalisation of theories regarding e.g. values and controversies.
<b>The mathematical formatting of how climate change is perceived: Teachers' reflection and practice</b>	<i>3. To identify the potential for facilitating students' awareness and understanding of the formatting power of mathematics</i>	<b>Theoretical perspectives</b> Three main concepts were used to analyse and discuss the data; The formatting power of mathematics, uncertainty, critical citizens.	<b>Research partnership</b> Collaborative research in iterative loops, video- and audio recording, interviews, observations, field notes, transcriptions, coding.	Identify patterns of reflections through categorisations, focusing on the teachers and mathematical formatting of climate change. Operationalisation of theories regarding, e.g. formatting powers, uncertainty and critical citizens.
<b>Climate Change and Students' Critical Competencies: A Norwegian Study</b>	<i>4. To identify how students' critical mathematical competencies can appear in their argumentation</i>	<b>Conceptual framework</b> Theoretical perspectives from CME and STEM were used. The conceptual framework constitutes of three main concepts; critical reflections, mathematical, technological and reflective knowing, and inquiry-based dialogues.	<b>Research partnership</b> Collaborative research in iterative loops, video- and audio recording, interviews, observations, field notes, coding, transcriptions.	Identify patterns of reflections through categorisations, focusing on students' dialogues.  Operationalisation of theories regarding e.g., three kinds of knowing, critical reflections, and inquiry-based dialogues.

### 3.1 A research partnership

The focus of the research partnership was how teachers can facilitate students' critical mathematical competencies. I use the term *research partnership* to describe the collaboration with the teachers. Tiller (2006) describes a research partnership as a partnership between researchers and practitioners where all are equal partners. The participants can have different roles, e.g. regarding practical planning or analyses. The research partnership involves three experienced mathematics and natural science teachers (Max, Kim and Tim) in lower secondary school and their four classes. Kim and Tim had one class each, while Max had two classes, and there were 26–27 students in each class (106 students in total). The collaborative aspect of the research partnership was acknowledged as essential by all participants, compliant with what Atweh (2004) highlights: “Collaborative action research not only contributes to the development of collegiality within the teachers themselves but also between teachers, curriculum developers and academics” (p. 192).

According to Skovsmose and Borba (2004), the theoretical perspectives from CME resonate with the methodologies of “action research, participatory research and participatory action research” (p. 207). In the papers, I used the phrase *inspired by action research* to describe the research partnership. An example of how the research partnership is inspired by action research is given by using a model provided by Skovsmose and Borba (2004). This model (Figure 3) was used in the research partnerships as a developmental and thinking tool. During the meetings, the teachers referred to the *current situation* as something they wanted to change or add to. When they reflected on ways of facilitating students' critical mathematical competencies, this involved an *imagined situation*. Max, one of the teachers, used the wording “in my ideal dream world”. Structural and practical constraints, such as how schedules and lessons were organised at the school, how rooms were furnished, and their proximity to outdoor areas impacted these imagined situations into *arranged situations*. The processes in the research partnership involved ethical considerations, theoretical and practical knowledge, pedagogical imagination on how to move between the current situation and the imagined situation, and a willingness to listen, explore, negotiate, and analyse.



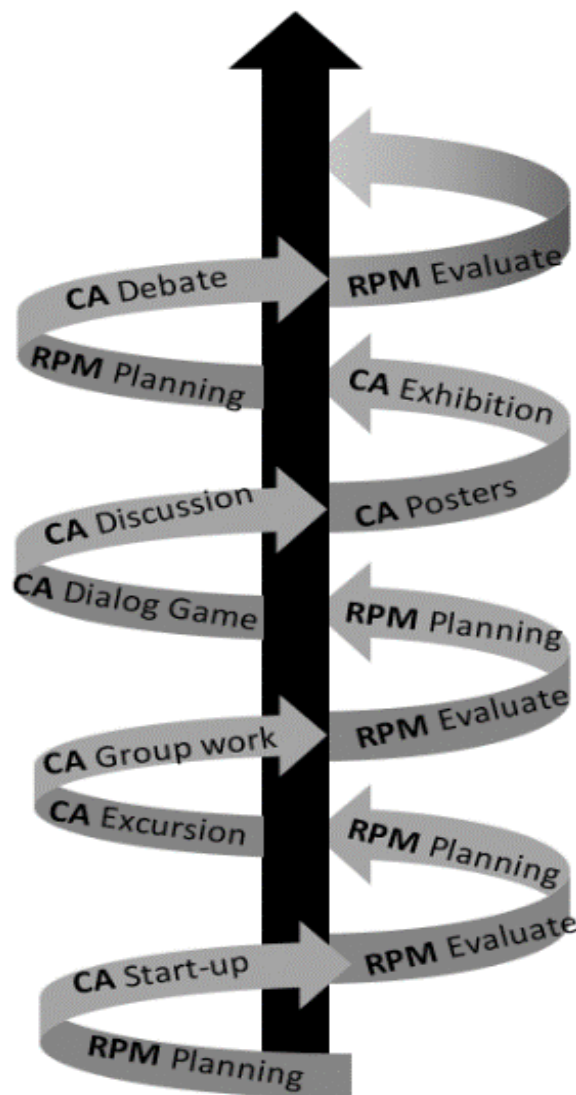
**Figure 3. Critical research in a research partnership (Skovsmose and Borba, 2004)**

The research partnership focused on educational practices, or what McNiff and Whitehead (2006) refer to as action focuses, where the purpose is to contribute with insights into new practices. Kemmis, Nixon, and McTaggart (2014) underline that changes in practitioners' practices and their understandings of practices is a relevant and interrelated aspect of action research. It is essential to point out that, although I initiated the research and provided the context of facilitating students' critical mathematical competencies, the teachers were the main drivers that initiated the changes in educational practice. During the partnership meetings, we discussed ideas and reflected on our understanding of their practices.

### **3.1.1 A research partnership through an action-reflection cycle**

We had seven Research Partnership Meetings (RPM) (see Appendix C for a more detailed overview). The focus was on planning, evaluating, and reflecting on how students' critical mathematical competencies could be facilitated. The empirical research was done in ongoing cycles of observing, reflecting, acting, evaluating, and modifying, referred to as an action-reflection cycle by McNiff and Whitehead (2006). In Figure 4, the action-reflection cycle for the research partnership is illustrated. Educational designs carried out in the classroom are termed Classroom Activities (CA).

The action-reflection cycle started with an RPM were teachers and I reflected on and explored ideas. Then followed the first CA's, a start-up where students were invited to contribute with ideas on how climate change, mathematics and critical mathematical competencies could be facilitated. Following these first CAs, RPMs and CAs were held interchangeably. The RPMs had a slightly different focus; while some involved detailed planning, others focused on evaluating. Not all three teachers did the same CA, but all of them reflected and planned together before the last CA. Final evaluation with the teachers was the last RPM.



**Figure 4. Action-reflection cycles of the research partnership.**

Figure 4 visualises how each step of the process builds upon

previous planning, actions and reflections. Kemmis et al. (2014) highlights it as a necessity to recognise the capacity of participants in all aspects of the research process, as well as to recognise that all participants aim to improve practices. I acknowledge the capacity of the teachers as vital for the research in aspects such as planning the CAs, reflecting on students' utterances and evaluating the CAs.

The CAs are constituted by seven themes, involving a total of 42 lessons (see Figure 5). All the lessons were organised as group work, varying from 3–6 students in each group. The teachers had three mathematics lessons (3 x 60 min) and two natural science lessons (2 x 60 min) each week in each class. They mainly integrated the teaching in these two subjects. Several of the lessons involved extra teaching

recourses, for instance, once a week, the classes were split in half, and sometimes pre-service teachers under training participated. Also, some of the lessons were carried out by teacher temps (due to illness).

The first theme, the *start-up*, was planned and conducted by all three teachers. I was introduced to the students in this start-up. The teachers expressed that the primary purposes were to introduce the topic, invite the students to contribute with ideas on how this topic could be carried out in the classroom, and cover basic concepts regarding climate change (see Appendix D1). By inviting the students to contribute with ideas, the teachers said they wanted to anchor the project within the students' interests so they could be a part of designing the lessons (student involvement). The students' suggestions involved using statistics and graphs, calculating CO<sub>2</sub> for cars, fieldwork, and a panel debate. The teachers' choice of themes resonated with the students' suggestions. By covering the basic concepts, the teachers said they wanted to make sure that the students had some basic knowledge about essential concepts (e.g. to differentiate between climate and weather and between greenhouse-effect and ozone-layer).

<b>Themes</b> (in chronological order)	<b>• Who and What:</b>
<b>1. Start-up</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• All four classes (4 lessons à 60 min)</li> <li>• Invited students to contribute with ideas</li> </ul>
<b>2. Excursion &amp; Report</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• All four classes (15 lessons à 60 min)</li> <li>• Measured climate relevant data (CO<sub>2</sub> etc.)</li> </ul>
<b>3. Dialogue game</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• One class (Kim's. 2 lessons à 60 min)</li> <li>• Discussed and reflected on claims</li> </ul>
<b>4. Discussions</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• One class (Kim's. 1 lesson à 60 min)</li> <li>• Discussed and reflected on graphs/facts</li> </ul>
<b>5. Posters</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Two classes (Max's. 6 lessons à 60 min)</li> <li>• Make posters for an energy-exhibition</li> </ul>
<b>6. Energy-exhibition</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• All four classes (10 lessons à 60 min)</li> <li>• Presented posters and quiz</li> </ul>
<b>7. Dialogue &amp; Debate</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Three classes (Kim's &amp; Max's. 4 lessons à 60 min)</li> <li>• Discussed claims &amp; plenary panel debate</li> </ul>

**Figure 5. An overview of the themes of the lessons.**

The second theme consisted of two parts; *excursion* and a *field report* (see Appendix D2). The theme was planned and conducted by all the teachers and was carried out with reduced class-size. In the excursion, the students collected abiotic and biotic factors, which they later discussed in the classroom, and made a field report. The teachers had several goals, for instance, that the students should experience the “climate researcher role”, gain hands-on experience of the different parameters relevant for climate change (e.g. CO<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>2</sub>, and temperature), acquire practical insight into measuring and measuring uncertainty, collecting and processing data, and presenting it.

The third theme, the *dialogue game*, was planned and conducted by one teacher, Kim (see Appendix D3). It was organised in groups of about five students with a reduced class-size. Kim emphasised that the students should reflect together on questions that did not have straightforward answers. The dialogue game was organised so the students first read a claim and then made an argument on whether they agreed, partly agreed or disagreed with the claim, without the other students commenting. When every group member had made their argument, the students had a second round, now with the possibility to change previous standpoints, possibly as a result of other students’ arguments. Kim pointed out that the goal with the dialogue game was not to reach a joint agreement on the claims, but rather to listen and reflect on different perspectives and mathematical argumentation and form personal opinions. Kim had made five claims about global temperature, CO<sub>2</sub>-emissions, and Norwegian oil and gas production. The claims could be recognised from public debates. At the end of the lesson, each group made their argumentation in plenary, and there was a teacher-led reflection and summary discussion.

The fourth theme, *discussions*, was planned and conducted by one teacher, Kim, and included one whole class. Here Kim had prepared some fact sheets on climate change in which mathematics was present in the form of graphs and numbers. The students discussed these graphs and numbers, and although not expressed or facilitated, their discussions followed the dialogue-structure from the Dialogue Game.

The fifth theme, *posters*, was planned by all teachers but only conducted by Max, and her two classes (see Appendix D4<sub>1</sub>). The lessons were carried out with reduced class-size. Max made a task where the students should make a poster. They could choose to

focus on essential numbers in climate change, or changes caused by climate change in their local community in the year 2100. The lessons took place in the computer lab, and the posters were made digitally. Two of the posters were to be presented by the students at the energy-exhibition.

The sixth theme, *energy-exhibition*, was planned and conducted by all teachers. The exhibition lasted for two days, and the students and teachers took turns representing the stand. Tim included all his students in the exhibition, while Kim and Max selected a group of students to represent their classes. The teachers made two quizzes with five multiple-choice questions (see Appendix D5). The teachers said that the quiz should actively engage the students in dialogue with the exhibition-participants and that the questions should make the quiz-participants reflect on climate change and mathematics. In addition to the quiz and the two posters made by Max' students, Kim had made a poster himself (Appendix D4<sub>2</sub>) with the aim to make people critically reflect on climate change issues.

The seventh theme, *dialogue & debate*, was planned by all but conducted by Kim and Max and their three classes. The lesson consisted of two parts: group discussions and a plenary debate (see Appendix D6). The group discussion was organised in the same manner as the previously described dialogue game, while the plenary debate was based on the group discussions. The students discussed issues concerning climate change and mathematics, e.g. CO<sub>2</sub>-emission, electric vehicles and road toll.

### **3.1.2 Strategical sampling and roles in the research partnership**

I knew the school and the teachers from previous employment and collaborations. I did a strategical sampling of the school, based on convenience, geographical proximity and willingness to participate. The sampling of teachers was based on their interest to participate and they collaborated regularly. The dialogue between researchers and practitioners is a crucial factor in research (Tiller, 2004). The communication between us was characterised by such as listening, open-mindedness, and friendliness, where all participants felt they gained something from it. Although I regard the teachers as equal researchers, I acknowledge that our different roles give unequal power relations. For instance, while the teachers did this in addition to their regular work, I worked full-time on the research. The fact that we were former colleagues contributed to reducing the traditional gap and unequal power relation;

however, these aspects did not diminish altogether. For instance, at one point, Kim asked me whether students could use computers, which can be interpreted as his considered me as the one in power. In the partnership meetings, we explicitly reflected upon the roles in the research partnership and on the power relations.

The different roles of the participants in the research partnership are worth reflecting on, as researchers, equal teachers/partners, (former) colleagues, observers, or participatory members of the group. Different situations could bring one of the identities more into the foreground. For instance, when interviewing students or teachers, I appeared more as a researcher when I interacted in discussions with students or planning with teachers. These multiple identities can be seen in the context of subjectivity and objectivity. Some situations work better with objectivity, such as when analysing and coding, while other situations work better with subjectivity. Vithal (2004) highlights that in a critical paradigm, the search for an objective “truth” in the study is replaced by findings in this particular context, based on interactions between all participants.

The teachers reflected together. They did not take a spectator’s approach, but rather made inquires with each other. The idea of one teacher could turn into another teacher’s idea in an alternating exchange of ideas in a transformative social process. Such thoughts on research as a social process are highlighted by McNiff and Whitehead (2006) as vital. All participants can develop inclusional methodologies, and they do not need to share the same set of values or agree on everything. Still, it is critical to recognise the uniqueness of others. The research partnership was a social process that supported participants in further developing ideas, learning and practice. In the initial meeting with the school administration, different concerns were expressed to the teachers (e.g. curriculum goals). The school administration suggested that the research could culminate in students presenting something about mathematics and climate change at an energy exhibition. This annual energy exhibition was a collaboration between the school and the private and public sector in this municipality. Thus, the school administration can be considered as part of an extended research partnership, in the sense that it to a certain degree had influence.



### **3.2 Research methods**

The empirical data consists of audio recordings of seven partnership meetings, video- and audio recording of 42 lessons, written material from teachers and students, and observations and field notes (see Appendix C and Appendix D for overviews and details). This triangulation of methods strengthens the validation of data (Bogdan & Biklen, 2003; Tracy, 2010). Some partnership meetings resembled a focus group interview and provided opportunities for closer observation and further analysis of what the teachers expressed. All meetings were audio-recorded and fully transcribed.

The observations in the classroom were audio and video recorded. I chose three groups from each class to be recorded (two audio-recorded and one video recorded). The choosing was based on whether all students in the group had signed the consent form (see Appendix A2). It was also based on recommendations by the teachers (e.g. willingness to talk). These recordings provided valuable opportunities to observe how students reflected and communicated. The recorded data was uploaded in NVIVO and partly transcribed. A selection of recordings was fully transcribed, based on relevance for the research focus, a strategical sampling of students or the lesson, or for practical reasons (e.g. recording was disrupted by noise). I was present in all the lessons and did all the transcribing.

A semi-structured interview guide was made for interviews with the teachers and students (see Appendix B). In addition to the interviews, I had informal talks individually with teachers and students. These talks provided opportunities to express individual views outside a group setting. Written material from teachers and students included notes (digital or handwritten), lesson and project materials, and presentations. Field notes (e.g. my thoughts and reflections) were written down when observing the lessons. The field notes varied in length, depending on the situations. The research was influenced by practical issues (e.g. sick leave, maternity leave), which resulted in more lessons from one of the teachers compared to the other two.

### **3.3 Analysis**

To answer the overall research question (how can focusing on climate change facilitate students' critical mathematical competencies?) four research focuses (see Table 1) were developed. These were operationalised into concepts that can, to a greater extent, be identified and analysed. For instance, in paper IV, concepts such as

critical reflections and dialogues were relevant to identify students' critical mathematical competencies. The qualities of inquiry-based dialogues described by Alrø and Johnsen-Høines (2010, 2012), and the IC-model by Alrø and Skovsmose (2002), were used to identify dialogic qualities in the students' utterances, for instance, how the students were making a hypotheses and inquiries.

The analytic process in the literature overview and the analysis of the empirical data from the research partnership had many similarities. First, it was essential to reduce and make sense of the rather vast amount of available information to get an impression of the research data. Next, it was relevant to check for consistency in the analysis and increase reliability; therefore, multiple methods were used to examine the research data. Examples of these methods were concept mapping, thematising subjects in different ways, statement summaries, data contrasting, and looking for keywords, similarities, differences, and tendencies. Suitable tools like NVivo, Excel worksheets and tables, and concept mapping tools, were used in the analysing process to organise, acquire an overview, transcribe, code and analyse the data.

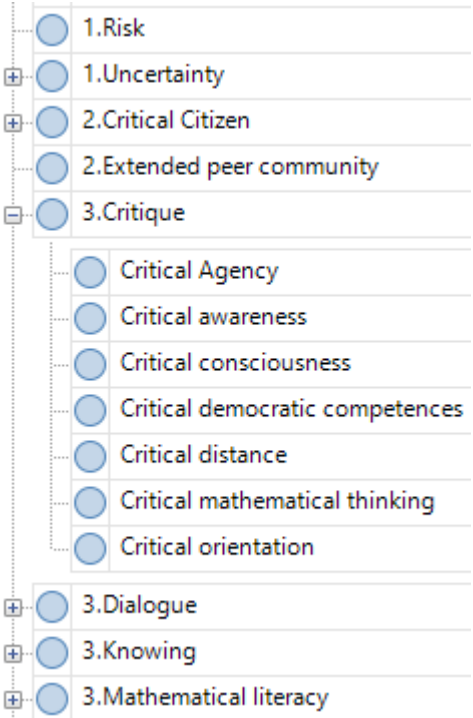
The unit of analysis was teachers' and students' utterances and actions. For instance, one unit of analysis was the discussions in the partnership meetings. Here we discussed students' and teachers' actions and utterances. Their actions included, for example, teachers' planning and reflections, their choices of learning environments, the design of student-tasks, and students' dialogues. Another unit of analysis was what the students and teachers said and did during the different activities, both at an individual level and group level. When students collaborated, they interacted with one another, and the unit of analysis was the students as a group. However, as highlighted by Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias (2008), such an approach can have two fallacies, an ecological and individualistic fallacy. For instance, when my unit of analysis was the group, the findings were not considered applicable to every individual student. Thus, generalisation drawn on behalf of the group was avoided.

The data were organised according to what Creswell (2013) describes as a custom-built and spiralling process involving six procedures: (1) manage and organise data, (2) read, (3) describe, (4) classify, (5) interpret and (6) represent and visualise. The first procedure, (1) to manage and organise the data, was crucial throughout the process of data collecting. All the research data (audio- and video files, word-

documents, and pdf-files) were structured in folders in NVivo. The literature was obtained through electronic search engines like Scopus and ERIC. A systematic approach to managing and organising the data was important, both due to a rather substantial amount of data, but also as a way of “getting a sense of the whole database” (Creswell, 2013, p. 183).

The reading of the data (2) involved cycles of in-depth reading and overview readings. When new data emerged, they provided new perspectives and gave existing data new meanings and interpretations. For instance, while transcribing, the reading of the data became more of an in-depth process than when observing or reading written text. Descriptions of data (3) ranged from concise field notes to more detailed reports. For instance, in the literature overview, notes were taken during the inclusion and exclusion process. These notes were later used to condense meanings and contributed to making relevant codes. In the research partnership, a description could be from situations in the classroom, or on immediate thoughts and impressions from the observation, and provided information that might otherwise be forgotten.

Classifying the data (4) and coding was done in NVivo. Condensing meaning, or aggregating text or other data into small codes of information, was done by partly starting with some predefined codes (concepts-driven coding), but mostly by allowing the codes to evolve from the data (data-driven coding). Throughout the coding process, rearranging and refining codes, and identifying themes, were done through cycles. The themes referred to a broader unit of codes, forming a common idea. For instance, in the literature overview, the final coding process resulted in four main themes. Figure 6 shows an excerpt of these themes indicated by numbers, e.g. Risk and Uncertainty was placed in theme one, while Critical citizen and Extended peer community was positioned in theme two. The number of codes and themes differed in the four articles but was kept at a manageable



**Figure 6. An excerpt of the two-level coding in NVivo.**

number with a maximum of three levels of sub-categories. The example in Figure 6 shows a two-level coding with the theme Critique and the seven sub-codes from the literature overview. The labels of the different codes originated both from *in vivo codes*, using specific words to search for, and names composed to best describe the information. An example of *in vivo* code is *critical consciousness*, used by, e.g. Freire (2007), and *critique* is an example of the best description.

The interpretation of data (5) started during the data collection and continued throughout the process of coding, formatting of themes, analysing, and writing. The interpretation focused on details in the data, as well as on the overall picture. I used both category-based and case-based analysis (Kuckartz, 2019) for further analysis. For instance, in paper III, the category *The formatting powers of mathematics* was used, and a case-summary was made for each of the teachers' utterances. The interpretation was formed as a solitary work, and in collaboration with colleagues, teachers from the research partnership, co-writers, and supervisors.

Representing and visualising the data (6) was relevant throughout the research. Some representations were created to visualise and ease the reading of texts; others were used for clarity and overviews when analysing the data. Some selected figures were refined from thinking-tools during analysis to become tools for communicating with the readers of the papers and this thesis; for instance, Figure 6 was further developed into Table 5 (page 68).

### **3.4 Concluding reflections on the quality of the study**

From the start and throughout this study, choices have been made to address the quality of the research. Here I highlight eight aspects, inspired by Tracy (2010): (1) worthy topic, (2) rich rigour, (3) sincerity, (4) credibility, (5) resonance, (6) significant contribution, (7) ethics, and (8) meaningful coherence. These concepts provide opportunities to discuss choices in regard to the quality of this study.

The first concept, a *worthy topic* (1), concerns the essence of the study. The overall research question concerns students' critical mathematical competencies, which I understand as essential for enabling critical citizens for a lived democracy. Moreover, mathematics education has an essential role to play in challenging undemocratic developments by facilitating students' constructive critique of issues relevant to themselves or society. Mathematics is central in describing, predicting and

communicating climate change (Barwell, 2013, 2018), and students need critical mathematical competencies to deal with such wicked problems. The context of climate change brings forth another aspect of this worthy topic: it is a significant challenge for society, and mathematics education and research need to address this.

*Rich rigour* (2) involves time spent in the field and the theoretical foundation. For instance, the theoretical constructs for the literature overview combine two fields, and the initial literature search resulted in 362 articles, 57 of which were included according to the inclusion and exclusion criteria and quality assessment. Time spent with teachers was approximately 18 months; with students this was about 12 months and included a total of 42 lessons. The relatively long period allowed for connecting and provided multiple settings for facilitating students' critical mathematical competencies. Moreover, it provided the possibility for overview-perspectives as well as more in-depth perspectives.

*Sincerity* (3) can be achieved by self-reflexivity and transparency. My motivation and background for doing this PhD-study are described in the preface of this thesis. Underlying assumptions are reflected on in subchapter 1.2, and transparency and self-reflexivity are included in the descriptions of the methodology and methods. My background, motivation, and theoretical and methodological choices have influenced the findings and discussions. However, communicating, reflecting and being transparent about different aspects of the research can compensate for any biases I hold as a researcher by giving the reader insights into these.

*Credibility* (4) refers to thick descriptions, triangulation and crystallisation, multivocality, and member reflections (Tracy, 2010). In the literature overview, a thick description was provided, for instance, by describing the search and exclusion-criteria. However, word-limitations in papers II, III, and IV had some restrictions on the in-depth descriptions. A more thorough and detailed description is provided in this thesis and in the attached teachers material in the appendices. These descriptions can, to a considerable extent, allow readers to explicate culturally situated meanings through additional information. The research partnership provided opportunities for member reflections, questions and critiques of all aspects of the research. For instance, they could read and share input concerning how the findings were presented in the three papers and this thesis.

*Resonance* (5) involves how research could affect an audience, or how transferable the findings are across different contexts. One example of how I attempted to affect the audience was in paper II. Below is an utterance from a student building up a moral claim on why we should care about our planet:

*I both agree and disagree with the claim, because I think that we should always save the environment as much as possible. It is our planet and we will be staying here for a very, very long time, so why destroy it already now? Imagine when your grandchildren have grandchildren, do you really want them to wear a breathing mask when they go out because the air is so polluted that it is dangerous to breathe? Or even worse, when your grandson's grandson has grandchildren, do you want that it no longer is possible to live on our dear planet, because we did not bother to drive a little slower, or buy an electric car? I certainly do not want this. I would rather drive a bit slower and let my ancestors live a little longer.*

This utterance was partly chosen because it affected and resonated with me, and potentially the reader, and it was an example of an expression of environmental engagement. This engagement can also show how the research might be transferable across this context with students worldwide showing engagement through climate strikes. Another example of how this research could resonate with other teachers or researchers is that they might identify with how Kim and Max are challenged by climate change controversies.

The *significance of this contribution* (6) concerns providing insight into how wicked problems in the mathematics classroom can occur. It supplements existing research in the field of CME and STEM by offering insight into an empirical practice. For instance, it describes how the teachers facilitated students' critical mathematics competencies and some of their expressed thoughts, ideas, and challenges. It also describes how students dealt with complex challenges, their concerns, and the characteristics of their dialogues. This is insight relevant to and valuable for mathematics researchers and educators, pre-and in-service teachers, and teachers.

*Ethical considerations* (7) have been carried out throughout this study. When I chose to include climate change in the mathematics classroom, this was an ethical choice, and doing so brings along ethical questions from amongst the students and teachers. This inclusion is in line with researchers such as Abtahi et al. (2017) and Atweh and Brady (2009), who argue that mathematics teachers, educators and researchers have a responsibility to include critical socio-political issues, and as a consequence of this, a social-responsible mathematics education. Additional ethical considerations in the research partnership were anonymity, confidentiality, integrity, and informed consent. Ethical considerations also involve approvals from The Norwegian National Committees for Research Ethics (2014) (see Appendix A1), and informal and formal consents obtained from teachers, teacher temps, and students. It was essential that the teachers' involvement was voluntary and that they had the interest, motivation and willingness to participate. An informal consent and the choice to participate in this PhD-study was underlined as crucial for the agency, freedom and capacity to act in critical educational research by researchers such as Fossheim and Ingierd (2015) and Vithal (2004). Therefore, I emphasised that even though the school administration had agreed to take part on the teachers' behalf, it was possible to decline<sup>11</sup> and withdraw from the research.

*A meaningful coherence* (8) involves using appropriate methods and related research questions, literature and findings to achieve the stated purposes. The study was founded in the field of CME, and as highlighted by Skovsmose and Borba (2004), these theoretical perspectives resonate with the methodologies of action research, which I in this PhD-study relate to the research partnership. The research question on how focusing on climate change can facilitate students' critical mathematical competencies was answered in four individual papers, each holding a specific research focus, as well as in this thesis, which takes a metaperspective and discusses the findings.

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<sup>11</sup> Five teachers were invited; two teachers declined for different reasons (e.g. uncertainty regarding content knowledge of either mathematics or natural science and time spent).

## **4 Findings and discussions**

This chapter consists of five parts. In the first part, I present the most important findings from the four papers. In the second part, I take a meta-perspective and discuss the findings across the four papers. This is followed by the third part, where I discuss the limitations of the study. In the fourth part, I reflect on the implications and future research based on this PhD-study. Lastly, in the fifth part, I make some concluding comments.

### **4.1 Findings from the four papers**

Present findings from the four papers briefly and systematically involves limited space for exposing the richness of the empirical findings. However, in this subchapter, together with the next sub-chapter, I outline how the findings from the four papers are interconnected and answer the research question.

An overview, which includes keywords for the findings from the four papers, is presented in Table 4. This table extends Table 1, Table 2, and Table 3, and relates the findings to the research question, theoretical foundation, methodology and analysis. Following Table 4, I present the findings from the papers chronologically: first the literature overview (paper I), then the findings from the research partnership (papers II, III, and IV).



**Table 4. Overview of papers, research focus, theoretical perspectives, methodology, methods, and findings**

Title of paper	Research focus	Theoretical perspectives	Methodology, methods and analysis	Findings
<b>Critical Mathematics Education and Post-Normal Science: A literature overview</b>	1. To identify and critically reflect on concepts and perspectives emphasised as important in the literature from two fields, CME and PNS.	<b>Theoretical perspectives</b> Two theoretical fields, Critical Mathematics Education (CME) and Post-normal Science (PNS), were used to identify concepts emphasised in the literature as important.	<b>Overview study</b> Search strategies; inclusion, exclusion, and quality assessment. Identifying focus areas through key terms and systematisation.	<b>Identified concepts:</b> wicked problems, uncertainty, complexity, controversy, risks, transdisciplinary, critical citizen, extended peer community, mathematical literacy, reflective knowing, critical agency, critique, dialogue, formatting power, power, responsibility, ethics, value, democratisation, and global society.
<b>Wicked problems and critical judgment in school mathematics</b>	2. To explore how mathematics teachers' values can influence their teaching by investigating their facilitation and reflections on value-aspects regarding climate change.	<b>Conceptual framework</b> Two main concepts were used to analyse and discuss the data: controversies and values.	<b>Research partnership</b> Collaborative research in iterative loops, video- and audio recording, interviews, observations, field notes, transcriptions, and code. Identify patterns of reflections through categorisations.	Teachers values can include philosophical dimensions, e.g. values in wicked problems. Wicked problems are perceived as a challenge by teachers. Teachers challenge each other's perspectives, and their values influence the facilitation of students' critical mathematical competencies.
<b>The mathematical formatting of how climate change is perceived: Teachers' reflection and practice</b>	3. To identify the potential for facilitating students' awareness and understanding of the formatting power of mathematics.	<b>Theoretical perspectives</b> Three main concepts were used to analyse and discuss the data: the formatting power of mathematics, uncertainty, and critical citizens.	<b>Research partnership</b> Collaborative research in iterative loops, video- and audio recording, interviews, observations, field notes, transcriptions, and code. Identify patterns of reflections through categorisations.	Develop an awareness of how mathematics is used in argumentation, allow enough time and opportunities for reflections on complex problems and collaborative research.
<b>Climate Change and Students' Critical Competencies: A Norwegian Study</b>	4. To identify how students' critical mathematical competencies can appear in their argumentation.	<b>Conceptual framework</b> Three main concepts were used to analyse and discuss the data: critical reflections, mathematical, technological and reflective knowing, and inquiry-based dialogues.	<b>Research partnership</b> Collaborative research in iterative loops, video- and audio recording, interviews, observations, field notes, transcriptions, and code. Identify patterns of reflections through categorisations.	Students' critical mathematics competencies appeared when they engaged in inquiry-based dialogues, while they critiqued presuppositions, through (intertwined) mathematical, technological and reflective argumentation.

