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Abstract	The advent of the social web brought with it challenges and opportunities for research on learning and knowledge construction. Using the online-
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Abstract

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The advent of the social web brought with it challenges and opportunities for research on 12learning and knowledge construction. Using the online-encyclopedia Wikipedia as an exam-13 ple, we discuss several methods that can be applied to analyze the dynamic nature of 14knowledge-related processes in mass collaboration environments. These methods can help in 15the analysis of the interactions between the two levels that are relevant in computer-supported 16 collaborative learning (CSCL) research: The individual level of learners and the collective 17level of the group or community. In line with constructivist theories of learning, we argue that 18 the development of knowledge on both levels is triggered by productive friction, that is, the 19prolific resolution of socio-cognitive conflicts. By describing three prototypical methods that 20have been used in previous Wikipedia research, we review how these techniques can be used 21to examine the dynamics on both levels and analyze how these dynamics can be predicted by 22the amount of productive friction. We illustrate how these studies make use of text classifiers, 23social network analysis, and cluster analysis in order to operationalize the theoretical concepts. 24We conclude by discussing implications for the analysis of dynamic knowledge processes 25from a learning sciences perspective. 26

Using big data techniques for measuring productive friction

in mass collaboration online environments

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Introduction

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Learning and knowledge construction are often the result of learners' overcoming particular 30 challenges, such as successfully dealing with new, unexpected, or contradicting information. In 31 the tradition of Piaget, the term *socio-cognitive conflict* has been used (e.g., Mugny and Doise 32

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1978) to indicate that disturbances of individuals' cognitive systems can, among others, result 33 from other people's differing cognitive schemas. For positive consequences of conflicts in 34large-scale social settings with many collaborators (see Jeong et al. 2017), we suggest using 35the term *productive friction* that originally has been introduced in organization science (Hagel 36 3rd and Brown 2005; for an application in the educational context see Ward et al. 2011). 37 Productive friction refers to the process of overcoming obstacles in a productive way that, in 38 turn, leads to individual learning and collaborative knowledge construction (Kimmerle et al. 392015). Friction between different people (for example in the form of contradicting knowledge, 40schemas, scripts, values, meanings, and other cognitive structures) can incur costs in the short 41 term. But overcoming this friction in a productive way may lead to innovation and new 42knowledge in the long run (Hagel 3rd and Brown 2005). 43

In the reasoning that we present here, we use the term productive friction in a broad sense 44 for all kinds of discrepancies among different individuals' thoughts, ideas, values, and attitudes 45or between an individual's schemas and the general view of a social group, which can be 46 resolved in a way that productively fosters epistemic growth and development (Bientzle et al. 47 2013; Kimmerle et al. 2017a, b). We argue that the same friction that drives learning processes 48 02 on the level of individuals may trigger knowledge construction processes on the social level as 49well. If the friction is too low, the chances for learning and knowledge construction are limited, 50because the knowledge that already exists is by and large sufficient to solve the tasks at hand. 51If the friction is too high on the individual level, learners will most likely fail to adapt to the 52challenges. On the social level, too much friction among the thoughts and ideas of individuals 53in the community can either lead to a situation where ideas are ignored or to a rift in the 54community. Earlier research on the role and importance of socio-cognitive conflicts for 55learning processes focused on individual learners and changes in their cognitive schemas 56(e.g., Darnon et al. 2007; Doise et al. 1975; Mugny and Doise 1978). The position that we 57present here focuses on the interrelatedness between individual processes on the one hand, and 58meaning negotiation in communities on the other. 59

In the following paragraphs, we will first discuss how productive friction may play out in 60 the social web and what this implies for capturing data and applying learning analytics 61 approaches. Then we will introduce theoretical considerations on the dynamic and collective 62 nature of knowledge. After that, we will combine these methodological and theoretical 63 considerations and illustrate how productive friction may occur in Wikipedia by summarizing 64previously published studies that represent three different methodological approaches: The 65automatic classification of text, social network analysis, and cluster analysis. Our main focus is 66 on showing how both the notion of knowledge as a dynamic and collective phenomenon and 67 the phenomenon of socio-cognitive conflicts can be operationalized in such a way that these 68 conceptions can be used to explain and predict dynamics of knowledge construction in 69 Wikipedia. Finally, in the conclusion, we will discuss implications for the future analysis of 70knowledge-related processes in CSCL environments. 71

Productive friction in the social web

The digital revolution in the second half of the twentieth century and the emergence of the 73 Internet as a mass phenomenon in the 1990s have profoundly changed how people deal with 74 information and how they acquire knowledge (Castells 2010; Happer and Philo 2013). People 75 receive much of their information from the Internet (e.g., Hermida et al. 2012). One example of 76

