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### A knowledge-practice perspective on technology-mediated learning

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Abstract The purpose of the present paper is to examine the relations between Carl 10 Bereiter's and Marlene Scardamalia's knowledge-building approach and social practices. It 11 is argued that technology enhances learning through transformed social practices. In order 12to truly contribute to educational transformation, pedagogical approaches have to be 13 embedded in locally cultivated "knowledge practices" that channel the participants' 14 intellectual efforts in a way that elicits collective advancement of knowledge. Consequently, 15knowledge advancement is not just about putting students' ideas into the centre but depends 16on corresponding transformation of social practices of working with knowledge. Creation 17of cultures which advance knowledge presupposes sustained efforts of teacher-practitioners, 18 collaborating with students and researchers, aimed at iteratively transforming prevailing 19knowledge practices toward more innovative ones. 20

**Keywords** Epistemic artifact · Habitus · Knowledge building · Knowledge practice · Learning · Social practice · Trialogical approach

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Introduction

The purpose of the present article is to reflect theoretically on relations between Bereiter's 25(2002) knowledge-building framework and social practices. Pioneering efforts of Bereiter 26and Scardamalia (2003) have produced the "knowledge-building" framework that has for a 27long time been an icon of innovative education around the world. This approach appears to 28capture certain very important aspects of expert-like, creative working with knowledge that 29assists in improving the quality of education from elementary to higher education. The 30 argument developed in the present position paper is, however, that careful examination of 31the role of social practices in learning and knowledge building would facilitate further 32

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advancement of this research program, on a more secure foundation. The motivation of 33 writing this paper is not so much to criticize Bereiter's position as to further organize my 34 own thoughts on the present issues. It appears that in order to make a stronger impact on 35educational transformation, the knowledge-building approach should be developed in a 36 direction that better takes social practices into consideration. While the knowledge-building 37 framework involves an implicit theory of social practices examined later in this paper, that 38 is not enough. We shall proceed to lay out the reasons for the claim that in order to foster 39advancement of the approach, one needs a more unified framework that acknowledges the 40 role of social practices. 41

On the basis of more than 12 years' experience of studying computer-mediated learning, 42my colleagues and I have concluded that *technology enhances learning through* 43transformed social practices (Hakkarainen et al. 2006; Muukkonen and Lakkala 2009; 44 Paavola et al. 2004). It appears important to acknowledge that research and development of 45computer-mediated learning has often (implicitly if not explicitly) relied on the rather naive 46 assumption that technology-enhanced learning environments somehow, by themselves, 47 transform educational practices. On the basis of such illusory hopes, investigators often 48characterize their technical environments as "innovative," "dynamic," "interactive," 49"powerful" or use some other supposedly desirable characterizations (for criticism of such 50approaches, see Engeström 2009). 51

As Perez (2002) argued, however, technological and social innovations are interdepen-52dent. It appears that the technology as such does not determine the nature of its 53implementation but coevolves with gradually transforming institutional practices (Tuomi 542002). Such a process does not usually involve mechanical assimilation of already existing 55tools or mere passive adaptation for their affordances, but a reciprocally creative process in 56which tools evolve to better facilitate intended practices and novel practices are created in 57order to make better use of novel possibilities provided by technologies. Only when ICT-58based tools in general and collaborative technologies in particular have been fully merged 59or fused with social practices of teachers and students, are their intellectual resources 60 genuinely augmented and learning achievements correspondingly facilitated (Hakkarainen 61 et al. 2004a). Our investigations, for more than a decade, indicate that meaningful 62technology-enhanced learning presupposes expansive learning (Engeström 1987) processes 63 in which novel technology-mediated practices of learning and instruction are iteratively 64 developed (Hakkarainen 2003b, c, 2004). Computer simulations, and other applications 65with a specific educational focus, which are assimilated as novel instruments of prevailing 66 activity systems, may produce significant learning gains (e.g., De Jong and van Jooligen 67 1998). Yet profound transformation of social practices is called for in the context of 68 community-oriented approaches of technology-enhanced learning, such as knowledge 69 building, that aim at reorganizing classroom activities by following examples of scholarly 70communities. It appears that advancement of the field requires a more comprehensive 71understanding of the complex and dynamic relations between technologies and social 72practices involved in educational transformation processes. 73

Such social practices are assemblages of human activity that involve goal-directed 7475sequences of actions using certain technology and rely on a socio-historically developed system of knowledge (Schatzki 2001, 2002; Scribner and Cole 1981). The participants have 76to develop capacities for pursuing coordinated actions that involve applying cultural 77 knowledge in particular settings of their activity. Current theories of social practices 7879highlight both the inseparability of knowing and doing and the creative and improvisational aspect of practice: "Far from being the locus of mechanical repetition and mindlessness, 80 practice is instead a key to the comprehension of knowledge-related phenomena. It is in 81

practice, in fact, that knowledge comes to life, stays alive, and fades away. It is in practice 82 that institutionalized, historically determined, and codified expertise acquires sense and 83 becomes both a resource and a constraint for action" (Nicolini et al. 2004, p. 26). 84

By knowledge practices, in turn, I refer to personal and social practices related to 85 working with knowledge. The term "knowledge" is used in the broadest sense, to include 86 what is explicit or stated in official discourse (e.g., approved texts), to what is implicit, 87 informing one's habits (perhaps pre-reflectively) of expert working; and further yet to that 88 which underlies the competencies of experts, for example, so called "procedural 89 knowledge." Knowledge practices, while sometimes just supporting routine learning 90 (transmission), at their creative edge diverge from other routine social practices in that they 91take place in specific purposefully dynamic and fluid settings designed for the furtherance 9293 of innovation and knowledge. Rather than relying only on mere mundane habits or repeated routines (that may also be needed), such practices are aimed at solving emergent problems 94and constant pursuit of novelty and innovation. It may be argued that in the case of 95communities that follow such practices, innovation and pursuit of novelty are themselves 96 transformed to shared social practices through the cultivation of corresponding personal and 97 collective competencies and patterns of shared activity (Knorr-Cetina 1999, 2001). 98Whenever such innovative practices are encountered, we are dealing with innovative 99 knowledge communities and their networks (Hakkarainen et al. 2004b, 2009). Rather than 100arising from mysterious personal gifts or creative talents, innovation and discovery rely on 101collectively cultivated epistemic practices that guide and channel the participants' 102intellectual efforts in creative and expansive ways (Hakkarainen et al. 2004a). A central 103characteristic of such activity is deliberate reinvention of prevailing practices (Knorr-Cetina 1042001), systematic pursuit of novelty, and constant working at the edge of competence 105(Bereiter and Scardamalia 1993). While knowledge-building research indicates that such 106 communities can be created even at the elementary-education level, neither the reliance of 107 these communities on social practices nor their material embodiment have been properly 108addressed. 109