#### 4.1.1 Findings from paper I: Critical mathematics education and post-normal science: A literature overview

In this literature overview, the focus is to *identify and critically reflect on concepts and perspectives emphasised as important in the literature of two fields, critical mathematics education and post-normal science*. The findings are categorised into four main areas: (1) Important characteristics of tasks; (2) Pupils' role in society; (3) Competences recognised as important; and, (4) Aspects of democracy. Table 5 provides an overview of the four categories, with associated questions, and the identified concepts and perspectives.

**Table 5. Overview of four main areas**

<b>Main area</b>	<b>Questions</b>	<b>Identified concepts</b>
1. Important characteristics of tasks	What characterises complex real-world problems?	Wicked problems, Uncertainty, Complexity, Controversy, Risks Multi/Inter/Transdisciplinary
2. Pupils' role in society	Why should pupils (be prepared to) contribute to complex problems in society?	Critical Citizen, Extended peer community
3. Competences recognised as important	What kind of competences do pupils need when reflecting on complex real-world problems (in the mathematics classroom)?	Mathematical literacy, Reflective knowing, Critical agency, Critique and Dialogue
4. Aspects of democracy	Why is it important to bring real-world problems into mathematics education from a democracy perspective?	Power, Formatting Power, Responsibility, Ethics, Value Democratisation and Global Society

In the literature from post-normal science, characteristics of real-life problems are emphasised and described. Perspectives such as uncertainty and values are suggested to be included in debates and processes regarding these problems in extended peer communities. In the literature from CME, ways of facilitating competencies recognised as necessary in a democracy are emphasised, and notions such as the formatting power of mathematics are argued to play a key role. In both fields, aspects such as critique and pluralistic dialogue are present and highlighted as important when dealing with complex issues in society. The combined perspective on CME and post-normal science contribute to the understanding of how mathematics education can contribute to students' processes of becoming critical citizens. The identified concepts and perspectives also work as a valuable starting point for exploring how mathematics teachers can facilitate students' critical mathematical competencies.

#### **4.1.2 Findings from paper II: Wicked problems and critical judgments in school mathematics**

In this paper, we (Steffensen, Herheim and Rangnes) focus on the value-aspects of climate change and how critical judgments in the mathematics classroom can be facilitated. We explore *how teachers' values can influence their teaching by investigating their facilitation and reflections of value-aspect in regard to climate change in school mathematics*. We reflect on findings from when students and teachers worked with an exhibition (a poster and a quiz) and dialogue game, and include reflections from the partnership meetings.

We found that the teachers' values influenced how they facilitated students' learning. For instance, they did not use mathematics textbooks or teacher-centred methods. Instead, they designed tasks from scratch or tweaked traditional mathematical tasks so that students could discuss the aspects of a graph, as an alternative to finding a quick answer to the task. The teachers facilitated students' collaborative work in groups and communication in dialogues and discussions. They stressed that students should listen to each other's arguments and potentially change their argumentation as a result of other students' reasoning.

The teachers' values were also seen in that they emphasised the controversies in climate change issues, instead of avoiding them. For instance, Kim designed a poster by using visual tools (graphs and a cartoon) to deliberately create debate and reflection. They highlighted the use of numbers in climate change for students to reflect on. In the partnership meetings, the teachers reflected (together) on how mathematics can be used purposely, and they challenged each other standpoints and used numbers and graphs.

In the paper, we discuss whether the teachers' values influenced their use of numbers and graphs to highlight features of climate change when designing a quiz. They chose different topics to point out either the small temperature changes during the last 20 years or the extensive sea ice melting in the Arctic. The students used numbers (e.g. percentage of countries' renewable energy) to make value judgments. Also, they built up moral claims, using mathematical and scientific facts provided as a starting point.

#### **4.1.3 Findings from paper III: The mathematical formatting of how climate change is perceived: Teachers' reflection and practice**

This paper focuses on *identifying how teachers reflect on and facilitate students' awareness and understanding of the formatting power of mathematics*. The data material in this paper consists of the introductory-lesson, from the process when the quiz for an exhibition was made, and meta-reflections from the partnership meetings, when a fieldwork activity was planned.

The teachers facilitated collaborative work in groups and held discussions on topics such as measuring-results, climate change related graphs, and the potential effects and results of climate change measures. In the introduction-lesson, they expressed goals such as introducing and clarifying basic concepts and inviting students to contribute with ideas. They also explicitly emphasised aspects of democracy and critical citizens to the students and related this to a critical assessment of quantitative information in climate change, for instance by highlighting the challenges of melting ice and shrinking habitats for polar bears. The facilitation of reflections and discussions resulted in, for instance, students' thoughts on the 2°C-target and questioning a continued Norwegian oil exploration. However, although the teachers emphasised critically assessing quantitative information, the students took for granted the mathematical argumentation in play and used it as a premise in their discussions.

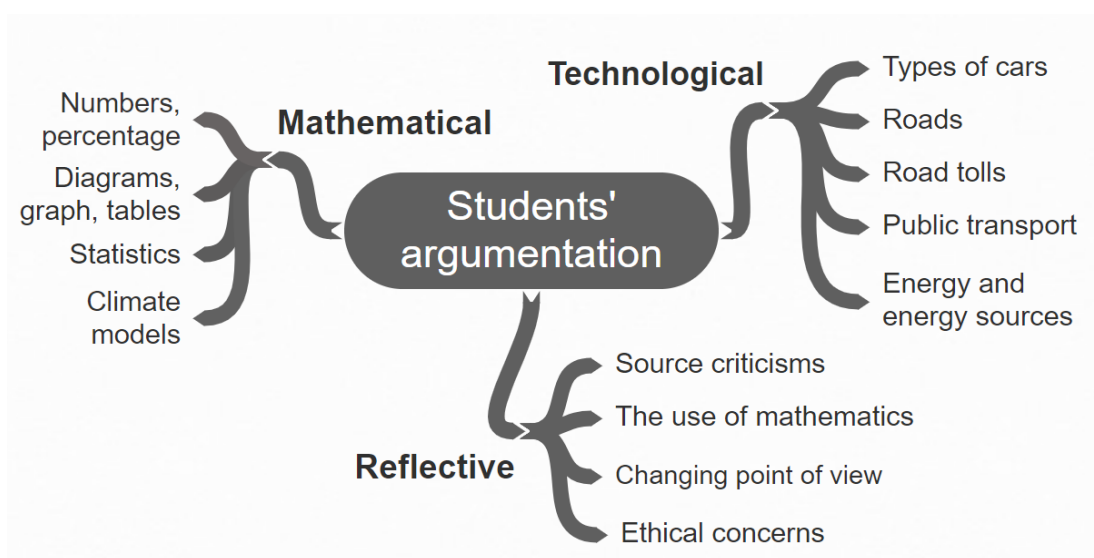
During the partnership meetings, the teachers meta-reflected on climate change issues like how the average global temperature is measured and how advisors and mathematical models (or hidden mathematics) can influence politicians and others. Their reflections resulted in, among other things, a fieldwork-activity where the students should perform hands-on measures of sea-temperature in different ways and thereafter choose the most representative measurement based on that discussion regarding measurement issues and the average global temperature.

In the quiz, the teachers' mathematical choices could potentially format the students' understanding of climate change and the choice of topics, graphs, and distractors. For instance, the choice of questions, such as the one addressing small changes since 1998, can influence students' understanding of average global temperature. Also, graphs showing a skewed picture between measures and predicted measures can format students' understanding of climate change models as untrustworthy.

#### 4.1.4 Findings from paper IV: Climate change and students' critical competencies: A Norwegian study

Inspired by the question of how a critical STEM-approach can facilitate students' empowerment as critical citizens, I focus in this paper on *identifying how students' critical mathematical competencies can appear in their argumentation*. This focus is addressed by examining students' utterances in discussing climate change.

The students worked collaboratively and communicated in groups in a dialogue game and following plenary debate on CO<sub>2</sub>-emission, climate change, and road tolls concerning a local road-project. The students' argumentation involved a range of topics and concerns and was categorised in 13 categories, e.g. road tolls, public transportation, climate models, the use of mathematics, and ethical concerns (Figure 7). Their argumentation on road tolls concerned perspectives such as economic consequences, energy-sources and potential environmental benefits from electric vehicles, and the inclusion of full-lifecycles of products. Argumentation regarding the use of mathematics involved an awareness or competencies associated with identifying the role that mathematics can play in strengthening an argument. The students also reflected on the role of researchers in mathematical models (climate models) and made ethical argumentation involving social-justice concerns for future citizens. The students discussed a graph on CO<sub>2</sub>-emission and critically reflected on inquiry-based dialogues, with features like inviting other peers to join the dialogue, acknowledging their perspectives, thinking aloud and challenging each other.



**Figure 7 Students' utterances from dialogues and debates resulted in 13 categories and three main themes**

## 4.2 Discussion of findings

In this discussion of findings, I take a meta-perspective on the findings from the PhD-study. In the process of synthesising the findings, I first identify what stood out as relevant from the three empirical papers (the literature overview in paper I is indirectly included since it influenced the focuses in the three other papers). Next, I thematically categorise these into themes identified from the data. This discussion is structured according to these themes: lived democracy and critical citizens; the mathematical formatting of climate change; critique and critical reflections; mathematical literacy and three kinds of knowing; controversies and values; and student-centred and dialogic learning. Some themes have a stronger emphasis on teachers' facilitation while others focus on students' critical mathematical competencies.

### 4.2.1 Lived democracy and critical citizens

An essential part of the teachers' facilitation of students' critical mathematical competencies was the aspects of critical citizens and lived democracy. An example was discussed in paper III when Max explicitly emphasised to the students that an active democracy requires students with critical mathematical competencies and implicitly connected democracy and climate change. She encouraged the students to reflect individually and collectively on challenges within climate change. By doing so, Max drew the students' attention to the relation between democracy, mathematics, and urgent societal issues. Another example was discussed in paper II, where Kim's explicit argued that students' critical mathematical competencies<sup>12</sup> are the most crucial thing students learn in school. He emphasised that students should know something about modelling to be critical and highlighted climate change as an excellent opportunity to enable students to think critically and make up their minds.

The ideas and thoughts from Max and Kim in the two examples go beyond the focus of merely calculating and mastering mathematical procedures and techniques. Their emphasis is more in line with ideas from CME, as described by Skovsmose (1994, 2008) and Ernest (2002, 2019). It can involve examples of mathematics teachers reclaiming schooling as an emancipatory project, as highlighted by Giroux (2011), where critical thought and agency are essential to students as critical citizens in a

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<sup>12</sup> In one of the partnership meetings, we clarified relevant concepts, and the terms critical mathematical competencies and critical democratic competencies were used interchangeably.

lived democracy. A mathematics education does not necessarily explicitly embrace the ideas and thoughts on critical mathematical competencies and democracy, as expressed by Max and Kim. It can, therefore, be relevant to reflect on how this aspect should be included in the mathematics classroom. When including this topic in the classroom, the teachers engaged the students in matters of social justice, as highlighted by Chomsky (2003), Dewey (2011), and Lund and Carr (2008). For instance, the discussions in the classroom involved examples of how climate change can be socially unjust both for present and future citizens, or for rich and poor citizens, and students took standpoints in these issues.

When the teachers included climate change in their teaching, this involved authentic and controversial socio-political problems relevant for the participation of lived democracy (Atweh, 2012; Breivega et al., 2019; Gutstein, 2006; Hess, 2009). Their facilitation involved a variety of forms, such as investigation, exploring claims, discussions, debates, and listening to peers' argumentation and dialogues. The teachers used student-centred, dialogical and critical approaches. These approaches can be valuable in regard to students' competencies and inquiry habits of mind (Artigue & Blomhøj, 2013; Maaß, 2018). Students who become used to critical inquires in school can potentially continue with this also outside school, especially if the context is problems from the real-world. The teachers combined these approaches with an explicit emphasis on critical mathematical competencies and democracy, focusing on enabling students as critical citizens, rather than mastering basic mathematics competencies.

By inviting the students into discussions about complex, real-world problems, the teachers could both develop them as critical citizens and treat them as having already achieved this status. Treating them as citizens is in contrast to seeing the students as a part of citizens-in-the-making (Biesta et al., 2009; Marshall, 1950), and recognising both these aspects is relevant when teachers facilitate students' critical mathematics competencies. As discussed in paper IV, their facilitation helped the students to critically interpret mathematics-based information, make critical judgments, and show critical awareness of mathematics. Such qualities were emphasised as crucial for empowering students to become critical citizens (Ernest, 2002).

Although the recent school strikes can be considered an example of how students can make critical judgments, and act as critical citizens, in this PhD-study, other forms of action were observed. In the classroom, the students' action took a variety of forms, such as their mathematics-based argumentation to peers, or in their individual critical reflections when discussing implications of a graph for society. An example of student's critical judgments was described in paper II<sup>13</sup> and concerned argumentation when examining a graph on CO<sub>2</sub>-emission. A student was building up a moral claim and stated that she would act for bettering the future for generations to come. This example (and other related examples) started with the student interpreting mathematics-based information. She then continued by using this information to make critical judgments and ended up expressing her views to peers: that she would act. Enabling students to take action for making a difference in society is important for schooling democracy (Giroux, 1989). Based on observations in these four classrooms, along with the research literature presented, mathematics teachers can enable students as critical citizens in the classroom and for a lived democracy.

#### **4.2.2 The mathematical formatting of climate change**

The mathematical formatting of climate change, as discussed in paper III and described by Barwell (2013, 2018), was present in the research partnership as a focus for the discussions as well as an influential aspect of our talks. In this sub-chapter, I highlight five aspects of how the formatting power of mathematics was involved concerning teachers' facilitation of students' awareness for the formatting power of mathematics and students' identification and understanding of the formatting power. One aspect was about how the teachers explicitly expressed that they consider it vital for students as critical citizens to identify, understand and reflect on how mathematics can influence how we perceive climate change issues. It is important to become aware of how mathematics is intertwined in human activities (Greer, 2009; Skovsmose, 1994), which in this case concerns issues regarding climate change. Teachers' concerns in regard to time management – the large number of curricula aims, preparations for tests and exams, as expressed by Kim, Tim and Max – can make teachers choose to exclude a focus on students' awareness of the formatting powers of mathematics. However, in the partnership meetings, the teachers

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<sup>13</sup> The utterance is also reproduced at page 64.



emphasised that they considered the formatting power of mathematics<sup>14</sup> to be an essential part of critical mathematical competencies. Without awareness of how mathematics can shape socio-political issues, processes such as critiquing or making choices as critical citizens can be challenging and impeded.

While the first aspect was about what the teachers said, the second aspect concerns what they did regarding facilitating students' awareness of the mathematical formatting of climate change. An example of such facilitation was when Max explicitly asked students to identify numbers (and the use of mathematics) in climate change and asked them to reflect on these (discussed in paper II). This explicit focus made the students actively look for numbers in climate change issues. Another example was when they combined mathematical-based information with different claims and asked the students to discuss them. In both cases, the teachers' facilitation was not "show and tell"; instead, they allowed the students to investigate, explore, and reflect themselves. The teachers provided a variety of contexts concerning how mathematics appeared in climate change. These contexts resulted in, for instance, two girls discussing different countries' renewable energy and making value-judgments (paper II), or three boys calculating their carbon footprint and discussing potential actions (Steffensen & Kacerja, accepted). These two first aspects show consistency between what teachers say they do and what they actually do.

A third aspect concerns how teachers' deliberate or undeliberate choices can influence students or others. An example of this was discussed in papers II and III and involved a quiz. In this quiz, the teachers' choice of topic, graphs, and any distractors could potentially format the understanding of quiz-participants and students. For instance, as discussed in paper III, one of the graphs included in the quiz was used in a testimony to the U.S. Senate to support the claim that climate models are not trustworthy, potentially impacting decision-makers and politicians. When including controversial topics in the classroom, teachers risk being accused of trying to influence or indoctrinate students (Hess, 2009). Teachers' choices and focuses can be more or less deliberate, but regardless if they are deliberate or not, teachers must reflect on these choices.

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<sup>14</sup> The teachers did not explicitly use the concept "formatting power", but instead used phrases such as "understand how mathematics influence" or "identify how mathematics can be hidden".

A fourth concern involves how the teachers meta-reflected on the mathematical formatting of climate change in the partnership meetings. For instance, they reflected on how the mathematical formatting could influence politicians and decision-makers in climate change issues. Kim pointed out that researchers and experts act according to numbers and climate models, and in turn, politicians and decision-makers act according to experts. As described by Yasukawa et al. (2012), mathematical thinking affects how we understand and deal with our environment. It follows that it is relevant to have a critical awareness of the use of mathematics in society, as well as how mathematics is intertwined in many aspects of problems such as climate change. The teachers also challenged each other during the meetings. For instance, Kim challenged Max by asking whether she deliberately tried to influence the students and participants of the quiz by using mathematics. As discussed in paper III and Steffensen, Herheim, and Rangnes (2018), Max admitted that she deliberately excluded the Antarctic in the numbers she used to direct the focus towards the alarming ice melting of Arctic. In the partnership meetings, the teachers had the opportunity to reflect, discuss and challenge each other on a variety of issues concerning both practical and more epistemic questions. The communication between them involved similar qualities to the ones described in the students' inquiry-based dialogues (Alrø & Johnsen-Høines, 2010, 2012). In controversial topics, where the formatting powers can also involve teachers' choices (as described in papers II and III), these opportunities to communicate were essential in the teachers' facilitation of students' (and their own) awareness of the mathematical formatting of climate change.

A fifth aspect concerns the students' identification and understanding of the formatting power of mathematics. As discussed in paper IV, one student underlined how politicians could use mathematics to strengthen a claim regarding electric vehicles. Another student reflected on the role of researchers in mathematical models (climate models). In these situations, it can be argued that the students show the competency needed to identify the role that mathematics can play in strengthening an argument or potentially influencing people's standpoint. Furthermore, by this they express an awareness of the mathematical formatting of climate change. These are crucial competencies for critical citizens in a lived democracy. However, it is relevant to emphasise that this awareness occurs in a context where the teachers facilitated

the appearance of such views. Examples of situations in which such identification and awareness did not take place are also emphasised. For instance, as discussed in paper III, students took for granted the mathematical premise provided (in this case, the 2°C target). Although the teachers explicitly stated that the students should critically assess quantitative information, it was not documented that the students showed an awareness or were able to identify how mathematics potentially formatted their argumentation and discussion in this situation. With these examples in mind, facilitating students' awareness of the formatting powers of mathematics is not a straightforward task and cannot be taken lightly. If students do not have the competencies needed to identify, understand or critique how mathematics is an essential construct in climate change or other socio-political issues, they risk being misled and make their standpoints based on interest-driven argumentation that uses mathematics to influence deliberately.

#### **4.2.3 Mathematical literacy and kinds of knowing**

The teachers' emphasis on students' reflections and discussions about climate change issues generated students' critical engagement in highly relevant socio-political problems, which is underlined as relevant for mathemacy by Skovsmose (1994). A striking aspect of students' mathematical literacy observed in the research partnership was how this became an integrated part of how they dealt with this socio-political context. For instance, as discussed in paper IV, their argumentation on road tolls involved a range of perspectives: economic consequences, energy-sources, potential environmental benefits for electric vehicles, and the inclusion of full-lifecycles of products. They interpreted mathematics, reasoned, and formulated argumentation mathematically to reflect on real-world problems (OECD, 2018b).

The real-world context of climate change issues brought in perspectives different from the perspectives from pizza-cutting tasks (Simic-Muller et al., 2015) or tasks with reference to pure mathematics and semi-reality (Skovsmose, 2001, 2011). As discussed in paper IV, when four students started to interpret and make sense of a graph and a claim regarding the CO<sub>2</sub>-emission of a car, they started by identifying typical mathematical characteristics of the graph (e.g. quadrant, parabola, linear equations). Apparently, they neglected the real-world aspects, an approach sometimes used when students are dealing with real-world problems (Busse, 2005; Christiansen, 2001; Maaß, 2006). However, they became stuck and frustrated. Then a

student named Pete brought a new perspective based on the real-world aspects and his knowledge about cars and engines, although he seemingly neglected the mathematical aspects (Busse, 2005; Christiansen, 2001; Maaß, 2006). Pete's argument became the turning point in the students' discussions. When they continued, their utterances involved a more intertwined mathematical, technological, and reflective argumentation, arguably more in line with Skovsmose's (1992, 1994) three forms of knowing and a transdisciplinary approach described by English (2016b). As mathematics teachers, it is sometimes necessary to narrow the students' focus so that it concerns a specific aspect of mathematics, e.g. to learn about characteristics of graphs. However, if these (narrow) aspects are all the students learn, and they do not receive the opportunity to reflect on how these graphs relate to reality, then students might miss out on opportunities to recognise the relevance of mathematics in real-life. They can also miss out the social aspects of mathematical literacy, as described by Jablonka (2003, 2015), for instance, by not seeing climate change issues as transformable and reading the world as open for changes (Skovsmose, 1994). By facilitating discussions on socio-political problems, the students can develop their mathematical literacy to make well-founded judgments. Mathematical practices can empower students as critical citizens (Freire & Macedo, 2005).

In the research partnership, students' mathematical literacy involved critical thinking, communication, collaboration, problem-solving, ethical concerns, and global and environmental literacy. These are relevant 21<sup>st</sup>-century skills (Care et al., 2018; Maaß et al., 2019; OECD, 2018b). In times when different parts of the world are growing closer due to, e.g. the Internet and problems like climate change that affect the whole world, it is important to think globally. In this research partnership, the teachers had both local and global perspectives. The OECD (2018a, 2018c) highlights competencies to examine local and global issues and understand and act for sustainable development. Local perspectives in the research partnership involved, for instance, an excursion to a near-by location, students investigating how climate change affected their local communities in the posters, and students communicating in dialogues and debates about climate change and a road-toll on a local bridge. Global perspectives involved exploring data such as renewable energy worldwide, global temperatures, CO<sub>2</sub>-emission, and climate modelling. However, to think

globally is to act locally. A lived democracy has no borders, and to be able to see the world as interconnected is relevant for critical citizens when socio-political issues are included in the classroom.

#### **4.2.4 Critique and critical reflections**

Different forms of critique and critical reflections were observed in the research partnership. They involved and ranged from critical reflections on the mathematics, e.g. graphs, to discussing the potential implications of graphs. Here I highlight how the teachers facilitated different forms of critical reflections and what type of reflections the students made. The teachers facilitated critique and reflections as a logical endeavour, critiquing argumentation, as highlighted by Skovsmose and Greer (2012a). One example is when the teachers encouraged the students to examine critically arguments raised in the dialogue game. The teachers also facilitated critical reflections as a political endeavour by critiquing real-world activities of climate change. An example of the latter is discussed in paper III, where the students' critical reflections result in argumentation involving questioning continued Norwegian oil exploration when taking into consideration the 2°C-target. The public debate in Norway about whether to proceed with oil exploration is highly relevant. It involves a need to analyse and evaluate related claims and argumentation, as well as reaching a judgment about “what is good”. Ethical considerations are an essential part of the critique, as underlined by Atweh (2012). Ethical aspects were also discussed and related to critical judgments in paper II, and both the teachers and students' value-perspectives came into play. When discussing climate change, whether it is in the mathematics classroom or in real-life, ethical considerations are often embedded, and these reflections are essential parts of critique.

In one of the partnership meetings, Max expressed that in addition to students' critical reflections, she wanted the students to act and make conscious choices about the consumption of meat, clothes and so forth (discussed in paper II). Although the teachers did not directly promote actions (e.g. engage in strikes or projects involving eating less meat), it could be argued that their facilitation of students' critical reflections in dialogues, discussions, and debates involved an action element<sup>15</sup>. The students' argumentation often involved standpoints about climate change issues and

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<sup>15</sup> In Steffensen and Kacerja (accepted), the students' critical agency was related to actions on eating less meat during their discussions in the poster-lesson, on the students own initiative.

was observed in their dialogues and when they analysed graphs, numbers and claims. Skovsmose and Greer (2012a) emphasise that a critical agency can involve actions, both regarding the reflective aspects, but also the agency to make changes. In paper II and paper IV, I discuss students' critical agency concerning environmental awareness. One example concerns a student who argued for driving a bit slower because of the environment and concerns for future citizens. Another example involves argumentation about why it is vital to take care of our atmosphere and our earth. These type of arguments involve ethical concerns, with a normative aspect and an indication that action is needed. These aspects are relevant parts of critical reflection (Atweh, 2012; Brookfield, 2009; Gardiner, 2008, 2011; Wardekker et al., 2009). The teachers' facilitation of critical reflections in, for instance, the dialogues, provided multiple opportunities for the students to include such aspects. Hence, facilitating students' dialogues, discussions, and debates, through controversial and real-world-problems, is a form of enabling students' actions and critical agency.

The teachers expressed that the students needed to learn to reflect critically on the scientific processes and gain some insights into how researchers construct climate models. As discussed in paper III, the teachers chose to include practical, hands-on experiences including parameters and units such as CO<sub>2</sub>, CO<sub>2</sub>e, O<sub>2</sub>. These parameters are relevant in climate change, but perhaps not so familiar to students. They expressed concerns about students' awareness of the uncertainties of real-world measures and sources of error. They posed questions to the students aiming to generate critical reflections on their findings regarding the excursion location (physical measures), any associated uncertainties, their use of these numbers in the field report (mathematical computation), and how they communicated about these findings. Uncertainties are an essential part of the scientific processes and relevant to include when discussing climate change. Uncertainty in measuring-results or climate models does not necessarily need to imply that the result or models are not trustworthy and should be rejected. Sometimes they need adjustment, or sometimes one must just learn to live with uncertainty. As discussed in paper IV, if scientific uncertainties are wrongfully used to deliberately hinder action towards climate change, this can become a problem in a lived democracy. Therefore, teachers can enable students to learn about different types of uncertainties (Hauge & Barwell, 2017; Steffensen & Hansen, 2019) to develop as critical citizens.

Skovsmose's (1992) six steps of reflections helps identify the different levels of the students' critical reflections. As discussed in paper III, when the students measured the seawater temperature with both digital and analogue methods and calculated the average, they had to consider whether they used the algorithm correctly and if the appropriate algorithm was applied. These types of critical reflections are in line with Skovsmose's (1992) two first steps that focus on "pure" mathematics. However, in addition to focusing on merely asking the students to calculate the average, the teachers asked questions generating critical reflections concerning the real-world measurements, the mathematical method, uncertainties, as well as relating their measurements to how the global average temperature of the Earth is measured. These latter questions contributed to an emphasis on critical reflections as not "purely" mathematical but related to the connections between mathematics and the real-world. Critical reflections on such problems guided the students' attention towards the other reflection steps of Skovsmose (1992). An example of a situation generating critical reflections within the fourth reflection step – "could we do without formal calculations" – was discussed in paper IV. Pete disagrees with a claim without doing any formal mathematical calculation or evaluation. He just uses common sense. Another aspect of Pete's disagreement with the claim is that it can be considered a critique of the presuppositions on which the beliefs are built. Such a critique is underlined by Mezirow (1990) as necessary for a reflection to be critical. When Pete disagrees, he evaluates and questions the claim. He does not take the explanation for granted and displays independent thinking. These qualities are emphasised as crucial for being critical by Ernest (2002).

#### **4.2.5 Values and controversies**

Controversial topics and contexts involving students' values can bring about different challenges compared to those typically seen in the mathematics classroom. For instance, rather than making or interpreting graphs, the students discuss the implications of graphs. The controversies and the value-aspect of climate change can lead teachers to avoid including the topic (Hess, 2009; Hess & McAvoy, 2014; Simic-Muller et al., 2015; Steffensen & Hansen, 2019) or stick to conveying factual, scientific information (Hicks, 2014; Monroe et al., 2017). Contrary to this view, the teachers emphasised the controversies in climate change. Examples of such emphasis were given by Kim, who explicitly expressed in a research partnership meeting that "I

emphasise all the controversies” (paper II, p.10). This emphasis was also observed in the lessons, e.g. in the design of the poster and the quiz. Kim used a cartoon, graphs and numbers to deliberately create discussions, debates, and reflections (paper II). The inclusion and emphasis of controversies in the mathematics classroom are in line with the views from Gutstein (2006), Hess (2009), and Atweh (2012). All of them emphasise that education should include controversies. Some of the reasons for why Kim chose to emphasise controversies was because he wanted the students to develop their own opinions, learn to think, become critical, and gain critical mathematical competencies (as described in paper II).

When including controversial socio-political topics such as climate change in the mathematics classroom, teachers’ values and political views come into play to a greater extent than if the topic, for instance, is teaching the algorithm of subtraction. The controversies in climate change made the teachers choose differently. While Kim emphasised the relatively small temperature change and chose the graph accordingly, Max underlined the big ice-melting in the Arctic and used a number that stood out from the other alternatives. Paper II discusses these choices and how the teachers used numbers and graphs to highlight particular features of climate change, and it is concluded that controversies and values could influence teachers’ facilitation of CME. The examples illustrate how teachers can become moral agents and value educators, as described by Seah (2016, p. 2), and how controversies and values can enter the mathematics classroom. Teachers also risk being criticised by parents, the local community, and the school administration when dealing with controversial issues, if parents think that the students are somehow being influenced. Teachers may also consider it a challenge to be objective and neutral (Steffensen & Hansen, 2019; Steffensen & Rangnes, 2019). When the context is climate change, the aspect of neutrality becomes more apparent in the classroom. However, in all teaching, whether it is the teaching of the algorithm of subtraction, or the choice to include or avoid climate change, underlying values are present. For instance, the choice of not including important socio-political issues can imply that mathematics teachers do not consider mathematics education to be a socially responsible discipline, as suggested by Ernest (2009), Atweh and Brady (2009) and Abtahi et al. (2017). Therefore, it is vital to make a conscious choice of what to include in the classroom, and have an awareness of how values may influence the teaching of mathematics.



