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Chapter 9

Interrelationships between student culture, teaching and learning in higher education

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Introduction

At today's modern universities in western democracies, slogans like "the learning university", "from teaching to learning", "beyond transmission", "learning to learn", and "life-long learning" resound in banners on university websites, in documents describing teaching and learning strategies and in brochures marketing university programs. There seems to be a general understanding among policy makers that universities are in a necessary transition from input-based to output-based curricula (Jarvis *et al*., 1998; Rassow, 1998; Nygaard *et al.*, 2009).

This transition moves beyond pure discipline-oriented education to focus on subject-based education in which interdisciplinary curricula and teaching methods are integrated to link student learning with the knowledge, skills, and competencies required in the future job market. Today's university education is not about "giving the right knowledge to students" but about providing students with possibilities to develop the "right" competencies (Nygaard *et al.*, 2009), "right" meaning transformative and relevant for the job market (Harvey & Knight, 1996; Falconer & Pettigrew, 2003). Overall, this transition from input- to output-based education seems to challenge universities when it comes to aligning the expectations of students, future employers, and universities themselves (personified here for the purpose of clarity by university teachers).

We base this chapter on the argument that, in order to meet such challenges, the university needs to foster the development of a culture in which students are perceived, by curriculum designers and by the students themselves, as collaborative partners in the teaching and learning processes. In this chapter, we will present four archetypes of student culture and discuss their interrelationship with predominant learning and teaching traditions. We will argue that although this relationship is complex, non-linear, and involves many variables, there are some commonalities that are important to be aware of when designing higher education teaching that aims to develop "the

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learning university" in its evolution "from teaching to learning", where teaching goes "beyond transmission" and where students are empowered in "learning to learn".

In the light of this anthology, we first present our views on university students' learning. Second, we present four archetypes of student culture at universities. Third, we discuss how student learning and student culture are related to curriculum design and teaching methods. Fourth, we end on a normative note, arguing for ways in which university education may be designed in order to establish a culture of students as collaborative partners.

Key points:

- The current trend in university marketing is to position the university as an environment for "learning" distinct from its traditional role of knowledge transmission.
- Universities are in transition from a pure discipline-oriented to a subject-based education approach that provides students with requirements for the job market.
- The transition toward education as a "product" challenges universities to align the expectations of students, future employers and university teachers.
- In order to meet this challenge, universities need to foster the development of a partnership-like teaching and learning culture.
- A study of four archetypes of student culture and their interrelationships with teaching and learning can provide a basis for designing this new university model.

Learning – a possible definition

In this short section we briefly present our views of university students' learning. We do this for two reasons: 1) to clearly position our chapter in the very broad and differentiated field of learning theory; and 2) to come to an operational definition of learning which can enable us in a normative way to present possible relationships between student culture, teaching and learning at universities.

Our operational definition of learning begins with the body of literature arguing that learning is contextually embedded (Bandura, 1975; Kolb, 1984; Vygotsky, 1987; Ramsden, 1988; Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998; Bruner, 1996; Nygaard *et al.*, 2008; Nygaard & Holtham, 2008; Nygaard *et al.*, 2009). In this view, the product of learning (knowledge, skills, and competencies) is subjectively constructed as the learner perceives the situation at hand in relation to past experiences and future expectations. It is through processes such as feedback and feed-forward (Nygaard *et al.*, 2008) that the learner makes sense of the situation at hand. We subscribe to this view of

contextual learning from our own experiences as teachers, developers of curricula, and researchers. Moreover, there is plenty of empirical evidence from studies of higher education that students engage differently in learning activities and that their engagement is culturally and contextually bound. Some of the more recent studies are Reid & Petocz (2008), Raiker (2009), Dobozy (2011), and Albergaria Almeida and Teixeira-Dias (2011a).

In line with Marton and Säljö (1976) and Ramsden (1988), we divide learning processes into deep learning and surface learning. Student-oriented teaching, in which students are expected to discover differences and similarities between theories and where ideas and suggestions of students are being used in the course, seems to stimulate deep learning (Wierstra *et al.*, 2003). Hence, students with a preference for deep learning try to create a sense of meaning to understand the situation at hand and link it to personal experiences. One could say that the student with a preference for deep learning tries to co-create knowledge while studying by spontaneously using higher-order thinking skills.

Students have a tendency to learn reproductively if the teaching emphasises memorizing of facts instead of active involvement in the course (Wierstra *et al*., 2003). Consequently, the student with a preference for surface learning, when studying, intuitively tries to remember what seems to be factual knowledge in relation to the subject studied, often with the purpose of getting to know what is identified as the canonised knowledge within the discipline.

