Approaching institutional contexts: systemic versus dialogic research in CSCL	$\frac{4}{5}$
Hans Christian Arnseth • Sten Ludvigsen	6
Received: 31 May 2005 / Revised: 31 May 2005 /	7
Accepted: 18 November 2005	8
The international society of the Learning Sciences, inc., springer Science + Busiless Media, inc. 2000	5
Abstract The research literature in CSCL has rarely addressed the question of how	12
institutional contexts contribute to constituting the meanings and functions of CSCL	13
applications. The argument that we develop here concerns how the institutional	14
context impacts the use of CSCL applications and how this impact should be	15
conceptualized. In order to structure $t_{(-)}$ argument, we introduce a distinction	16
between systemic and dialogic approaches to CSCL research. We develop our	17
argument by working through a selection of relevant studies belonging to the two	18
amorgant characteristics of activities where CSCL tools have been introduced. This	19
is particularly the case in studies belonging to a systemic approach. Our basic	20 91
argument is that a dialogic stance can provide important insights into how	21 22
institutional practices shape the meanings and functions of CSCL tools. A dialogic	22
perspective provides opportunities for making sense of learning and knowledge	24
construction at different levels of activity, while at the same time retaining	25
sensitivity to the mutually constitutive relationship between levels.	26
Keywords $CSCL \cdot Institutional practices \cdot Context \cdot Theory \cdot Methodology$	27

Introduction

29

A common interest in CSCL research is to study how different kinds of computer 30 artifacts *can* and *do* scaffold learning as part of collaborative activities. This mutual 31 reference point inevitably directs our analytical attention to discourse, simply 32

H. C. Arnseth (🖾) Institute of Educational Research, University of Oslo, PO Box 1092, Blindern, 0317 Oslo, Norway e-mail: h.c.arnseth@ped.uio.no because it is the most important medium through which thinking develops and is 33 made observable (Mercer, 2000). Here we use *discourse* as a generic term indicative 34 of all forms of talk and text. For this reason, it has been an important aim for many 35 CSCL researchers to design for and investigate the forms of discourse that are 36 crucial for the development of thinking (see, for example, Hakkarainen, Lipponen, 37 & Järvela, 2001; Mercer & Wegerif, 1999). This research has generated many 38 important insights into the structures and functions of discourse that are beneficial 39for learning, including how CSCL artifacts contribute to *structuring* such discursive 40practices (Baker, Hansen, Joiner, & Traum, 1999; Edelson, Gording, & Pea, 1999; 41 Muukonen, Lakkala, & Hakkarainen, 2005; Scardamalia, Bereiter, & Lamon, 1994; 42Roschelle & Teasley, 1995; Suthers & Hundhausen, 2001). 43

Seeing that, how the institutional contexts into which CSCL tools have been 44 introduced actually impact their use has not been a particularly important topic in 45 CSCL research despite the recognized centrality of discourse (see Lipponen, 2001; 46 Arnseth, 2004). This provides us with a rationale for critically examining this issue in more detail. 48

In order to grasp the institutional contexts of CSCL activities, we need a certain 49conception of how the relationships between discourse, learning, and technological 50tools on the one hand, and the context in which they are used on the other, can be 51conceived theoretically and pursued analytically. Our argument concerns how this 52relationship has been and perhaps should be conceived in CSCL research. The point 53is that differences in analytical practices have consequences for the generation and 54assessment of findings, for what we consider to be productive in terms of learning, 55and for how we as researchers can contribute to fostering the development of 56educational practices. However, it is also important to consider whether there might 57be any points of convergence across approaches, particularly relating to normative 58criteria for fostering effective CSCL environments. 59

In order to structure our argument, we introduce a distinction between what we 60 term systemic and dialogic approaches to CSCL research (Dillenbourg, 1999; Linell, 611998). This distinction cuts across any neat separations between theories commonly 62employed in CSCL research—such as sociocultural or cognitive theories of learning 63 and thinking—in that it directs our attention more explicitly to issues dealing with 64 methodology and analytical practice. For example, even though many studies claim 65to adhere to more social and cultural approaches in theory, how the meanings and 66 functions of CSCL tools are actually constituted in practice are rarely demonstrated 67 analytically (Lipponen, Rahikainen, Lallimo, & Hakkarainen, 2003). As we will 68 show, employing this distinction enables us to make observable how particular 69aspects of our object of inquiry-participants interacting with or through tools in an 70organised setting-is either made available or unavailable for analysis. 71

In order to provide a general context for our argument, we will first highlight 72some key findings in the CSCL field without necessarily discriminating between the 73 technological tools, theoretical perspectives, or methodological designs employed. 74In the second section, the distinction between systemic versus dialogic approaches is 75defined and worked out in more detail. In the following two sections, we have 76 chosen a few significant studies in order to work through the analytical and 77 methodological argument being put forward. We then analyze an excerpt of data 78from our own research in order to provide a practical demonstration of the 79usefulness of our approach. Finally, we discuss the implications of the different 80 approaches including how together they might contribute to establishing a more 81 well-founded body of knowledge as regards the effectiveness of CSCL. 82

A brief overview: successes and failures of CSCL

Numerous CSCL studies demonstrate the positive effects of CSCL tools on the quality and amount of social interaction and other features of the teaching–learning process. Moreover, theoretically derived hypotheses regarding the impact of information and communication technology (ICT) supported collaboration on learning have been supported by empirical evidence (Lehtinen, Hakkarinen, Lipponen, Rahikainen, & Muukkonen, 1999).

For example, CSCL is reported to facilitate task orientation and reflective 90activity (Cohen & Scardamalia, 1998), reasoning and argumentation (Hoadley & 91 Linn, 2000), mathematical problem solving (CTGV, 1997), student's beliefs about 92the nature of learning (Hewitt, 2001), and the learning of complex scientific 93 concepts and processes (Roschelle, 1992). Also, in comparative studies of CSCL and 94non-CSCL students, it is reported that CSCL students outperform non-CSCL 95 students on standardized achievement test scores in mathematics and reading 96 (Lamon, Secules, Petrosino, Hackett, Bransford, & Goldman, 1996). 97

Furthermore, CSCL is reported to support collaborative knowledge building, 98 including progress in developing deeper understanding, generation of further 99 questions for inquiry, and engaging in collaborative discourse to advance explan-100ations and arguments (Edelson, Gording & Pea, 1998; Scardamalia, Bereiter & 101 Lamon, 1994). In the same vein, it can support students in their establishment of 102shared understanding as part of collaborative problem solving (Baker et al., 1999; 103Roschelle & Teasley, 1995; Suthers & Hundhausen, 2001). CSCL is also said to 104facilitate student's meta-cognitive understanding (Brown, Ellery, & Campione, 1051998). To summarize, these studies demonstrate quite clearly that different types of 106CSCL tools under certain conditions can be a part of practices that produce more 107effective and productive learning outcomes. 108