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a prominent information source on the Internet is Wikipedia, which represents a knowledge77corpus that has been constructed through collaborative endeavor (Cress et al. 2016).78Comprehending the underlying processes of such collaboration presents several challenges79for the learning sciences—in particular from a methodological point of view. In this article we80aim to provide illustrating examples of methods that can be applied to analyze or predict the81dynamic knowledge processes in the mass collaboration environment Wikipedia and discuss82some implications from an educational perspective.83

The way knowledge develops in the social web makes it obvious that knowledge is hardly 84 ever a purely individual and never a static phenomenon (Oeberst et al. 2016). Quite in contrast, 85 the occurrence, progress, and dissemination of knowledge have for a long time been consid-86 ered to be social and dynamic phenomena (Brown et al. 1989; Resnick 1991). The article 87 presented here makes an attempt to shed light on the complex dynamic knowledge-related 88 processes that take place at the individual as well as on the collective levels. In line with Piaget 89 (1970, 1977) and other educational constructivists, we view disturbances in the form of socio-90 cognitive conflicts (Mugny and Doise 1978) as important triggers for knowledge dynamics. 91 While most of the earlier studies have dealt with dyads or small groups of learners, we aim to 92apply the concept of socio-cognitive conflict to large groups. We argue that a certain amount of 93 conflict is instrumental for driving complex dynamic processes in mass collaboration envi-94ronments (Jeong et al. 2017; Kimmerle et al. 2015). 95

One side effect of the emergence of social media as a mass phenomenon is the sudden 96 availability of massive amounts of data in the form of behavior traces, such as the edit history 97 of a digital artifact, or the browsing histories of users. Compared to data acquired using 98 traditional data collection techniques, such as questionnaires or the observation of behavior in 99 a laboratory experiment, behavior trace data is most often weakly structured: Relevant 100 constructs such as learning trajectories, for instance, first have to be derived from an abundance of data points from user-artifact interactions (e.g., D'Aquin et al. 2017). 102

Analysis of this kind of data has only recently become feasible through the increasing 103calculation capabilities of modern computers. The main applications for big data in education 104research have been *learning analytics*, that is, the optimization of learning environments and 105learning activities on the basis of analysis of data on a learner's activities and learning 106outcomes (Gasevic et al. 2014; Ferguson 2012; Lang et al. 2017; Siemens and Long 2011). 107Learning analytics may be applied to supervise, predict, and potentially improve learner 108performance (Dietz-Uhler and Hurn 2013). Frequently, learning analytics are used to devise 109recommender systems that provide learners with useful learning resources according to their 110 learning trajectory (i.e., providing content for adaptive learning). Learning analytics are also 111 used in the context of *predictive modeling* to identify as early as possible unwanted develop-112ments, such as a learner's displaying signs of losing motivation or interest in the respective 113subject. Together, these technologies can help in devising learning goals for traditional 114educational settings or virtual learning environments, with the advantage that they can take 115into account learners' individual predilections and habits as well as general abstract patterns 116that are indicative of positive or negative trajectories (Picciano 2012; Siemens and Long 2011). 117 Learning analytics, however, also come with some ethical challenges, such as privacy issues 118(for an overview see Slade and Prinsloo 2013). 119

Empirical studies that use such applications need a theoretical foundation. Otherwise, 120 researchers run the risk of getting lost in the plethora of variables and results they are dealing 121 with. They may easily miss out on potentially relevant confounding variables, subgroups, or 122 covariates in their analyses. In addition, without a theoretical framework, researchers may 123

131

encounter difficulties in interpreting their findings and in determining to which cases their results can be generalized (Wise and Shaffer 2015). Empirical studies with large amounts of data can expand our knowledge about processes of learning and knowledge construction if their findings have theoretical importance. That is, they are useful if they can guide the testing of existing theories or if they, in a more exploratory way, support researchers in heuristically devising novel hypotheses. Therefore, in the following section, we elaborate on knowledge and learning with respect to their dynamic and collective nature. 120

The dynamic and collective nature of knowledge

The dynamic nature of knowledge was a central aspect of Piaget's (1970, 1987) classic work:132To cope with disturbances from new and changing environments, individuals first try to apply133their existing internal cognitive schemas to new and changing environments (assimilation). If134assimilation strategies fail, they have to change their existing schemas or acquire new ones135(accommodation). Individuals constantly strive for an equilibrium between assimilation and136accommodation. Too much assimilation would mean stagnation and too much accommodation137would result in chaos (Piaget 1977).138