Knowledge-centered practices are mediated by epistemic technologies, that is, 110technologies that allow the participants to constantly remediate their activities by creating 111 epistemic artifacts. Mediation based on collaborative technologies transforms students' 112intangible ideas into digital entities that can be further articulated, shared, interlinked, and 113extended in long-term processes. Deliberate efforts of transformation are facilitated by 114providing instruments and methods that allow making visible, reflecting on, and 115transforming prevailing practices. Knowledge-centered practices are accessible even to 116elementary school students because of material agency, based on reciprocal tuning of social, 117technical, and material aspects of activity, provided by these technologies (cf. Pickering 1181995); knowledge advancement would not be possible without such technology mediation. 119The process focuses on developing shared epistemic objects of activity; these epistemic 120"things" (artifacts) are incomplete, knowledge-laden, yet materially embodied, objects that 121have a capacity, endlessly, to open up novel lines of inquiry (Knorr-Cetina 2001). 122

On the basis of these kinds of considerations, I am developing an object-centered— 123trialogical—approach to technology-mediated learning together with my colleagues. This 124approach relies on our research on three metaphors of learning, that is, the knowledge 125acquisition metaphor, participation metaphor, and knowledge-creation metaphor. The 126acquisition metaphor addresses assimilation of prevailing knowledge by individual learners 127128highlighting the role of the individual's mental models or schemata in learning. The participation approach, in turn, focuses on social appropriation of community knowledge 129and adaptation to existing cultural practices, which may be called a "knowing" process (on 130 the first two metaphors, see Sfard 1998; Lave and Wenger 1991). The acquisition approach 131 Q1 and the participation approach, we have argued, have methods of dealing with innovation, 132 but more fundamental reconception is needed. (Paavola et al. 2004). 133

The theories of innovative knowledge communities are a basis for a third approach of 134learning aimed at overcoming the dichotomy between the acquisition and participation 135metaphors; we call it a *knowledge-creation* metaphor of learning (Paavola et al. 2004; 136Hakkarainen et al. 2004c). While the acquisition view represents a "monological" (subjective, 137mental) view on human learning and the participation view represents a "dialogical" 138 (intersubjective) view, the knowledge-creation perspective may be understood as "trialogical" 139("objective," Davidson 2001) in nature because of its foregrounding interaction between 140individuals, communities, and shared knowledge-laden artifacts being developed. The present 141 142approach is intended to examine practices and conceptualizations as dialectically related entities; this provides space for human agency that plays a crucial role in creative reflection 143and transformation of practices. Developing an object-centered view of human activity, 144characteristic of the trialogical approach, is a significant trend from philosophy (Davidson 1452001; Clark 2003; Skagestad 1993; Sterelny 2004) to post-human social studies of science 146(Latour 1993, 2005; Knorr-Cetina 1999) and from organizational research (Engeström and 147Blackler 2005b; Law and Singleton 2005) to psychology (Donald 1991; Gruber 1981; 148Hakkarainen et al. 2004a). 149

#### Facilitating advanced inquiry cultures in elementary-level education

In what follows, we will examine and reflect on relations between knowledge building and the 151"trialogical" knowledge practice frameworks; we will set out some implications of our 152examination. Scardamalia and Bereiter (1991, 1994, 1999) have pursued groundbreaking 153research on technology-enhanced learning from the middle 80s on, and developed a series of 154technology-mediated learning environments, such as the Computer-Supported Intentional 155Learning Environments (CSILE) and its current version, Knowledge Forum. While pursuing 156my doctoral studies at the University of Toronto in the beginning of the 1990s, I was 157introduced to material produced by very young CSILE students. These elementary school 158students were apparently engaged in in-depth inquiry posing ingenious questions and 159elaborating, collaboratively, marvelous theories of their own. It was natural for me to become 160engaged in such a phenomenon and start pursuing a doctoral dissertation on the topic. 161

My doctoral dissertation, supervised by Bereiter, was entitled "Epistemology of Scientific 162Inquiry and Computer-supported Collaborative Learning" (Hakkarainen 1998). The study 163addressed 10- to 11-year-old students' research-like process of inquiry within a computer-164supported collaborative-learning setting. The issue was to examine how these students, with 165scaffolds, engaged in the question- and explanation-driven inquiry characteristic of scientific 166research. The dissertation involved a series of studies over three years in which I qualitatively 167analyzed the epistemological nature of 10- to 11-year-old CSILE students' research questions 168and explanations. In a resulting publication (Hakkarainen 2003b), I reported that a mature, 169progressive-inquiry culture was taking shape in classroom A; only a minority of the students 170produced knowledge at a high explanatory level, but gradually this practice started to 171dominate the class. In Class B, an inquiry culture never emerged for reasons explored. 172Further, qualitative analyses of the epistemology of CSILE students' inquiry culture in 173classroom A indicated that knowledge produced by the CSILE class in question was at a very 174high explanatory level both in biology (Hakkarainen 2003c) and physics (Hakkarainen 2004). 175Practically all research questions posed by the participants were explanation-seeking in 176