Inspired by such views on learning, we argue that while learning is contextually bound, it is not solely a social endeavour. Learning is also inspired and driven by individual processes which are closely linked to the identity of the learner. Blumer (1969:5) states: "*...the meaning of things is formed in the context of social interaction and is derived by the person from that interaction*". Identity has been defined as "*the individual's perception of himself as he relates to his environment*" (Hall, 1968:447). It follows that if learning is both a social and personal endeavour, we may also see identity as both a social and personal identity. Such a link between identity and learning is also prominent in the chapter by Su (in this volume).

Personal identity creation is a complex social and individual process developed in relation to and interaction with the context in which we are embedded. According to Goffman (1959, 1961), individuals construct their identities with the purpose of managing impressions during everyday life performances and obtaining strategic resources from their interactions with others. Identity creation is, according to Stone (1962), closely related to appearance, discourse and meaning in the interaction of the individual within society. Identity creation therefore becomes an ongoing, open-ended process of identification, belonging and positioning oneself in different contexts. Seen as a process of social construction, our identity directs the attention we receive

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from the world and affects our learning, which again affects our identity. We shall therefore argue for the existence of a recursive relationship between identity and learning much the same as the recursive principle presented by Giddens (1984). He argues that social activities are continually recreated by social actors via the very means by which they express themselves as social actors, thereby reproducing through their social activities the very conditions that make possible such social activities. From interviewing groups of students we know that this is the case, since they define their student identities in different ways (Reid & Petocz, 2008; Nygaard & Serrano, 2010).

In summary, we can reach an operational definition of learning by referring to Nygaard and Holtham (2008:13-14), who write of learning that it is:

a. "*...never a simple repetition of previous learning. People learn based on their experiences and expectations.*"
b. "*...both an individual and social process.*"
c. "*...a contextual process tied to particular situations.*"
d. "*...a process affected by the identity of the learner.*"
e. "*...a process affected by the social position of the learner... and by the learners' embeddedness in social collectivities.*"

Taking seriously such a definition about learning has implications for higher education. We have to accept that students are different learners. They do not come to university or to the individual class with the same experiences, they do not come with the same expectations and they do not wish to leave either the class or the university with the same experiences and expectations. They are individual learners, embedded in different contexts, pursuing different professional identities. They have different perceptions of themselves, of the purpose of education, of teaching and learning activities, of the teachers' approach to education, of their fellow students, of ..., of ..., and of …

Learning and identity creation are matters of perception and one size doesn't fit all. Students are heterogeneous individuals with heterogeneous identity creation processes and curriculum designers need to take that into account when they develop the curriculum. We will return to the issues of curriculum development in the chapter.

In the next section, we shall take a look at that heterogeneity of students as we introduce four archetypes of student culture and argue that these will help us understand the limits and possibilities of developing teaching and learning processes in our curricula.

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Key points:

- Learning is contextually embedded and subjectively constructed by the learner through processes such as feedback and feed-forward.
- Studies show that students engage differently in learning activities and their engagement is culturally and contextually bound.
- Preferences for learning are defined as deep and surface learning.
- The student with a preference for deep learning tries to co-create knowledge while studying by using higher-order thinking skills.
- The student with a preference for surface learning tries to remember factual knowledge in relation to the subject studied.
- Learning is closely linked to the identity of the learner and creation of that identity is a complex social and individual process.
- These views of learning and identity creation have important implications for higher education.

Student culture – four archetypes

Studying student cultures is not new. Even though society and education systems look different today, we can still be inspired by student activism studies from the 1960s and 1970s, current university culture studies in line with national variability studies (Hofstede, 1980, 1986), organisational culture studies (Schein, 1992; Awbrey, 2005) and student role conception studies (Franz, 1998; Bailey, 2000; Cotten & Wilson, 2006; Dobozy, 2011). In line with Clark and Trow (1966) and Long (1976, 1977), we can understand student cultures as archetypes and role descriptions to which students can subscribe. Bolton and Kammeyer (1967) and Kuh (1990, 1993) point out that they are role descriptions and not definite determining factors of social behaviour.

Clark and Trow (1966) identify four student archetypes: vocational, collegiate, academic and nonconformist students. Based on this classification, Long (1977) argues that vocational university students see education mainly as a preparation for occupation. The student "…*is not particularly interested in the social or purely intellectual phases of campus life, although he might participate in these activities on some limited basis. Persons holding this philosophy are usually quite committed to particular fields of study and are in college primarily to obtain careers in their chosen fields.*" (Long, 1977:420).