The controversies and values also came in to play among students. Conflicting perspectives were present, as well as perspectives of righteousness, justice and moral duty to prevent climate change, as described by Johansen et al. (2000) and Fløttum et al. (2016). The students were given opportunities to make arguments and discuss ethical actions on climate change issues, in line with the problem-posing approach suggested by Freire (1998, 2007). They were considered as conscious, thinking beings, and not as empty containers. Their discussions concerned how best to deal with the impacts of climate change and actions on preventing further climate change; no examples of controversies concerning whether anthropogenic climate change exists (Cook et al., 2013; Oreskes, 2018) were observed. As discussed in papers II and IV, the students' argumentation involved numbers and graphs as a basis for building up moral claims, value-judgements, and ethical and social-justice concerns for future citizens. This type of argumentation differs slightly from those based on, e.g. economics or science. When students' argumentation included ethical aspects in addition to mathematical or scientific argumentation, this is considered a move towards a more sophisticated type of argumentation. The complexity of climate change calls for a multiplicity of concerns. The controversies and values in climate change served as a foundation for the students' argumentation and were essential in the students' critical mathematical competencies.

#### **4.2.6 A student-centred and dialogic learning environment**

In this research partnership, there are very few examples of traditional mathematics classrooms as described by Vavik et al. (2010), Bergem et al. (2016), and Echazarra et al. (2016), where teachers instruct students with little student interaction. In this sub-chapter, I highlight six aspects that characterise the learning environment in this research partnership: student-centred approach, type of understanding, choice of mathematic tasks, knowledge conflicts, the content of dialogues, and qualities of dialogues.

The first aspect addressed is the student-centred approach. In the initial phase of the research, Max expressed that she wanted to expand her ways of teaching mathematics. She regarded herself as a traditional teacher who followed the mathematics textbooks and allowed students work with tasks. This approach can be associated with the task discourse, exercise paradigm, and teacher-centred transmission-based teaching (Maaß, 2018; Mellin-Olsen, 1991; Skovsmose, 2001,

2011). However, during the 42 lessons, none of the teachers used textbooks. They said that the textbook did not have relevant tasks, and they wanted to point out relevant and current issues. All the lessons concerned real-world situations through the focus on climate change. They were organised so that students interacted, collaborated, and participated in dialogue games, group discussions, and panel-debates, and the teachers emphasised students' argumentation and ways of thinking. The students formulated questions, explored explanations, and carried out hands-on experiments. Their references came from their real-world, and their answers did not only involve one correct answer. These characteristics relate to Skovsmose's (2001, 2011) landscapes of investigation with real-life references, what Maaß and Dorier (2012), Artigue and Blomhøj (2013), Maaß et al. (2017), and Maaß (2018) refer to as inquiry-based learning.

Another aspect involves types of understanding. As discussed in paper III, the students not only calculated the average-temperature mathematically (what to do), they also considered chosen methods, as well as discussed the different measures and how to decide on which numbers to use (to know why). This focus can be regarded as a relational understanding described by Skemp (2006) as an way to know what to do and why. Also, they discussed their results and related mathematical knowledge to situations outside the classroom, as highlighted by Mellin-Olsen (1981). During these discussions, a student asked why they needed to discuss the answer since it was already there. If students are used to thinking that mathematical tasks are completed when an answer is provided, they might miss out on essential features of mathematical competencies such as evaluating their answer from a real-world perspective. In this research partnership, the teachers emphasised that the students should become aware of how mathematics does not always provide a single answer. Rather, it involves human choices regarding aspects such as the chosen location of measurements and scientific and mathematical methods. In these learning environments, collaboration, communication, and the inclusion of mathematics related to real-world issues outside the classroom are crucial.

A third aspect concerns the choice of mathematics tasks. The tasks concerned real-world issues (Jurdak, 2016a, 2016b); they were wicked problems (Levin et al., 2012; Rittel & Webber, 1973); and they involved controversies as described by Hess (2009). As discussed in papers II and IV, the teachers designed the tasks themselves. They

posed questions that promoted critical reflections about the field-report, and they developed a dialogue game that also promoted the students' critical reflections. They designed a task where the students should create a poster that required them to discuss numbers and climate change, and they tweaked and adjusted a mathematics exam task so that students should discuss aspects of the graph rather than just solving it. None of the tasks had one correct answer. Choosing mathematics tasks is one of several choices teachers make that impacts how students learn. The tasks in this research partnership are inquiry-based and student-centred, two qualities underlined as important by Maaß and Dorier (2012), Artigue and Blomhøj (2013), Maaß et al. (2017), and Maaß (2018). Such tasks can contribute to a more relational learning and understanding of mathematics.

A fourth aspect involves how the teachers deliberately search for knowledge conflicts. As discussed in paper III, during the partnerships meetings, Kim expressed an interest in the uncertainties of climate change measurements. He questioned the location and number of measurement stations, and what techniques are most relevant to use, pointing out that no absolute method exists. By organising students to measure with different instruments and methods, the teachers deliberately emphasized the competing knowledge-claims on human choices of such as statistical methods. Knowledge conflicts were also observed in the claims made in the dialogue game, where the students discussed these. Knowledge conflicts are highlighted by Hauge and Barwell (2017) and Skovsmose (1994) as relevant for CME. Students' reflection, critique, and negotiation of competing knowledge-claims are easily recognisable in the public debate on climate change issues (discussed in paper III).

The fifth aspect concerns the content of the dialogues. All seven themes in the research partnership involved dialogues, although the context varied. A crucial aspect of these dialogues was that the teachers gave priority to dialogues involving not just mathematical concerns but also the reflective knowing of a graph's potential implications. Vithal (2003) highlights that conflicts in reflective knowing are often given a lower status in the mathematics classroom. It is not given that teachers include dialogues concerning reflective knowing in the classroom. Teachers might be stressed due to an extensive curriculum or time management and therefore choose tasks that prepare students for the exam rather than a life as critical citizens. Reflective knowing dialogues can provide opportunities for student-centred learning

in ways that dialogues involving pure mathematics perhaps may not. In the dialogues, Kim, Tim, and Max orchestrated; instead of being considered the expert and the one with all the correct answers, they became more a support who raised questions and helped students make connections between their thoughts and ideas, as underlined by Maaß and Dorier (2012).

The sixth aspect involves qualities in the students' dialogues. As discussed in paper IV, certain qualities characterised the students' dialogues, for instance, inviting peers to join the dialogue, asking open questions, thinking aloud, collective wondering, making hypotheses, listening to peers' argumentation and questions, acknowledging peers' perspectives, making inquiries without posing questions, and challenging each other's perspectives. The students appeared to want to understand more. Such communication was described as inquiry-based dialogue by Alrø and Johnsen-Høines (2010, 2012). An example of these qualities involved how students acknowledged other perspectives and sometimes adjusted their own as well, even when controversial issues were involved. For instance, in the dialogue, the teachers made a point that the students should listen, without interrupting, to peers' argumentation. They could change or adjust their standpoint as a result of other group members' argumentation. In paper IV, an example was discussed where one student explicitly expressed that she adjusted her standpoint because of her peers' argumentation. To facilitate so that students respect genuine views and differences and acknowledge peers' standpoints is vital (Gutstein, 2006; Hess, 2009; Hess & McAvoy, 2014). Acknowledging peers' standpoints is perhaps even more relevant when controversies are present, as was the case in these dialogues. Another example concerns the quality of the dialogues during the 42 lessons. Not one example of IRF-dialogues (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975) was observed. Instead, those student dialogues that were involved justified stances based on mathematics-based argumentation, emphasised as relevant in inquiry-based dialogues by Herheim and Rangnes (2016).

### **4.3 Limitations of chosen boundaries**

Some of the limitations and delimitations of this PhD-study were discussed in the four papers and in the methodology chapter of this thesis. These involved dropouts from the sample, non-representative samples, researcher bias (e.g. partly one coder), chosen boundaries concerning the research focus, context, sampling, exclusion-criteria, and methodological and theoretical framework. Here I emphasise the

limitations and delimitations of the chosen boundaries, and how this could potentially have an impact on the findings.

One limitation concerns the choice of methods. In this study, I chose a qualitative approach to research how teachers can facilitate students' critical competencies. I could also have chosen a quantitative approach or a mixed-methods approach. This choice led to something being excluded. For instance, a quantitative approach could have provided an overview of more and other ways that teachers can deal with climate change in their mathematics classroom. However, by choosing a qualitative approach, I saw opportunities to provide a more in-depth approach to understand the complexity of how teachers can facilitate students' critical mathematical competencies.

Another limitation concerns the strategical sampling of the teachers. They were chosen for several reasons: I know them (we used to work together), they are experienced natural science and mathematics teachers, and they expressed an interest in both climate change and CME. The focus of the PhD-study was to explore the potential of how teachers can facilitate students' critical mathematical competencies in the context of climate change. Before starting the research partnership, I did not regard the teachers as representatives for particular views such as the teacher-centred or student-centred approaches, climate change activism or climate change denial. Two of the teachers who declined to participate in the research partnership did so because they thought they did not have sufficient content knowledge in either mathematics or natural science (amongst other reasons). On the one hand, these two teachers could have contributed to bringing up other perspectives than those mentioned by Kim, Tim, and Max. On the other hand, the educational background of the three teachers who did take part made them particularly relevant as participants in this research, as scientific relevance is so present.

A third limitation concerns the selected sample of students. The number of 120 students can seemingly represent a variety of standpoints and different backgrounds. However, all of them live in the same local community in Norway. They can have some shared values compared to students living in different parts of the world, and the findings in this research may, therefore, have limited transfer value to students in

other countries. For instance, in Norway, a relatively large number of students say they like going to school (Wendelborg, Røe, Buland, & Hygen, 2019). They live in a democratic society where students are free to disagree with teachers and where teachers encourage students to take a stand and express their opinions (Huang & Biseth, 2016). They also have some shared perspectives on climate change (Fløttum et al., 2016). When these students discussed climate change issues such as CO<sub>2</sub>-emission and oil production, it was in a Norwegian context. As emphasised by Corner et al. (2014) and Nurse and Grant (2019), values can act as a filter, and political views could influence how mathematical problems are solved. The students' utterances, as well as my reflections, should therefore be viewed in this (Norwegian) context and may represent a limitation of the findings.

#### **4.4 Implications and future research**

The findings of this PhD-study complements existing research in the socio-political turn in mathematics education research (Gutiérrez, 2013). It adds to the research on climate change and CME conducted by researchers like Barwell and Suurtamm (2011), Barwell (2013, 2018), Coles et al. (2013), and Hauge and Barwell (2017). In this sub-chapter, I discuss seven potential implications of this study that are relevant to the mathematics classroom and future research.

One area concerns *the challenging aspect of teaching critical mathematics*. In the startup of the research partnership, it was a concern for both teachers and the school administrator that teaching “outside the curricula” on topics not directly connected to the students’ final exam would be a challenge. Related challenges were also emphasised by researchers such as Felton-Koestler (2017) and Bartell (2013). For instance, they describe that teachers may have limited experiences with socio-political issues in the mathematics classroom and when investigating real-world issues. It is not a matter of method, they argue, but rather a process where teachers adapt to the context they find themselves in, and critical mathematics and social justice perspectives are often met with resistance. Gutstein (2018) describes his journey as a CME-teacher, where he “slowly and painstakingly learned to teach critical mathematics”, and was “challenged when supporting others to teach critical mathematics” (p. 134). These challenges with teaching CME, along with the limited empirical research on climate change in the mathematics classroom, suggest that insights into the processes of how to include CME in the classroom are relevant and

valuable for mathematics researchers and educators, pre-and in-service teachers, teachers, and curriculum-designer and policymakers. Future research can address challenges located within the systems of the schools (e.g. structural and practical limitations) or within the teachers (e.g. lack of experience in teaching socio-political issues).

A second area is *the collaboration in the research partnership*. The partnership meetings brought the teachers and the researcher together and provided a space to collaborate and share ideas, discuss and reflect, as well as practical plan. Bjuland and Jaworski (2009) describe a research project within the field of mathematics education that concerns how teachers collaborate in learning communities. They explore how learning communities between mathematics teachers and mathematics teacher educators involved learning for all. This research was based on a *community of practice* approach (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998). Relatedly, Chauraya and Brodie (2017) describe how professional learning communities, as a form of teacher development, can support changes for teachers' teaching. Kacerja and Herheim (2019) emphasise critical collegueship based on Lord (1994), with an emphasis on a critical stance and seeing differences as a driving force. Teachers who engage in critical perspectives in the mathematics classroom may need different support than those who work on a pure calculus-related project. When wicked problems are included in the mathematics classroom, teachers can benefit from an arena where they can reflect on the complexity, uncertainty, and value perspectives. As discussed in paper II, the teachers used the partnership meetings to discuss ideas, dwell on the controversies, and challenge each other's perspectives. Such collaboration for teachers can be particularly relevant when controversial issues are involved, as underlined by Hess and McAvoy (2009; 2014). Within schools, such collaborative partnerships can be initiated by teachers or school administrators, and researchers could provide a collaborative learning environment for teachers involved in the research.

A third area concerns *the controversial aspect of socio-political problems*. Teachers might identify with how climate change controversies challenge Kim and Max in their use of numbers and graphs. Teachers who include wicked problems in their teaching can sometimes consider this a normal scientific problem, where it is enough to obtain adequate knowledge (Hicks, 2014). The last few decades of public confusion

concerning how to deal with climate change have shown us that this is not the case. Teachers and researchers might, therefore, have to reconsider how they teach climate change in the classroom. Kim, Tim, and Max explored different ways of how to facilitate students' critical mathematical competencies in the context of a complex and controversial issue. Their choices and different approaches can provide thoughts and ideas for others who consider including controversial topics such as climate change in their mathematics classroom, either as teachers or as researchers. This PhD-thesis can provide insight into what types of problems students can learn to deal with, what role students can take as critical citizens in a lived democracy, aspects of competencies relevant when dealing with controversial and complex problems, and why and how critical citizens and lived democracy can be included in mathematics education.

A fourth area *involves students' attributes*. In this PhD-study, the focus was not on the attributes of the students, such as gender, abilities, motivations, or their religious, cultural, and socio-economic backgrounds. However, these concerns might be relevant to include in further research on climate change and education. The United Nations (2019) called for an awareness of how genders are affected differently by climate change, and that genders understand climate change differently. They identified a correlation between females in power and ratification of environmental treaties, and that females and males' attitudes and concerns differ. Similarly, McCright (2010) found that women are more informed and concerned about climate change than their male counterparts. In my data, I found that climate change concerns brought up by females differed from male students, and that male students' dominated the classroom discussion (Steffensen, accepted; Steffensen & Hauge, submitted). If students' critical mathematical competencies are facilitated through dialogues and discussions, as described in this PhD-study, what implications does it have if females participate to a lesser extent in these dialogues? Does it imply that male concerns are more likely to be heard? Does it imply that female voices are not heard in a lived democracy? Or perhaps they are just being expressed in different ways? Teachers and researchers addressing climate change in the classroom can consider how students' different attributes might influence how they deal with such problems.



A fifth area involves *external factors*. In this study, I did not focus on external factors such as the economy, ICT, numbers of students in the classroom, curricula and competence objectives, and evaluations (tests and exam). Although I have provided some background information about the curricula and competencies objectives, more research is needed on how curricula and evaluations in the form of grading and written and oral exams may impact teachers' facilitation of students' critical mathematical competencies. Also, the teachers' background, autonomy, expectations and hopes are relevant to further research. For instance, to what extent do mathematics teachers need to be scientifically knowledgeable to include topics like climate change, and will this influence how they incorporate this context?

A sixth area concerns *transdisciplinary teaching*. In the real-world, problems are seldom subject-related because they are transdisciplinary by nature. Students who deal with problems such as critical citizenship in a lived democracy can benefit from transdisciplinary approaches in school, and not only through a subject-oriented classroom-approach. Initially, the teachers in the research partnership discussed the latter approach but ended up with a transdisciplinary approach by including competencies aims from natural science and mathematics (described in paper IV). Researchers such as Radakovic et al. (2018) emphasise that a transdisciplinary critical mathematics perspective is required for topics like sustainability and environmental education. Moreover, as described in papers I and IV, a transdisciplinary approach on climate change involves competencies from several fields (English, 2016b), a reflexive and meta-level thinking (Spangenberg, 2011), as well as unchaining concepts from the sometimes rigid framework of a subject (Colucci-Gray, Perazzone, Dodman, & Camino, 2013).

In the research partnership, the teachers knew I had a mathematics perspective, and they emphasised mathematics when planning the lessons. However, it is relevant to explore what role mathematics can or should have in transdisciplinary teaching regarding problems like climate change. For instance, should climate change be used as a context to learn how to interpret graphs? Or should mathematics be used to learn climate change? In addition, to conduct further research on the role of mathematics, one could also include questions on what subjects to include. For instance, the close affinity between mathematics and natural science can make these two subjects particularly favourable to combine. In this research partnership, Kim, Tim, and Max

were natural science teachers as well as mathematics teachers. However, when engaging in transdisciplinary topics, different subjects can impact on how topics are dealt with in the classroom. For instance, religion was excluded from this study. However, as emphasised by Wardekker et al. (2009), in the US, the public debate on climate change is strongly influenced by religion. It is also relevant to research how transdisciplinary topics can be avoided by teachers because they do not regard themselves as competent enough. In this PhD-study, two of the teachers who choose not to participate said that they did not have the formal qualification (either as mathematics teachers or natural science teachers). An opportune question is thus the following: Do mathematics teachers need to have a scientific background to include topics such as climate change? Jorgensen and Larkin (2018) emphasise that teaching out of the field was perceived as a challenge, and that teacher confidence and content knowledge across the STEM spectrum relates to students' learning. Therefore, when including climate change in the mathematics classroom, future research should include how a transdisciplinary approach can explore the role of mathematics (and other subjects) and teachers' educational background.

The last area involves *action and hope*. During the research partnership, actions were explicitly addressed by the teachers, for instance when Max expressed that she wanted the students to act, or when they encouraged the students to take justified stands on climate change issues. In actions, there lies an element of hope. Ryan and Steffensen (accepted) discuss how these two concepts of action and hope are important when complex problems are included in CME. In the current public debate on climate change, some voices argue for protecting young people from the severeness of climate change (Ambrose, 2004). As described in Abtahi et al. (2017), Steffensen and Hansen (2019), and Steffensen and Rangnes (2019), teachers can have conflicting beliefs about bringing students' attention to serious challenges like climate change. However, students are already aware of the potential impacts of climate change, and schools need to address this. Otherwise, this is left to the students to deal with alone. Researchers such as Freire (1992) and Wals (2010) argued that when education includes problems that might be overwhelming to students, this can lead to hopelessness and paralysis. It is therefore important that education also includes a pedagogy of hope.

Future research on climate change in the mathematics classroom should address how to deal with the aspect of action and hope. Nairn (2019) describes how young people relate to hope and despair, in the prospect of a climate-altered future, and how they deal with “the end of the world” discourse to avoid a situation where they start with hope but end up disillusioned. Hicks (2014) asks how one could educate for hope in troubled times towards a post-carbon future. Stevenson and Peterson (2016) highlight that little research exists on whether hope could counteract despair. They did find that hopes and concerns regarding climate change positively related to behaviour, while climate change despair was negatively related to behaviour.

#### **4.5 Concluding comments**

The research question *how can focusing on climate change can facilitate students’ critical mathematical competencies* has been answered by conducting empirical research in the classroom. In the discussion, I have emphasised six aspects relevant to the facilitation of students’ critical mathematics competencies: lived democracy and critical citizens; the mathematical formatting of climate change; mathematical literacy and kinds of knowing; critique and critical reflections; values and controversies; and a student-centred and dialogic learning. These six aspects are neither exhaustive nor exclusive.

When I started on this PhD-study, I was of the opinion that mathematics education needs to engage students in dealing with complex socio-political problems by developing their critical mathematical competencies. That way students can become critical citizens in a lived democracy. This PhD-study provides valuable insight into how focusing on climate change in the mathematics classroom can contribute to enabling students as critical citizens. Wicked problems are challenging to deal with. Based on the findings, my views were strengthened, and I do consider it relevant to include socio-politic topics such as climate change in mathematics education. Moreover, facilitation of students’ critical mathematics competencies should include controversies, values and uncertainty, not avoid them.

Observing the students and teachers’ dedication for more than a year has left me with some deep impressions. Seeing the students’ engagement, their variety of competencies, their willingness to explore and communicate in dialogues and discussions, and their consideration of others peer standpoints has been a joy. I will

not forget how one student during the first lesson suddenly switched from showing no interest at all, to be actively engaged in argumentation on why electric vehicles are beneficial for reducing climate change. I will remember the students who became so passionate when studying different countries percentages of renewable energy, the student who was standing at the seashore making scientific and mathematical reflections about global measurements on sea-water temperature with seawater flooding around his legs, and lastly, the girl who straightforwardly said it was about time I arrived. So many of the students have made a permanent impression on me.

These observations have given me hope that students can deal with socio-political problems, even wicked ones, in the classroom in meaningful ways where learning takes place. Also, how the teachers worked as facilitators and their variety of approaches, and the enthusiasm they showed together with their students, provides a hope that mathematics education can mean something for the students' lives. This is something more than just passing the exam, something that enables them as critical citizens in a lived democracy.

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## Publications included in the PhD thesis.

### Paper I:

Steffensen, L. (2017). Critical mathematics education and post-normal science: A literature overview. *Philosophy of Mathematics Education Journal*, 32.  
Retrieved from  
<http://socialsciences.exeter.ac.uk/education/research/centres/stem/publications/pmej/pome32/Steffensen%20submitted.docx>

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### Paper III:

Steffensen, L., Herheim, R., & Rangnes, T. E. (accepted<sup>1</sup>). The mathematical formatting of how climate change is perceived: Teachers' reflection and practice. In A. Andersson & R. Barwell (Eds.), *Applying critical perspectives in mathematics education*.

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Steffensen, L. (accepted). Climate change and Students' critical competencies: A Norwegian study. In J. Anderson & Y. Li (Eds.), *Integrated Approaches to STEM Education: An International Perspective* (pp. 1–21). Cham, Switzerland: Springer.

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<sup>1</sup> Accepted by the editors, and sent to Brill Publishers

POME. Critical mathematics education and post-normal science: A literature overview

## **Paper I: Critical mathematics education and post-normal science: A literature overview**

Excerpt from the webpage of Philosophy of Mathematics Education Journal (POME):

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## CRITICAL MATHEMATICS EDUCATION AND POST-NORMAL SCIENCE: A LITERATURE OVERVIEW

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### Abstract

This paper presents findings from a literature overview where the focus is to identify and critically reflect on concepts and perspectives highlighted as important in the literature of two fields, critical mathematics education and post-normal science. In addition, the combination of the two perspectives develops thinking about the concept of critical citizenship. The paper is written from a theoretical perspective of critical mathematics education. Critical mathematics education concerns social and political aspects of the learning of mathematics, how mathematics is used in society, and how the development of critical citizenship is carried out both inside and outside the classroom. Post-normal science concerns how complex science-related issues in society can be managed by involving critical citizens. Some researchers suggest that to develop pupils' critical mathematics perspective, real-world problems such as climate change, can act as a gateway for them to be(come) a critical citizen in an extended peer community.

### Introduction

Citizens deals with mathematics in multiple ways in our society. From an educational perspective it is important to be aware of, and to learn how to deal with, these different intersections of mathematics and citizens in society. Hauge and Barwell (2017) argue that pupils can develop critical mathematics perspectives working with complex real-world problems. Such perspectives include students' knowledge and understanding of mathematics as means for self-empowerment to (re-)organize interpretations of social institutions and traditions, and for taking justified stands in social and political reform (Skovsmose, 1994). In order to further explore these views, this paper presents findings from a literature overview, where the focus is to *identify* and *critically reflect on* concepts and perspectives highlighted as important in the literature from two fields, critical mathematics education (CME) and post-normal science (PNS). CME concerns social and political aspects of the learning of mathematics, how mathematics is used in society, and how the development of critical citizenship is carried out both inside and outside the classroom (Skovsmose 2016). PNS concerns how complex science related problems are dealt with in society.

The extent of mathematics used in climate change and other socio-political issues, implies that mathematics education needs to be involved (Barwell 2013). Climate change is a complex issue, and involves uncertainty, conflicts, risks, and values. It is sometimes referred

to as a wicked problem, characterized by no definitive problem-formulation, no trial and error for solutions, no given alternative solutions, and solutions not possible to define as right or wrong (Conklin 2006; Rittel & Webber, 1973). One might refer to climate change as a super wicked problem, because there are additional aspects like the time issue, no central authority, those causing it are those who seek to solve it, and even if aware of the impacts from inaction, one chooses at the very best, limited actions (Levin, Cashore, Bernstein, & Auld 2012). Questions to be asked could then be: if pupils are to develop a critical mathematics perspective, can working with wicked problems in the mathematics classroom be relevant? Also, is there something to learn from how these problems can be dealt with in real-life? CME and PNS can be a starting point for reflections at both a philosophical and an educational level. I will reflect on both levels and use the philosophical perspective to bring new perspectives into mathematics education.

Funtowicz and Ravetz (2003) argue that complex science-related issues need new conceptions of management. In the past, problems have been dealt with by including an expert-regime. The uncertainty and complexity of climate change makes it difficult for citizens, politicians, scientists, or other stakeholders to handle. They refer to issues where “facts are uncertain, values in dispute, stakes high and decisions urgent” as PNS (p. 1), and argue that PNS must involve a wide range of participants, not only experts, but also those who have to deal with the consequences. They refer to this as *extended peer community*. The extended peer community can contribute with extended facts, integrating both social and technological aspects, and critically evaluate materials provided by experts. The involvement of local non-expert citizens is important for decision-making, and can contribute with local knowledge and an ability to think outside the box. Hauge and Barwell (2017) argue that if students learn to manage uncertainty and to embrace a plurality of perspectives in the mathematics classroom, they can be better prepared and enabled as critical citizens in an extended peer-community.

There are similarities between CME and PNS, such as dealing with social and political aspects of society and citizens’ role, critique of the existing, emphasis on uncertainty and complexity, and the emphasis that science and mathematics are neither objective and certain, nor neutral or value-free. However, where CME mainly revolves around educational perspectives, PNS is an insight which links governance to epistemology, and aims to enhance understanding for both research and action (Funtowicz & Ravetz, 1999 2003). CME is a philosophy with a strong

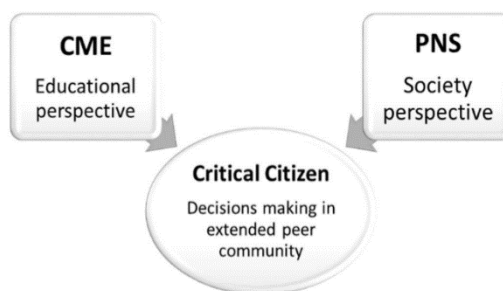


Figure 1: How can the perspectives from Critical Mathematics Education (CME) and Post-Normal Science (PNS) be combined for broadening our views on how to be(come) critical citizens?

educational perspective, aiming to bring interpretations, clarifications, and providing new perspectives into mathematics education (Skovsmose, 1994). PNS does not have an educational perspective, but has a political aspect by promoting decision-making in society in a dialogic and pluralistic process, as a response to problems involving uncertainties, values in dispute, and high stakes decisions. Although PNS is not explicitly a theory for educational purposes, there are several examples in the literature which combine PNS and education, mainly in science education. Also in mathematics education some researchers have used PNS; Hauge and Barwell (2017) argued that PNS and CME complement and enrich each other. By combining CME and PNS, I emphasize the role critical citizenship could take in society, and where CME looks at critical citizenship from the perspective of education, PNS emphasizes processes by which it might come about in society. By looking ahead at how students can contribute in a highly technological society, one can better prepare those students to be(come) critical citizens in the mathematics classroom. Barwell (2013, p. 9) suggests that “Mathematics education (together with science and environmental education) needs to consider the role of learners in the wider peer communities that post-normal science demands, and prepare them to participate as active, critical citizens”. When PNS urges decision and policy makers to involve multiple voices in controversies in society, CME does the same in education, by enabling and preparing students for an extended peer community.

Although there are relevant literature reviews within the two fields, none, so far, combine them and search for commonalities. Literature from these two academic fields are therefore investigated in this literature overview. As a literature overview, I will survey the literature, and describe some characteristics (Grant & Booth 2009). Furthermore, this paper has a critical aspect, and brings previous thoughts from the literature and combines these into further conceptual development.

### **Characteristics of the literature overview**

The characteristics of this literature overview are presented according to focus, goal, perspective, coverage, audience and organization (Cooper 2016). **Focus:** the focus of this paper is on theoretical concepts and perspectives. **Goals:** the main goals are to identify and critically reflect on concepts and perspectives highlighted as important in the literature of CME and PNS. Essential in this work is to reflect on similarities, differences, or contradictions between concepts, and to synthesize and summarize. **Perspective:** in the literature chosen, there may be a preexisting bias towards being overly positive toward the two fields. Due to the goal of this literature overview, my biases have hopefully had little impact on which literature is selected, because my interest was in identifying concepts. My reflections in the paper may, though, be influenced. **Coverage:** I have used the term literature overview, due to the focus of the paper, and have made a purposive sample of the existing literature. Systematic approaches have been used to identify concepts highlighted as central in the literature. **Audience:** the overview perspective will give value for those who are new to CME or PNS, while the critical aspects of it can give new insights for those familiar to the fields. Researchers, mathematics educators, and mathematic teachers are considered the main audience. I will use this literature overview to inform, create a focus, and form a conceptual

framework for my own PhD project (Maxwell 2006), where I am interested in how complex real-world situations like climate change can develop students' critical mathematics perspective. **Organization:** the text is structured (from Discussion of Findings, p.9) into four main areas, in accordance with identified concepts and perspectives: 1. Important characteristics of tasks; 2. Pupils' role in society; 3. Competences recognized as important; and, 4. Aspects of democracy.

### Methods and methodology

The guiding principles for this literature overview are “to present results of similar studies, to relate the present study to the ongoing dialogue in the literature, and to provide a framework for comparing the results of a study with other studies” (Creswell, 1994, p. 37). The process has been in three main steps; defining research topics, selecting texts to include, and analyzing. In the first two steps, I initially had a broad approach to the field, using the search terms: “critical mathematics education” and “post-normal science”. Multiple approaches have been carried out in the searching process, such as using scientific search databases, bibliography searches, scrutinizing reference lists, citation searching, author searching, consulting with experts, and identifying key search terms in iterative cycles. Doing so, I gained insight into the area, which helped me to narrow down the research topic and choose which texts to analyze. Important processes in my analysis were: identifying focus areas through key terms and systematization, data extraction, similarities, differences, conflicting or new perspectives, quality assessment, synthesizing, and pattern recognition. To obtain transparency and reproducibility, the search process is described in detail. Development of criteria for inclusion, exclusion, and quality assessment of the texts was an ongoing and iterative process, and these criteria are described below.