However, disadvantages with CSCL are also reported. Regardless of whether 109CSCL is used in distributed or co-located environments, lack of discussion, 110argumentation, and challenging of ideas are common findings (Guzdial, 1997; 111 Hewitt & Teplovs, 1999; Lipponen et al., 2003). This is particularly the case when 112CSCL tools have been introduced into ordinary classroom settings. In these cases, 113activities have generally been centered on knowledge reproduction and on 114producing acceptable outcomes with the least collaborative effort. Moreover, 115ambiguity, disagreements, or diverging ideas are seldom resolved in any productive 116manner (Arnseth, 2004; Lipponen, 2001). Consequently, it is problematic to make 117the positive results reported above more generally relevant across contexts. 118According to Lipponen (2001): 119

Although the new technology and the theoretical and pedagogical ideas 120 support each other, the attempt to promote educational use of CSCL 121 technology, and at the same time implement new pedagogical and cognitive 122 practices of learning and instruction, appears to demand the utmost of both 123

83

teachers and students. Many of the technical, theoretical, and pedagogical 124 insights have not been transformed into widely adopted practices of teachers 125 and students (p. 11). 126

However, as Lipponen (2001) is careful to point out, these rather disappointing128findings (at least from a normative point of view) cannot necessarily be attributed to129the nature of CSCL tools as such. On the contrary, the failures of technological tools130to produce the proposed effects, including the pedagogical models underpinning131their design, need to be examined in relation to the context in which they are used132(Arnseth, 2004; Ludvigsen, in press). However, as will become clear, context is by133no means an uncontroversial concept.134

Still, in regard to these *failures*, it also seems necessary to remind ourselves that 135the majority of CSCL studies conducted in ordinary classroom settings are design 136and intervention studies, meaning that they are usually carried out over a few days 137or perhaps weeks at the most (see also Hakkarainen, Lipponen & Järvelä, 2001). 138Consequently, the CSCL tools in question have not become an integrated part of 139the long-term development of institutional practices (Wasson, Hoppe, & Ludvigsen, 140 2003). As a result, the existing features of schools—teaching practices, evaluation 141 practices, or technological infrastructures—are seldom taken into consideration in 142accounts of findings. If they are referred to at all, they are generally conceived as 143internalized norms serving as explanations of failures, e.g., that the teachers and 144students had different goals than was implied by the CSCL tool in question (see 145Hewitt, 2001). As we will demonstrate in more detail below, however, the actual 146enactment of these practices has important implications in regard to the *effects* that 147CSCL tools might have. 148

To summarize, disagreements between the approaches suggested above mainly149concern how the institutional context should be understood and identified within the150analytical schemes employed. However, before we go any further, it is necessary to151provide more detailed definitions of the approaches we are proposing.152

Systemic versus dialogic approaches to CSCL

In order to simplify, we might say that a fundamental tenet of research adhering to a 154systemic approach is its attempt to generate models of how specific features of 155technological systems affect collaboration, reasoning, functions, contents, and 156structures of discourse (see, for example, Dillenbourg, 1999). The analytical purpose 157is not necessarily to develop causal models, but rather to identify the interdepen-158dencies between different variables, including how specific features of the 159technology facilitate students' understanding or ability to solve problems in a 160variety of knowledge domains (Salomon, 1993; Kirschner, Martens, & Strijbos, 1612004). The task for the analyst is to describe and account for the configurations of 162elements that are most beneficial in terms of some outcome measure of what has 163 been learned. That is to say that the analytical focus is on describing the systematic 164relations between forms of social interaction, and specific types of support or other 165contextual factors on the one hand, and qualities of outcome on the other. The 166result of such an analytical practice is the formulation of a model, or the read-167justment of a previous model, which specifies the correlations between the variables 168 that were defined at the outset and inscribed into the analytical scheme employed.169Such a model might state that a CSCL application, together with certain language170practices, e.g., requests for clarifications, together are likely to produce positive171learning outcomes (see, for example, Roschelle & Teasley, 1995).172

In accordance with this approach, the institutional context would mark something that *surrounds* the activities in question and that constrains or perhaps facilitates in specific ways what the participants do (see also Cole, 1996). Having said that, institutional norms and rules are also internalized by teachers and students, and they can, for example, be identified through the use of questionnaires or interviews. Furthermore, their (cor)relations with specific technological affordances or outcome measures can be determined through statistical analysis.

In research adhering to a dialogic approach, on the other hand, the focus is on how the meanings and functions of discourse, tools, and knowledge are constituted in social practices (Säljö, 2000). According to Linell (1998): 182

...dialogism regards every cognitive and/or communicative act as an 183 "answer," as *responsive* to something (often only implicit) in the contexts. 184 A contribution to dialogue, whether a single utterance or a lengthy spate of 185 talk, is made coherent by being related to some (often implicit) issue 186 ("quaestio") of current relevance; the contribution must be rendered accountable (by the actor or the analyst) in relation to the ubiquitous metaquestion "why that now (to me etc.)" (pp. 35–36). 189

The meanings and functions of one variable cannot be treated as distinct and 191separable from the others. On the contrary, the different elements mutually shape 192one another, and their meanings and functions are results of local negotiation and 193sense making. Thus, rather than being separable nodes in a network of relations, 194they become mutually laminated onto one another in and through social interaction. 195As such, social interaction with artifacts in an organized setting becomes the site 196where these processes are made available for study (see also Middleton & Brown, 197 2005). Thus, in order to understand how CSCL tools, pedagogical models, and 198 knowledge are made sense of, including their possible effects on the pedagogical 199practices in question, we as analysts need to carefully scrutinize the sequential 200unfolding of activities along different time scales (Lemke, 2000). This is because any 201action is responsive to what happened before and at the same time it projects 202possible responses in the future (Linell, 1998). Therefore, instead of treating social 203interaction as a relatively neutral intermediary between cognitive and external 204contextual variables, it is brought into the center of analytical attention (Säljö, 2000; 205Wells, 1999; Wertsch, 1991). It is here that the meanings and effects of CSCL tools 206become available for study. 207

Of course, this kind of research can also identify genres and structures whose 208general relevance goes beyond the immediate situation, as well as being able to 209construct models of the kind of CSCL uses that are likely to be most effective and 210productive. However, instead of treating models as explanations of and templates 211for action, they are conceived as resources for action (Suchman, 1987). That is to 212say, their potential usefulness is established in dialogue with other features of the 213setting that the participants need to manage as part of their day to day activities (see 214Kvale, 1996; Rystedt, 2002). 215

In terms of how the institutional context is understood, the principal analytical 216ethos is to start with examining what students and teachers actually do (Säljö, 2000). 217This does not rule out any concern about examining the historical genesis of the 218artifacts or practices in question or the specific institutional arrangements having to 219do with technological infrastructures, division of labour, or specific institutional 220rules and regulations (see Mäkitalo & Säljö, 2002). The point is that this contextual 221framework is not seen as determining local practices. On the contrary, they are 222 actively oriented to, reproduced, or resisted in and through action (Arnseth, 2004). 223Still, depending on the unit of analysis and level of description preferred, either 224individual's changing participation in dialogue or institutional orchestrations of 225learning could be highlighted in the actual analysis (Valsiner, 1994; Valsiner & Van 226Der Veer, 2000; Ludvigsen, in press). 227