Even though Piaget was fully aware of the importance of social interactions (see e.g., 139DeVries 1997), he focused primarily on interactions between an individual learner and the 140environment. So, regarding the social and *collective* nature of knowledge, one might rather 141 refer to Vygotsky (e.g., 1934/1962) as another classical psychologist who focused more 142strongly on the socio-cultural underpinnings of learning. Together, Piaget and Vygotsky 143influenced scores of researchers in fields as different as sociology, political science, psychol-144ogy, and education. Whereas one line of research further pursued the idea of education as a 145process of scaffolding (e.g., Bruner 1996), other researchers elaborated upon the concept of 146situated learning (e.g., Brown et al. 1989; Greeno 1997). In this approach learning is not 147considered as the acquisition of abstract decontextualized knowledge items, but as the 148development of complex skills comprised of knowing as well as doing, achieved by means 149of problem solving and communication activities within concrete application settings. An 150individual is enculturated into a community, that is, a group of people who are connected 151through a common activity and who share their knowledge—thereby learning from each other 152(Greeno 1997). The act of learning from each other provides the group also with the means to 153continuously refine its collective knowledge and to engage in the creation of new knowledge. 154

Over the last two decades, the concept of knowledge creation (Paavola et al. 2004) has 155become popular in research on learning in professional (e.g., Nonaka 1991, 1994) and 156educational settings (e.g., Engeström 1999). In all of these approaches, the "pursuit of 157newness" (Paavola et al. 2004, p. 562) is behind learning processes: Knowledge is not some 158*object* that can be acquired; it is the collaborative *creation* of something new by means of the 159communication of experiences and subsequent attempts to put ideas into practice. Hakkarainen 160and colleagues (Hakkarainen and Paavola 2009; Hakkarainen et al. 2009) further developed 161the knowledge creation concept into their *trialogical approach to learning*. Here, the key 162entities are learners, communities, and objects. In a collaborative knowledge creation commu-163nity, different types of artifacts make the exchange of ideas possible: *conceptual objects*, for 164example in the form of questions, theories, and designs; *material objects*, for instance in the 165form of collaboratively written documents; and finally, procedural objects, such as certain 166norms and behavioral scripts. These objects may also serve a mediation function between 167

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individual and collective activities. With the trialogical approach, (digital) artifacts have 168 increasingly moved into the focus of research on the dynamics of learning and knowledge 169 construction.

The question is whether the existing methods that are commonly used in these research 171172traditions are sufficient for adequately analyzing complex knowledge dynamics in mass collaboration online environments. For such an analysis, one has to simultaneously take into 173account individual learning trajectories and learning outcomes, macro processes of social 174knowledge, and the close ties and interactions between individual learning and collective 175knowledge construction. The co-evolution model of individual learning and collective knowl-176edge construction (Cress and Kimmerle 2008, 2017; Kimmerle et al. 2015) combines the 177 individual and the social levels. It predicts that conflicts between individual and collective 178perspectives (as presented in collaboratively created artifacts) may make the two systems 179involved drift over time: In the case of the cognitive system, the drift can be called learning; in 180the case of the social system, this drift constitutes knowledge construction. Both systems are 181 structurally coupled (Maturana 1975) insofar as they co-evolve toward greater capabilities in 182handling complexity. 183

The key entities within the co-evolution of learning and knowledge construction in online 184 environments are persons and (digital) artifacts. Persons can be related to artifacts in that they 185read, view, share, author, or edit the artifacts. All forms of behavior that can at least potentially 186 be perceived by others constitute acts of communication, which are traceable in the artifacts. 187 People who make use of a knowledge resource in the form of an electronically provided 188artifact by dealing with this artifact constitute a community of individuals who share an interest 189in the underlying topic(s), and who are willing to share their ideas with other community 190members, or to deal with other members' ideas. As a consequence, what may result from such 191active participation in collaboration is the co-construction of knowledge (Leseman et al. 2000). 192However, in artifact-mediated collaboration, people will not necessarily engage only in shared 193activities; quite the contrary, they have to spend time and energy coordinating their contribu-194tions and handling disagreement (Matusov 2001). Using the example of wikis for collaborative 195learning, Pifarré and Kleine Staarman (2011) have shown that this coordination and handling 196 of conflicts can be accomplished through social interaction in a "dialogic space" (see also 197 Wegerif 2007). 198

In the following section, we present three different methodological approaches to address 199 these theoretical considerations on the dynamic and collective nature of knowledge, the 200 interplay of the individual and the collective levels, and the role of socio-cognitive conflicts 201 and productive friction. The overarching research question is whether learning processes on 202 the individual level as well as knowledge construction processes on the collective level can be 203 predicted and explained by productive friction. All of the studies make use of authentic 204 behavior traces in Wikipedia, such as articles' and users' histories of previous edits. 205