The collegiate student is quite similar to the vocational student in his perceptions of the benefits of a university education however collegiates participate much more in extra-curricular activities. The collegiate student "…*is very much concerned with the social and extracurricular phases of campus life. He identifies closely with the college and tries to attend as many campus and athletic events as possible. He is concerned about his education but he feels that the development of his social skills is vital to the cultivation*

of the well-rounded person. He attempts to "make grades" but will rarely go out of his way to do extra or non-assigned reading." (Long, 1977:421).

On the other hand, the academic student strives for knowledge and understanding, wherever the pursuit may lead. The student "…*is seriously involved in course work. He may be fairly active in student government and activities of this sort but, if he is, they have lower priority. He is the kind of person who feels that the social side of college life is not the most important but is certainly significant for his general development*." (Long, 1977:421).

In Long's empirical study the nonconformists seem to set very high demands on university teaching and development because of their strong academic and social engagement. The nonconformist student seems very interested in learning about life in general, in ways of his own choosing. He "…*is very interested in the things which interest him. For the most part, he would consider himself to be someone who is primarily motivated by intellectual curiosity. Outside the classroom, he would attend lectures, concerts, foreign films, etc. Inside the classroom, when he is interested, he will do extra readings and pursue knowledge and understanding*." (Long, 1977:421).

The existence of the four archetypes opens the field for a broader view on students' perceptions. Based on an empirical study of students' perceptions of and approach to the teaching and learning environment at Copenhagen Business School, Löfvall (2008) coined the four archetypes of student culture as shown in figure 1. We use these as the foundation for our discussion of students' approaches to their university education. Although formulated on the basis of an empirical study at Copenhagen Business School, we believe that as archetypes they can be used to reflect on student culture in different higher education contexts.

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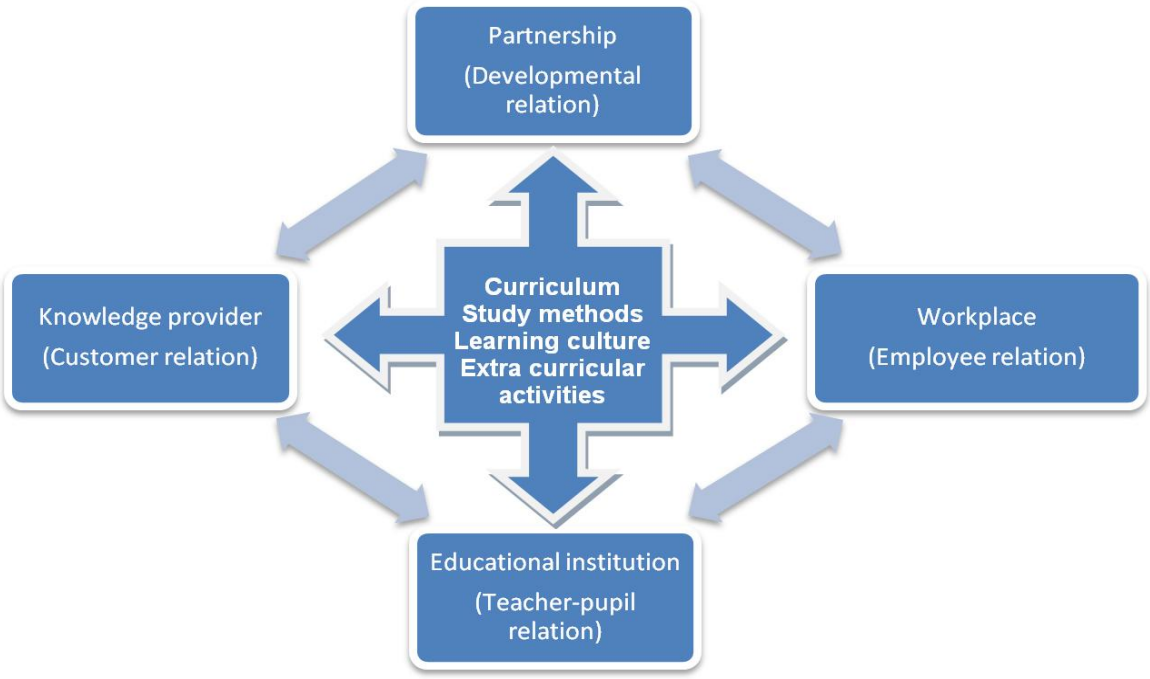

Figure 1: Students' perception of universities
Source: Löfvall (2008).