**AUTHOR'S PROOF** 

nature. Moreover, the students pursued their research questions in depth, following the pattern177of interrogative activity (Hakkarainen and Sintonen 2002): Initially very "big" questions and178tentative working theories were set out; then participants proceeded to search for answers to a179series of subordinate questions (Hintikka 1999), scaffolding them within CSILE. The analyses180indicated that many of the students made considerable conceptual progress (Hakkarainen1812003b, 2004). Because the students' progress was assessed by examining their written182productions, the evidence of conceptual progress was not conclusive.183

Back in Finland in 1994, I started to pursue research on cognition and its support with 184 computer technology, together with several students and colleagues. A surprising phenomenon 185emerged, however, after my colleagues and I started a CSILE project of our own. Initially, 186students taking part in their experiments did not rise to the intended level; they were pursuing 187 only fact-seeking questions and producing only fragmentary knowledge (Hakkarainen et al. 1882002; Lipponen and Hakkarainen 1997). In spite of the fact that the experiments not only 189took place in an ordinary school, but also in an elite one, students tended to do excessive 190copying of information. My collaborators and I spent a great deal of effort popularizing the 191theoretical foundations of knowledge building and engaged in repeated efforts to transmit the 192resulting insights to the practicing teachers (Hakkarainen et al. 1999; see also Hakkarainen et 193al. 2008). Although the conceptual problems were solved, the computer/software focus 194typically led to the teachers becoming more interested in ICT technology than learning or 195understanding. The puzzling phenomenon addressed in this article is as follows: What were 196the invisible foundations of knowledge-building inquiry that we were not conveying to the 197 teachers in question? One might rephrase the question as, what are the general foundations of 198knowledge advancement, which might explain its successes and failures in various 199environments? This query pointed me toward participatory aspects of learning that had been 200invisible to many cognitive researchers: Learning takes place within *communities of practice* 201(Lave and Wegner 1991); these guide and constrain the participants' knowledge-advancing 202activities in a way that was not articulated by the knowledge-building approach. In order to 203understand the puzzling phenomenon—successes mixed with failures—we have to go back to 204reflecting on what knowledge building is all about. 205

#### Basic assumptions of the knowledge-building approach

By generalizing results of cognitive research on writing and expertise, Bereiter and Scardamalia 207(1987a, b) developed an ingenious pedagogical approach—knowledge-building theory—that 208guides students to work creatively with knowledge (Bereiter and Scardamalia 2003). Rather 209than assimilating information provided by a textbook, the participants of knowledge-building 210communities are guided to pursue their own research questions, follow them in depth, 211generate intuitive theories for understanding, and explain various issues relevant for their 212school education. The Copernican revolution of education is in putting students' ideas into the 213centre rather than periphery of educational activity (Scardamalia 1999). 214

Moreover, Bereiter (2002) has developed a sophisticated framework for conceptualizing 215the knowledge-building processes. One of the insightful moves that he has made was a 216distinction between learning and knowledge building. The former is focused on gains in 217individual knowledge and understanding whereas the latter represents collective advance-218ment of knowledge. The knowledge-building process is focused on advancing entities that 219220Bereiter (2002) calls conceptual artifacts. Just as ordinary tools are used for such practical purposes as hammering and drilling, conceptual artifacts can be used for epistemic purposes 221222such as explanation and prediction. These artifacts are not in the minds of the participants

but occupy Popper's (1972) world of cultural knowledge. While the knowledge-building 223 framework offered theoretical justification, the Knowledge Forum environment provided a 224 transformative instrument that allowed even elementary school students to create their local 225 world of cultural knowledge. The theory is very multifaceted, content-rich, and 226 educationally inspiring; here, it is not possible to provide a comprehensive overview (but 227 see Scardamalia and Bereiter 2006; Bereiter and Scardamalia 2003). 228

The argument of the present paper is that while knowledge building has made a valuable 229contribution for improving the quality of modern education, the theory does not in its current 230form provide a sufficient explanation for its own success, nor can it properly account for certain 231failures of implementation. The problem is that knowledge-building discourse focuses almost 232exclusively on ideas (see, for example, Scardamalia and Bereiter 2006): "a dynamic systems 233explanation of conceptual growth posits (along with other kinds of interactions) ideas 234interacting with *ideas* to generate new *ideas*" (p. 104, my emphasis). The above 235characterization appears, to some extent, to be tautological in nature. In order to overcome 236the tautology in question, we have to break the closed circle of ideas and make "the other 237kinds of interactions" the main object of inquiry rather than a side issue. Simultaneously, 238importance of systematic knowledge-advancement efforts, highlighted by Bereiter and 239Scardamalia, has to be acknowledged; when one realizes the constitutive role of social 240practices, it is not enough simply to accept or incorporate participatory approaches that reduce 241learning and intelligence to shared practices and social structures (Hakkarainen 2003b). The 242reason for starting to pursue the trialogical knowledge practices approach was a need to 243address epistemic processes—and their objects—involved in advancement of knowledge in 244245parallel with social practices.

Bereiter's (2002) position concerning the role of ideas in knowledge creation is quite 246consistent. From elementary school classes to epistemic communities functioning at the 247 frontiers of knowledge advancement, ideas are interpreted to represent the cornerstone of 248knowledge creation. Further, Bereiter is sensitive to the importance of externalizing ideas, for 249instance, in writing them down. His position appears to a great extent also to be educationally 250defensible; there is no doubt that focus on ideas generated by students, and the concrete 251expression of these ideas, is likely to improve the quality of education. If there were a series 252of practical activities in which idea improvement were not at all involved, one might well 253254question whether an educationally valuable process of knowledge advancement took place at all. Ideas understood as conceptual artifacts do, indeed, function as carriers of what we will 255call knowledge advancement, a broad term meant to embrace conceptual and material aspects, 256and which subsumes "knowledge building." One can examine, as does Bereiter, an innovative 257product development or scientific inquiry process in terms of ideas being elaborated, given 258outward form, shared, extended, interlinked, and risen above the activity-processes in 259question. This line of reasoning has, of course, been the very foundation of traditional 260epistemology and the philosophy of science; it was not seriously challenged before the 261emergence of laboratory studies of scientific practices (e.g., Knorr-Cetina 1999; Latour and 262Woolgar 1986; Pickering 1995) that revealed the material aspect of-and "epistemic 263engineering" (Sterelny 2004) involved in-knowledge creation (Baird 2004; Clark 2003, 264see Hakkarainen 2003a for an analysis of the psychological implications of such studies). 265