The need to compliment studies that use self-reports in questionnaires as their primary data 206sources with studies using" actual" behavior data has been formulated frequently over the last 207years in different subfields of psychology (e.g., Baumeister et al. 2007; Serfass et al. 2017). In 208the studies that we are going to discuss, behavior traces such as edit histories are used to 209operationalize abstract constructs such as (productive) friction in the form of different view-210points or different knowledge regarding a certain topic. By discussing the methods applied in 211these studies against this theoretical background we aim to show how these methods can be 212used for examining the interplay of the individual and the collective levels that drive learning 213as well as knowledge construction. 214

Productive friction in Wikipedia

In the following paragraphs we introduce three methods of analysis for identifying productive216friction in Wikipedia: (1) Statistical analyses based on automatic text classification, (2) social217network analysis, and (3) clustering methods. For each of these three methods we first provide218general considerations of opportunities for their use in education research and then present in219more detail a Wikipedia-related study as an illustrating example for application.220

Automatic text classification

Text classifiers in education research Text classifiers automatically assign documents (or 222 segments of documents) to predefined categories. Technically speaking, they are models that 223predict the class value of documents based upon a certain number of attributes (Hämäläinen 224and Vinni 2010). In unsupervised machine learning, algorithms similar to those that are used in 22503 cluster analysis are applied first to detect a reasonable number of classes (Mohri et al. 2012). In 226supervised machine learning, a pre-coded training set is used to derive the ideal combination of 227 attributes to classify the texts as precisely as possible: A substantial number of documents that 228are comparable to the texts to be analyzed are assigned to the categories in question by trained 229coders or some pre-established coding rule. Classifiers then use machine learning techniques 230such as support vector machines, decision trees, or (naïve) Bayesian classifiers to "learn" the 231ideal combination of predictors which mirror the coders' assignment of documents. 232

In education research, automatic text classification is frequently being used in studies on the 233communication among learners in e-learning and blended learning environments (e.g., Chen 234et al. 2014; Dascalu et al. 2010; Dascalu et al. 2015). For example, Dascalu et al. (2015) 235developed the computational model ReaderBench to automatically identify different instances 236of collaboration from chat messages in a tool for CSCL. This automatically generated 237information on collaboration processes can in turn be used in learning analytics systems, for 238example, to facilitate an exchange of ideas. Machine learning is also used in the context of 239recommender systems that aim at providing learners with the most useful learning materials 240according to their previous learning trajectory (e.g., Drachsler et al. 2015; Kopeinik et al. 2016; 241Moskaliuk et al. 2011). 242

One challenge when employing automatic classifiers in education is to avoid the potential 243 dangers of overfitting: The more researchers attempt to exploit all the information that is in 244 their training set as means of increasing the accuracy of the model, the more they run into the 245 danger of creating a highly specialized model that only works well with the data that were used 246 for training and is not transferable to different cases. A possible counterstrategy is to limit the 247 number of attributes and features by means of diligent feature selection and feature extraction 248 (Hämäläinen and Vinni 2010). 249

Example 1:

Knowledge dynamics in Wikipedia articles In a recent article, Jirschitzka et al. (2017) 251 devised a study based on text classification investigating the role and function of 252 productive friction in learning and knowledge construction on the Wikipedia platform. 253 The study focused on the struggle between proponents of alternative and conventional 254 medicine. All of the edits of all of the articles within the categories of alternative 255 medicine and nutrition in the German language Wikipedia were sampled; a total of more 256

221

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than 70.000 edits from 398 articles were crawled, processed, and analyzed. For further 257analysis, a supervised machine learning algorithm was trained to distinguish all modifi-258cations into pro alternative medicine, pro conventional medicine, or neutral modifica-259tions. Using the terms of the trialogical approach to learning, we could say that *material* 260objects (edits) were used to operationalize conceptual objects (attitudes/knowledge) and 261procedural objects (contribution patterns) regarding alternative and conventional medi-262cine (Hakkarainen et al. 2009). Based on these scores, a summary score for all edits 263(usually comprised of a number of modifications) was calculated that indicated to what 264extent they displayed a view in favor of or against alternative medicine, or a neutral 265view. Hence, edits of digital artifacts were used to reconstruct knowledge and attitudes 266on the level of individuals and on an aggregated social level. Based on all of the edits of 267an individual contributor, the respective user's knowledge trajectory was reconstructed. 268Analogously, the *knowledge trajectory of each article* was calculated by aggregating all 269of the contributions to the article, regardless of which authors they came from. 270Differences between an author's and an article's view at any given moment were used 271as a proxy of friction. 272

