

Group coursework:

“Concepts and Empirical Results in Education”

Date: 27.03.2015

Ekaterina Gicheva, Ivan Merazchiev, Katharina Wenig

## **Learning as Participation (Not Acquisition)**

### **Table of contents**

#### 1. Introduction:

1.1 Why is it important to investigate the concept of learning?

1.2 Theoretical background.

#### 2. A quick comprehensive reference.

#### 3. Practical examples.

#### 4. Empirical findings.

#### 5. Another three interesting references.

#### 6. Cross-links between academic disciplines.

#### 7. Conclusion.

#### 8. References.

## 1. Introduction

### ***1.1 Why is it important to investigate the concept of learning?***

The process of learning is highly significant as it shapes the **knowledge-driven activities** we undertake every day (Paavola & Hakkarainen, 2005). Accordingly, learning has great implications in many aspects of our lives and is an integral part of people's **economic** success as well as their **social integration** (Kennedy, 1997). It is, therefore, crucial to understand the underpinnings of effective learning and to successfully apply them within the educational context where people often develop different skills and abilities for the first time.

Commonly, learning is defined as the **change** in people's perspective and understanding (Sfard, 2009). However, the process behind this transition has been described in different ways in the past few decades (Jonassen & Land, 2012), which brings uncertainty over the practicality of the learning approaches undertaken within the academic settings. Thus, the aim of this wiki page is to outline and compare two conceptions of learning, namely (1) learning as knowledge **acquisition** and (2) learning as **participation**. Additionally, empirical findings related to both of these frameworks will be presented and the balance of evidence will be evaluated.

### ***1.2 Theoretical background***

#### **1.2.1 Acquisition**

Traditionally, learning has been viewed as knowledge **acquisition** with concepts and ideas representing **established** building blocks of knowledge (Wenger,



1998). Regarding this, many scholars, such as Piaget (1977), advocated that knowledge is developed and attained by individual experience, which has been known as *the acquisition metaphor*. It suggests that individuals have a knowledge **capacity** to be filled and that, once acquired, knowledge **belongs** to the learner (Bereiter, 2002). This implies some form of ownership of one's accumulated ideas, which is further associated with improvement in people's skills and abilities (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Therefore, knowledge structures that are logically organized within one's own mind are seen as the prerequisite of intellectual activity.

#### *1.2.1.1 Limitations of the acquisition metaphor*

The traditional cognitive approach, which represents a significant part of the acquisition wave, emphasized this idea (Gardner, 1985; Neisser, 1976), but often undermined the importance of the **environment** and the **context** within which learning takes place (Fodor, 1981). This leads to the so called *learning paradox*, initially formulated by Plato in his dialogue 'Meno' (Nehamas, 1985; Cobb, Yackel, Wood, 1991). More precisely, Plato questioned whether it is possible to individually acquire knowledge which does not already belong to the learner and concluded: 'Learning **new** things is inherently impossible'. The *acquisition metaphor* has been further challenged by the fact that people are able to 'develop' knowledge that is in line with that of others, which is not explained by the acquisition hypothesis (Sfard, 1998). Additionally, Blackler (2004) argued against the idea of embrained knowledge as he believed that learning is socially **constructed**. Similarly, Chiva and Alegre (2005) speculated that learning and knowing are **continuous** processes and, hence, they cannot be predefined. Collectively, this suggests that the acquisition metaphor is an insufficient theoretical framework for explaining the process of learning.

## 1.2.2 Participation



In line with this criticism, over the last decades there has been a shift in conceptions of what the learning process constitutes (Murphy & McCormick, 2008). This epistemological change was greatly inspired by the work of Vygotsky (1978), who proposed a sociocultural approach to mental development.

Additionally, Bandura's social cognitive theory (1989) and the view of learning as a context-based process (e.g., McLellan, 1996) affirmed the idea that learning is embedded within the social and cultural situation and further suggested that the *acquisition metaphor* cannot fully encompass the process of knowledge transformation. The idea that learning is a **collective process** is known as *the participation metaphor* (Sfard, 1998; Wenger, 1998). While the *acquisition metaphor* argued for the constant state of 'having knowledge', this framework emphasized that the processes and the actions involved in 'knowing' are more important (Lave & Wenger, 1991).