#### Between conceptual and material aspect of artifacts

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Nevertheless, I would like to argue that expanding the knowledge-building approach 267 toward more fully accounting for material aspects of inquiry, as well as social practices, 268

would facilitate advancement of this pedagogically valuable scientific research program. 269Although ideas understood as conceptual artifacts (Bereiter 2002) certainly play an 270important role in the knowledge-advancement process, broadly conceived, this is not the 271whole story; what is crucial is the bigger picture. Let us take another look at a knowledge-272273building classroom and reexamine what is going on; perhaps we can explain, more 274comprehensively, the situations of thriving and the situations of failure to advance; the situations where ideas show progress in knowledge advancements and where they do not. 275Here I rely on my extensive experience of both Canadian and Finnish knowledge-building 276classrooms. Let us assume that knowledge-building pedagogy is implemented in an 277elementary school at grade four level or so. Toward that end, the participants use a 278Knowledge Forum (Scardamalia and Bereiter 2006) environment that provides sophisti-279cated tools for creatively externalizing students' ideas, storing them in a shared 280collaborative space in which the other students can comment on them, build on them, or 281rise above them. Navigation through a gradually accumulating knowledge network is 282assisted by interlinking and visually organizing the notes created. 283

The point that I wish to make is that something beyond mere collecting and organizing 284 ideas is taking place. The way students work with ideas is different from ordinary oral 285 discourse taking place in many classrooms because of the technology-enhanced learning 286 environment transforming the intangible insights generated to digital form, and therefore, 287 also, materially embodied ideas that exist outside of the participants' minds. This aspect of 288 technology mediation has three dimensions. 289

*First*, the participants produce knowledge by writing about their ideas. Externalization 290allows them to transform fuzzy and vague ideas into shareable epistemic artifacts. In general, 291inquirers are not simply creating novel ideas by deriving new thoughts from earlier ones within 292their minds. In our knowledge-creation perspective (Paavola et al. 2004; Paavola and 293Hakkarainen 2005a), interaction between levels of knowing, and especially between 294conceptualization and practical activity is essential (Paavola and Hakkarainen 2005b). 295Knowledge creation has a three-fold character, which has led us to use the term "trialogical" 296(Paavola and Hakkarainen 2004): It not only involves symbolic processes (Thirdness, in 297Peirce) but also fuzzy and vague feelings (Firstness) and resistance encountered in practical 298experimentation (Secondness) that may, in turn, bring about new conceptualizations (Paavola 299and Hakkarainen 2005b). Novel ideas, as proposed by Peirce, emerge in a complex process, 300 through interaction and transformations across these levels of knowing. This crucial point— 301 the larger matrix, the systemic interactions—is not properly appreciated if lower level 302 processes are primarily attended to (e.g., investigated); specifically, it is not sufficient for a 303 rich, robust account, if ideas, even externally formed and elaborated, are the main focus of 304attention. To put it another way, the interaction of ideas only cannot provide a general account 305 of their progress, if any, in knowledge advancement, or "knowledge building" in particular. 306 We must look at another layer of causal factors. 307

Secondly, it is psychologically relevant that students are extending their thinking by working 308 at the boundary-surface of the epistemic artifacts being generated. Many experts report that they 309 generate novel ideas by systematically relying on epistemic practices augmented by systemic 310objectification or materialization of ideas on paper (Donald 1991; Skagestad 1993; 311Hakkarainen 2008). These knowledge-advancement efforts involving successive elaboration 312of ideas within mind and on paper take place in space and time. Popper's (1972) main focus 313 on the conceptual content of ideas occupying World 3 does not do justice to the material basis 314of such epistemic practices, and this weakness, to some extent, is reflected in Bereiter's 315approach despite its being tempered by the latter's sense of the concrete practices of 316 317 education. By contrast, let us consider Donald's (1991) analyses of transformations of the

architecture of human intelligent activity through evolution of corresponding external 318 memory fields (EXMF). Following Vygotski (1978), it may be proposed that creation of 319epistemic artifacts remediates the participants' activities, by creating a second stimulus that 320 assists in examining the subsequent ideas from a novel perspective (Engeström 2006, 2007). 321 Without the external embodiment of the ideas, *double stimulation* would not work, and the 322 effort does not lead to significant advancement. Rather than only two stimuli, there is a whole 323 series of external stimuli-the material artifacts-within a knowledge-building environment 324 created by the students themselves that assist in guiding inquiry from outside. 325

326 The third material aspect of the above-described knowledge practices is the technology mediation involved. Could the participants' inquiry succeed at all without the *material* 327 agency (Pickering 1995) provided by the learning environment in question. To some extent, 328 yes, but something very essential would be missing. Many lines of inquiry emerging during 329the self-organizing process would likely have been missing. It would have been impossible 330 for the participants to pursue "longer trains of thought" (Darwin, see Gruber 1981) required 331 for making real conceptual progress. The learning environment provided agency that 332 carried the inquiry further ahead than would have otherwise been possible. It is true that 333 paper and pencil techniques, and the printed page, which investigators have relied on for 334 hundreds of years would provide some support; I would like to argue, however, that 335 technology-mediated events played, in the present case, a critical role in augmenting 336 inquiry processes in question. Trialogical activity cannot easily be taken part in without 337 appropriate technologies that help the participants to create and share, elaborate and 338 transform, organize and visually model diverse epistemic artifacts in conjunction with 339 making visible, reflecting on, and transforming their knowledge practices. The Knowledge 340 Forum type of environments appears to provide novel instruments needed for sustained 341working with elaborated, spatially and temporally expanded, and collectively distributed 342 objects of activity (cf. Engeström et al. 2003). 343