The studies showed a typical confirmation bias (Jonas et al. 2001): Wikipedia contributors 273primarily edited those articles that were consistent with their own view on the topic (see 274Fig. 1). However, indicators for productive friction could also be identified: In the case of pro 275alternative medicine articles, the articles were more balanced when they were edited by more 276heterogeneous contributors, that is, contributors who displayed both pro and contra alternative 277medicine attitudes. It seems that the presence of contributors from different backgrounds and 278with different attitudes toward medicine are a means of preventing a possible polarization of 279views (Bakshy et al. 2015). The so-called echo chamber effect (Del Vicario et al. 2016) refers 280to the observation that the ubiquitous availability of any kind of information on the Internet 281and the possibility of bonding with like-minded individuals via social networks can lead 282groups to isolate themselves from the rest of society. Within these groups, only information 283that confirms the group's beliefs is shared, which can lead in the long run to increasing 284polarization of group opinions and norms. 285

These results mirror findings from previous lab studies (Schwind et al. 2012) insofar as they 286 show human beings' general preference for information that confirms their opinions, attitudes, 287 and ideologies. Nevertheless, it still seems that productive friction between one's own views 288



Fig. 1 Number of contributions as a function of the friction between an author's and an article's view (adapted from Jirschitzka et al. 2017)

and others' views is necessary for learning and successful knowledge construction. Platforms289such as Wikipedia that explicitly aim at incorporating different viewpoints enable some degree290of exposure to others' perspectives, which may be supportive for the development of knowl-291edge (Oeberst et al. 2014), even though it is not a guarantee for successful knowledge292construction (Greenstein et al. 2016; Holtz et al. 2018).293

Social network analysis

Social network analysis in education researchSocial network analysis (SNA) is the analysis296of social structures by means of studying the relations (edges, links, or ties) among individual297actors—or nodes in the language of SNA—such as persons, or things like digital artifacts, in a298linked environment. Relations between nodes can be established based on similarities (e.g.,299same location, similar attributes), social relations (e.g., kinship or friendship), social interactions (e.g., communication), or flows (e.g., flows of information or goods) between nodes301(Borgatti et al. 2009; Wasserman and Faust 1994).302

Whereas SNA emerged from more descriptive sociometric approaches in the 1930s and 303 1940s, more currently the emergence of modern information technology has facilitated the 304analysis and modeling of vast amounts of interrelated data drawing upon elaborated mathe-305matical graph theories or network theories (Borgatti et al. 2009). This makes it possible to 306 calculate mathematical indicators of certain network structures and properties of nodes and ties 307 within a network. For example, the centrality of a certain node or group of nodes can be 308 assessed to quantify the relative importance of these nodes for a given network structure (e.g., 309 Freeman 1979). In education research, SNA has been used mainly to analyze the role and 310function of study networks and other interactional social structures within classrooms or 311educational institutions, such as schools and universities (e.g., Brunello et al. 2010; 312 Grunspan et al. 2014). Bruun and Brewe (2013) found, for example, a correlation between 313 students' embeddedness into communication structures and their academic achievement. 314CSCL has evolved as another major field of application of SNA in education (e.g., De Laat 315 et al. 2007; Wellman 2001). In the case of collaboratively written documents with links 316between subsections and/or articles, there is a tri-partite network where people as well as 317articles or their subsections can serve as nodes; edges exist in the form of author-author 318relations, author-article relations, or article-article relations. 319

A challenge for the use of SNA in education research consists of capturing the 320 inherent dynamics in the analyzed networks, for example, in the form of varying 321 collaboration structures as a consequence of changing friend networks and educational 322 settings (Borgatti et al. 2009). One possible strategy to capture changes in network 323 structures, that is used in the following example, comprises capturing "snapshots" of 324 structures at different points in time. 325

Example 2:

The role of boundary spanners for knowledge construction in Wikipedia A series of327studies (Halatchliyski et al. 2014; Halatchliyski and Cress 2014) used SNA to identify the328places where new knowledge is created in Wikipedia and to highlight the persons creating this329knowledge. The studies focused on the Wikipedia domains *psychology* and *education* and330used snapshots of the link structure among related articles for the years 2006 to 2012. There is331

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a substantial overlap between the two domains, for example in the form of articles on 332 educational psychology. But these domains were chosen because they each also clearly 333 represent separate entities. All of the articles analyzed (approximately 11.000) fell either into 334one of the two categories or into both. Figure 2 presents a visual representation of the 335 distinctness and the partial overlap between the two domains by means of plotting all 336 hyperlinks (edges) between the education articles (grey dots), psychology articles (white dots), 337 and the intersection articles (black dots). 338