Table 1 presents some general criteria, whereas Table 2 and Figure 2 visualize the key terms in more detail. The methodology part ends with an excerpt of included items (Table 3). The text comments and elaborates on the tables and figure.

Criteria	Included	Excluded
Time frame	2006-2017	2005 and older
Publication	Book chapter, conference papers, journal article.	Books, report working groups, topical survey, monographs, master thesis, editorials, news, Audio/Videoclip, book reviews.
Language	English and Scandinavian language	Others
Level	Lower secondary school	Others (such as preservice teachers, kindergarten, after-school program, university)
Electronic search engines	ERIC, Science Direct, ProQuest, Web of Science, MathEduc/Scopus	Others
Others	Access to full-text articles, search terms, quality assessment	

Table 1: General criteria for inclusion and exclusion of articles

CME and PNS have been around roughly since the nineties, and the timespan was chosen to ensure diversity and an “up to date, but not forgotten” perspective. However, some items older than ten years were included due to their influential impact on their fields. Different research designs were included, but the final list consisted mostly of qualitative studies, with theoretical and empirical focus. Early research in mathematics education with a social perspective mainly used quantitative research methodologies (Atweh, Forgasz, & Nebres 2001). Although there is quantitative research that has a critical mathematics perspective (as exemplified by Skovsmose & Borba 2004, p. 209), I had a special interest in qualitative studies, due to own empirical research. I also had an interest in lower secondary school, and I do acknowledge that by excluding other levels, relevant items can be missed both in order to locate concepts and perspectives, and in recognizing their transferability. The search terms were set to all fields (title, abstract etc.). The quality assessment was based on several criteria, such as peer review, published in a recognized journal or publisher, transparency of methodology and theoretical grounding, quality of writing, bringing onboard new and different concepts and perspectives, and degree of reflexivity. Furthermore, thematic relevance was of great significance.

In the initial stage, the search words (CME and PNS) were chosen to ensure the inclusion of relevant literature. This generated some items with less relevance. Several other key terms were therefore added as inclusion and exclusion criteria. Some of these terms were chosen in line with the focus of my PhD project, such as critique, mathemacy, and climate change (Table 2). Others came from what was highlighted in the literature as important or relevant, such as social responsibility, extended peer-community and reflective knowing. In CME, the focus of the literature overview, identifying concepts and perspectives, was my guiding principle when selecting items. Items that had an overview-focus were therefore favored above items concerning more narrow parts of the field. When searching for literature in the field of PNS, I first favored items that concerned education, climate change, and extended peer community, then those that had an overview perspective.

The keywords listed in Table 2 (see below) give an indication of important search words. They are used in various forms (synonyms, etc), and with different Boolean logic. The keywords shown in the table give the reader an indication of the foci of the search. If the excluded keywords are the main focus of the paper, with less emphasis on the included keywords, papers have been excluded. Some of the excluded keywords, such as social justice and ethnomathematics, are closely related to CME. Teaching mathematics for social justice, as suggested by Gutstein (2012), does not explicitly use the label of CME, though e.g. Skovsmose (Alrø, Ravn, & Valero 2010, p. 4) considers it as an example of CME. Similar thoughts can be made in respect to ethnomathematics. It is not my intention to draw distinct lines between different areas of CME. Furthermore, some of the key terms are sometimes highly influenced by particular authors. A search by these concepts could therefore give a biased image of the literature. There are for instance several related concepts to mathematical literacy (see discussion below, main area 3, p.16) such as mathemacy, often associated with Skovsmose (1994), and matheracy, associated with D’Ambrosio (2010). For other key terms, such as reflective knowing (by Skovsmose, 1992), related concepts are not as easily found



used in other authors (although they may write about reflective knowing without explicitly referring to this concept). Using this concept as a search word can therefore result in a skewed literature search result, favoring one particular author. I have listed all the different and related concepts in order to make it more transparent which search word was included.

	CME	PNS
Inclusion	Mathematical literacy (see text) Critique, Critical agency, Critical mathematics perspective, Critical mathematical thinking Democracy, Formatting power of mathematics, Critical citizen(ship) Reflective educational practice, Reflective knowing Social responsibility, Values, Ethics, Conflicts, Complexity, Uncertainty Real world problems (modelling, statistics)	Education, Transdisciplinary, Interdisciplinary, Multidisciplinary Extended peer-community, Democratization of science Social responsibility, Values, Ethics, Conflicts, Complexity, Uncertainty Climate change, Sustainability
Exclusion	Ethnomathematics, Social justice, Pedagogy of dialogue and conflict, Sociomathematics, Intercultural, Race, Gender and identity, Equity Curriculum, Education policies, Foci on specific topic (geometry, algebra etc.) Instructional practices, Assessment, Tests, Achievement gap, Disabilities Historic perspective, Epistemological and ontological foci	Policy and intervention, Economics, Production of Knowledge, Specific topics within specific fields (such as biotechnology, chemistry, fisheries etc.) Urban planning, Catastrophes Gender-issues, Historic perspective

Table 2: Key terms for inclusion and exclusion of items

Throughout the read and search process, I created a conceptual mapping (Figure 2, see below). When identifying concepts highlighted in the literature as important, they have been written onto a map to get an overview of the two fields. By visualizing the central concepts and themes this way, the interrelation between them appeared clearly. Later in the analyzing process, the interrelation of the identified concepts made possible the grouping into four main areas. The identified concepts within each area, have some common features, but also some overlapping properties. After identifying these main areas, my question became: if this is the answer, what is the question, resulting in four questions, one for each area.

In creating the mapping in Figure 2, some homogenizing of terms was undertaken. An example of this was when Sánchez and Blomhøj (2010) wrote about the important role mathematics plays in shaping our world, this was coded as “formatting power of mathematics”, a termed used by Skovsmose (1994). Another example was when referring to mathematics and real life, there are multiple related terms: real-life education (Alrø & Johnsen-Høines 2010), realistic mathematics education (Jablonka 2015), real world problem

solving (Jurdak 2016), real-world activities or real-world examples (Atweh 2012), mathematics of the real world (Brantlinger 2014), real situations and really real situations (D'Ambrosio 2015), real life applications and realistic problem (De Freitas 2008), real-life contexts (Goos, Geiger, & Dole 2014; Hauge & Barwell 2017; OECD 2003), real world projects (Gutstein 2006), and authentic applications of mathematics in socio-political applications (Sánchez & Blomhøj 2010). These were all coded under the term “real world problem”, although they might each have a slightly different perspective.

The number of items included was initially 362 (202 CME, 160 PNS), and after the inclusion-exclusion and quality assessment processes the number was reduced to 57 (30 CME 27 PNS). In the initial search in CME, Skovsmose was the most frequently represented author (31 items). His book, *Towards a Philosophy of Critical Mathematics Education*, brought about seminal ideas to the field, and several of his publications met the inclusion criteria. In order to avoid an over-representation of Skovsmose, a representative publication with an overview focus was selected. This approach was also carried out on other authors, such as Frankenstein, D'Ambrosio, and Ernest. This method could give an incorrect image of which authors have contributed the most to the field. On the other hand, it allows authors who have not written the same amount as Skovsmose, to gain a voice. Similar issues were observed in PNS, where Funtovitz & Ravetz are the idea-holders. Items passing the inclusion criteria could also be excluded if there was a strong resemblance between different items and overlapping concepts and perspectives.

During the inclusion and exclusion process, there were several borderline cases, where one could argue for inclusion as well as exclusion, and judgment calls were therefore made. A shared decision-making with supervisor and colleagues strengthened this process. Notes were taken during the reading and searching process. An excerpt of selected items is presented in Table 3 to indicate this process (the full document contains more text).

Author	Type	Content	CME	PNS	Focus
Skovsmose (2016)	Journal article	Notions, the future	Y	N	1,2,3,4
Hauge and Barwell (2017)	Journal article	Education, critical citizens	Y	Y	1,2,3,4
(Funtowicz & Ravetz 2003)	Journal article	Uncertainty, complexity	N	Y	1,2,3,4

Table 3: Excerpt - Overview of selected items

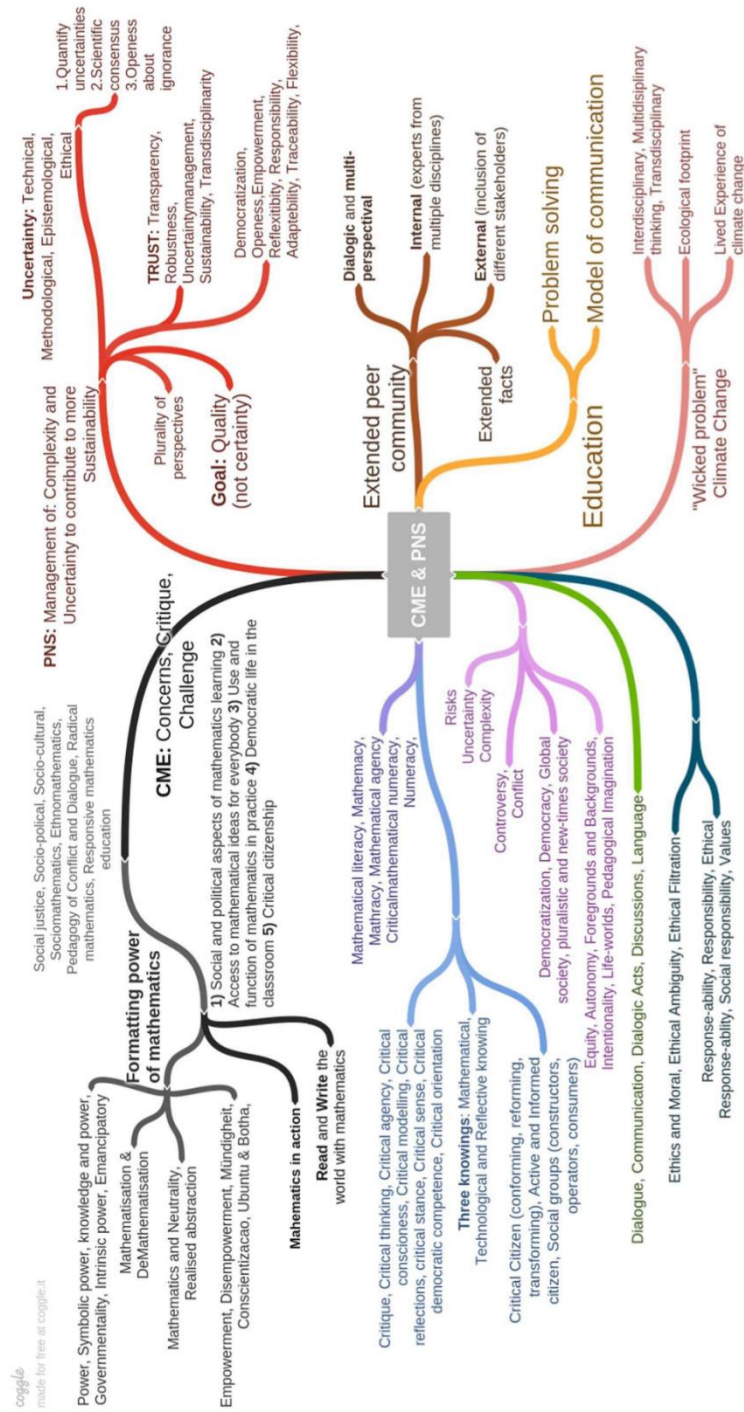


Figure 2: [Conceptual mapping of identified concepts and perspective](#)

### Discussion of findings – the concepts and perspectives

The findings are structured, and discussed, in four main areas: Important characteristics of tasks (1); Pupils' role in society (2); Competences recognized as important (3); and, Aspects of democracy (4). Although the results are structured into different areas, each containing different concepts, there is an overlap between the different areas. Table 4 gives an overview, with accompanying questions, and the findings as keywords.

Main area	Questions	Findings
1. Important characteristics of tasks	What characterizes complex real-world problems?	Wicked problems, Uncertainty, Complexity, Controversy, Risks Multi/Inter/Transdisciplinarity
2. Pupils' role in society	Why should pupils (be prepared to) contribute in complex problems in society?	Critical Citizen, Extended peer community
3. Competences recognized as important	What kind of competences do pupils need when reflecting on complex real-world problems (in the mathematics classroom)?	Mathematical literacy, Reflective knowing, Critical agency, Critique and Dialogue
4. Aspects of democracy	Why is it important to bring real-world problems into mathematics education from a democracy perspective?	Power, Formatting Power, Responsibility, Ethics, Value Democratization and Global Society

Table 4: Overview of four main areas

#### Important characteristics of tasks (1)

Mathematics classrooms educate students for today's society. An important part in this can be to invite students into solving real-world problems (Jurdak 2016; Skovsmose, 1994). A key question is then: *what characterizes these real-world problems?* The identified concepts emphasized in the included literature regarding these characteristics are **wicked problem, uncertainty, complexity, controversy, risks** and **multi- inter- and transdisciplinary thinking**.

**Wicked problems:** in wicked problems, there are many levels and perspectives of the problem. In climate change, there are debates on whether climate change is in fact anthropogenic, and if recognized as such, multiple questions and issues surfaces in the wake of this (e.g. which factors contribute the most, the best approach towards energy supply, transport solutions). Hulme (2010, p. 303) argues that climate change has transformed from a physical phenomenon being studied, to an idea being contested. Several mathematics researchers and educators argue for dealing with real-world problems, and put emphasis especially on unmasking their often hidden and non-neutral aspects, e.g.,: Frankenstein (2010); Gutiérrez (2013); Gutstein (2012); Jurdak (2016). Barwell and Suurtamm (2011) argue for the importance of making the invisible visible in modelling climate change in order to make information accessible to citizens. D'Ambrosio (2015, p. 27) emphasizes that we do not need to try to contextualize mathematics education, the real situation is already here, "... waiting to be recognized and dealt with ...". Jurdak (2016, p. 110) connects real-world problems to Freire's emancipatory problem-posing pedagogies (in contrast to banking education), and

emphasizes students being "...critical co-investigators in dialogue with the teacher". Furthermore, he identifies challenges implementing CME in practice, such as teachers' insecurity, students' attitudes and dispositions, and reluctance from schools to provide room for CME. Also, curricula can impede goals such as developing "... critical consciousness of the world for changing it...", as seen in the work of Vithal and Gutstein (pp. 113-114). Atweh (2012) emphasized that real-world problems should do more than engage with the mathematics, they should also engage in real-world situations. From a perspective of PNS, Funtowicz and Ravetz (2003) suggest that when facing complex, uncertain, and value-loaded problems, one needs different ways to deal with these issues, including different actors. Wildschut (2017) reflects on how our society is changing towards a peer-to-peer society, with new roles for both science and citizens. What these roles might be is still to be seen, but some examples are observed in several areas, such as in environmental issues.

Wicked problems have earlier been left to scientists to deal with, but within this rationalist, science-led approach, claims can be made to include lived experiences as part of policy-making. Lived experience can be defined: as our individual and collective agency to reflect and engage; as our experiences and responses to events and potential impacts; and, as structures and power relations that define our capacities for actions (Abbott & Wilson 2014, p. 3). By implementing lived experience in policy-making, unintentional harm can be avoided, you can forward ideas that already work from a bottom-up-perspective, and enhance public acceptance and legitimacy (p. 6). But as Yasukawa (2007, p. 12) states, when reflecting on a mathematics education *about* and *for* sustainable development, in the case of the latter, we are expecting a great deal from the learners: understanding and skills; actions based on moral stands; and, perhaps in situations where individuals traditionally have little influence and power. Furthermore, the context is seen as a vehicle for learning mathematics more than "... factors that shape the purpose of mathematics teaching and learning" (2007, p. 18).

**Uncertainty:** Skovsmose and Greer (2012b, p. 376) highlight mathematics education as a field where certainty is pursued, but in the face of current crisis (e.g. environmental), it is not always possible to achieve. Skovsmose (2016, p. 12) underlines that "...the basic epistemic condition for a critical activity is uncertainty", and that the constant changes in society, such as environmental problems, require us to always redefine what has been. In science education, Christensen (2009, p. 207) emphasizes two dimensions of uncertainty, connected to the construction and application of scientific knowledge: complexity; and, science-in-the-making. In the first dimension, Christensen claims that even if the problem is extremely complex, there seems to be a focus on demonstrating direct relationships between cause and effect in a decontextualized setting. In the second dimension, there are often found examples of science-in-the-making in media (such as climate change, genetically modified crops and food), but less seen in classrooms. Christensen suggests that "acknowledging the uncertainty of scientific knowledge is not to decrease its value. It is not to deny the reliability of much scientific knowledge, the wealth and wonder of the vast number of scientific 'discoveries' or the crucial role that science plays in problem solving" (p. 208). Similarly, Turnpenny (2012, pp. 403-404) argues responses to uncertainty in wicked problems may not be working towards more certainty, but to recognize that problems are more than being reduced to numbers, statistics, and scientific facts, and recognizing that "...'facts' and 'values' are locked together ...", and therefore need to be treated accordingly.

Hauge and Barwell (2017, p. 8) highlight three different sorts of uncertainty from the literature of PNS: technical; methodological; and, epistemic uncertainty. Technical uncertainty can be inexactness in methods or techniques. Methodological uncertainty can occur when connecting different system components where there are difficulties accurately quantifying them. Giampietro and Saltelli (2014) argue that 'ecological footprint' involves methodological uncertainty (e.g., different scales or quantitative variables belonging to different descriptive domains), and if used in policymaking this could conceal important uncertainty, and lead to paradoxes. Epistemic uncertainty can arise from lack of knowledge or lack of awareness of some features of situations. They argue that wicked problems (which they refer to as post-normal situations) are characterized by epistemic uncertainty, and should be dealt with PNS and by an extended peer community. They furthermore link these three types of uncertainty to Skovsmose's three types of knowing (see later in the text, and Figure 4).

Three different policy strategies dealing with uncertainties are identified: quantify uncertainty; build scientific consensus; and, openness about ignorance (Van Der Sluijs 2012; Van der Sluijs, Van Est, & Riphagen 2010). The first strategy is a technocratic view where uncertainty is seen as temporary "shortcoming of knowledge", resulting in more research and more complex models as "answers". Calculations presented may appear more certain than they are, and give the impression of unified certainty. The second strategy, scientific consensus, attempts to reflect the best of our knowledge from a multidisciplinary expert panel. The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) serves as an example. The third strategy, openness about ignorance, is a deliberative model suggested to include and appreciate a plurality of perspectives (2010, p. 410). It recognizes uncertainty as something unavoidable and permanent, and involving reflection and argued choice (p. 413). The reflexivity in the latter strategy is also highlighted by Spangenberg (2011, p. 279), who defines reflexivity as a "...capacity of an individual agent to act against influences of socialization and social structure, based on critical self assessment". Furthermore, reflexivity accepts different kinds of knowledge, and acknowledges different roles and perspectives. Funtowicz and Ravetz (2003, p. 4) emphasize that uncertainty and inconclusive arguments sometimes cause paralysis in policymaking, and suggest an awareness, in management, of uncertainties. This awareness can be accomplished by a quest for quality rather than for truth, and through an open dialogue between participants (p. 6).

**Complexity:** by recognizing systems as not fixed, not static and not in equilibrium, complexity is acknowledged (Beilin & Bender 2011, p. 159). Furthermore, complex systems involve interrelated subsystems, involving both natural and social systems (Funtowicz & Ravetz 2003). Each subsystem is interwoven and embedded in its societal and natural context. Funtowicz and Ravetz (2003, p. 2) argue therefore "there can be no single privileged point of view for measurement, analysis and evaluation", and that complex phenomena cannot be reduced to individual components and dealt with accordingly, but need a holistic approach. In mathematics education, a majority of problems tackled in classrooms are such isolated tasks, and Funtowicz and Ravetz (2003) argue that facts taught from textbooks no longer are sufficient, because in practice there are several plausible answers, or no well-defined answer at all. Ravetz (2007) claims that complex systems thinking needs to consider multiple perspectives on several relations, such as quality, knowledge, facts versus truths and evidence, ethical judgments, and ramifications of effects. An illustration of the

latter is when making an ethical “good” judgment, but the effect is unintentionally harmful (law of unintended consequences, or Murphy’s Law), which often is seen in environmental problems (p. 280). Colucci-Gray (2009, p. 196) suggests an “...awareness of the different representations of the world is a step toward building awareness of complexity and a way of knowing which is more respectful of other people and other living beings”. She challenged students through an educational setting to handle complexity, and identified competences both on an individual, collective and an ecological level (pp. 199-200).

**Controversy:** in many real-world problems, there is controversy and conflicting interest. Atweh (2012, p. 337) calls for a “...willingness to deal with controversial topics ... debate and difference of opinion...”. Also Gray and Bryce (2006) stress the need for education to include controversies in order to involve reflections on science, social and ethical dimensions, uncertainty, and complexity. They claim that students should be allowed to engage in critical reasoning, discussions, value judgement, and the messiness of decision-making (p. 176). This is exemplified by Colucci-Gray (2009), where students deal with controversies on prawn farming through role-play. There are cycles of controversies about environmental impact, such as trees being cut down to facilitate economic growth, which leads to loss of mechanical protection from the sea, which again causes reduction in biodiversity. Other aspects of controversy are: how one selects information; how value judgements are performed; and, how certain power positions can be persuasive (p. 192). Suggestions for education are to facilitate a language for accessing pluralism, and a connectedness to reality in order to get to “deeper and fluid engagements between the observer and reality” (p. 193). Controversies do not always represent interest between two equal parties, one group can have less legitimization than others (such as local inhabitants versus scientists). Another element is how different parties use facts. The same numbers and statistics are used by counterparties in debates about climate change, and therefore serve as an example that science and mathematics are not a “monolithic truth tablet” (Turnpenny 2012, p. 400).

**Risk:** risk can be considered as the possible loss of something valuable. Christensen (2009) elaborates on several conceptions of risk, and traditionally it involves measurement of some sort (e.g., quantification of physical harm). Social and cultural context can play a role in how risk is perceived, and environmental risk is influenced by traditional views on risk, but also people’s perceptions of risk from a cultural perspective (p. 213). Furthermore, the precautionary principle is highly relevant in climate change, where irreversible damage can occur, and the uncertainty involved should not lead to postponing preventative action (Christensen 2009). Risk management involves making “right” decisions, where different concerns such as safety, costs, reputation, are to be balanced adequately (Aven 2013, p. 270). Focus is on more than economics and fatalities, and towards issues such as possible reversibility, and possible violation of equity (who benefits versus who bears the costs) (p. 274). Lidskog (2008) investigates three different proposals for public engagement in risk regulation: new production of knowledge; PNS; and, scientific citizenship. All concern how science can be democratized, and the relation between experts and citizens (p. 71). He mentions examples of political declaration, highlighting the importance of involving citizens in risk management, decision-making, and moving towards deliberative negotiation. He does not see public inclusion as the total cure, but welcomes this cautiously. In science education, there is growing awareness of how knowledge about risk connects to “value free” scientific knowledge.

Students can engage in considering risk and uncertainty, both on a personal and on a societal level. Three significant challenges are then relevant: how to deal with uncertainty; how to deal with the “power and limitations of science in social context”; and, how these two challenges can be handled in educational contexts (Christensen 2009, p. 207). Furthermore, Christensen highlights argumentation, collective argumentation, small-group discussion, and team teaching as important.

Funtowicz and Ravetz (2003) have developed an uncertainty-risk model (Figure 3), with one value dimension (decision stakes), and one knowledge dimension (system uncertainties). It has three categories of risk problem-solving strategies: applied sciences; professional consultancy; and, PNS. When both the uncertainty and decision stakes are low, applied sciences are efficient. When one or both are medium the involvement of professional consultancy (e.g. senior engineer, or surgeon) may be effective; and, when one or both are high (e.g., risks cannot be quantified or possible damage irreversible) we need to engage in post-normal science.

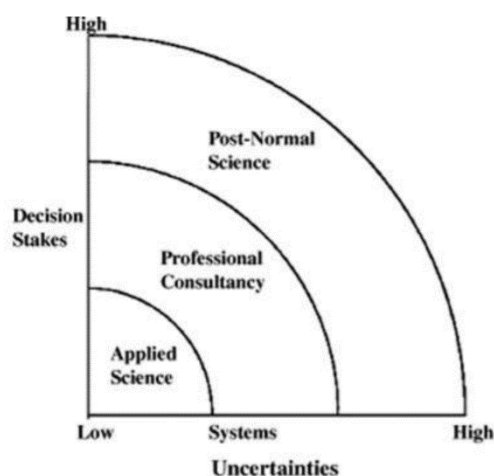


Figure 3: PNS – Uncertainty-Risk model from Funtowicz and Ravetz (2003).

**Inter- Multi- Transdisciplinary thinking:** educational systems tend to be disciplinary based, although several mathematics researchers suggest a more holistic approach to learning. Wicked problems require competences from several subject disciplines at once. In science education, Spangenberg (2011) provides an overview of sustainability science, and distinguishes between a traditional disciplinary-based science *for* sustainability and a transdisciplinary science *of* sustainability. He characterizes the former as being more of a basic science with descriptive and analytical properties, while the latter is more reflexive and on a meta level. Funtowicz and Ravetz (2008) argue that transdisciplinary research and PNS are a complementary pair, where a variety of perspectives are taken into consideration. Colucci-Gray, Perazzone, Dodman, and Camino (2013) highlight that a progression from multi disciplinarity to inter- and transdisciplinarity in the pursuit of theoretical pluralism. In contrast to multi- and interdisciplinarity, where the main focus is on the disciplinary thinking, transdisciplinarity can bring focus on dialogue and different forms of knowledge and by this, an ontology of multiplicity and differences (Colucci-Gray et al. 2013). Transdisciplinarity “combines epistemological reasons associated with incompleteness and contingency of knowledge with political and ethical arguments” (p. 136). Renert (2011, p. 25) emphasis transdisciplinarity as a decentralized network of specialists working together towards common goals. Beilin and Bender (2011, p. 159) included PNS in the curriculum in an environment degree and found that educators moved from a multidisciplinary approach, where each had their own methods of handling particular aspects of problems, towards an interdisciplinary approach with focus on how these different views could enhance a better understanding and a holistic picture. This



is supported by Colucci-Gray et al. (2013, p. 145), who also found, in such an approach, the importance of meta-reflective competences and inter- and transdisciplinary knowledge (they suggest e.g. unchaining concepts from the rigid framework of a discipline, and recompose them into a complex whole).

Real-world problems are not necessarily wicked problems, but perhaps it could be important to include elements of wicked problems, giving students opportunities to meet problems where there is no right or wrong, and no obvious solutions. The characteristics of complex real-world problems entail uncertainty, complexity, controversy, conflicting interest, risk and multidisciplinary thinking. Funtowicz and Ravetz (2003) suggest transparency of processes in dealing with these matters: how one communicates; how given policy problems are structured; which assumptions and ethical positions are taken; which scientific perspective one holds; and, which interests and values are considered. If education can embrace and implement these dimensions of real-world tasks in the mathematics classroom, students can reflect on these issues in a multi-perspective environment that the classroom can represent.

### **Pupils' role in society (2)**

A legitimate question is to ask why students should deal with real-world problems in mathematics classrooms, or rephrased: *why should students (be prepared to) contribute in complex problems in society?* In this area, I emphasize in particular two identified concepts, namely **critical citizen** and **extended peer community**. The first originates from CME, the latter from PNS.

**Critical citizen:** citizenship can be defined as “the knowledge, skills, values and dispositions of citizens” (Cogan 2013, p. 4). A critical citizenship involves responsibility, collaboration, concern for social justice, and a motivation to change society (Dejaeghere & Tudball 2007). A critical citizenship relates to young people’s ability to critically reflect and engage in their own lives. Many authors from CME emphasize critical citizenship, and Skovsmose (1994, p. 59) asks if mathematical competences could “provide students with a competence fundamental to a critical citizenship?”. He suggests mathemacy as a precondition for this social and cultural emancipation. Mathematics education dealing with problems important for students’ life can turn into something more than a subject taught at school. Furthermore, Skovsmose emphasizes three aspects of reflection, important for a critical citizenship: reflection *on*, *with* and *through* mathematics. Similar thoughts are seen in Ernest (2010), who suggests moving away from a traditional mathematics curriculum focus on content, and towards a perspective that empowers students. He relates critical citizenship to “social empowerments through mathematics”, and calls for a mathematics education enabling students “to function as numerate critical citizens, able to use their knowledge in social and political realms of activity, for the betterment of both themselves and for democratic society as a whole” (p. 23). Hauge et al. (2015) highlights critical reflections with students on societal issues (e.g., climate change) as a possible way to learn to critique and to be(come) critical citizens. They emphasize reflective knowing and controversies. By using Skovsmose’s steps of reflection as a framework for analysis, they suggest that reflective thinking about *the mathematics* is necessary for reflective knowing, and that a key capability for critical citizenship is to question the data, model assumptions, and the perspectives involved (pp. 1581-1582). From the PNS perspective, Funtowicz and Ravetz (2008, p. 364) mention that “increasingly, ‘consumers’ become critical citizens”. From

an environmental perspective, this can have different impacts, such as demands for different products that do not emit CO<sub>2</sub> throughout their life cycle (cars, energy supply, etc.).

**Extended peer community:** an extended peer community (as argued in the introduction), is an important element in PNS, and Funtowicz and Ravetz (1993, p. 747) suggest that an extended peer community should "...include all with a stake in the product, the process, and its implications both local and global". This can also include students, who can ask critical questions, and open-ended questions that start with *what if*, and *what about*, and could, through participation, develop ownership to the problem (Funtowicz & Ravetz 2008, p. 365). They further emphasize that mutual respect and a range of perspectives permit development of a genuine and effective democratic element in science (1993, pp. 741-742). This implies that students' voices in wicked problems have a say, and are considered as valued contributions. Different extended peer communities already exist, and are called a variety of names. Examples are citizen juries, consensus conferences, focus groups, consultations and planning cells, and these can consist of both experts and lay people (Levinson 2010, p. 87). They can involve knowledge from experts (e.g. advisory boards, hearings, internet), or lay knowledge (e.g. steering committees, advisory board, consultation processes) Spangenberg (2011, p. 284). Furthermore, they can have different forms and powers, but they all assess the quality of (scientific based) policy proposals (Funtowicz & Ravetz 2003, p. 7). Though they may already exist, they are not always taken seriously, and sometimes are seen as shallow political correctness (Ravetz 2012). Extended peer communities can be internal or external: the former "involves expert elicitations where multiple disciplines work together on the assessment of quality and uncertainty", while the latter "is the inclusion of representatives from all relevant stakeholders in the processes of problem framing, choices of indicators, and quality assurance" (König, Børsen, & Emmeche 2017, p. 3).