To summarize, the aim is not to understand how different variables covariate, but 228 rather to understand how the meaning of *knowing*, *knowledge* and *artifacts* is 229 constituted in dialogue between participants, who through their actions are 230 responding to various contextual features of the setting and are thereby making 231 them relevant. 232

After having provided more elaborate definitions of the approaches, there is a 233 need to demonstrate their consequences for analytical practice more clearly. 234

A systemic approach to CSCL research

In order to provide a detailed critique of research belonging to the systemic 236approach, we will focus primarily on discussion and inquiry types of CSCL 237applications. The reason for limiting ourselves to these kinds of tools is partly 238practical. In formal learning institutions, applications of this kind have existed for 239some time and they are generally available for use outside of design projects that are 240rather limited in terms of scope and dissemination. Computer-Supported Intentional 241Learning Environment (CSILE), for instance, was one of the first applications 242designed to support collaborative learning. Moreover, together with its various 243implementations such as Knowledge Forum and WebCSILE, it is one of the few 244applications that has been widely used and tested in ordinary educational settings 245over longer stretches of time (Miyake & Koschmann, 2001). Therefore, to provide a 246critical discussion of some of this research seems particularly relevant because the 247tool might have become more attuned to developing institutional practices. 248

In addition, according to Lehtinen et al. (1999) there is substantial empirical 249 evidence for the fact that CSILE facilitates higher-order cognitive processes, 250 regarding, for example, the ability to read difficult texts, the quality of developed 251 questions, and the depth of explanation and problem solving in mathematics. Still, 252 there is a need to unpack this evidence in a bit more detail. 253

For example, Hewitt (2001) did a comparative case study of two grade six Human 254Biology units, each taking place over 6 weeks, where, each day, thirty minutes were 255allocated for work with CSILE and thirty minutes for research. In his analysis he 256relies on an interview with the teacher in addition to the content of the CSILE 257database. The first unit represented the teacher's initial efforts to develop a 258knowledge-building community, while the second took place two years later. 259According to Hewitt (2001), the teacher had by this time developed instructional 260strategies that were closer to the normative pedagogical ideal embedded in CSILE. 261

The results from the first unit were disappointing (Hewitt, 2001). First, even 262though students followed the teacher's instructions there was a lack of collaboration. 263Second, there was a lack of conjectures, meaning that the students rarely shared 264their theories and assertions with others. Third, the plans that the students produced 265were weak and focused on topics rather than process. Fourth, the gathering of 266information was poor, meaning that students examined broad areas rather than 267specific problems, which resulted in a gradual accumulation of knowledge without 268any discrimination. Fifth, the students produced too many questions that were left 269unanswered and, moreover, they rarely referred back to their questions during their 270activity. Therefore, the questions played a minor role in structuring the activity. 271These findings resonate with the ones reported above relating to CSCL applications 272that were introduced into ordinary educational settings. 273

To assess collaboration, Hewitt examined each note in the database in order to determine whether it explicitly or implicitly referred to other notes. Only 15% of the notes fitted this rating, and about two thirds of this particular collection of notes was considered superficial in content. However, Hewitt does not provide any criteria for categorizing a note as being collaborative or not. Thus, it is not made explicit what is entailed by the categories *implicit* and *explicit*. 279

According to Hewitt (2001) this lack of collaboration might reflect that the 280students not understanding the nature and purpose of CSILE (Hewitt, 2001, p. 23). 281According to him, the students "...seemed to perceive the program as an 282environment for project-based work where their main objective was to seek out 283and replicate information from texts" (2001, p. 23). Even though the explanations 284provided by Hewitt seem very reasonable, he provides no evidence concerning how 285the activity proceeded. As such, the inferences about student perception of CSILE is 286simply asserted rather than demonstrated analytically. As we will show, this is an 287effect of the analytical scheme employed. 288

In contrast to the first unit, the second Human Biology unit fit the goals of 289CSILE to a larger extent because by this time the teacher had developed a set of 290strategies for facilitating discussion (Hewitt, 2001). The analysis of the database 291showed that the number of collaborative entries increased from 15% to 43%. 292Moreover, the percentage of messages rated as conjectures-messages that 293contained the tag My Theory-rose from 1% to 37%. Hewitt concludes that the 294change in activity patterns was mainly due to the fact that the teacher changed 295the focus from task completion to developing understanding. This is a very inter-296esting finding indicating that when CSILE becomes more attuned with devel-297oping teaching practices, it is used more productively and effectively. However, 298the change of instructional practices is inferred only on the basis of an interview 299with the teacher. What is more, a change in student reasoning and problem 300 solving is inferred on the basis of a specific thinking-type tag attached to their 301 messages. 302

To summarize, Hewitt identifies a change in activity patterns, a change that he 303 attributes to the development of teaching practices. This change in activity patterns 304 is again linked to more productive reasoning. As such, even though he does not 305 provide any correlational analysis, his research strategy is to describe a set of 306 systemic relations. The development of teaching practices is a result of the fact that 307 the teacher is able to align his practices with the CSILE design, and this is treated as an effect of his ability to internalize the CSILE pedagogy. Thus, how the changes in 309

practice develop in tension or in conjunction with the institutionally appropriate and 310 authorized ways of doing learning and teaching is treated as analytically 311 uninteresting by fiat. 312

In our view, these are general problems with studies that use content analysis of a 313 CSCL database combined with interviews, surveys, or social network analysis as the 314only sources for making inferences about changes in teaching and learning practices 315 (cf. Lipponen et al., 2003). That is to say, the nature of teaching and learning is pre-316 defined at the outset and, by the same token, how participants themselves actively 317 establish contexts for learning is simply disregarded as analytically uninteresting 318 (Jordan & Henderson, 1995). Thus, even though a systemic research strategy makes 319it easier to determine correlations between variables and to make systematic 320comparisons across datasets, it makes us miss on crucial aspects of the key object of 321inquiry for CSCL research. 322

A dialogic approach to research on CSCL

In order to demonstrate a dialogic approach, we will briefly address a few of the 324 most relevant studies. The studies are also selected in order to illustrate differences 325in analytical practices within a broader dialogic framework. According to Stahl 326 (2001), studies embedded in such a framework have not been particularly prominent 327 in CSCL research (but see more recently Arnseth, 2004; Ivarsson, 2004; Ludvigsen, 328in press; Stahl, 2006). The types of ICT applications used in the studies discussed 329below are not necessarily comparable with one another or with discussion and 330 inquiry types of tools. Neither have their use within the institutions in question been 331 cultivated over long stretches of time. However, in this context we believe this is not 332 a major problem as our aim is to compare systemic and dialogic research practices 333 and not empirical findings as such. Still, for future research it is crucial to pursue 334dialogical research strategies over longer stretches of time in order to determine 335how productive uses of CSCL tools actually develop. At this point, such research 336 designs are very rare. 337

In accordance with a dialogic approach, CSCL applications are not treated as a 338 variable where their relationship to other variables can be determined statistically. 339 On the contrary, the analytical concern is with how computer applications provide a 340 context for social interaction. 341

