



Lifelong Learning and Higher Education: New (and Old) Perspectives

Proceedings from the 2022 Lund University Conference on
Teaching and Learning

EDITORS: SARA SANTESSON & SARA ANDERSSON | LUND UNIVERSITY



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JOINT FACULTIES OF
HUMANITIES AND THEOLOGY

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Preface

There were great expectations for LUTL-2022, the 2022 Lund University Conference on Teaching and Learning. As the biannual conference had been postponed due to the Covid-19 pandemic, this was, for many, the first opportunity in three years to meet colleagues from all disciplines and faculties at Lund University for inspiration and discussion about learning, teaching and development in higher education.

Perhaps it was the unusually long interim that made more than 170 participants register for the conference day on 17 November 2022. Another attraction was perhaps the conference theme *Lifelong Learning and Higher Education: New (and Old) Perspectives*; a topic that assumed even more emphasis in July 2021, when an amendment was added to the Swedish Higher Education Act to the effect that Swedish universities have an obligation to promote lifelong learning¹.

The amendment constitutes a brief addition to the act, but it allows for many interpretations and connects several spheres of discourse and practice: political agendas in promotion of productive citizens; the business world's interest in the provision of a competitive and reliable skills supply; individual pursuits of personal development and, not least, the pedagogical missions and activities of universities themselves.

The conference was opened by Deputy Vice-Chancellor Lena Eskilsson who thanked the Joint Faculties of Humanities and Theology for hosting the conference and presented the first keynote speaker Cecilia Bjursell, Director of the National Centre for Lifelong Learning. In her contribution to this volume, **Cecilia Bjursell** introduces three aspects of lifelong

¹ Högskolelagen (1992:1434) 1 kap. 5 §: ”Högskolorna ska i sin verksamhet främja ett livslångt lärande.”

learning: policy, theory, and educational systems. What all three perspectives have in common is the assumption that learning takes place throughout the duration of a person's life. The three perspectives also assume that learning takes place in various contexts in a person's everyday life.

The first keynote address was followed by parallel sessions, featuring paper presentations on the themes *Room for Diversity in Teaching and Learning*, *The University in the Future*, *Lifelong Learning Across the Disciplines*, and *Pedagogical Inspiration*. In addition, **Mirjam Glessmer**, **Rachel Forsyth**, **Åsa K Nilsson** and **Torgny Roxå** chaired a roundtable discussion about how we include students who are not striving to become academics, which they report on in their contribution to this volume.

The topic of diversity in the student population is recurrent in the papers of this collection. **Cecilia Andersson**, **Lisa Engström**, **Emma Severinsson** and **Sara Tanderup Linkis** account for how the prototypical ideal student affects the learning environment and how the university and the educational system are perceived from the students' perspectives, whereas **Azher Hameed Qamar** presents three metaphors that can make the teaching-learning process more meaningful, ground-up, and accommodating of students' diverse learning styles.

Furthermore, in a context of widening participation, internationalisation, and lifelong learning, we need to find new formats for education and teaching. **Philippe Collberg** and **Katarina Lundin** report on a pedagogical developmental project with short films dealing with core concepts and threshold concepts to be used in grammar courses. **Frida Eek** writes about a knowledge platform containing e-lectures and literature for the physiotherapist students to strengthen their ability to understand and make use of scientific studies and results, both during their education and for future clinical practice.

Yet while digital tools offer exciting new possibilities, we must be wary of their limitations. Good intentions to reach new groups of learners through MOOCs (massive open online courses) are not always fulfilled. In their contribution, **Jessika Luth Richter**, **Charlotte Leire** and **Kes McCormick** discuss how the pedagogical design of MOOCs affect retention and depth of learning.

A buzzing lunchbreak was followed by the address of the second keynote speaker, **Johan Östling**, Director of the Lund University Centre for the History of Knowledge. In his contribution to this volume, Johan Östling argues that lifelong learning mostly takes place outside universities, in the public sphere. He shows the circulation of academic knowledge from the postwar period to the contemporary era and its importance for lifelong learning in society at large.

The afternoon sessions featured presentations and discussions on the themes *Meta-perspectives on Learning, Sustainability in Higher Education, Developing as a Writer, Teacher Development, and Collegial Learning*.

Collegial learning is one implementation of lifelong learning, and higher education is a working environment with constant opportunities to learn and develop. Still, it can be hard to focus on research and writing because of other duties. **Olivia Cejvan, Elisabet Göransson, Vera La Mela, Hege Markussen** and **Simon Pedersen Schmidt** discuss why and how the writing group at CTR has become a productive academic enterprise through strict routines and a caring collegiality.

In their contribution, **Hege Markussen** and **Andreas Westergren** discuss how an online Master's course designed like a scientific conference facilitated the students' personal growth as well as their socialisation into the research community and practice of the historical study of religion.

Omar Y. Abdelaziz, Mirjam Glessmer and **Ida Sandström** share "lessons that can be learned" from the Agenda 2030 Graduate School, where interdisciplinary research is produced in tandem with doctoral education within the field of sustainability. What are the challenges for doctoral students in an interdisciplinary research field?

A challenge for pedagogues from all disciplines is assessment. In her contribution, **Johanna Bergqvist Rydén** critically analyses the trend of anonymisation of assessments. She calls for a nuanced discussion about advantages and disadvantages of anonymisation from a pedagogical perspective.

The conference was finalised by a panel discussion where the concept of lifelong learning was problematised and viewed from various perspectives. The discussion was led by Sara Håkansson from the Joint Faculties of Humanities and Theology. Cecilia Bjursell, National Centre for Lifelong

PREFACE

Learning, Jönköping University was one of the participants, as well as four persons representing different units at Lund University: Björn Fagerström, Research, Collaboration and Innovation, Mikael Sundström, Edulab, Alva Söderbäck, Lund University Student Union Association and Johan Östling, Centre for the History of Knowledge. **Caroline Cabot** reports from the discussion.

In all, there was a general feeling among the organisers that LUTL-2022 delivered on our core expectations: people and views met, discussions ensued, and critical perspectives mingled with pedagogical inspiration. The volume in your hand does not reflect all aspects of this event, nor could it. It is an artefact, the chief purpose of which is to ignite new discussions, and perhaps to stimulate new pedagogical ventures that in time will generate experiences, ideas, and data for conferences to come.

Lund, November 2023

Sara Andersson & Sara Santesson

Lifelong Learning and Higher Education

Cecilia Bjursell

National Centre for Lifelong Learning, Jönköping University

Those of us who work in higher education have an important task to fulfil, namely, to promote lifelong learning. Consequently, it can be of benefit to understand the concept of ‘lifelong learning’ and the various dimensions it encompasses. Lifelong learning does not merely entail that we can or should engage in learning throughout our lives – it also involves continuously learning new knowledge and skills whether we actively choose to do so or not. As a result, those of us who work in the field of education and learning are tasked with an additional responsibility: to ensure that such learning is rewarding for the individual and contributes to the long-term development of society.

When lifelong learning is demanded in the context of higher education, this signifies a shift from viewing oneself as a post-secondary institution catering to young adults to acting as a partner in the individual’s lifelong learning journey. Establishing a lifelong relationship with an individual who is constantly evolving naturally entails increased complexity but also additional opportunities. As early as twenty years ago, the Swedish National Agency for Higher Education noted that lifelong learning was politically, organizationally, and attitudinally embedded in the Swedish higher education system. Notwithstanding this, the agency also noted that it was perhaps time for a deeper understanding of what lifelong learning truly entails. The difference now compared to then is the increase in the proportion of the population who hold higher education degrees, the

increased demand in the job market for skilled labour, and changes in work methods based on technological advancements. While we can learn from past events, we must also be prepared to observe what is happening in society right now.

This essay introduces the concept of ‘lifelong learning’ and highlights different ways how the concept can be considered. To this end, I pose the following questions: *What has lifelong learning entailed in different time periods? What ideologies guide the direction of learning?* and *How do different perspectives regarding learning relate to each other?* Taken together, answers to these questions can contribute to deepening our understanding of lifelong learning in higher education and thereby enhancing our work with lifelong learning.

Half a Century of Lifelong Learning

‘Lifelong learning’ is a concept that is used in many contexts and in various ways. As a concept, it has existed for over 50 years but remains relevant today. Lifelong learning can be described as taking place:

- throughout a person’s life
- in every context
- in an organized and unorganized manner
- for personal development, for one’s professional life, and enabling one to function as a democratic citizen

In addition to the above general definition, there are more specific ways by which we can discuss lifelong learning. One common approach is to consider lifelong learning as consisting of formal learning (teacher and document-directed), non-formal learning (freely organized), and informal learning (learning that continuously occurs in everyday life). In the context of academic research, lifelong learning is a field that addresses topics such as adult learning and education, intergenerational relationships, older adults learning, citizenship, and learning at the workplace. At the global policy level, personal development, work life, and citizenship are often seen as three pillars of lifelong learning.

In contrast to a general definition of lifelong learning in terms of learning throughout one's life, the concept of 'lifelong learning' is used to inform adult learning in policy and education systems. This is because when the concept of 'lifelong learning' was initially introduced, it aimed to broaden the (somewhat narrow) perspective that education be provided only for *children in a classroom*. Only later did the idea of providing education to adults gain global prominence with the UNESCO report *Learning to be: The world of education today and tomorrow* (Faure, et al., 1972). The group that authored the report comprised world-leading experts in the field of education who argued that the concept of 'lifelong learning' should not merely refer to an educational system but should incorporate an educational philosophy. As early as the 1960s in Sweden, Torsten Husén advocated the idea that, in a rapidly changing society, educational planning must acknowledge the significance of lifelong learning (Husén, 1969). At that time, Sweden held a strong position in the field of education in general and adult education specifically. Subsequent initiatives have therefore been able to take place within a context where established structures for adult learning in various forms have existed.

In discussions of lifelong learning in Swedish national education initiatives, the focus has shifted over time based on (perceived) societal needs. Many may recall the so-called 'kunskapslyftet' [lift in knowledge], which, between 1997 and 2002, was a state initiative for municipal adult education institutions (including Komvux) to allow unemployed adults who lacked the third year of high school to supplement their level of educational attainment so that they could enroll in further studies or gain employment. It was also common during that period for people to study individual school subjects to improve their grades in order to gain admission to desired higher education programs. During the significant influx of refugees in the early 2000s, adult education was primarily focused on educating people who came to Sweden from other countries, ranging from those who were illiterate to those who had already undergone a university education. What was common to these immigrants was their need for Swedish language training. In recent years, technological advancements have created increased competence needs and requirements linked to the ongoing digitalization of society and the workplace. Well-

educated professionals will need upskilling and reskilling if they are to remain relevant in the job market, which, in turn, has placed a focus on lifelong learning in the context of higher education. In higher education, lifelong learning primarily involves creating opportunities for professionals to participate in courses and programs as part of their lifelong learning, but new forms of course delivery are also being discussed.

This brief historical overview situates lifelong learning in a context and demonstrates how current societal developments build upon ideas that have existed for several decades while simultaneously evolving in response to contemporary issues. Scholars and other professionals who lack this background information might approach the issue of lifelong learning as something simple and limited (perhaps merely assuming that it is synonymous with enrolling in an educational course or engaging in professional development), without understanding the associated ideologies, purposes, and relationships to other areas within educational institutions and society at large.

Three Perspectives on Lifelong Learning

Understanding a phenomenon as it develops over time is one way to gain insight into it. Another approach to deepening one's understanding of lifelong learning is to study it from different perspectives. In this section, I present three perspectives on lifelong learning: lifelong learning as (i) policy, (ii) a theoretical framework, and (iii) an educational system (Bjursell, 2020). The meanings attributed to the concept of 'lifelong learning' in social discourse can be distinguished through these three perspectives. However, there is also an evident interplay between political intentions (expressed in policy), pedagogical philosophy (expressed in theoretical frameworks), and practical arrangements (expressed as an educational system). Of these three, it is primarily *lifelong learning as a pedagogical philosophy* that provides us essential insights into the development of individual lifelong learning in the workplace and society.

Lifelong Learning as Policy

Lifelong learning as policy sheds light on how political intentions regarding education have been expressed and how meanings have changed over time. A comprehensive consideration of the individual, the workplace, and citizenship has always been present over the past fifty years, but there has been a shift in policy documents from a humanistic approach with the individual as a person and citizen in the foreground to a capitalist approach where the individual is primarily seen as labour.

It is crucial to understand ideologies because they influence the design of systems and structures, as well as norms and values in society. When global and national institutions adopt concepts and make them their own, the meanings of those concepts can vary depending on the sender. Four global institutions that have been significant in shaping the perception of lifelong learning are the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO), the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), the European Union (EU), and the World Bank (Lee & Friedrich, 2011). These policy actors work with visions for human freedom, but human freedom is interpreted in different ways. According to Lee and Friedrich (2011), two overarching ways of understanding human freedom have emerged in lifelong learning policy, and the global institutions mentioned above tend to lean more towards one or the other in their policy formulation, although they do embrace both. One view of human freedom emphasizes the notion that individuals can earn a living by accepting the rule of capital and its goals for daily being. With regard to education, this perspective could imply that individuals have the opportunity to participate in educational courses that provide the skills demanded by the labour market. The other view regarding human freedom emphasizes the freedom that community members can enjoy as they grow in pursuit of their own goals by promoting popular rule. In the context of education, this may involve developing basic skills to contribute as a democratic citizen to the development of one's community and society.

These two parallel yet conflicting ideologies have been previously described by Kjell Rubenson, a professor specializing in adult education. He argues that the concept of 'lifelong learning' gained prominence to

address challenges arising during the oil crisis, but it also later came to be used as a way to address societal problems (Rubenson, 1996). Rubenson's conclusion is that lifelong learning is framed by two different ways of thinking that are in total conflict with each other. One is the utopian approach that focuses on each individual's development and emancipation (liberation and self-determination), while the other approach is focused on economics (adult education as a tool for the economy).

The utopian perspective elicited a great deal of rhetoric but had no effect on educational planning. This is understandable, as it questioned not only the education system but also the broader social structure and especially the division of labour. (Rubenson, 1996: 43) [translated from the original Swedish]

When the concept of 'lifelong learning' appears in social debates, it is expressed as relating to an individual's potential for change throughout life (the utopian approach). However, the solutions that are often demanded are based on challenges in the workforce (economic rationality). Rubenson also points out that there is a lack of discussion about the varying conditions individuals have to participate in regarding what the education system offers. Factors like a disadvantaged childhood, limited formal education, monotonous jobs, and limited opportunities for political engagement result in an uneven distribution of opportunities to participate in education across the population (Rubenson, 1996: 37). Consequently, the education system reinforces existing social classes and patterns and can thus be seen as a mechanism for dominance and reproduction of power structures. It is problematic that people enjoy widely differing prerequisites for participating in education in a democratic society, and Rubenson concludes by arguing that if stable change and societal development are to be achieved, lifelong learning must be discussed in terms of democracy and agency.

Lifelong Learning as a Theoretical Framework

Viewing lifelong learning as a theoretical framework emphasizes the role of pedagogical philosophy. Talking about *learning* rather than *education* shifts the focus from formal education to how an individual transforms experiences into knowledge, skills, attitudes, and values at all ages throughout their life (Jarvis, 2014). Theories of adult and lifelong learning typically build upon a pedagogical philosophy that places the individual at the centre and argue that this must be the starting point for understanding learning (Illeris, 2017). At the same time, pedagogical theories point out that learning always occurs in relation to a context-specific environment. A recurring theme in many theories is that (i) individuals learn in interaction with their environment, and (ii) the individual's identity process is the core and starting point of learning (Bjursell, 2020). Thus:

1. Learning must be understood holistically and as an interaction between the individual and the environment. In discussions about lifelong learning, there is much talk about what individuals must learn in terms of specific competencies. However, according to theories of lifelong learning, there is a lack of discussion about what engages individuals in learning. Unlike motivation, which often represents external pressure, a discussion of incentives involves a discussion about what creates genuine engagement and interest in the individual.
2. The individual's identity process is central to learning. Theories of lifelong learning suggest that it involves a new understanding of oneself, meaning that learning entails a renegotiation of a person's identity. Learning about, for instance, the digital world is a significant shift for many and is tied to the individual's identity. To understand learning in practice, it is essential to ask what effect participation in learning has on an individual's perception of themselves and how this supports or hinders learning.

These two points can provide insights into why achieving the competency shift that the workforce demands can be challenging. This analysis captures that which creates genuine engagement in people, and, as educators, we

come to understand the internal impact learning has on the individuals who participate in education.

Andragogy, a theory of adult learning, is based on several principles aimed at engaging adults in intentional learning (Knowles, et al., 2005). One of these principles states that adults should be given responsibility for and involvement in the planning of the instruction and the design of the education that they receive. This can occur in various ways, even in higher education settings where a great deal of what is done is governed by regulations and policy documents. The purpose of the course should be clear, but when working with adults in the workforce, there might be much to gain from connecting the education they receive to their broader life tasks. Finally, we note that working adults prefer problem-oriented learning because it allows them to be active and build upon, and perhaps question, their prior experiences.

So, what should the adult individual learn? We live in a so-called 'knowledge society', but paradoxically, there is no room or acceptance for all forms of knowledge. Creating space for wisdom and holistic thinking can be challenging. Wisdom comes from the courage to contemplate life's big questions. These could be questions about the meaning of life or how to live one's life to the fullest. These questions may not necessarily be answered, but we often develop some form of understanding from pondering such questions throughout our life. A relevant question in a knowledge society is: *What happens if we exclude wisdom from our lives?* Wisdom is larger and more complex than a collection of facts, skills, and good judgment. Wisdom involves exploring the meaning of life and understanding what makes us human. If we wish to highlight the human aspect in our world and workplaces, various forms of wisdom are needed. Higher education is a natural arena for such questions and conversations.

Lifelong Learning as an Educational System

Lifelong learning as an educational system can be exemplified by the Swedish system for adult education. The system is a practical arrangement where different institutions provide content at various levels according to a linear model, where one level prepares the student for the next. The

formal education system is currently oriented towards working life and often serves as a tool for individuals who want or need to move within or between professions. In addition to the state-funded education system, numerous actors in the market offer competence development opportunities.

Sweden's state system for adult education includes municipal adult education (Komvux), vocational higher education, universities and colleges, and popular education [folkbildningen]. Komvux provides education at the basic and upper secondary levels, Swedish for immigrants (SFI), and municipal adult education as special education (formerly Särvox). Vocational higher education offers post-secondary vocational training that meets the needs of the workforce and is conducted in close collaboration with employers. Universities and colleges provide education at the post-secondary level and can confer research degrees. Popular education, folk high schools, and study associations adapt their educational offerings to their participants' needs. Folk high schools and study associations play an important role as an alternative to Komvux, but also as institutions for lifelong learning that occurs during and even after the workforce.

In surveys of adult participation in education, Sweden usually ranks high. For example, 35 percent of the adult population aged 25 to 64 indicated that they participated in some form of education in 2021 (Eurostat, 2023). However, this includes not only what takes place in the state-funded system but also all forms of education and competence development for adults. Sweden also has a high level of education in the population. Among individuals aged 25 to 64, 45 percent have pursued further education after upper secondary school, and 30 percent have an education of three years or more after upper secondary school (Statistics Sweden, 2023). The proportion of highly educated individuals has increased from 16 percent in 2000 to 30 percent in 2021 (ibid.).

Universities and colleges are indeed a central institution in many adults' lifelong learning, and if this trend continues, interest in higher education will likely increase. The apparent solution to contribute to lifelong learning in the higher education sector is to offer courses and advanced programs for further education to those with a degree. However, it is worth discussing

how those adults who do not hold a degree from an institution can enter a university or college at a foundational level. It is known that individuals with a high level of education are those who usually seek and take advantage of further education opportunities. But suppose educational institutions only respond to these needs. In that case, they will reinforce a pattern that can contribute to increased societal disparities and a reduced recruitment base for employers in terms of qualified labour.

The Link between the Three Perspectives

Depending on the perspective one adopts, 'lifelong learning' can invoke partially different meanings. While theoretical frameworks and education systems are relatively stable over time, meanings within the domain of *policy* change more frequently since its [policy's] purpose is to address current societal challenges. There has been criticism that policy has resulted in a shift from humanistic ideals to economic maximization, which has led to the idea of lifelong learning being pruned and stripped of its full potential when it is solely focused on 'individuals as a workforce' (Biesta, 2006). If it is true that today's policy is less comprehensive than it was 50 years ago, we may well ask why this is the case. Is it because we lack the capacity for complex and visionary thinking? Or is it naive to believe that a society should rest on the shoulders of democratically competent and responsible citizens? Could it be that the rapid pace of development has created a form of tunnel vision that diminishes our ability to make long-term commitments? One thing that might be more important than finding definitive answers to these questions is to discuss, and even twist and turn, the question of education's role in social development as a whole. Lifelong learning can refer to both individual learning and the institutions that offer educational opportunities. Still, it is unfortunate when lifelong learning is solely equated with a form of education since this merely focuses on the institution rather than on individual learning (Jarvis, 2014). However, the educational institutions that provide education to adults in Sweden have, in various ways, based their approach on contributing to individual personal development and democratic competence. The reason for this may be found in the tradition of adult learning that has existed in Sweden

and is tied to the emergence of lifelong learning and adult learning as ideas and practices due to interest from both politicians and researchers.

By discussing ‘lifelong learning’ as political intentions (expressed in policy), pedagogical philosophy (expressed in theoretical frameworks), and practical arrangements (expressed as an education system), we can gain insight into how the concept is used in different contexts. It is worth noting that while *lifelong learning as a pedagogical philosophy* invokes a holistic view and focuses on the individual’s being and becoming, we cannot ignore the fact that political intentions and practical arrangements are influenced by compromises related to other factors. Nevertheless, it is entirely possible for the theoretical idea to have a stronger connection to policy and the education system. Thus, to understand how lifelong learning can become a reality and have an impact, I argue that it is primarily *lifelong learning as a pedagogical philosophy* that can provide us with important insights. In other words, if we genuinely want to support lifelong learning in society and in the workforce, we must understand each individual’s approach to learning and their motivation to engage in learning.

Lifelong Learning in Higher Education Policy

In the previous sections of this essay, I have demonstrated how the meaning of ‘lifelong learning’ changes over time and how our understanding of the concept depends on the perspective that is applied. This section presents examples of lifelong learning in higher education policy. For a number of years now, there has been significant interest in how institutions of higher learning contribute to an individual’s lifelong learning. This interest has led to the inclusion, among other things, of a provision in the Higher Education Act in 2021 that mandates universities to promote lifelong learning. The background of this interest lies in global policy trends and the skills gap that exists in many industries. This has resulted in national reforms focused on skills supply, including the ‘transition study support’ initiative [omställningsstöd]. This support aims to provide better conditions for adults with work experience to invest in transitioning (into another job) or skills development that is aligned with the job market’s needs. Note that this support provides higher levels of compensation than regular student financial aid.

To promote lifelong learning, the government tasked state-run educational institutions with reviewing their educational offerings in terms of content and delivery methods. The results of the review process have been compiled in a report by the Swedish Higher Education Authority (UKÄ), where it is highlighted that the educational offerings considered relevant include short program courses, parts of programs that can be made accessible, standalone courses designed for professionals, and commissioned education (Bengtsson, Bergenfeldt, & Dahlberg, 2023). The most common examples of short program courses are supplementary pedagogical education (KPU) and various specialized nursing degrees. Master's degrees and master's programs are also emphasized by educational institutions as relevant for professionals. The possibility of making parts of such programs available as standalone courses for professionals was discussed at the majority of institutions, and some have already opened up program courses for professionals. One approach to opening parts of programs is to offer course packages targeted at professionals. The most common form of professional skills development is through standalone courses, and the ongoing development and adaptation of such courses are taking place concerning both their format and content. The discussion around 'microcredentials' has also influenced thoughts on how standalone courses can and should be designed.

In addition to shorter programs, parts of programs, and standalone courses, commissioned education is another option for the education of professionals. The advantage is that they can be tailored to the employer's needs and have their own funding. In UKÄ's report, some institutions have highlighted that commissioned education does not grant the right to transition study support if a transition organization does not order the education. They view further discussion about collaborations with these organizations to develop commissioned education specifically to address their identified needs within their mandate as something positive. At the same time, they point out that educational offerings must continue to be planned for the long term and be built upon the research conducted at the universities. It is also the case that university institutions hold differing views on what is meant by lifelong learning:

Some institutions make a clear distinction between lifelong learning and transition. For example, lifelong learning is interpreted as a deepening or broadening within an existing profession, while transition is more about changing careers. Other institutions use the terms more or less synonymously. (Bengtsson, Bergenfeldt, & Dahlberg, 2023: 39) [translated from the original Swedish]

As mentioned in the introduction to this essay, the concept of ‘lifelong learning’ is not new in the context of higher education. In the report titled *Lifelong Learning as an Idea and Practice in Higher Education*, published by the Swedish National Agency for Higher Education (predecessor to the Swedish Higher Education Authority and the Swedish National Agency for Higher Education), the importance of the university’s role in promoting lifelong learning is discussed. Sigbrit Franke, the former Vice-Chancellor, writes in the report’s preface:

Lifelong learning is a way of approaching education that differs from related concepts such as recurrent education, further education, and continuing education. Lifelong learning places the individual’s learning process throughout their lifetime and in all environments at the centre. The various educational programs offered by universities and colleges already play a role in lifelong learning. People utilize higher education for different purposes at various stages of life. From an international perspective, the Swedish higher education system is unique in combining youth education with lifelong learning. (Askling, Christiansson & Foss-Fridlitzius, 2001) [translated from the original Swedish]

The report from the Swedish National Agency for Higher Education (UKÄ) in 2001 builds upon knowledge from an EU project, which was reported on in the form of a themed issue in a scholarly journal. A similarity with the UKÄ 2023 report (mentioned previously) is that both were developed to provide insights and analyses for changes in higher education based on new demands and societal expectations. In the 2001 report, the authors suggest that in order to truly live up to the ideas represented by lifelong learning, more radical changes to the higher education system may be required. Such changes involve opportunities for various categories of

applicants to study at university, a variety of educational offerings, good access to information and guidance, new ways to structure knowledge and experiences, an active pedagogy for critical knowledge-seeking, validation, and collaboration between different educational actors, as well as flexibility in financing (Askling, Christiansson, & Foss-Fridlitzius, 2001). It is a comprehensive and thorough report that, in some cases, still provides insights into the issues being addressed at educational institutions today.

A central question concerns the relationship between learning and education and how the separation between the learning process and the educational institution highlights the need to shift from (a) an institutional focus to (b) viewing the education system as a support for individual learning. The 2023 report emphasizes the balance between a long-term institutional focus on research and education and adaptations to changes and societal needs. An example of current developments building upon ideas initially expressed over twenty years ago is the above-mentioned reform regarding transition study support, which offers increased flexibility through financing studies for adult professionals seeking further education.

When the two official reports are juxtaposed with each other, it adds depth to the issues that must be addressed by today's educational institution leaders. Not least, it raises thoughts about the importance of having an organizational history, both locally and nationally, thus allowing us to move beyond processes where the wheel is reinvented and, instead, enabling us to critically examine and address the challenges of the present time while letting previous knowledge serve as a stable foundation for this work.

Summary and Tips for Higher Education

So, what can individuals working at universities apply in their efforts to promote lifelong learning for students of all ages? By looking back to the time when lifelong learning was introduced, we see that, for some time, there has been tension between (a) the idea of learning for personal development for the betterment of individuals (humanity) and (b) education for the needs of the workforce. These two perspectives need not (and probably *should not* in today's work-life) be understood as opposites.

A well-educated, independently thinking individual who is capable of analysis and judgment is what many professions require today. However, the fact that these ideas are still presented as opposites could be due to the ideologies underlying global policies that inform lifelong learning, where the function of education varies depending on what is perceived as the overarching goal for societal development.

Approaching lifelong learning from the three perspectives discussed in this essay, namely, in terms of policy, theoretical framework, and educational system, is one way to highlight different aspects of lifelong learning. However, note that these perspectives remain interconnected. Policies stem from international and national policy actors and are materialized in terms of regulations and the structure of educational systems. Sometimes, there are connections to a scientifically developed understanding of adult lifelong learning; and when scientifically developed theories about adult learning align with policy and educational design, there is a greater likelihood that education and learning will yield the desired effects.

Each individual's learning must be at the centre, instead of us viewing education solely as the acquisition of facts and the university solely as a supplier of a workforce. By empowering each student across various dimensions, higher education can continue to be an independent social institution that provides students with a broad platform to build upon. This is how the institution may best contribute to a sustainable, innovative, and democratic society.

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How to Teach Students Who Are Not Mini-Mes (and Don't Want to Be)

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Abstract

We conducted a roundtable discussion at the 2022 Lund University Teaching and Learning conference on “How to teach students who are not mini-mes (and don't want to be)” with the goal of creating the opportunity for teachers to meet, exchange experiences and build coalitions. The focus was on what individual teachers can do both in their own classes and to change the university teaching environment, even without formal leadership roles in the university. We here present a summary of the conversation and the tips gathered at the roundtable.

Introduction

University teaching is often described as either an apprenticeship model, where students strive towards the role modelled by the master (Collins et al., 1988), or as a Community of Practice (Wenger, 1998), where students

become part of a community that is employing a shared practice to further a common domain of interest (Wegner & Nückles, 2015). In engineering education and other disciplines, instruction has changed substantially over the last century, as it moved from training on the job towards much more theoretical university education, where it became dominated by “career academics” over practitioners as teachers (Forster et al., 2017). Yet, teachers often implicitly assume that students will follow in their footsteps, and teaching is thus often tailored more towards creating new career academics than practitioners. Due to social homophily, access as well as success is easiest for students who already have similarities with, and can see themselves becoming like, the teacher, i.e. those students in which the teachers might recognize their younger selves (in the following called “mini-mes”).

But what about students who come from different cultural backgrounds or educational trajectories than their teachers, or don't want to be shaped into the traditional mould of their ‘masters’? In a context of widening participation, internationalisation and lifelong learning, we need to consider that our students may need a variety of teaching and assessment approaches to participate fully, and to show them how they can contribute to our classes. We need to support them in being and becoming who they want to be (Wenger, 1998), whether that is mini-mes or something different and unfamiliar to the principle of social homophily (McPherson et al., 2001).

In the following, we give suggestions for how to address this challenge in two parts, based on two discussion rounds at our roundtable discussion: In how we can design our own instruction, and in how we work to influence the university teaching environment, to become/stay welcoming to a diverse student body.