Below, we take a closer look at the student cultures as presented in Figure 1.

Type 1 students perceive the university as a classical educational institution resembling what they know from their years in school. They think of the university as a hierarchical institution where teachers are in charge. They see themselves as pupils that are guided and directed by teachers who know right from wrong and have the responsibility to plan the curriculum and to teach relevant subjects. When asked to describe their relationship with the university, they focus mainly on the teacher-pupil relationship. To some extent, this student type has similar beliefs about studying as the vocational and academic student (Clark & Trow, 1966; Long, 1977).

Type 2 students perceive the university as a knowledge provider. They also think of the university as a hierarchical institution where teachers are in charge. They see themselves as customers who seek to get the best "value for money". They expect to get the best quality, in terms of teachers who are experts within their field and very good at lecturing, and they expect good facilities and administrative support. They think of the university as the place for obtaining knowledge that will increase their future job opportunities. This student type has some characteristics similar to the vocational and academic student (Clark & Trow, 1966; Long, 1977), careerists (Katchadourian & Boli, 1985) and students-as-costumers (Franz, 1998; Bailey, 2000; Cotten & Wilson, 2006).

Type 3 students perceive the university as a partnership. They think of the university more like a network for developing learning relations with fellow students and faculty. They see that they must invest time and effort in their own learning process in order to benefit and they believe that learning comes through a strategy of personal integration and responsibility. They seek partnership relations and believe that they can help create an integrative study culture by engaging in curricular and extra-curricular activities. In their view, the university is a collective of like-minded students and staff rather than a school of individual experts. Comparing with Clark and Trow (1966) and Long (1977), this student type has attributes similar to the collegiate and nonconformist student in relation to active student engagement. This student type has also characteristics similar to strivers and intellectuals (Katchadourian & Boli, 1985; Kuh, 1990) and students-as-producers (Dobozy, 2011).

Type 4 students perceive the university as a workplace. They define their own role as employees and they invest their time and personality in nurturing a workplace feeling and community among fellow students and faculty. For them, studying at the university is a full-time job and not something you do just because you have to get a job after graduation. They live through their studies as employees in a "regular organisation", and they invest their time in organising and developing relationships that improve learning for themselves and fellow students. They also engage in curricular and extracurricular activities. Like type 3, this student type seems to have behaviours similar to the collegiate and nonconformist student (Clark & Trow, 1966; Long, 1977) and intellectuals (Katchadourian & Boli, 1985; Kuh, 1990).

The existence of these four archetypes opens the field for a more reflective view on students' perceptions and identities. In section 4, we shall look at those aspects in the light of the four archetypes of student culture.

Key points:

- Four student archetypes that define student approaches to university education have been identified: pupils, costumers, partners and employees.
- These archetypes influence the relationship of individual students to the learning institution's culture.
- The educational institution culture is a classical hierarchical structure in which pupils are guided by teachers in charge of delivering an "education".
- In the knowledge provider culture, students use the university as the place for obtaining knowledge to increase their future job opportunities.

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- In the partnership culture, students see the university as a collective of like-minded students and teachers and invest time and effort in their own learning process.
- In the workplace culture, students define their role as employees and cultivate a workplace community of fellow students and faculty.
- These different models open the field for a more reflective view on curriculum design and teaching and learning methods.

Curriculum design, teaching and learning methods

Students develop their student identity and perception of student culture partly as a consequence of the curriculum design and teaching and learning methods at their university. Based on a desk study of curriculum theory, Nygaard & Bramming (2008) formulated two broad streams of curriculum theory: 1) a content stream and; 2) a process stream. In Figure 2 we elaborate on these two streams of curriculum theory.

	Content stream	**Process stream**
Curriculum	Syllabus / guide for teaching	Learning-centred action plan
Agency	Teacher driven activities	Student driven activities
Learning	De-contextual learning	Contextual learning
Orientation	Input orientation	Output orientation
Evaluation method	Summative	Formative / developmental
Main focus points	Curriculum design, syllabus planning, teaching, exams and evaluation	Learning design, process facilitation, supervision and self-/peer assessment

Figure 2: Two broad streams within the curriculum theories. (Elaboration on Nygaard & Bramming, 2008).

Just as we have four archetypes of student culture, we can also think of the two curriculum streams as dichotomies. We do so for the purpose of proposing some links between student culture and curriculum streams.