Important contributions in this regard have been made by Mercer and colleagues 342 (see, for example, Mercer, Phillips, & Somekh, 1991; Mercer & Wegerif, 1999; 343 Mercer et al., 2003). For them, thinking is conceived as a form of communication 344 where knowledge forms part of what the talk is about; that is, it becomes part of 345 arguments, disputes, explanations, clarifications and so forth (Mercer, 2000). 346

In their research, they have put considerable emphasis on making what they term 347 the ground rules for talk explicit to learners. Put simply, ground rules refer to "the 348implicit norms which govern the spoken interactions between teachers and pupils, 349 and which generate its familiar and distinctive patterns" (Mercer et al., 2004, p. 4). 350According to them, *exploratory talk* is particularly productive for the development 351of joint thinking (Mercer & Wegerif, 1999). Exploratory talk is characterized by the 352mutual development, discussion, and reflection upon ideas and problems. Further-353more, it is a continuous and mutual accomplishment by participants engaged in 354collaborative activities. 355

In a comparative case study of collaborative activities involving the use of an 356 educational computer program called Kate's Choice, Mercer et al. (2004) found that 357 the discourse of the class where exploratory talk had been nurtured as part of a 358specific program was very different from that of a control class where the same 359software was used. Kate's Choice is a kind of interactive narrative, designed in order 360 to facilitate moral reasoning. According to Mercer et al. (2004), the children asked 361 one another task-focused questions, provided reasons for statements and challenges, 362 considered several positions before making decisions, and agreed on a solution 363 before acting on the computer program. 364

In contrast, in the control groups the child controlling the mouse made decisions 365 without consulting others in the group, the choice of the most dominant child was 366 usually accepted, arbitrary decisions were made without considering alternatives, 367 and children spent very little time on each decision before moving on to the next 368 step in the program (Mercer et al., 2004). Interestingly, the findings generated in the 369 control group are similar to the ones mentioned above concerning the introduction 370 of CSCL applications into ordinary classrooms. 371

Their findings suggest that if computer-supported collaborative group work is complemented with certain language practices, the computer provides a good framework for collaborative learning (Mercer et al., 2004). That is to say, students used the prompts made available by the tool as an opportunity to engage in exploratory talk. 376

However, as Mercer & Wegerif (1999) are careful to point out, the fact that the 377 tool supports learning is not due to its design as such, but to the language practices 378 in which it is entrenched. 379

Mercer & Wegerif (1999) argue that exploratory talk is an analytical category 380 that they find useful for examining the relationship between talk and thinking. 381 However, as they themselves acknowledge, it is not always easy to distinguish 382between different forms of talk in practice. Therefore, we as analysts still face the 383 practical problem of identifying exploratory talk in what students and teachers do. 384By employing such a category we might miss out on how the talk actually emerges 385and how different aspects of language use co-constitute exploratory talk. Moreover, 386 it makes it difficult to examine the diverse ways that participants' actions are 387 produced in response to certain normative orderings made relevant by the situations 388 in which they act. Therefore, focusing exclusively on productive talk and interaction 389 makes it difficult to analyze how developing discursive practices also demand 390 changing institutional practices. 391

In contrast, Crook & Light (2002) make institutional practices into a focal point 392for study in regard to the challenges involved in facilitating learning with ICT. Their 393 concern is with the dynamics between everyday practices and the practices of study, 394something which is made relevant when students enter into their first year at 395university. An important question concerns whether computers might serve to re-396 mediate more traditional modes of academic communication, such as lectures, 397 seminars, and tutorials. According to Crook & Light (2002), in order to facilitate 398 processes of enculturation into academic practices, universities provide scaffolds 399that sustain activities such as: 400

...engaging with exposition, orchestrated discussion, research, systematic 401 annotation, the focused reading of text, and a variety of other directed 402

activities that many students may not find easy to mobilize and manage 403 independently (p. 174). 404

According to them, these practices of formal study are closely interrelated to 406practices that students are familiar with and which are well rehearsed as part of 407their everyday life. In short, they find that developing new practices with ICT is 408very difficult, something which is not due to students' lack of familiarity with 409the technology. On the contrary, they argue that the tools and their associated 410practices are not particularly well attuned to already existing practices. In 411 regard to virtual seminars, for example, they report that the productivity of the 412interaction was dependent on whether the discussion was extensively moderated 413by tutors (Crook & Light, 2002). On the other hand, the asynchronous cha-414racter of the interaction did not seem very productive for students. The authors 415argue that this was because it is too different from talk in seminars which, 416according to them, often go well because they are grounded in the everyday 417 practice of speaking. However, they are careful to point out that the medium 418 is not intrinsically problematic and such practices might become productive 419over time. However, this is dependent upon them being cultivated as part of 420various institutional practices, e.g., doing web-based tutoring on students assign-421 ments, etc. 422

Their basic argument is that formal learning can be very difficult, but that this is423made easier by the fact that formal learning emerges out of practices with which424students are already familiar (Crook & Light, 2001).425

The relevance of this study in regard to our argument is that their analysis 426makes visible how the productivity of computer-supported activities is dependent 427on its fit with already established institutional practices. Thus, developing 428productive CSCL environments also entails changing institutional practices-the 429institutionally appropriate ways of doing teaching and learning. Still, a problem 430with Crook & Light's (2001) study is that they do not provide any detailed 431analysis of how these practices actually converge, diverge, or are enacted in social 432interaction. In order to develop our argument even further it is therefore 433necessary to provide an analytical example in order to demonstrate how the 434relations between knowledge construction, computer artifacts, and institutional 435concerns can be analyzed in some detail. In our example, the institutional context 436is analytically accounted for by what the participants display an orientation to and 437 manage in and through their actions. 438

An analytical example from our own research

The excerpt we analyze is taken from the DoCTA NSS project (Design and Use of 440Collaborative Telelearning Artifacts, Natural Science Studios). In this project we 441 introduced the CSCL application Future Learning Environments 2 (FLE2) into a 442classroom setting and we adopted the progressive inquiry model (PI) as the main 443 design principle (Muukonen, Hakkarainen, & Leinonen, 2000). The categories the 444 students were supposed to use in their knowledge construction were: problem, my 445working theory, reliable knowledge, uncertain knowledge, comment, meta-comment, 446 and summary. These categories are modified versions of the ones found in FLE 2, 447 which is a discussion and inquiry type of CSCL application similar to CSILE 448 (Ludvigsen & Mrch, 2005). 449

Generally, students displayed a certain difficulty with categorizing their notes 450 both in terms of what categories they should use and how the categories could be 451 used as scaffolds for the development of their arguing and understanding (see 452 Arnseth, 2004). 453

In excerpt 1, the three girls—Sara, Anne, and Lene (S, A, and L in the excerpt)— 454 who are all sharing one computer, are talking about what kind of category they 455 should use as a description of a message in FLE2. The episode happened at a stage 456 in their activity when they were engaged in *knowledge building* and used the 457 categories embedded in FLE2 in order to develop their arguments. 458

How might we go about identifying parts of the context toward which the girls 459are displaying an orientation to in this excerpt? For example, in what ways is the 460CSCL application part of this context, and what is more, how can we identify 461particular institutional responsibilities having to do with how they deal with 462knowledge? What are the challenges in terms of developing more productive 463 practices? Of course, in order to make substantial claims, we would need to examine 464how students used categories across groups and over time. Moreover, in order to 465make sense of their talk, we would also need to know something about the tool and 466 the pedagogical ideas embedded within it. In this instance, this excerpt is used as a 467 resource for illustrating a particular analytical practice. 468