### 1.2.2.1 The main components of the participatory framework

Accordingly, learning is seen as the **participation in different cultural and social practices** which involves constant interaction which modifies one's cognitive processes and that leads to the **enhancement of community**. The proponents of the *participation metaphor* speculated that learning cannot exist on its own and within individual minds as it incorporates one's involvement in **social situations**; hence, the **context** within which learning happens is perceived as an integral part of this process (Paavola & Hakkarainen, 2005). As a result, the learner is seen as an **actor** in particular activities rather than as being

independent from the environment within which learning takes place (Solomon & Perkins, 1998).

**Table1:** The key theoretical components of the acquisition and the participation metaphors. Table taken from Sfard (1998). 'On two metaphors for learning and the danger of choosing just one'. Educational researcher. March, 2015 via Elsevier (<http://www.elsevier.com/>).

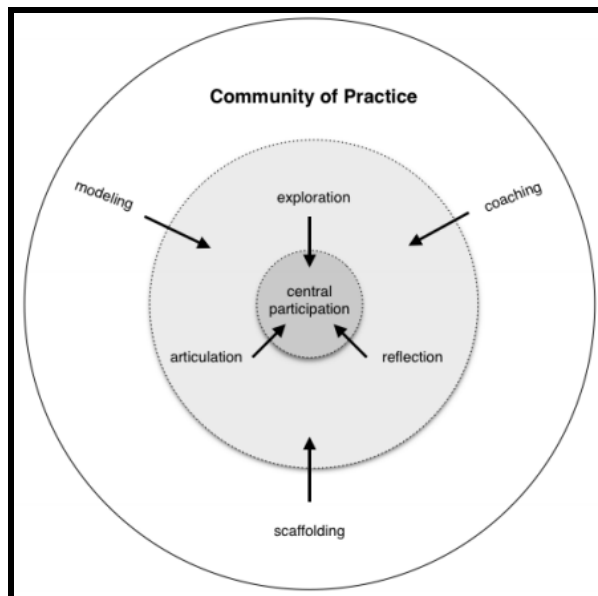
<i>The Metaphorical Mappings</i>		
Acquisition metaphor		Participation metaphor
Individual enrichment	Goal of learning	Community building
Acquisition of something	Learning	Becoming a participant
Recipient (consumer), (re-)constructor	Student	Peripheral participant, apprentice
Provider, facilitator, mediator	Teacher	Expert participant, preserver of practice/discourse
Property, possession, commodity (individual, public)	Knowledge, concept	Aspect of practice/discourse/activity
Having, possessing	Knowing	Belonging, participating, communicating

VIDOE: Flora & Blob: Participation Metaphor v. Acquisition Metaphor

1.2.2.2 Lave and Wenger’s framework of participatory learning

*‘It is one thing to learn about other people, but another thing to learn something bfrom them’ (Catania, 1998, p. 227)*

An influential theoretical framework supporting the idea of learning as participation is Lave and Wenger’s (1991) **situated learning hypothesis**. It proposed that learning is embedded within the immediate context in which it takes place, and that it is unintentional



rather than deliberate. This process became known as the '**legitimate peripheral participation**'. In particular, individuals that are **novices** are argued to change their position within the particular community they are part of, from its periphery to its centre, when they are more involved in the community's culture; subsequently, they become **experts**. Brown, Collins and Duguid (1989) also highlighted the idea of cognitive apprenticeship. They speculated that it 'supports learning in a domain by enabling students to acquire, develop and use cognitive tools' and that learning takes place 'through collaborative social interaction and the social construction of knowledge'.

Similarly, Lave and Wenger viewed **social participation** and **integration** as important aspects of situated learning because people become involved in a '**community of practice**', which presents the behaviours and beliefs to be developed by the learner. Community of practice can take place both offline (in face-to-face context) and online (e.g., computer-based discussions) (Kiezmman et al., 2013). Evidently, a strength of the theory is that it takes into account a wide spectrum of situations that can influence people's learning processes. However, it should be noted that this framework specifically targeted learning within occupational settings (Wenger, 1998) and, thus, may not be fully applicable to the rather different educational context (Boylan, 2012 ).