König et al. (2017) identified 33 prototypical norms and values in documents that strived to practice PNS, such as: sustainability; quality; awareness; honesty; responsibility; and, equity. They argue that some of the underlying norms of an extended peer community are robustness, inclusiveness, and democratization of scientific expertise, and that these norms are interrelated and important for how trust can be established by dialogue through an extended peer community. They suggest TRUST as an acronym (Transparency, Robustness, Uncertainty management, Sustainability, and Tolerance), where all the identified norms and values are included and interrelated. Although this is meant as a reflective tool in science advice, I also see potential for this as a tool for educational purposes, with the same reflective goals, both for research purposes and in an educational setting.

Hulme (2010, p. 305) addresses three important questions for an extended peer community: who participates and how do they gain entry?; how is trust established within the community?; and, how does the extended peer community contribute to a democratisation (of science)? He reflects on these questions using Al Gore's environmental focus as an example, and looks at the different actors involved (e.g., Gore, IPCC, film-team, judges, experts, parents and school leaders). They can contribute with extended facts, such as local knowledge, critical and ethical considerations, investigative journalism or leaked documents (Funtowicz & Ravetz 2003). Hauge and Barwell (2017) argue that mathematics education can prepare students to participate in extended peer communities, and they raise some important questions as to what kind of competences one needs in

order to participate. Participants need to understand and interpret complex scientific information, and they need mathematical literacy to understand and interpret data, graphs, statistics, probability, but also in order to be aware of the uncertainty and value-perspective of the problem.

Though critical citizenship and extended peer community perhaps reflect two different fields, they are interrelated. One might question whether one depends on the other: does an extended peer community rely on critical citizens, and does the extended peer community give opportunities for critical citizenship?

### **Competences recognized as important (3)**

Many people today celebrate and trust the rationality of mathematics. It is, however, important to question mathematical rationality. Skovsmose (2006, p. 267) asks: “Could mathematics education bring about competences which can be described as empowering, and as supporting the development of mathematical literacy or a mathemacy, important for the development of critical citizenship?”. This is an important question, and leads to another, namely *what kind of competences do pupils need when reflecting on complex real-world problems in the mathematics classroom?* In the literature, there are many attempts to answer this. Here I will emphasize five concepts identified as important, namely: **mathematical literacy; reflective knowing; critical agency; critique;** and, **dialogue.**

**Mathematical literacy:** the definition from PISA states: “The capacity to identify and understand the role that mathematics plays in the world, make well-founded judgments, and use and engage with mathematics in ways that meet the needs of one’s life as a constructive, concerned and reflective citizen” (OECD 2003, p. 24). This emphasizes both identifying and understanding, and connects to a reflective citizenship. The term also involves social aspects, such as environmental and cultural awareness, competences to read socio-political settings as being open to change, and an evaluation of mathematics itself (Jablonka 2003 2015). The definition from PISA is not strongly connected to the notion of critique, therefore, I draw attention to mathemacy, which takes the element of critique into consideration to a greater extent. Skovsmose (1994, p. 27) states that mathemacy “...has to be rooted in the spirit of critique and the project of possibility that enables people to participate in the understanding and transformation of their society and, therefore, mathemacy becomes a preconception for social and cultural emancipation”. This dimension to competences required in or out of the classroom, is rooted in Freire’s term literacy as something more than just being able to read or write. Freire (1970) suggested that students needed to be thought of as conscious, thinking beings. He urged teachers to consider how students can change their social situations, and to reflect on social inequalities. Skovsmose (1994, p. 94) has embraced this, and defines mathemacy as “a capacity of making responses and as reading the world as being open to change”.

Several other authors have used related concepts, some of them described in the following. Jablonka (2015) elaborates on the evolution of numeracy and mathematical literacy as models for curricula; numeracy can range from a narrow definition (basic calculation and arithmetic skills), to a wider definition like mathemacy. One of the aspects highlighted concerns critique and how this can be used as a tool to “...deconstruct, subvert and ultimately replace mainstream curricula” (p. 602). D’Ambrosio (2010 2015) uses the concept mathemacy, and connects this competence to a

deeper reflection about man and society. He suggests a trivium of literacy, mathacy and technoracy as providers of communicative, analytical and technological instruments for life in the twenty-first century. Gutstein (2012, p. 5) uses the concept critical literacy in mathematics, “to approach knowledge critically and skeptically”. He furthermore elaborates on the relationships between ideas, underlying explanation, and questioning interests in play. Frankenstein (2010) refers to Freire when using the term ‘criticalmathematical’ literacy, and connects this to the desire “to read and re-write the world”. She further develops this to criticalmathematical numeracy and relates this to a need for “*real* real-life word problems”, and suggests several examples of how to use numbers, calculations and word-problems. She emphasizes that the main goal is not to understand mathematical concepts better, but rather how to use mathematical ideas to improve our society (pp. 1-2). Goos et al. (2014) argue that although rich definitions of notions such as mathematical literacy are useful, more direct guidance for teachers is necessary when planning for instruction that aims for such competences. They suggest a model for planning and reflection which emphasizes real-life contexts, mathematical knowledge, tools, dispositions, and a critical orientation. In a collaborative partnership with teachers, one of their findings was that development of critical orientation occurred to a lesser extent in the classroom and that teachers “...express low confidence in this aspect of their practice” (2014, pp. 100-101).

**Reflective knowing:** Skovsmose (1994) uses the notion ‘knowing’ to point toward a process of changes, avoiding using knowledge which is more associated with concepts such as truth, absolutism and authority. He describes three types of knowing: mathematical; technological; and, reflective knowing. Mathematical knowing is the mastering of algorithm and theorems as perhaps seen in “the traditional” mathematical classroom, and technological knowing is “the ability to apply mathematics and formal methods in pursuing technological aims” (pp. 100-101). Reflective knowing is “the competence needed to be able to take a justified stand in a discussion of technological question” (pp. 100-101), and are considered as important when reflecting on personal and sociopolitical matters. Hauge and Barwell (2017) highlight reflective knowing to be the most crucial competence (of the three knowings) when citizens participate in extended peer communities, “...in order to be able to critically engage with the information they receive or generate for themselves” (p. 7). They suggest that students learn about how uncertainty is interwoven in wicked problems, and of societal effects of different ways of handling uncertainty, and suggest several examples of how climate change can provide opportunities for mathematics education to address uncertainty through reflective knowing.

Barwell (2013) draws some parallels between Skovsmose’s three kinds of knowing, and PNS. Mathematical and technological knowing can be a small-scale analogue to applied science and professional consultancy, and reflective knowing is the “small-scale analogy of post-normal science” (Barwell 2013, p. 12). In Figure 4 (see below), I have visualized this, and combined: the PNS-diagram from Funtowicz and Ravetz (2003) (Figure 3); Skovsmose’s three knowing’s; and, the three types of uncertainty highlighted by Hauge and Barwell (2017). Although Figure 4 illustrates some analogy between different concepts and perspectives exposed by Barwell (2013) and Hauge and Barwell (2017), it is important to emphasize the overlap between some of these, such as the mathematical and technological knowing.

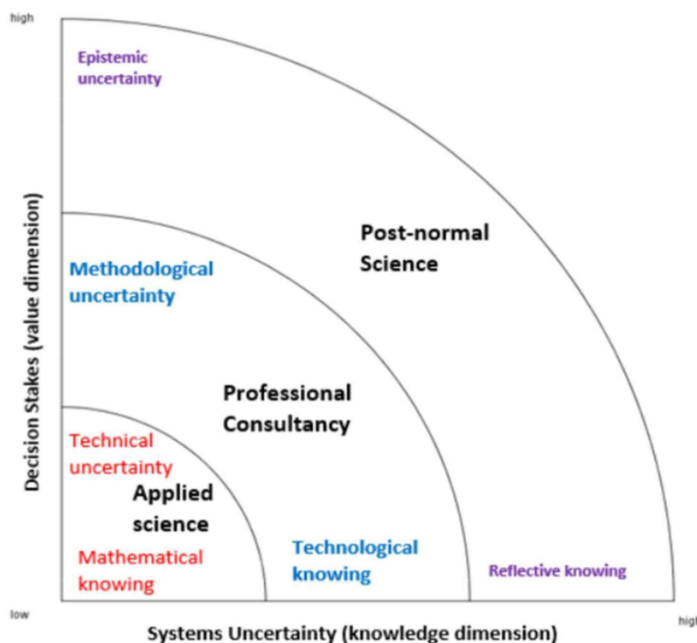


Figure 4: PNS model – Modified with Skovsmose's three knowings (c.f. Barwell 2013), and three types of uncertainty (Hauge & Barwell 2017).

**Critique:** Skovsmose (2011, p. 19) summarises a modernist conception: “a critique should prepare the ground for obtaining *certainty* and *truth*; it should be an expression of *rationality*; and it should include a search for the proper *foundation* of knowledge”. This definition of critique as the pursuit of truth, certainty and foundations has been challenged by several, and Skovsmose and Greer (2012b, p. 369) question whether it is time to move away from providing critique with certainty, and forward to more post-modern conditions. They elaborate the notion of critique as a logical, epistemological, political and certain endeavour, and interpret the notion with respect to theories of Descartes, Kant, Marx, and Modernity respectively, and argue that they all unite in attempts to form an alliance with certainty. Skovsmose (2011) sees this as a possibility for opening to different approaches in CME.

He highlights critiquing in terms of imaginations as important to reveal that situations can be different from the present (Skovsmose 2016). Similarly, Pais, Fernandes, Matos, and Alves (2012) highlight that critique originates from the Frankfurt School and Freirean Pedagogy and had strong social and political aspects; it has lost its most radical meaning in the sense that critiquing is now done within the frame of the system. They exemplify this by stating that CME is only possible within the confines of the capitalistic school’s credit system, as long as it is not undermining the foundations of the system (p. 32). In the field of PNS, Funtowicz and Ravetz (2003, p. 2) suggest that the search for the “truth as the goal of science is a distraction, or even a diversion from real

tasks”. Instead they propose the search for quality, as a guiding principle, and “as a contextual property of scientific information”.

PNS has itself been criticised for embracing a non-scientific perspective (e.g., by stressing the uncertainty in climate change), perhaps partly due to the critiquing element of PNS (Turnpenny 2012). Another critique of PNS highlighted by Turnpenny (2012), concerns how anecdotal evidence can give value to the problems. Goeminne (2011, p. 629) also critiques PNS by questioning if science ever has been normal, and by arguing that normal science is a constructivist account of science, but Goeminne agrees there is a change from the “...dispute of truth of scientific answers to a discussion about the way science frames its issue”. Hauge and Barwell (2017, p. 3) emphasize the role of critique in CME in how students can engage in social, environmental or economic problems, and argue for both learning mathematical methods and about which roles mathematics plays in these situations (both in creating, identifying and how to reflect and discuss the problems).

**Critical agency:** Brantlinger (2014, p. 201) understands critical agency as “...the sense that students can fight for justice and make a difference in the world”. Skovsmose and Greer (2012b) use the term critical agency, as a generalization of mathematical agency. The latter can be seen as how students can improve their life situation (social empowerment) and how they consider their role in creating and evaluate knowledge (epistemological empowerment) (Stemhagen 2009). By emphasizing the critical part of it, Skovsmose and Greer (2012a 2012b) draw attention to the political aspect of mathematics education, and the importance of critiquing mathematics education. The dialectic relationship between reflection and action is emphasized as being a crucial part of this, with references to Freire “reflection – true reflection – leads to action” (p. 6 & 382). Relatedly, Gutstein (2006, p. 334) suggests developing social agency as a “beginning step in writing the world” and developing a “sociopolitical consciousness” as “reading the world (with mathematics)”. This was a part of normalizing politically taboo topics in the classroom. This can mean being able to understand, examine critically, and to act where mathematics is interwoven (visible or not) with one’s immediate life or society in general (Gutstein 2012). This understanding of the formatting power of mathematics (see main area 4), is crucial in critical agency.

**Dialogue:** dialogue is considered as important in all of the above competences, but it can also be considered as a competence of its own. It is frequently mentioned in the literature, both of PNS and of CME. Skovsmose (2016, p. 11) emphasizes the important role dialogue has in CME, with inspirations from Freire, and it is considered as “...one way of developing broader critical competences related to mathematics”. In PNS, dialogue can be seen as an attempt to integrate and reconcile different sorts of knowledge from different fields, and can have a variety of forms. Some of these include methodologies for structuring dialogue with an extended peer community, such as community research and democratising technology (Funtowicz & Ravetz 2008). A characteristic of a dialogue in a PNS perspective is “negation in good faith” (Ravetz 2007, p. 278). In addition, Kacem and Simonneaux (2009) highlight argued debates as a positive contribution towards a scientific citizenship, and suggest controversial issues to motivate pupils to engage in socio-scientific issues. Colucci-Gray et al. (2013) claims by offering students opportunities for dialogue, they can express and evolve personal opinions and through this also fulfil their role in society. An inclusive dialogue, instead of being two fronts of rights and wrongs facts, can be a tool for different

legitimate perspectives to be elaborated. Colucci-Gray (2009) mention two different perspectives of communication in educational context: discussion and dialogue. The first can be seen as “to shake and break something apart”, while the latter is “a verbal exchange between two or more people involved in conversation” (pp. 194-195). Colucci-Gray et al. (2013, p. 129) emphasize “the linguistic reflections that can enable epistemological awareness”, by e.g., seeing metaphors (such as ecological footprint, mother Earth, the Earth as a goddess versus as a machine) as important in the process of knowledge production in science.

Alrø and Johnsen-Høines (2010) reflect on a critical dialogue when developing critical democratic competences in student teachers. They highlight several aspects of dialogue, e.g. the evaluating approach of the traditional mathematics classroom, dialogue with elements of inquiring and cooperation, and the notion on subject-based reflective dialogue. The latter is an “educative approach that aims to explore how the situation might generate discussion for further development; hence, it has a future-oriented perspective” (pp. 13-14). Omuvwie (2015, p. 59) suggest the aim of students and teacher-dialogue guided by “...a combination of *context, meaning, the mathematics in action and critique*”. He uses Bakhtin’s (1981) dialogic philosophy, and sees dialogue as an on-going and social process of opposing concepts and meanings in order to develop students’ critical mathematical thinking.

Wals and Schwarzin (2012) has researched how dialogic interactions can be a key mechanism for supporting group learning when wicked problem of sustainability is dealt with in society. Several important aspect of dialogue was highlighted, such as diversity of perspectives, mutual respect and trust, emphatic listening, assertive but not aggressive, anticipatory thinking, but also phases of conflict and instability was seen as important (pp. 17-20). Furthermore, Frame and Brown (2008, p. 226) emphasize that dialogue is an “irreducible plurality of perspectives and modes of understanding”, and not reducible from a combination of many voices into a single consensual view. This agrees with perspectives of CME, and Hauge and Barwell (2017, p. 8) argue that if the dialogue in mathematics education is about teaching facts and procedures, this is insufficient. Instead, they highlight the notion of dialogue as what Skovsmose refers to as knowledge conflict and negotiation, and leave behind any conception of the homogeneity of knowledge. Hauge and Barwell (2017, p. 8) furthermore link dialogue in CME with “issues of uncertainty and the need for negotiation through extended peer communities”, and suggest this type of dialogue as a classroom activity.

The competences recognized as important in this main area are by no means exhaustive. They do have some common features and some differences, but are perhaps not the competences traditionally associated with mathematics. Then again, neither are wicked problems.

#### **Aspects of democracy (4)**

From the included items, some concepts and perspectives stood out as significant from the perspective of democracy. These concepts can to a certain extent be an answer to the question: *Why is it important to bring real-world problems into mathematics education from a democracy perspective?* Some of the concepts that were frequently mentioned, were: **power; formatting power of mathematics; responsibility; ethics; values and morals; and, democratization.**

**Power:** the connection between mathematics and power has been emphasized by researchers, e.g., Gutiérrez (2013); Skovsmose (1994); Valero (2009). Valero (2009) asks (rhetorically) what power has to do with mathematics education, and how it relates to democracy and political affairs. She reflects on three different notions of power: the intrinsic power of mathematics; power as structural imbalance of knowledge control; and, power as distributed positioning. The first notion deals with how society considers mathematics as empowering for both individuals and society, and therefore crucial to master. Valero problematizes this, and argues that this conceptualization does not bring us further in a modern understanding of society. The second notion concerns who controls the knowledge, how society is class-divided and unequal, and the cultural aspect of mathematics and society. Also this notion has challenges, one is to give importance to the dissonance between mathematics education, power and democracy (Valero 2009). The last notion sees power as a relational capacity, where actors can actively choose different resources, and by this, move between different positions. This view on power is more dynamic, not as a permanent characteristic, and can also be considered as both a constructive and destructive force (Valero 2009).

Gutiérrez (2013, p. 40) uses the term sociopolitical turn to refer to "... a growing body of researcher and practitioners who seek to foreground the political...", which signals a shift in how one sees "...knowledge, power, and identity as interwoven and arising from (and constituted within) social discourses". She highlights two major constructs of power in relation to mathematics education: the power of mathematics; and, the power associated with being successful in mathematics (p. 46). The former concerns a conception of mathematics as having a privileged position of truth, while the latter can function as a gatekeeper for those who master mathematics well enough. Gutiérrez (2013, pp. 48-49) emphasizes that the sociopolitical turn, in mathematics education, has challenged these (and other related) concepts of power, moving away from a rational and universal logic, and toward something "being created discursively through practices".

Kollosche (2016, pp. 75-76) provides an overview of how Foucault's ideas have inspired mathematics education, and highlights how knowledge, subjectivity and power are interrelated. Furthermore, he suggests a framework for research on socio-political studies in mathematics education where this interrelation can be explored, and how thoughts from critical theory can be broadened with ideas from Foucault. Mathematics and power can also be seen from another perspective, and this leads me to the notion of the formatting power of mathematics.

**Formatting power of mathematics:** Yasukawa, Skovsmose, and Ravn (2012, p. 268) highlight that the idea of the "formatting power of mathematics" is that mathematics itself is neither value-free nor neutral; mathematical thinking affects how we view, interpret and negotiate our surroundings, and in many ways (sometimes invisible) shapes our society. Furthermore, they connect the formatting power of mathematics to the notion of mathematics in action, which they understand as how mathematics influences, is influenced by, and interacts with, society. Skovsmose (1994, p. 207) states that "...mathematics has an important social influence; it follows that to understand this formatting power becomes an essential aspect of critical mathematics education". It is a challenge for mathematics education to enable students (as citizens), to de-mask this sometimes invisible "pervasive social influence" (p. 82). Ernest (2010, p. 23) suggests that being a critical citizen involves "critically understanding the uses of mathematics in society: to identify, interpret,



evaluate and critique the mathematics embedded in social, commercial and political systems”, and that “Every citizen needs to understand the limits of validity of such uses of mathematics, what decisions it may conceal, and where necessary reject spurious or misleading claims”. He argues that this capability “is a vital bulwark in protecting democracy and the values of a humanistic and civilized society” (p. 23).

As our society has been more and more mathematized, the amount of implicit mathematics embodied into different objects (realized abstraction) has increased accordingly, and this has led to a demathematization of the objects (Gellert & Jablonka 2009). Gellert and Jablonka (2009, p. 23) emphasise that demathematization has impeded citizenship, in that it is has become difficult to unmask the “frozen” mathematics behind objects in society. They refer to notions from Skovsmose of the constructors, the operators and the consumers, with the first being the ones exercising power over the other two, since they are the ones in control (2009, p. 23). Similarly, Straehler-Pohl (2017, p. 38) highlights the phenomenon or notion of de|mathematization, to show the dialectical relationship of mathematization and demathematization, and suggest that the entanglement of this phenomena with capitalism should be on the agenda in a mathematics classroom. Hauge and Barwell (2017, p. 6) connect the idea that mathematics formats our society with the ideas of PNS and the “uncertainty in the problem framing”. They exemplify this by saying that our understanding of climate change is mainly built on mathematical analysis and models (associated with uncertainty), and question how we transform these descriptive analyses to prescriptive ones.

**Responsibility:** Skovsmose and Greer (2012a, p. 4) argue “Of profound political importance is the challenge to mathematicians and mathematics educators to accept ethical responsibilities”. What might such an ethical responsibility look like in mathematics education? In matters of climate change, there is a duality with respect to responsibility, where some consider it to be an individual responsibility and others consider government or other countries as the ones with the collective responsibility to act. In the latter way of thinking, responsibility then can get detached and depersonalized. Atweh (2012) highlights the complex relation between democratic participation and mathematics education, and argues for a socially response-able approach. He suggests an ethical perspective that complements the existing perspectives, and address three complexities in the relationship between mathematics education and democratic participation: “the uncertainty in the relationship, the question of power, and the elusive nature of democratic participation in globalized pluralistic times” (p. 325). Some of these complexities are: intrinsic resonance/dissonance between mathematics and democratic participation; the politicization of mathematics education; and, our understanding of modern democratic participation in a globalized and pluralistic society. Furthermore, Atweh (2012, p. 331) emphasises an understanding of an ethical/responsibility perspective not as a set of rules of behavior, but as an inescapable responsibility towards others. This also needs a shift in how mathematics is being perceived in education (e.g., curriculum changes, content-task versus problem solving, modelling and real-world activities, etc.). Atweh and Brady (2009) argue that ethical responsibility can provide a common ground for students’ and teachers’ engagement in socio-political matters. Ernest (2009, p. 211) highlights that “social constructivism regards mathematics as value-laden, and sees mathematics as embedded in society with social responsibilities”.

König et al. (2017) claim that responsibility and safety can no longer be conceptualized in terms of control and predictability, due to the extent of uncertainty that permeates our lives, and they argue for a redefined responsibility and safety to cohere with the norms of adaptability and honesty. The notion of responsibility can then be understood as “a commitment to do good and preserve and extend humanity” (König et al. 2017, p. 10). An example of this is when scientists give policy advice that will preserve humanity. Renert (2011) argues for recognizing the responsibility mathematics educators have with respect to preparing students for future challenges such as environmental problems. He proposes a stage model of approaches to teaching about sustainability in mathematics education, which consists of: accommodation (education *about* sustainability); reformation (education *for* sustainability); and, transformation (education *as* sustainability). McGregor (2013, pp. 3563-3564) raises a critique of education *for* sustainability as stated by the United Nations (UNESCO 2006); the critique involves concerns such as indoctrination of certain values and ideas, an anthropogenic orientation, and the role of education as the saviour of sustainability. McGregor (2013) identifies seven approaches to global problems of unsustainability that challenge prevailing thoughts about normative concepts of sustainability, and seven overarching alternative messages for sustainable education.

**Values, ethics and morals:** dilemmas of value, ethics and morals are often considered as separated from mathematics education, that is, if one considers mathematics education to be value-free and neutral. Gray and Bryce (2006, p. 179) refer to several findings showing that teachers avoid confronting political interest and values, and feel unable to discuss ethical issues in the classroom. Real-world problems, unlike “traditional” mathematics tasks, can surface actuality, to consider ethics and values as important parts of mathematics education. Several have argued for this, e.g., Atweh and Brady (2009); D’Ambrosio (2010); Ernest (2012). Ernest (2009, p. 215) calls for more ethics in mathematics education, to acknowledge the social responsibility in mathematics. Boylan (2016, p. 401) suggests reflecting on ethical issues in mathematics education through four dimensions: “relationships with others, the societal and cultural, the ecological and the self”. Due to the complexity of real-world problems such as climate change, they can bring up ethical reflections in several dimensions. The concept of values gets a special emphasis in the field of PNS: values and facts are brought together into a unified conception. By doing so, problems that are value-loaded and involving uncertainties, can be managed through a plurality of legitimate perspectives which are mutually respected (Funtowicz & Ravetz 2003). Van der Sluijs et al. (2010, p. 413) highlight that “climate policies can be justified in moral terms without any need for recourse to abstract climate or economic models”. Similarly Rommetveit, Funtowicz, and Strand (2010) suggest an ethics of knowledge and action to meet the challenges appearing in problems such as the climate change, e.g., the lack of effective action and agency because of alienation. They argue that the issue is presented in a scientific context, detached from people in communities, and that due to lack of technological fixes, citizens need to get involved in a civilisation change. Furthermore, this should focus on what is happening in the present, rather than the future, with, e.g., such as excessive use of limited and non-renewable resources, extinction of living species, and pollution of air, soil and water.

De Freitas (2008) highlights the ethical dimension in problem solving in mathematics education, and suggests an emphasis on plurality of perspectives being explored by students, including ethical

and environmental considerations. One of the aspects she highlights, is an “attention to the language of uncertainty...”, with key words such as probably, almost, speculation, and less emphasis on that certainty that normally is associated with mathematics. Furthermore, she suggests a method of “think aloud” so as to model humility and to “...help students embrace/celebrate a language of uncertainty...” (2008, pp. 89-90). Wicked problems can be polarized in the public debate. Ravetz (2012, p. 146) suggests approaches such as “reconciliation and non-violence” in such debates, in order to respect contested views in controversies, as a practical and effective way to strengthen the quality of problems.

**Mathematics education, democratization and global society:** the democratization of science that critical citizens in an extended peer community may contribute to, can destabilize knowledge as much as legitimize it (Hulme 2010). Yasukawa et al. (2012, p. 265) argue that although the relationship between mathematics and society has implications greatly beyond the classroom, there has been relatively little attention from sociology in order to understand this relationship compared to, e.g., science and technology. Many mathematics researchers argue that mathematics education is crucial for the socio-cultural, political and economic scenario of our global society (Sriraman, Roscoe and English 2010). Sriraman et al. (2010) question if politicizing mathematics education has gone too far – or not far enough – and how CME can improve the democratization of society. They highlight how mathematics is both a means for empowerment as well as a means to oppress, and how it can be both used as a democratizing force for improving, and as a vehicle for maintaining the current situation (p. 623). They further emphasize how “...mathematics education has much more to do with politics, in its broad sense, than with mathematics, in its inner sense” (pp. 627-628), and this would have important consequences for how educators perceive pedagogy in mathematics education, moving away from a more dominant “...’industrial consumer state’ model of education”.

The concepts identified in this main area, are again perhaps not the ones traditionally associated with mathematics classrooms, but they are recognized as important in the fields of CME and PNS, and I find them crucial for reflecting on wicked problem as a critical citizen in an extended peer community.

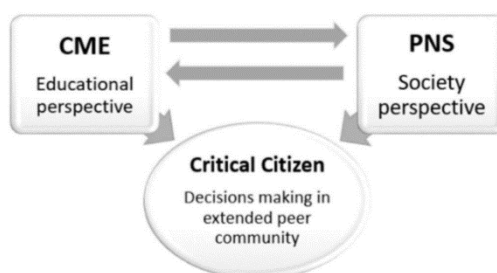


Figure 5: Concepts from CME and PNS contribute both to develop thinking about the concept of critical citizenship, but also develop each other’s conceptual and theoretical perspectives.

### Concluding remarks

In this literature overview, concepts and perspectives from CME and PNS, important for a critical citizenship, have been identified and critically reflected upon, with both a philosophical and educational perspective. The concepts were structured in four main areas with accompanying questions. The literature from PNS contributed to describing characteristics of real-life problems and pupils' role in the society, and through that, developed the philosophical perspective of CME; the literature from CME contributed to identifying competences recognized as important in a democracy, and through that, developed the philosophical perspective of PNS. The combined philosophical perspective contributes further to our understanding of how educational perspectives can influence mathematics classrooms towards a critical citizenship.

The overview presented in *Figure 2: Conceptual mapping of identified concepts and perspectives*, may work as a starting point when considering how mathematics education can continue to develop along with society. Although the figure portrays CME and PNS as two separated fields on different sides, there are overlaps and connections between the concepts and perspectives. For instance, the concept of critical citizen from CME is strongly related to extended peer community from PNS. Furthermore, both fields emphasize embracing a pluralistic dialogue and critiquing with multiple perspectives. Both CME and PNS question how society deals with mathematical or scientific "facts": and while CME uses the notion of the formatting power mathematics, PNS argues for embracing uncertainty and not relying solely on "scientific fact", but including an extended peer community. The questions raised in *Table 4: Overview over four main areas*, may contribute to ideas on why, and how, mathematics education should/could deal with wicked problems. The perspectives and concepts identified in this literature overview (although not considered as a final and exhaustive list), can be useful for teachers, researchers, curriculum-designer and policy-makers by giving an overview of important questions and findings related to sociopolitical issues. The perspectives and concepts might help us consider what types of problems our students can learn to deal with, what role students and/or citizens could play in society, which competences are important when facing wicked problems, and why the perspectives of democracy can be important to include in mathematics education.

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ACME. The mathematical formatting of how climate change is perceived

## **Paper III: The mathematical formatting of how climate change is perceived**

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**Title of the work: Applying critical perspectives in mathematics education**

**Primary audience for the book:** (1) Academics, graduate students (2) teacher education students, informed teachers

**The mathematical formatting of how climate change is perceived:**

**Teachers' reflection and practice<sup>1</sup>**

Lisa Steffensen, Rune Herheim, and Toril Eskeland Rangnes

Climate change can be regarded as one of our society's greatest challenges, with profound consequences and a high degree of complexity. The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) (2018b) stated in a press release that "limiting global warming to 1.5° C would require rapid, far-reaching and unprecedented changes in all aspects of society" (p. 1). These changes, or the consequences of not making them, can potentially have a huge impact on citizens' everyday lives. The IPCC report concerning global warming of 1.5°C (2018a) was written by experts from different fields, in which 91 lead authors and 133 contributing authors accessed more than 6,000 scientific publications. The IPCC reports over the years have been influential (e.g. on the Paris agreement) and have received much public attention. Some have disputed the science provided by the IPCC, such as by The Nongovernmental International Panel on Climate Change (NIPCC). The NIPCC<sup>2</sup> argued that the IPCC is "politically motivated, and predisposed to believing that climate change is a problem in need of a UN solution".

An understanding of climate change depends largely on scientific and mathematical knowledge. For instance, our understanding of future climate scenarios is to a large extent

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<sup>1</sup> This chapter is an extended version of Steffensen, Herheim, and Rangnes (2018).

<sup>2</sup> <http://climatechangereconsidered.org>

based on mathematical climate models. Thus, mathematics, or the ways that mathematics is used, contributes to the formatting of how future climate change is understood. Considering mathematics as a formatting power in society is in line with Skovsmose's (1994) argument that "mathematics has an important social influence; it follows that to understand this formatting power becomes an essential aspect of critical mathematics education" (p. 207).