The above examination supports our position that genuine knowledge advancement is 344 not just a conceptual process, but has a material basis as well. The lack of inclusion of 345 material artifacts in the causal analysis, greatly handicaps the effort to explain the situations 346 of knowledge advancement or its lack. Intermixing of meaning and material evident in 347 creation of digital artifacts is called hybridization (Latour 1993). It is a central characteristic 348 of human activity that we crystallize our ideas and thoughts as "epistemic things" 349(Rheinberger 1997), that is, materially embodied knowledge-laden artifacts. I would argue 350that CSILE and Knowledge Forum are actually children of hybridization (see Paavola and 351Hakkarainen 2004) in providing material agency that allows the users to entertain more 352complex thought, engage in deeper inquiries, immerse in more intensive collaborative 353 processes than would otherwise be possible at all (Seitamaa-Hakkarainen et al. 2004; 354Muukkonen and Lakkala this issue). Rather than addressing mere ideas, it would be 355essential to account for the evolution of heterogeneous networks of people, technologies, 356and physically embodied as well as mentally represented epistemic artifacts. 357

#### Cultivating knowledge-creating practices of learning in a classroom

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Just like any other human-built artifact, Knowledge Forum may be seen to literally carry 359 knowledge concerning inquiry processes. This knowledge is embedded in the design of 360 structures and functions of the learning environment in question. In many cases, such 361 instrumental, "thing" knowledge has been more important than the theories that are used to 362 explain the instruments in question (Baird 2004). Knowledge Forum bears working knowledge 363

of inquiry processes; knowledge literally embodying an idea that hybridization is the key to *knowledge creation*, our term by which we emphasize the three-fold nature of the process. While knowledge-building theory talks mainly about ideas, the actual design of corresponding learning environments indicates the importance of intermixing meanings and materials.

In a series of investigations, we used Knowledge Forum for sharing experiences of 369 various cultural activities, diverging substantially from conventional within-classroom 370 inquiry processes. For example, we documented visually (background pictures) and 371conceptually (text notes) (a) encounters with experts, (b) results of field studies, (c) student-372 designed exhibition, and (d) design of concrete artifacts created by the students (Kangas et 373 al. 2007; Seitamaa-Hakkarainen et al. 2004; Seitamaa-Hakkarainen et al. in press). The 374 technology bends easily to elicit "hybrid" rather than hermetic (conceptually encapsulated) 375 knowledge building. In the long run, the knowledge carried by the present, materially 376 embodied instrument, which gives us reliable access to knowledge phenomena, might turn 377 out to be more relevant than theories used to explain the phenomenon (cf. Baird 2004). 378

New technology-enhanced learning environments do not, however, automatically become 379instruments in teachers' and students' joint activities; as mentioned above, transformation of 380 their social practices is also called for. The process of transforming an artifact into an instrument 381 of human activity is a developmental process of its own (see Virkkunen and Ahonen 2007). 382Pierre Rabardel and his colleagues have examined the dynamics of such processes of 383 "instrument genesis" (Vérillon and Rabardel 1995; Béguin and Rabardel 2000). The first 384 stage of the process involves shaping, adapting, and tailoring the artifact according to the 385local needs and requirements of activity. A teacher who selects a technology-enhanced 386 learning environment and designs, jointly with students (and researchers), knowledge-387 building projects to be pursued, has a critical role in this *instrumentation process*. The second 388 stage focuses on developing and cultivating personal and collective practices needed for 389 productively using the artifact as an instrument in knowledge-building activity. The gradual 390instrumentalization process takes time and depends on the involved agents' own intensive 391 participation in the collective inquiry process. It involves a developmental process in which 392 the instrument gradually merges or fuses in the participants' transforming activity system 393 (Engeström 1987). Before developing social practices in which the use of an instrument is 394embedded, all of its affordances cannot be productively utilized. Such processes are also 395 involved in educational communities engaged in pedagogical experiments of knowledge 396 building. The following illustrates how I came to appreciate this point. 397

I observed that, in accordance with practically all approaches aimed at pedagogical 398 innovation, successful knowledge-building cultures are usually based on single classes in 399 which there is an exceptionally motivated and committed teacher. While annual knowledge-400building workshops may allow teacher practitioners to share their knowledge-building 401 experiences with researchers, such networking draws people and communities who are 402already involved in pursuing pedagogical transformations. Advancement of local 403knowledge-building communities is because the teacher iteratively works to transform 404 405local classroom practices toward inquiry-based ones, involving students' participation in collaborative knowledge building. By practically exploring various possibilities, getting rid 406of weaknesses, resolving tensions and disturbances, and promoting the desired character-407 istics, he or she is able to promote directed evolution of classroom practices. The process 408does not, of course, take place only in a top-down fashion from teachers' guidance to 409transformation of students' practices, but involves improvisational and dynamic coevolu-410tion between patterns of using shared instruments, trialogical objects pursued, and teachers' 411 and students' activities. These kinds of cultures are typically restricted to single classes 412 because such a setup provides the teacher with control over many aspects of the learners' 413 everyday practices. Interaction with researchers may assist in the process, but may not be necessary. The resulting inquiry culture is *radically local* (Michael Cole, personal communication) because it is not easily transferred even next door (cf. Hedegaard and Chaiklin 2005). My argument is that such invisible work of teacher-practitioners should be analyzed so as to make it the object of scientific scrutiny. 418

It is clear that we are again talking about social practices rather than mere ideas. 419Successful knowledge-building cultures rely on gradual cultivation of knowledge practices 420 that channel the participants' epistemic efforts in a way that elicits knowledge advancement 421 422 (Hewitt 1996; Hakkarainen 2003b, 2004). Of equal importance, we have come to see that social practices, in other forms, also dominate less successful classes, and help account for 423 their limited advances. Many of the above examples presuppose that we have a competent 424 teacher who is familiar with knowledge building and Knowledge Forum. That is not always 425the case. Whenever there is a mismatch between affordances provided by a technology-426 enhanced learning environment and the participants' actual activities, the process does not 427 produce worthwhile results. When used in conjunction with traditional educational 428practices, the use of Knowledge Forum may actually lead to excessive copying of 429information (Lipponen and Hakkarainen 1997). 430