Designing instruction for a diverse student body

First, we need to recognize that the playing field of academia is by no means level, and that the rules of the game are not obvious to everybody in the same way. Students who don't have access to narratives of “what it is like to study at university” at home or in their networks face challenges

that are hard to imagine for teachers that come from academic families. One of the authors told the story of their first visit to Lund University Library as a new student, when they had to step out again and catch their breath because the experience of entering into this environment was so overwhelming and they felt so strongly that they did not naturally belong there. Another author practically grew up in a university library where both parents were studying at the time, and never experienced a similar awe for academic institutions. And we heard the story of a student group where for some members it was obvious what they should focus their energy on, based on what they saw was relevant to the teacher, while for other members it was impossible to pick up on the teacher's clues because they did not even realize that they could look for clues in order to optimize their efforts in the first place. This illustrates that if we want to create an inclusive university, we need to make sure that we remove thresholds that arise from different starting conditions, for example by explaining terms like "office hours" as the times when we welcome students to talk with us (Felten & Lambert, 2020), and by making sure documents such as the syllabus contain all the relevant information (Gin et al., 2021¹). We need to also be careful to not send messages about "who belongs" through design choices in learning outcomes (Stadler et al., 2000), textbooks (Taylor, 1979), role models (McIntyre et al., 2003), or the physical environment (Cheryan et al., 2009).

We can help by debunking the stereotypes that incoming students may have about what they need to live up to. At the Faculty of Engineering, Lund University, we know that beginner students' self-perception in general does not match up with what they think a stereotypical engineer can do (Soneson & Torstensson, 2013). We can have conversations with students in which we normalize talking about struggles and strategies to overcome them and thereby instill the norms that difficulties are normal, temporal and surmountable (Hammarlund et al., 2022).

Students who feel different from a real or mythical norm may always feel that they don't quite fit in (Hindle, 2021; Islam et al., 2018; Miah, 2019), but can become very competent at covering up their difference,

¹ Find their excellent template here: <https://zenodo.org/record/4317968#.Y8EIaC8wof8>

instead of feeling that it is valued and that they can make different contributions to the university environment and culture. Individual teachers can help here by talking about their personal commitment to hearing different voices, trying to learn about individual experiences (admittedly difficult in large classes), and encouraging engagement with positive reinforcement of students' contributions. This doesn't mean accepting all ideas uncritically, but rather thanking students for contributions and then encouraging them to develop their ideas. Feedback, especially when given to a historically marginalized student, should include a statement of the teacher's high expectations as well as their belief that the student can meet them, so that students act on the feedback and don't assume it's biased and meaningless (Cohen et al., 1999). This can easily be scaled up for large (online) classes through automated personalized feedback (Lim, Atif, Farmer, 2022). Generally, making students feel seen is an important contributor to student success, and it can be achieved even in large classes by means as simple as asking students to put up name tents (Cooper et al., 2017).

Active learning is an approach which “engages students in the process of learning through activities and/or discussion in class, as opposed to passively listening to an expert. It emphasizes higher-order thinking and often involves group work” (Freeman et al., 2014). A metareview of active learning research showed that active learning reduces achievement gaps for underrepresented students (Theobald et al., 2020). Underrepresented students are often historically underserved by higher education, perhaps because they are not mini-mes. Another form of student-to-student activity, peer instruction, better known at Lund University as PASS-SI (Peer-Assisted Supplemental Instruction) has also been shown to have a positive effect on learning outcomes (Dawson et al., 2014).

Heterogeneous student experiences and networks influence academic performance, which might be mitigated by making different opportunities available in the classroom. As well as active learning and peer instruction being effective for learning, in-class work is a relatively easy way for teachers to normalize student-to-student interactions. Creating opportunities for students to meaningfully connect in ways they are comfortable with has impacts beyond their academic achievements – students wish to

communicate with other students (Dyer et al., 2018; Oldfield et al., 2017), and teachers can facilitate that with the use of active learning techniques. For instance, Fjellkner Pihl (2022) has suggested that we can create opportunities for students to meet during classes through teacher-assigned groups, ideally early on and during low-stakes tasks. When assigning groups, we need to consider the learning outcomes and unless “being the only one of your kind” is part of the experience we are aiming for, it is better to cluster underrepresented students in few groups so that they have a critical mass within those groups (Stoddard et al., 2020). Of course, this will not be perfect and can only be based on what we know about students (e.g. gender, study program ...) and intersectional aspects are not considered here. It is also important to demonstrate that all groups have equal value, and not to unintentionally isolate students (Leyerzapf et al, 2017).

It is important that students have opportunities to meet each other outside class as well, and these networks may be even more important than in-class ones (Wilcox et al., 2005). For instance, students who do not live in traditional student accommodation, and who commute to university from a family home, may find it difficult to complete group work outside of class (Alfano et al 2013; Miah, 2019; Thomas and Jones, 2017). They may need active encouragement to make this work, for example by using digital meeting tools, as well as reinforcement of their value to the university community, even if they are not engaged in the same range of activities as students who live on campus.

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HOW TO TEACH STUDENTS WHO ARE NOT MINI-MES

Wilcox, P., Winn, S., & Fyvie-Gauld, M. (2005). "It was nothing to do with the university, it was just the people": the role of social support in the first-year experience of higher education. *Studies in Higher Education*, 30(6), 707–722. <http://www.informaworld.com/10.1080/0307507050034003>

”Vad förväntas av en?” Upplevelser av ”idealstudenten” och mötet med universitetet

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Abstract

Swedish institutions of higher education must promote widening participation. This goal is also expressed in policy documents at Lund University. To accomplish this, teachers at Lund University formed a group to strategically work towards student inclusion. This article reports on an interview study conducted by this group investigating students' experiences and perceptions of entering education at two different programs. The theory of “the ideal student” was used to analyze the interview material. The result indicates the need for clarity and predictability in course layout and teaching.

Inledning

Sedan 1992 har alla högskolor och universitet ett lagstadgat uppdrag att arbeta med breddad rekrytering (Högskolelag 1992). Enligt Universitetskanslersämbetet, UKÄ, är lärosätena positiva till arbetet med breddad rekrytering och de insatser som görs. Men det finns också en rad brister, såsom avsaknad av systematisk uppföljning och oklar ansvarsfördelning (Fröborg et al., 2022a). UKÄ konstaterar dessutom att lärosätena behöver ta ansvar för studenterna ”före, under och efter

studierna” (Fröborg et al., 2022a, s. 45). Tidigare forskning har även problematiserat förgivettaganden som formar arbetet med breddad rekrytering, då dessa tenderar att skapa ett ”vi” och ett ”dom” (Haj Brade, 2014, s. 99), där ”dom” nu ska ges chansen att inkorporeras i en existerande akademisk ordning (Martinsson, 2009, s. 47). Både UKÄ:s rapporter och tidigare forskning understryker därmed, från olika perspektiv, betydelsen av *hur* nya studentgrupper bemöts, vilket ställer krav på undervisningen. Detta visar på vikten av att kombinera arbetet för breddad rekrytering med insatser för inkluderande undervisning, samtidigt som det understryker betydelsen av att beakta maktperspektiv. I denna artikel är det just arbetet med inkluderande undervisning som vi fokuserar på.

Inkluderande undervisning är ett brett begrepp som ges olika betydelser i olika sammanhang. I linje med Nilholm (2006, s. 14) framhåller vi att inkluderande undervisning ska organiseras för en mångfald av studenter, istället för att studenterna ska integreras och anpassas till en befintlig undervisningssituation. Betoningen av ”systemförändring”, och inte ”individ Anpassning”, är därmed utgångspunkten för vår förståelse av inkludering och för vår analys (Nilholm, 2006, s. 15). För att möjliggöra systemförändring bildade vi 2022 *Gruppen för inkluderande undervisning* på Institutionen för kulturvetenskaper, Lunds universitet. Gruppen består av lärare från olika ämnen och program på både kandidat- och masternivå på institutionen. Hittills har gruppen vidtagit åtgärder på kandidatprogrammet i modevetenskap samt masterprogrammet i ABM (arkivvetenskap, biblioteks- och informationsvetenskap respektive museologi). Dessa utbildningar har använts som pilotprojekt för att med relativt små medel försöka möjliggöra undervisningsmiljöer som i högre utsträckning främjar alla studenters lärande. Åtgärderna som har genomförts består av 1) utveckling av kurs- och programintroduktion, 2) nya undervisningsinslag, samt 3) undervisning i akademiskt skrivande. Denna artikel analyserar en mindre intervjustudie som vi genomförde hösten 2022, efter det att åtgärderna genomförts. Intervjustudien genomfördes dock med ett bredare syfte än att kontrollera utfallet av åtgärderna. Intervjuerna fokuserade på att undersöka studenters upplevelser och erfarenheter av att påbörja utbildningen på kandidatprogrammet i modevetenskap respektive masterprogrammet i ABM. På så sätt kan

intervjuerna ses som ett potentiellt underlag för framtida åtgärder. Intervjustudien gjordes som en del av ett större arbete som gruppen bedriver för att skapa mer likvärdiga förutsättningar för alla studenter på de två nämnda programmen.

Syftet med denna artikel är att, med stöd i tidigare forskning, utforska de intervjuade studenternas upplevelser av sin första tid på utbildningen. Vilka svårigheter möter de? I vilka sammanhang blir de stärkta? Utifrån svaren på dessa och andra liknande frågor avser vi att med hjälp av det teoretiska begreppet ”idealstudenten” (Martinsson 2009; Thunborg, Bron & Edström, 2012) analysera hur studenternas erfarenheter och upplevelser kan förstås. Studien är utforskande till sin karaktär och bygger på ett begränsat empiriskt material. Vår avsikt är att rikta ljuset mot frågeställningar snarare än att komma med absoluta svar och lösningar. Därigenom vill vi bidra till konstruktiva reflektioner och diskussioner, samt lyfta exempel på hur inkluderande undervisning kan se ut.

Bakgrund

Såväl internationellt som nationellt är snedrekrytering till högre utbildning en brännande fråga och tillgång till högre utbildning anses vara både en rättvisefråga och en demokratisk fråga (Goastellec, 2022). Fokus riktas också mot olika studentgruppers möjligheter att ta sig igenom utbildningen. Exempelvis pekar forskning från en nordamerikansk kontext på att studenter från hem med låg inkomst och utan högutbildade föräldrar har svårare att klara sig igenom utbildningen (Bassett 2020). Denna forskning visar även att lärosätena ofta fokuserar på studenternas individuella ansvar, istället för att beakta de strukturella och organisatoriska svårigheter som studenterna möter (Bassett, 2020).

I Sverige stadgar högskolelagen sedan tidigt 1990-tal att ”universitet och högskolor i sin verksamhet aktivt ska främja och bredda rekryteringen till högskolan” (Högskolelag 1992, 1 kap. 5§). Trots detta är snedrekryteringen till högre utbildning fortfarande påfallande. Framför allt är det den sociala bakgrunden som spelar roll för om personer söker sig till högre utbildning eller inte, medan kön och nationell bakgrund har mindre betydelse (Fröborg et al., 2022a, s. 9). Denna statistik avspeglas också på Lunds

universitet, där denna studie har genomförts. I UKÄ:s rapport om lärosätenas arbete med breddad rekrytering från 2022 framgår det att 18 procent av nybörjarstudenterna vid Lunds universitet läsåret 2016/2017 hade utländsk bakgrund (Fröborg et al., 2022b). Läsåret därefter, 2017/2018, var drygt hälften av nybörjarstudenterna kvinnor enligt samma studie. 2017/2018 hade också hälften av nybörjarstudenterna högutbildade föräldrar, en siffra som 2019 hade stigit till 60 procent vilket anses vara ”anmärkningsvärt högt” (Fröborg et al., 2022b, s. 137). Dessa siffror skiljer Lunds universitet från exempelvis Göteborgs universitet, där 42 procent av nybörjarstudenterna hade högutbildade föräldrar läsåret 2017/2018 och från Stockholms universitet, där motsvarande siffra var 44 procent (Fröborg et al., 2022b).

Trots ovan nämnda siffror framhåller Lunds universitet breddad rekrytering som en viktig fråga. I Lunds universitets Strategiska plan 2017–2026 presenteras arbetet med breddad rekrytering som ett prioriterat område. LU definierar tre vägar för att nå målet: arbeta för mångfald i utbildningen, motverka social snedrekrytering samt stimulera underrepresenterade grupper att söka sig till universitetet (Lunds universitet, 2023). De två sistnämnda punkterna rör rekrytering av studenter. Den förstnämnda däremot berör i lika hög utsträckning hur undervisningen organiseras och hur de studenter som har rekryterats bemöts, vilket relaterar till inkluderande undervisning. Denna aspekt betonas också i den strategiska handlingsplanen för Institutionen för kulturvetenskaper: ”lika viktigt som själva rekryteringen är hur studenterna bemöts när de väl är på plats, att den undervisning som bedrivs är inkluderande” (Institutionen för kulturvetenskaper, u.å, s. 3). Med andra ord poängterar Lunds universitets styrdokument vikten av breddad rekrytering och inkluderande undervisning. Forskning som Melander (2020) utfört på Samhällsvetenskapliga institutionen vid LU visar också att lärare och stödpersonal håller med om dessa målsättningar. Men nämnda studie visar samtidigt att trots denna enighet så ”är det få lärare som i praktiken prioriterar [arbete för tillgänglighet] när detta krav möter andra krav kopplade till karriärplaneringsstrategier etcetera” (Melander, 2020, s. 46). Därför efterfrågar Melander i sin studie att universitetsledningen tydligt signalerar att pedagogik är en central del av universitetslärares arbete och tar fram en struktur för pedagogisk utveckling.

Tidigare forskning

Vår studie ska betraktas som ett bidrag till en bredare diskussion om inkluderande undervisning som har fått ökad uppmärksamhet i forskningslitteraturen (Lawrie et al., 2017, s. 9). Utvecklingen speglar en situation där inkludering har kommit upp på den globala dagsordningen inom utbildningssektorn (Ainscow, Booth & Dyson, 2006, s. 295). Ainscow, Booth och Dyson pekar exempelvis på att alla högre utbildningsinstitutioner ”should concern themselves with increasing the participation and broad educational achievements of all groups of learners who have historically been marginalized” (ibid.). Ett stort antal studier har också fokuserat på hur olika marginaliserade studentgrupper kan inkluderas i undervisningen på universitetsnivå, ofta genom varianter av ”universal design for learning” (UDL) (se t.ex. Fuller, Bradley & Healey, 2004; Moriña Díez et al., 2015; Riddell et al., 2007). UDL beskrivs som ”a framework to improve and optimize teaching and learning for all people based on scientific insights into how humans learn” (UDL, 2023), och innefattar principer om att undervisning, i så stor utsträckning som möjligt, ska vara flexibel och tillgodose olika sätt att lära. Det innebär bland annat att information ska presenteras på många olika sätt och att man erbjuder en mångfald av vägar för att tillgå och engagera sig i undervisningen (Burgstahler & Cory, 2009; Kumar & Wideman, 2014; Madriaga et al., 2010). Dessutom bör det finnas flexibla examinationsformer, som samtidigt upprätthåller akademisk standard (Lawrie et al., 2017, s. 13). Det finns också rikligt med forskning om hur utbildningssystemet kan ta hänsyn till faktorer så som etnicitet, religion, kön och socio-ekonomisk status (se t.ex. Devlin et al., 2012; Ladson-Billings, 2014). Ovan nämnda forskning är heterogen, inte minst eftersom begreppet inkluderande undervisning inte alltid definieras. Forskningen rymmer allt från representationsproblematik i kurslitteratur till strategier för tillgänglig undervisning för marginaliserade grupper, samt universitetspolitiska frågor om rekrytering och bedömningsförfaranden.

I en omfattande översiktsstudie av forskning om inkluderande undervisning föreslår Hockings (2010, s. 1) en definition av inkluderande undervisning: ”inclusive learning and teaching in higher education refers to the ways in which pedagogy, curricula and assessment are designed to

engage students in learning that is meaningful, relevant, and accessible to all”. Denna definition relaterar till vår studie då den möjliggör ett bredare perspektiv, vilket vi menar är fruktbart. Snarare än att fokusera på att inkludera specifika marginaliserade grupper så är vi intresserade av hur universitetet generellt kan göras tillgängligt för alla, vilket också är i linje med Nilholms perspektiv (2006, s. 14) som nämns i introduktionen. Därmed lutar vi oss mot studier som i likhet med Thomas och May (2010) understryker flera dimensioner av mångfald och konstaterar att alla studenter kommer med skilda förutsättningar, upplevelser och bakgrund. Det går därför inte att hitta en ”norm” eller normalstudent.

Hockings rapport om inkluderande undervisning (2010) som nämns ovan är en av de mest grundliga översiktsstudierna över fältet, och denna har senare blivit uppdaterad av Lawrie et al. (2017). Båda studierna framför att satsningar på inkludering inom universitetsutbildningar kan kategoriseras på fyra olika nivåer: fokus på inkluderande kursdesign (*inclusive curriculum design*), inkluderande undervisning (*inclusive curriculum delivery*), inkluderande bedömningar (*inclusive assessment*) och satsningar på inkludering på institutionell nivå (*institutional commitment and management*) (Lawrie et al., 2017, s. 11). Vår studie är primärt inriktad på det som dessa studier definierar som inkluderande undervisning, med fokus på vad den enskilde läraren kan göra när undervisningen utförs, men i slutändan är alla nivåerna relevanta och gränserna mellan kategorierna flytande; hur undervisningen genomförs beror exempelvis i hög grad på hur kursen är designad.

Utöver en diskussion om vem som inkluderas så fokuserar tidigare forskning på vem som inkluderar, eller vem som bör stå för inkluderingen. Många studier placerar den enskilde läraren i en nyckelroll (jmf. t.ex. Moriña Díez, López Gavira & Molina, 2015; Thomas & Heath, 2014), som den aktör som kan göra skillnad ”på golvet” i klassrummet. Senare forskning har dock börjat fokusera på inkludering på alla nivåer, från institutionsnivå, ledning och administration, till studenter och studentorganisationer. Lawrie och kollegor (2017) visar också att det generellt har vuxit fram en mer nyanserad syn på vikten av samspelet mellan olika aktörer i implementeringen av inkluderande undervisning.

På en institutionell nivå framhålls betydelsen av att implementera en ”systemic culture of inclusivity” (Lawrie et al., 2017, s. 16 ; se också Moríña Díez, López Gavira & Molina, 2015). UDL framhåller att det är viktigt med såväl ett uppifrån och ned-perspektiv som ett nedifrån och upp-perspektiv i arbetet med att implementera inkluderande undervisning. Initiativet kan dessutom komma från enskilda lärare likväl som från ledning och administration. Det förekommer också i allt högre utsträckning initiativ på institutionsnivå, inte minst i Sverige, vilket LU:s strategiska mål samt Institutionen för kulturvetenskapers mål om breddad rekrytering och inkluderande undervisning är exempel på. Detta ligger i linje med vår studie som tar avstamp i Lunds universitets generella strategi om breddad rekrytering, men som också grundas i initiativ från lärolaget och närmare bestämt Gruppen för inkluderande undervisning. I denna artikel diskuterar vi bland annat konkreta aktiviteter för inkludering i klassrummet. Men medan mycket av den forskning som refereras ovan är fokuserad på lärarperspektivet så bidrar vi till fältet genom att närma oss frågan utifrån studenternas perspektiv och deras upplevelser av inkludering i undervisningen.

Metod

I denna studie diskuterar och analyserar vi det material vi har producerat genom att intervjua studenter från kandidatprogrammet i modevetenskap och masterprogrammet i ABM. Intervjuerna genomfördes cirka två månader efter terminsstart hösten 2022.

Intervjuer

Intervjudeltagare rekryterades genom att lärare som har författat denna artikel berättade om studien på kandidatprogrammet i modevetenskap och masterprogrammet i ABM och i samband med det uppgav kontaktinformation så att intresserade studenter kunde anmäla sig att delta. Samtliga studenter som visade intresse för att delta intervjuades sedan. Lärare från modevetenskap genomförde intervjuer med studenter från masterprogrammet i ABM, och vice versa. Detta för att skapa förutsättningar för att studenterna skulle känna sig fria att uttrycka sig

också om konkreta händelser och situationer, utan att behöva oroa sig för eventuella negativa konsekvenser.

Intervjuerna var semistrukturerade och följde en intervjuguide som innehöll frågor om studenternas bakgrund, utbildningsnivå, mottagandet vid universitetet, tankar kring förkunskapskrav, vad som hade kunnat göras annorlunda vid kurs- och programintroduktionerna och första tiden vid lärosätet, examinationer, situationer där studenterna känt sig obekväma, vem de vänder sig till med frågor samt om något tas för givet. Tre studenter från kandidatprogrammet och fyra studenter vid masterprogrammet deltog i intervjuerna. Intervjun med studenter på masterprogrammet genomfördes i grupp i universitetets lokaler i Lund. På kandidatprogrammet genomfördes två intervjuer; en enskild intervju och en intervju med två studenter. Båda genomfördes med hjälp av videokonferensverktyget Zoom. Intervjuerna varade mellan trettio och nittio minuter. Samtliga intervjuer spelades in och transkriberades sedan av samma person som genomförde intervjuerna.

Intervjuerna analyserades med tematisk innehållsanalys i vilken teman skapas utifrån en närläsning av det transkriberade materialet (Drisko & Maschi, 2015). Tematiseringen bygger på en identifiering av återkommande mönster mellan de olika intervjuerna. Trots att studenterna studerar på olika nivåer – kandidat och master – så går det att urskilja likheter i studenternas upplevelser och erfarenheter. Följande teman identifierades i analysen: *Förväntningar* och *Kollektiv stress*. I vår analys har vi tagit avstamp i teorier som kontextualiserar såväl inkludering som förväntningar och normer. Mer specifikt utgår vi ifrån Ahmeds (2017) teorier som problematiserar privilegier samt teorier om ”idealstudenten” (jmf. Martinsson, 2009). Genom detta angreppssätt så möjliggörs en diskussion om såväl formella som informella förväntningar inom universitetet, samt hur dessa relaterar till studenters upplevelser av sin första tid vid utbildningarna.

Teori

I den högskolepedagogiska forskningen är undersökningar av ”idealstudenten” ett vanligt sätt att försöka förstå vilka studenter som särskilt välkomnas till universitet. ”Idealstudenten” avser att fånga in och förklara de förväntningar som finns på de studenter som är önskvärda eller bäst passar in i akademisk utbildning. I ett svenskt sammanhang har Lena Martinsson undersökt universitetens arbete med breddad rekrytering ur ett klassperspektiv. Martinsson framhåller att det i Högskoleverkets rapport efter utredningen om breddad rekrytering 2007 skapats en idé om att de som tidigare inte valt att utbilda sig nu ska tilltalas som och ges positionen som potentiella akademiker. De ska ”inkorporeras i den rådande dominanta eller hegemoniska ordningen” och i förlängningen bli en del av medelklassen (Martinsson, 2009, s. 47). Den ideala studenten blir därmed någon som redan har kunskap om universitetet eller som har möjlighet att omstöpas efter de rådande idealen. I en annan svensk studie baserad på intervjuer med studenter från Karolinska institutet, Kungliga tekniska högskolan och Stockholms universitet undersöks hur studenter försöker navigera i vad som är en ”good student” (Thunborg, Bron & Edström, 2012). Studenterna med arbetarklassbakgrund kände sig som ”outsiders” då de exempelvis upplevde att de hade svårt att förstå akademiska sociala koder, att hantera konkurrensen mellan studenter och att förhålla sig till ”academic prestige”. Studenterna som intervjuades uppgav att de på egen hand varit tvungna att navigera i vad universitetsstudier innebär och att de var främmande inför de strategier som studenter med studievan bakgrund hade med sig (Thunborg, Bron & Edström, 2012, s. 29). Denna upplevelse kan relateras till Ahmeds påpekande om att privilegier är energisparande eftersom det inte krävs lika stor ansträngning att passa in (Ahmed, 2017, s. 141). Studier av idealstudenter har också gjorts utifrån hur lärarna formulerar sina önskemål om vilka studenter som de helst vill ha på sina kurser.

I analysen nedan använder vi begreppet ”idealstudenten” för att utforska studenternas upplevelser av sin första tid på utbildningen, vilken präglas av hur deras förväntningar och föreställningar möter universitetets och undervisningens både informella och formella struktur.

Resultat

Mötet med universitet

I vår studie är terminens två första månader i fokus. Mötet med universitet kan te sig överväldigande för dem som inte känner tillhörighet eller har kunskap om hur universitetsstudier fungerar. En av modestudenterna uttryckte det som att hen kände sig som ”en rädd kyckling första dagen”. Ytterligare en student som inlett sina studier på modeprogrammet beskrev det som att det var ”supernervöst”, ”läskigt” och ”stressigt” att ta till sig all information. I intervjuerna med studenterna framträdde framför allt två områden som studenterna ville diskutera extra mycket: förväntningar och stress. Det är dessa två teman som vi tagit fasta på i analysen.

”Vad förväntas av en?” – hur otydlighet skapar oro

Ett framträdande tema i intervjuerna med både kandidat- och masterstudenter var den osäkerhet studenterna upplevde kring förväntningar. Flera av dem efterfrågade större tydlighet och transparens i olika sammanhang. Den bristande tydligheten relaterar ofta till konkreta aspekter av undervisningen, såsom vilka förberedelser som ska göras inför undervisningstillfället, hur examinationen är organiserad eller hur hög studietakten är. Exempelvis beskriver en kandidatstudent hur den snabba takten under introduktionsveckan på programmet resulterar i en känsla av osäkerhet: ”Bara pang på. Därför kändes det mycket, ingen tid att smälta det”. Trots att denna student säger att det oftast var tydlig information, uppstod det osäkerhet när det var dags att skriva hemtenta. Studenten, som har studerat tidigare, hade en klar bild av att hemtentor skrivs under en vecka där två till tre frågor ska besvaras. När ”hemtenta” den här gången innebar att ge kortare svar på frågor under några timmar så skapade det en oro som gjorde att studenten kände: ”Vad förväntas av en?” Det uppstod en krock mellan tidigare erfarenheter av hemtentor och rådande upplägg på utbildningen, särskilt gällande tidsomfånget för besvarande av frågor.

Även på masterprogrammet orsakar uppgifter som ges av läraren känslor av osäkerhet på grund av upplevd otydlighet. De intervjuade berättar om

hur det exempelvis funnits olika uppfattningar om vad de förväntas hinna med under ett visst seminarium. En av studenterna på masterprogrammet i ABM menar att det måste få vara ”good enough liksom” och förtydligar: ”Det är ju ingen masteruppsats som ska skrivas på de två timmarna liksom eller nobeltankar som ska kläckas på den tiden utan mer bara få perspektiv på det här [ämnet]”.

Ett annat exempel på när oro uppstår utifrån en upplevd otydlighet är när två studenter på kandidatnivå beskriver hur de under den första föreläsningen, som sammanföll med första dagen på terminen, fick veta att det förväntades att de skulle ha läst ett antal texter inför undervisningstillfället. Studenterna hade inte fått den informationen och blev stressade, även om det framkom att de kunde läsa texterna i efterhand. En av studenterna, utan tidigare erfarenhet av högre studier, menar att det var särskilt svårt för dem som är nya i universitetsmiljön: ”För det var nästan att redan första dagen skulle vi ha läst sidor i en bok och vi hade ju ingen koll på det. Vi hade knappt inlogg till Canvas [lärpplattformen].”

Ovanstående exempel visar hur osäkerhet kring undervisningens praktiska upplägg också påverkar de intervjuades upplevelse av studiesituationen i stort, vilket nedanstående utsaga understryker:

.../men det vi inte har förstått är nog; vad är förväntningarna, är det ovanligt intensivt eller kommer det alltid vara så här? Det hade behövts en hint om det, många har varit överväldigade, det är min känsla och det har nog inte framgått riktigt. (Student ABM)

Frågan om förväntningar kan också leda till att studenterna ifrågasätter sig själva och sin förmåga. När studenterna blir osäkra på vad de ska göra, eller hur de ska utföra en uppgift, kan det generera oro för att inte leva upp till de förväntningar som de föreställer sig att läraren, eller undervisningssammanhanget i stort, har på dem. Dessa förväntningar kan i sin tur relateras till föreställningar om idealstudenten.

En av masterstudenterna berättar om ett tillfälle som orsakade särskilt stark oro. Vid detta tillfälle hade studenterna blivit instruerade att läsa en viss text inför ett undervisningstillfälle för att förbereda sig. Texten var svårbegriplig för studenten i fråga vilket resulterade i stress och känslor av

otillräcklighet: “herregud, jag förstår ingenting, förväntas det?” (Student ABM). Den intervjuades berättelse om hur känslan av att inte leva upp till de föreställda förväntningarna skapar stress är illustrativ. Utifrån instruktionen att läsa en viss artikel inför ett undervisningstillfälle skapas en oro över att inte leva upp till de egenskaper som idealstudenten antas besitta när texten uppfattas som svår. Samtidigt är beskrivningen belysande för att den visar på vägar ut ur oron. Studenten berättar nämligen att efter diskussion med studiekamrater insåg hen att ”det är en ganska svår text och många tycker det och sen när jag började läsa annan litteratur så insåg jag att jag förstår ganska mycket ändå [medhåll från övriga intervjuade]”.

En liknande erfarenhet framkommer i intervjuerna med modestudenterna där en intervjuperson berättar om upplevelsen av att ha missat viktig information. Studenten berättar att hen inför första salstentan hade panik och var rädd för vad som skulle hända om hen inte blev godkänd. En kursare hade då sagt: ”Men gör en omtenta om du inte klarar det”. Studenten som intervjuas beskriver hur hen blev förvånad och lättad och tänkte: ”Omtenta? Jag kan göra omtenta?”. Hen hade inte fått information om, eller missat informationen, att det erbjuds omtentor.

I ovanstående exempel från det analyserade intervjumaterialet framkommer en tydlig vilja hos studenterna att göra rätt och passa in. De kan uppleva osäkerhet kring förväntningar och strävar därför efter bekräftelse på att de är ”på rätt väg” eller uppfattar situationen eller informationen ”rätt”, samtidigt som de berättar om hur de upplever större trygghet när de får veta att andra studenter har liknande svårigheter, till exempel med att förstå kurslitteraturen. Förhållningssättet till idealstudenten är komplext och rymmer flera dimensioner. Det inkluderar både att förhålla sig till egna, kanske oreflekterade, bilder av idealstudenten, och att förhålla sig till den idealstudent som de föreställer sig att omgivningen (såväl lärare som andra studenter) har. Strävan efter att passa in i bilden av idealstudenten innefattar dessutom både ett arbete för att försöka förstå förväntningarna och att leva upp till dessa förväntningar. Detta är frågor vi återkommer till i diskussionen.