Lloyd and Winsberg (2018) underlined that it is vital to understand the conceptual and philosophical foundations of climate models in order to make well-informed judgments on how to act towards climate change. They discussed an example in which Christy (2016), an expert on satellite climate data, showed a graphical discrepancy between global mid-tropospheric temperature models and measurements done by satellites and weather balloons. Christy gave testimony to the United States Congress where he highlighted this discrepancy by using different graphs. His graphs are widely used by media and political and scientific communities (Lloyd & Winsberg, 2018). Nuccitelli (2016) referred to Christy's graphs as the Republicans' favourite climate charts, and the graphs appear on several climate sceptic websites, such as in a blog post by Hamlin (2016). However, several researchers, (e.g. Santer et al., 2008), have discredited Christy's discrepancy between models and observations by using statistical argumentation. For instance, Schmidt (2016), a climate modeller at NASA, argued in a blog post that the graph presented by Christy was misleading due to "incomplete model spread, inconsistent smoothing, no structural uncertainty in the satellite observations, weird baseline." These are all arguments that concern the methodological and mathematical choices made when making the graphical representation. Schmidt presented a graph that showed how the climate model projections are trustworthy, by using satellite observations and a different analysis.

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The graphs from Christy (2016) and Schmidt (2016) offer two different representations of reality, based on mathematical choices and methodology. The question is then, which representation do policy-makers and citizens use to develop their understanding of climate change, and subsequently, to take action? Lloyd (2018) highlighted how data and observations can be “laden with assumptions and theory” (p. 138). With reference to Christy’s (2016) example, Lloyd (2018) argued that “it now appears that the models were mostly right and the early data were mostly wrong, and therein lies an interesting story about data and their relations to scientists, models, and reality” (p. 138).

Kingan (2005) argued that incorporating social advocacy in mathematics education could include involvement in pressing real-world issues like climate change. She exemplified this idea by using three graphs that showed the amount of CO<sub>2</sub> in the atmosphere (the Keeling curve), a comparison of CO<sub>2</sub> and temperature, and a reconstruction of surface temperature over the last 1,000 years. The latter graph is named “the hockey stick graph” due to its resemblance in shape to a hockey stick, and played an important role in an IPCC report (2001) about global warming and abrupt temperature rise. Kingan (2005) suggested that an understanding of functions, graphs, and scientific methods could “motivate students to study mathematics and understand, and potentially act upon, some of the controversial issues in the news” (p. 242).

Climate change involves competencies from several scientific fields, political and economic expertise, and skills in making value and judgment calls. Nordén (2018) underlined that some researchers on education for sustainable education focus on a transdisciplinary approach rather than a subject-oriented approach, in order “to support holistic learning of complex issues” (p. 663). Teachers in her study considered transdisciplinary approaches

challenging, and Nordén argued that a better understanding of how teachers and students can work with complex and challenging issues in the classroom would help develop competencies in decision-making on these urgent issues.

Barwell (2013, 2018) highlighted that mathematics is involved and intertwined in many aspects of climate change. Mathematics provides technology that can affect the climate, and it is important in order to understand, describe, and predict future climate changes. Communication about climate change is to a large extent done with numbers and graphs. Barwell therefore argued that mathematics educators need to be engaged in climate change because of the extensive use of mathematics, and that students need to learn to reflect on the role that mathematics can play in climate change. He suggested Critical Mathematics Education (CME) as a theoretical perspective, as a way of engaging students as critical citizens. Furthermore, Barwell (2018) argued, in line with Skovsmose (1994), that to identify what shapes our society is an important part of being critical citizens. Barwell particularly highlighted the importance of identifying what shapes our understanding of climate change, to identify the mathematical formatting *of* climate change.

How can mathematics education facilitate students' abilities to identify the role mathematics plays in the world? Inspired by this question, we investigated three lower secondary school teachers' choices and arguments for when they include climate change issues in their mathematics and natural science teaching. We focus on identifying the potential for facilitating students' awareness and understanding of the formatting power of mathematics.

### **Theoretical Perspective: Critical Mathematics Education**

Teaching mathematics in the context of climate change brings challenges and possibilities beyond teaching statistics and functions without a real-life context, and hence also a different theoretical perspective. Barwell (2018) argued that “critical mathematics education can offer a perspective with which to conceptualise how mathematics teaching and learning might educate future citizens” (p. 145) when discussing mathematics education for environmental sustainability. In this chapter, CME constitutes the main theoretical perspective for analysing and discussing the data. First, we introduce CME. Then, we present three key concepts within critical mathematics education, namely the formatting power of mathematics, uncertainty, and being critical citizens.

Several mathematics education researchers have explored different directions within CME, such as ethnomathematics (D’Ambrosio, 2007), pedagogy for dialogue and conflict (Vithal, 2003), and social justice (Gutstein, 2012). Of particular interest for this chapter is the work of Skovsmose (1994), who promoted a critical mathematics education in which students reflect on how mathematics can format their life. He described critical mathematics education in terms of a concern: “To address social exclusion and suppression, to work for social justice in whatever form possible, to try open new possibilities for students, and to address critically mathematics in all its forms and application” (2014, p. 116). The use of mathematics in climate change issues concerns social justice, both directly and indirectly. Climate change is a global challenge, but affects people and nations differently. The consequences of climate change are not always distributed fairly. It is not socially just when farmers lose their livelihood and people have to move from their homes, while CO<sub>2</sub> polluters can carry on doing business as usual. As Barwell (2018) highlighted, mathematics is a crucial part of how we

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understand, describe, predict, and communicate about climate change, and it is therefore important to consider mathematics as an integrated part of challenges such as the economic impact worldwide, and the ethically and socially unjust situations connected to climate change. Addressing mathematics critically, as described by Skovsmose (2014), within a climate change context, can affect how people understand and act towards climate change.

#### **The Formatting Power of Mathematics**

Skovsmose (1994) introduced the notion of the formatting power of mathematics as a power that can shape our society. He asked: “Could a science like mathematics (formal or not) become not only interpretative but also formative?” (p. 42). Can mathematics format our understanding of climate change and our behaviour towards it? Can mathematically-based choices made by professionals such as climate modellers, mathematicians, graphical designers, journalist, or teachers format our understanding and behaviour? By the formatting powers of mathematics, we understand how mathematics can format our society, and how people’s intentional and unintentional use of mathematics can format our understanding and behaviour. Hauge and Barwell (2017) argued that when models of weather systems are “built into the fabric of society [...] the mathematical models that drive them no longer describe reality, they become part of reality—they become prescriptive” (p. 28). Barwell (2013) used the expression “the mathematical formatting of climate change” (p. 1) with reference to Skovsmose’s (1994) concept of the formatting power of mathematics. Barwell argued that climate change is operationalised through science, mathematics, technology, and by climate model projections in particular. Without mathematically-based climate models, it would be difficult to identify and become aware of future challenges, because most qualified predictions and forecasts somehow involve mathematics. Furthermore, people’s actions

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toward predicted scenarios are also being formatted, such as by choosing to eat less or not eat meat, commuting by public transport, or by reducing flights. Similarly, mathematics can format the understanding of climate change, how it is perceived, and what actions are taken towards it. Skovsmose (1994) discussed the process when mathematics goes from being descriptive to becoming prescriptive, by arguing that mathematics not only provides descriptions; it also provides “models for changed behaviour. We not only ‘see’ according to mathematics, we also ‘do’ according to mathematics” (p. 55).

### **Uncertainty**

The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) (2016) highlighted uncertainty as “a phenomenon at the heart of the mathematical analysis of many problem situations” (p. 72) in their Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) 2015 report. Funtowicz and Ravetz (2008) argued that when “facts are uncertain, values in dispute, stakes high and decisions urgent” (p. 365), there is a need for what they call post-normal science. They regard climate change as such a challenge, and suggest an approach that goes beyond the traditional expert-policy regime in which experts provide solutions and politicians act according to their advice. Funtowicz and Ravetz discuss how climate change could involve an extended peer community consisting of ordinary citizens, such as representatives from interest-based organisations. An important part of such involvement will often include values and uncertainty. Hauge and Barwell (2017) reflected on how mathematics education can prepare students to contribute in these extended peer communities. They highlight three kinds of uncertainties from post-normal science: technological, methodological, and epistemic uncertainty. While the first two types of uncertainty can be addressed by applying mathematical and/or technological skills, Hauge and Barwell emphasise that epistemic

uncertainty arises “from lack of knowledge, information or suitable methods, or the lack of awareness of some features of the situation” (p. 29).

With regard to climate change, there is still much to learn. In the IPCC report about global warming of 1.5°C (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, 2018a), they emphasised the knowledge gap and included detailed descriptions of methodologies and key uncertainties. Although the IPCC recognises and communicates uncertainties, these reports have a huge formatting power and impact on society. The reports provide scientific information that nations use when developing climate policies that, in turn, affect people’s everyday life. It is therefore imperative to critique the content of these reports, and the subsequent political actions. However, such critique has to be informed and well-founded. If not, it amounts to little more than dismissing science. In public and political debates, uncertainty is often connected to lack of knowledge, a subject poorly understood, as a weakness, and that scientists “do not know *anything* about a topic, just because they do not know *everything* about it” (Corner et al., 2012, p. 464). It can therefore be argued that one has to wait for more certainty before acting. In that sense, uncertainty becomes a formatting power on its own. It is therefore crucial that citizens learn about uncertainties in order to be able to reflect on different types of uncertainty as well as other aspects like precautionary principles. Hauge and Barwell (2017) connected epistemic uncertainty to Skovsmose’s concept of reflective knowing, and argued that this is an important competency for citizens in an extended peer community. Skovsmose (1994) defined the notion of reflective knowing as “the competence needed to be able to take a justified stand in a discussion of technological questions” (p. 101). He underlined how mere mathematical or technological skills are insufficient, and emphasised that other aspects, such as sociological and ethical

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considerations, norms and values, need to be a part of how students reflect. Dealing with the challenges of climate change requires citizens to not only consider scientific knowledge, but to understand this as integrated with ethical and economic aspects. Skovsmose emphasised that reflective knowing is crucial for acting as a critical citizen, which brings us to our last key concept.

### **Being Critical Citizens**

In today's society, where citizens are surrounded by a massive amount of information on complex matters, there is a need for citizens to be critical and reflective. With regard to climate change, much of this information involves scientific literacy. The OECD (2016) defined scientific literacy as the ability "to engage with science-related issues [...] as a reflective citizen" (p. 13), with competencies to explain phenomena, evaluate and design scientific enquiry, and interpret data and evidence scientifically.

Presenting and understanding climate change information also requires mathematical literacy: "an individual's capacity to formulate, employ, and interpret mathematics in a variety of contexts" (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2016, p. 13). Mathematical literacy goes beyond mastering certain algorithms or procedural knowledge, and entails an emphasis on mathematics within a context. Furthermore, the OECD (2016) highlighted how an important part of mathematical literacy is to "assist individuals to recognise the role that mathematics plays in the world and to make the well-founded judgments and decisions needed by constructive, engaged and reflective citizens" (p. 13). The OECD's specifications on mathematical literacy connects with Skovsmose's (1994) formatting power of mathematics through the recognition of the role mathematics plays in society. However, neither of the definitions explicitly emphasise the role of being critical.

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Barwell (2013) problematised parts of the perspective on mathematical literacy presented by the OECD by arguing that “the general orientation is to the use of mathematics to interpret information and solve problems, rather than for critique” (p. 6).

When discussing scientific literacy in the PISA 2015 framework, the OECD (2016), highlighted that new curriculum models do not focus “on producing individuals who will be ‘producers’ of scientific knowledge, i.e. the future scientists; rather, it is on educating all young people to become informed, critical users of scientific knowledge” (p. 18). Similar considerations apply for mathematics curricula. Very few students will become mathematicians who produce climate models, but all of them will need the skills to understand and critically assess such models in different ways. The recent focus in the media on “fake news” can be expected to generate increased interest in education on the importance of students being critical. The OECD (2015) underlined that although there seems to be a consensus on promoting critical thinking as a twenty-first century skill, “it is not clear how these skills can be made visible and tangible and articulated by teachers, students, and policy makers, especially as part of the curriculum” (p. 3) . For instance, what does it really mean to enable students’ critical thinking within mathematics education, and, in particular, in the context of climate change? In science, there is a tradition of acknowledging the importance of a critical perspective for research, including the generation of hypotheses and theories. In the climate change debate, it is often highlighted as important to think critically about claims and arguments. Interestingly, being critical is also important for proponents of views that differ from the scientific consensus on climate change, such as those who reject the human impact on climate change.

From a mathematical perspective, it should be underlined that being critical does not mean rejecting scientific results. On the contrary, being critical can strengthen science by enabling students to recognise that uncertainties involved in climate models or climate observations are a natural part of mathematics and science. Similarly, emphasising that students (and teachers) learn to recognise and identify the role mathematics can play in formatting our society does not mean that the formatting power of mathematics is something that should be rejected, or in other ways be diminished (although that might be the case in some situations). Rather, it is about raising an awareness of the formatting power of mathematics – as Skovsmose (1994) puts it: “Mathematics has an important social influence; it follows that to understand this formatting power becomes an essential aspect of critical mathematics education” (p. 207).

#### **Methods: Facilitating Critical Mathematics Competencies**

Three teachers (Kim, Max, and Tim) and a researcher (Steffensen) established a research partnership to explore ways to facilitate students' critical mathematics competencies. In this chapter, we look, in line with Skovsmose (1994), at an awareness and understanding of the formatting power of mathematics as a key part of critical mathematics competency. The research partnership lasted for about a year, and consisted of seven partnership meetings, 42 lessons, a fieldwork activity, and participation in an energy exhibition. The research partnership meetings were a collaborative space for planning and reflecting on how the lessons could be done and had been done. These meetings were audio recorded while the lessons were both video and audio recorded. Kim and Tim had one grade ten class each, Max had two grade ten classes, and there were approximately 30 students in each class. The teachers were experienced mathematics and natural science teachers, and they taught the

students in both subjects, but the observation only took place in the mathematics lessons. The teachers' written notes such as PowerPoint slides and handouts to the students served as additional material.

In order to identify the potential for facilitating students' awareness and understanding of the formatting power of mathematics, we investigate examples from three contexts: (1) the teachers' introductions to climate change and mathematics, (2) the teachers' meta-reflections when planning the fieldwork activity, and (3) the teachers' choices regarding a quiz made for the energy exhibition.

In their introductions, the teachers presented the topic of climate change and relevant mathematics to the students by sharing some of their own thoughts on the topic, as well as engaging the students to share their thoughts. We discuss an example from Max's introduction that serves as an example of how the teachers connected climate change issues to the curriculum.

In the examples from the research partnership meetings, the teachers are planning a fieldwork activity in which the students should measure climate-relevant data (such as CO<sub>2</sub> and temperature of seawater) and do a fieldwork-report. We have chosen to discuss some of Kim's utterances because they provide interesting insights into the teachers' reasoning and reflections underlying the fieldwork activity.

The energy exhibition was a gathering in which teachers and students from four different schools attended and presented energy-related topics to the public and to the local business community. The teachers and students made posters and a quiz as their contributions to the exhibition. We focus on the quiz, because the differences between the teachers' quiz questions illustrate well some of the choices the teachers had to make, such as choosing

between different climate graphs. Although the researcher had a participatory role in the research partnership meetings, the teachers designed the lessons and activities, both collaboratively and individually.

The teachers' choices and utterances are our units of analysis. The choices and utterances presented in this section are selected because they represent distinct examples of how students' understanding of the formatting power of mathematics can be facilitated in a climate change context and they illustrate well some of the challenges teachers face in this respect. The data were transcribed, coded, and categorised by using NVivo. The coding resulted in four main categories, two of which were relevant for identifying the potential for facilitating students' awareness and understanding of the formatting power of mathematics: climate change related utterances (e.g. discussing CO<sub>2</sub> and its impact on climate change), and critical mathematics competency utterances. Utterances associated with the formatting power of mathematics were identified in the meetings, lessons, and activities, and emerged as one of the sub-categories of critical mathematics competency. As a part of identifying how students' awareness and understanding about the formatting power of mathematics can be facilitated, we analysed utterances where the teachers and students reflected on how graphs, numbers, and models could affect people's perception of reality. Questions like, "How does understanding of climate change come about?", "What is hidden?", and "What is taken for granted?" were used as support in the analysis process.

#### **Critical Mathematics Education and Climate Change in the Three Classes**

In the following, we first discuss an example when Max introduced the project to the students. We then focus on teachers' meta-reflections by discussing two of Kim's utterances regarding the fieldwork planning, and finally, we discuss Max's and Kim's choices for the quiz.

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### **The Teachers' Introductions to Climate Change and Mathematics**

In their introductions, the three teachers expressed several goals for the lesson, such as introducing the topic of climate change and mathematics, inviting the students to contribute their ideas to what climate change in the mathematics classroom can look like, and introducing some basic climate change concepts like the difference between climate and weather. The teachers expressed concerns regarding the abstractness of climate change and mathematics. Max therefore decided to make some slides as an introduction, to point out links between mathematics and climate change.

In the first slide, Max argued for the purpose of mathematics as described in the curriculum by writing: "Active democracy requires citizens who are able to study, understand, and critically assess quantitative information, statistical analyses, and economic prognoses. Hence, mathematical competence is required to understand and influence processes in society." This utterance is a direct quotation from the mathematics curriculum (Ministry of Education and Research, 2013), and both the terms "understand" and "critically assess" are explicitly stated. The emphasis on not only understanding but also on critically assessing is highlighted as important in the curriculum and something that Max explicitly displayed to her students. The curriculum quote was accompanied by a picture of a polar bear clinging to a small piece of melting ice (see Figure 1).





Figure 1. The picture on Max's first slide (Photo: Arne Naevra).

A polar bear and melting ice has, for many, become a symbol of climate change (Born, 2019), and the picture that Max used drew the students' attention towards climate change challenges. When Max used this symbol of climate change, she positioned the mathematics with a clear connection to the active democratic purpose of mathematics. Such positioning can be interpreted as an action to motivate students to engage and influence processes in society by saving the polar bears from extinction due to climate change.

One of the other slides required participation from students, with the headline "Reflections." It contained the following questions: "What do you know about climate and challenges related to this? Take two minutes to think individually, and then discuss with a learning partner." The students provided written answers, and there was a plenary discussion at the end. One group provided the following written statement:

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The climate is getting hotter because of increased CO<sub>2</sub> emissions in the atmosphere.

The increased heat leads to the risk of melting the polar ice, which will cause massive floods and climate change. There is therefore an international goal that the average temperature should not rise by more than 2°C. It is therefore relevant to discuss the question whether we should open a new oil field or not.

The students based their arguments on scientific and mathematical knowledge such as “increased CO<sub>2</sub> emissions” and “increased heat leads to the risk of melting the polar ice”. They went on by arguing that as a consequence of the 2°C temperature target, the Norwegian government should “discuss the question whether we should open a new oil field or not”. However, they did not provide any written discussion concerning the claim that the temperature should not rise by more than 2°C, and did not show that they could “critically assess quantitative information” (which was stressed in the first slide). Although Max emphasised evaluating arguments and evidence in a mathematical way, it was not documented that any of the students explicitly did this in this first lesson. The 2°C target is appears to be taken for granted and the formatting power of numbers and mathematics is not identified, discussed, or reflected upon by the students. As Skovsmose (1994) and Hauge and Barwell (2017) argued, the global 2°C temperature target becomes a number built into the fabric of society and no longer just describes reality; it prescribes reality.

Frisch (2018) highlighted the 2°C target based on precautionary principles and political consensus, more than on strictly scientific knowledge. For instance, he referred to an interview where John Broome, a philosopher and climate change author, who said that the 2°C target “has just been pulled out of the air” (Frisch, 2018, p. 415). Although the students did not critique the 2°C target, one might say that the students are taking a stand on social

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justice matter through mathematics, in line with Skovsmose's (2014) definition of CME, by critically engaging in what the Norwegian society should look like. Although there are political forces working towards stopping further oil and gas exploitation, the present situation in Norway is that the government continues with opening new search fields for oil and gas. By raising the controversial political question of whether to open new oil and gas fields, the students are reflecting on and challenging the present Norwegian policy. It is a big question to raise, taking into consideration that the Norwegian economy is largely dependent on income from oil and gas, and a reduction in income would generate major consequences for the students and for Norwegian society. The 2°C target then has a formatting power when the students prescribe which actions the government should take (see Skovsmose, 1994).

#### **The Teachers' Meta-Reflections When Planning a Fieldwork Activity**

During the partnership meetings, the teachers discussed a wide variety of issues, including which topics that might be relevant to include in the lessons and how politicians make decisions on climate change related issues. When reflecting on historical temperatures, on statistics, and on techniques used to measure the Earth's temperature, Kim said the following (... = 1-3 seconds pause):

Measuring uncertainty is also a bit interesting, if we can focus on that. Because ... they have measurement stations round about. There are discussions on where they are located. For instance, near big cities, do urban areas affect the temperature, for example? Then, the temperatures have to be adjusted by a machine with regard to this. Is it most relevant to use this [ground measurements close to cities], or is it more relevant to use the temperatures in balloons that you send into the atmosphere ... and then measure the temperature? What gives the best picture? And how many

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measurement stations do you have in that area and how many do you have in that area? Take Antarctica. There are not many measurement stations there ... and that is a huge area. And elsewhere as well. This could be interesting to discuss, in terms of uncertainty, and what affects the results.

Kim expressed an interest in uncertainty related to measurement. He asked “if we can focus on that”, which can be regarded as a proposal to the other participants that measuring uncertainty is a relevant topic to explore. All the teachers later included Kim’s proposal in the fieldwork activity. When Kim designed the fieldwork activity, he deliberately aimed for bringing about differences between the students’ measurement results by asking the students to measure several times and with multiple instruments (see Figure 2). He included several questions in order to make the students reflect, discuss, justify their measurements, and help them decide which temperature was the most representative and should thus be included in their report. Kim’s last question in Figure 2 extended the students’ attention from their seawater-measurements to the more general measurements of the Earth. The focus on measurement differences can be considered as a part of enabling students to deal with uncertainty, as a preparation to participate in an extended peer community by learning to cope with uncertainty (Hauge and Barwell, 2017).

SEAWATER				
	Measurements			
Method	1	2	3	Average
Digital				
Analogue				

- Why do you think you should take three measurements and calculate the average?
- What are possible sources of error?
- How accurate do you consider your measurement results to be? Justify the answer.
- Discuss how you think the global average temperature of the Earth is measured.

Figure 2. Kim’s measurement table and four of the questions.

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Kim continued by saying “there are discussions” regarding the location of measurement stations. The discussions Kim refers to can be linked to some of the controversies connected to temperature changes and climate change. He points to stations “near big cities”, and asks if “urban areas affect the temperature”. The heat island effect is sometimes used as an argument in the climate change debate (e.g. Sherrington, 2018). The IPCC (2013) described and discussed this phenomenon and the uncertainty related to this, and concluded that these urban affected temperatures are not likely to have a significant impact on global land warming trends. Similarly, Oreskes (2018) emphasised that the Berkeley Earth Surface Temperature Group found that “the observed warming cannot be explained away this way” (p. 46) (referring to the heat island effect). However, Oreskes argued that this potential source of error is emphasised by some opponents. Kim’s suggestion to include measurement uncertainties in teaching could serve as an opportunity for the students to explore potential sources of error in, for example, statistics, graphs, and models.

Kim then problematised that “the temperatures have to be adjusted by a machine”. The machine reference can be interpreted as pointing to the black box problem where some input magically is transformed into some output, where computers handle mathematical calculations and models by themselves. Skovsmose (1994) emphasised situations where human-made decisions were hidden behind technology as important for identifying formatting powers. When these students decided on the most representative temperature measurement, they knew that other measurements could be just as relevant, and such knowledge is potentially transferable to other situations as well.

Kim compared two measurement techniques by asking if “it is most relevant to use this [ground measurement closes to cities], or is it more relevant to use the temperatures in balloons that you send into the atmosphere”. The temperatures from different methods can differ, and give a different perceived reality to the public. Lloyd (2018) highlighted that in Christy’s (2016) report, the measured satellite data was treated “as windows on the world, as reflections of reality, without any art, theory, or construction interfering with that reflection” (p. 143). Kim then asked, “What gives the best picture?” When scientists describe reality, it will always be a chosen representation. Different representations can give different impressions. Therefore, it becomes important to discuss how representations can (re)present different connections to reality, often depending on choices of a statistical or practical nature, such as when Kim designed the field-report, asking for multiple measurements of the same quantity. He facilitated students’ reflective knowing, as emphasised by Skovsmose (1994). When mathematical decisions and choices are involved in describing reality, the mathematics can take on a formatting role of how climate change is understood and perceived.

Kim continued to focus on measurement issues by questioning the number of measurement stations in different areas around the world: “Take Antarctica, there are not many measurement stations there ... and that is a huge area.” There is a high density of ground measurements in populated areas, and few in more remote areas (Hijmans et al., 2010). Kim pointed out that the location of measurements influences the models and the extent to which the temperatures are regarded as high or low. Such choices influence the models, and the models influence how people understand the world. By emphasising how choices and models can influence people’s perception of climate change, Kim provides an argument for the formatting power of mathematics.

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Later on, the teachers discussed climate models. The researcher asked whether the students' attention was directed towards how mathematics could be used to influence them.

Kim responded by referring to how politicians could be influenced:

Then they [the politicians] think that this is how it is ... they are told that it is like this.

They really have no qualifications to say this or that. They just have to trust what the advisers and others say to them ... and then they must decide that this is the reality.

[...] So, those who decide what society we are going to have, they are influenced by others who have decided that this is the way it is.

Kim started by pointing out that politicians "think that this is how it is", and emphasised that politicians' perceptions of reality are based on climate models. He continued by stating, "they are told that it is like this". Kim positioned politicians as passive recipients. Initially, he does not explicitly say how or by whom the politicians are told this, but later he refers to "advisers and others". In climate change issues, advisers typically are experts on climate change models and data. Kim's reference to such advisers can be regarded as an example of what Funtowicz and Ravetz (2003) referred to as an expert-regime. Kim then added, "they really have no qualifications to say this or that". Even though politicians are not experts on topics such as climate change, they still have to make decisions. When Kim claimed that "they just have to trust what the advisers and others say to them," he again referred to the hidden power of the experts and their models. Using the word "trust" suggests an emphasis on the power relations between politicians/decision-makers and the experts/models. One side must rely on the other to make good decisions. This interpretation is strengthened by Kim's next utterance: "and then they must decide that this is the reality." Linking advisers, experts and their models, to

how politicians perceive reality is another way of highlighting the hidden powers through which mathematics can format the society.

Kim finished his arguments by emphasising even more the hidden powers that scientists and mathematicians potentially can have, by saying: “So, those who decide what society we are going to have, they are influenced by others who have decided that this is the way it is”. This is in line with Skovsmose’s (1994) argument that we not only see according to mathematics, we also do according to mathematics. In climate change issues, experts act according to numbers and models, and in turn, decisions makers act according to experts’ arguments on the climate and the economy. Mathematics can therefore format both understanding and action about climate change. When the researcher asked Kim about student’s awareness of the formatting powers of mathematics, he referred to how politicians are influenced by experts. By pointing to how politicians can be influenced, Kim put in perspective how challenging it can be to facilitate students’ understanding and awareness of the formatting power of mathematics.

#### **The Teachers’ Choices Regarding a Quiz Made for an Energy Exhibition**

In this section, we provide examples of how the teachers’ mathematical choices and their highlighting of certain topics relating to climate change potentially can format students’ understanding of climate change. The examples come from the energy exhibition. The teachers had made a multiple choice quiz, and the students asked participants at the exhibition to answer five quiz questions. The teachers had agreed in the partnerships meeting that it could be interesting to ask questions that could surprise the participants. They said they wanted to generate engagement and discussions.



The teachers had three identical questions (Q1, Q2, and Q5), but they chose to differ in two of the questions (Q3 and Q4). Figure 3 shows Kim's quiz with correct answers indicated. Max chose to replace two of Kim's questions. Her argument for doing this was that although the questions and answers were sort of correct, they could give an incorrect impression of climate models and an increase in temperature.

Q1: Which greenhouse gas affects the temperature on the Earth the most?  
a)  Carbon dioxide, CO<sub>2</sub> b)  Water vapour, H<sub>2</sub>O c)  Methane, CH<sub>4</sub> d)  Ozone, O<sub>3</sub>

Q2: How many temperature stations on the Earth measure temperatures used to calculate the atmospheric average temperature?  
a)  about 6 000 b)  about 50 000 c)  about 400 000 d)  about 1 000 000

Kim's Q3: How well do the climate models' temperature scenarios correlate with measured temperatures over the last 20 years?  
a)  Very well b)  Very poorly

Kim's Q4: How much has the Earth's average temperature increased since 1998?  
a)  Almost nothing b)  approximately 1°C c)  approximately 2°C d)  approximately 4°C

Q5: If power stations running on gas on Norwegian platforms are replaced by stations running on electricity via power cables from land, will that lead to less CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from Norwegian gas?  
a)  Yes b)  No

Figure 3. Kim's quiz.

Kim asked in the third question whether climate models correlate well with measured temperatures over the last 20 years. The focus is on the imprecision of climate models, and the correct answer according to the quiz was "very poorly". A graph that backed up this answer was shown on the back of the quiz. The graph appeared in Christy's (2016) United States Senate testimony and shows temperature changes predicted by 102 different climate

models, and compares these with observed temperature changes measured by satellites and balloons. Lloyd (2018) explained how this graph was used to support the claim that climate models and observed data have discrepancies, and thus climate models are not trustworthy. To compare climate models with real observations is both important and a relevant part of scientific work. Kim's choice to focus on the uncertainties of climate models by focusing on the discrepancy displayed by this particular graph, could contribute to formatting students' (and quiz participants) opinions on climate change, by suggesting that projections from climate models are not trustworthy. This was also one of Max's arguments for replacing this question on her quiz. It is imperative to keep in mind that mathematical models can never be exact replications of reality; neither can the observations represent reality in a precise manner. Such discrepancies are important to acknowledge when comparing models with observations. As Corner et al., (2012) argued, just because scientists "do not know everything" about a topic does not mean they "do not know anything" about it (p. 464).