Creation of successful knowledge-building cultures is difficult because social practices 431cannot easily be changed or knowledge-centered innovation cultures elicited. Some 432researchers have failed sufficiently to appreciate this point. While belief revision is often 433 easy, and students and teachers can easily come to believe that knowledge building, per se, 434 is a pedagogically desirable activity, the corresponding transformation of social practices is 435difficult. Both students and the teacher have an experience-based and non-conscious 436habitus (Bourdieu 1977; Roth 2002) that determines their action potentials in many ways. It is 437 easy to engage in activities that are in accordance with the habitus, but very difficult to do 438anything that substantially diverges from it. The participants feel themselves like fish outside of 439water whenever they do something radically different from their prevailing habitus. 440 Consequently, efforts to transform classroom cultures face serious obstacles that need to be 441 identified and articulated in order to go through successful change processes. Transformation of 442 educational practices takes a relatively long time because social practices, and corresponding 443 habitus of the participants, only transform very slowly. The co-teaching approach developed by 444 Roth (2002) and his colleagues indicates the productiveness of making teachers and students 445aware of implicit effects of experience-based habitus on such epistemic activities as questioning 446 and coaching students. Teacher-led deliberate reflection taking place in intersubjective 447 interaction makes the participants able to gradually change their practices. Bourdieu's own 448 writing may not fully do justice to transformative agency, both presupposed and cultivated by 449knowledge cultures, which involve creative troublemaking, intentional extension of practices to 450unanticipated directions, and often systematic and deliberate efforts to change practices toward 451ones better eliciting knowledge creation (Bohman 1999; Miettinen and Virkkunen 2006; 452Virkkunen 2006). It appears profitable to develop corresponding practices in the context of 453454knowledge-building experiments.

#### An implicit theory of social practices is not sufficient

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Investigators of technology-enhanced learning have recently addressed the role of social 456 practices. For instance, Kolodner (2002) has been investigating activity-structures on which 457 meaningful learning by design takes place. Bielaczyc (2006), in turn, has examined social 458

infrastructures needed for making knowledge building work in school. Such efforts have, 459thus far, not been extensive enough and often appear isolated from theoretical discourse 460concerning social practices. 461

Nevertheless, it may be argued that while the knowledge-building approach does not have an 462 explicit theory of social practices regarding corresponding pedagogical experiments, it has an 463464 **O1** implicit one. When Bereiter and Scardamalia (2006) talk about knowledge building, they are implicitly considering social practices. A great deal of their writings addresses phenomena 465related to educational practices. They highlight the importance of restructuring educational 466 activities in a way that elicits pursuit of knowledge building rather than mere task-completion 467 goals. After more that two decades of research efforts, they have an extremely rich body of 468data concerning knowledge-building processes from elementary to high school and higher 469education levels. Thinking about these issues has led me to conclude that "knowledge 470building is social practice" in terms of characterizing certain practices relevant for creative 471 knowledge advancement. 472

Moreover, Scardamalia's (2002) knowledge-building principles (see http://lcp.cite.hku.hk/ 473resources/KBSN/Q1/KB Principle.html) may be considered as descriptions of essential social 474practices. These principles crystallize long-term investigations concerning how to facilitate 475student-driven inquiry with systematic pursuit of questions and intuitive theories, create 476classroom-learning communities in which each participants' contribution is valued and 477 collectively built on and extended; how to facilitate meaningful and creative use of 478authoritative knowledge, establish cultures of constructive interaction and dynamic 479assessment. In such cultures, even the weakest students are encouraged to do their best, 480and, finally, to orient themselves to going constantly beyond their present level of 481 482understanding, and making knowledge building a way of life. While the principles appear as useful pedagogical tools and instruments that teachers and many researchers find inspiring, 483 I would argue that these are not sufficient. Firstly, while the principles appear to function best 484 as descriptive or normative characterizations of classroom practices, those do not constitute a 485systemic theory of social practices in general or educational practices in particular. Secondly, 486 there are many (currently 12) principles, and it is not clear how they relate to one another. 487 Thirdly, there is not enough theoretical foundation that would explain why we should adopt 488these rather than some other principles. Fourthly, all of the principles are defined in epistemic 489terms that leave the role of social practices unclear and vague; that is the missing third 490dynamism beyond socio-cognitive and technological ones. Fifthly, even with these principles, 491the knowledge-building approach provides very little information concerning how to go about 492analyzing and changing social practices. 493

Nevertheless, it is theoretically and methodologically relevant to notice that there are tight 494interlinkages between teacher-practitioners and founders of the knowledge-building approach. 495The ideas of knowledge building have not emerged from conceptual considerations alone; an 496intensive interaction between academic researchers and teacher-practitioners has been essential. 497Practicing teachers have appropriated knowledge-building pedagogy and stretched it in 498 directions not always anticipated by Bereiter and Scardamalia. This, of course, is not to deny 499that, while analyzing and interpreting knowledge-building practices enacted in various 500classrooms, Bereiter and Scardamalia have extended the approach beyond its initial boundaries. 501

#### Deliberate transformation of knowledge practices

When social practices are taken seriously, it follows that educational processes are always 503mediated by such social and collective phenomena whether investigators are aware of it or 504

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not; only transformation of social practices brings about genuine educational change. 505Researchers using cultural-historical activity theory (Engeström 1987, 1999), have applied 506sophisticated conceptual tools for investigating and transforming social practices. This 507approach examines learning as an object-oriented activity mediated by instruments and 508structured by a certain division of labor, interacting communities, and shared rules. 509Expansive learning is a process of going through transformation of social practices. In 510many cases, it begins by starting to question prevailing practices, exploring, and 511implementing changes (Engeström 1987, 1999, 2007). 512