The main hypothesis was that new knowledge would be primarily created in the immediate 339 vicinity of pivotal articles. Pivotal articles are either central articles within a domain, or articles 340 that serve as boundary spanners between different domains. The boundary spanning articles 341 represented friction whenever information from both domains needed to be integrated. A 342 centrality measure was used to assess each article's importance within a domain, whereas a 343 betweenness measure was used as a proxy for productive friction (see Freeman 1979). A first 344analysis (Halatchliyski and Cress 2014) revealed that new knowledge in the form of edits or 345 newly created articles did indeed center either around articles with high levels of centrality 346 within the respective domains, or around articles with high betweenness scores. These results 347 show that friction can indeed be productive. New knowledge emerges at those points where 348 friction has occurred, that is, in the nodes that span different domains. New knowledge also 349develops in the center of a domain, where friction supposedly results from the central article 350 being connected to a high number of other articles within the domain, which increases the 351number of potential starting points for friction. 352

Further analysis (Halatchlivski et al. 2014) revealed that both kinds of articles, those with 353 high centrality scores (friction within the domain) and those with high betweenness scores 354(friction between domains), were authored by more experienced users (authors having made 355many edits before). An analysis of the contributors' previous edits revealed that articles with 356high centrality scores, which were centerpieces of the respective domains of psychology or 357 education, were primarily edited by *specialists* who were only active in one of the domains. In 358comparison, articles with high betweenness scores, which spanned the two domains, were 359primarily authored by generalists who regularly contributed to both domains. 360



Fig. 2 The network of Wikipedia articles in psychology and education (from Halatchliyski et al. 2014)

It seems that two kinds of knowledge construction processes could be identified here: 361 One could be observed as an increase of knowledge in very specialized areas at the 362 center of each respective domain. This consolidation or refinement of existing knowl-363 edge was driven particularly by specialists in the respective areas. The other knowledge 364construction process took the form of creation of conceptually new knowledge or 365 enrichment of existing knowledge between the two domains by generalists who were 366 367 well versed in both areas and who acted as boundary spanners (see also Tushman and Scanlan 1981). With regard to Piaget's distinction between assimilation and accommo-368 dation, the first form of knowledge construction resembles assimilation insofar as 369 experienced specialized authors improve knowledge within a domain by means of 370 refining central articles. The second type of knowledge construction resembles accom-371modation, as new knowledge is created in boundary spanning articles by boundary 372 spanning authors, thereby resolving friction between domains in a productive way. 373

Clustering techniques

Clustering techniques in education research Big data is by definition weakly structured, 376 and cluster analytic techniques are often used in a first exploratory step to identify patterns in 377 these data structures. This is done by using one of several algorithms to identify relatively 378homogeneous agglomerations of cases (for example, learners or learning resources), based on 379shared attributes (Antonenko et al. 2012; Kalota 2015). The identification of clusters of 380 learners can help to understand the learning processes in different sub-groups of a learner 381 population, which otherwise could be missed by the researchers (Wise and Shaffer 2015). For 382 example, Rysiewicz (2008) used cluster analysis to identify subgroups of 13-year-old foreign 383 language students who reacted differently to a range of teaching approaches. Kizilcec et al. 384(2013) used cluster analytic techniques to identify different subgroups of learners in online 385 courses with regard to the degree of their engagement and activity trajectories. These results 386 can in turn be used to set up an automatic classification algorithm that can identify potentially 387 detrimental disengagement processes. This same algorithm can be applied to deploy commu-388 nicative counter-measures before they lead to unwanted outcomes, such as a student leaving 389the course. 390

When applying clustering methods, researchers should be aware that automatic classifiers,391like all clustering methods, can only be as valid as the variables that are entered into the392analyses. Researchers should also be aware that the number and the composition of the clusters393can easily change dramatically with entered or dismissed variables and cases (Sarstedt and394Mooi 2019).395

Cluster analytic methods are also being used to group learning resources that share common 396 features for their use in recommender systems and intelligent curricula (Kalota 2015). For 397 example, Wang et al. (2008) used semantic features to cluster e-learning materials to facilitate 398 topic-related searches. Kumar et al. (2015) recently proposed algorithms for the clustering of 399 social tags as a means of facilitating the classification and partly automatized retrieval of digital 400artifacts. SNA, as described above, can also be used to identify clusters of entities that have 401 402particular connections in common, such as documents which share a common link structure (e.g., Wan and Yang 2008). This last approach was used in our third example below in order to 403 Q4 identify and visualize the development of clusters in collaborative knowledge construction 404over a period of several years. 405