Kim could have chosen another graph, such as the graph made by Schmidt (2016) in Figure 4. Schmidt compared satellite observations with projections from climate models, and displayed a quite different picture from that implied by Christy's graph. In Schmidt's graph, the differences between the observed data and model projections diminish. Kim's claim in the quiz, that climate models correspond "very poorly" with measured temperatures, is erroneous according to this graph, because most of the observed data are within the extremities of the projections. Furthermore, by focusing on the comparison of measurements done by satellites (and weather balloons) in the mid-troposphere, Kim highlighted measurements that show the most discrepancy with the climate models. Several other climate model projections are more in compliance with measured data. For instance, as summarised in an article by Nuccitelli

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(2016), the temperature on the Earth's surface (see e.g. Mann et al., 2016), sea level rise (see e.g. Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, 2013), Arctic sea ice (Stroeve et al., 2012), and ocean heating (Cheng et al., 2015) are all examples where there is little discrepancy between measured observations and projections.

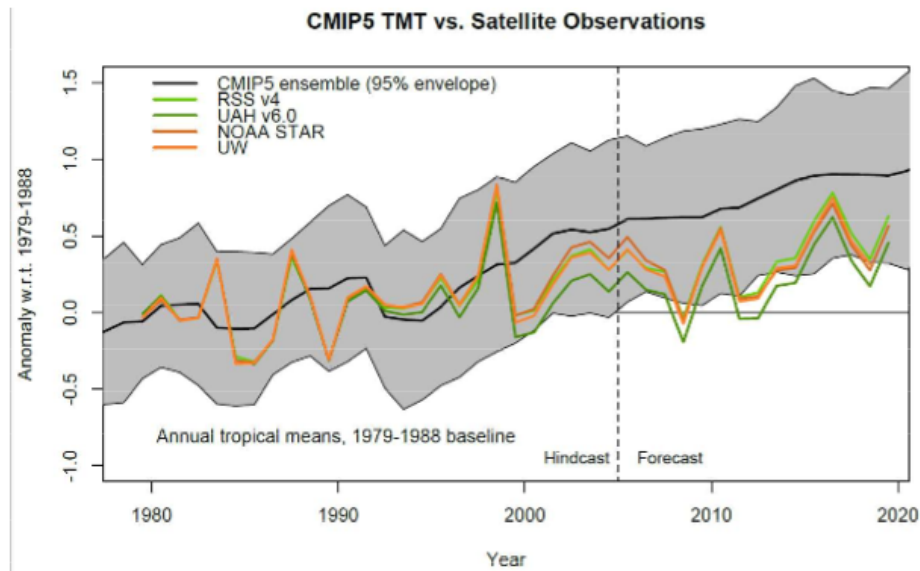


Figure 4. Schmidt's graph (2020, personal communication) – climate models projections versus satellite observation (for an older version of this graph, see Schmidt, 2016).

In the fourth question, Kim asked about the magnitude of the Earth's average temperature increase the last 20 years. The correct answer was "almost nothing". The answer was justified by the graph in Figure 5. The graph emphasises small temperature changes over the last 20 years, and a similar focus can be seen in the framing of the question, by the choice of a relatively short timeline, the choice of distractors, the correct answer situated at one end of the scale, and the wording "almost nothing". For further discussions of Kim's fourth question, see

Steffensen et al., (2019). Together, these two questions and graphs can influence the understanding of climate change in the sense that there is no increase in temperature and that climate models are not trustworthy. The mathematical-based choices of measurements, and graphs, can contribute to format society.

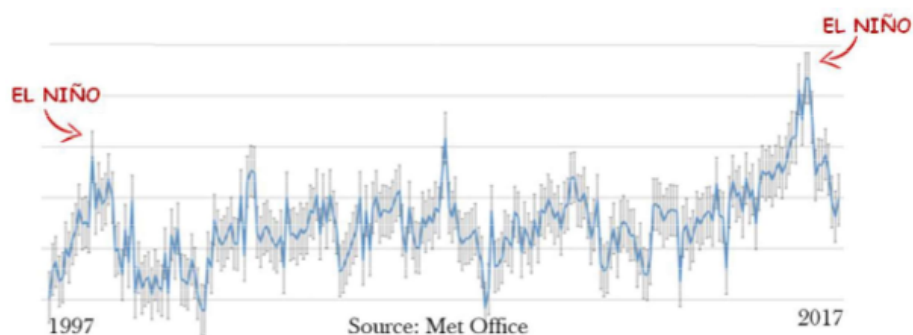


Figure 5. The temperature graph from the quiz (Watts 2017).

Max chose to replace Kim's third and fourth question with her own questions (see Figure 6).

<p>Max Q3: How much sea ice was in the Arctic in 2016 compared to a normal level?</p> <p>a) <input type="checkbox"/> + 10%    b) <input type="checkbox"/> equal    c) <input type="checkbox"/> -10%    d) <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> -36%</p> <p>Max Q4: Satellite data indicate that the sea level had changed. How much has the sea increased in recent years?</p> <p>a) <input type="checkbox"/> approximately 5 nanometers    b) <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> approximately 3.4 mm c) <input type="checkbox"/> approximately 5.7 cm    d) <input type="checkbox"/> approximately 1.2 m</p>
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Figure 6. The two questions Kim used to replace two of Max's questions (a normal level is the arithmetic average of recorded levels from 1961-1990).

Max's questions concerned the Arctic sea ice level and sea level changes. The correct answer on the third question, -36%, was different from the distractors because it stood out by being

considerably bigger and was not a multiple of 10. Max confirmed in a partnership meeting that she chose the distractors consciously in order to accentuate the severeness of ice melting, in line with how she used the picture of the polar bear in one of her slides in the introduction to the students. By highlighting the correct answer in this way, Max could potentially contribute to influence the students' understanding of climate change in a way that focused on the big ice melting in Arctic.

The fourth question focused on sea level changes, and this question also contained big differences between the distractors (from nanometres to meters). However, the correct answer was in the middle (3.4 mm), and did not stand out to the same extent as the correct answer to the third question. Like Kim, Max chose to focus on one particular measurement method, the satellite data. These data have a timeline that starts in 1993. However, if Max had chosen another measurement method, such as coastal tide gouge records, the answer would have shown a smaller sea level increase (1.8 mm instead of 3.4 mm per year<sup>3</sup>). Both methods do however illustrate a similar and increasing trend (See Figure 7).

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<sup>3</sup> The observed measurements are retrieved from Kartverket, the same source that Max used in the quiz question (<https://kartverket.no/sehavniva/Havniva-og-landheving/Slik-maler-vi-havnivaet/>).

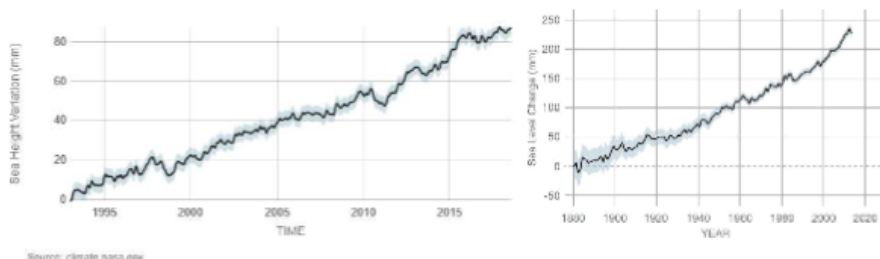


Figure 7. Snapshot from NASA Climate change, Vital Signs of the Planet, Sea Level. The graph to the left shows data from satellites with an annual increase of 3.2 mm, while the graph on the right shows coastal tide records with an annual increase of 1.8 mm (National Aeronautics and Space Administration, 2018).

In line with Kingan (2005), Kim and Max incorporated a real-world issue like climate change in mathematics education. While Kim highlighted the uncertainties in climate models and the small increase in temperature, Max emphasised the large ice-melting and the increase in sea level. Their choice of numbers, distractors, and the focus of their questions, suggest that Max and Kim emphasised different perspectives on climate change. These choices can be more or less deliberate. A discussion between Max and Kim in a partnership meeting showed that Max did try, to some extent, to influence the quiz participants' views on climate change by deliberately leaving Antarctic out of the ice melting statistics (Steffensen et al., 2018). If teachers include climate change in their mathematics teaching, choices like this, whether they are deliberate or not, are worth reflecting on for the teachers themselves, as well as together with their students. Such discussions offer a fruitful arena for facilitating students' development of an awareness and understanding of the formatting power of mathematics.

### Concluding comments

In order to develop teachers' and students' competencies to identify the mathematical formatting powers of climate change, we need more knowledge about the existing awareness of the formatting power of mathematics in teachers' and students' work with climate change. Formatting powers of mathematics are identified in three contexts in the data: the teachers' introductions, their meta-reflections when planning a fieldwork activity, and their choices regarding a quiz to an energy exhibition. In the first example, the teacher emphasised to the students the importance of being critical in order to understand and influence society. This is in line with the focus in the national curriculum on being able to critically assess quantitative information. Although the students were encouraged to critically assess quantitative information, it was not observed in the chosen example that the 2°C target was questioned. It could seem like they took it for granted.

In the second example, when the teachers planned the fieldwork activity, they discussed how the global temperature is measured, the different choices involved in such measurements, and the uncertainty connected to these methods. For instance, deciding whether to choose ground or atmospheric measurements is a human choice that could, from the teachers' perspective, shape how reality is perceived. Similarly, politician's perceptions of reality and the foundation for making decisions rely on experts' models. In the third example, the teachers, more or less intentionally, used mathematics to influence the students' and the participants' understanding of climate change. They did this through their choices in making the quiz and through the way they used particular numbers and graphs to highlight different topics and perspectives regarding climate change. Society consists of individuals. Without individuals being influenced or using mathematics to influence others, one can argue that

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society will not be formatted. In this text, we have extended the formatting power of mathematics to include how mathematics can format individuals and how individuals can use mathematics as a tool to format others' understanding of reality, which consequently can impact society.

Regarding the measurement of the temperature of the Earth, new technology will make it possible to do measurements all across the world. However, there will still be choices to be made that involve scientific, technological, and mathematical questions, and complete "certainty" can never be achieved. For instance, deciding on an appropriate number of measurement stations; whether to use ground measurement or atmospheric measurements; deciding on the size of the heat island effect; or whether or not to include the ocean temperatures. The numbers and graphs showing global temperatures might seem appealingly easy for the public to conceive, but behind the mathematics, there are a number of choices not particularly visible or easily accessible for the public sphere.

Numbers and graphs are often used in public debates on climate change. Such data can be based on observations as well as predicted data from climate models, and both situations can contain different levels of uncertainty. However, if public debates make people think that the observed and predicted data cannot be trusted because of the element of uncertainty, then the element of uncertainty could lead to disengagement in climate change and distrust in mathematics, as well as format how climate change is perceived. Therefore, researchers, such as Hauge and Barwell (2017), have underlined that educating students to deal with different types of uncertainty can provide a greater understanding of how to deal with uncertainties of climate change. Furthermore, such uncertainties are not necessarily flaws that have to be corrected, but rather to be included as a natural part of scientific processes.

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So, how can students' competencies to identify the formatting power of mathematics in a climate change context be facilitated? We identified challenges at different levels. Teachers need to develop an awareness about how mathematics is used in argumentation, as the teachers in this study did. They also need an awareness of how they themselves make use of the formatting power of mathematics in their teaching and facilitation for critical learning. Developing students' understanding and awareness of the formatting power of mathematics is anything but straightforward. Students need time and opportunities to experience how to be critical in constructive ways. There is a need for teachers and researchers to design research together, to explore possible teaching methods that can develop students' abilities to be critical and to recognise the formatting powers of mathematics. Working with measurements, modelling, or other mathematical topics connected to climate change is one possibility. The complexity of climate change can generate problems other than those found in more traditional mathematical tasks – problems that are more relevant for the real-life problems of society. Discussing uncertainty and evaluating argumentation can be a fruitful approach for students to learn how to use mathematics in their own argumentation, as well as to be critical about others' use of mathematics. The aim of being critical is not to make students reject mathematically-based results from science. Rather, by recognising and discussing uncertainty in their own projects and in climate research, we believe the credibility of research can be increased through a more nuanced understanding, which is necessary if we are going to make changes for a sustainable future.

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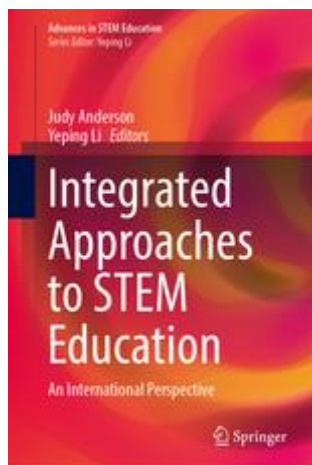
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## **Paper IV: Climate change and students' critical competencies: A Norwegian study**

Book cover



Book chapter in *Integrated Approaches to STEM Education: An International Perspective*, by Anderson, Judy, Li, Yeping (Eds.)

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This book provides a platform for international scholars to share evidence for effective practices in integrated STEM education and contributes to the theoretical and practical knowledge gained from the diversity of approaches.

Many publications on STEM education focus on one or two of the separate STEM disciplines without considering the potential for delivering STEM curriculum as an integrated approach. This publication analyzes the efficacy of an integrated STEM curriculum and instruction, providing evidence to examine and support various integrations. The volume focuses on the problems seen by academics working in the fields of science, technology, engineering and mathematics (STEM) and provides valuable, high quality research outcomes and a set of valued practices which have demonstrated their use and viability to improve the quality of integrated STEM education.



## Chapter 13

### Climate Change and Students' Critical Competencies: A Norwegian Study

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**Abstract** Climate change is a global and urgent challenge for governments around the world but it also requires an increased awareness by all citizens which should be developed during each student's education. Addressing this challenge involves knowledge from science, technology, engineering, and mathematics [STEM], and calls for integrated STEM-approaches in school. The research presented in this chapter concerns 10<sup>th</sup>-grade students' discussions about climate change, such as CO<sub>2</sub>-emissions and transportation. The focus is on identifying how students' critical mathematical competencies are used in their discussions and arguments. The students participated in inquiry-based dialogues involving mathematical, technological and reflective argumentation, and included multiple perspectives such as environmental, economic and ethical concerns. Critical competencies are important to enable students to be(come) critical citizens.

**Keywords:** Critical mathematics education, climate change, integrated STEM-approaches, students' argumentation and discussion.

#### 13.1 Introduction

Climate change is an urgent challenge in society and young people are becoming more and more engaged all around the world. For example, Climate Kids are suing the US Government for inaction regarding climate change (Parker, 2018), and Norwegian children produce their own climate report (The Children's Panel on Climate Change, 2017). Greta Thunberg from Sweden has inspired thousands of students worldwide in *School strikes 4 Climate Action* (Wearden & Carrington, 2019), demanding more action from governments.

Mathematics education researchers, such as Ernest (2015, p. 191), highlighted the role mathematics education can play in ensuring students become "numerate critical citizens, able to use their knowledge in social and political realms of activity, for the betterment of both themselves and for democratic society as a whole". If mathematics education is to take up this role, how can schools facilitate such learning and what competencies do the students need?

##### 13.1.1 STEM Education in the Norwegian Context

In Norway, the STEM education concept is not a common component of school education. However, a related concept, *realfag*, is used. In primary and lower secondary school, *realfag* includes mathematics and natural science, while technology is integrated into the curriculum in both subjects. The Ministry of Education and Research (2015) has a *realfag*-strategy, expressing aims connected to societal challenges such as producing work-ready employees who are able to solve real-world challenges such as climate change. Similar arguments exist internationally (e.g., Bybee, 2013). These aims could be criticised for having a perspective on what society needs and lack an emphasis on what the individuals need. Larkin and Jorgensen

(2018, p. 1) noted STEM-learning can be “an equity issue for students”, due to such demands from society. Those with skills within STEM subjects might be more likely to get employment within industries with increasing STEM opportunities. So, in that respect, schools providing a proper *realfag* or STEM-education can be beneficial for society and citizens. However, it is important to question what STEM education should address including its goals and content.

In the *realfag*-strategy, (Ministry of Education and Research, 2015) it is problematised that teaching activities, particularly in mathematics, have little variation. Teachers typically explain theories and examples from textbooks with little room for complex problems and cognitive challenges, and the students mainly work with tasks developing procedural knowledge. An integrated STEM approach, such as learning about climate change which involves content-knowledge from several subjects might help to address the traditional approach to teaching mathematics. It can be a way to diversify mathematics lessons so that the focus on procedural knowledge in mathematics lessons could make way for solving complex real-life problems, and develop numerate critical citizens as highlighted by Ernest (2015).

The purpose of the Norwegian Education Act states that students: “Shall learn to think critically and act ethically and with environmental awareness. They shall have joint responsibility and the right to participate” (Education Act, § 1-1). This emphasises environmental concerns and children's right to participate in society. Furthermore, in recent changes in the curriculum, the Norwegian Ministry of Education and Research (2017) highlights three topics: public health and life-skills, democracy and citizenship, and sustainable development. A transdisciplinary approach is recommended as necessary to gain an understanding of these three topics. English (2016, p. 2) described transdisciplinary as the “Knowledge and skills learned from two or more disciplines are applied to real-world problems and projects, thus helping to shape the learning experience”. In contrast to a disciplinary-based approach, often emphasising descriptive and analytical properties, a transdisciplinary approach emphasises holistic, reflexive and meta-level thinking, dialogue, and unchaining concepts from the sometimes-rigid framework of a subject (Steffensen, 2017). The curriculum highlights that students should understand and critically reflect on managing dilemmas and developments in society, and with global climate change amongst the greatest environmental threats, this is an ideal focus for students to use their mathematics knowledge and understanding to debate the challenges faced by humanity.

### 13.1.2 Critical Mathematical Competencies

Critical mathematical competencies are not clearly defined in the mathematics education literature. Related concepts exist, such as *critical mathematical skills*, highlighted by Aguilar and Zavaleta (2012, p. 7) as “the mathematical knowledge that allows students to use mathematics to analyse social problems or to address issues relevant in their personal lives”. This focuses on social and personal issues. Frankenstein (2010, p. 1) highlighted the goals of *critical mathematical literacy* to “understand how to use mathematical ideas in struggles to make the world better”, involving a social focus. Based on Blomhøj (1992, 2003), Hansen and Hana (2012, p. 300) described *critical democratic competence* as “the ability to evaluate, analyse, and criticise the use of mathematics in society”.

Connected to the need to have critical mathematics skills and knowledge, students must be able to *use* mathematics in their argumentation, or as a foundation for standpoints and actions. Skovsmose (1994, 2014) used the term *mathemacy*, emphasising that students should not only master competencies such as reading and writing, they should also understand, participate, transform, and critique society. Hauge and Barwell (2017) highlighted competencies such as

being able to understand and interpret data, graphs, statistics, probability and uncertainty, complex scientific information, and handling value-perspectives of climate change issues. Common among these ideas and relevant for critical mathematical competencies, is the emphasis on mathematical competencies to critically engage and influence actions in society.

Critical mathematical competencies are important in order to be able to take justified standpoints on complex issues in a highly technological and scientific society. In climate change, there is a strong consensus among scientists on human influence (Oreskes, 2018). However, only 35% of Republicans in America believe that global warming is caused by humans (Brennan & Saad, 2018). This distrust in science, or perhaps inadequacy to analyse, evaluate, and use mathematical or scientific information, can lead to inaction towards climate change. It could therefore be argued that education needs to engage students in problems like climate change, involving complex scientific and mathematical information, a plurality of value-perspectives, and challenge them to analyse, evaluate, use, and criticise the use of mathematics and science in society. An integrated STEM education approach can potentially develop students' critical mathematical competencies and enable them to be(come) numerate critical citizens and informed decision-makers.

If students are to be empowered as critical citizens, can a critical STEM-approach facilitate students' competencies to be(come) critical citizens? Inspired by this question, this research examines 10<sup>th</sup>-grade students' utterances when they discuss climate change issues. The focus is on *identifying how students' critical mathematical competencies can appear in their argumentation*. Critical approaches are highlighted in the Norwegian curricula as important for democracy, it can therefore be relevant for teachers and teacher educators to recognise students' critical competencies, as well as being a starting point for further research.

### 13.2 Theoretical Perspectives and Conceptual Framework

One aspect of integrated STEM education approaches is the importance of context. Bybee (2013) problematised a context-based STEM-education as an approach where the context merely is used as an opportunity for practising subject-related competencies. He argued that there was a need for "an educational approach that first places life situations and global issues in a central position and uses the four disciplines of STEM to understand and address the problem" (p. 3). Climate change is an interdisciplinary context and involves content-knowledge from several school subjects. Following Bybee's recommendation, climate change should be considered as the main issue, not just an opportunity to practice interpreting graphs. An integrated STEM-approach can potentially contribute to a more holistic approach to debating and addressing problems like climate change. However, in education, the more traditional siloed approach of teaching subjects separately may be an obstacle to implementing such integrated approaches.

Another aspect of integrating STEM education involves consideration of two different approaches in education for sustainable development. Pitt (2009, p. 41) describes these as "Teaching about the key issues and encouraging different behaviors, and encouraging critical reflection linked to action". A combination of learning about key issues while critically reflecting on actions can be mutually beneficial. Wolfmeyer, Lupinacci, and Chesky (2018) argued for such integration of approaches when teaching content goals in STEM-education and they combined the theoretical fields of Critical Mathematics Education (CME) and EcoCritical. CME emphasises social justice issues, enabling new possibilities for students. EcoCritical is described as the "interrelationship between social justice and environmental catastrophe" (Wolfmeyer et al., 2018, p. 278). Wolfmeyer et al. suggested an extension of

CMEs to include ecological and social crises and to include these theoretical perspectives into STEM-education. They argued that by doing this, STEM projects can “be transformative for learners as well as meet the content goals of standard STEM education” (p. 273). They further argued that STEM-education can involve critical work, but emphasised that STEM-education is not the “triumphant answer” to address critical issues in a transdisciplinary way (p. 291-292).

Integrating CME into STEM-education is also recommended by Nicol, Bragg, Radzimski, Yaro, Chen, and Amoah (2019), who suggest that by focusing on the design of mathematical problems for social justice alongside STEM-education students learn to interpret and transform society through social justice issues. Nicol et al. emphasized some challenges when integrating social justice and STEM goals. For instance, teachers tended to separate content-knowledge and social-justice goals and questioned whether socio-political themes compromised time for learning the subject-related curriculum. This chapter takes a similar approach to Wolfmeyer et al. (2018) and Nicol et al. (2019), by combining CME with STEM education.

A third aspect is the power of, and role of, language. Wolfmeyer et al. (2018) emphasised the role language can have on influencing what is being marginalised or silenced and potentially what is shaping education and society. The scientific and mathematical language can be quite a powerful tool to influence our understanding. It can be used to focus on economic growth, profit maximisation and exploitation of natural resources, rather than, or perhaps at the expense of, the environment. Education can facilitate students' awareness of the power of, and role of, STEM language.

A fourth aspect is to what extent each of the separate STEM subject teachers should be involved in designing integrated STEM education experiences for their students that encourage discussions and debates about critical societal issues. Climate change involves content-knowledge from several subjects, and from a mathematics perspective, Barwell (2018) argued that mathematics educators need to be engaged due to the degree of mathematics involved in describing, predicting and communicating about climate change. However, as highlighted by Abtahi, Götze, Steffensen, Hauge, and Barwell, (2017) and Steffensen, Herheim, and Rangnes (in press), some mathematics teachers might claim that climate change does not concern mathematics education, since it is too political, or they have no time as they need to ‘get through’ the mandated mathematics curriculum.

### 13.2.1 Conceptual framework

This section presents a conceptual framework that supports and informs the research. Figure 1 gives an overview of approaches relevant to analysis and discussions including three kinds of knowing, critical reflection, and inquiry-based dialogues. These approaches are connected and overlapping although they are presented as separate components in the figure. For instance, critical reflections are relevant for both the three types of knowing and in inquiry-based dialogues.



Figure 1. Overview of main approaches relevant in the analysis and discussions

#### 13.2.1.1 Three kinds of knowing

The three kinds of knowing are mathematical knowing, technological knowing and reflective knowing – Skovsmose (1994) highlighted these as important for critical citizenship. Mathematical knowing refers to competencies such as “performing algorithms for calculations” and “reproducing mathematical thoughts, theorems and proof” (Skovsmose 1994, p. 100). In climate change issues, the use of graphs is very common. Critical mathematical competencies require students to critically reflect on the correctness, related concepts, and procedures and how they are applied. Technological knowing refers to “the ability to apply mathematics and formal methods in pursuing technological aims” (p. 101). In climate change, technological aims can concern low CO<sub>2</sub>-emissions of cars. When these emissions are calculated, mathematics is intertwined and sometimes hidden, and can be purposely used. Merely to understand or master technologies is insufficient for critical mathematical competencies since it should be accompanied with critical reflections, such as questioning the relevance of mathematical knowing or the technological aims or critiquing how technology is used and the consequences for citizens and society.

Reflective knowing refers to “the evaluation and general discussion of what is identified as a technological aim, and the social and ethical consequences of pursuing that aim with selected tools” (Skovsmose, 1994, p. 101). To reflect on social and ethical consequences of technological aims (often based on mathematical knowing), might not be the standard case in mathematics classrooms, and Skovsmose (1992) suggested the use of questions such as: Is the calculation correct? Is it the correct algorithm for this problem? Do we need mathematics? How does the use of mathematics affect our conceptions? Barwell (2018, p. 155) referred to reflective knowing as a meta-level of knowing, moving beyond “the narrower, formal knowing of mathematics or the operational knowing of technology”. He highlighted that teaching from a CME perspective “entails teaching for reflective knowing (as well as mathematical and technological knowing)” (p. 155). This is in line with Skovsmose (1994, p. 123), who emphasised that the three kinds of knowing interact in a “web of interrelationship” () and should have a place in mathematics education. This research argues that all three kinds of knowing are relevant when reflecting, discussing, or acting on climate change issues. In the analysis, these forms of knowing were used as a basis for categorising students’ argumentation. One focus was on what kind/type of argumentation the students used when discussing climate change, either mathematical, technological or reflective argumentations.

### 13.2.1.2 Critical reflections

From a mathematical perspective, Skovsmose (1994, p. 22) suggested that critical educational practices and research “must address conflicts and crises in society”. Climate change has many presuppositions, often backed up with scientific evidence and mathematical facts. In a society with an abundance of information and where ‘fake news’ influences people’s opinions and politics, it becomes crucial that students critically reflect on information. Skovsmose (2018) highlighted the importance for students to critically address constructed mathematical concepts, to identify and critique the formation of mathematical knowledge, and to be aware of how mathematics is formatting our society.

So, if students are to make critical reflections, how might these be, and how can STEM-education facilitate this? Mezirow (1990, p. 1) described critical reflections as “a critique of the presuppositions on which our beliefs have been built”. This can mean that students need to challenge presupposition on issues such as climate change. Further, Mezirow highlighted two different types of learning: instrumental and communicative learning. Instrumental learning could be task-orientated problem solving, e.g. draw a graph based on temperatures. Here, critical reflections concerned checking procedural assumptions guiding the problem-solving process. Communicative learning involved understanding “the meaning of what others communicate, concerning values, ideals, feelings, moral decisions, and such concepts as freedom, justice, love, labour, autonomy, commitment and democracy” (p. 5). Here, critical reflections involved questioning such as: What is taken for granted; is it discriminating, suppressive or unjust? Hauge, Sørngård, Vethe, Bringeland, Hagen, and Sumstad (2015) analysed pre-service teachers’ critical reflections while discussing a temperature graph from the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC, 2013). Although the mathematics behind the models was too advanced for them to fully understand and potentially critique the model, they found that the students critically reflected on characteristics of the graph and model, as well as implications for society.

Critical reflections have several related concepts. One is *critical thinking*. Furness, Cowie, and Cooper (2017) highlighted keywords such as problem-solving skills, managing complexity, higher-order thinking, sound reasoning, decision making, metacognition, rational thinking, reasoning, knowledge, intelligence and moral aspects. These competencies can be relevant when students/citizens deal with climate change issues, for instance, moral aspects regarding future generations or citizens in other countries.

Another related concept is *criticality*. Fisherman (2017, p. 4) highlighted this as “the disposition to question assertions”, which resembles Mezirow’s description of critical thinking. In climate change, assertions can be based on standpoints or methodological choices by climate modellers (see e.g. Winsberg, 2018), and competencies to question these assertions are relevant. Otherwise, misleading or incorrect claims driven by political interests or within the frames of fake news can potentially lead to wrong types of actions. Ernest (2010) connected the concept of criticality to evaluation, such as judgments of quality and worth, discrimination of concepts and ideas, and assessment of values and representation. In education involving climate change, it is necessary to understand and appreciate different scientific ideas, such as the role of man-made CO<sub>2</sub>-emissions. Ernest problematised the prizing of criticality in society suggesting “While criticality has its place and value, it should not dominate our thought or being” (p. 7). In climate change, models, prognoses, and related uncertainty are important and relevant. However, if one becomes too judgmental of these models and prognoses, and emphasises uncertainty too much, this can become a hindrance towards actions (see e.g. discussions on climate models by Lloyd, 2018).

### 13.2.1.3 Inquiry-based dialogues

Dialogue in classrooms requires several qualities. Alrø and Høines (2012) highlighted the qualities of openness, equality, curiosity, wondering and inviting participants to inquire. In mathematics education, typical questions can be leading questions, rhetorical questions and questions demanding predefined answers. However, Alrø and Høines (2012) emphasised that inquiries can be made without posing actual questions, for instance by stating a hypothesis or just wondering about different scenarios. Several scenarios exist regarding how climate change might affect society, and actions towards climate change mitigations and adaptations can have unforeseen effects.

Learning to explore different scenarios can therefore be useful. Alrø and Skovsmose (2002, p. 135) argued that “if learning is to support the development of citizenship, then dialogue must play a basic role in the classroom”. They described an Inquiry-Cooperation (IC) model emphasising dialogues as “a process involving acts of getting in contact, locating, identifying, advocating, thinking aloud, reformulating, challenging and evaluating” (p. 128). *Getting in contact* involves engaging all group members. *Locating* concerns becoming aware of different perspectives, while *identifying* can be specifying mathematical ideas. *Advocating* refers to how one argues and justifies standpoints. *Thinking aloud* means making one's reflections, thoughts, ideas and reasoning public. *Reformulation* refers to how one dwells for the purpose of further critical reflections. *Challenging* can be a turning point to expand one's scope of reflections, but can also be an obstruction for involvement. Although the IC-model has a teacher-student-perspective, the model is transferable to dialogues between students. Alrø and Skovsmose (2002, p. 188) also referred to “the collectivity of reflections” and argued that collective reflections could generate new ideas and understanding not likely to happen in solitude. Herheim and Rangnes (2016) highlighted inquiry-based dialogues as an opportunity for students to engage in critical-mathematical argumentation, which they described as to take a stand on something, to reflect and to ask questions, to involve mathematics in your argumentation, and to identify and to critique the use of mathematics in society. This research argues that students collectively reflecting on climate change issues – in inquiry-based dialogues – can explore different perspectives and ideas through critical-mathematical argumentation, more than if they separately engage in problem-solving-tasks.