Kollektiv stress – konsekvenserna av förväntningarna

En av grunderna som lyfts fram för att studenterna ska kunna ta sig an studierna och förstå ramarna för dem är alltså tydlighet. Studenterna efterfrågar instruktioner om uppgifter, läsanvisningar och framför allt transparens kring de förväntningar som finns på deras prestationer. När förväntningarna diskuterades under intervjun med masterstudenterna menade en student att det också fanns annat som bidrog till oros känslorna: ”jag tror att mycket handlar om den här stressen alla känner och som sprider sig. Hur mycket tydligare går det att göra för det ligger hos människan också” (Student ABM). ABM-studenterna lyfter särskilt fram ett tillfälle som framkallade stress och oro när de skulle arbeta i mindre grupper. Uppgiften gick ut på att inventera vilka kompetenser som fanns samlade i gruppen, utifrån tidigare både formella och informella erfarenheter av allt från studier och yrkesliv till intressen. En av studenterna menar att ”det var en god tanke att det ska vara gemenskapsbyggande men det byggde upp en del av känslan av att prestera direkt från start” (Student ABM). Läraren hade poängterat att studenterna skulle se det som en lättisam övning och att de skulle göra något kul av diskussionen. Ändå var det, enligt studenten, svårt att inte ta det på för stort allvar.

Trots att läraren har berättat om sin avsikt med övningen och förklarat vilken ambitionsnivå som förväntades misstolkas alltså övningen. En annan av ABM-studenterna tolkade uppgiften just som att syftet var att lära känna varandra, men menar att uppgiften ändå resulterade i prestationskrav. I stället för att övningen gav studenterna en chans att lära känna varandra hamnade fokus på presentationen av uppgiften, som skulle göras i helgrupp. Gruppen lärde därför inte känna varandra och det uppstod missförstånd. Enligt en av studenterna blev uppgiften dessutom ett irritationsmoment eftersom gruppen inte kunde enas om hur de skulle ta sig an den: ”vi tolkade nog det lite olika och kände oj nu är det master! Upp till bevis”.

Detta tillfälle vittnar om studenternas önskan att leva upp till lärarnas förväntningar. I förlängningen går det att se hur studenterna försöker navigera i vad som förväntas av en idealstudent. Studenterna hade ingen tidigare erfarenhet av masterstudier och deras försök att leva upp till den förväntade nivån i högre studier gjorde att uppgiften kändes överväldigande.

En förklaring till att studenterna blev så stressade fann en av studenterna i att sammansättningen av människor som är väldigt ambitiösa gör att kraven på prestation ökar. Istället för att tillsammans tänka att de ska kunna ta sig igenom studierna ”på ett människovänligt sätt” menar studenten (Student ABM) att många kände att ”gud det här är viktigaste kursen för att förstå allt som kommer sen, jag måste klara det”. Vidare menar studenten att det resulterat i att stressen spred sig och att de inte lyckats ta sig ur den tillsammans. En annan av ABM-studenterna lyfter upp att tydligare instruktioner till uppgifterna under första kursen hade varit önskvärt, men framhåller samtidigt att det ofta är studenterna ”själva som blåste upp det mer än läraren”. Studenterna från masterprogrammet var eniga om att stressnivån ökat under första delkursen och en av dem påtalar att hen själv inte känt sig särskilt stressad inledningsvis, men att hen varit tvungen att sätta gränser gentemot sina medstudenter kring vissa samtalsämnen för att inte ta till sig av deras stress. Förmågan att kunna sätta dessa gränser tillskriver studenten sin arbetslivserfarenhet men beskriver samtidigt att hen ”har full förståelse för att folk kan tycka att det kan kännas lite läskigt att göra det [sätta gränser] och då tar man till sig den stressen och så kanske man har egen stress och då kan det bli svårt att hantera det” (Student ABM).

Den kollektiva stressen är alltså något som studenterna måste förhålla sig till oavsett om de själva känt sig stressade när de påbörjade sina studier eller inte. Oron och stressen över att prestera och att ”göra rätt” ledde till konflikter inom studentgruppen och fick konsekvenser för studenternas mående. Eftersom de hade olika uppfattning om hur man når upp till den föreställda bilden av ”idealstudenten” och vilka egenskaper som utmärkte en sådan uppstod förvirring.

Inför den första tentan på kandidatprogrammet i modevetenskap hade studenterna fått se exempeltentor från tidigare år, vilket inledningsvis hade ingett trygghet. Men hemtentan som delades ut hade delvis ett annat format och upplägg än exempeltentan. Svaren på frågorna förväntades vara längre och studenterna kände sig vilseledda av den exempeltenta som de fått ta del av. ”När vi träffades sedan var det många som var missnöjda med sin insats för de hann inte skriva det de tänkt skriva och hann inte kolla igenom” berättar en av modestudenterna. Även här är det synligt hur det

som från lärarens sida uppfattades som en hjälp inför tentan gjorde studenterna stressade. Det uppstod därmed en krock mellan lärarens intentioner och studenternas mottagande.

I studenternas berättelser ovan framträder en bild av hur de försöker förhålla sig till lärarnas förväntningar, andra studenters uppfattning om utbildningen och den egna oron. När studenter tolkar uppgifterna olika kan en kollektiv stress uppstå som enligt studenternas utsago kan vara svår att bryta. Såväl på kandidatprogrammet som masterprogrammet så förhåller sig studenterna till olika föreställningar om den ideala studenten. Studenternas skilda uppfattningar om hur en ”idealstudent” ska hantera studierna bidrar dock till att de har ännu svårare att navigera i de instruktioner som lärarna ger och därmed i de förväntningar som finns på dem.

Avslutande diskussion

Vår studie visar att ett inkluderande universitet präglad av mångfald bör sträva efter tydlighet redan från studenternas första dag på universitetet, inte minst gällande förväntningar och krav. Detta oavsett om utbildningen ges på kandidat- eller masternivå. Utgångspunkten bör vara att alla studenter får samma förutsättningar att följa med i undervisningen på universitetsnivå, med de krav och förväntningar som existerar inom högre utbildning.

Vi fokuserar i denna artikel på studenternas perspektiv och upplevelser. Våra resultat handlar därför främst om hur den enskilde läraren kan göra i klassrummet, i mötet med studenter, det vill säga när undervisningen ges. Vi intervjuade samtliga studenter som anmälde intresse för att delta i studien, och vi har inte undersökt hur den enskildas bakgrund eller förutsättningar påverkar upplevelsen av att påbörja respektive utbildning. I intervjuerna framkom det dock att det var en heterogen grupp och en viktig slutsats är att frågan om inkluderande undervisning är lika viktig på masternivå som på kandidatnivå.

Samtidigt pekar vår studie, i linje med Hockings (2010), på vikten av att arbeta med inkludering på andra nivåer – det vill säga också i kursdesign och från lednings- och administrationsnivå. Arbetet med inkludering

kräver resurser för den undervisande läraren och kan därför konkurrera med andra uppgifter (Melander, 2020). Att skapa tydlighet och transparenta strukturer tar tid, både i den förberedande designen av kursen och sedan i återkommande diskussioner och reflektioner. Den enskilda läraren måste därför ges reella möjligheter att arbeta med detta. Dessutom bör den enskilda läraren erbjudas kompetensutveckling. Dessa aspekter berör ledningsnivån.

Sammanfattningsvis så har vår studie bidragit med ett studentperspektiv på frågan om hur inkluderande undervisning i högre utbildning kan se ut. I framtida studier önskar vi bygga vidare på detta och utforska fler perspektiv, så som lärares syn på inkludering, inkludering i ljuset av olika tekniska utvecklingar (distansutbildning, AI etc.), och inkludering utifrån ett administrations- och ledningsperspektiv.

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The Traveller, the Miner and the Gardener: Metaphors for Making Teaching and Learning a Meaningful Process

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Abstract

Engaging students in active participation and collaborative learning is an important pedagogical component of teaching and learning in higher education. Teachers use a variety of activities to engage students, such as interactive lectures, presentations, group activities, and projects. A metaphorical understanding of the teaching-learning process may help in the implementation of innovative and ground-up constructivist pedagogical approaches. A ground-up (or bottom-up) constructivist approach helps and engages the learners in constructing their understanding as they observe, experience and interact with their surroundings. Using my anthropological research background, I will present three metaphors that can make the teaching-learning process more meaningful, ground-up, and accommodating to students' diverse learning styles. A traveller metaphor presents the learner as a traveller to both familiar and unknown places. A miner metaphor describes the learner as a miner who digs deep to get the desired minerals. A gardener metaphor represents a gardener who cares for the garden from sowing to reaping. The gardener is also responsible for maintaining the garden by trimming and eliminating weeds. All three metaphors are about discovering, uncovering and cultivating knowledge.

The interesting thing about these metaphors is that the teacher and students are on the same journey together. In this short paper, I will reflect on these metaphors through the lens of a qualitative researcher (anthropologist) and relate them to the teaching-learning process.

Introduction

During my first ethnographic research on the social value of the child and childcare belief practices, there were three methodological challenges that I faced (Qamar, 2019, 2021): First, how to explore the social and cultural world of the community I was studying. Second, how to find and understand the knowledge that exists in the multi-layered social and cultural environment. And third, how to interpret and contextualise the knowledge according to the research questions. The three strategies that I used are known as the traveller, the miner and the gardener metaphors. By metaphor, I intend to describe the understanding of one concept employing another while connecting the underlying meaning relevant to the under-study process. For example, as a traveller, I explored the social and cultural lives of the participants during the fieldwork through participant observation. As a miner, I used unstructured in-depth interviews to understand the participants' experiences and the meanings and perspectives they attach to their experiences. As a gardener, I elaborated and interpreted the knowledge through follow-up interviews and observations emphasising comprehensive and interconnected information about the phenomenon.

As a qualitative researcher and using my anthropological research background, I am inspired by traveller, miner and gardener metaphors to lead teaching and learning as a meaningful process. The three metaphors are usually used in qualitative research (particularly ethnography) to conduct an in-depth investigation. Kvale and Brinkmann (2009) describe the role of the interviewer in qualitative research as a traveller and a miner. As a traveller, the interviewer explores the unknown world along with the interviewee. As a miner, the interviewer discovers the hidden meanings as an outsider. Both metaphors help the interviewer to understand the nature and value of knowledge and production and co-production of meaning through mining and travelling simultaneously. In my study to investigate the value of the child and healthcare belief practices, ethnographic

fieldwork was used to explore the social and cultural context of the study area. I accessed and created connections with the people who were key participants (interviewees) in my study. The pre-interview meetings opened a co-exploration of village life with the research participants. They accompanied me to visit places like shrines, mosques, healthcare centres, and schools. This exposure (as a traveller) to their social world provided me with an insight into the inquiry that I was going to conduct in my interviews. Later, I used my previous knowledge and knowledge gained during fieldwork in the interviews, during which I dug down into the meanings of the specific social phenomenon (related to belief practices) that was my primary research target. The gardener metaphor is about asking the right question (as planting the seeds), probing sensibly to 'cultivate' the information/knowledge gained through questions, and 'fostering' the growth of information during the process (Salmons, 2014). While during the fieldwork I also grasped the contextual information and complex and sensitive areas of my investigation, I used this knowledge to formulate right and contextually appropriate questions. I focused on the questions that can help me find the broad description of the phenomenon and help the participants voice their experiences in their narratives. Hence, as a gardener I formulate and used questions and verbal and non-verbal probing to enhance the conversational depth and flow of information.

In the context of learning, learners should be engaged in first-hand experience to explore and discover knowledge. A participant-centred approach is always central to the philosophy of acquiring and disseminating knowledge. Students participate in academic activities as individuals with diverse learning styles and previous knowledge backgrounds. To bring them together to achieve the intended learning outcomes, it is crucial to initiate a collaborative teaching-learning process (see Hardy, Edwards-Groves and Rönnerman, 2012) that can engage students by utilising their differences as learning resources. Engaging students in active participation and collaborative learning is an important pedagogical component of teaching and learning in higher education. Teachers use a variety of activities to engage students, such as interactive lectures, presentations, group activities and projects. A metaphorical understanding of the teaching-learning process may help in the implementation of innovative and ground-up pedagogical approaches. A ground-up (or bottom-up)

constructivist approach helps and engages the learners in constructing their understanding as they observe, experience and interact with their surroundings. Primarily based on Vygotsky's social constructivism, ground-up learning takes place through learner-environment interaction where the learner is actively engaged in meaning-making and constructing knowledge. Hence, the quality of learning emerges from the first-hand experiences and perceptions of the learners (Michelle et al., 2017; Pritchard & Woollard, 2010; Skedsmo & Huber, 2019).

Regarding the above-mentioned metaphors, the teaching and learning process includes the experience of learning through the direct engagement of the learners with exposure, discovery and production of knowledge. In this short article, I present these metaphors that can make the teaching-learning process more meaningful, ground-up and accommodating of students' diverse learning styles.

The Traveller: Learner as Explorer

Travelling theory is one of the personal theories of teaching given by Fox (1983) that Fox refers to as a developed theory, closely related to the learning process. According to this theory, education is a journey that learners take through diverse landscapes under the guidance of teachers. Whereas teachers as guides are familiar with the journey, they are also explorers to find something new along with learners on this journey (Fox, 1983; Said, 2000). In this connection, a traveller metaphor presents the learner as a traveller to both familiar and unknown places. The learners should explore and bridge the 'known' and 'unknown' through discovery and direct exposure. The learners should expose themselves to the unknown while using the information and knowledge that is known to them. Here, the three skills and/or characteristics that prepare the learners to travel through the (known and unknown) knowledge, are: being adventurous, curious and a keen observer. The teachers make sure to ignite and satisfy the learners' curiosity as travel guides who accompany the travellers without interfering with their self-directed journey to the unknown. The teachers help the learners to understand where they are now and where they are going. For example, when I was teaching an introduction to anthropology

course for undergraduate students, one of the group activities was to create photo essays about different cultures, each presenting something unique to them. It was a kind of virtual tour to other cultures and societies, where they had never been before. Students searched the internet for images and came up with several fascinating belief practices that they found in these cultures. The interesting thing about their virtual travel stories was their descriptions where they were able to find ‘surprising’ connections between their culture and other cultures either in contrast or in similarity. As a teacher, I ignited their curiosity and helped them to read symbols in different cultures that gave meaning to their virtual travel experience and translated it into knowledge.

The Miner: Learner as Discoverer

A miner metaphor describes the learner as a miner who digs deep to get the desired minerals; yet the miner may obtain more than desired during the process. Miners, when digging to find the minerals, occasionally find other things that they are not targeting in their search, yet it may be an important discovery. In other words, the targeted or non-targeted ‘out of sight’ knowledge buried deep needs to be unearthed. “The miner should dig the uncontaminated nuggets of knowledge that may be understood as objective real data (information/knowledge) or subjective authentic meanings (directly derived from the knowledge)” (Kvale and Brinkmann, 2009: 47-48). What does a miner need to dig out the minerals? The answer is the tools and an understanding of which tool is used for what and how. It means that learners must acquire the skills to identify and use the tools for digging deep. Here the curiosity of the learners is as imperative as it was described in the metaphor of the traveller, because the intrinsic motivation should be driven by the learners’ interest in the knowledge that is out of sight. The teachers join them by providing help and guidance to uncover the knowledge, help them to focus on their goals, and facilitate sources and resources to dig deep and extract the knowledge.

Again, reflecting on my teaching experience, one objective of teaching is to help students learn the skills/knowledge that prepares them for ‘how to do things’. For example, while teaching gender psychology, the key

question was ‘how do we do gender’. One way to understand this complex social phenomenon was to discover gender and its meaning as embedded in its socio-cultural context. I asked students to watch relevant movies and documentaries and write commentaries. Later, I engaged these students in group discussions where they conceptualised gender as an unfolding process in their commentaries. This activity helped them to dig out the social realities and their meanings.

The Gardener: Learner as Cultivator

According to the gardener theory, proposed by Fox, teaching is about the growth and production of knowledge that teachers help and encourage students to cultivate and retain. The teacher is a gardener, and the student’s mind is a garden (covered with concepts). Here the gardener’s job is to facilitate the flexible growth of these concepts (Fox, 1983). While Fox’s gardener theory is more relevant to learners’ personal growth and development, I use the gardener metaphor to shape learners’ knowledge and skills as they advance in the learning process. Unlike the traveller and miner metaphors, where the teacher was a co-participant (guide, facilitator, resource person), a gardener metaphor represents the teacher as a gardener who cares for the development from sowing to reaping. The gardener is also responsible for maintaining the garden by trimming and eliminating weeds. Here, eliminating weeds does not mean interfering with the freedom and flexibility of the learners’ conceptualisation; instead, it is about helping learners to unlearn or hold back something that may interfere with their new learning. Hence, the teacher (as a gardener) guides and trains the students to cultivate and manage their knowledge and skills. For example, with reference to my previous example of teaching gender psychology, it was my job to help students to bracket their presumptions and biases while conceptualising gender and doing gender in different cultures. Hence, I encouraged them to enlist their perceptions about gender and record their experiences of doing gender so that they can relate to their exploration of gender in other cultures (as mentioned in learner as a miner).

Discussion

The social aspect of frame learning is an interactive process in which learning occurs through interaction, participation and collaboration (Lin, 2015). To make teaching and learning a meaningful process, it is important to engage learners in active participation and social interaction. The learners should be able to contextualise their understanding in relatively complex scenarios. In this article, I present three phases of teaching and learning, that is to explore (the unknown), to discover (the hidden), and to cultivate (the knowledge). I situate these three interconnected phases in the metaphorical frames of traveller, miner and gardener. These metaphorical descriptions (as described above) demonstrate the position and relationship of teachers and learners in the teaching-learning process. After studying these three metaphors (as presented in qualitative research, see Kvale and Brinkmann, 2009; Salmons, 2014), and from my experience as a qualitative researcher, I see that a learner and a qualitative researcher seek knowledge that is comprised of facts and objective and subjective realities. The objectives and purposes may be different; however, the process to learn about the required knowledge shares similarities in terms of systematic learning that situates the journey from known to unknown, familiar to unfamiliar, and obvious to hidden knowledge. Hence, the pathway to acquiring knowledge leads the learning process through exploration, discovery and realisation of knowledge.

Competence, autonomy and relatedness are the three psychological needs that Ryan and Deci (2000) mentioned as facilitating social development and well-being. In this connection, the three metaphors (the traveller, the miner and the gardener) are the social roles of the teachers and learners that engage the learners in fulfilling these psychological needs. All three metaphors are interconnected and engage learners in discovering, uncovering and cultivating knowledge. The interesting thing about these metaphors is that the teacher and students are on the same 'journey' together, which also yields the co-construction of knowledge. The meaning-making process is also shared by the teachers and the learners, as both are interested in unfolding the stories of their journeys together.

Conclusion

Thinking about my qualitative research experience and teaching philosophy, my pragmatic approach toward teaching and learning is focused on creating a participatory environment where teachers and learners collaborate and interact together. Following a ground-up constructivist pedagogical approach to learning can help in the co-construction of knowledge. Fox's (1983) theories of teaching (travelling and growing) and metaphorical frames discussed in this paper situate learning as a social process embedded in experiences and practices. The three metaphors, if practiced in pedagogical strategies, can allow students to contribute to their learning by doing. In a nutshell, knowledge, practice and theory may be interconnected by inspiring learners through engaging them in experiential and observational exploration of knowledge. Hence, the three metaphors discussed in this paper may provide a conceptual road map to plan learning as a meaningful process.

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Kortfilmer om kärnbegrepp och tröskelbegrepp i undervisning – exemplet grammatik

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Abstract

Courses in Swedish grammar are considered difficult among many university students, and the number of failed exams is often high. This article reports a pedagogical developmental project with the aim to design and produce short, instructional films to be used in grammar courses to facilitate the students' reaching of the course objectives. The films deal with *core concepts* and *threshold concepts*, both of which correspond to critical aspects of grammatical knowledge. The design and implementation of the films are discussed in relation to teaching methods such as *blended learning*, as well as to students' thoughts in course evaluations.

Inledning

På de flesta utbildningsnivåer finns vissa kurser och innehållsmoment som studenter anser vara svårare än andra. Inom programutbildningar till svensklärare, liksom på fristående kurser i svenska, lyfter många studenter fram grammatik eller svenska språkets struktur som ett sådant innehåll som är särskilt svårt att lära sig. Trots att studenterna ofta säger sig vara

nöjda med såväl undervisningen som sina egna insatser har grammatikkurserna traditionellt en hög andel studenter som inte klarar tentamen vid första försöket. En förhållandevis stor grupp studenter verkar endast ha ett fragmentariskt eller associativt förhållningssätt till grammatik, på så sätt att de är förtrogna med en del termer och kan vissa delar mer eller mindre ytligt, men de saknar både djupare förståelse och systematik inom området (Josefsson & Lundin, 2017). Därför finns det en efterfrågan på undervisningsmetoder och arbetssätt som kan bidra till att studenterna befäster sina kunskaper i grammatik och att fler uppfyller lärandemålen.

I den här artikeln redogör vi för ett genomfört pedagogiskt utvecklingsprojekt vars mål var att utforma och producera korta undervisningsfilmer för användning på universitetskurser i grammatik eller svenska språkets struktur.¹ Filmerna behandlar centrala aspekter av kursernas innehåll i form av kärnbegrepp och tröskelbegrepp (se nedan), och de riktar sig i första hand till grammatikkurser inom lärarutbildning i svenska. Eftersom merparten av filmernas innehåll är relevant för andra grammatikkurser i svenska kan de också användas i andra utbildningar. Projektet hade också som uttalat syfte att bidra till utvecklingen av digital undervisning inom högre utbildning, något som efterfrågas i bland annat i rapporter från Digitaliseringskommissionen (2014:13, s. 188) och Lunds universitet (Lindberg-Sand et al., 2014). Digitala verktyg i form av filmat undervisningsmaterial har i flera studier visat sig ha potential att höja studenters engagemang för studierna (Castro, 2019; Phillips & Trainor, 2014) liksom att bidra till att de på ett bättre och djupare sätt tar till sig kunskapsinnehållet (Al-Sammarai et al., 2019; McNally et al., 2016).

I den följande redogörelsen diskuterar vi dels frågor knutna till planeringen och utformningen av filmerna, närmare bestämt vilken del av kursinnehållet som är lämpligt att presentera som filmer och hur långa filmerna bör vara, dels frågor knutna till användningen i undervisningen, som hur filmerna presenteras för studenterna. I metastudier har också flera av dessa frågor framhållits som centrala utmaningar i arbetet med *flipped classroom* (se Al-Sammarai et al., 2019) och *blended learning* (se Castro,

¹ Projektet finansierades av grundutbildningsnämnden vid fakulteterna för humaniora och teologi vid Lunds universitet. Det genomfördes, implementerades och utvärderades under 2021.

2019; Hrastinski, 2019). De diskussioner som förs utgår dels från våra egna erfarenheter av att ha producerat filmerna och använt dem i undervisning, dels från studenters svar i samband med kursutvärderingar.

Filmernas utformning

Urvalet till filmernas innehåll tar sin utgångspunkt i Josefsson & Lundins (2017, 2018) undersökning av kärnbegrepp och tröskelbegrepp i kurser i svensk grammatik. I analyser av underkända studentsvar på tentamen och gruppintervjuer med studenter identifierar Josefsson & Lundin (2017, 2018) ett antal moment och begrepp i inläringen av grammatik, vilka framstår som särskilt svåra för studenter att förstå och samtidigt är avgörande om de ska kunna tillägna sig kunskaperna i grammatik på det fördjupade och systematiska sätt som kursmålen kräver. De centrala moment som Josefsson & Lundin (2017, 2018) lyfter fram utgörs dels av *kärnbegrepp* knutna till kursens innehåll och förmågan att analysera svenska språket, dels av s.k. *tröskelbegrepp*, som är avgörande för studentens möjlighet att gå vidare i sitt lärande.

Fenomenet tröskelbegrepp har blivit mycket uppmärksammat inom den didaktiska forskningen. Termen introducerades av Perkins (1999) och har senare utvecklats av Meyer & Land (2003, 2006), men själva tanken är inte ny; snarare sätter termen namn på en erfarenhet som delas av många lärare och studenter, nämligen att det finns vissa centrala begrepp, moment och tankesätt som en individ måste förstå på djupet för att kunna gå vidare i sitt lärande. Meyer & Land (2003) liknar tröskelbegrepp vid portaler; när man väl har förstått ett tröskelbegrepp öppnar sig helt nya perspektiv och sätt att tänka som man tidigare helt enkelt inte var förmögen att se eller förstå. När man väl har kommit över tröskeln kan man heller inte föreställa sig hur det var att inte förstå.

Perkins (2008), i sin tur, diskuterar tröskelbegrepp i relation till tre olika typer av kunskap, eller snarare djup av kunskap: *possessive*, *performative* och *proactive knowledge*. Den proaktiva kunskapen gör det möjligt för individen att applicera eller transformera kunskapen på nya företeelser i helt nya fält. Proaktiv kunskap ger blick eller ett nytt seende för när kunskap blir applicerbar i ett nytt kunskapsområde, och Perkins (2008) identifierar den

typen av kunskap med vad som i andra teoretiska ramverk samlas under begreppet *deep approaches*, så t.ex. i Marton & Säljö (1976), Säljö (1979) och Marton et al. (1997). Enligt Säljö (1979) karakteriseras *deep approaches* av att individen just ser saker och ting på ett annorlunda sätt.

De tre tröskelbegrepp i studier av svensk grammatik som Josefsson & Lundin (2017, 2018) identifierar är

- svårigheter att skilja mellan betydelse, form och funktion,
- svårigheter att skilja mellan en linjär och en hierarkisk dimension i språket samt
- svårigheter att korrekt avgränsa satser och fraser.

Inom ramen för projektet har sju grammatikfilmer producerats. Tre av filmerna fokuserar tröskelbegrepp, nämligen *Betydelse, form och funktion*, *Språkets linjära och hierarkiska struktur* och *Frasindelning*. Därtill behandlar fyra filmer kärnbegrepp, det vill säga olika typer av grundläggande begrepp eller fenomen som studenterna behöver förstå för att kunna tillgodogöra sig kursens innehåll, göra analyser av svenskt språk och behärska ett grammatiskt metaspråk. Ämnena för dessa filmer är *Satsschemat*, *Ordföljdsvariation*, *Bisatser* och *Meningar*. När det gäller den grammatiska beskrivningen och terminologin ansluter filmerna till dem i Lundins läromedel *Tala om språk. Grammatik för lärarstuderande* (2017) och *Språkets byggstenar. Grammatik och textarbete för lärarstuderande F-6* (2019).

Målet med filmerna var att beskriva de olika begreppen på ett kärnfullt sätt som ansluter till kurslitteraturen och som kompletterar den övriga undervisningen av fysiska föreläsningar och läsning på egen hand. Filmerna i vårt projekt är mellan fyra och sju minuter långa, och de är utformade så att en lärare talar ömsom i bild, ömsom över en bild med språkliga exempel. Några av fördelarna med undervisningsfilmer, särskilt när de behandlar abstrakta och komplexa fenomen, är nämligen att innehållet kan presenteras för studenterna i flera olika modaliteter, vilket kan fördjupa inläringen (se Phillips & Trainor, 2014), och att studenterna kan återkomma till innehållet flera gånger. Al-Sammarai et al. (2019, s. 1041) framhåller dock att längden på förinspelat videomaterial och därmed också tiden som materialet tar i anspråk har stor betydelse för i vilken grad studenterna

använder dem. Av den anledningen har vi strävat efter att hålla filmerna korta.

Filmerna i undervisning

Under höstterminen 2021 användes filmerna i undervisningen på två introduktionskurser i svensk grammatik: *Svenska språkets struktur*, 7,5 hp, på ämneslärarutbildningen och *Grammatik och semantik i ett översättningsperspektiv*, 7,5 hp, på kandidatutbildningen i översättning. Båda kurserna använder Lundins (2017) läromedel i grammatik och har ett tydligare fokus mot att applicera kunskaperna i praktiskt textarbete än fristående kurser i grammatik. I övrigt skiljer sig kurserna på flera sätt: studentgruppen på ämneslärarutbildningen är betydligt större och studenterna generellt yngre, och de har oftast mindre högskoleerfarenhet än studenterna på översättarutbildningen, som redan har studerat åtminstone 60 hp i sitt källspråk. Dessutom omfattar kursen på översättarutbildningen endast fem lärarledda lektionstillfällen medan kursen på lärarutbildningen omfattar ca tretton lektioner.

Filmerna synliggjordes på båda kurser via kursplattformen Canvas men på delvis olika sätt och i olika ordning beroende på det olika antalet undervisningstillfällen. På kursen inom lärarutbildningen synliggjordes filmerna efter hand momenten berördes i undervisningen; på kursen inom översättarutbildningen presenterades flera filmer åt gången. I båda fallen introduceras filmerna för studenterna som en möjlighet till repetition och fördjupning efter lektionerna och inför den avslutande tentamen. Eftersom närvaro vid lektioner och aktivt deltagande vid seminarier har stor betydelse för studenternas chanser att klara en grammatikkurs (se Josefsson & Lundin, 2017, s. 31), underströks det också att filmerna inte på något vis ersatte kurslitteraturen eller lektionerna. På det sättet ligger den pedagogiska tanken med grammatikfilmerna närmare hur digitalt material används inom *blended learning* än inom *flipped classroom*. I det senare arbetssättet fungerar ofta videoklipp som obligatoriskt förberedelsematerial inför lektioner, för att möjliggöra mer fördjupade diskussioner eller laborationer under lektionstid (t.ex. Al-Sammarai et al., 2019). När målet är att studenter tillägnar sig kärnbegrepp och tröskelbegrepp menar vi att det

finns större anledning att låta filmerna utgöra komplement till den övriga undervisning och möjlighet till repetition (jfr beskrivningen av *blended learning* i t.ex. Hrastinski, 2019).

Studenternas tankar

Efter kurserna har studenterna fått möjlighet att besvara frågor om filmerna såväl skriftligt som muntligt. Frågorna syftade till att utvärdera filmernas innehåll, deras placering i kursflödet och deras betydelse för lärandet. De skriftliga utvärderingarna besvarades av ungefär hälften av studenterna på båda kurserna, totalt 22 studenter.

Det allmänna intrycket är att filmerna har varit mycket uppskattade bland studenterna. Samtliga svarande är överens om att filmernas teman är mycket väl valda, och de har särskilt uppskattat att samma termer och begrepp återkommer med ungefär samma förklaringar i filmerna, på föreläsningarna och i kurslitteraturen. Flera studenter lyfter fram att innehållet i kursen är abstrakt och att de möjligheter till repetition som filmerna erbjöd har underlättat förståelsen. I det sammanhanget understryker också flera studenter att filmernas korta format på runt fem minuter har varit mycket bra, eftersom det gör det lättare att titta på dem flera gånger (se Al-Sammaraie et al., 2019, s. 1040f; McNally et al., 2016, s. 293). Inom kursen inom översättarutbildningen, där filmerna gjordes tillgängliga via Canvas Studio-funktion, visar användningsstatistiken att samtliga studenter har spelat upp filmerna, och i enkätsvaren på båda kurserna anger flera studenter att de sett filmerna mer än en gång.