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Example 3:

Identifying clusters of Wikipedia articles The following study (Kimmerle et al. 2010) 407addressed the topic of possible social or biological causes of schizophrenia (see also Harrer 408et al. 2008; Moskaliuk et al. 2009, 2012). The aim of this study was to identify similarities and 409differences-and thereby friction-among the respective Wikipedia articles by means of 410clustering the results of an SNA. For the analysis, the link structures of the Wikipedia article 411 on schizophrenia and related articles that represented various explanatory approaches (social, 412 biological, and psychoanalytical) were analyzed in a series of six annual cross-sectional 413snapshots for the years 2003-2008. The Weaver software (Harrer et al. 2007) was then used 414 to calculate SNA traits, such as centrality and density, for all of the Wikipedia pages that were 415linked at that time to these articles. Furthermore, SNA also allowed for the calculation of 416scores of the individual contributors with regard to the closeness or distance of their linking 417activities to the nodes that represented different views on the causes of schizophrenia. This 418 process operationalized friction for individuals as instances where editors contributed to 419articles that represented a different opinion than their own. 420

Overall, the network constantly became more complex from 2003 to 2008, that is, the 421 number of links between the pages increased continuously. In 2005, two clusters of closely 422 interlinked articles appeared: One cluster was related to the psychoanalytic theory of schizo-423 phrenia and one was related to biological explanations of schizophrenia. In 2007, a third 424 cluster representing social aspects emerged. Nevertheless, as can be seen in Fig. 3, the social 425 cluster was closely related to the biological cluster via a number of *boundary-spanning* 426



Fig. 3 Clusters of Wikipedia articles representing a psychoanalytical, a biological, and a social perspective

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articles. Later, in 2008, the social and the biological clusters even merged into one common 427 428 cluster which mirrored the so-called diathesis-stress model, currently the most accepted explanation model for the genesis of schizophrenia. This model explicitly tries to incorporate 429biological and social causes of schizophrenia into a single model (Walker and Diforio 1997). 430In comparison, the psychoanalytical cluster remained separated and isolated throughout the 431observation period with relatively few boundary-spanning articles. As for the authors, it was 432 found that those who endorsed social or biological explanations shifted more and more toward 433the integrative diathesis-stress model, whereas those who endorsed the psychoanalytical 434explanations kept editing primarily the articles within their own cluster. Thus, these findings 435also indicate that development of collective knowledge may take place particularly when 436 people with diverse backgrounds interact in a way that encourages response to productive 437 friction. However, when people solely stick to their pre-existing beliefs and refuse to take other 438 perspectives into account, it is not likely they will make any relevant contribution to the 439development of knowledge. 440

Discussion

Summary and conclusion

In the tradition of constructivists such as Piaget and Vygotsky, we argue that learning in 444 the age of social media is still often the result of learners successfully handling 445disturbances in the form of solving socio-cognitive conflicts. We have also pointed out 446 447 that complex forms of learning and knowledge construction can only be explained by taking the interplay between individuals and their social environment into account. In 448 line with earlier studies on knowledge creation (e.g., Engeström 1999; Hakkarainen et al. 4492009; Nonaka 1991, 1994), we assume that exchanges between people holding differing 450attitudes toward a given topic or having different knowledge about something are what 451drives the construction of new knowledge. These processes on the social level are 452intrinsically entwined with individuals' learning processes. 453

The rise of social media has opened up the way for new research methods as a means 454of studying actual behavior traces in digital environments. In this article, we have 455discussed a series of studies that used various analysis methods to deepen our under-456standing of the role and the function of productive friction in Wikipedia as an eminent 457real-world collaborative knowledge construction environment. The studies that we have 458 presented here have used different methods to operationalize the concept of productive 459friction: The first method was to categorize texts and authors automatically by identify-460 ing different semantics used in the artifacts (via automatic text classification); the second 461approach applied different measures of centrality in a network of artifacts and authors; 462 and the third method identified which clusters articles and authors belonged to within a 463 network of interrelated articles. All methods allowed for describing the dynamics (i.e., 464the development over time) involved on the individual level as well as on the level of the 465artifacts that represents the collective level of knowledge construction. Based on the co-466evolution model, all of the sample studies cited aimed to identify the role of productive 467 friction for learning and knowledge construction, and examined how these processes may 468 be predicted through the occurrence of productive friction. 469

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Implications for research in the learning sciences and CSCL

Socio-cognitive conflicts and productive friction are indispensable for learning and knowledge 471 construction. Consequently, the emergence of new knowledge frequently occurs along the 472