Content stream teaching

Corresponding to Nygaard and Bramming (2008), curriculum designers and teachers subscribing to the content stream as an ideal type think of the

curriculum itself as a guide for teaching. This is closely linked to perceiving the syllabus as a product sheet describing the content of the curriculum. They have the idea that students need to learn a conventional and de-contextualized body of theory, which is seen as being highly relevant within the discipline they represent. They see students as a homogeneous group who must learn the same content at the same time. They do not see the context for learning as having a major effect on the learning outcome itself but conceptualise learning as a rather de-contextual process. Good students will learn, bad students will struggle to learn. The key focus points in this view become the course reading lists, the assignments, and the exams. Curriculum designers know what the students have to learn, they give students assignments for training purposes, and they assess the students' knowledge at exams. The main functions of the curriculum designer and teacher subscribing to the content stream become those of design, development, implementation and evaluation.

This perception of curriculum is pretty much in alignment with the students who perceive the university as a classic educational institution or a knowledge provider (Löfvall, 2008). They expect the teachers to know best and they expect the curriculum to be designed before they enrol in a course. They look for a teaching and learning process that appears professional, smooth and well-prepared and has all the steps in place. In doing so, they conveniently put the responsibility for their learning process in the hands of their teachers who, if they also subscribe to the content stream, are pleased to take on this responsibility. Hence, this view of learning may have the unintended consequence of developing a culture of instructional oriented teachers and surface learners (Marton & Säljö, 1976; Ramsden, 1988).

Process stream teaching

Curriculum designers and teachers subscribing to the process stream as an ideal type think of the curriculum itself as a learning-centred action plan, according to Bolhuis (2003) and Nygaard and Bramming (2008). In doing so, they focus on the curricular activities which improve students' learning outcomes. As such, their orientation is toward the processes that lead to a particular educational output rather than the academic content itself. They see students as a heterogeneous group who all engage differently in their studies. In their view, students have different experiences and different aims in studying and the context for learning has a major effect on the learning outcome itself. Students are not good or bad, students are different and they learn through different processes. In this view, the main focus points are the activities and methods facilitating student learning. Curriculum designers know which activities and methods have worked previously and they tailor those to the group of students participating in the course. The main functions of the curriculum designer and teacher subscribing to the process stream are facilitation, coordination, supervision and evaluation.

This perception of curriculum is pretty much in alignment with the students who perceive the university as partnership or workplace (Löfvall, 2008). They expect to take part in experiential learning processes that challenge them to learn more. They look for a professional teaching and learning process in which they can engage and learn more through networks of academic and social rigour. In order to do this, they need to take on the responsibility for learning themselves and they do so by interaction with teachers who, if they subscribe to the process stream, are pleased to take on the responsibility for facilitating such learning processes. This may have the consequence of developing a culture of deep learners (Marton & Säljö, 1976; Ramsden, 1988) and a strong supportive institutional behaviour at the university (Tagg, 2003).

Key points:

- Links can be made between student culture and curriculum design.
- Curriculum theory can be broadly identified as either a content stream or a process stream.
- Content stream adherents see the curriculum itself as a guide for teaching a conventional body of theory within a specific discipline.
- The content stream approach is in alignment with the students who see the university as an educational institution or a knowledge provider and it may have the consequence of developing a culture of surface learners.
- Process stream adherents think of the curriculum as a learning-centred action plan leading to a particular educational output rather than the academic content itself.
- The process stream approach is in alignment with students who see the university as a partnership or workplace and it may have the consequence of developing a culture of deep learners.

Normative implications for university education

According to Scanlon *et al.* (2007), Cotten and Wilson (2006) and McInnis *et al.* (2000) there are several trends in the post-industrial society that undermine a partnership or workplace-like university culture: 1) lecture sizes have increased to the degree that teachers lose intimacy with their students; 2) "lean-and-mean" university pedagogies have restricted staff-student contact hours; 3) marketization of higher education increase the predominant interpretation of students as consumers; 4) faculty members perceive the university as research institution rather than educational institution; 5) universities often have multiple campus sites; 6) students are spending less time on campus and more time in paid work. These trends have the potential to reduce students' feelings of belonging to the university and incline them

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toward an identity as pupils or consumers of mass education. The trends also perceive students as recipients of knowledge rather than participants in constructing knowledge.