Generellt anser studenterna att filmerna har underlättat deras lärande på kurserna. Flera svarande framhäver att deras förståelse gynnats av att grammatikinnehållet presenterats i både text, tal och bild (se Phillips & Trainor, 2014). En student beskriver sig just som en ”gehörsperson” som anser sig bättre gynnas i sin inlärning av att höra ett budskap än att tillägna sig det genom läsning. Liksom flera andra har denna student uppskattat att filmerna har växlat mellan att filma läraren och filma en bild med skrivna exempel som läraren talar över. Studentens resonemang ansluter till den diskussion som Boström & Josefsson (2006) för om hur olika lärstilar gynnas av olika grammatikdidaktiska metoder. Tanken om lärstilar

utgår från att det hos varje individ finns ett sinne som är starkast och har bäst möjlighet att ta till sig ett nytt innehåll. Lärstilar som fenomen och utgångspunkt för undervisningsmetodik har dock blivit ifrågasatt för att sakna vetenskapligt stöd, i synnerhet när det leder till långtgående individuella anpassningar (t.ex. Rogowsky et al., 2015); snarare verkar all inläring gynnas när undervisningen aktiverar flera sinnen (t.ex. Coffield et al., 2004, s. 118–121). På de aktuella grammatikkurserna används undervisningsmetoder som relaterar till hörseln, synen och känslan i form av föreläsningar, läsning av kurslitteratur samt grammatiska laborationer och övningar (se Boström & Josefsson, 2006). Här gör alltså undervisningsfilmerna det möjligt att få delar av kursens innehåll förklarar för sig i ljud och bild flera gånger.

Till sist har studenterna fått svara på frågan om hur filmerna bäst introduceras på kurserna för att gynna deras lärande. Här lyfter många studenter fram filmernas potential att å ena sidan bidra med förståelse inför lektioner, å andra sidan erbjuda möjlighet till repetition efter lektioner och inför den avslutande tentamen. McNally et al. (2016) visar att lektionsinnehåll som endast presenteras som förinspelat videomaterial kan vara en vattendelare bland studenter; även om det inte tycks ge någon direkt effekt på inläringen blir vissa studenter mer motiverade att delta i undervisningen och andra mindre motiverade. För de här grammatikkursernas syfte verkar det ge bäst effekt att erbjuda filmerna som en frivillig, extra resurs för studenterna att återkomma till vid behov under kursens gång.²

Avslutande diskussion

En naturlig fråga är om grammatikfilmerna har bidragit till en bättre genomströmning. Vi har inte haft möjlighet – eller för avsikt – att koppla studenternas tentamensresultat till i vilken utsträckning de har valt att se filmerna; vi har inte gjort några försök att undersöka sambanden. Det

² När filmerna användes på lärarutbildningskursen höstenminen 2022 lades samtliga ut vid kursstart, med tydliga instruktioner om att studenterna fick välja om de ville se filmerna före eller efter lektionerna (eller både och). Dessutom framgick det explicit när i kursflödet som varje film passade in innehållsligt.

betyder att vi alltså inte hittills har kunnat se eller visa huruvida filmerna haft någon direkt påverkan på studenternas lärande och måluppfyllelse. Om man endast ser på antalet studenter som klarade tentan vid första försöket hösten 2020, innan filmerna producerats, och hösten 2021 finns det ingen nämnvärd skillnad i resultaten. Men vårt primära mål med filmerna var att stötta studenterna i deras lärandeprocess, förståelse och kunskapsinhämtning, och det är inte nödvändigtvis direkt samma sak som att de presterar bättre på tentan. Oavsett tentaresultatet visar de positiva utvärderingarna av filmerna att studenterna har haft användning av dem och att de har stöttat studenterna i deras lärande. Dessutom fokuserar innehållet i filmerna på några specifika delar av kursinnehållet, och för att klara tentamen måste studenterna ha tagit till sig innehållet även i de delar som inte är kopplade till filmer. Att koppla utfallet av tentamen direkt till filmerna och föreställa sig en direkt och positiv koppling mellan dessa menar vi alltså inte är det centrala.

Med det upplägg vi har valt är det viktigt att understryka att filmerna aldrig kan ersätta föreläsningarna eller är tänkta att göra så; filmerna är avsiktligt korta för att erbjuda förklarande sammanfattningar som studenterna orkar se flera gånger. Av det skälet är det också viktigt att samma termer och begrepp återkommer och förklaras på samma sätt, även om de valda språkexemplen naturligtvis varierar. Däremot kan filmerna om tröskelbegreppen – som alltså behandlar omvittnat svåra fenomen – användas *även* som diskussionsunderlag för undervisning via *flipped classroom*. Eftersom tröskelbegreppen tar tid för studenterna att appropriera och internalisera (se Säljö, 2014) kan de filmer som är kopplade specifikt till dessa även fungera som uppgifter som studenterna förbereder innan de kommer till den campusförlagda undervisningen.

Vilka delar av kursinnehållet som lämpar sig för undervisningsfilmer beror på om man vill låta filmerna komplettera campusförlagda föreläsningar, som i vårt fall, eller om man vill låta filmerna vara utgångspunkt för undervisning i ett *flipped classroom*-upplägg eller en helt distansförlagd utbildning. Marton et al. (2004) använder begreppen *lärandeobjekt* och *kritiska aspekter* för att identifiera vad studenterna i första hand behöver urskilja och bearbeta för sitt kunskapsbyggande. Lärandeobjekten motsvarar de avgränsade innehållsliga delar som står i

fokus för undervisningen, medan kritiska aspekter utgör särskilt utmanande moment som potentiellt försvårar inläringen och som läraren därför behöver fokusera på under inlärningsprocessen. För de aktuella kurserna i grammatik hade vi redan identifierat lärandeobjekten som exempelvis frasbegreppet och satslösning, och dessa har vi behandlat som kärnbegrepp. De kritiska aspekterna har vi identifierat som så kallade tröskelbegrepp (Josefsson & Lundin 2017). Att behärska tröskelbegreppen kräver i sin tur att studenterna behärskar kärnbegreppen, som därmed också blev naturliga föremål för grammatikfilmerna.

Grammatikfilmerna kan även diskuteras utifrån eventuell överförbarhet till andra kurser och ämnen. Tanken att försöka bryta ner ett teoretiskt svärbemästrat innehåll och låta studenterna få ta del av filmer om specifika delar, en bit i taget, och dessutom få möjlighet att se filmerna vid flera tillfällen menar vi är generellt överförbar. Att erbjuda specifikt riktade filmer kan också ses som en ökad individualisering av undervisningen utifrån varje students förkunskaper och förutsättningar, just eftersom studenterna kan se filmerna ett valfritt antal gånger.

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Stärkta förutsättningar för vetenskapligt förhållningssätt inom fysioterapi

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Abstract

Clinical practice should be evidence based, where the scientific evidence is of great importance. To be able to apply scientific evidence, knowledge and understanding is required for the interpretation and evaluation of the performance and results of scientific studies. To encourage physiotherapist students to assimilate and apply the understanding of scientific studies and results, both during the education and for future clinical practice, a knowledge platform containing e-lectures and literature has been built, which all students have access to throughout the program.

Förutsättningar för evidensbaserad klinisk praktik

Att utöva evidensbaserad vård/praktik (EBP) är och ska vara en strävan inom alla vårdyrken. Till skillnad från de behandlingssituationer som följer uttalade och utformade vårdprogram arbetar fysioterapeuter ofta i situationer där de själva tar ansvar för val och beslut av diagnostisering, behandling och uppföljning. Detta ökar ansvaret för att kunna ta välgrundade evidensbaserade beslut. De senaste åren har evidensgrunden lyfts och debatterats, både internationellt (Meakins, 2016) och nationellt (Nordin, 2019) för flera vanligt tillämpade fysioterapeutiska behandlings-

metoder. Rösterna och argumenten har varit många och motstridiga. För att kunna ta ställning baserad på faktiskt vetenskapligt underlag i frågan krävs tillräcklig förståelse och kunskap för att kunna tolka, och även kritiskt värdera, befintlig vetenskap. En förutsättning för att kunna utföra en kritisk värdering och granskning av vetenskapliga resultat är kunskap om och förståelse för vetenskaplig metodik och dess utförande, tolkning, svagheter och styrkor.

Det finns begränsad evidens gällande fysioterapeuters faktiska tillämpning av EBP, men inställning och perspektiv på utövandet har undersökts i flera studier. Det finns indikationer på att fysioterapeuter ofta inte tillämpar EBP-processen fullt ut, och hellre inhämtar kunskap från kollegor eller sociala nätverk än från den vetenskapliga litteraturen (Condon et al., 2016). En svensk rapport angav att 80 % av besvarande fysioterapeuter betraktade Google som det viktigaste kunskapsstödet (Chruzander & Fridén, 2022). I en kvalitativ studie av svenska fysioterapeuter tog deltagarna upp att kunskap om vetenskaplig metod, inklusive förmågan till kritisk/analytisk granskning, förbättrar förutsättningarna för att kliniskt tillämpa forskningsresultat (Dannapfel et al., 2013). En kvantitativ studie av svenska fysioterapeuters attityd, kunskap och inställning till EBP visade att ca 90 % ansåg att EBP är nödvändigt i det kliniska utövandet, och 83 % instämde i att evidensen är behjälplig i beslutstagande. Samtidigt ansåg 90 % att de ville lära sig eller förbättra de förmågor som krävs för att kunna kliniskt tillämpa EBP (Bernhardsson et al., 2014). Av de deltagande fysioterapeuterna läste 44 % färre än 2 vetenskapliga artiklar per månad. I en annan svensk studie angav 44 % av deltagarna att de hade läst vetenskapliga artiklar ett fåtal gånger under senaste året (Nilsagård & Lohse, 2010). Tidsbrist, brist på rådgivare, bristande kunskaper och handledares bristande intresse angavs vara primära hinder för utövande av EBP. Detta bekräftas även i en review som inkluderar kvantitativa studier där hinder för tillämpning av EBP som oftast angavs var tidsbrist, bristande support från arbetsgivaren, brist på såväl resurser som intresse men även oförmåga att förstå statistik (da Silva et al., 2015). I flertalet internationella studier har fysioterapeuter angivit otillräcklig undervisning och kunskap inom vetenskaplig metodik som en av de främsta barriärerna för utövande av EBP (Alshehri et al., 2017; Diermayr

et al., 2015; Ramirez-Velez et al., 2015; Silva et al., 2015). Dessa resultat belyser vikten av undervisning och lärandemoment som uppfyller behovet av kunskap om, och förutsättningar för, utövande av EBP. Bristande kunskap om forskningsmetodik, statistik och tillgängliggörande av litteratur har också angivits som hinder för utveckling av EBP bland studenter inom hälsovetenskap och fysioterapi (Nair et al., 2021; Snibsoer et al., 2018). Att involvera aktiv tillämpning av vetenskapliga aspekter och perspektiv, även vid moment inom kurser som inte är vetenskaps/metodikkurser, har visats inspirera det vetenskapliga tänkandet hos studenter (Dannapfel et al., 2013; Eckel et al., 2019; Rodriguez et al., 2019) Det finns således starka indikationer på att förutsättningarna för tillämpning av ett vetenskapligt förhållningssätt behöver stärkas, genom att större fokus och bättre förutsättningar skapas för att kunskap och förståelse för vetenskaplig metod ska grundläggas och befastas under utbildningen. Detta kommer senare att kunna användas som grund för tillämpningen av EBP.

Vetenskaplig metodik inom utbildningsprogram

På fysioterapeutprogrammet vid Lunds universitet ligger kursen "Vetenskaplig metod" (FYPA55, 7,5 hp) på termin 5, och följs därefter av kandidatuppsatskurs. Det är vanligt förekommande inom akademiska program att den vetenskapliga metodiken inkluderas i en kurs som kopplar till genomförande av examensarbete, och därmed ligger i en senare del av programmet. Kunskapen och förståelsen för både tolkning och värdering av vetenskapliga resultat har dock klart större betydelse än enbart för genomförande av eget projekt/upsats. Det är något som behöver implementeras och tillämnas genom hela programmet, dels för att den ska kunna tillämpas i inhämtandet av kunskap genom programmet, dels för att kunskapen ska hinna befastas och utvecklas inför kommande evidensbaserat kliniskt utövande.

Jag har genom åren genomfört och ansvarat för flera olika metodkurser på andra program. I kursutvärderingarna för kurser som ligger en bit in i programmet framkommer ibland synpunkten att studenterna önskat att kursen hade kommit tidigare i programmet så att de hade kunnat ta med

sig och tillämpa kunskaperna de inhämtat genom hela programmet. Jag har även erfarenhet av kortare undervisningsmoment tidigt i program. Jag upplever där att även om introduktionen till ämnet vetenskap är väldigt viktig, och avsikten primärt är att väcka intresse och medvetenhet om vetenskapens betydelse och metodologiska aspekter så är studenterna primärt inriktade på den ämnesutbildning de startat. Att lägga in en hel omfattande metodkurs så tidigt i programmet hade sannolikt riskerat att orsaka bristande motivation och oförmåga att sätta metodiken i ett relevant sammanhang, och större delar av kursens innehåll hade riskerat att inte kunna tas tillvara på ett optimalt sätt.

Att ha enstaka korta introducerande moment är förvisso värdefullt, men den kunskapen kan inte förväntas befästas på ett tillräckligt sätt. Detta är ett ämne som upplevs utmanande för många studenter, och det behöver både repeteras och kopplas till moment som upplevs motiverade för studenterna. Vid ett masterprogram inleddes programmet av en grundläggande metodkurs. En avgörande aspekt för detta program var att ytterligare metodkurser (fördjupning i kvalitativ metod samt statistik) återkom senare under programmet. För mig, som hållt i både den inledande metodkursen och senare statistikkurs, har det varit en fördel att kunna introducera begrepp tidigt under programmet, som jag sedan kunnat återkomma till och fördjupa under senare kurser. Det har också varit en fördel att redan initialt kunna försöka väcka intresse för, och insikt i, betydelsen av kunskap och förståelse för vetenskapen tidigt i programmet. Det är också något som lyfts fram som positivt av studenter i kursutvärderingen. I grundutbildningsprogram finns däremot sällan (eller aldrig) utrymme att inkludera flera olika metodkurser under programmet, även om en progression av förståelsen för vetenskap behöver börja byggas upp redan från början av programmet. Både tidsutrymme och budget kan begränsa omfattningen av denna undervisning.

Inom fysioterapeutprogrammet, där den vetenskapliga metodikkursen redan sedan före pandemin är distansbaserad och huvudsakligen bygger på självstudier och inlämningsuppgifter, har jag upplevt att det behövs en grund för inhämtandet av kunskap både inför och under metodikkursen. I självreflektioner som lämnas in veckovis under kursen framkommer ofta att en stor del av studenterna fortfarande inför denna kurs på T5 känner

sig obekanta med att både söka, läsa och framförallt kritiskt granska vetenskapliga artiklar. Även om merparten upplever att deras kunskapsnivå höjs påtagligt under kursen, finns det fortfarande mycket att utveckla framförallt vad gäller den kritiska granskningen, värderingen, och tolkningen av studiers genomförande och resultat. Det är också viktigt att få en övergripande och sammanhängande syn på den vetenskapliga metodiken och dess resultat. Att självständigt inhämta denna kunskap enbart via litteratur kan vara utmanande, och försvåra förutsättningen både för övergripande och fördjupad förståelse. Introduktion, vidare utveckling och tillämpning av förståelsen för vetenskaplig metodik är något som med fördel skulle kunna genomföras som en progression genom hela programmet för att stärka förutsättningarna för ett vetenskapligt förhållningssätt under både utbildning och kommande kliniskt yrkesutövande.

I princip samtliga kurser under programmet inkluderar redan moment med någon grad av koppling till vetenskaplig metodik och tolkning. Utifrån diskussion med kursansvariga/lärare framkommer dock att genomförandet ofta visar på att kunskapen och förståelsen för det vetenskapliga genomförandet är begränsad. Till exempel kan valet av en artikel inför en uppgift med definierad studiedesign, t ex presentation av resultaten från en randomiserad kontrollerad studie (RCT) eller epidemiologisk/observationsstudie, upplevas problematisk då förståelsen för olika studiedesigner inte är tillräcklig för att studenten ska kunna avgöra vilken design som tillämpats i publicerade studier. Att även kunna värdera och granska studiens upplägg och genomförande är något som förutsätter betydligt mer kunskap och förståelse för den vetenskapliga metodiken. Att kunna tolka kvantitativa studiers resultat förutsätter även någon form av grundläggande förståelse för statistik, vilket merparten av studenter inte har om inte någon form av introduktion och förklaring har erbjudits. En kort introduktion om studiedesign hålls förvisso vid en föreläsning på termin ett, men det räcker vanligen inte med enbart något enstaka tillfälle med förklaring för att kunskap och förståelse faktiskt ska befastas.

Genom att på ett lämpligt sätt initiera och tidigarelägga en grundläggande kunskap gällande vetenskaplig metod och -tillämpning inom programmet

skulle förutsättningarna för att studenterna ska kunna utveckla ett kritiskt och värderande förhållningssätt öka. Detta är något som behövs inte bara inför uppsatskursen, utan även under hela utbildningen som komplement till kurslitteratur. Framförallt är det också något som behöver grundläggas och utvecklas inför framtida klinisk tillämpning och implementering av EBP.

Kunskapsplattform för stärkta förutsättningar för vetenskapligt förhållningssätt

För att ge en stärkande grund för förståelse och tillämpning av vetenskapliga studier och resultat hos fysioterapeutstudenter har jag därför byggt upp en kunskapsplattform på Canvas, som samtliga studenter har tillgång till under hela programmet. Innehållet består huvudsakligen av e-föreläsningar som jag utformat och spelat in, som tar upp olika aspekter av den vetenskapliga metodiken (inklusive statistik), på olika nivåer. Föreläsningarna är riktade till studenterna och anpassade utifrån en introduktion på basal nivå, och sedan vidare med mer ingående innehåll om de olika delarna.

Det primära fokuset riktas mot förståelse och tolkning av vetenskapen och dess resultat. Syftet är att studenterna genom hela programmet ska kunna själva ta del av, och hänvisas till olika delar av denna yta. Tillgången syftar till att ge en grund för vidare inhämtande av kunskap, och tolkning och teoretisk tillämpning av den vetenskapliga evidensen i olika delmoment vid programmets kurser. Inför till exempel ett moment med granskning av vetenskaplig artikel kan studenten ta del av en föreläsning om övergripande studiedesign, mer ingående om den aktuella studiedesignen, samt förslag till ”checkpoints” vid tolkningen och granskningen/värderingen av studien och dess resultat. Det finns också föreläsningar som tar upp statistiken på olika nivå: från basal tolkning till genomgång av olika test. Föreläsningarna syftar också till att stärka studenternas förmåga att själva lära mer om metodologin via litteratur. Plattformen innehåller även länkar till tillgänglig litteratur inom ämnet i form av artiklar och tillgängliga böcker i digitalt format. Det finns också en diskussionstråd där studenterna har möjlighet

att ställa frågor framförallt relaterat till förtydligande om föreläsningarnas innehåll. Genom att plattformens innehåll finns tillgängligt genom hela utbildningen kan studenterna välja vilket material de vill ta del av och när. Det finns möjlighet till både repetition och succesiv progression.

En viktig förutsättning är dock att kunskapen och förståelsen förväntas tillämpas i olika former vid uppgifter och kursmoment inom utbildningen. Inför skapandet av kunskapsplattformens innehåll hade jag därför samtal med samtliga kursansvariga vid programmet gällande vilka ingående moment i respektive kurs som mer konkret relaterade till vetenskapligt förhållningssätt, och vilken form av föreläsningar/information studenterna skulle ha nytta av att kunna hänvisas till inför genomförandet av uppgifterna. När grunderna för inhämtande av kunskapen finns tillgänglig kan även något högre krav ställas på studenternas synsätt och tillämpning. Då föreläsningarna har innehåll på olika nivå inom ämnet, antingen övergripande eller mer ingående, kan både repetition och vidareutveckling eller fördjupning i kunskapen bidra till progression över terminerna.

Planen är således att kunskapsplattformen som helhet ska finnas öppen och tillgänglig för studenterna genom hela programmet, men även att studenterna hänvisas mer konkret till olika delar av innehållet. Plattformens föreläsningar ingår inte formellt i respektive kurs, och det specifika innehållet är inget som examineras. Innehållet syftar i stället till att stärka förutsättningarna för ökad förståelse och tillämpning av vetenskapligt förhållningssätt både vid de uppgifter som ingår i respektive kurs, och genomgående vid inhämtande av kunskap under programmet. För att kunskapsplattformen ska kunna nyttjas på bästa sätt krävs således att kursansvariga/lärare medverkar genom att hänvisa direkt till olika delar av innehållet, och även lägger lite större fokus på diskussion och utvärdering av tillämpningen av det vetenskapliga förhållningssättet i genomförda uppgifter.

Det är alltså mycket viktigt att få stunderna att förstå att kunskapen och förståelse för genomförande och tolkning av vetenskapliga resultat inte bara är något de behöver ha med sig för genomförande av sitt examensarbete, och inte heller enbart är något för studenter med eget forskningsintresse. Tvärtom är denna kunskap av avgörande betydelse för det framtida kliniska utövandet, vilket är en viktig insikt att förmedla till studenterna.

Att tillgängliggöra resurser för inhämtande av kunskap på en rimlig och anpassad nivå är en viktig förutsättning för att studenterna ska få möjlighet till tillämpning och progression. Syftet med den uppbyggda kunskapsplattformen är därför att stärka förutsättningarna för ett vetenskapligt förhållningssätt inom fysioterapi, både under utbildningen och i framtida kliniskt utövande.

Plattformen har nyligen introducerats, och det går därför inte att uttala sig om vilken effekt den fått eller kommer att få på progressionen genom programmet. Under de två terminer som plattformen existerat har större delen av studenternas besök skett under terminens första veckor, vilket även är den period då metodkursen ligger. Involveringen och tillämpningen vid övriga kurser genom programmet är och kommer att vara under fortsatt utveckling via kommunikation med kursansvariga. Mer konkret hänvisning till specifika föreläsningar/innehåll, och även ökade krav på vetenskapligt förhållningssätt i tillämpade uppgifter och diskussioner kommer sannolikt att bidra till ökad motivation hos studenterna att ta del av innehållet.

Innehållet i kunskapsplattformen har i nuläget tillgängliggjorts även för andra program inom fakulteten, för att de ska kunna ta del av och bedöma om innehållet skulle vara tillämpbart även inom deras utbildning och/eller om delar av innehållet skulle behöva anpassas ytterligare till aktuellt program. Utifrån den återkoppling och kontakt jag fått har innehållet dock upplevts som tillräckligt relaterbart även för andra program, då exempel som tas upp i föreläsningarna överlag utgår från olika hälsoaspekter/ämnen som går att relatera till på ett relevant sätt åtminstone för studenter vid hälsovetenskapliga/medicinska program.

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Massive Open Online Courses for lifelong learning: Towards Flexible and Individualized Education for Sustainability

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Abstract

Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCs) combine films, materials and activities that learners can access at any time and pace to learn within a flexible but supportive online learning community. Learners can explore MOOCs quickly or in depth and engage actively or more passively with the materials and other learners online. It is this flexibility that makes MOOCs particularly suited to addressing the needs of many lifelong learners and many learners who study while working full-time.

UNESCO has urged governments and policymakers to consider MOOCs as a key mechanism for lifelong learning. However, not all MOOCs are designed optimally for the context of lifelong learning, and thus evaluation of best practice is important. While flexibility is key to

enabling learning, pedagogic value is important for retention and influences the depth of learning.

This contribution explores the potential for MOOCs to meet the needs of lifelong learners in the context of higher education for sustainability. We review the experience from literature for the key factors that influence the uptake/retention/value for lifelong learners and the benefits and challenges of using MOOCs for lifelong learning, including the influence of MOOCs on other courses in higher education institutions. We critically reflect on the experience of designing and running five MOOCs at the IIIIEE, with a focus on available data from the lifelong learners, including the backgrounds of learners in the IIIIEE MOOCs. Lastly, we discuss this experience in the context of academic literature.

Introduction

Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCs) are now an established part of online education. Since 2007, there has continued to be a proliferation of MOOCs by universities around the world and, increasingly, other educational actors. MOOCs have emerged in two basic forms: cMOOCs, collaborative MOOCs based on a connectivist approach in which learners collect, connect and create knowledge on an online platform, and xMOOCs where an education provider such as a university curates and designs a course on an online platform. In 2014, Lund University also joined the MOOC trend, launching a three-year project to support the development and implementation of three MOOCs (xMOOCs). The intentions were to market the university, contribute to the development of e-learning, promote cooperation between faculties and provide worldwide access to research and education at Lund University (Leire et al., 2015).

Lund University wanted to introduce MOOCs gradually and began with a selection of 3 MOOCs based on applications from departments. The International Institute for Industrial Environmental Economics (IIIEE) was one of the first to develop a MOOC in 2014 and has since developed and is running 5 MOOCs on interdisciplinary sustainability topics. Lund University currently offers more than 20 MOOCs, engaging

nearly 70 staff in teaching MOOCs. Coursera, one of the largest MOOC platforms, was started by Stanford University lecturers and now offers more than 5,000 courses from approximately 300 partners globally. Partners include academic institutions, starting with Stanford University and expanding to include universities throughout North America, Europe, Australia, Asia, South America and Africa. In addition to academic institutions, private corporations like Google and Microsoft, government agencies and NGOs are also using Coursera to offer courses either using their products or training employees.

MOOCs generally combine films, materials and activities that learners can access at any time and pace to learn within a flexible but supportive online learning community. Learners can explore MOOCs quickly or in depth and engage actively or more passively with the materials and other learners online. It is this flexibility that makes MOOCs particularly suited to addressing the needs of many lifelong learners, from learners exploring new topics for leisure to learners looking for professional development opportunities to apply in their current job or transition to new roles.

The Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), in its report 'Lifelong Learning for All' (OECD, 2001) defines lifelong learning as learning that "occurs during the whole course of a person's life. Formal education contributes to learning as do the non-formal and informal settings of home, the workplace, the community, and society at large." Lee (2014) describes how the concept of lifelong learning has developed from lifelong education, continuing education and adult education eventually to lifelong learning, reflecting a shift from an emphasis on centralized and more formal education to more individualized learning.

In our review of the literature, there were many different interpretations of lifelong learning, with many emphasizing adult learners and professional development. In practice, lifelong learning is realized quite differently in different cultures and contexts. This is particularly the case in terms of policies, the degree of emphasis on professional/personal development, as well as cultural expectations (Farrow, 2018). In other words, lifelong learning remains a broad concept that covers many different types of

further education, learning and development, and therefore also different types of lifelong learner groups.

Steffens (2015) noted that there are different definitions for lifelong learning but chooses to focus on those that emphasize not only knowledge, but also values. Important background studies include Delors (1996) introducing the four pillars of lifelong learning (learning to know, learning to do, learning to live together and learning to be) and Erikson (1974) who emphasizes that care should be an important concept in lifelong development and lifelong learning, a virtue to be acquired. This deeper significance to lifelong learning is perhaps the most important when discussing MOOCs for sustainability, which must inevitably grapple with the roles and responsibilities of humans during profound environmental crises.

The teaching staff at IIIIEE working with the MOOCs has also found some evidence of its own MOOCs being used widely for professional development as well, but has not really examined this phenomenon. This led to an interest in understanding the potential of MOOCs for lifelong learning opportunities and how MOOCs can better support lifelong learning in the context of higher education for sustainability. In this contribution, we review the experience from literature of the potential for MOOCs to support lifelong learning. We include findings on learners in the IIIIEE's 5 MOOCs and critically reflect on the experience of designing and running these. Lastly, we discuss this experience in the context of best practice and challenges.

Understanding the Connection between Lifelong Learning and MOOCs

For this research we searched both Scopus and Google Scholar systematically for articles, book chapters, conference papers and literature from international or national organizations that explicitly addressed the links between MOOCs and lifelong learning. However, even amongst these, the extent to which lifelong learning was examined varied, with some focusing more on the potential of MOOCs rather than examining or critically

discussing this potential. In this section we present and discuss the literature, but also in relation to data from the IIIEE and experiences with MOOCs at the IIIEE, to fill this gap and more explicitly relate to lifelong learning potential and MOOCs.

Lifelong learning is often a stated goal for people to engage in MOOCs. In their survey of 158 MOOC learners and teachers, Yousef et al. (2015) found that approximately 30% considered lifelong learning as their main objective in engaging with MOOCs, which was the reason most often given¹. Representative answers were “self-improvement for career advancement”, “professional development” and “MOOCs open the mind to expand my horizon and ongoing learning for job requirements” (p. 86).

MOOCs have potential to contribute to lifelong learning through providing increased access to higher education courses by providing them for free and online (see e.g., UNESCO, 2016 and Ossianniilsson, 2021). This can be significant for students from disadvantaged backgrounds and from developing countries who do not have university degrees (UNESCO, 2016). However, UNESCO notes that while MOOCs have potential to reach disadvantaged populations, there remain barriers regarding language, adequate digital skills and recognition, or certification of the education. Their report notes that the majority of learners in MOOCs are those who already have access to higher education.

Furthermore, in a review of MOOCs and lifelong learning in the UK, Speight (2018) did not find much evidence for MOOCs increasing access for disadvantaged groups, but more serving as pathways to continued formal education and professional development by those already with postgraduate degrees and the motivation and skills to benefit most from MOOCs. From the data in our MOOCs, this also appears to be the case for MOOCs at the IIIEE. The following tables and figures give an overview of the learner backgrounds in the IIIEE MOOCs compared to the average of all courses on the Coursera platform.

¹ Other reasons were instructional design (17% – presumably primarily a teacher’s reason), high-quality content (13%), network learning (12%), flexibility (8%), openness (7%), blended learning (6%) and student-centred learning (4%). It can also be argued, however, that lifelong learning can be linked to other objectives and qualities of a MOOC, e.g. the flexibility and openness.

Table 1: Top 10 countries of learners for the IIIEE MOOCs

| Learner location | Lessons from Scandinavia | Sustainable Cities | Circular Economy | Urban Nature | Cities and consumption | Coursera average |
|------------------|--------------------------|--------------------|------------------|--------------|------------------------|------------------|
| 1 | US | US | India | US | India | US |
| 2 | India | India | US | India | US | India |
| 3 | Brazil | Brazil | Saudi Arabia | Philippines | Philippines | Mexico |
| 4 | UK | UK | Singapore | UK | Turkey | Brazil |
| 5 | Germany | Canada | Germany | Canada | Germany | China |
| 6 | Canada | Germany | UK | Germany | UK | Canada |
| 7 | France | Philippines | Mexico | Brazil | Canada | UK |
| 8 | Sweden | Mexico | Brazil | Russia | Brazil | Russia |
| 9 | Spain | France | France | Mexico | Sweden | Colombia |
| 10 | Russia | Turkey | Italy | Netherlands | Bangladesh | Egypt |

Table 1 shows the top ten countries of learners in each of the MOOCs at the IIIEE. The spread of countries highlights the truly global nature of participants. Compared to other courses on the Coursera platform, the IIIEE courses tend to attract a higher number of learners from the European context, which also relates to the nature of the framing and examples given in the course content. One challenge has been to include more examples, and enhance consideration, of non-OECD contexts in the course content, as most of the research and educational materials have been developed within Swedish and EU research and educational projects.