Excerpt 1		t1.1
1. A:	eh:: relia	t1.2
2. L:	No insecure knowledge,	t1.3
3.		t1.4
4. A:	No,	t1.5
5. S:	Reli: able knowledge.	t1.6
6. L:	=No it is not,	t1.7
7. S:	It is reliable knowledge that one	t1.8
8. L:	=It is not eh just because he says so.	t1.9
9. S:	It is insecure knowledge.	t1.10
10.L:	It is a bit different when it says that it was eh a survey,	t1.11
11. A:	Why don't we just take that blue one (.) the white or	t1.12
12.	something? One of those. (.) Process commentary. [pointing at	t1.13
13.	screen]	t1.14
14.		t1.15
15. A.	It is not uncertain knowledge either you see? (\dots)	t1.16
16. A:		t1.17
17. A:	Which one did you take?	t1.18
18. L:	Process commentary.	t1.19
19. A:	yeah.	t1.20
20.	••••	t1.21
21. A:	() white.	t1.22

In the first few lines of the excerpt Anne and Lene disagreed on how they should 469 categorize a particular knowledge object. In line 1, Anne expressed that they should 470 use the category *reliable knowledge* while in line 2 Lene responded by saying that 471 they should employ the category *insecure knowledge*. Anne produced another disagreement token in line 4. The particular knowledge object they were discussing is 473 an excerpt of a newspaper interview with a professor who is sceptical of the use of 474 gene testing. In line 5 Sara joined their discussion and displayed agreement with 475 Anne.

We can infer that the CSCL application structures their interaction in at least 477 two senses. First, the practical task that the students encounter, which is to categorize a fragment of knowledge they have found in an additional text, is made 479 relevant by the categories in FLE2. Thus, the system of categories that is inscribed 480 in the technological system makes certain actions relevant on the part of the users 481 (Goodwin, 1997). 482

However, it does not necessarily imply that they offer reasons for their choice, 483 or to put it differently, the application does not determine how they go about categorizing. As such, choosing a category is very much a practical problem for the students. Furthermore, whether they are able to use the categories as scaffolds in their activity is, among other things, dependent on whether they challenge each other's ideas and whether these challenges are taken up and responded to by others. 489

Second, the tool makes available a whole set of categories, and it is not easy 490 to distinguish between them because they do not mutually exclude one another. 491 This is because any knowledge object can be categorized in a number of dif-492 ferent ways. 493

In line 8, Lene provided a reason for her claim stating that they should not use 494the category reliable knowledge "it is not eh just because he says so." This account is 495interesting because it questions whether the validity of a statement should be 496assessed simply on the basis of the authority of the person who claims it. As such, it 497is an account that questions uncritical copying of knowledge from authoritative 498sources. In dialogical terms, this account could be a starting point for a more 499elaborate discussion of the epistemological status of the texts that the students were 500going to use in order to substantiate their claims. However, the opportunity for 501elaboration that is made available by this account was not taken up in the following 502talk. Sara did not challenge Lene to explain why it should not necessarily be treated 503as valid knowledge in line 9. Instead she suggested a different category. Another 504category that is available and which also might be considered relevant is uncertain 505knowledge. Here Sara simply readjusted her position in their joint discussion and 506displayed agreement with Lene's previous accounts in lines 2 and 6. That is to say, 507Sara inferred that the text in question should be given a label which is consistent 508with Lene's critique. The category *insecure knowledge* is an available category that 509can accommodate this critique and still be able to do the work required. Lene 510provided a more elaborate reason in line 10 where she stated that it is "(...) different 511when it says it was eh a survey." 512

An important point that needs to be emphasised is that deciding upon a category 513is connected with the practical management of disagreement within the group 514(Muukonen et al., 1999). Thus, the choice of the category *insecure knowledge* might 515enable the group to manage disagreement, something which is an important concern 516for participants in collaborative encounters such as this. However, even though this 517category might enable them to solve this particular problem, it is not treated as 518adequate by Anne who offers a set of alternatives in lines 11-13. At first she 519suggested "the blue one," which is uncertain knowledge. However, she also offered 520two other alternatives; "the white one," which is meta-comment, and the category 521

comment or "process commentary" which is the exact formulation she employed. 522 She provided a reason for offering these alternatives in line 15. 523

Even though the system of categories structures their interaction, the students 524make use of them to manage their practical concerns, which in this case was to 525categorize a piece of knowledge, taken literally, without necessarily providing any 526reasons for why they have selected a particular category. We might say that they 527 understand their task as involving the collection of arguments and to categorizing 528them in accordance with the template of categories made available by the artifact. 529Moreover, the tool is interpreted and constituted in order to fit this concern, which 530is about how they can go about finding facts that support their case and whether 531these facts actually qualify as facts and can be given the category *reliable knowledge*. 532However, in this particular case, this concern conflicted with internal group 533dynamics. 534

In general, there was a preference for this category, because it does some 535important work. On the one hand, it qualifies their accounts as credible and as more 536robust against rebuttal (see Arnseth, 2004). On the other hand, it also labels their 537accounts as being in accordance with their task, which was to produce reliable 538accounts grounded in authoritative knowledge. By employing this category students 539are able to manage their responsibilities for doing institutionally relevant actions. 540However, in order to analyze how students made sense of their task, we would also 541need to look into how the task is introduced and, subsequently, how this is taken up 542or resisted by the students. As such, the actual meaning of the task would be an 543effect of local negotiation. 544

Institutionally relevant actions are not fixed and immutable. On the contrary, even though the teacher did not challenge them here, there might be other episodes where he or she could request an explanation of why their arguments were reliable. Still, there is no guarantee that the students would take up and respond to this challenge. They might use evasive strategies and argue that they had done their task appropriately (Arnseth, 2004).

In this excerpt, through some form of minimal collaborative effort, a choice of 551category was made in line 18. The category they ended up with was the category 552commentary, a category which was not disputed by anyone within the group. 553However, it is also a category that was not necessarily relevant. This is due to the 554fact that the category commentary should ideally be a comment regarding the 555development of their knowledge-building activity. However, in this case the pref-556erence for agreement within the group made them use this category since it was 557uncontroversial. 558

Against this background, we can see that developing teaching and learning 559practices with CSCL tools is by no means straightforward, as a number of 560interrelated factors constitute such practices. That is to say, it is dependent on 561whether the students are able to make sense of the tool and see it as relevant. 562Moreover, the teacher needs to challenge the students and help them to make sense 563of their task, including how the tool might facilitate their work. As we have shown, 564the meanings and functions of the application are by no means self-evident to 565students. This is closely intertwined with what is constituted as institutionally 566appropriate ways of dealing with knowledge. 567