In line with activity theory, I propose that spontaneously emerged, expansive learning 513processes are in the background of extraordinary inquiry cultures that knowledge-building 514investigators, including Bereiter, Scardamalia, and I, have reported. Expansive learning is at 515work when innovative teachers engage in efforts to improve the prevailing practices, 516implement changes that take the culture in the desired direction, systematically eliminate 517weaknesses, and develop methods of intellectually socializing new cohorts of students to 518the evolving cultures. The fruitfulness of my position, of course, would be shown in its 519ability, more generally to account for the cultures which thrive and those which do not. 520

Knowledge building, or, according to our term, *knowledge creation* is not, consequently, 521primarily to be understood as based on ideas, or their leading to new ideas. From an 522educational reformer's or an educational psychologist's point of view, it is about creating 523knowledge practices, that is epistemic practices of working with knowledge, channeling the 524participants' efforts in ways that elicit knowledge advancement, in which the development 525of ideas is one component. Knorr-Cetina (1999, 2001), similarly, has asserted that 526527innovation and knowledge creation are about creation of social practices; rather than rigid routines or repeated procedures, such practices are focused on constant re-creating in a way 528that elicits successful pursuit of innovation. 529

Creation of innovative knowledge communities appears to rely on an integrated pursuit 530of advancement of epistemic artifacts and transformation of the prevailing social practices. 531Knowledge artifacts and knowledge practices constitute a dialectical unity. Engagement in 532knowledge-building inquiry appears to transform, in the same time span, the participants' 533personal and collective knowledge practices. In trialogical knowledge-creation pursuits, the 534participants are forced to go through various kinds of boundary-breaking processes, evident 535in innovative pedagogical experiments (Muukkonen and Lakkala this issue). When 536knowledge-creating learning is understood to be dependent of materially embodied 537practices rather that mere conceptual experiences, it follows that genuine facilitation of 538learning requires (a) engaging students in solving complex problems coming from outside 539of the educational institution (rather than focus on curriculum-related problems); (b) 540making students, in a concrete way, break boundaries between communities (so as to make 541different roles accessible to them and make them reflectively aware of their knowledge 542practices); (c) organize collaborative encounters between students and experts (so as to 543provide sustained opportunities for appropriating knowledge practices followed by the 544latter); (d) create projects with external stakeholders that engage students in genuine 545cultural activities (so as to provide experiences of solving vital community problems in 546terms of, for instance, taking part in a local environmental movement, cf. Roth and Barton 5472004; Virkkunen 2006). 548

Feasibility of such boundary-breaking practices can be questioned—like that of any 549 other knowledge-building effort. I would like to argue, however, that it would be desirable 550 and feasible to implement one extensive knowledge-creation project every year from 551 elementary to high school education. What is distinctive in the present proposal is that 552 knowledge-building efforts should be radically, externally oriented rather than mainly 553

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address curricular themes. In order to address tensions and challenges related to transitions 554between school, home, friends, and other aspects of cultural practices, we need to reorient 555our investigations in the line of Nespor (1997, xii): "Instead of treating the school as a 556container filled with teacher cultures, student subgroups, classroom instruction, and 557administrative micropolitics, I look at ... school ... as an intersection in social space, a 558knot in a web of practices that stretch into complex systems beginning and ending outside 559the school. Instead of looking at educational settings—school, classroom and so forth—as 560having clear boundaries and identifiable content, I look at them as extensive in space and 561time, fluid in form and content, as intersections of multiple networks shaping cities, 562communities, schools, pedagogies, and teacher and student practices." Participation in 563genuine cultural activities taking place outside of an educational institution appears as a 564productive way of promoting novelty and innovation. 565

Through participating in a rich web of cultural activities, students are often literally 566pushed or even kicked to surpass themselves, otherwise the knowledge-building process 567would not be successful. Long-standing efforts gradually change the participants' habitus in 568a way that provides new possibilities of action (Roth 2002). The end results of inquiry 569processes are not only the artifacts, but also the transformed personal and collective 570practices. Transformations often require deliberate efforts, so-called second-order work 571(Engeström 1987) involved in intentional efforts to improve prevailing practices. Cultural-572historical activity theory provides valuable resources for analyzing and facilitating 573educational transformations. By carrying out change-laboratory interventions (Engeström 574et al. 2002), it is possible to engage teacher communities in deliberately managing 575transformation of the prevailing social practices. Such interventions imply that researchers 576collect data on everyday practices prevailing at school. They might interview teachers and 577students. Selected participants could be shadowed across their everyday activities so as to 578understand the spatial and temporal constraints of their activity. Such video data are used as 579mirror material for making tensions, rupture, and contradictions embedded in the practices 580visible to the teacher community in question (Engeström et al. 1996). Across a number of 581joint sessions, the participants become effectively more aware of their prevailing practices 582and may agree about a series of changes that they would like to implement in collaboration 583with researchers. 584

#### Methodological implications

The present arguments are not only theoretically relevant but have methodological 586implications as well. In human sciences, method, so to speak, creates the phenomenon 587 (research object) of investigation. If self-report questionnaires, for instance, created 588psychological research on "learning orientations"; if video technique gave rise to 589microanalytic studies of small-group cognition; then we may argue that research on 590knowledge produced by students in the databases of collaborative technologies created the 591knowledge-building phenomenon. As Hoppe (2007, p. 5) argued, CSCL is a research field 592that, to a significant extent, creates its own research objects. The knowledge-building 593approach represented a significant advancement of learning research in that it addressed 594relatively extended, longitudinal processes of knowledge advancement overlooked by 595approaches focusing on mainly here-and-now interactions around computers. 596

Knowledge-building processes would neither have been visible nor analyzable (in terms 597 of tangible knowledge artifacts) without the collaborative technologies employed. Research 598 methods have, however, a danger of becoming reified if investigators become too 599

preoccupied with the data easily accessible to them. It appears to me that there have been 600 too many knowledge-building studies (many of them carried out by my own research 601 network) that have merely addressed the knowledge processes mediated by shared 602 databases worked on and too few studies in which knowledge-advancement activities and 603 actual classroom practices have been analyzed in parallel. The present knowledge-practice 604 perspective on technology-enhanced learning pushes investigators to study, ethnographi-605 cally, transformation of actual classroom practices in parallel to pursuing complex and 606 challenging projects with a local knowledge-creation aspect. 607