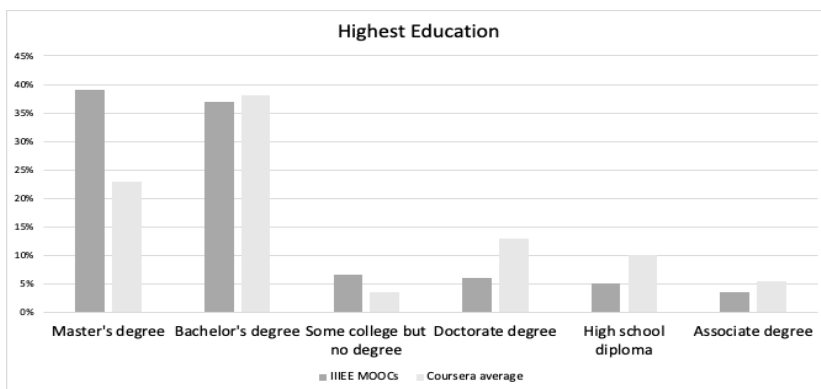


Figure 1: Education level of learners in IIIEE MOOCs vs all MOOCs on Coursera platform

Figure 1 shows the education level of learners in the MOOCs at the IIIIE in comparison to the Coursera platform. Clearly, the majority of participants in MOOCs have obtained Master’s degrees, Bachelor’s degrees and even doctorate degrees.

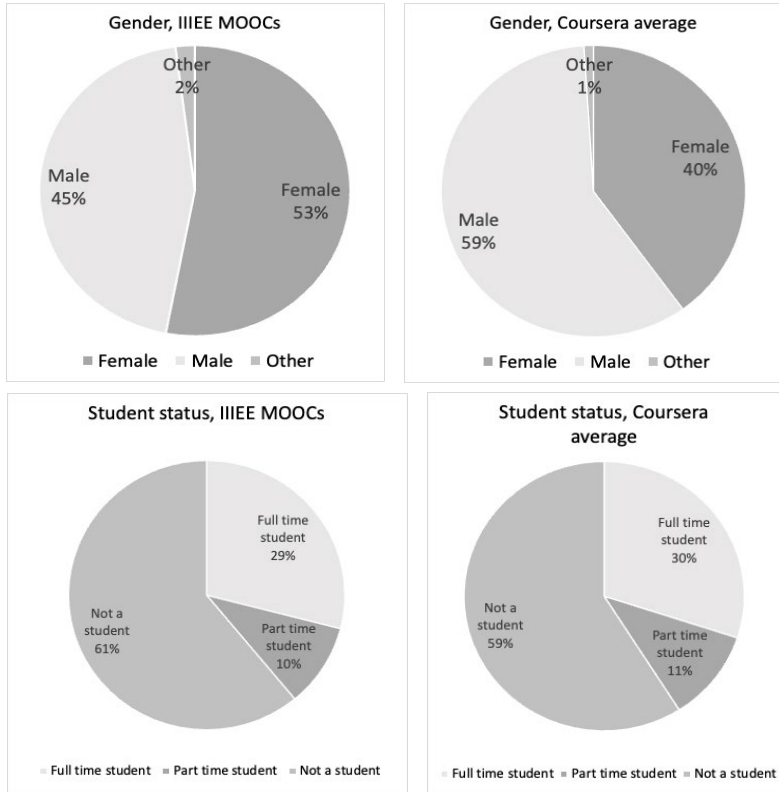


Figure 2: Gender and student status of learners in IIIIE MOOCs vs all MOOCs on Coursera platform

Figure 2 shows the gender and student status of learners in MOOCs at the IIIIE and on the Coursera platform. The Coursera platform attracts more male participants compared to the IIIIE, whereas the student status is similar.

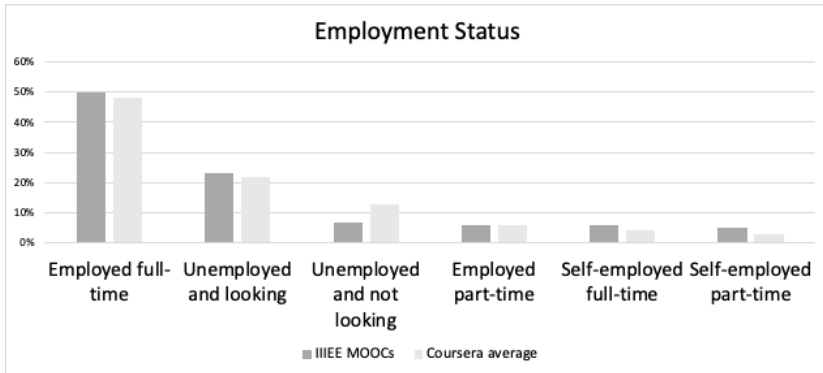


Figure 3: Employment status of learners in IIIIEE MOOCs vs all MOOCs on Coursera

Figure 3 shows the employment status of learners in MOOCs at the IIIIEE and on the Coursera platform. Most participants are employed, but there are also participants who are unemployed, which highlights that MOOCs are attractive to different audiences.

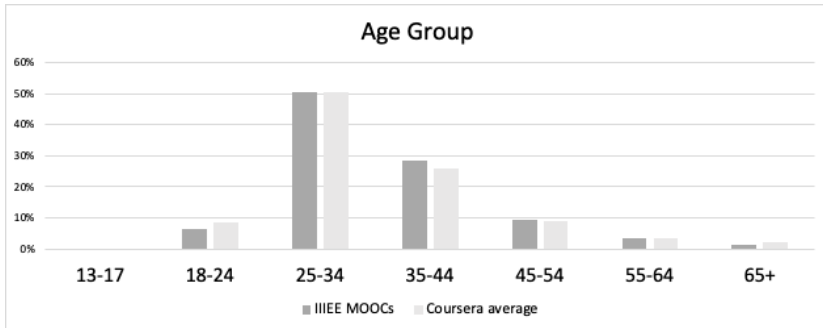


Figure 4: Age of learners in IIIIEE MOOCs vs all MOOCs on Coursera platform

Figure 4 shows the age of learners in MOOCs at the IIIIEE and on the Coursera platform. Clearly, the main age groups are 25-44, but there is some participation from across all age groups except 13-17.

Yousef et al. (2015) also find that most learners in MOOCs are adults over the age of 30 (and refer automatically to this group as “lifelong learners”). However, data from our courses shows most learners are between

25 and 45, employed and with a degree. This gives a bit more of an insight into what type of lifelong learners might be attracted to IIEEE MOOCs.

MOOCs as opportunities for professional development is an important aspect of their potential for lifelong learning. The response to jobs skills and professional development is evident from the courses on offer on the Coursera platform, many of which reflect IT skills (such as coding, particular software expertise, etc.) or topical knowledge, such as sustainability-focused topics. MOOCs are increasingly considered by both individuals and a variety of organizations as a way to fast-track learning and skills development in an on-demand fashion.

Lifelong learners who are using MOOCs for professional development tend to be those who already have university degrees and are working professionals. Isakson et al. (2015) write that students looking for professional development opportunities are likely to be employed and working full-time while taking the courses and rely heavily on the flexibility and self-pacing that MOOCs offer. The authors note that students “graduating today might have to look at several cycles of re-education and complementary education.” (p. 93).

Farrow (2018) warns: “Support for digital lifelong learning throughout a person’s life will be offered by those MOOCs which can most effectively take advantage of flexible and open delivery in a manner that can be suited to a range of learning scenarios. In this light, MOOCs have an obvious role in supporting digital lifelong learning, but it is important not to mistake MOOCs for a one-stop solution. It cannot be assumed that because some e-learning describes itself as a MOOC it is adequately flexible/open in its delivery.”

Isaksson et al. (2015) note that it is not only in the students’ interest to continuously educate themselves, but also for the companies to ensure their employees have upgraded their skills and knowledge. While early MOOC partners were primarily universities offering courses on different topics, courses are now increasingly offered by non-academic partners, primarily large businesses like Microsoft, Google, IPM, Intel, Meta, etc., providing free professional development courses (using their tools) through the platform.

Lastly, MOOCs on sustainability also offer learners the ability to connect with other learners and high-quality content to understand topical issues for thinking about their own values and roles in society (e.g. akin to Steffens’ argument of an additional society and value-driven goal of lifelong learning). In their research of MOOCs in Norway, Langseth et al. (2021) argued that governmental bodies and institutional stakeholders should give more attention to MOOC initiatives to develop sustainability in flexible and lifelong learning in higher education institutions. MOOCs have been found to play a role in the context of sustainability especially for their possibility to enable the sharing of ideas, confirm principles and build networks and contacts. This has been noted in the case of social and sustainable entrepreneurship (Calvo et al., 2020).

Table 2: Learner Reviews and Stories from IIIIEE MOOCs

| Learner feedback | Lifelong learning potential |
|---|---|
| <p>“It inspired me to apply for a Master’s by research in circular economy.” “I now got a passion to learn more and hopefully pursue this as further studies or as a job”.</p> | <p>Taster before deciding what formal education to pursue</p> |
| <p>“The course has given me bonus on my CV.” “I’m a PM based in Toronto who is trying to steer their career into sustainability. The course was extremely informative and easy to follow. I really appreciate the amount of viewpoints around CE were covered (from mining to policy to sociology). Thank you so much for all the efforts placed into making this course publicly accessible for all.”</p> | <p>Demonstration of knowledge/skill for job-seeking or transitioning to new field</p> |
| <p>“Thank you very much for the course, issues and lectures I could read, listen and see. I hope this course helps me for my future professional activities. I work in solid waste management in National Government in Argentina, and I am participating on the OECD Working Group on Resource Efficiency, Circular Economy and Waste.” “It provided me with some very useful additional background to my current task as financial advisor for the transition of SMEs toward circular business models for the ministry of Economic Affairs and Climate...”</p> | <p>Professional development in current job roles</p> |
| <p>“It has developed a curiosity in me to know the Thought-process and Institutionalisation of this Sustainable Way of Living.” “In the current scenario, this is must to know and to implement by all”</p> | <p>Knowledge and values for understanding and engagement with societal challenges</p> |

In Table 2 we give examples of feedback from learners in the MOOCs at the IIIEE and what kind of lifelong learning objectives they could potentially be ascribed. There are four key lifelong learning potentials. First, a taster before deciding what formal education to pursue. Second, demonstration of knowledge/skill for job-seeking or transitioning to a new field. Third, professional development in current job roles. Fourth, knowledge and values for understanding and engagement with societal challenges.

Evaluating the Quality of MOOCs for Lifelong Learning

So far, we have demonstrated the extent to which MOOCs are potentially used by lifelong learners. UNESCO (2016) also noted that though MOOCs have great potential to meet the demand for lifelong learning, there is a need to ensure the quality of the education offered.

Steffens (2015) writes: “From an educational point of view, I do not see the added value of massive participation in online courses, but there are certainly other standpoints from which MOOCs may seem a worthwhile adventure. I do believe that a MOOC of good quality will help people who are already experienced learners to improve their knowledge and skills in a specific area. Therefore, MOOCs are likely to play a role in lifelong learning.”

Assessing how well learner models and designs of MOOCs meet the needs of lifelong learning is difficult in the first instance as there are different definitions of lifelong learning that can have a different emphasis in interpreting quality. There is also little explicit consideration of lifelong learning so far in studies of MOOCs (Luelmo et al., 2020). One of the few studies is Farrow (2018), who proposes a framework of 7 Cs as best practice for MOOCs from a lifelong learning perspective. Table 3 describes the key elements of content, context, curation and co-creation, communication, collaboration, competition and certification.

Table 3: The 7 Cs for MOOCs and Lifelong Learning

| 7 Cs | Positive factors for success | Responsible |
|---------------|--|---|
| Content | Current and relevant content Adds value to existing knowledge and expertise Trusted instructors | University |
| Context | Learning content can be applied | Learners |
| Curation | Co-creation of content Social construction of knowledge Collective working | Learners |
| Communication | Consistent instructor presence Effective and concise messaging Timely reminders Clarity of expectations | University (in design) MOOC platform (in delivery) |
| Collaboration | Reality-based learning activities Teams working together Working offline with colleagues | Learners Professional organization |
| Competition | Score-keeping of progress | Platform |
| Certification | Appropriate certification of learning | Platform |

Source: Based on Farrow (2018, p.144) with responsibilities added by authors.

Table 3 outlines the 7 Cs for MOOCs and lifelong learning, highlights positive factors for success, and indicates responsibility.

Apparently, the framework could be used for evaluating any lifelong learning course, not just MOOCs. At its core, a good MOOC has a strong pedagogical focus and robust course design, i.e. good consideration of the 7 Cs. However, some of the Cs can be more or less facilitated by offering a MOOC to meet lifelong learning needs. Like any course, it is difficult to cater for all learner needs and there are some further constraints when the responsibility for the course is divided between the university partners (which mainly design the learning content) and the learning platform (which is mainly responsible for delivering the course).

Steffens (2015) does not see that MOOCs differ in any significant way from online learning technologies, such as conventional online courses using learning management platforms with enrolled students. However, what sets apart MOOCs from traditional onsite or online courses is the scale. This scale justifies investments in platforms like Coursera, which in turn significantly enhance the pedagogy through establishing cohorts,

forums, time management reminders and progress tracking, and arranging peer reviews and prompts for both learners and teachers for best practice (e.g. essential components for course design and feedback from learners regarding different components). It is typically not individual teachers interacting or facilitating peer interaction in the course, but the platform itself. It is also not the university instructors who facilitate collaboration, competition or certification in practice (only setting some parameters in the course design), but the platform that does this.

Even though the majority of learners using the platform may not pay for the courses they access, the large number of learners means that even a small proportion paying for certificates, or companies paying for subscriptions, make a business case for continued support and development of the MOOC platforms, which is both an advantage and disadvantage: There is free access to content, but more limited access to certificates of completion, which typically require payment.

However, while the quality of the course materials and design can be assured by the university offering the course, the quality of learning is more difficult to ensure for thousands of learners. As much of the course is dependent on the motivation and commitment of learners, the quality of the actual learning is dependent on the students in the course and their own objectives for the education.

The framework by Farrow (2018) also emphasizes co-creation and collaboration as key to lifelong learning. The degree to which these are facilitated in a MOOC largely depends on the design of the MOOC itself. cMOOCs are intentionally designed to be collaborative. However, these are not the types of MOOCs offered on the most popular platforms, which are termed xMOOCs with their emphasis on content that is curated by a university partner. This distinction between cMOOCs and xMOOCs is quite significant.

Dealing with Key Issues for Lifelong Learning and MOOCs

Learner Engagement

In terms of how course design can influence learners to finish the course, Rafiq (2019, p.2) states that “learners’ dropout rates from MOOCs can be reduced when the content of a particular course is not too lengthy, as voluntary learners are focusing on learning independently”. This shows that learners who use MOOCs for their own personal gain are more prone to complete a shorter and relevant course because they are learning at their own pace. Concurrently, another study (Karnouskos, 2017) argued that MOOCs are indeed the best platform for self-paced learning, but it will not be successful if learners are not committed to completing a course.

A MOOC fulfils different purposes. The success can therefore be measured with a number of different parameters. Completion is not always the goal for learning, particularly in a lifelong learning context where the goal may be personal development or exploration. Many learners explore portions of a MOOC with a specific interest in a subtopic and are satisfied with their learning even when they do not complete all the course requirements (Henderikx et al., 2017).

Prior studies have shown that students take MOOCs for a variety of reasons and engage with the coursework in different ways, some more active and others more passive. Kahan et al. (2017) identify several types of learners in a typical MOOC: *Tasters*, *Downloaders*, *Disengagers*, *Offline Engagers*, *Online Engagers*, *Moderately Social Engagers* and *Social Engagers*. They note that most of the learners in the course they examined were tasters.

The experience from the IIIIEE MOOCs is similar. We also know from experience that there are some “tasters” of MOOCs who go on to enrol in courses to further study the topic. We know this from applicants to the IIIIEE Master’s program who mention taking at least one MOOC as part of their motivation for then applying. As can be seen from Table 4, an average of 14% of the approximately 150 applicants to the Master’s program each year have claimed that the IIIIEE MOOCs have had a high and positive

impact when deciding to apply for this program. (Note, this refers to applicants who had selected the IIIIE Master’s program as priority 1, 2 or 3).

Table 4. Percentage of applicants who claimed the IIIIE MOOCs had a positive impact on applying for the Master’s program.

| 2019 | 2020 | 2021 | 2022 |
|------|------|------|------|
| 17% | 15% | 16% | 8% |

Table 4 shows the percentage of applications to the Master’s program at the IIIIE who claimed a positive impact from the IIIIE MOOCs.

Table 5: Statements from Master’s applicants indicating MOOCs were influential for applying

| |
|--|
| “The MOOCs that I have taken gave me a really good idea of what to expect from the program and the instructors.” “I did go through the ”Greening the economy - lessons from Scandinavia” MOOC to get a glimpse of the programme and for continuous learning Purposes and I did learn a lot from it.” |
| “The MOOC given by IIIIE is one of the sources that greatly influence my decision to apply for the EMP Programme. I am so excited to have learned from key professionals from IIIIE during my on-line study in Greening the Economy-Lessons from Scandinavia.” |
| “I was specifically looking for a research- and practice-based MSc programme in Scandinavia that trains professionals both in environmental management and environmental policy. ” |
| “My interest then in the circular economy and its policy background lead me to Lund University’s MOOC. After its completion, I had no doubt that the EMP programme with the excellent IIIIE staff is the right choice.” |

Table 5 shows some representative statements from the applicants, describing the role that the MOOCs have played in the decision to apply. Here the MOOCs do not seem to be a channel for potential applicants to find the university program, but rather as a tool to confirm the suitability of the program for their future aspirations. In a sense then, the MOOCs seemed to have served as a taster for students before committing to a two-year study program.

Professional Development

Isakson et al. (2015) look at the potential of MOOCs for professional development compared to traditional and online education opportunities in Sweden. Interestingly, despite the great potential, they found that MOOCs were not being used this way by the universities. They noted the

reluctance of universities to go over the quota of students for which they are paid to offer MOOCs. At the same time, the number of online courses being offered was decreasing, even as demand for such courses was increasing – a bottleneck for professional development.

As noted by the UNESCO report, certification can be an issue as it is difficult to ensure the quality for so many students without financing and incentives to cover teacher time. Thus, platforms enable peer assessment, but the quality is highly dependent on the ability and effort of the peers. For this reason, it still may be appropriate to tie MOOC content to for-credit university courses and it is difficult to offer this for free.

As an elective for fee-paying students, a MOOC can enable a flipped classroom course with an emphasis on assessment and engagement that is more difficult to ensure in a pure MOOC setting. This has been the experience from turning two MOOCs at the IIEE into special area electives. One of the courses had a high number of professional learners and the decision was taken to keep the course entirely online, using a mix of MOOC lectures, readings, online seminars with teachers, and a graded course project. The course then sought to balance the flexibility of the MOOC with the quality assurance and staff time that a university-credited course could ensure.

Conclusion

In practice, MOOCs are catering to many different types of learners, but the flexibility can be of particular interest in satisfying diverse needs for lifelong learners. Both the literature and our own experience point to distinctly different learner groups, all with their own reasons to enrol in a MOOC. However, this diversity also leads to tensions in how MOOCs should be optimized – which learners should take priority? Added to this complexity is the fact that like learners, developers of MOOCs also have multiple purposes aside from education. MOOCs are also vehicles for communicating research and marketing education. Are other factors for the success pertaining to e.g. the more outreach-oriented purpose of MOOCs equally important, and can there be situations involving conflicting aims/success factors? Finally, it appears that MOOCs are

supporting teaching enhancement and innovation as universities enable greater use of digital learning. This has also been the IIEEE experience, with the development of MOOCs contributing to the institute being well positioned to continue to build upon e-learning expertise.

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Kunskapens rörelser i offentligheten: Historiska reflexioner över samtiden

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Abstract

The public sphere can be seen as a meeting place where people with different backgrounds, interests and worldviews interact. It is a virtual or physical site where political opinions are formed and news reported, but also where various forms of knowledge circulation take place. In this paper, the latter dimension will be in focus, in particular the circulation of academic knowledge. The perspectives will be mainly historical with examples from the postwar era. By introducing the “arena of knowledge” as an analytical concept, certain media platforms will be highlighted and their functions in different public knowledge systems will be discussed. In conclusion, the paper will show how academics can act not only as teachers and researchers but also to stimulate productive exchanges, expand conventional notions and enrich the public conversation.

Livslångt lärande genom samverkan på kunskapsarenor

Det finns många olika sätt att närma sig livslångt lärande på. Somliga uppehåller sig vid begreppets uppkomst och skiftande innebörder, andra vid intressanta pedagogiska praktiker och initiativ, ytterligare andra vid de politiska och ekonomiska implikationerna av olika reformer. I det som följer kommer jag att anlägga ett kunskapshistoriskt perspektiv och

fokusera på offentlighetens betydelse och möjligheter. Min utgångspunkt är att livslångt lärande aldrig har ägt rum i slutna rum i skolor, universitet eller andra utbildningsinstitutioner. I stället bör vårt synsätt breddas och vi gör klokt i att se de större sammanhang där kunskap skapas, odlas och förmedlas.

Universitetet har alltid varit en del av samhället, men länge förblev det något av en stängd lärdomsborg. Under det sena 1800-talet började svenska universitet emellertid gradvis att öppnas när nya studentgrupper strömmade till och akademiker engagerade sig i politiska och sociala frågor, även om det dröjde till efterkrigstiden innan det går att tala om bredare rekrytering av studenter. Folkbildning blev ett viktigt inslag under 1900-talets första hälft och åtskilliga var de docenter och professorer som höll populärvetenskapliga föreläsningar, anföranden i radio och skrev böcker för en bredare läsekrets. Under efterkrigsdecennierna formuleras det nya idéer om vad universitetets samhällsuppdrag skulle bestå i, framför allt från sent 1960-tal och framåt. För första gången inleddes nu universiteten i diskussionerna om samverkan med näringslivet (Askling, 2012; Bragesjö, 2009).

De följande åren vidgades samverkansbegreppet. Goda förbindelser mellan universitet och näringsliv var alltså en central angelägenhet, men samverkan skulle även ske med andra delar av samhället. När den nya högskolelagen antogs 1977 kompletterades universitetets två grundläggande uppgifter – att utbilda och forska – med det som i efterhand kom att kallas den tredje uppgiften: att ”sprida kännedom om forskning och utvecklingsarbete”. Från det sena 1990-talet talades det mer och mer om högskolans uppgift att ”samverka med det omgivande samhället” (Kasperowski & Bragesjö, 2011). Under 2010-talet blev ”samverkan” – ofta förstått brett och utan precis definition – ett honnörsord som återfanns i forskningspropositioner, högtidstal och allehanda akademiska dokument.

Det vi i dag kallar samverkan med det omgivande samhället har således en historia och innebörden av begreppet har skiftat över tid. En grundläggande tanke är dock att den avancerade kunskap som universiteten hårbärgerar inte enbart bör förmedlas till studenter i lärosalar, vid seminariebord och i laboratorier. Akademiker måste också ha ett vidare kunskapsuppdrag som inbegriper kommunikation och kunskapsförmedling

med andra grupper utanför universitetet. Med andra ord: kunskap måste sättas i rörelse i samhället.

Med en analytisk term, hämtad från det kunskapshistoriska fältet, kan man tala om detta som *kunskapsirkulation*. Närmare bestämt handlar det om en form av samhällelig kunskapsirkulation, vars utgångspunkt är de sammanhang där kunskap rör sig i samhället eller blir samhälleligt signifikativ. Detta innebär att frågor om kunskapens bredare relevans och räckvidd blir betydelsefulla för forskaren (Östling & Heidenblad, 2017).

Samhällelig kunskapsirkulation kan analyseras på många olika sätt. Ett av dem är att fokusera plattformar i offentligheten, *kunskapsarenor*. En kunskapsarena kan förstås som en plats som inom sina givna ramar erbjuder möjlighet och sätter gränser för cirkulation av kunskap. Den fungerar som en mötes- eller åskådningsplats för en viss typ av kunskapsaktörer och en viss typ av publik. För att den ska kunna vara en arena som befördrar samhällelig kunskapsirkulation måste den vanligen äga ett mått av stabilitet och beständighet, även om själva kunskapsinnehållet som cirkulerar på en och samma arena kan variera över tid (Östling, 2020).

Kunskapsarenor i efterkrigstidens offentlighet

I boken *Humanister i offentligheten* (Östling et al., 2022) har jag tillsammans med två kollegor undersökt kunskapens plats i efterkrigstidens samhälle. I centrum står humaniora i 1960- och 1970-talens offentligheter, i första hand i Sverige men med fortlöpande jämförelser med Västtyskland. I sex större studier analyserar vi hur humanistisk kunskap cirkulerade och vilka de huvudsakliga aktörerna var.

Den första empiriska studien riktas mot folkbildning i etermedierna, i synnerhet i den tidiga televisionen. Åtskilliga av de dominerande personerna som verkade här hade en gedigen akademisk bakgrund och sörjde för förmedling av humanistisk kunskap. Särskild uppmärksamhet ägnas tv-programmet *Fråga Lund* som började sändas 1962 och vi betraktar som en egen kunskapsarena. Därefter analyseras en annan arena från samma tid: hur humaniorämnena populariserades som en del av den så kallade pocketboksrevolutionen under 1960- och 1970-talen. Särskild hänsyn tas till Bonniers populärvetenskapliga pocketserie Aldus, utgiven

mellan 1957 och 1977. Aldus är ett av de mest betydelsefulla svenska exemplen på en pocketboksutgivning med folkbildande ambition, efter mönster från bland annat Västtyskland. Den tredje studien ägnas åt *Svenska Dagbladets* dagliga essäsida "Under strecket" och dess tongivande aktörer. Utifrån detta forum vidgas resonemanget till pressens roll som arena för cirkulation av akademisk kunskap i både Sverige och Västtyskland.

De tre följande studierna sätter olika deloffentligheter i fokus och där undersöker vi humanisternas närvaro på andra typer av arenor. I en första delstudie står efterkrigstidens kristna deloffentlighet i blickfånget. Tiden ifråga uppfattas ofta som relativt sekulär, men här fanns starka kristna rörelser, opinioner och institutioner. Detta förstås som en kristen deloffentlighet, det vill säga en delvis avgränsad offentlighet med egna aktörer, arenor och publik. I fokus för den empiriska undersökningen står tidens kristna kulturtidskrifter, vari humanistisk kunskap fyllde en viktig funktion. Nästa studie behandlar folkbildning med särskilt fokus på arbetarrörelse och socialdemokrati. Även arbetarrörelsen kan ses som besittande en specifik deloffentlighet där gemensam kunskapsbildning och kunskaps-cirkulation skedde, både i lokala studieförbund och nationellt, genom tidskrifter med mera. Slutligen analyseras cirkulationen av humanistisk kunskap inom bokcafé-rörelsen under 1970-talet. De socialistiska bokcaféer som här står i centrum var tidstypiska exempel på hur en kunskapsarena kan verka simultant som en utåtriktad verksamhet med syfte att påverka en allmän opinion, och inåt som en del av en sorts motoffentlighet, eller alternativ kunskapsarena.

En viktig, övergripande slutsats av dessa studier är att en vanligt förekommande bild av humanioras marginalisering och kris under efterkrigstiden måste problematiseras. Våra studier åskådliggör nämligen hur starkt företrätt humaniora var i tidens offentlighet. Vi kan visa hur olika humanistiska kunskapsformer och kunskapsaktörer ingick i ett intrikat ekosystem. Därigenom skapades det också förutsättningar för det som alltså senare skulle gå under beteckningen samverkan med det omgivande samhället och i förlängningen en viss form av livslångt lärande.

En förändrad offentlighet

Under 1900-talets sista två decennier, seklets final, var sig mycket likt i den svenska offentligheten. Men det skedde rörelser under ytan: folkbildningsarbetet förändrades, bokcaféerna avvecklades, tv-landskapet stöptes om efter en kommersiell logik. Även om offentlighetens fundament bestod hamnade nya problem och betraktelsesätt i centrum. Det hade varit intressant att följa spåren framåt i tiden, mot tidskriften *Kris* och *Dagens Nyheters* kultursida, mot Bokförlaget Daidalos och Brutus Östlings bokförlag Symposion, mot nya fysiska och mediala arenor.

På ett mer övergripande plan finns det all anledning att reflektera över om det trots allt ägde rum en grundläggande omvandling av det offentliga kunskapssystemet under 1900-talets sista decennier. Johan Strang (2020) har poängterat att staten hade ett ovanligt stort inflytande över kunskapsirkulationen under den period som vi har analyserat, 1960- och 1970-talen: universiteten och utbildningsväsendet drevs i statlig regi, statligt anställda experter var med och utformade välfärdssamhället och så vidare. Strang understryker dock att det inte handlade om en omnipotent stat som dikterade villkoren. Snarare, argumenterar han, handlade det om en ”intricate corporatist model of knowledge, where science and experts, on the one hand, and social movements and voluntary associations, on the other, were engaged in constant negotiations with state representatives” (Strang, 2020, s. 252). Vi kan tillhandahålla många exempel på just dessa förhållanden. Emellertid, fortsätter Strang, finns det tecken på att den kunskapsregim som dominerade under vår period – det vill säga den specifika konstellation av politisk makt, juridiska normer och vetenskaplig kunskap som var förhärskande – löstes upp i övergången till 1980-talet och ersattes av en ny ordning. Måhända kan vi tala om en nyliberal kunskapsregim.

Under åren omkring 2000 förefaller offentligheten ha ömsat skinn och förutsättningarna för cirkulation av kunskap blev hastigt andra. Ännu saknas det helgjutna, samtidshistoriska studier av denna transformation, men ett antal faktorer tycks ha påverkat villkoren för kunskapsaktörer i offentligheten, kanske i synnerhet för humanister. En fundamental förändring kan härledas ur den digitala omvandlingen och med tiden

framväxten av nya sociala medier. En följd, menar olika betraktare, har blivit en balkanisering av offentligheten där de gemensamma ytor för kunskapsförmedling tenderar att bli färre. Samtidigt har universitetets inre liv förändrats. Forskarutbildningen reformerades under det sena 1990-talet och strax därefter sköt internationaliseringen av humanvetenskaperna fart, med delvis nya publiceringsmönster och en större benägenhet för kultur- och samhällsforskare att publicera sig på engelska i facktidskrifter snarare än för en bred svenskspråkig allmänhet. Många av de arenor och deloffentligheter som var så betydelsefulla under efterkrigsdecennierna försvagades eller försvann i denna omvandling.