On the other hand, the trends need not stop our efforts to enhance student learning and prepare students for an engaging career in the post-industrial society. We argue that this can be reached by establishing a new paradigm for curriculum development which is based on students' learning processes. We believe that it is the duty of universities to facilitate the education of students to become active learners able to reflect on the means and ends of their own learning processes. It is our immediate argument that this can be reached through the development of a partnership and workplace-oriented culture. This is not done in the classroom alone and the challenge should be discussed and addressed by multiple stakeholders at different organisational levels.

In this section, we will point out some of the normative implications for university education that arise in developing a student culture of engaged students as partners and/or students as employees. Being normative in our approach, we introduce six different areas which can be clearly addressed and developed within the university and we argue that they have an impact on student culture and, consequently, on teaching and learning: 1) classroom activities; 2) online activities; 3) campus design; 4) teacher training; 5) policy forums; 6) university branding. We are clear that these six areas are not exclusive for development of a partnership or workplace-like student culture and present them as inspirational points for future development of student engagement.

Key points:

- The trends that undermine a partnership or workplace-like university culture are increased lecture sizes, restricted staff-student contact hours, marketization of higher education, perception of the university as a research institution, multiple campus sites, and students working at jobs off-campus.
- These trends tend to incline students toward an educational institution or knowledge provider culture.
- Universities can and should facilitate the education of students to become active learners through the development of a partnership and workplace-oriented culture.
- To support this goal, six areas to address and develop are classroom activities, online activities, campus design, teacher training, policy forums and university branding.
- These areas are not exclusive but are presented as inspirational points for future development of a culture of student engagement.

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Classroom activities

Students are different. They come to university with different expectations and aims in life. They perceive the various academic subjects in different ways. Their learning process is contextually embedded and closely linked to their identity projects. In order to develop successful classroom activities in which students are engaged, it is important to locate the differences in student population and actively use them in shaping the envisioned student culture.

We find it applicable to bring culture into the discussion at the beginning of each course through both course descriptions and oral discussions. Learning contracts which set out a framework for student participation give teachers the ability to calibrate the opinions and expectations of students. This should happen at the initial classroom meeting with students and continue throughout their entire university education. Despite being located in a traditional lecture theatre, the classroom activity itself does not need to be a traditional lecture where the teacher has the responsibility for "broadcasting information" to students.

There are multiple collaborative teaching techniques that are creative in design and might also lead to students developing their own creativity (Nygaard *et al.*, 2010). Game-based teaching exists in many forms, from the use of existing board-games (Branch *et al.*, 2011) to the development of original computer games (Warmelink *et al.*, 2012). For a thorough review of how learning games are being and have been used for teaching business skills at business schools, see Henriksen and Löfvall (2012). They explore the game technologies of three historical eras and the institutional organisation at Nordic and American business schools. Furthermore, there are pedagogical approaches, like problem-based learning, which could prepare students for future challenges in contemporary workplaces (Chehore & Scholtz, 2008), and problem-oriented project work, which could bring students closer to an understanding of current workplace practices (Meier & Nygaard, 2008). Recently, the development of the "flipped classroom" teaching concept (Strayer, 2007; Bergmann & Sams, 2012) has resulted in classes where students explore academic problems more independently and with some process support from the teacher. With this change in teacher and student roles, teachers move their focus away from knowledge provision and content stream teaching to facilitation and process stream teaching.

Other techniques are more closely linked to the learning process of students and motivate them to assume the responsibility of focusing on their own learning process. One example is the use of portfolios (Papadimitriou, 2009) in which students set personal learning goals and document their learning process. Student questioning is also an effective strategy to enhance active learning, according to Chin and Osborne (2008). Furthermore, the use of student response systems during classes has been shown to provide a better starting point for both students and teachers (Deslauriers *et al.*, 2010).

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Classroom activities such as this make the students active partners and help them develop a much more reflective approach to the taught curricula and teaching methods. Being engaged in classroom activities through pedagogical approaches that focus on individual learning, and discussing these approaches and their outcomes with the responsible teacher, makes it almost impossible for students to develop a culture of pupil or customer.

It is our argument that by changing classroom activities and systematically using a meta-language to describe and discuss with students the links between the pedagogy and the learning processes facilitated, students are more likely to develop a partnership and/or employee culture and engage in processes of deep learning. If students experience engaging learning and study methods that facilitate student learning, rather than tests and exams, they develop a more comfortable role as partners in their own learning project. Such a culture of student engagement may ultimately lead to students perceiving the university as a place for development or a workplace at which they are employees. This will lead to students defining themselves as community members rather than pupils or customers.