The concern that the participants in this excerpt were dealing with was to decide 568 and agree upon a category that, for all practical purposes, could be used as a 569

description of their note. This task was institutionally embedded, in the sense that 570they were accountable for doing the task in a particular way. Institutionally there 571was a preference for the category reliable knowledge, that is to say they were 572supposed to develop their arguments so that they became more valid. However, as 573shown in the excerpt, this task was intertwined with internal group dynamics and 574issues having to do with the management of disagreement. The initial disagreement 575within the group was dissolved by invoking an uncontroversial category that the 576group could agree upon, but which, from a normative perspective of knowledge 577building, was not necessarily a relevant description of their note. However, in this 578case the preference for reaching agreement took precedence over the need for 579understanding the relation between some category and a knowledge object. 580

Concluding remarks and future steps

At this point in the development of CSCL as a field of research it is reasonable to 582ask whether there are any possibilities for convergence across approaches. We do 583not believe that the approaches discussed here can be reconciled in any simple 584sense. On the contrary, as we have demonstrated, they are to a certain extent 585incommensurable as they pursue very different analytical strategies. However, this 586does not mean that they cannot learn from one another. Acknowledging their 587differences, the approaches might inform one another in providing directions for 588future CSCL research. That is to say, research belonging to the systemic approach 589provides important findings in terms of what works and what does not across 590contexts, including how the effectiveness of CSCL applications might be systemat-591ically related to the previous experiences of students and teachers or features of the 592institutional context. 593

However, this kind of research does not provide any detailed information on how 594changes in teaching and learning practices actually come about and are negotiated 595in dialogue among participants responding to various normative features of the 596setting. In order to analytically make sense of this, there is a need to examine the 597sequential unfolding of activities along different time scales. Consequently, in order 598to gain further insights into the complexities of CSCL, we need both approaches, but 599it is important to keep in mind that they are useful for different purposes since they 600make different aspects of students' CSCL activities available for study. 601

Having said that, there is a need to spell out in detail what the points of 602 convergence between the approaches might be. In and through our discussion, we 603 believe that we are able to identify two fruitful points of convergence, discussion, 604 and argument across these approaches. 605

As mentioned previously, in their comprehensive review, Lehtinen et al. (1999), 606 argue that there is substantial evidence for the fact that CSCL environments, under 607certain conditions, bring about knowledge-seeking patterns and higher-order-608 thinking skills. However, these findings have not been replicated when CSCL tools 609 have been introduced into more ordinary classroom settings (Lipponen, 2001). 610Consequently, Lipponen (2001), for example, argues that the productivity and 611 effectiveness of CSCL applications is closely related to social and cultural aspects of 612the settings in which they are introduced. In the same vein, but focusing more 613explicitly on processes of cultural transformation, Crook & Light (2002) demon-614 strated the complexity involved in developing the cultural practices of learning and 615 teaching with the support of ICT at the university level. As such, research 616 demonstrates quite clearly that *there is a need to take the institutional context into* 617 *account*. This constitutes one point of convergence. 618

On the other hand, Crook (1998), for example, emphasized that CSCL environ-619 ments can be beneficial for learning if students articulate their thinking and express 620 their ideas so that limitations in understanding become accessible and publicly 621 available (see also, Arnseth, 2004; Krange, in press; Rasmussen, 2005). This is a 622 necessary process for revision and elaboration of ideas (Ludvigsen & Mørch, 2003, 623 2005; Stenning et al., 2002). Thus, regardless of the particular approaches employed, 624 there seems to be some shared understanding of what it is that affords learning, 625 regardless of whether learning is conceived as "internalization" or "changed 626 participation in social practices." In the learning sciences, many different concepts 627 are used to characterize such productive learning practices: for example overcoming 628 cognitive conflicts and epistemological break downs, (re)framing of the activity at 629 hand, re-establishing mutual understandings, responding to challenges by teachers 630 and fellow students, and joint exploration of problems. All of them point to the fact 631 that students need to engage in transformative dialogue in order to develop more 632 advanced problem-solving, reasoning, and arguing in regard to relatively complex 633 *curricular content*. Put simply, disagreements concern why it is that certain forms of 634 collaboration and discourse are considered to be beneficial for learning. Despite 635 these disagreements this constitutes the second point of convergence. 636

As we have demonstrated, however, these two points are closely related. That is 637 to say, the historically developed practices of education are constitutive for the 638 meaning and function of CSCL tools. Scardamalia & Bereiter (1996, p. 252; see also 639 Hewitt, 2001) identify four characteristics of schooling that inhibit the development 640 of student expertise. First, schooling still remains focused on individual student 641 learning. Second, schooling deals mainly with demonstrable skills and formal 642 knowledge that students are expected to memorize. Moreover, it is mainly the 643 teacher who organizes lessons, asks questions, and summarizes activities. Third, to a 644 great extent the learning objectives remain invisible to the students. That is, they are 645 transformed into specific tasks and the procedures for accomplishing those same 646 tasks. Fourth, the organization of the exercise of expertise is available only to the 647 teacher and no mechanisms are provided for passing on the teacher's expertise to 648 students. That is to say, educational practices are still grounded in a transmission 649model of learning and on a mind-as-container metaphor (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980), 650 where, more or less, it is the individual student's responsibility to make sense of the 651teacher's instructions (Säljö & Bergqvist, 1997; Säljö, 2000). As such, facilitating 652 learning with CSCL also entails changing these institutional practices. In order to 653 understand how such changes come about, we also need to pay attention to the 654sequential unfolding of activities in time. 655

Our main argument is, therefore, that *we need to examine more closely how the* 656 *meaning and functions of CSCL applications are actually constituted in practice.* In 657 the CSCL community, research adhering to a dialogical framework can provide 658 fruitful accounts for the temporal dimensions of learning and knowledge construction. As we have shown, this is crucial for understanding why CSCL applications fail or succeed. Paying close attention to the sequential organization of interactions 661 might also enable us to understand how we can better facilitate learning with CSCL, 662 in the sense that we can generate systematic knowledge about the forms of support 663 that are likely to have the proposed effects on student talk and actions. However, in 664 line with the *dialogical* approach, these effects are not infallible. On the contrary, 665 they need to be (re)produced in and through social interaction. 666

Transcript symbols

=	absence of a discernible gap	670
(.)	short pause	672
	untimed pause	674
()	omitted or inaudible talk	676
?	marks rising intonation	678
,	continuing intonation	680
[]	clarifying information	682

684 Acknowledgements An earlier version of this manuscript was presented at the first Kaleidoscope CSCL SIG symposium in Lausanne Switzerland, 2004; we would like to thank the participants for 685valuable comments. We also would like to thank the ijCSCL reviewers and the editors for valuable 686comments and critique. This research is supported by the Norwegian Research Council through 687 grants to the following projects: "Literacy and media convergence. New forms of semiotically 688mediated interaction" (Grant nr. 157485/510) and TRANSFORM (Grant nr. 161946/S20). It is also 689 supported by the strategic research effort "Competence and Media Convergence (CMC)" at the 690University of Oslo (http://cmc.uio.no/). 691