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construction. Consequently, the emergence of new knowledge frequently occurs along the472fault-lines of knowledge structures; in websites for collaborative knowledge construction, for473example, knowledge is often developed as a consequence of experts from different domains474discussing their respective ideas (Halatchliyski et al. 2014). Furthermore, a certain degree of475variety in terms of attitudes and knowledge seems to alleviate unwanted biases and radical-476ization processes in such platforms (Jirschitzka et al. 2017).477

These findings are relevant as well for the future development of learning analytics and the 478 design of interactive learning environments: In line with the aforementioned approaches by, 479among others, Scardamalia and Bereiter (1994) and Hakkarainen and colleagues (e.g., 480 Hakkarainen et al. 2009), fostering, and if necessary, enforcing socio-cognitive conflicts that 481lead to a productive solution can be a fruitful strategy to optimize learning outcomes. A similar 482 idea has been investigated recently in the realm of mathematics teaching under the term 483productive failure (e.g., Kapur 2008): In the acquisition of mathematical knowledge it is often 484 important for learners to first experience certain typical failures as means of setting the ground 485 for fully understanding the correct solution. Enabling students to first try out collaboratively 486different (most often false) solutions before facilitating the "discovery" of the correct solution 487 can be a very effective way to convey mathematical knowledge. Future research will have to 488 show in how far similar approaches can be useful for large scale learning and knowledge 489construction environments as well. 490

In collaborative knowledge construction and learning environments, the prevention of 491the emergence of closely knit communities with very homogeneous attitudes toward 492certain topics can be a means of reducing biases by increasing productive friction 493(Jirschitzka et al. 2017). More research is needed to further understand the dynamics 494that unfold in homo- and heterogeneous knowledge communities and to disentangle the 495specific effects of certain forms of digital environments. Learning in digital environments 496often occurs as casual and partially unintended "everyday learning "in social media 497 (D'Aquin et al. 2017). Certainly, many of the theories and constructs that were developed 498 within more traditional learning environments will also be valid and useful for learning 499in the age of social media. Still, the newly available data sources and analysis techniques 500will allow for refinement and further development of these theories and approaches. 501Additionally, modern information environments also create challenges and problems that 502require new approaches and solutions. For example, we can safely assume that different 503forms of automatic recommender systems strongly impact learning outcomes (e.g., 504Kimmerle et al. 2017a, b). Here as well, studies analyzing the effects of singular 505elements of such recommender systems in isolation in laboratory studies can and should 506be combined with studies using large amounts of actual behavior data that is available 507from online learning and knowledge construction platforms such as Wikipedia. 508

In view of the increasing importance of social media resources for learning, there is a 509 growing need for theories and models that help to explain, predict, and counteract the 510 development of distortions, such as biases or misinformation. Another aspect that should be 511 taken into account more strongly in future studies is the role emotions might play in cognitive 512 processes. For example, recent studies found that Wikipedia articles on man-made disasters 513 contain more and different emotional words than articles on natural catastrophes (Greving et al. 2018). We assume that processes of emotion regulation are also intrinsically entwined with the

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socio-cognitive processes that we have outlined. The relationship between emotional and 516 socio-cognitive processes should be addressed more explicitly in further CSCL research. 517

The incredible reams of data that are available from platforms such as Wikipedia enable 518learning scientists and other researchers in the field of education to test their theories in real-519life, large-scale scenarios and thus not only in laboratory settings or small groups. Research in 520real-life scenarios is needed to ensure the external validity of findings from laboratory studies 521(Cook and Campbell 1979). Some phenomena, like the structural coupling of individual 522(learning) and social or societal processes (knowledge construction) over substantial periods 523of time, cannot be easily mapped into laboratory experiments without the risk of missing out 524on the very essence of what is going on. With digital behavior traces such as editing or 525browsing histories, even very complex temporal trajectories can be restored at any given point 526in time as long as the data is available. Still, the results of such studies can only contribute to 527the growth of scientific knowledge if they can be used to test existing theories, or if they 528facilitate the development of new and better theories. 529

Important methods to consider in this context that have been discussed in the paper 530presented here are methods based on machine learning text classification, SNA, and SNA-531based clustering. One problem that this kind of research faces is that social scientists are often 532not trained in their university studies to use these methods properly, whereas data scientists 533similarly have little training in relevant educational, psychological, and social scientific 534theories. Hence, for the moment, strategic cooperation between these two groups of experts 535is needed to tackle the relevant questions of our day with the most suitable methods (Harlow 536and Oswald 2016). 537

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AUTHOR QUERIES

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