Key points:

- Differences in students should be located and used actively in developing classroom activities that engage them and help shape the envisioned student culture.
- Culture can be introduced into the discussion at the beginning of each course and continue throughout the university education.
- Classroom activities such as game-based teaching, problem-based learning, problem-oriented projects and portfolios make students active partners in their own learning process.
- Teaching concepts such as the "flipped classroom" alter student and teacher roles and influence the learning dynamic.
- Students are more likely to develop a partnership and/or workplace culture and engage in deep learning when classroom activities and discussions systematically link the pedagogy and the learning processes.

Online activities

The increasing use of digital technologies at universities seems to change student cultures and identities. Social media such as blogs, forums and wikis enable students to debate and organise themselves in social groups around the study and subjects (Laurillard, 2009). Used correctly and actively, this can bind students closer to specific disciplines and research communities. It can enhance the communication between students and teachers (Schroeder *et al.*, 2010), and it can create an atmosphere and collegial workplace where

teachers, researchers and students share ideas and knowledge with each other (Svendsen, 2011; Lenstrup, in this volume). Nevertheless, many students and teachers still find it difficult to socialise with each other virtually. Even if the motivation for using social platforms in teaching is to encounter students in their social spaces, students often seem not to integrate the academic content. Instead they treat academic discussions separately from their social interactions (Bosch, 2009).

Many questions arise when speaking of new media: How can digital technologies improve students' learning processes compared to more traditional teaching methods? How and to what extent should teachers and universities engage themselves in social media? Which student cultures will be most stimulated through dedicated use of social media?

Key points:

- Social media can been used to enhance process-stream university teaching, though academic content is not automatically integrated into the student's social spaces.

Campus design

The physical space has significant importance in the formation of student cultures. Proshansky *et al.* (1983), Scanlon *et al.* (2007) and Cotten and Wilson (2006) argue that the identity of the individual is geographically embedded to some extent. The physical world is manifested in our brains as memories, feelings and values. Successive changes in working conditions during a lecture day at distributed campus facilities can have a great impact on a student's sense of belonging. This raises questions of how the physical environment encourages particular cultures and whether the environment can be redesigned. Which culture does the university seek to promote through its campus design and campus policies? Does the university prefer co-mingling or a physical separation of student, faculty and staff members?

At universities with a significant separation of classrooms, social activities, student housing, group rooms, cafeterias, conference rooms, laboratories and student administration offices, the role of the campus as partnership and workplace is harder to establish than that as knowledge provider. Teachers and students often only meet each other in the classroom and this constitutes a symbolic distance between the two parties. If work resources for students and teachers are grouped more closely, the surroundings shape the students' perceptions and identity in a more workplace-like direction.

Regarding campus design, an increased body of research now deals with learning outside the classroom (Waite *et al.*, 2009) and argues that effective teaching and learning may well take place outside of conventional study environments and even flourish in an unstructured and spontaneous

environment. An example of such an external setting is the concept of "service-learning", which according to Erickson and Anderson (1997) and NSLC (2012) integrates community service with instruction and reflection to enrich the learning experience. In discussing the development of student culture in the university setting it is therefore important to take a critical review of the physical environment in which students have to study. Traditional architecture at universities has called for identical lecture theatres used for distribution of information across different scientific domains. More contemporary architecture calls for open spaces, informal meeting points, flexible rooms, community design and ownership of the physical space. It is our argument here that by linking together contextualised pedagogical approaches and contemporary architectural design ideas, it is possible to create a physical space for student and staff engagement during formal education hours as well as individual and group study time.

Key points:

- Physical space has significant importance in the formation of student cultures.
- Distributed campus facilities tend to restrict student-teacher interaction and create symbolic distances that make establishing a partnership or workplace culture more difficult.
- Effective teaching and learning may take place in an unstructured and spontaneous environment outside of conventional study environments.
- Discussing the development of student culture requires a critical review of the physical environment.
- It is possible to create physical space that enhances student and staff engagement by linking pedagogical approaches and contemporary architectural design ideas.

Teacher training

Creating a student engagement culture using classroom activities, online activities and the physical space for learning, requires teachers who are able to actively design teaching and study methods that improve students' learning outcomes. We argue, in line with Kuh (1993), Wilkerson (1998), Ramsden and Martin (1996) and Bolhuis (2003), that it is important to train and promote instructors who organize their teaching according to process stream oriented thinking. Moving away from a traditional input-oriented view of curriculum, where the main focus is on delivering academic content at lectures and marking assignments often requires inspiration and training. Teachers do not intuitively redesign their curriculum as a learning-centred action plan and start giving the students the responsibility for designing their own learning goals. The role of mentor, facilitator, coordinator, supervisor and assessor of

learning processes often requires systematic training. Formal teacher training is therefore an important part of developing a culture of student engagement, which does not originate from the students alone and has to be facilitated by responsible teachers.