References

스 Springer

management of computer supported collaborative learning. Unpublished PhD thesis. Oslo,	695
Norway: University of Oslo, Faculty of Education.	696
Baker, M., Hansen, T., Joiner, R., & Traum, D. (1999). The role of grounding in collaborative	697
learning tasks. In P. Dillenbourg (Ed.), Collaborative Learning: Cognitive and Computational	698
Approaches (pp. 34-63). Amsterdam: Pergamon.	699
Brown, A. L., Ellery, S., & Campione, J. C. (1998). Creating zones of proximal development	700
electronically. In J. G. Greeno & S. V. Goldman (Eds.), Thinking Practices in Mathematics and	701
Science Learning (pp. 341–368). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.	702
Cohen, A., & Scardamalia, M. (1998). Discourse about ideas: monitoring and regulating in face-to-	703
face and computer-mediated environments. Interactive Learning Environments, 6, 93–113.	704
Cole, M. (1996). Cultural psychology. A once and future discipline. Cambridge, MA: The Belknap	705
Press of Harvard University Press.	706
Crook, C. (1998). Children as computer users: The case of collaborative learning. Computers &	707
<i>Education</i> , 30(3 & 4), 237–247.	708
Crook, C., & Light, P. (2002). Virtual society and the cultural practice of study. In S. Woolgar (Ed.),	709
Virtual Society? Technology, Cyberbole, Reality (pp. 153–175). Oxford: Oxford University Press.	710
Dillenbourg, P. (1999): What do you mean by collaborative learning? In P. Dillenbourg (Ed.),	711

Arnseth, H. C. (2004). Discourse and artefacts in learning to argue. Analysing the practical

Collaborative Learning: Cognitive and Computational Approaches (pp. 1-19). Amsterdam: Pergamon. Edelson, D. C., Gording, D. N., & Pea, R. D. (1999). Addressing the challenges of inquiry-based learning through technology and curriculum design. Journal of the Learning Sciences, 8, 391-

450. 716Goodwin, C. (1997). The blackness of black: Color categories as situated practice. In L. B. Resnick, 717 R. Säljö, C. Pontecorvo, & B. Burge (Eds.), Discourse, Tools and Reasoning. Essays on Situated 718Cognition (pp. 111–140). Berlin: Springer Verlag. 719

720 Guzdial, M. (1997). Information ecology of collaboration in educational settings: Influence of tool.

693

694

712

713

714

715

668

	701
In R. Hall, N. Miyake, & N. Enyedy (Eds.), Proceedings of Computer Support for Collaborative	(21
Learning 1997 (pp. 83–91). Toronto: University of Toronto.	722
Hakkarainen, K., Lipponen, L., & Järvelä, S. (2001). Epistemology of inquiry and computer-	723
supported collaborative learning. In T. Koschman, R. Hall, & N. Miake (Eds.), CSCL 2:	724
Carrying Forward the Conversation (pp. 128–156) Mahwah NI: Lawrence Erlbaum	725
Hawitt I (2001) From focus on tacks to a focus on understanding: The cultural transformation of a	726
The write, J_{1} (2007). From focus on tasks to a focus on understanding. The current maintain and of a	707
Toronto classroom. In 1. Koschmann, R. Hall, & N. Milyake (Eds.), CSCL 2. Carrying Forward	121
the Conversation (pp. 11–41). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.	728
Hewitt, J., & Tevlops, C. (1999). An analysis of growth patterns in computer conferencing threads.	$729\mathrm{Q2}$
In C. Hoadley, (Ed.), Proceedings of Computer Support for Collaborative Learning. Designing	730
New Media for a New Millennium: Collaborative Technology for Learning. Education, and	731
Training (pp. 232–241) Palo Alto, CA	732
Hardley C & Linn M (2000) Teaching science through online peer discussions: sneakeasy in the	733
Inducty, C., & Emil, M. (2007). Federing science inough of Esigned Teaching 22, 920, 957	794
knowledge megration environment. Journal of science reaching, 22, 659–657.	704
Ivarsson, J. (2004). Renderings & reasoning: Studying artifacts in human knowing. Goteborg: Acta	135
Universitatis Gothoburgensis.	736
Jordan, B., & Henderson, K. (1995). Interaction analysis: Foundations and practice. <i>The Journal of</i>	737
the Learning Sciences, 4(1), 39–103.	738
Kirschner, P. A., Martens, R. L., & Strijbos, J. W. (2004). CSCL in higher education: A framework	739
for designing multiple collaborative environments. In J. W. Strijbos, P. A. Kirschner, & R. L.	740
Martens (Eds.) What We Know About CSCL: And Implementing it in Higher Education (pp. 3-	741
31) Boston MA: Kluwer Academic/Springer Varlag	742
ST). Doston, WAX. Kluwer Academic/springer veriag.	742 02
Krange, I. (in press). Contabonative tearning in contabonative virtual environments. Statistical set of	743 Q3
new learning resources in traditional educational settings. Osto: Intermedia, University of Osto.	144
Kvale, S. (1996). Interviews. An introduction to qualitative research interviewing. Thousand Oaks,	(45
CA: Sage.	746
Lakoff, G., & Johnson, M. (1980). <i>Metaphors we live by</i> . Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.	747
Lamon, M., Secules, T., Petrosino, A., Hackett, R., Bransford, J., & Goldman, S. (1996). Schools for	748
thought: Overview of the project and lessons learned from one of the sites. In L. Schauble, &	749
R. Glaser (Eds.), Innovations in Learning: New Environments for Education (pp. 243–288).	750
Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.	751
Lehtinen E. Hakkarinen K. Lipponen L. Rabikainen M. & Muukkonen H. (1999) Computer	752
supported collaborative learning: A review of research and dividionment. Natherlands: University	753
of Nimeson Department of Educational Sciences (The LHCL Clockast Department)	754
This is the second seco	704
Education, 10).	100
Lemke, J. L. (2000). Across the scales of time: Artifacts, activities, and meanings in ecosocial	750
systems. Mind, Culture, and Activity, 7(4), 273–290.	757
Linell, P. (1998). Approaching dialogue. Talk, interaction and contexts in dialogical perspectives.	758
Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.	759
Lipponen, L. (2001). Computer-supported collaborative learning: From promises to reality (Rep. No.	760
245). Turku: Department of Education.	761
Lipponen, L., Rahikainen, M., Lallimo, J., & Hakkarainen, K. (2003). Patterns of participation and	762
discourse in elementary students' computer-supported collaborative learning Learning &	763
Instruction 13 487 500	764
Instruction, 19, 467-505.	765
Ludvigsen, S. R. (in press). what counts as knowledge: Learning to use categories in computer	705
environments. In R. Saijo (Ed.), ICI and Transformation of Learning Practices. Amsterdam:	100
Pergamon Press.	767 Q3
Ludvigsen, S. R., & Mørch, A. (2003). Categorisation in knowledge building: Task specific	768
argumentation in a co-located CSCL environment. In B. Wasson, S. Ludvigsen, & U. Hoppe	769
(Eds.), Designing for Change in Networked Learning Environments. Proceedings of the	770
International Conference on Computer Support for Collaborative Learning (pp. 67–76).	771
Dordrecht: Kluwer.	772
Ludvissen S & March A (2005) Situating collaborative learning: Educational technology in the	773
Wild Educational Technology XI V(5) 39-44	77/
Marcer N (2000) Words & minds How we use language to think together I ondon: Doubledge	775
Moreory N & Wagarie D (1000). In "works the large to hink togener. London, Kulledge,	776
where (1) is the exploratory tark productive tark in K. Littleton & P. Light	777
(Eds.), Learning with Computers. Analysing Productive Interaction (pp. 19–102). London:	
Koutledge.	(78
Mercer, N., Philips, T., & Somekh, B. (1991). Research Note. Spoken language and new technology	779
(SLANT). Journal of Computer Assisted Learning, 7, 195–202.	780