The theoretical and conceptual framework has informed the design of the research, including the researcher's input to the planning of the lessons. It also informed the analysis of student discussions and the interpretation of results. The next section of the chapter presents further detail about the research context.

### 13.3 The Research Context

The Norwegian Government has targeted phasing out fossil powered cars from 2025 (Sylte, 2018). Incentives for buying Electric Vehicles (EVs) has been introduced, including access to bus lanes, parking benefits and financial incentives. Internationally, EVs accounted for about 1% of new cars sales in 2017, while in the two biggest cities in Norway, Oslo and Bergen, the share was 40% and 50% respectively (Hall, Cui, & Lutsey, 2018). Although many young people in Norway are supportive of climate change actions (Fløttum, Dahl, & Rivenes, 2016), the Norwegians' attitudes are not in line with the Government goals on phasing out fossil powered cars (Sylte, 2018), and the incentives on EVs cause much public debate.

In this context of debate about climate change in Norway and appropriate government initiatives to address global warming, a research partnership was established between the author of the chapter and three teachers with their four 10<sup>th</sup> grade classes. The teachers taught

the classes in mathematics and natural science. The partnership was inspired by action research so the teachers planned and conducted the lessons, while the researcher was part of the planning and discussions in several research-partnership meetings. Based around seven themes, 42 lessons were designed for delivery to students over one and a half years, (see Figure 2) The teachers highlighted curricular goals from the natural science and mathematics curriculum documents to students (see Figure 3 for examples).

<b>Themes</b> (in chronological order)	<b>• Who and What:</b>
<b>1. Start-up</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• All four classes</li> <li>• Invited students to contribute with ideas</li> </ul>
<b>2. Excursion &amp; Report</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• All four classes</li> <li>• Measured climate relevant data (CO<sub>2</sub>)</li> </ul>
<b>3. Dialogue game</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• One class (Kim's)</li> <li>• Discussed and reflected on claims</li> </ul>
<b>4. Discussions</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• One class (Kim's)</li> <li>• Discussed and reflected on graphs/facts</li> </ul>
<b>5. Make posters</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Two classes (Max's)</li> <li>• Make posters for an energy-exhibition</li> </ul>
<b>6. Energy-exhibition</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• All four classes</li> <li>• Presented posters and quiz</li> </ul>
<b>7. Dialogue &amp; Debate</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Three classes (Kim's and Max's)</li> <li>• Discussed claims &amp; plenary panel debate</li> </ul>

Figure 2. Overview of the themes for the research partnership.

This chapter concerns the theme *Dialogue & Debate* and was chosen because it is representative of how teachers facilitated students' argumentation in groups and in plenary sessions. This theme consisted of six lessons. It was planned by all three teachers, but conducted by two, Kim and Max, and their three classes with about 30 students in each class. The students had expressed interest in the controversies on incentives on EVs, and the teachers came up with the idea that they could discuss CO<sub>2</sub>-emission, climate change, and road toll regarding a local road-project and write a newsletter to the local newspaper. The newsletter was never sent, but it forms an important part of the context of the lessons



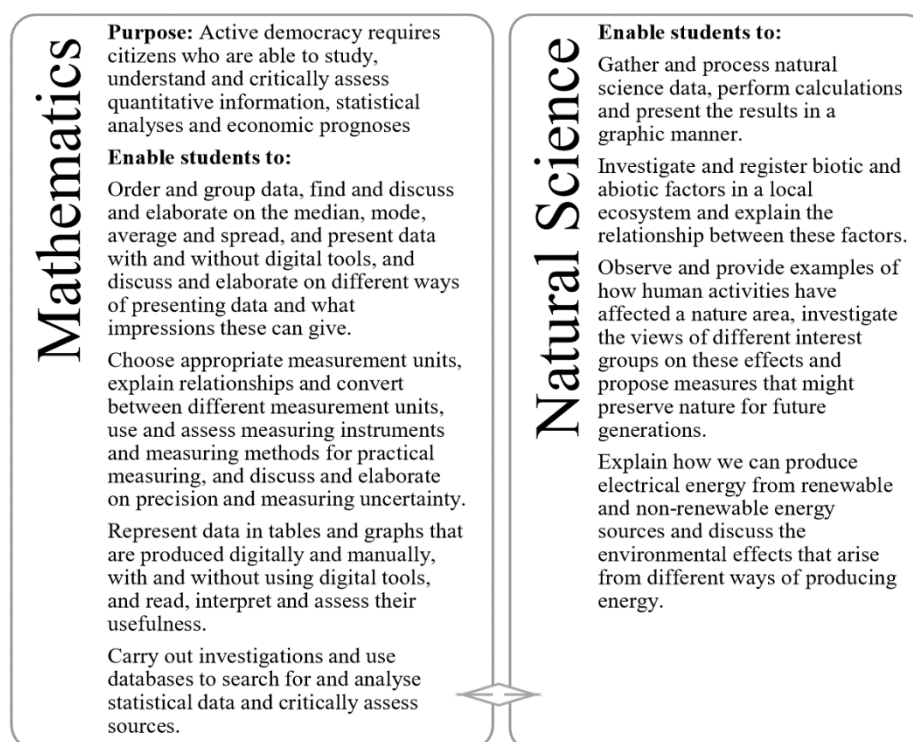


Figure 3. The teachers highlighted curricula goals to students from the curriculum (Ministry of Education and Research (2013a, 2013b))

The theme of *Dialogue & Debate* consisted of two parts. The first hour was organised in groups of about five students, playing a dialogue game. They were presented with claims where they indicated whether they agreed, partly agreed or disagreed, and they had to justify their choices. After each student had made their argumentation, a second-round gave them the opportunity to change/adjust previous argumentation. The teachers emphasised that the goal was not to reach a common agreement, but rather to listen and reflect on different arguments while making up their own mind. The dialogue game consisted of six claims, each with a context related to CO<sub>2</sub>-emissions, road tolls, and similar issues. The claims involved mathematics, for instance by presenting information through numbers and tables. The teachers helped students analyse and evaluate data and encouraged them to question the role mathematics could play in framing an argument and supporting claims. The second hour was organised as a round-table classroom debate and based on discussions from the claims/context.

### 13.4 Methods

The data consisted of video-recordings from three plenary classrooms debates, and audio- and video-recordings from nine group discussions. A strategical sampling was made based on which students had consented. All recordings were transcribed. Students' and teachers' written material and artefacts were collected. The research question, "identifying how

students' critical mathematical competencies appear in their argumentation", guided the analysis, which involved coding and categorising in NVIVO.

The process of deciding the presence of critical competencies was complex, as there were no fixed criteria in advance. The initial process of analysing focused on how the students discussed and made claims and arguments. Three perspectives stood out with respect to identifying critical mathematical competencies:

1. the different types of knowing used,
2. how students critically reflected, and
3. how they communicated in dialogues.

Consequently, the conceptual framework was chosen with the three perspectives in mind. In the further process of analysis, it was identified, in more depth, what types of knowing that characterised students' argumentations, if and how they critically reflected, and the characteristics of the students' dialogue.

After condensing the students' utterances into 13 categories, they were grouped into three main themes; Mathematical, technological and reflective argumentation. Some of the sub-categories fitted into more than one category, for instance, the category *the use of mathematics in society*, concerned both mathematical as well as reflective argumentation and discussion. The conceptual framework and relevant theory guided the analysis, along with reflections with colleagues/supervisors. The aim of the analysis was not to make an exhaustive list of how students' critical mathematical competencies appeared. Rather it was to identify some examples and reflect from a theoretical perspective on characteristics of students' argumentations.

The results and discussion consist of two parts. The first part presents categories generated from all the transcribed group-discussions and the plenary debate in three classrooms. Due to word-limitations, only three categories are described, these were chosen because they present interesting examples and typical features of students' argumentation. The second part includes students' utterances from one of six claims. This claim was chosen because it represents teachers' facilitation for critical mathematical competencies based on a mathematical task from the students' final examination. On the examination paper, the students were required to draw a graph in GeoGebra based on a function, find the critical features of the graph including endpoints. In *Dialogue & Debate*, the teachers' intention was to facilitate group-discussions within a mathematical framework involving climate change, and to some degree problematise the use or the role of mathematics in society. A more detailed analysis of two selected dialogues is also presented. These were chosen because they represent typical argumentation in the groups. Combined, these categories and examples of argumentation and discussion provide an insight into how critical mathematics competence appeared in the classroom.

## 13.5 Results and discussions

### 13.5.1 The group discussions and the plenary debate

The categories generated from the group discussion and the plenary debate are presented in Figure 4, and the three categories *road tolls*, *the use of mathematics*, and *ethical concerns* are described with examples of students' argumentation.

<b>Categories:</b>	<b>• Short description:</b>
<b>Roads</b>	• Discussions on road standard, safety, rush hours and traffic jams, etc.
<b>Road tolls</b>	• Discussion on different pricing and consequences.
<b>Taxes</b>	• Suggestions to remove road tolls, and instead, pay more tax.
<b>Type of cars</b>	• Discussions on pros and cons of fossil fueled cars and EVs (CO <sub>2</sub> -emissions etc.).
<b>Public transport</b>	• Argumentation regarding the benefits (and inadequacies) of public transport.
<b>Energy and energy sources</b>	• Discussions on coal-fired power plants.
<b>Climate models</b>	• Argumentation involving the prognoses in climate models.
<b>Diagrams, graphs, tables, numbers, percentage</b>	• Argumentation including numbers etc.
<b>Statistics</b>	• Discussions on how statistics are useful to build arguments and to show the truth.
<b>The use of mathematics</b>	• Discussions on how mathematics can be used in society to influence opinions.
<b>Changing point of view</b>	• Students recognize changing their standpoint, due to others argumentation.
<b>Ethical concerns</b>	• Argumentation containing concerns for the earth and the threat of climate change.
<b>Source criticism</b>	• Argumentation concerning sources of information.

Figure 4. The categories after the coding process.

Students' argumentation on *road tolls* involved concerns about economic consequences. For instance, Daniel thought that EVs should pass for free in the road tolls and argued: "It's not that many EVs, maybe 1-2 % of the total, so it wouldn't be a big cost". Others argued for a free pass for EVs, emphasising the potential environmental benefits of EVs. Janet argued: "We should ensure that we get clean energy, like hydropower from Norway charging our EVs, and not dirty energy from coal-fired power plants from Europe". Here, consideration is based on which type of energy source EVs require. Jacob thought that EVs should pay full price and argued: "EVs are not that much better than other cars; they use more CO<sub>2</sub> when produced than fossil cars, and the batteries require a non-renewable element [cobalt] that, similar to oil and gas, will end". Here, consideration is based on both the use and production of cars (product lifecycle sustainability). The variety of argumentations suggests that students included several considerations – and perspectives – in their discussions.

Students' discussions on *the use of mathematics* included argumentation on how mathematics can be utilised to present information, back up arguments, convince opponents, and to trick people. In the plenary debate, Caroline stated:

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... politicians can use it [mathematics] as a basis [...] to argue in favour of why people should buy EVs or not. Because, in a way, then you can see ... that they are not just talking, because then they don't know if it is true. So, if they have something to refer to, then people are more willing to believe in it [...] To prove ... or strengthen a claim

Caroline expressed an awareness of the role mathematics can play to strengthen politicians' arguments. Such an awareness, or the competencies to identify such use of mathematics in society, as highlighted by Skovsmose (1994) and Herheim and Rangnes (2016), can be an important part of critical mathematics competencies. Another student, Adrian, uttered:

We have those climate models where you see what researchers have predicted. In the future, you can check if this is correct, that is if the numbers match the models. And then they can know or try to fit their climate models and bring those factors that are relevant ... and then they know what they ... Gradually they can try to fix this in relation to what the graphs show in a way. So, statistics and graphs and things like that, they really show pretty much.

Adrian's utterance indicates recognition of the role researchers can play in the use of measurements and mathematics (or "the numbers match the models") to predict, check and adjust predictions on climate change. This awareness and the ability to evaluate and analyse such use of mathematics in society could be relevant for critical mathematical competencies (Hansen & Hana, 2012).

Students' discussions on *ethical concerns* included arguments regarding protecting future citizens and the earth, such as this from Teresa:

It's important that we save our environment, that we take care of our atmosphere. For we shall stay here for a long time ... at least our family and beyond ... So, it's important that we take care of the earth.

The moral aspects of critical thinking, as highlighted by Furness et al. (2017), are present in Teresa's argumentation. She emphasises "our family and beyond", which can be interpreted as social justice for future citizens (Nicol et al., 2019; Wolfmeyer et al., 2018). These value-based arguments Teresa provides, differ from those based on economic perspectives or in science. Her utterance could be considered as a moral plea where she stresses the urgency of climate change.

Inspired by Skovsmose's (1994) three kinds of knowing, the 13 categories were organised into three main aims: Mathematical, technological and reflective argumentation, see Figure 5.

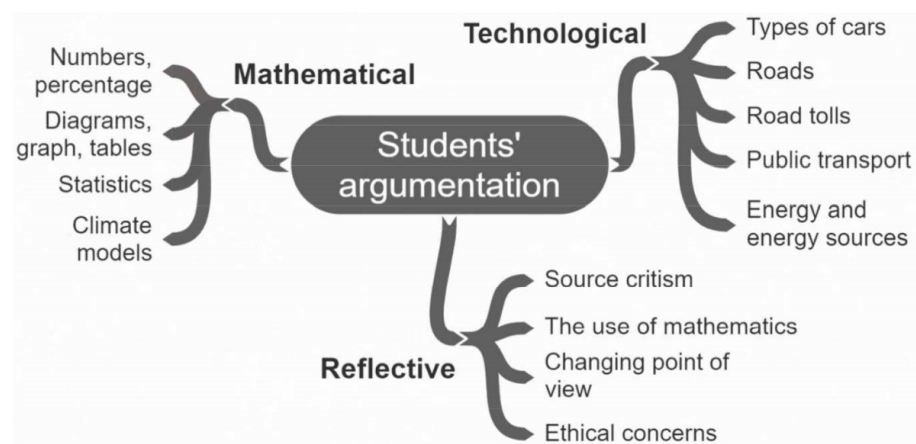


Figure 5 After analysis, the students' utterances resulted in 13 categories and 3 main themes.

The mathematical argumentations concerned such as discussing the use of numbers, or interpretation of diagrams and statistics. The technological argumentations concerned such things as discussing tables displaying cars fuel-consumption (stated and actual) and related CO<sub>2</sub>-emission. The reflective argumentations involved ethical concerns related to CO<sub>2</sub>-emissions, and considerations for present and future generations. These three types of argumentations partly overlapped. Skovsmose (1994) highlighted that technological knowing is not separate from other forms of knowing, and exemplified that some basic knowledge of cars is necessary when discussing social implications of the pollution caused by motoring. Similarly, the students' technological argumentation in this research involved both a reflective aspect concerning social implications as well as a mathematical aspect involving the interpretation of tables.

### 13.5.2 Discussing a graph displaying a given car's CO<sub>2</sub>-emission

This part highlights argumentation from two groups discussing a graph displaying a car's CO<sub>2</sub>-emission, determined by the speed (Figure 6). Simon, one of the students, remembered the task from the examination: "This graph I remember. You release the least amount of CO<sub>2</sub> from a particular car if you drive at 72 km/h." His utterance points to "the answer", in this case, the minimum, a rather typical mathematical answer. But what does that answer really mean? Does the student show critical mathematical competencies? If not, how can such a seemingly 'real-life'-task be framed within CME?

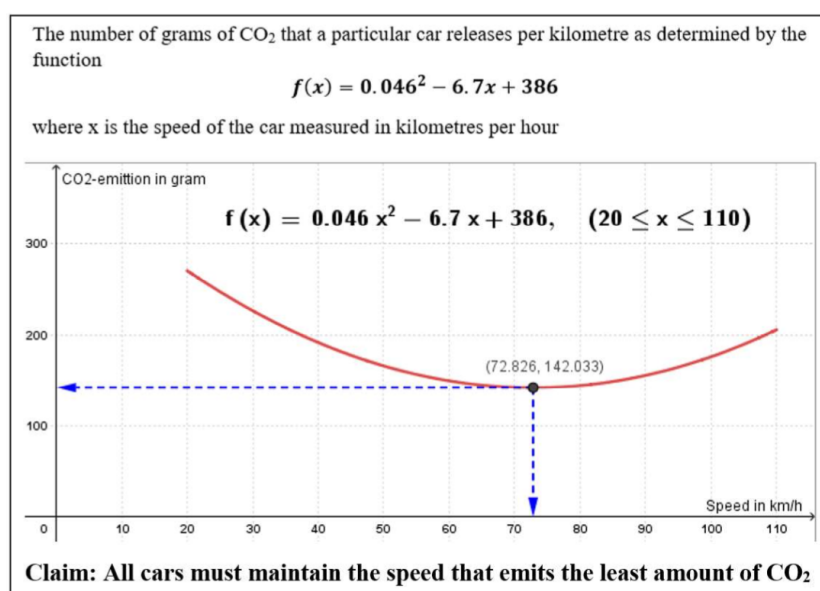


Figure 6. The graph and function of a car's CO<sub>2</sub>-emissions.

To move past this focus on correct mathematical answers, but still keep the discussions within a mathematical frame, students were presented with the graph in figure 6 and asked to discuss potential implications. The teachers intended to enable students' critical argumentation within the context of *realfag* and climate change. They discussed the claim: "All cars must maintain the speed that emits the least amount of CO<sub>2</sub>". The students needed both to identify the minimum of the graph and consider whether the mathematical answer was relevant; the latter facilitating reflective knowing. The students are used to evaluating whether claims are

reasonable and to discuss *realfag*-problems connected to claims. The claim and the graph were shown on paper and were used as a starting point for discussions. A group of four is zooming in on the problem:

- Sally: Then we must look here ... is this correct? Wait! [...] Here we see that there is a curved graph, inside the square on the sheet.
- Hans: It's in the first quadrant.
- Greg: Do you know what it's called?
- Hans: What?
- Greg: Either it's called a parabola ...?
- Hans: Parabola ... yes.
- Greg: Or, it's a kind of ... no, the other one ... I don't remember.
- Hans: Linear ... It's not the ...
- Greg: No, because it doesn't go through ...
- Sally: Number of grams of CO<sub>2</sub> ... as determined by ...
- Greg: Either it's a parabola or polynomial ...
- Hans: Ok.
- Pete: No ...
- Sally: Uh ... there ... What are they asking? I don't know ... I'm done ... don't like science class.
- Pete: I'm just saying, without having read it, but in my opinion it's wrong. That's not right. Because, if I understood the claim correctly, then there's, for example, if two cars are driving at the same speed, and one has a 450 horsepower Chevrolet engine V8 versus a Toyota Yaris with 111 horsepower, keeping the same speed, then this Chevrolet engine is much thirstier on gasoline, and it will require much more to drive such a large engine, than a small 111 horse in a Toyota Yaris.
- Sally: Aha ...

Sally starts by pointing at the claim, requesting the others to focus on the sheet and asks whether the claim is correct. The question is open without being precise or conclusive and might invite the boys to participate and evaluate if they agree with the claim. Thus, it can be argued that Sally attempts to get in contact and engage the group members, as highlighted in the IC-model by Alrø and Skovsmose (2002). Hans describes Sally's "square" as "the first quadrant", using another mathematical concept, both referring that the graph appears in the first quadrant of a coordinate system. Greg's question about the name of the graph is genuine; he invites others to contribute, and Hans immediately takes this invitation. Greg responds in a questioning tone, and Hans confirms that it is a parabola. However, Greg is not convinced, he is still questioning, and tries to remember by thinking aloud, which appears as an invitation to the others to participate. Hesitating, Hans suggests an alternative, linear, but does not complete the sentence. Greg follows up by justifying why it is not a linear graph by describing characteristics of a linear graph, or what Alrø and Skovsmose (2002) referred to as advocating. Until now, the students' argumentation has concerned name and characteristics of the graph. When Sally interrupts, reading from the accompanying text, she brings something new into the dialogue; the amount of CO<sub>2</sub>, or what the graph represents. The boys do not respond to her input about the context and continue to discuss the name. Sally tries again to join the discussions by questioning the purpose of the task. Her utterances can indicate a frustration of not knowing what the problem is, or what the teacher is asking her to do. The conceptual mathematical competencies did not immediately help the students moving forward.

Up until this point, the claim has not been discussed. Then Pete declares he disagrees and justifies that engine size and the amount of horsepower will affect the amount of gasoline used, hence CO<sub>2</sub>-emission. He considered this as important to evaluate the claim and used this argument to justify why he considers the claim to be wrong. By doing so, the focus of the discussion shifts from concerning mathematical concepts to focusing on technological and societal issues. Pete challenged the claim, and as described in the IC-model by Alrø and Skovsmose (2002), this became the turning point of the discussion.

Initially, the students grasped the problem by referring to mathematical concepts and ideas, which could be interpreted as they recognised the mathematical nature of the task and used a mathematical approach. Recognising characteristics of graphs is a relatively typical mathematical task in school contexts; thus, these references could be interpreted as mathematical argumentation and discussion. Initially, they do not relate their discussions to the claim and do not move beyond mathematics, and it could be questioned whether these are critical-mathematical argumentations as described by Herheim and Rangnes (2016).

When a real-life task is implemented in mathematics education, these are often just a contextualisation or storytelling of no relevance for solving the problem (Simic-Muller, Fernandes, & Felton-Koestler, 2015). The students' mathematical approach could be interpreted as a result of such a school-contextualisation, where they ignore the real-life context (Christiansen, 2001). However, Pete's utterances bring the real-life context into the students' discussions. His argumentation requires some technical insight, and it can be argued that these are technological argumentations (Skovsmose, 1994). Pete is doing an evaluation based on technological knowing to reject the claim. As Alrø and Skovsmose (2002) highlighted, one aspect of reflections is to question whether formal mathematics techniques are needed, or if you can find answers without mathematics.

If we consider the claim as a presupposition, Pete's disagreement with the claim can be considered as a critique of the presuppositions that the beliefs are built upon, as highlighted in Mezirow's (1990) definition of critical reflection. It can also be a correction or an adjusting of beliefs. In climate change issues, there are irrelevant or incorrect presuppositions accompanying scientific facts. It can be argued that students need to have the necessary critical mathematics competencies in order to analyse, understand, evaluate and sometimes reject graphs and related presuppositions. When Pete moves the discussions away from the traditional mathematical approach, this becomes the turning point, and in the student's further discussions, technological and reflective argumentation was much more present.

Similar communicative learning could also be observed in another group consisting of three students:

- Irene: I agree... Because CO<sub>2</sub> is polluting our environment. And then the cars should maintain the speed that results in the least... or drive cars that don't emit CO<sub>2</sub>.
- Cato: All cars emit CO<sub>2</sub>.
- Irene: Not electric cars.
- Cato: Yes, the battery... it...
- Paul: The battery emits something.
- Cato: It releases almost as much as a normal gasoline car does...
- Irene: They don't do that...
- Cato: Yes, they do. Not far from, at least.
- Irene: They emit less.

Paul: I partly agree... because it's important that we maintain low CO<sub>2</sub> levels and things like that, but to drive at the same speed everywhere, that can be dangerous. At least on narrow streets, and winding roads and things like that, where you're not in full control. And on highways, where you have a much higher speed. So, therefore, I partly agree.

Irene: I agreed earlier, but now I think that I don't agree. Because of everything you said. So yes, partially agree.

Irene starts by stating that she agrees on the claim, and advocates for her views by saying people should drive the speed emitting the least amount of CO<sub>2</sub>. Then she expands the claim by making her own assertion on that people should not drive cars that emit CO<sub>2</sub>. Cato response picks up on Irene's argumentation, showing an interest in what she is saying. Although Cato's utterance challenges Irene's assertion, he said this calmly, and as though he was thinking aloud his own ideas to Irene, rather than disagreeing in a confronting way. Thinking aloud is highlighted as important in making reflections, thoughts and ideas public by Alrø and Skovsmose (2002). Irene replies disagree with Cato's assertion, and like him, the reply sounded like an invitation to continue the discussion and is said in an inquiring manner. Cato brings the issue of batteries of EVs into the dialogue and provides new objections or challenges. However, his argumentation stops. It is not clear why he is stopping, but he leaves the rest of the sentence open for others to continue. The invitation is accepted by Paul, who shows that he has been listening, and continues Cato's inquiry on including the batteries into the accounting of CO<sub>2</sub>-emission of EVs. The wording "something" indicates that Paul is not sure how much CO<sub>2</sub> the battery emits. Cato's complete his previous unfinished argument about batteries, and he compares the amount of CO<sub>2</sub> emitted by batteries and those made by fossil-fuelled cars and argues that it is "almost as much". Paul states that he partly agrees with the claim, and starts by acknowledging the environmental perspective brought up by Irene, giving credit to her perspective. However, Paul advocates that maintain the same speed on narrow roads can be dangerous and finishes his argument by repeating his standpoint. When Irene continues, she has changed her standpoint. She explicitly tells the other group members that she has adjusted her opinion during the discussion, and gives credit to them by saying "Because of everything you said".

Although the graph (together with the claim) was the starting point for their argumentations, Irene, Cato and Paul did not dwell on the mathematical information provided by the graph, and apparently, did not focus on the mathematical aspects. Busse (2005, p. 355) described students as "reality bound" when considering a real-life task as such, and not mathematising the problem. Instead, Irene, Cato and Paul's discussions were characterised by technological and reflective argumentation about the environment, about CO<sub>2</sub>-emission related to the use and production of cars, as well as using common sense (e.g. driving on narrow roads).

The dialogue between Irene, Cato and Paul holds many of the characteristics as described by Alrø and Skovsmose (2002) and Alrø and Høines (2012). They invited others to join the dialogue, by their tone of voice and unfinished sentences, they acknowledged that the others matter. They located different perspectives, advocated their own and supported others' perspectives, thought aloud and challenged each other in an inquiry-based approach. The dialogue is the students' way of thinking aloud, individually and collaboratively, with examples of both finished and unfinished thoughts and ideas. In addition, Irene's last utterance, where she explicitly acknowledges how the perspectives of the others have led to adjusting her own view, provides valuable insight into how students themselves consider these dialogues where an exchange of perspectives takes place. These continuing dialogues between the students created a space where they moved on from previous standpoints and learnt through communication with peers. Their communicative learning, as highlighted by Mezirow (1990), was characterised by achieving coherence and understanding the meaning of what the others communicated.



### 13.6 Concluding comments

The focus of this research has been to identify how students' critical mathematical competencies can appear when discussing climate change issues. Examples of students' argumentation have been highlighted, analysed and discussed, to demonstrate how this appeared. Recognizing the limitations of this study (sample size, strategical sampling, and researcher bias), the findings suggested that students' critical mathematics competencies appeared when they engaged in inquiry-based dialogues. This was evidenced when Sally invited the others to participate in inquires, or when their tone of voice supported locating the perspectives of others. When Greg was thinking aloud and wondering if the graph is a parabola, or Paul supported Cato in his final arguments on EVs-battery and CO<sub>2</sub>-emission, and Cato challenged Irene in cars driving at a given speed to pollute less. This exemplified what inquiry-based dialogues could involve and what Alrø and Skovsmose (2002) and Alrø and Johnsen-Høines (2012) recognised as important for critical citizenship.

The findings further suggested that students' critical reflections included critiquing presuppositions, such as when Pete rejected the claim. Scientific and mathematics-based facts on climate change issues may be associated with presuppositions. It is valuable that citizens critically reflect on the validity of such presuppositions. The students' critical reflection also included a moral aspect of climate change, as seen in Teresa's argumentation, where she took a personal and ethical stand.

Furthermore, the findings suggested that students' critical mathematics competencies appeared through (intertwined) mathematical, technological and reflective argumentation. Such as when Pete used technological and reflective argumentation to raise the engine size and amount of horsepower and related that to CO<sub>2</sub>-emissions. Or when students used mathematics in their argumentation, like when Daniel referred to percentages of EVs. Caroline expressed awareness of politicians' use of mathematics – a step towards identifying, analysing, and perhaps also evaluating and criticising the use of mathematics in society.

This research contributes to the literature of STEM education by suggesting, in line with Wolfmeyer et al. (2018) and Nicol et al. (2019), that theoretical perspectives from CME are extended and included in critical STEM education. A critical approach to climate change brought up opportunities for students to reflect holistically on different aspects, such as scientific, technological and mathematical information, as well as economic, political and ethical aspects. The students' discussions involved mathematical, technological and reflective argumentation, intertwined with personal views and an ethical stance. Knowledge about this could potentially enable teachers and teacher educators to facilitate learning about complex real-life problems that involve competencies from several disciplines.

Climate change can be more than just a context for learning subject-related goals. Students need to gain awareness of how the power of scientific and mathematical language can shape our understanding, and STEM education – and students – need to critically engage in climate change. Students like Greta Thunberg have taken an active role in the public climate change debate, despite her age, while not holding all the knowledge or answers. Insufficient knowledge should not stop students from participating, they know enough to engage, in or out of school, and by participating, they can learn more. Education can play an important part in enabling students like Teresa, Pete, and Irene to raise their voice in society. However, leaving this task to the natural science teachers or the mathematics teachers can exclude important perspectives. Therefore, this research argues that complex problems like climate change

would benefit from an integrated STEM education approach, not only focusing on factual subject-related competencies but including critical perspectives, values, and ethical concerns.

School mathematics and mathematical tasks are sometimes contextualised with real-life situations like the examination task concerning CO<sub>2</sub>-emissions. However, as argued, the context is often irrelevant for the mathematical task, and CO<sub>2</sub>-emissions might just as well be replaced with any other context, and the mathematical problem-solving would be similar. The students only need competencies within the boundaries of mathematical knowing to solve such problems. When the students discussed claims within a *realfag*-context, their discussions involved both mathematical, technological and reflective argumentation. The question on the examination had only one correct answer. However, real-life questions can have a range of answers. If students are restricted to just considering characteristics of graphs, it would not give them any sense of problems related to the CO<sub>2</sub>-emission of cars. Education focused on just learning algorithms and problems with one correct answer do not necessarily facilitate critical reflections.

Students need opportunities to develop their critical mathematics competencies. Education facilitating discussing the context of mathematics with mathematics and science as tools, while recognising students' knowledge, can develop an awareness of how mathematics can format society. The students in this study have, in a transdisciplinary way, dealt with issues of climate change through dialogue and debate with their peers. They have critically reflected upon different aspects of climate change and used intertwined forms of knowing, important for future professions and critical citizenship. An integrated STEM education approach can facilitate students' argumentation on complex issues like climate change. It can support students' discussions to include mathematical, technological and reflective argumentation, and a variety of perspectives, such as subject-related content-knowledge, critical approaches, society-related and ethical concerns.

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