Again, there are many issues that should be considered: Is the teacher left alone with the cultural change or can the work be distributed among a larger group of teachers? Which students are disadvantaged if the class contains several mental models and the teacher represents a third perspective?

Key points:

- Creating a student engagement culture requires teachers to actively design the appropriate teaching and study methods.
- Teachers need to be inspired and trained to design learning-centred action plans.
- The role of facilitator, coordinator, supervisor and evaluator of learning processes requires systematic training.
- Formal teacher training is an important part of developing a culture of student engagement.

Policy forums

Culture creation is strengthened when the four student culture metaphors are introduced into governing and coordinating bodies such as study boards and academic councils. These forums define formal study requirements, policies and evaluation criteria which, in turn, often affect the individual teacher's behaviour both cognitively and normatively.

When governing bodies begin to discuss student culture on the basis of such proposed metaphors, it is likely that divergent views and inconsistent policies come to light. It is therefore relevant to ask whether the courses and study programs are evaluated according to content and/or stream-oriented parameters. And, if such parameters are mutually exclusive, it is important to discuss which goals are preferred.

Key points:

- Address student culture in diverse policy forums such as governing bodies, study boards, faculty groups, and alumni groups.

University branding and student recruitment

Stevens and O´Connor (2005) describe how engineering students identify the university's role differently. Some students have an expectation that, corresponding to Vermunt's (2005) vocational learning orientation, the education should clearly position and certify students' competencies for a future job. Other students perceive the institution as a place that develops the

student as a whole person, corresponding to Vermunt's (2005) personal development and fulfilment orientation.

These two perspectives can provide ideas for university branding. Universities can choose to brand themselves as knowledge providers or learning partners. When the university markets its faculty as top researchers who have the newest (and best) knowledge, it supports the perception of the university as an education institution and knowledge provider. The same is the case with branding the university's alumni and business community relations to show that the university fulfils the need for knowledge.

Other students will be attracted to a more network-based "ambassador" model. They look for developmental relations between fellow students and faculty members. They need proof that personal investment is possible and that new knowledge can be developed and addressed by students in relation to their studies. When existing and former students, who have positively experienced the university's learning environment and acted like employees, become ambassadors of student and faculty integration, this will support the perception of the university as a workplace. At the same time, this kind of strategy is only possible if students actually experience workplace relations during their studies. This means that advanced branding through student communities only becomes possible if the university, through its curriculum development, has nurtured the creation of such communities.

This raises a couple of questions: Is it wise to brand a university as a learning-partner and seek to recruit certain student-profiles that match this ambition? Would existing and former students confirm that the learning processes, the challenges, and the creativity in teaching and study methods support the university as a place for partnership?

Key points:

- Students' educational expectations and perceptions can provide ideas for university branding.
- Universities can brand themselves as knowledge providers or learning partners.
- Knowledge providers are likely to attract students that expect the university to provide an education that prepares and certifies them for a future job.
- Learning partners are likely to attract students that perceive the university as a place that develops the whole person.
- Existing and former students who have positively experienced the university's learning environment can act as ambassadors to support the branding.
- Questions remain about the wisdom of this type of branding and recruitment.

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Conclusion

The aim of this chapter has been twofold: 1) to discuss matters of university student culture and its possible relationship with teaching and learning; and 2) to inspire a fruitful dialogue within the community of curriculum developers and teachers on how to develop "the learning university" where we see a move "from teaching to learning", where teaching goes "beyond transmission" and where students are "learning to learn".

In order to achieve this aim, we have drawn on both theory and practice. We have argued that perceptions by students and faculty of the university at large and of their own roles as students and teachers play an important part in creating the learning university. We have also argued that different types of curricula will lead to the creation of different perceptions of university by students as well as faculty. If the curriculum is designed following the principles of the content stream, students are likely to be treated as pupils and thus act like pupils or customers. If the curriculum is designed following the principles of the process stream, students are likely to be seen as partners and thus act like partners or employees.

It is our hope that, by accepting our arguments of potential relationships between student culture and teaching and learning at universities, it may be possible to engage in a normative development of a teaching and learning environment in which the underlying culture is one of students as collaborative partners. It is our belief that this will benefit students and future employers as well as the university.

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