- Mercer, N., Fernandez, M., Dawes, L., Wegerif, R., & Sams, C. (2003). Talk about texts at the computer: Using ICT to develop children's oral and literate abilities. *READING literacy and Language*, July, 81–89.
 783
- Mercer, M., Wegerif, R., Dawes, L., Sams, C., & Fernandez, M. (2004). How computers can help children think together about literacy. In C. K. Kinzer & L. Verhoeven (Eds.). *Interactive Teteracy Education*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
 Middleton, D., & Brown, S. (2005). *The social psychology of experience. Studies in remembering and* 787
- Middleton, D., & Brown, S. (2005). *The social psychology of experience. Studies in remembering and forgetting*. London: Sage.
- Miyake, N., & Koschmann, T. (2001). Realizations of CSCL Conversations: Technology Transfer and the CSILE Project. In T. Koschmann, R. Hall, & N. Miyake (Eds.), CSCL 2. Carrying Forward the Conversation (pp. 1–10). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum. 791
- Muukkonen, H., Hakkarainen K., & Leinonen, T. (2000). Introduction to Fle2 Pedagogy. Helsinki: 792
 UIAH Media Lab, University of Art and Design Helsinki. Accessed at http://fle2.uiah.fi/
 pedagogy.html.
- Muukonen, H., Lakkala, M., & Hakkarainen, K. (2005). Technology-mediation and tutoring: How do they shape progressive inquiry discourse? *The Journal of the Learning Sciences*, 14(4), 527– 565.
- Mäkitalo, Å., & Säljö, R. (2002). Talk in institutional context and institutional context in talk: categories as situated practices. *TEXT*, 22(1), 57–82.
- Rasmussen, I. (2005). Project work and ICT. A study of learning as trajectories of participation. Doctoral Dissertation. Intermedia, Nr. 46. Oslo, Norway: University of Oslo.
- Roschelle, J. (1992). Learning by collaborating: Convergent conceptual change. *The Journal of the Learning Sciences*, 2, 235–276.
- Roschelle, J., & Teasley, S. D. (1995). The construction of shared knowledge in collaborative problem solving. In C. O'Malley, (Ed.), *Computer Supported Collaborative Learning* (pp. 69– 97). Berlin: Springer Verlag.
- Rystedt, H. (2002). *Bridging practices. Simulations in education for the health-care professions.* Göteborg: Göteborg Studies in Educational Sciences 187.
- Säljö, R. (2000). Lärande i praktiken. Ett sociokulturellt perspektiv. (Learning in practice. A sociocultural perspective). Stockholm: Bokförlaget Prisma.
- Säljö, R., & Bergqvist, K. (1997). Seeing the light: Discourse and practice in the optics lab. In L. B. Resnick, R. Säljö, C. Pontecorvo, & B. Burge (Eds.), *Discourse, Tools and Reasoning. Essays on Situated Cognition*. Berlin: Springer Verlag.
- Salomon, G. (1993). No distribution without individual's cognition: A dynamic interactional view. In G. Salomon (Ed.), *Distributed Cognitions. Psychological and Educational Considerations* (pp. 111–138). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Scardamalia, M., & Bereiter, C. (1996). Computer support for knowledge-building communities. In T. Koschmann (Ed.), CSCL: Theory and Practice of an Emerging Paradigm (pp. 249–268). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Scardamalia, M., Bereiter, C., & Lamon, M. (1994). The CSILE project: Trying to bring the classroom into world 3. In K. McGilly (Ed.), *Classroom Lessons: Integrating Cognitive Theory* and Classroom practice (pp. 201–228). Cambridge, MA: The MIT Press.
- Stahl, G. (2001). Rediscovering CSCL. In T. Koschmann, R. Hall, & N. Miyake (Eds.), CSCL 2. Carrying Forward the Conversation (pp. 169–181). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Stahl, G. (2006). Group cognition. Computer support for building collaborative knowledge. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Stenning, K., Greeno, J. G., Hall, R., Sommerfeld, M., & Wiebe, M. (2002). Coordinating 827 mathematical with biological multiplication: Conceptual learning as the development of heterogeneous reasoning systems. In M. Baker, K. Brna, K. Stenning, & A. Tiberghien (Eds.), 829 *The Role of Communication in Learning to Model* (pp. 3–48). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum. 830 Suchman, L. (1987). *Plans and situated actions. The problem of human machine communication.* 831
- Suchman, L. (1987). *Plans and situated actions. The problem of human machine communication.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Suthers, D. D., & Hundhausen, C. D. (2001). Learning by constructing collaborative representations: An empirical comparison of three alternatives. In P. Dillenbourg, A. Eurelings, & K. 834
 Hakkarainen (Eds.), *Proceedings of the First European Conference on Computer-Supported* 835 *Collaborative Learning* (pp. 75–82). Maastricht: Maastricht McLuhan Institute. 836
- The Cognition & Technology Group at Vanderbilt (1997). The Jasper Project. Lessons in curriculum, 837 instruction, assessment, and professional development. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum. 838
- Valsiner, J. (1994). Bidirectional cultural transmission and constructive sociogenesis. In W. deGraaf
 & R. Maier (Eds.), Sociogenesis Reexamined (pp. 47–70). New York, NY: Springer-Verlag.
 840

788

795

796 797

798

799

800

801

802

803

806

807

810

811

812

813

814

815

816

817

 $818 \\ 819$

820

821

822 823

824

825

826

- Valsiner, J., & Van Der Veer, R. (2000). The social mind. Construction of the idea. Cambridge, MA: 841
 Cambridge University Press. 842
- Wasson, B., Ludvigsen, S., & Hoppe, U. (2003). Designing for change in networked learning
 environments. In B. Wasson, S. Ludvigsen, & U. Hoppe (Eds.). Designing for Change in
 Networked Learning Environments. Proceedings of the International Conference on Computer
 Support for Collaborative Learning. Dordrecht: Kluwer.
- Wells, G. (1999). Dialogic inquiry: Towards a sociocultural practice and theory of education. 847 Cambridge, MA: Cambridge University Press. 848
- Wertsch, J. V. (1991). Voices of the mind. A sociocultural approach to mediated action. Cambridge, 849
 MA: Harvard University Press. 850

AUTHOR QUERIES

AUTHOR PLEASE ANSWER ALL QUERIES.

- Q1. Edelson, Gording & Pea (1998) and Crook & Light (2001), Munkanen et al. (1999) were cited in text but not provided in reference list. Please check.
- Q2. Please provide publisher information of Hewitt and Tevlops.

CORRECTE

- Q3. Please update bibliographic information if has already been published.
- Q4. Please provide volume number.