Moreover, in order to investigate sustained processes of knowledge advancement, novel 608 research instruments are needed as well. We are developing a so-called Contextual Activity 609 Sampling System (CASS) based on the experience-sampling method (ESM, Hektner et al. 610 2007) and ecological momentary assessment (EMA, Reis and Gable 2000; Muukkonen et 611 al. 2008). The idea is to use mobile phones for contextually and repeatedly sampling 612 students' knowledge practices in their natural context. The specific focus of the study is to 613 examine students' intellectual and emotional processes at personal and collective levels 614 related to their trialogical (object-related) knowledge-advancement efforts. Although this is 615still a work-in-progress and currently addresses advanced knowledge practices taking place 616 in higher education, it appears that such longitudinally and developmentally oriented event 617 sampling provides one way of tracing the evolving cognitive trails (Cussins 1992) that 618 students make while pursuing projects that break boundaries between educational and 619 professional institutions and facilitate transformation of their knowledge practices. 620

#### Discussion

The argument of the present article is that knowledge-building theory has not fully 622 analyzed or taken account of the social and cultural transformations involved in 623 knowledge advancement, broadly understood, in educational contexts. In order to 624 provide a general explanation, one needs to deliberately address social practices and 625 correspondingly expand the scope of the knowledge-building theory. This is essential 626 because so much effort of teachers and researchers goes into promoting educational 627 transformations. To the extent that the participants are not aware of the existence and 628 critical role of the social practices, they are likely to repeatedly "hit their heads 629 against a wall." 630

The present examination indicates that there are many fine and insightful features of the 631 knowledge-building approach as well as findings that should not be abandoned, but built 632 on. It appears, however, that addressing-theoretically or methodologically-the role of 633 social practices would assist in providing a deeper foundation for explaining and 634 understanding more and less successful knowledge-building cultures in education. It would 635 assist in socially and culturally contextualizing knowledge-building phenomena in a way 636 that elicits advancement of inquiry. As a consequence of an unarticulated theory of social 637 practices, there have not been sufficient attempts to systematically collect information about 638 corresponding classroom processes within the knowledge-building tradition. Although our 639 research is already under way, we are only beginning to have the data with which we will 640 gain a deeper understanding and explanation of the role of social practices in pursuit of 641 educational innovations. 642

The knowledge-practice perspective appears to have significant theoretical, 643 methodological, and practical implications, which we have taken account of, in our 644 latest research projects. From the trialogical perspective, learning is understood as a 645

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Computer-Supported Collaborative Learning

process of innovative inquiry aimed at progressively expanding one's knowledge and 646 skills based on previous knowledge and deliberately transforming social practices 647 (Paavola and Hakkarainen 2004). Rather than addressing a collaborative knowledge-648 advancement effort (project) as its own sphere of activity. I understand it to be tightly 649 coupled with evolving knowledge practices of the participants. Rather than eliciting 650inquiry learning and knowledge building within the prevailing institutional practices and 651predetermined curricular boundaries, we focus on setups, arrangements, and patterns of 652 interaction which elicit cross-fertilization of knowledge practices between educational 653 and professional communities. From a sociocultural perspective, it appears that an 654exclusive focus on ideas is an artifact that emerges from the unwarranted insulation of 655 educational activity from the content-rich and multifaceted activities in which people take 656 part in the outside world (Engeström 1987). 657

There is, however, much evidence to be gathered to demonstrate how the social-658 practice perspective transforms the overall picture. I maintain that it does, but there 659 may be defensible counter arguments. One may focus on creating cultures in which 660 design mode (Bereiter and Scardamalia 2003) focused on collaborative advancement of 661 knowledge is highlighted and "improvable ideas" entertained, thus letting someone else 662 worry about social practices. Nevertheless, it appears that disregarding social practices 663 makes both success and failures of knowledge building difficult to understand. One needs 664 to come up with a more unified framework that addresses idea improvement in 665 conjunction with transformation of social practices. This has been the overall goal of 666 our research program. 667

The limitations of the knowledge-building approach addressed may partially reflect the 668 general propensity of educational and CSCL researchers to develop their "learning 669 environments" without adequate societal or institution-related theoretical foundations 670 (Engeström 2009). As a psychologist, I do not have any problem understanding the 671 difficulties of cognitive researchers regarding conceptualizing and theorizing about societal 672 issues; these researchers, according to Olson (2003), have often attempted to derive needs 673 of educational reform from theories of individual learning. Following him, it may be asked 674 whether the theories or the school are at fault when "schools refuse to change and when 675 they ignore the research" (2007, p. 87). The focus of the knowledge-building approach has 676 been the possibility of eliciting deliberate collective advancement of knowledge in 677 education, and, thereby, explicitly moving from the individual to the collective level. Yet, 678 over the course of the research program and associated practice, the change in focus was 679 only partial; the theory does not in itself address institutional structures and practices, the 680 transformation of which genuine educational transformation appears to require. As Olson 681 (2007) strikingly pointed out, "Yet, even if an improved understanding of learners is 682 possible, it is not clear that such knowledge, generated by the best research, will have an 683 impact on the practicalities of schooling ... Schooling is an institutional practice that has 684 been shaped up to meet a number of social constraints, and it is willing to take on board 685 only those initiatives that affect the achievements of their mandated goals, including higher 686 scores on specified tests. And it is not clear that research, even that inspired by Bruner [or 687 Bereiter, one might add], has the instrumental value of raising those scores" (p. 92). It 688 should be noticed that there are no trivial solutions for the challenge of educational 689 transformations, and, therefore, the knowledge-practice perspective cannot provide 690 miraculous solutions. It is exactly because we take the challenges of institutional 691 692 transformation of education seriously, that we have undertaken a close collaboration with Engeström and his colleagues in cultural-historical activity theory; together we are creating 693 the joint Centre for Research on Activity, Development, and Learning (CRADLE). 694

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