Som så ofta i historiska transformationsprocesser finns det samtidigt åtskilligt av det gamla som lever vidare, om än i ny eller annan skepnad. I en studie av ett brett urval av understreckare från åren 2005–2010 har Urban Lundberg (2020) visat att *Svenska Dagbladets* essäsida i allt väsentligt fortsatte att vara en plattform för humanistisk kunskapsförmedling, med starkt bibehållen anknytning till den verksamhet som bedrevs vid landets universitet. Humaniora var under det nya seklets första årtionde alltjämt det klart största kunskapsfältet – över 70 procent av streckarna kan hänföras hit. Kontinuiteten är således ytterst märkbar. Samtidigt framhåller Lundberg att 2000-talets Under strecket inte kan betraktas som ”en dammig monterutställning på ett bortglömt museum”. En av de största skillnaderna mellan 1960-talet och den period som han har studerat är artiklarnas innehåll. Om vi kunde slå fast att tidens streckarförfattare rörde sig med självskrivna bildningsideal och kunskapsanspråk förefaller deras sentida motsvarigheter mer trevande eller rentav ambivalenta inför sin publik. Klassisk humaniora – filosofiska avhandlingar, litteratur om antik historia, Virginia Woolf-biografier – samsades med initierade artiklar om fotboll, tv-serier, populärmusik och Dry Martinins historia. Kanon har destabiliserats, det humanistiska forskningsfältet har breddats, nya medier har vunnit insteg – och det märks bland streckarna.

Från min utkikspost några år in på 2020-talet blickar jag ut över en svåröverskådlig offentlighet. Här samexisterar de medieformer som vi känner från efterkrigstiden – de stora tidningarna, bokförlagen och public service-bolagen – med nya tillskott som livaktiga bloggar, en uppsjö av poddar, ett växande antal ljudböcker, ett stort utbud av tv-dokumentärer

och konkurrerande internationella strömningstjänster. Det är svårt att veta vad som är dagsländor och vad som kommer att sätta varaktig prägel.

Akademiker som vill ägna sig åt samverkan med det omgivande samhället måste dock förhålla sig till den mediala verklighet som råder under 2020-talet och helst lära sig att verka både på de gamla och nya kunskapsarenorna. Först därigenom kan kunskap sättas i verklig rörelse.

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The Writing Group: A Community of Practice and Collegiality

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Abstract

In a seminar room at LUX, one of the buildings of the Joint Faculties of Humanities and Theology, a group of PhD students and senior scholars are in deep concentration in front of their computers. It is pin-drop silent in the room until the alarm goes off and everyone starts moving and talking. This is the writing group, an informal and voluntary way of working together in time slots with 45 minutes of writing and a 15-minute break each hour. This collegial way of structuring the day and working together is gaining interest and the group is growing. This article describes the experiences of group participants and, with the aid of theoretical perspectives on collegiality and social learning, explains the benefits of this group for individual scholars as well as for their working environment.

Introduction

“When we are together in the room the writing energy just appears”.

At the Joint Faculties of Humanities and Theology at Lund University, a writing group is thriving. It is supported by a Messenger group, a Zoom link and repeated bookings of communal workspaces. It is an informal and voluntary community where PhD students and senior scholars get together to do their reading and writing. The quote above came up when the authors of this article, all of us frequently participating in the writing group, tried to put into words the benefits of the group and the reasons why we all consider ourselves in need of it. The writing group is for us an *academic microculture* (Roxå & Mårtensson, 2015) based on collegiality, internal trust, fellowship and shared responsibility, providing access to competence and tacit knowledge in relaxed ways. It serves as a venue for exploring new insights, self-discipline and reinforcement of communal competence. In this article, the experiences of this group, and the various dimensions of learning within it, will first be presented and then discussed in relation to theories on communities of practice and collegial care.

Background: The Writing Group's Collegiality

The basic facts of the writing group can be summarized as such: We are around 40 people in a Facebook Messenger group, which we are using to coordinate 15–20 active people, mostly PhD students but also senior scholars, many from the Centre for Theology and Religious Studies, but also from other departments at Lund University. We work according to an extended *pomodoro method* (Cirillo 2018), which means work for 45 minutes and then a 15-minute break starting at every full hour. During the breaks some join or leave the group, while others stay the whole day. There is thus some flexibility built in, but we stick to the structure fairly rigorously. The floating relationship between structure and flexibility is key for the group to work. We call it a writing group, but in that respect there is flexibility, too. Most people write, some read, and some use the hours for

administrative work. Yet, just being in the room is a benefit both for oneself and for the others. Moreover, most of us join in phases, we utilize the opportunity for a period, then disappear and come back again.

The writing group sprang from an initiative of Lund's Doctoral Student Union in 2019. It partly arose due to surveys showing how isolation and lack of community is one of the principal factors for PhD students struggling with their well-being (Holmström, 2016). As a matter of fact, PhD studies within Theology and the Humanities is for many an isolated experience, not being a part of a particular research group and without meeting fellow PhD students in courses. Departments and the joint faculties are aware of this and put efforts on creating spaces and opportunities for the PhD students to meet and get to know each other academically and socially, both within and between disciplines. Compared to such initiatives, the writing group is characterized by its determination to fend off any effort to "institutionalize" it. Even though it could have been possible to get catered coffee and other refreshments from the departments, standing reservations of rooms or chose someone to be in charge of communication etc., there is a strong communal feeling that this would disturb the dynamics of shared responsibility that characterizes the group and makes it informal in the way that is so appreciated. Further, we experience that the writing group also works against the egocentricity of the academic enterprise itself. In academia, researchers work as individuals towards an endless stream of achievements in order to stand out in the competition for scholarships, lectureships and professorships. This egocentric long-term goal does not harmonize well with factors that are important for all researchers and university teachers when it comes to both well-being and performance. In order to perform as efficiently as possible, and to become "the best you can be", continuous interaction with colleagues in terms of relaxed collegiality, without focusing on internal competition, is necessary. This is the kind of collegiality that the writing group provides for its participants.

The need for the writing group among our colleagues became especially evident during the Covid restrictions. At Lund University, employees were advised against going to their offices and, especially, to gather when not strictly necessary. We were afraid that could be the death of the writing

group. Luckily, the opposite turned out to be the case. During the pandemic, everyone needed to socialize and the writing group came in as a good resource here. Doing a full day on Zoom was too much for most, but we still met on Zoom every other day, sometimes just for some hours. Especially for some new PhD students, who began their studies during Covid times, this turned out to be a very important resource.

After the restrictions were lifted, academic life slowly has returned to almost “normal” and the writing group participation has increased both in numbers and frequency, as there is now ongoing writing group activity almost every weekday. The Zoom link is still in use, which enables the ones on travels and fieldwork as well as previous visiting colleagues from various countries, such as South Africa, Denmark and Switzerland, to continue to be a part of the writing community.

It is without doubt, though, that the physical presence is what really sustains the community. We use the TimeEdit system at Lund University to book rooms, and we log in either the day before or in the morning, to see what is available. Then we reserve a room, which would likely remain unused all day anyway.

A Central Characteristic of the Writing Group: Blend of Flexibility and Discipline

There are quite a few factors that coincide and make the working group environment so rewarding and mutually satisfactory for the scholars who are participating. An important aspect is that it provides a unique blend of flexibility and discipline that goes very well with the scholarly mind, that in fact needs both. Both are hard to achieve, regardless of whether you are a PhD student or a senior scholar. The regular workday for a typical scholar, regardless of position, is normally characterized by both fragmentation and multitasking. Still, there are long-term projects that need to be constantly worked on at a steady pace, in between short-term tasks such as lectures, supervision, grading or various kinds of administrative activities. Further, our communicational culture in which we communicate primarily via the computer, via emails, social media, Microsoft Teams,

educational and scholarly platforms and databases, makes the task of focusing on only one and the same matter for a relevant amount of time before shifting the focus very hard to achieve, be it a text that is to be written or a manual collation of material, reading articles or sorting data. Moreover, when we work in our offices, there would rather often be visitors, questions that are spontaneously asked, and short meetings that are indeed very nice and important for the work environment at large. Even so, this can also make the average workday even more fragmented for the academic. How is it then, that the unique blend of discipline and flexibility of the writing group came about, and how is it helpful for concentration and scholarly production?

The answer lies in two aspects of the working schedules in the writing group: the 45-minute units interfoliated with 15-minute breaks throughout the day, and an initial “round of the day /unit”, when each participant tells the others what they will be working on and their aims for the unit or for the day. The 45/15 schedule is a fixed system enforcing discipline but at the same time fully flexible since the participants are free to join or leave the writing group whenever they want during the day. What is always maintained is silence during the 45-minute unit. Once you are in the room and a working unit is in progress, you know that no one will disturb you with a question or a comment. The time is your own and you devote it to the task you have at hand. At the same time, the task in itself is your own choice. Therein lies this mix of flexibility and discipline. The “round of the day/unit” that rather often – but not always – takes place before the start of the day or of a unit is an important factor when it comes to the individual scholar’s determination to stick to the intended task for the day. When telling the other writing group participants just very briefly about your intention for the day or for the unit, your decision for the day becomes much firmer, and you are less prone to change what you decided to do even if you would feel “stuck” in the writing process or for some other reason that makes the intended work task for the day harder to perform. No one in the writing group would criticize you if you would change your mind, but regardless of that, you are much more determined to stay with the work planned for the day. This self-discipline based on the articulation

of intention and ambition is of valuable help against procrastination and “writer’s block”.

Theoretical Perspectives on the Writing Group

What is it, then, that motivates the participants in the writing group to work in a more concentrated and efficient way when gathered? In the following, we will describe the benefits of the writing group with the aid of complementary theoretical perspectives: *community of practice* and *collegiality and care*. We must mention, though, that we do not think about all these theoretical perspectives during our daily work; we are just motivated by the fact that it is more fun and more efficient to do things together.

The Writing Group as a Community of Practice

We approach the writing group as a community of practice with three relevant dimensions, as elaborated by educational theorist Etienne Wenger (1998): *Joint enterprise*, *mutual engagement* and *shared repertoire* (ibid:72–84). Participants of the writing group share the common goal of writing and being productive as academics. In other words, the *joint enterprise* of the community is academic productivity. The repeated practice of sharing the aims of the day or the writing unit fosters collegial and informal accountability in the group that enhances individual self-discipline. *Mutual engagement* manifests itself in the writing group as participants relate to each other. During breaks, conversations could revolve around personal struggles and issues. Collegiality is developing in a very permissive milieu across the spectrum of hierarchies and subjects. The open floor and safe environment build mutually supportive relationships and promote learning, identification and trust. For instance, a sense of inadequacy and inauthenticity connected to a conviction that one is deficient and one’s work substandard, labelled the *imposter syndrome* (Addison, Breeze and Taylor 2022), has been one such emergent topic, shared and discussed during unit-breaks, stories of how it manifested individually, how to

overcome it, as well as the reassurance for a PhD student to share similar experiences with senior colleagues.

Sharing insights on how to deal with such challenges, and as such creating and also challenging norms, is a vital example of the social learning outcomes of participating in the group. Furthermore, a *shared repertoire* in the writing group has emerged over time, as the group builds its own set of resources, such as the Messenger group and the unit-timer. Further, as Wenger highlights, practices and discourses related to the resources and the way that they are used promote both individual and group development.

Informal learning occurs through *joint enterprise*, *mutual engagement* and *shared repertoire*. You learn a lot, but it can be quite tacit, such as growing confidence and identity as a scholar. Further, collegiality across disciplines and departments is developing as a side-effect of the writing group, enlarging the academic and social networks of PhD students and senior scholars alike.

The Writing Group as a Caring Collegial Environment

Rationality and goal-oriented ideals often influence attitudes towards work. Research shows that a highly competitive work environment and excessive “rationalisation of organisational practices” have negative effects on working life (Pessi et al., 2022, p. 84). Instead of increasing efficiency, it has an opposite effect and degrades the workers’ health. Moreover, accentuating the focus on the employees as roles (or titles) instead of as people, “threatens the integrity of personhood and the possibility to grasp the existential meanings of one’s work” (Pessi et al., 2022, p. 92).

The writing group provides an environment which counteracts these tendencies in academia and enables colleagues to relate to each other as individuals in a caring and encouraging way. Spending a lot of time together makes it easier to share both professional and private joys and sorrows, and for others to relate to them. This positive and accepting climate plays an important role in allowing a good workflow and a consistent focus for the participants. Moreover, we would claim that this aspect of the writing group also makes it accessible to personalities who are not necessarily extroverts. The writing group is thus a work environment

which considers both the emotional and relational aspects of being a human. Pessi et al. (2022) argue that more attention should be given to emotions and responding to emotions at work to promote the well-being, integrity and meaningfulness of the employees. This is because emotions matter when we work, when we make decisions, teach and learn. Emotions influence learning through their impact on motivation and mechanisms of a socioemotional nature (Ambrose et al., 2010, 155-156). Human existence is also intersubjective and relating to others is one of our fundamental needs. As relational beings, sharing positive emotions and the positive recognition from others is essential for one's flourishing, which is reflected in one's effectivity and well-being at work (Pessi et al., 2022, p. 83).

Pessi et al. present two key concepts to discuss positive responses to others' emotions: The first is *compassion*, which means the empathetic response and concern for someone else's suffering and sorrow. The writing group fosters the creation of a safe space for sharing experiences of challenges and shortcomings, and to receive compassion, stories of similar feelings and situations, and valuable suggestions for how to move on. The second is *copassion*, the positive reaction to someone's joy, positive emotions and success. When someone in the writing group experiences a productive writing flow, makes new discoveries in their work, or achieves success in fundraising, other group members not only share in the joy and success of their colleague but also amplify the sense of happiness through their positive reactions and support. Both concepts imply that the emotions of the other are recognised, shared and responded to. Moreover, with positive emotions and copassion, one is motivated to sustain and increase the positive emotion of the others. The benefits of compassion and copassion between colleagues are multiple and include improved "well-being, innovation, entrepreneurship, transformation, empowerment, meaningfulness, innovativity and resilience" (Pessi et al., 2022, p. 85). Other researchers have also shown that fostering copassionate and compassionate working environments increases the well-being of the employees, decreases uncertainty and anxiety, and promotes the capacity for solving problems together. Further benefits of a copassionate culture

are the fostering of mutual trust and the experience of belonging, social connection and feeling of psychological safety (Pessi et al., 2022, p. 92).

Concluding Remarks

The writing group is an informal constellation of colleagues held together by a Messenger group, a Zoom link and repeated bookings of communal workspaces, as well as a mutual need for this special kind of work environment. We have in this article shown that practices like a 45/15 working schedule and the round of the day/unit have established an environment with a culture of trust and recognition, positive encouragement and the exchange of mutual academic experience-based advice. Theoretically, the writing group may be characterized as a community of practice, with shared repeated practices and a joint aim of scholarly productivity, mutual engagement in each other's work and personal concerns, as well as shared central resources in the form of the unit-timer and the Messenger group.

As academia is a highly competitive world, with strong and multiple hierarchies, individualized work and a high degree of rationalization of creative processes, we have also shown how the writing group creates a working environment that caters to human needs through compassion and copassion, and maybe for that very reason, is a productive academic environment for the participants.

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The Course as a Scientific Conference. Socialisation and Uncoverage in the Master's Programme Religious Roots of Europe

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Abstract

In this paper, we discuss the pedagogical concepts of *socialisation* and *uncoverage* and the theoretical perspective of *metanarratives* on history and historical concepts as tools to integrate the students of the online Master's programme Religious Roots of Europe into the practice of the historical study of religion. We describe how we worked in facilitating the typical learning processes and sociality of physical meetings at scientific conferences in the online teaching of a course about the early formation of Judaism, Christianity and Islam.

Introduction

An atheist, a lawyer, an Adventist preacher and an orthodox monk have breakfast in a hotel at the edge of the old city of Rome... What could be the beginning of an entertaining joke was actually my first encounter with Religious Roots of Europe. Having trained as a lawyer, I had applied to the Master's programme in order to gain a better understanding of the way in which the history of theology and religious thought has influenced our current understanding of law and society.

This passage is from the pen of a former student of the Master's programme Religious Roots of Europe (RRE) and illustrates well the diversity of skills and identities found among the students in the programme.

It also depicts how history is intertwined with people living and studying this history, and how learning is a social enterprise. Around the breakfast table, the students need to deal with both their personal and professional engagements, uncovering both their morning mood and interests not necessarily related to their studies. Some are young, having just finished a Bachelor's degree, but many are more mature students who have taken a break from a professional career in order to recharge competencies, perhaps to start an academic career. The meeting at a breakfast table gives room for both the informal and the formal, creating a shared space that soon will continue around the seminar table, where the conversation will be much more focused on one common topic, but with a stronger awareness of everyone's specific voice and contribution. In this sense, the encounter in Rome has similarities with a conference, during which scholars socialise in both lecture rooms and pubs, and where they uncover skills, but also something of their own personal and academic background.

But what happens when students cannot meet anymore or go to Rome on an excursion, as in the previous example, because of a pandemic? And similarly, what would happen if scholars were not able to meet at conferences anymore and socialise after having debated with one another? Are there ways in which distance learning tools can facilitate some of the aspects provided by physical meetings, and how so? In this paper, we consider two pedagogical concepts, *socialisation* and *uncoverage*, as ways to remedy the distance of distance learning, enhance social learning of skills and perspectives, and as such make a Master's course resemble a conference.

The Challenge: A Master's Programme Online

The RRE programme is a joint international Master's programme offered in a collaboration between the Universities of Lund, Copenhagen and Oslo. Students admitted to the programme are normally from Scandinavia, Europe, Africa, Asia and the Middle East. Many have academic specialities in and personal connections to one of the three religions A significant

number of the students are highly ambitious and mature, with various kinds of work experience within related fields. As a result, the students seem to expect the courses to be settings that resemble an academy, and the programme's attraction as a stepping stone to further studies, both PhD and others, is evident among many admitted students.

The second course in the programme, *The Emergence of Judaism, Christianity and Islam* (15 credits), which has been the object of the pedagogical development in this project, integrates Jewish Studies, Church History and Islamic Studies in its approach to the historical formation of Judaism, Christianity and Islam. Three teachers, one from each discipline, teach the course in cooperation and create a multidisciplinary base from which the students, often firmly based in one of these fields, may explore the others. The course has a distance learning design with one week of get-togethers in Lund for intensive teaching and learning in the form of lectures, seminars and other activities – a so-called compact seminar. The students know each other quite well when they start this course; they have already been on a two-week excursion to Rome together as a part of the first course in the programme, *The Study of Ancient Religion*. As in the rest of the programme, the interaction between the students – and between students and teachers – has been based on these physical meetings during excursions and compact seminars.

This model was profoundly challenged during the Covid pandemic, when all interaction and teaching moved online.¹ Without the physical meetings, the academic environment and the scientific perspectives and skills we wanted the students to be immersed in, faded, and we asked ourselves: How can we reconstruct the distance learning design to make certain that students grow in their academic and scientific abilities?

¹ Among the aspects of teaching and learning that teachers have reported as challenges in the shift to exclusively online interaction are difficulties in motivating students, monitoring their progress, clarify problems with understanding, offering feedback and expressing general concerns and care (Warfvinge et al., 2022).

The Course as a Scientific Conference

To identify what was missing when the compact seminar went online, we considered what a conference is like for scholars. From a learning point of view, a conference could be considered a *zone of proximal development (ZPD)*, according to the well-known theory of Leo Vygotskij (see e.g. Ekholm, 2012). What originally concerned children suits scholars as well: problem-solving with the help of better equipped peers, who do not simply have the answers ready but take part in an open learning process with critical questions. In the best of worlds, the very plurality of topics at a conference makes everyone an expert and a student in different settings, and the conference papers structure working life before and after. The hierarchies of a conference – full professors vs. assistant professors and PhD candidates – resembles the teaching situation and creates boundaries that sometimes can be torn down in the pub afterwards, when scholars become colleagues. In our experience, the compact seminar had played a similar role in the context of the course.

Making contacts, whether formal or informal, and whether one likes it or not, fuses one's own research interest with those of others, and socialises scholars into a scientific academic *community of practice* (Wenger, 1998).² The definition of “practice” put forward by Kemmis et al. (2014), which links activity with discourses and relations as constituent and interdependent parts of practices, is here relevant to our understanding of the scientific practice that we wanted the students to apprehend:

A practice is a form of socially established cooperative human activity in which characteristic arrangements of actions and activities (doings) are comprehensible in terms of arrangements of relevant ideas in characteristic discourses (sayings), and when the people and objects involved are distributed in characteristic arrangements of relationships (relatings), and when this complex of sayings, doings and relatings ‘hangs together’ in a distinctive project (Kemmis et al. 2014, p 7).

² A community of practice is characterised, according to Wenger, by mutual engagement, joint enterprise and shared repertoire.

There are two specific aspects that were identified as particularly important in order to invite students into such a community of practice and create a conference 'zone' (*ZPD*) during the course, namely *socialisation* into a research environment and *uncoverage* of research skills in a peer milieu. Both of these pedagogical concepts were part of a more general attempt to move focus from content to skills, and to increase interaction not only between students, and between students and teachers, but also between students and their new field of scholarship.

Socialisation into the Practice of the Historical Study of Religion

Our aim was to invite students into an academic community of practice and thereby socialise them into the practice of the historical study of religion. With this aim in mind, we reorganised the first two weeks of the course to include more structured introductions to three distinct groups coming together on this course: the teachers, the students and the wider scholarly community, from the point of view of each person's specific expertise, research skills and research environments. First, the teachers introduced themselves carefully in an online seminar. More than simply introducing their own research interests, however interesting, the focus was on methodological and theoretical research skills, how they had been acquired, and in which environments. As an example, the acquisition of different 'dead' language skills, so important in historical studies, could be explored, because there are so many ways: at the desk, in another country and language learning environment, or through personal connections. Theories of power and gender, prominent in many research fields, might have been studied at home, or in a completely different cultural context. As a response, the students were asked to film a similar presentation of themselves, focusing on disciplinary background and skills that could prove important in this course, and upload it for everyone to see. In a concluding seminar a few days later, the centrality of disciplinary skills and the plurality of perspectives in approaching the formation of the three religions, was discussed. In this way, the students were asked to consider

themselves as part of the same research environment as their teachers, thereby creating a seminar milieu. The next step was meeting the broader scholarly community, as at a conference, with a similar set of questions.

This two-step introduction, with a focus on teachers and students, was followed by an investigation into the research environments of the study of the three religions in Sweden and beyond, aimed at illustrating communities of practice and raising awareness of the role of discourses and how disciplinary practices may relate to each other in multidisciplinary and interdisciplinary settings. The third group, the 'scholarly community' was introduced in two ways. Firstly, colleagues at the department were interviewed, and these films were uploaded to highlight different research settings relevant to the course that they could find close at hand and perhaps be interested in. What was the story of the institution that the students studied at and how could scholars find a working place there? Which research projects, seminars and local academic journals could be relevant for students with similar interests? Secondly, students were asked to search for information about the course literature authors, all well-known scholars, from the point of view of their study background, research environments and publication outlets. In another seminar, these were presented and discussed along the lines mentioned before. Because some of the scholars had a religious background, a fourth group was also addressed, namely the practitioners of these religions in the present, in which students and teachers could also be part. In which ways do these living contexts affect the ways the past is interpreted and narrated? Is there a history without someone telling the story?

Towards the end of this initial socialisation where the students were invited into the academic field in all its diversity, as on the first bewildering day of a conference, they had become aware of their own perspectives and skills as well as those of their colleagues, teachers and course authors.

The Uncoverage Model

If the first pedagogical concept, *socialisation*, aimed at inviting students into the academic field with a focus also on their expertise, the second concept, *uncoverage*, served to provide tools for redirecting the focus from

‘content’ to research skills. Here, the so-called “Uncoverage Model” was helpful, a pedagogical method introduced by the historian Lendol Calder (2006) and developed by scholars at Lund University (Heidenblad, 2017; Pinto & Heidenblad, 2020; Weber, 2021; Markussen, 2021). Calder criticised traditional history teaching for a single-minded effort to ‘cover’ historical content (facts and knowledge), while at the same time ‘covering up’ the fact that history is not something historians know, but do, i.e., a skill and a scientific practice. In the end, history is an “argument without end” according to Calder (*ibid*: 1366).

In our experience, Calder’s criticism also applies to student expectations, which can be shaped by a similar concern for the content of a specific topic, such as a ‘religion’. Here, a pedagogical “bottleneck” (Pace, 2017) was identified, which was students’ prior knowledge of *one* of the religions, due to previous studies and/or a living experience, and which made it all too easy for some to essentialise religious traditions instead of seeing them as historically constructed. In order to approach this bottleneck and provide a better understanding of the central role of discourses and narratives in research, the concept of “metanarratives” was introduced as a research tool.

How can we, then, understand the concept of metanarratives? As is well-known, the “post-modern condition” has been interpreted as “a condition whose defining feature was ‘incredulity towards metanarratives’” (Gunn 2006, p 27, with reference to Jean-François Lyotard). For a long time now, scholars have pointed to the narrative structure of history, not least Hayden White (1979), and to the need of critically targeting ‘master narratives’ that prioritise colonial or simply male points of view. In a social constructivist mode, not only nations but also religions are “imagined communities” (Anderson, 1991), a conclusion which has a direct bearing on the present course. While such ideas have become commonplace in the field of history, David Larsson Heidenblad has nevertheless argued that they have not yet affected pedagogical research in a corresponding way (2017; 2018). The pedagogical consequences of historical theory have not yet been adequately explored (2017, p 101–102; cf. Stearns, Seixas & Wineburg 2000, p 116), perhaps because Swedish historians have followed a German rather than an Anglo-Saxon tradition (Heidenblad 2018, p 134).

So how do students learn to identify both the metanarratives of ancient sources as well as those of contemporary scholars? Further, how did the idea of the course as a conference facilitate this learning? In the course *The Emergence of Judaism, Christianity and Islam*, students were invited not only to deconstruct, but also to write their own metanarrative. From the outset, the course was structured according to concepts that can be explored as metanarratives, starting in general with the concepts of ‘religion’ and the historical period of study, ‘late antiquity’. To help students think along these lines, one of the teachers was filmed reading a book which was not in his own field, i.e. not concerned with one’s religion of expertise (“How to read a book from another discipline”). In the next step, the religions, ‘Judaism’, ‘Christianity’ and ‘Islam’, were treated as metanarratives constructed both in the past and present, and both by insiders and outsiders, including scholars. Group work was chosen as a way of facilitating students’ encounters with, and deconstruction of, metanarratives of various kinds – as would happen at a scientific conference.

The group work assignments were guided in two directions. In the first, students were reading ancient foundation narratives (of a religion or a specific practice) *as* foundation narratives, trying to identify the tools of the trade, or ‘genre’, and then discussing them in seminars. In a similar manner, students read polemical interactions *as* polemics, from the point of view of genre, aim, recipient and a discussion of whether polemical writings perhaps could represent a shared culture of training, writing and production. The second direction concerned scholarly metanarratives in the past and present, and in written assignments students were asked to critically approach the ways in which the course literature thematised changes in perspective, and the ‘story’ they offered. Such assignments were commented on through both peer review and the teacher’s comments.

In the end, both these directions were tried and tested in the exam, which consisted of a general question of comparison between the three religions, which the students should respond to both regarding ancient sources and modern scholarly interpretations, and during which they should critically and self-critically offer their ‘own’ metanarrative. In order to underline the conference mode of the course – and also not to overwhelm the students – an exam workshop (Markussen, 2021) started the exam

period, during which the students could discuss their attempts at telling the story in a consistent and critical way.

A Circle of Scholars – Students’ and Teachers’ Evaluations of the Course

Our aim for this development project was to replace some of the processes that happen more or less instantly, indirectly and sometimes simultaneously when students and teachers meet face to face in a scientific environment, with consciously planned activities and the aid of pedagogical tools. For us, it was important to invite the students to the course as young scholars to a conference, to a place where they considered their own skills and need for further training at the same time as they examined their teachers, their teaching environments and the course literature authors with a similar set of practical questions (how did they acquire their skills?). We made several major changes to the course at the same time, knowing that it entailed the risk of creating asymmetries and confusion. Some of these aspects were felt by the teachers. In hindsight, we opted for too many changes simultaneously and with the new focus on uncovering skills and practices, a bit of the knowledge and facts were lost from view – which created a tension between scheduling content and skills. The focus on metanarratives and foundation narratives, however, turned out to be an excellent way of turning a multidisciplinary course into an interdisciplinary one. It created a new base from which the teachers could work together more cohesively.

The pedagogical tools of socialisation and uncoverage proved efficient for creating a learning environment online with the benefits of the processes that take place at academic conferences. In light of such a conference, socialisation did not simply mean students encountering one another, but also their teachers and their research environments, including the international scholars writing the course literature. In light of such a conference, uncoverage did not simply mean the skills the students had, or needed to learn, but also the variety of skills scholars need, or lack, in order to discuss specific matters. Here, the focus on metanarratives proved especially valuable, because it put focus on the constructive and creative

nature of ancient sources as well as scholarly reconstructions of the past, including those of the students themselves. Naturally, some students needed more written responses than others to fully grasp the uncovering of metanarratives.

Students' reactions to the new layout of the course were surprisingly positive. Voices from the course evaluations spoke of personal growth and exaltation at being able to bring their own disciplinary skills into the course. As a group, more students finished the course than in the previous year and the student group was, like the teachers, more cohesive. In other words, we were more like the different scholars at a conference, in different capacities and with different skills, but with a common purpose.

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Interdisciplinarity and Lifelong Learning in Doctoral Education for Sustainable Development: A Case Study on the Agenda 2030 Graduate School at Lund University

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Abstract

The 17 UN Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) provide a framework for “peace and prosperity for people and the planet, now and into the future” (UN, 2015). Fast-moving societal questions as the ones related to the SDGs are often addressed from within traditional disciplinary research paradigms, which might not be best equipped for tackling the emerging challenges. At Lund University, an interdisciplinary Graduate School is working to address the growing societal challenges, utilizing the SDGs framework. We here investigate how the SDG framework influences the choice of research topics and supervisors in doctoral education, both at the beginning of doctoral studies and over time. We use semi-structured interviews with three doctoral students and with the Graduate School’s coordinator. We conclude that while the SDGs provide a shared language

and framework for discussions, the research is mostly disciplinary. The Graduate School, however, provides opportunities for doctoral students and their supervisors to connect beyond their discipline and be exposed to new ideas and inspiration. Utilizing these opportunities would turn the Graduate School into a lifelong-learning hub, thus increasing awareness of changes in areas such as technology, finance and politics.

Introduction

Sustainability and the Agenda 2030 Graduate School

Increasing challenges – environmental, social and economic – have brought sustainable development to the center of attention, in practice, policy and research – mainly in the form of the 17 UN Sustainable Development Goals (in the following called “SDGs”; UN, 2015), which were adopted by the United Nations General Assembly in 2015. As politicians, cities and municipalities around the world are striving to go from words to action in response to the SDGs, the need for new knowledge on sustainability becomes evident. The pressing situation has placed high demands on universities to step up in relation to sustainability. “Sustainability” has moved from being a particular research interest to becoming a more mainstream concept that many fields of research connect to – a development that potentially increases the relevance and impact, but also the complexity, of researching sustainability.

Lund University has responded to the growing demand for knowledge and academic skills in sustainability in a number of ways, of which the establishment of a research school on sustainability is one of the more prominent. In 2018, Lund University established the *Agenda 2030 Graduate School* for doctoral students, the so-called “Graduate School”. The initiative is unique in Sweden insofar as it is university-wide, including all nine faculties of Lund University. It is also the first research school in Sweden built around the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. The intention of the Graduate School, and its relation to the SDGs, is described by its coordinators (Jönsson & van Meeningen, 2021): “The vision encapsulated

in the agenda and its 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) is ambitious: to end poverty, violence and inequality and provide healthcare and universal access to education as well as environmental protection, clean energy and safe water and sanitation, to provide a few examples. Reaching these encompassing goals by 2030 will be an immense challenge, and new ways of thinking and innovative solutions will be necessary. By encouraging novel interdisciplinary collaborations across faculties, and by developing interdisciplinary research courses and educational tools revolving around sustainable development, the aim is to provide a new generation of researchers with cutting-edge knowledge that can contribute to a sustainable future.”

The authors continue by suggesting that the Graduate School should serve as a platform, “for Agenda 2030-related education and an inventive approach to learning through interdisciplinarity.” In response to this initiative, 17 doctoral students were employed at the end of 2019 and the beginning of 2020. The Graduate School grew further, when another 13 doctoral students were admitted in spring 2022, to a total of 30 doctoral students.

Four years into the process of establishing the Graduate School as an arena for “cutting-edge knowledge” on sustainability, there ought to be lessons that can be learned from their experiences. How is the intention to promote “novel interdisciplinary collaborations across faculties” being implemented? Are research topics adapting to the moving goalposts of pressing sustainability issues? What can we learn from the research school in terms of doctoral supervision? So far, the Agenda 2030 Graduate School at Lund University has not in itself been an object of research. In this article, we build on previous research on interdisciplinary doctoral education, which we review in Section 1.2, as well as an empirical investigation of this particular research school, which we report on in Section 2.2. We discuss our findings and present conclusions in Section 3.

Literature review: Challenges connected to interdisciplinarity in doctoral education

In order to solve urgent challenges, there is often an instinctive call for *interdisciplinarity* (Boden et al., 2011). However, this term is often used very vaguely meaning everything “synonymous with all things progressive, innovative, and creative” (Holley, 2010). A more useful definition of interdisciplinary research might be “inquiries which critically draw upon two or more disciplines and which lead to an integration of disciplinary insights” (Holley, 2010).

Attempts at interdisciplinary research are often made through doctoral training, but this leads to challenges because universities are not designed for cooperation across disciplines (Boden et al., 2011). Current approaches to doctoral training might even be considered “inhospitable to interdisciplinarity” (Golde & Gallagher, 1999) because of the focus on producing specialists, not generalists, when doctoral students working across disciplines need to be both, and “scientifically multilingual” (Brodin et al., 2020). It is often challenging for doctoral students who want to work interdisciplinarily to develop, and show, both breadth and depth in their knowledge and their research outcomes. As a first step, meeting people working in other disciplines is necessary and “encounters with other disciplines may help to increase these students’ self-insight into who they are as researchers” (Brodin et al., 2020). However, even when opportunities are designed for people to meet and talk across disciplines, it does not happen by itself, there is a need for a supportive frame engagement (Holley, 2010). Since doctoral studies are a time during which many decisions are made, networks are built and habits are formed, all of which will heavily influence the future professional careers, the way in which doctoral students are introduced to and trained in interdisciplinary work needs to stay attentive to “the processes of learning, research, and service inherent to the graduate model” (Holley, 2010).

There are four main challenges for interdisciplinarity in doctoral education (Golde & Gallagher, 1999): finding a supervisor, dealing with potentially conflicting methodologies, building an intellectual community and overcoming fear.

Finding a supervisor

Since interdisciplinary research is still in its infancy and universities are more likely to hire disciplinary researchers, finding a supervisor to act as role model in interdisciplinary research is challenging (Golde & Gallagher, 1999).

In general, doctoral students become more independent over time, and supervisors more hands-off (Borg et al., 2016), so there is potential for a doctoral student to develop into an interdisciplinary researcher over time, even with a disciplinary supervisor. Nevertheless, selecting a supervisor and a topic for a doctoral thesis are decisions with far-reaching consequences. “Choosing an advisor with whom the student can build a supportive professional relationship is perhaps the most critical decision a student makes” (Golde & Gallagher, 1999).

There are criteria for prospective doctoral students regarding how to choose their supervisor, and models for how to evaluate them against each other (Ray, 2007). Still, supervisors are often chosen in a chaotic way, “which can become one of the reasons for regret, lack of motivation, and poor quality of research output” (Ray, 2007).

Closely linked with the decision about a supervisor is the decision on a research topic, and as with the decision on a supervisor, there are criteria for choosing a topic (e.g. Xia, 2013, and references therein; Isaac et al., 1989). According to Isaac et al., 1989, across all fields, the student’s “own preference” is the most important factor in the choice of a topic. After that, the most important factors are generally “trends in the field”, “own life experiences” (except for engineers!), “adviser’s preference” (which is the second most important in Engineering). Natural science supervisors are typically more involved in topic selection than supervisors in social sciences or humanities (Xia, 2013). In Engineering, the most important factor, together with one’s own and the supervisor’s preference, is that “equipment was available”, and “financial limitations” are also relatively important. However, the criteria for choosing a topic are often not applied rationally (Xia, 2013).

Mastering knowledge and reconciling conflicting methodologies

Universities are very much disciplinary silos, which can present a “formidable obstacle for participating in interdisciplinary work” (Holley, 2010). This is because striving for breadth in addition to depth might not be seen as worthwhile as focusing solely on depth (Holley, 2010; Gardner et al., 2012), but also because “academic behaviour, knowledge production, and institutional logic” (Holley, 2010) are defined in each of the silos individually and might conflict with culture in others.

If interdisciplinary doctoral education is attempted, the focus should be on helping doctoral students develop a wide enough knowledge of techniques and methodologies, so they can (practice to) participate in discussions in disciplines other than their own (Holley, 2010 and 2015), which helps them gain confidence in situating their own research (Mobjörk et al., 2020). Doctoral students should also be given opportunities to gain experience of interdisciplinary research, for example through internships in interdisciplinary groups (Holley, 2010).

Finding an intellectual community

Doctoral students embarking on interdisciplinary research need to develop an interdisciplinary network to discuss ideas with and build collaborations. One important aspect is to actively involve supervisors and other senior researchers as role models and as members of an intellectual community in the design of interdisciplinary doctoral education (Holley, 2015; Mobjörk et al., 2020), both in terms of the formal curriculum (Holley, 2010 and 2015) and in informal social events (Holley, 2010). Developing a “safe arena” (Golde & Gallagher, 1999) in order to practice interdisciplinary research is key. In successful examples of interdisciplinary doctoral education, the intellectual community and support seems to most often develop among peers, not so much involving supervisors and other senior researchers (Gardner et al., 2012).

Overcoming fear

There are many valid fears associated with interdisciplinary research: That it is not valued as highly as disciplinary research because of the focus on depth vs breadth, that colleagues might not understand it, that journals

which will publish interdisciplinary research have a lower profile than disciplinary journals and that the combination of these factors will make it more difficult to get a job in the academic job market (Golde & Gallagher, 1999).

Other challenges and the way forward

In addition to these four challenges, there are also organizational barriers to interdisciplinarity (Boden et al., 2011). For example, offices and laboratory spaces are usually designed for, and under the control of, one specific discipline. Hiring of doctoral students usually happens based on disciplinary criteria, which promotion decisions are also based on. So, an “open discussion of the politics of interdisciplinarity” and the recognition that a successful interdisciplinary doctoral student might need to be qualified in non-traditional ways in the discipline, is needed (Boden et al., 2011). There are criteria for how to select the best candidate for a doctoral position (not just based on familiarity or gut feeling), and good criteria and their consistent application might go a long way (Lindelöw, 2010).

To overcome the challenges for interdisciplinary doctoral education described above, there is a need for “holistic solutions and systems thinking” (Golde & Gallagher, 1999), or even leveraging multiple theories of change (Kezar and Holcombe, 2019) to support the design of specific activities or programs and purposefully create and use synergies.

Interview study

Materials and methods

For this study, we conducted three semi-structured interviews with current doctoral students in the Graduate School:

- Doctoral Student A, 26 months into their PhD, face-to-face interview, on 2 March 2022, duration 65 minutes.
- Doctoral Student B, 29 months into their PhD, face-to-face interview, on 3 March 2022, duration 62 minutes.

- Doctoral Student C, 30 months into their PhD, Zoom interview, on 11 March 2022, duration 37 minutes.

Since two of the doctoral students preferred to remain anonymous, we are protecting their identity by referring to all doctoral students with the gender-neutral, third-person pronoun they/them/their.

One semi-structured interview was conducted with the Coordinator of the Graduate School, Kristina Jönsson:

- Face-to-face interview, on 8 March 2022, duration 73 minutes.

Empirical investigations

How are research questions chosen, developed and adjusted over time within the school?

Student A explains that they were very free in choosing their research questions. A first version of their questions was articulated already in their application. The questions then developed and changed in dialogue with their supervisors. “The questions changed organically in response to influences from different contexts. What I read and whom I meet. I am influenced by many different actors.”

Student B received the research questions as settled, but they then developed the questions further with feedback from their supervisors. The research questions are decided on a study-by-study basis, and there are no overarching questions for their whole thesis.

Student C wrote a proposal with a research question in response to a call specifying a general research area. When they started working on it, they changed to an entirely different research question that, however, still lies within the general research area. This fundamental change was based on interest. Smaller changes in the methodology were later decided on based on getting a wider understanding of the field.

What is the framework in which research questions are chosen?

Two notions have been particularly important in terms of framework from student A. In their work, they draw primarily on the notion of sustainability

and the notion of architecture. They explain that they have also constructed “a smaller framework” within those broad notions, where architecture means planning, and sustainability is addressed through critical theory, including feminist theory.

“I work based on the background of the study”, student B says. Therefore, after defining the research questions, they see how it fits in connection with the SDGs, rather than looking specifically at a certain SDG. Student B concludes that their research subject is inherently connected to the SDGs, thus it is not difficult for them to hit a few sustainability targets in every study.

For student C, both the initial and then the actual research questions were linked to the SDGs, but the SDGs were not a primary motivation to study the exact topic – that was driven by a more general idea of sustainability and innovation.

The Graduate School and the UN SDGs

What is the relation between the Graduate School and 17 SDGs agreed upon by the United Nations? Are students encouraged to work with particular SDGs and subgoals?

Student A explains: “Yes, we are encouraged to define what goals we work with in the research school. It has been a way to find others who work with the same goals. Keywords have been helpful to catch sight of each other and shared interests, to find overlaps.”

Student A continues by explaining that they do not work with particular SDGs, but more with the framework Agenda 2030, and how it sits within the growth paradigm. They do not know at this point whether they will relate to any particular SDG subgoals, though they say they might connect to them later. “The focus will not be how to meet the goals, but rather a critical perspective on the goals as such – on the western, growth-oriented approach to sustainability.”

Student A explains that this approach to Agenda 2030 is not typical of the group of students, but also not unique. There are other doctoral students with a critical perspective on Agenda 2030 in the Graduate

School. Whereas some students focus on the fulfilment of the SDGs, others take a more critical approach to the agenda.

Student B explains that the Graduate School does not change the fundamentals of their research, but rather adds a new perspective to it. They also acknowledged the role of the Graduate School in arranging common courses and seminars connected to the SDG topics, which could promote achieving SDGs.

Student C links to SDG subgoals, but these are not driving their work. Nevertheless, the subgoals are a good way to connect with other students and find a common language.

The coordinator of the Graduate School describes the approach to the SDGs as holistic rather than detailed. She highlights communication as key to working with Agenda 2030, describing the Graduate School as a place where one can problematize the agenda by looking at it from different angles. It is then crucial to find a language for interdisciplinarity, to find ways in which students can communicate across departments and affiliations. This challenging task is made easier since the motivation is high. “I think all doctoral candidates who applied to the program want to make a change, perhaps more than others and more outreach, we have high ambitions!”

Interdisciplinary work and supervision

Is interdisciplinary supervision needed, and to what extent is it happening? Has it changed over time? To what extent are students looking for expertise from other disciplines?

Student A has three supervisors from their own department. Student A has had no insight into the process of choosing the supervisors. “I was appointed three supervisors from the beginning, and I didn’t know enough to ask the right questions at that time.” They suggest that it would have been good for them to have a supervisor from another discipline or department. It would also have been good to have a “free seat” for a third supervisor to join when the project was developing. This, the possibility to add the expertise that is needed as the project develops, is interesting in terms of doctoral supervision.

Before joining the Graduate School, student A had an expectation of more interdisciplinary support. “I expected more of a system for interdisciplinary work, but there seems to be administrative hindrances to work like that. I also expected more formalized forms of collaboration in general, which is not really happening. The administration seems too difficult. It follows the university logic, where things happen inside each department. It is now up to oneself to do interdisciplinary work.” Student A’s experience is that the demands on the doctoral students, besides writing a thesis, are relatively few. In relation to what they understand as their main duty in the Graduate School – to write an interdisciplinary dissertation – student A would have liked to have more structure in terms of interdisciplinary work. “It is hard to prioritize collaborative work without clear incentives. We do meet once a month – but there are only possibilities, no obligations. The group might have been stronger if there were more formalized assignments on collaborative or interdisciplinary work. It is fully up to the individual student and their engagement, and sometimes people don’t show up.”

Student A suggests, however, that it might also be an advantage to belong to one department, as it might have caused more stress to be in between disciplines at the beginning of one’s academic career.

“It is a tricky question”, student B answers and adds “in order to make a clean transition, we need to be able to communicate”. They think that sometimes you need to be specialized, as you will not reach the best journals to publish in, indicating that interdisciplinarity may not be academically relevant in that way. However, one can gain more attention with interdisciplinarity, i.e. more accessible research outcomes to read and understand, they argue.

Student B has two supervisors from the same department and another two from different disciplines. One of their supervisors is from a completely different background, which adds the interdisciplinarity aspect to their work. “It is a very good learning opportunity for me, it adds to the scope of my work”, student B says. On the other hand, challenges exist when one tries to do such interdisciplinary work with their background, highlighting “I am not trained to carry out this piece of work” – yet this addition will resolve more societal challenges. Some groups in the Graduate

School hold mini-workshops together with a common theme, mostly people interested in theory, student B comments regarding looking for expertise from other disciplines.

Student C has two supervisors from the same department, because the supervisor with whom the project was developed was initially not allowed to supervise, so a second one in the department was assigned to fulfil the regulations on supervision. Student C does not want to add a third one because that feels like it would be too many.

At the same time, student C is currently abroad to run experiments with another group and learn from them, so there is a general interest in receiving new and different input.

Student C reports that the Graduate School, with its focus on both sustainability and interdisciplinarity, plays a strong role in helping them “keep sustainability in mind”, “keeping me in check”, and reports on interactions with other students that have changed student C’s view on their own research in a bigger context. In particular, student C says that it is very easy, in the culture of their home department, to fall into the trap of just thinking “profit, profit, profit” and that this is balanced by the Graduate School.

The coordinator confirms that it has not always been so easy to meet the interdisciplinary intention of the Graduate School in practice. The first four years have shown that the ability or “readiness” to work interdisciplinarily differs greatly between faculties. Although many of the supervisors are already working with interdisciplinary topics, there is often a lack of time to reach out and do things differently. Although people are enthusiastic about the idea, the move towards more interdisciplinary work is, according to the coordinator, a slow process. Interdisciplinarity happens mainly where it is already happening at the department. Another challenge is the decentralized structure of Lund University – making monetary transactions, as well as translation of credits, rules and regulations, between departments and faculties difficult. She explains how the office of the Graduate School has adjusted its ambitions accordingly. They work with the idea of creating a space where people should at least “be aware of each other” and where broad and interdisciplinary discussions can take place. They are also encouraging supervisors to engage as teachers in creating

interdisciplinary graduate courses within the framework of the Graduate School. There have been seminars on the topic of interdisciplinarity for the doctoral students. For the supervisors, however, there is no budget for providing any training or particular support in relation to the challenges of interdisciplinary work.

Interdisciplinary work and the feeling of belonging

Student A has a stronger feeling of belonging to their home department than to the research school as such. “I have resources in the research school, but the framework has been built within the department primarily.”

Student A feels supported in terms of supervision. Since they started, they have experienced a friendly and encouraging atmosphere, both at their home department and at the Graduate School. Student A suggests, however, that the supervisor’s relation to the Graduate School could be strengthened. All supervisors are invited to the research school once a year with the student and once a year without the student, but those meetings could, according to student A, have been more useful if they were more structured. Student A describes how it is now up to them to keep their supervisors updated on the progress of the Graduate School. The supervisors from different departments do not know or meet each other. Students do not usually meet the other supervisors, except sometimes at courses.

“For me, I am attached more to my department than to the Graduate School when it comes to the basis of my research work”, says student B. They believe that their supervisors are interested in the Graduate School and what they do there, but with minimal engagement. They mention that the supervisors of all students in the Graduate School often meet every semester, mostly via digital platforms. Similar to student A, student B concludes “We do not talk much about the Graduate School, I just update them about my engagement in seminars, courses, etc.”

Student C also reports that there does not seem to be much of a connection between the supervisors and the Graduate School. The supervisor might be involved in some projects, but if so, student C does not know about it.

Sustainability and the need to adapt research to changing realities

One challenge of supervising doctoral students on sustainability is the nature of sustainable development. It is a disputed notion, but also a “moving target”. Are doctoral students adapting their research questions to urgent sustainability topics? And if so, what do they actually mean by “adapting”? For example, change in the type of language used to describe it, change in “official” motivation for the research, or actual substantial change to the research question?

Student A explains how the object of their study, the built environment, is more stable than other parts of society. The making of a new area will not be immediately affected or changed by a new IPCC report; since everything is already planned, it will stay more or less the same. Student A refers to this as the slowness of planning. They continue to explain how their project relates less to climate change and more to social sustainability, a field that is not perceived as urgent. “It is more stable in that sense, inequalities do not usually demand such fast action, although I think of it as equally urgent.”

Student B believes that their field of research is fitting decently with (urgent) sustainability topics, thus they do not find it difficult to adapt their research questions in this context. However, they think that this might vary significantly between students in the Graduate School, especially with those who are focused on theories based on sustainability.

Student C does not see their research questions adapting to changing realities, even though they are working on a fairly new technology.

Other points from the interviews

In addition to all the functions mentioned above, the Graduate School plays another important role, and that is providing students with an external perspective, a place to talk with people outside of the context of students’ home departments, and moral support. Student C says “I do not think I would survive my PhD without the graduate school”.

Lastly, the Graduate School is not just funding doctoral positions, but also research stays abroad (currently student C).

Discussion and conclusions

We structure our discussion according to the challenges identified in the literature review above.

Finding a supervisor

Earlier research has highlighted the importance of the selection of a supervision team for a doctoral thesis. The choice of a supervisor has been described as potentially “the most critical decision a student makes” (Golde & Gallagher, 1999). Drawing on this suggestion, it is interesting, and perhaps a bit troubling, to note that the doctoral students interviewed for this study were hardly part of the process of choosing their supervisors. They were all assigned supervisors from the very beginning, or even, as in the case of one student, in the description of the PhD position they applied for.

The doctoral students expressed that they were hoping for more flexibility in terms of supervisors. One student was highlighting the need to adjust the supervision team as the project proceeded into new fields of knowledge. The same student expressed that it had been difficult for them to take an active part in the choice of supervisors at the beginning, because they had too little insight into the actual process of doctoral studies at that time. In response to the need for interdisciplinary supervision, one of the doctoral students added a fourth person to the supervision team. One of the other students said they have been thinking of that possibility, but decided that it was not worth it, since having four supervisors would potentially be too many to handle. Another student thinks that even three supervisors would be too many.

Drawing on the students’ experiences, and on earlier research (Golde & Gallagher, 1999), we suggest that doctoral students working in the interdisciplinary field of sustainable development would often benefit from having supervisors from different disciplines. The challenge to find the right combination of competencies in the supervision team from the beginning has been highlighted in the interviews. Agreeing with Golde & Gallagher (1999) that the choice of supervisor is a critical decision for any doctoral student, we advocate a model where the doctoral student has the

possibility to add co-supervisors (second or third) a bit into the process of developing their project.

Dealing with potentially conflicting methodologies

In interdisciplinary research, one big challenge is that different disciplines use different methodologies or interpret the same ones in different ways. Interestingly, while all the doctoral students we interviewed were very much aware of the danger of this happening (as becomes clear for example by them not wanting to add more supervisors, or expressing that they think it is easiest to work out of one main research institute, as they do), only one has actually experienced this difficulty with a supervisor whom they connected with through the Graduate School, and who brings in a very different experience, point of view and methodology. This strengthens our argument that, while all doctoral students have interdisciplinary conversations within the Graduate School (and enjoy those!), for only a few this extends to their actual research, which is mainly disciplinary.

Building an intellectual community

The importance of role models when creating an interdisciplinary intellectual community has been highlighted in the literature (Holley, 2015; Mobjörk et al., 2020). Although the building of an intellectual community is very much the focus of the Graduate School, this seems to be lacking. Drawing on the interviews with doctoral students, as well as on the interview with the coordinator, community building within the Agenda 2030 Graduate School is mainly happening on a peer-to-peer level. A development that is typical for the development of an intellectual community in interdisciplinary doctoral education, according to earlier studies (Gardner et al., 2012). Building on that, the Graduate School seems to be really good at promoting a sense of community among its students. The interviews show that the Graduate School functions as a supportive structure within which the doctoral students can get acquainted with new perspectives and find shared interests across disciplines. This could be compared to the “safe arena” as described by Golde & Gallagher (1999) – a space in which one may practice interdisciplinary research. Kristina

Jönsson, the coordinator of the Graduate School, did however express a wish for the Graduate School to grow into an intellectual community that also includes supervisors and other senior researchers.

Overcoming fear

Fear – especially focused on a future as an interdisciplinary researcher – has not come out as a big topic in our interviews. However, it has become very clear that there is a strong support network within the Graduate School (see also Section 3.3), which is explicitly centered on an office, without which at least one doctoral student states they would not be able to finish their doctoral thesis. One student expressed having had an initial fear of being “different” to the rest of the group in their critical approach to the UN SDGs. This fear disappeared when they met the group, and what they experienced as an enabling and open atmosphere. The same student expressed a fear that working fully interdisciplinarily would have been too difficult as a young, inexperienced researcher. The fear of not getting a job after interdisciplinary doctoral studies (Golde & Gallagher, 1999) did not surface in any of the interviews.

Other challenges

In our interviews, we have found that the other challenges described in the literature are also experienced within the Graduate School: there are no common spaces that are easily accessible to all doctoral students, especially no shared laboratory spaces. In addition, organizing the Graduate School across all the different faculties seems to be a challenge since all structures are decentralized: how finances or reporting works, whom to include in decision-making.

In summary, we have found that all these challenges are real, but solvable. Golde & Gallagher (1999) suggest that “tackling them requires holistic solutions and systems thinking”. We would even suggest going beyond systems thinking towards leveraging multiple theories of change (Kezar and Holcombe, 2019): using several theories of change simultaneously can support the design of specific activities or doctoral education as a whole, and more generally, there are synergies that can

purposefully be leveraged. Inviting everybody into stimulating and significant venues and bringing in highly esteemed guest speakers supports the influence of prestigious personalities and institutions on participants. From an organizational learning perspective, annual meetings lead to sharing of information and experiences, which can result in adaptation of those new practices. Using a systems theory perspective, the meetings can reinforce an interdisciplinary framework, by using it as a guiding structure and always referring back to relevant documents. Moreover, from a network theory perspective, annual meetings can provide opportunities for informal and formal meetings and bonding situations in both random and planned groups. Thinking about the whole Graduate School in this way might lead to strategies that help anchor interdisciplinary thinking across all of Lund University, and manifest in interdisciplinary doctoral research in steps towards sustainable development.

Sustainability as a subject or a perspective

The study has pointed to the challenges of working interdisciplinarily on the topic of sustainability. The interviews, when read together, show that doctorates are primarily awarded within traditional disciplines. They also show that being rooted in a discipline is perceived as a comforting experience. The inclination to work within defined disciplines leads to the question of how research on sustainability is best conducted. Is it beneficial to work with sustainability as a perspective present in multiple disciplines, as seen in the Graduate School, or should it rather be addressed as a discipline in itself?

As the demand for expertise in sustainability grows, we see more initiatives to establish sustainability as an academic discipline of its own. It is, however, more often addressed as an interdisciplinary or transdisciplinary research field. (A nearby example of a transdisciplinary approach is the establishment of the research field “Sustainability science” at Malmö University). All three approaches have their pros and cons.

Knowledge on sustainability is, however, not a strictly academic affair, it is on the contrary something that engages practitioners in many different fields and professions, including both the private and public sector. It is,

however, not always easy to keep up with the fast development of sustainable development related to various fields. We see that the university can play a role in terms of lifelong learning, by providing teaching units on sustainability for practitioners wanting to update their skills and knowledge. When offering this kind of education for practitioners, it is important for academia to stay close to the subject and the “reality” of the practitioners. The disciplinary approach to sustainability might thus stand a better chance of being more relevant to practice.

However, there are also potential drawbacks to a strictly disciplinary approach as it may not always be sufficient when facing multifaceted and complex issues. (Here we must remember that sustainability issues are often characterized by a high degree of complexity due to their interconnectedness with social, economic and environmental systems.) It is therefore possible to assume that in some situations an interdisciplinary approach is more valuable (also for practice) as it allows a diverse range of perspectives to be brought to bear on a problem. Interdisciplinary work may require more coordination and can potentially be more time-consuming, as the interviews have shown. Interdisciplinary work on sustainability may on the other hand provide more holistic, insightful and potentially more innovative solutions. Overall, it is important to understand that the pros and cons of interdisciplinary work depend to a great extent on the specific situation and the objective of each project. Further research is needed to better understand the strengths and the limitations of both disciplinary and interdisciplinary approaches in relation to sustainability work and research.

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Frågan om anonymiserade examinationer ur ett pedagogiskt perspektiv

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Abstract

Anonymisation of assessments has been discussed for decades. It stems from a concern about undue bias in assessment and grading. In Sweden, anonymised assessments were introduced in many universities a decade ago. It was rarely preceded by discussions on potential pedagogical consequences. Recent research on the effects of anonymisation does not confirm the hypothesis of reduced bias in grading. Research has also indicated that assessment and feedback designs affect student learning, and that anonymised assessment designs might obstruct the intentions of learning-oriented designs. I advocate a certain degree of caution and call for a nuanced discussion with students' learning in focus.

Diskussionen då och nu

För- och nackdelar med anonymisering av examinationer har diskuterats i decennier. Litteratur från 1990-talet fram till början av 2010-talet har ofta lyft fram vikten av att examinationer anonymiseras, eftersom det annars finns en risk för att lärare påverkas av sina fördomar och förutfattade meningar – inte minst vad gäller kön och etnicitet – när de bedömer och betygsätter elevers och studenters prestationer. Några har även lyft fram att

anonymisering kan skydda lärare från risken att beskyllas för partiskhet: vet läraren inget om vilken student som presterat vilket resultat är risken för partiskhet minimerad. Andra studier har emellertid visat på mycket liten eller ingen effekt av bias på betygssättning. På senare år har forskare i stället velat problematisera anonymisering ur ett pedagogiskt perspektiv. Idag handlar diskursen kring examination och bedömning inte mycket om anonymisering, utan mer om hur examination och bedömning kan utformas för att främja studenters lärande. Jag skulle vilja påstå att vi befinner oss inom ett paradigm av lärandeorienterad examination.

Det är inte svårt att förstå varför ämnet bränner. Vi vet att fördomar finns i våra samhällen och hos oss alla, och det ligger nära till hands att anta att dessa skulle kunna påverka bedömning och examination i högre utbildning. Eftersom denna ska vara rättvis och, sedan Bolognareformen 2007, även målstyrd, finns det naturligtvis all anledning att diskutera och undersöka hur det förhåller sig. De betyg en student får kan dessutom påverka möjligheterna till vidare studier och i viss mån till arbete, varför det är viktigt att betyg sätts på ett så rättvist och välgrundat sätt som möjligt.

Studenternas kampanj

Frågan om anonymiserad examination har i hög grad varit studentdriven, inledningsvis främst via en kampanj vid National Union of Students (NUS) i Storbritannien under namnet *Mark my words, not my name*. Den tog fasta på en undersökning från 1999 som hade visat att 44 procent av studentkårerna i Storbritannien vid tidpunkten trodde att diskriminering och partiskhet från lärarens sida kunde påverka de betyg de satte (NUS; Pitt & Winstone, 2017). Även om detta naturligtvis var alarmerande siffror som rätteligen både oroade och manade till debatt, bör det noteras att kampanjen utgick ifrån en upplevd oro hos studenter inom NUS, snarare än ifrån faktiska belegg för diskriminering.

Även i Sverige har frågan framför allt drivits av studentkårer (t.ex. Rosenberg & Lindkvist, 2008; Eliasson, 2009). I Lunds Studenters uppdaterade *Rättighetslista* från 2021 (§ 5.4) står: "Universitetet ansvarar för att, om examinationsformen möjliggör det, studenten ska vid bedömning

av prov vara anonym i förhållande till den bedömande läraren. Skriftliga salsprov ska vara anonyma. Examinator måste dock få del av namnen på provdeltagarna under handläggningen av betygsärendet innan betygsbeslutet fattas.” Sveriges förenade studentkårer, SFS, erkänner som enda undantag från anonymiserade prov de fall då ”anonymiseringen skulle försvåra en saklig bedömning av hur studenten lever upp till målen” (enl. UKÄ 2020: 41). Detta är naturligtvis en komplicerad avvägning som öppnar upp för frågor kring inte minst kunskapssyn, samt vilka kompetenser en utbildning syftar till att träna: i vilken utsträckning kan kunskaper och kompetenser bedömas frikopplade från individens förhållningssätt och tolkningskontext?

Studenters krav ledde till att många svenska lärosäten och fakulteter redan för runt 10 år sedan övergick till att använda sig av olika mekanismer för examinationsanonymisering. Detta förefaller ha föregåtts av diskussioner och genomlysningar dels av vad som vore juridiskt möjligt, dels av logistiska strukturer och hur man kan skulle kunna gå till väga rent praktiskt. Däremot diskuterades sällan pedagogiska konsekvenser av anonymisering (Zackari & Olsson, 2022).

Svar på studenternas kampanj

I Universitetskanslerämbetets senaste upplaga av Rättssäker examination (UKÄ, 2020) tas anonymisering av skriftlig examination upp som lämplig ur ett rättssäkerhetsperspektiv: ”Vid skriftlig examination bör ett lärosäte sträva efter att anordna anonyma prov. Det är samtidigt lärosätet som måste avgöra om det är möjligt och lämpligt med anonyma prov på en kurs.” UKÄ konstaterar att många lärosäten idag tillämpar anonymisering och att frågan fortfarande drivs från studenthåll (2020). UKÄ poängterar dock att examinatoren i något led behöver känna till de examinerade individernas identitet för att kunna säkerställa att jäv inte föreligger (UKÄ, 2020).

Men det har saknats robust kunskap för att kunna göra ett väl underbyggt ställningstagande. Ett problem har tidigare varit att många studier av bias och anonymisering av examinationer i högre utbildning haft ett relativt svagt empiriskt underlag. Då all bedömningspraktik är kontextuellt

formad (Bygren, 2020; Lindberg-Sand, 2011; Pitt & Winstone, 2017; Simper et al., 2021; Wenger, 2000), har det varit svårt att dra mer generellt giltiga slutsatser. För att få en tydligare bild har det behövts kvantitativ erfarenhet av olika anonymiseringspraktiker och dessas konsekvenser, vilket inte funnits att tillgå förrän under senare år. Det är därför även först på senare år som en mer omfattande forskning (såväl metastudier som kvantitativa studier) hunnit byggas upp. I studier publicerade på senare år kan dessutom noteras ett intresse för att nyansera diskussionen kring anonymisering av examinationer utifrån diskursen kring lärandeorienterad examination (Boud & Soler, 2016; Carless, 2007; 2015a; Zeng et al., 2018).

I det följande¹ kommer jag att titta på vad studier och diskussioner av anonymisering av examinationer inom högre utbildning ger vid handen. Syftet är att lyfta frågan kring anonymisering ur ett pedagogiskt perspektiv. Jag har valt att lägga särskild vikt vid resultat från studier med gediget empiriskt underlag, genomförda efter Bolognareformens genomförande, men nyanserat mina resonemang utifrån resultat även av mindre, kvalitativa studier, vissa äldre studier samt, i viss mån, studier som rör grundskola och gymnasium.

Betydelsen av examination och bedömning för studenters lärande

Det är väl belagt att utformningen av, liksom kommunikationen med studenter kring, examination i högre utbildning inte bara har en fundamental inverkan på studenters lärande, utan är en av de absolut starkaste påverkansfaktorerna för hur studenter förhåller sig till sina studier (Carless, 2015b; SFS, 2013). I Sverige sker all examination på delkurs- eller kursnivå, inte på hela program. Samtidigt har vi Examensordningen i Högskoleförordningen (UHR 1993:100), där kunskapskrav för examensnivåer finns uppställda.

Examinationsformer som stimulerar studenters engagemang och djupinriktade lärande går under benämningen *lärandeorienterad*

¹ Denna artikel baseras på en forskningsöversikt (Bergqvist Rydén, 2022), beställd av Humanistiska och teologiska fakulteterna, Lunds universitet.

examination (Carless, 2007; 2015a & b). Lärandeorienterad examination kan sägas bestå av tre viktiga byggstenar. Den ena är att examinationsformerna är utformade på ett sätt som stimulerar studenternas lärande och djupinriktade inställning till sitt lärande. Den andra utgörs av bedömarkompetens, och avser då både lärares och studenters dito (Boyer, 1990; ESG, 2015:12; UHR 1993:100; Shulman, 1986). Den tredje byggstenen utgörs av studenternas aktiva engagemang i den återkoppling de får, och att återkopplingen stimulerar till lärande som förbättrar kommande prestationer (Carless, 2015a & b).

Det vi idag vet om examination som stimulerar studenters lärande handlar alltså i hög grad om hur examination, bedömning och lärandemål samspelar, om vikten av transparens och dialog för att stötta studenters lärande, samt om vikten av att bedömare så väl som studenter tillägnar sig kompetens i att bedöma och att bli bedömd. I ljuset av detta kan det vara värt att fundera över var anonymisering kommer in i bilden, vilka examinationsformer som är möjliga att anonymisera och inte, vilka konsekvenser anonymisering får i förlängningen, särskilt i relation till studenters lärande, och om det finns andra vägar att gå för att uppnå den önskade effekten av tillit, likabehandling, transparens, validitet och reliabilitet, som är de värden anonymisering syftar till.

Anonymiseringskravs påverkan på val av examinationsupplägg

Vissa former av examinationer eller bedömningsunderlag är lättare att anonymisera än andra. Skriftliga salsbundna examinationer tenderar att vara bland det första som anonymiseras vid ett lärosäte, liksom andra enklare examinationsformer där rätt och fel kan bedömas objektivt. En mängd olika förfaringssätt och guider hur lärare kan gå till väga finns framtagna vid olika lärosäten, inom olika discipliner, vid olika institutioner samt för olika lärplattformer. Vad gäller andra former av examinationsutformningar finns det dock ofta försvårande omständigheter, där eventuella fördelar med anonymisering behöver vägas mot eventuella nackdelar – något som framhållits sedan anonymiserad examinations vara

eller icke vara först började diskuteras i Sverige (t.ex. Pendrill & Daniels, 2009). Det är viktigt att förhålla sig till denna komplexitet, eftersom det vore olyckligt om krav på anonymisering indirekt ledde till att examinationsformer som är svåra att anonymisera väljs bort, trots att de kanske bättre främjar studenters lärande.

Den konflikt som lätt uppstår kring examination och återkoppling om den förra ska vara anonym, är lätt att se. Winstone och Boud (2020) pekar på att problematiken huvudsakligen uppstår på grund av att återkoppling traditionellt sett är så nära kopplad till bedömning och examination. Studenter förefaller dessutom ta till sig återkoppling bättre när den inte kopplas till själva betygsgivandet. Ett sätt att undvika konflikt av det här slaget kan vara att införa tillräckligt många formativa bedömningsmoment under loppet av en kurs, där studenten får framåtriktad återkoppling som är skild från det bedömningsmoment som är betygsgrundande.

Men medan ett sådant åtskiljande mellan lärandeorienterade återkopplingsmoment och betygsgrundande examination är önskvärda och positiva för studenters lärande, kan det i realiteten många gånger vara svårare att få till. Försvårande omständigheter kan exempelvis vara att lärare på grund av tidsbrist har svårt att få in tillräckligt många och tillräckligt givande formativa inslag där lärandeorienterad återkoppling kan ges. Det kan vara frestande att istället ha en förenklad summativ examination som är lättare att anonymisera, men som riskerar att inte lika bra fånga upp kursens mer avancerade lärandemål (Brennan, 2008; Winstone & Boud, 2020). Exempel på sådana summativa anonymiseringsbara examinationsformer kan vara skriftliga salsbundna examinationer eller andra skriftliga examinationer där sådant som annars är av godo, såsom personliga reflektioner kring ämnesstoff, beaktande av kursspecifika element (seminariediskussioner, labbar, exkursioner, mm) eller additiva element där studenten successivt bygger vidare på tidigare prestationer, inte ingår.

I relation till detta kan det vara värt att fundera kring vilka former av examination som kan genomföras på ett anonymiserat sätt. Många, men inte alla, skriftliga examinationsformer går rimligt lätt att anonymisera. Examinationsmoment som involverar dialog (t.ex. genom handledning eller i grupparbeten) eller reflektion (enligt ovan) riskerar att väljas bort.

Likaså är grupprestationer, muntliga presentationer, samt de flesta former av mer autentisk och kompetensbaserad examination svåra att anonymisera på ett bra sätt, utan att fundamentalt värdefulla aspekter av kunnandet blir osynliga och svårbedömda. Likaså blir det i en anonymiserad praktik betydligt svårare att bedöma progression i en students kunnande och kompetens, eftersom kopplingarna mellan prestationerna osynliggörs.

Det finns därför en risk att en praktik med anonymisering av examinationer får som bieffekt en styrning mot summativa skriftliga examinationsformer, helt enkelt för att dessa är lättast att anonymisera. Det så eftersträvarvärda läroplans- eller programmässiga tänkandet där progression i studenters kunskaper och kompetenser kan bedömas, där studenter stimuleras att ta med sig kunskaper från en kurs till framtida prestationer, och där studenter stöttas i att successivt träna upp sin egen bedömningskompetens (*assessment literacy*), försvåras likaså.

Anonymiseringens påverkan på betygssättning

Såväl nationella som internationella studier av hur anonymisering av examination påverkar betygssättning är förvånansvärt få till antalet. En av de större studierna som gjorts är genomförd vid Stockholms universitet, där Bygren (2020) har tittat på betygssättningen av samtliga skriftliga examinationsformer (totalt över 25 000, extraherade från Ladok) inom tre olika ämnesfält (ekonomi, statsvetenskap och sociologi) under en period av 9 år (vt 2005–ht 2013). Det innebär en tidsperiod som sträcker sig både före och efter införandet av anonyma examinationer i Sverige, vilket gjordes genom en central reform vid lärosätet 2009. Som jämförelsematerial använder Bygren motsvarande data från juridikstudenter, vilka skrev anonymiserade examinationer redan innan 2009 och alltså inte påverkades nämnvärt av den policystyrda förändringen.

Bygren (2020) undersöker huruvida anonymiseringen påverkat betygssättningen utifrån två parametrar, dels ”utländskhet” (”foreignness”), dels kön (kvinna/man). Bygren kan i sin data inte se någon statistiskt påvisbar påverkan på betygssättning som kan härledas till könsbias. När det gäller parametern ”utländskhet” kan han se en svag tendens till *ökning* av antalet examinationsresultat som getts betyget ”godkänt” i samband

med anonymisering. Intressant nog är förhållandet det motsatta när det gäller överbetyg (väl godkänt), med en viss minskning av antalet examinationsresultat från studenter med ”utländska” namn som getts betyget väl godkänt. Sammantaget förefaller det som om anonymiseringen av examinationer innebar att studenter med ”utländska” namn något oftare blev godkända men mer sällan fick överbetyg. Bygren såg alltså en svag tendens till minskning av ytterbetyg men samtidigt motsvarande ökning av mellanbetyg.

Som Bygren (2020) själv påpekar är dessa resultat – både vad gäller kön och ”utländskhet” –anmärkningsvärda och intressanta, eftersom studier som tidigare ofta framhållits som argument för anonymisering, menar att pojkar och minoritetsgrupper diskrimineras. Bygren noterar att dessa studier inte rör högre utbildning och vuxna studenter utan barn i skola och gymnasium (Hinnerich et al., 2011, 2015 för svensk högstadieskontext; samt Burgess & Greaves, 2013; Sprietsma, 2013 för andra europeiska länder), och föreslår att skillnaderna vad gäller könsbias skulle kunna förklaras dels med olika mognadsgrad hos pojkar och flickor i skolåldern, vilket möjligen skulle förklara varför flickor kan tänkas gynnas av skolsystemet när det gäller betygssättning, men att detta inte är applicerbart på vuxna studenter. Vad gäller bias generellt föreslår Bygren att det är kontextberoende och att lärare inom högre utbildning befinner sig i en i hög grad internationell och heterogen miljö både vad gäller studenter och anställda och därför inte har någon statistiskt påvisbar tendens att diskriminera studenter på grund av ”utländskhet”.

I en brittisk longitudinell studie som inkluderade över 30 000 studenter under läsåren 2000/2001 – 2012/2013, jämförde Hinton och Higson (2017) de satta betygen i en anonymiserad skriftlig examination respektive icke anonymiserad muntlig examination. I båda fallen spelade kön och etnicitet mindre roll för vilka betyg som sattes. Slutsatsen som dras i studien är därför att själva anonymiseringen av examinationerna inte var orsak till minskningen i de betygsskillnader som kunde iakttas vad gällde de skriftliga examinationerna. Forskarna går däremot inte in på vad som i stället kan ha legat bakom förändringen.

Ännu en kvantitativ studie (15 000 studenter) är gjord vid ett större polskt universitet (Krawczyk, 2018). Krawczyk ville där undersöka

huruvida kön och fysisk attraktivitet ("physical attractiveness") påverkade vilket betyg studenter gavs. En jämförelse mellan icke anonym och anonym betygssättning av samma prestationer gav ett visst belägg för att den icke anonyma betygssättningen i någon mån gagnade kvinnor. Däremot fann Krawczyk inget belägg för att "attraktivitet" påverkade.

Ytterligare ett par studier förtjänar att nämnas. Den ena är genomförd av Batten et al. (2013) i brittisk kontext läsåret 2008/2009, där de undersökte inverkan av "ryktesinformation" (kännedom om studenternas tidigare prestationer, deras generella skriftliga förmåga). De fann inget belägg för att anonymisering och reducering av "ryktesinformation" påverkade vare sig bedömning av eller återkoppling på studenternas prestationer. Den andra studien genomfördes av Owen et al. (2010) i Australien på Medical Education Unit vid the Australian National University Medical School. Studien genomfördes för att bemöta en oro hos studenterna att rättningen av deras examinationer påverkades av bias. Bedömningsresultaten av slumpvis anonymiserade examinationer jämfördes därför med icke anonymiserade dito. Owen et al. kunde därvid inte påvisa någon systematisk skillnad mellan de två grupperna (anonymiserade respektive icke anonymiserade). Författarna valde därför att fortsättningsvis inte anonymisera, då de såg flera viktiga pedagogiska skäl, framför allt rörande återkoppling och dialog mellan lärare och studenter, som vägde emot.

Det finns emellertid även enstaka vederhäftiga studier som indikerar att anonymisering kan ha viss påverkan på betygssättning. Ett par studier av Malouff et al. (2013; 2014; 2016) talar för att tidigare kännedom om en students presentation, antingen genom att läraren upplevt denna eller genom att prestationsnivån antytts för läraren, i viss mån påverkar hur läraren sätter betyg. Om läraren tidigare upplevt att studenten presterat väl i en tidigare, icke anonymiserad examination, tenderar hen att ge högre betyg än om hen upplevt att studenten presterat mindre bra (2013). Likaså tenderar lärare att ge högre betyg om en prestation redan kategoriserats som "god" av andra än om den kategoriserats som "dålig" (2014).

Anonymiseringens påverkan på återkoppling och dialog

Intimt inflett i moment av bedömning och examination är olika former av återkoppling och dialog studenter emellan, liksom mellan student och lärare. Den australiensiska studien av Owen och kollegor (2010) som refereras ovan lyfter detta och väger det mot studenters önskemål om anonymisering. Ibland är återkoppling och dialog skiljt från själva betygssättandet, antingen genom att det görs av olika personer (kamratbedömning, lärare/handledare, examinator, osv) eller att det görs på olika moment eller lärandeaktiviteter (formativa lärandeaktiviteter och examinationer till skillnad från summativa betygsgrundande examinationer). Hur det förhåller sig i en enskild kurs beror på kursupplägg och bemanning inom ämnet i fråga. Idag är det emellertid, med utgångspunkt i paradigmet om lärandeorienterad examination (Carless, 2007; 2015a; 2015b; Zeng et al., 2018), allt oftare sammankopplat, genom att studenternas prestationer i flera olika läraktiviteter under kursens gång är betygsgrundande och att även de summativa examinationsmomenten utgör betydelsefulla läraktiviteter där återkoppling och framför allt framåtsyftande återkoppling är en viktig del.

När det gäller bias i relation till kvalitet och omfattning av återkoppling finns ett antal mer småskaliga, kvalitativa studier. Birch et al. (2016) har till exempel undersökt möjlig könsbias i återkoppling utan att kunna påvisa sådan. Däremot poängterar de, utifrån ett stort antal andra studier, den väl belagda vikten av kvalitativ individuell återkoppling både för att främja studenters lärande, för att öka deras studiemotivation och för att de ska känna sig inkluderade i lärandekontexten (ibid). De konkluderar att "the preliminary evidence gleaned does suggest that institutions should strongly consider the potential negative impacts of anonymous marking on feedback and the student learning experience" (Birch et al., 2016). Batten et al. (2013) har undersökt hur lärares kännedom om studenters tidigare prestationer och generella skrivfärdigheter påverkat återkoppling, utan att finna belägg för sådan bias.

Yang och Carless (2013), och även Hill och West (2020; 2022), tillhör de forskare som upprepat argumenterat för vikten av att feedback är *dialogbaserad* för att den ska ha bästa möjliga positiva betydelse för

studenters lärande. Ett sådant dialogiskt förfarande är beroende av att relationen mellan student och lärare är öppen och tillitsfull (Boud & Molloy, 2013; Carless, 2009; Whitelegg, 2002). När det gäller anonymisering av examinationsformer så har Price et al. (2010), liksom på senare år Pitt och Winstone (2018), lyft risken för att denna relation bryts i ett förfarande med anonymiserad examination. Därmed riskerar en viktig aspekt av återkopplingens värde att gå förlorad.

En form av återkoppling vars positiva effekter på studenters lärande vid det här laget är väl belagd är kamratrespons. Vissa studier indikerar att studenter kan uppskatta anonymitet för att det gör att kamratgranskningen känns mer objektiv eller utgör en god möjlighet att träna sig på att ge kamratrespons (Heerden & Bharuthram, 2021; Li, 2017; Rotsaert et al., 2018). Andra studier indikerar däremot att det för studenter kan ha en positiv inverkan om de upplever att de känner de studenter de ger återkoppling till och får återkoppling från (Heerden & Bharuthram, 2021). Det kan göra att de upplever processen som lättare och mer givande, men även att den präglas av en högre grad av tillit. Heerden & Bharuthram (2021) fann att studenter som menade att de kände (till) sin kamratgranskare tyckte att det var lättare att tolka återkopplingen och att värdera värdet av den. Det senare är något även Dijks et al. (2018) tycker sig ha sett: beroende på hur en student uppfattar sin kamratgranskares kunskap (grad av expertis) samt även granskarens uppfattning om sin egen grad av kunskap, kan studentens incitament för att ta till sig återkopplingen och implementera den vara större eller mindre.

Detta ligger väl i linje med senare års forskning som pekat på betydelsen av rika och täta relationer inom ramen för utbildningen för att motivera studenter och få dem att engagera sig i sina studier mer generellt (Bergqvist Rydén & Larsson, 2018; Felten & Lambert, 2020; Fjellkner-Pihl, 2021; Heerden & Bharuthram, 2021).

Sammanfattande diskussion

Idag finns flera större empiriska studier som visar konsekvenserna av anonymisering och hur det (eventuellt) har påverkat lärares bedömning. Dessa studier har inte kunnat visa signifikanta skillnader i minskad bias.

Däremot, och detta är viktigt, har många forskare pekat på risken för att den personliga och kontextuellt formade kunskapen, tolkandet och reflekterandet, liksom den utvecklande dialogen och den relationsrika högre utbildningen tappas bort i en anonymiserad examinationspraxis. När vi idag diskuterar om och hur vi eventuellt ska införa anonymisering vid examination är det därför detta nya kunskapsläge vi bör utgå ifrån.

Redan för snart tjuugo år sedan, innan anonymisering snabbt blev mycket utbrett, påpekade Whitelegg (2002) i en kort artikel problemet med att anonymiserad bedömning bryter den så kallade feedback-loopen, det vill säga den kunskapsgenererande dialog och det lärande som återkoppling stimulerar när det fungerar som det ska. Samtidigt kunde han för egen del se fördelarna med den neutralisering som anonymisering kunde medföra för honom som akademisk lärare. Han föreslog därför att man visserligen kunde ha anonymiserade examinerande moment, men att återkopplingen inte skulle vara anonymiserad. De anonymiserade momenten kunde då tjäna en slags kalibrerande funktion, gentemot vilka såväl studenten som läraren kunde stämma av resultaten av andra, icke anonymiserade examinerande moment, för att säkerställa att någon betydande diskrepans i bedömd prestationskvalitet inte förelåg. Detta ligger i linje med hur Winstone och Boud resonerar i sin artikel från 2020.

Några år efter Whitelegg (2002) kunde Brennan (2008), men även i svensk kontext Pendrill & Daniels (2009), konstatera att anonymisering då i allt högre grad börjat införas vid olika högre lärosäten världen runt, men ofta utan att det fanns robusta argument för fördelarna med detta. Den empiriska forskningen till stöd för anonymisering saknades – men ändå infördes det. Kanske gjordes det mest för att det, som en av Brennans informanter konstaterade, är svårt att argumentera emot att det alltid finns en risk för bias när lärare bedömer studenters prestationer. I detta sammanhang är det på sin plats att vidkänna att den individuella studenten naturligtvis kan känna oro och obehag om hen befarar eller upplever att det i just hens fall finns en risk att hen blir diskriminerad. Denna oro ska inte på något vis förringas, och i somliga fall är den säkert befogad och måste tas på allvar.

Det går emellertid att ifrågasätta huruvida anonymisering är det mest konstruktiva sättet att undvika att förutfattade meningar påverkar

bedömning. I sin artikel om eventuell könsbias menar Birch et al. (2016:1077-1078) att ”Research also needs to move beyond merely testing for the existence of bias in assessment and towards an examination of the processes that underpin assessment bias. Such an understanding will help higher education institutions to generate the means to counteract and prevent discrimination in situations where anonymous marking is not practically feasible”. Vi som undervisar och bedömer inom högre utbildning behöver diskutera och synliggöra hur vi kan arbeta för att undvika bias utan att få andra negativa effekter på köpet. Ett sätt att gå framåt är att i olika fora och ur olika aspekter samtala kring bedömning och examination inom högre utbildning, hur och varför det görs och på vilka grunder, samt hur vi på ett bredare plan kan arbeta för att minimera diskriminering – det vill säga genom att öka både lärares och studenters bedömarkompetens (Zeng et al., 2018). I förlängningen finns det anledning att fundera över vilken typ av signaler vi vill sända våra studenter och hur det rustar dem för framtiden. Ska det handla om kontroll och anonymisering, där oro för fördomar, fusk och plagiat genomsyrar? Eller ska det handla om förståelse, tillit och ansvarstagande för det egna lärandet?

Den diskussion som förts i denna artikel har olika implikationer för olika fakulteter, utbildningsprogram och ämneskategorier, men för många miljöer kan kanske vissa anonymiserade examinerande moment få tjäna ett kalibrerande, gärna formativt, syfte. Dessa skulle då ha som ändamål att säkerställa rättssäkerhet och att studenter känner sig trygga i att de blir rättvist bedömda (en så att säga bekräftande avstämning). De skulle emellertid inte stå för sig själva, utan ingå i en utbyggd och mer sofistikerad återkopplings- och examinationsdesign som möjliggör bedömning av de komplexa kunskaper och kompetenser som är centrala i högre utbildning.

Post scriptum

Denna artikel skrevs före senhösten 2022, då den snabba spridningen av användandet av ChatGPT och andra generativa AI-språkbotar manade till eftertanke kring hur vi examinerar våra studenter inom högre utbildning. Medan det naturligtvis fortsatt ställs lika höga krav på att vi säkerställer validitet, reliabilitet och rättssäkerhet i examination och bedömning,

kräver tillgängligheten till olika former av AI-hjälpmedel framför allt att vi är ännu tydligare gentemot våra studenter med *varför* vi examinerar som vi gör, samt vilka hjälpmedel som är tillåtna eller inte, och *varför*. För att kunna vara tydliga gentemot våra studenter krävs först att vi examinerande lärare har allt detta klart för oss. Det krävs alltså att examinerande lärare har en god och uppdaterad kompetens i examination och bedömning.

I relation till diskussionen om anonymisering av examinationer vill jag mena att den situation vi nu befinner oss i utgör ytterligare argument i linje med vad som förts fram i denna artikel, om att vara restriktiva med anonymisering. Ju mer anonymt, desto större utrymme att låta en bot göra uppgiften. Kursupplägg med examinationsdesigner som inte stimulerar studenter till ett djupinriktat och meningsfullt lärande lämnar alla dörrar öppna för genvägar via ChatGPT eller liknande hjälpmedel. Ett gott, lärandeorienterat examinationsförfarande, där studenten får lära sig om sitt lärande, om hur hen kan ta ansvar för det och vad hen har att vinna på det, är däremot, tror jag, den bättre vägen framåt.

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‘Knowledge Nuggets’ – Unhealthy for Education, or Pure Gold?

Report from the LUTL-2022 Panel Discussion

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Dialogue, inspiration, and critical discussion. On November 17, more than 50 presenters and 170 participants assembled at the 2022 Lund University Conference on Teaching and Learning, in the LUX building at Lund university. This forum on higher education was held for the 8th time and after a day filled with presentations a distinguished panel came together to discuss the theme of the day: Lifelong learning in higher Education: New (and Old) Perspectives. Maybe not in order to reach a consensus, but to examine and problematize the concept of lifelong learning and look at it from various perspectives.

In July 2021, a new obligation was placed on Swedish universities: “In their operations, higher education institutions must promote lifelong learning” (Swedish Higher Education Act, 5th section). It might seem like a brief addition, but it allows for many interpretations and clashing agendas. And after a whole conference day of exchanging perspectives and taking part of presentations, the concept of lifelong learning was scrutinized even further in a final panel discussion. Sara Håkansson (Dean of Undergraduate Studies at the Joint Faculties of Humanities and Theology, Lund University) led the dialogue with keynote speakers Cecilia Bjursell (National Centre for Lifelong Learning, Jönköping university) and Johan Östling (Centre for the History of Knowledge Lund University) together with Björn Fagerström (Research, Collaboration and Innovation, Lund University), Mikael Sundström (Edulab, Lund University) and Alva Söderbäck (Lund University Student Union Association).

Lifelong learning through time

Moderator Sara Håkansson, from the conference hosting HT-faculties, opens the discussion by inviting the panel to go back to the roots, and explore the history of lifelong learning. They all concede that there is no single definition of the concept today, and that the interpretation of the term differs from person to person. But has it always been like that? Or has our understanding of lifelong learning looked different through the years?

Johan Östling, from the Centre for the History of Knowledge at Lund University, jokes that as a historian, it would be very easy to go far back in time and use medieval universities as a starting point, but then states that especially the 1900s were central when it came to the emergence of the so called “Knowledge society” - when knowledge became a key asset in the postindustrial society that people were faced with.

“Since then, universities have continued to expand, both in terms of what we should do here, and in the number of institutions, the number of students and the number of staff. But I think we are still part of this discourse of the knowledge society, and lifelong learning should be related to that” he says.

The panel continues to discuss how the educational system is not isolated from the rest of society, evolving through the years as different phenomena trickle into it. In the 1990s, the Swedish government invested in adult education through “Kunskapslyftet”, a project intended to reduce unemployment and to give more people the opportunity to continue learning. The project aimed primarily at unemployed adults who lacked a three-year upper secondary education. In 2015, when the migration to Sweden increased, the focus was on newly arrived students. And now, for the last few years the emphasis has been on developing courses in higher education for the working population, and to continuously learn throughout working life. But if there is more promotion of lifelong learning in higher education today, are there any challenges that universities have in meeting this demand?

Challenges and opportunities with lifelong learning

Mikael Sundström works at the newly established EduLab, an experimental platform at Lund University dedicated to being a testbed for new courses aimed at professionals, where course ideas are evaluated with the intention of making it easier to realise them.

He highlights three different challenges for universities connected to integrating lifelong learning into the organization: Pace, format and target audiences. He says that the university is used to a fairly languid pace, where developing new courses, normally takes years - and the pace needs to increase. New target groups have to be found and understood. And the development of new courses, programs and ways to teach, has to be done in a format that suits those new target groups. But he also relates this to a discussion around wisdom versus skills.

“I think one thing to consider would be if we are imparting wisdom or skills. Universities seem to be moving towards teaching skills rather than building wisdom these days, which is sort of sad. Because skills should be subservient to wisdom. At least that would be my idea” he says.

Alva Söderbäck, representing the Lund University Student Union Association, agrees, but highlights that the two do not have to cancel each other out.

“I believe that the pace can be unhurried in the educational segments. But the administrative systems need to be more efficiently serving the development of new courses, and quality reassurance of existing ones. We have seen examples that when we have to, it is possible to develop courses quicker, like in Edulab for instance. So why aren't we doing that all the time?”

Healthy education for future citizens

As the panel discussion continues, moderator Sara Håkansson mentions that in public debates on lifelong learning it is often stated that our society needs independent and flexible citizens, ready to adapt to new challenges and situations quickly. She then follows up with the question “Do you think that we as a university can help foster that type of citizen?”

Björn Fagerström from Research, Collaboration and Innovation at Lund University, thinks so. He says that if you look at the demand side of commissioned education the customer in the system requests high levels of flexibility, both in terms of what content the courses contain, but also how they are executed.

“To meet the need for flexibility, you need to break down all the courses into smaller pieces, like knowledge nuggets that are possible to combine into new courses. But it's not that easy to achieve. Some knowledge nuggets might fit with some, but not all, so it's a quite inflexible system that you start building even though that is the way forward” he says.

As the panel discussion begins to conclude, the audience are invited in with their questions. One person comments that “The word ‘knowledge nugget’ really makes me shiver”.

Cecilia Bjursell from National Centre for Lifelong Learning, Jönköping university, answers that it could also be interpreted as innovative education.

“The word nugget makes me think about McDonalds, and then I agree, it's not a very healthy education. But there is something in the knowledge nuggets discussion that is interesting: Could we work with education in other ways? And package it in other ways? In Jönköping we have talked about modularization, and discussed if we should have modules that we can have across programs, and also offer as a component for those who

return to the university and continue their lifelong learning journey. Maybe the word nugget in itself is creating the wrong associations, but we need innovation in education. To think about it in new formats, work in other ways, and share knowledge across disciplines. We might be able to do that, we might not – but there is something to explore there.”

As moderator Sara Håkansson concludes when the panel discussion comes to an end “As we know, a nugget is made of gold in its original meaning. So, there could be some symbolism in that.”

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Lifelong Learning and Higher Education

This is the proceedings volume from the 8th biannual teaching and learning conference at Lund University, LUTL-2022. The conference theme, Lifelong Learning and Higher Education: New (and Old) Perspectives, gave rise to a rich spread of presentations and discussions. The volume in your hand holds 13 contributions based on keynote addresses, papers, panels, and roundtable discussions from the conference.

The pedagogical objectives, practices, and challenges of supporting lifelong learning have become pronounced elements in the fabric of higher education in recent years. What does this entail for the teaching staff: for our missions, our methods, and our own professional learning? These issues, and more besides, are approached between these covers.



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