#### 1.2.2.3 Constructivists' view of learning

Constructivism is another theoretical framework that focused on the process of knowledge transmission (Eddy, 2004). According to its proponents, learning is the construction of knowledge which is based on learners' previous **experience** as well as on their **privately** developed ideas and concepts (Koohang, Riley & Smith[EG3] , 2009). Therefore, the conceptions of learning outlined by pure constructivists are very much in line with the acquisition metaphor.

Conversely, **social constructivism** confirmed the ideas behind participatory learning and emphasized the importance of the **cultural background** of learners

and their **communication** with knowledgeable members of the community such as teachers and parents (Wertsch, 1997; Burr, 2002). Social constructivists believed that the exchange of perspectives and opinions between individuals (also known as **collaborative elaboration**; Meter & Stevens, 2000) leads to higher understanding that cannot be developed alone (Greeno, 1996). In regard to this, Vygotsky (1978, p. 30) categorized the individually developed knowledge as secondary and, hence, as being shaped by people's engagement in social interaction (Wertsch & Bivens, 1993). Rogoff et al. (1995) also noted that knowledge development is inherently social and that it cannot happen independently from one's culture and its practices. Overall, social constructivists argued that the main purpose of learning is to develop knowledge in particular context in order to deepen the understanding of the learner (Morton, 2012).

#### 1.2.2.4 The participation metaphors as a new perspective on learning

Ultimately, as Sfard (2009) argued, the participatory approach to learning appears to overcome the criticism targeting the *acquisition metaphor*. It has been highly influential as it has served as a catalyst for research on the benefits of engagement within the educational settings (Daniels, 2005). Nowadays, convinced of the benefits that participation brings, researchers are more interested in finding methods for widening participation within the academic context (Chowdry, Crawford, Dearden, Goodman & Vignoles, 2013). Nevertheless, before making any clear-cut conclusions regarding the usefulness of the participatory learning model, it is important to consider the criticism directed at it as well as the evidence regarding the two presented learning approaches; subsequently, their usefulness when applied to the educational context will be also evaluated.

#### 1.2.2.5 Limitations of the participatory metaphor

Apart from being a useful theoretical framework, the idea of participatory learning has several theoretical weaknesses that have been previously outlined. For

example, Sfard (2009) has pointed out that the notion of knowledge transfer cannot be adapted within the learning-as-participation model. More precisely, as the idea of transferring implies applying the same knowledge to different contexts, it is in contrast to the belief that knowledge is not generalizable and entity-based. Sfard (1998) argued that while the context within which learning takes place is important, it is inevitably the case that some form of knowledge is similar across situations. Therefore, although the participation metaphor overcomes the caveats of the learning-as-acquisition model, it is hard to avoid using the acquisition language when talking about participatory learning (Greeno, 1997).

It is evident, then, that while most learning theories can be viewed as either acquisition-related or participation-oriented, the proposed models of participatory learning cannot be fully distinguished from information-based learning. Paavola, Lipponen and Hakkarainen (2004) further reinforced this idea by suggesting that neither of the two metaphors is sufficient for addressing the deliberate generation of novel ideas on its own: the acquisition metaphor argues for predefined knowledge, whereas the participatory learning framework is focused on the development of community knowledge without it being deliberate (Paavola & Hakkarainen, 2005). Consequently, an approach to learning that combines the elements of both acquisition and participation, called *the knowledge-creation metaphor*, was proposed (Moen, Morch & Paavola, 2012, p. 1).

Additionally, Solomon and Perkins (1998) noted that the participation-oriented conceptions of learning challenge the development of school curriculum activities as it is hard to create learning objectives for courses based on effective participation only. Subsequently, the development of appropriate knowledge evaluation tools which are related to the participation metaphor is problematic. Therefore, while great body of up-to-date literature focuses on ways to increase participation within the educational context (Fleming & Grace, 2014; Lane, 2012; Olsson & Persson Slumpi, 2014), it is unsurprising that the assessment types



chosen by many educators is based on the acquisition model of learning which is highly criticized (Falchokov, 2013, p. 38). On balance, the discussed theoretical conceptions and weakness of the learning-as-acquisition hypothesis show that the educational system will benefit from having a multifaceted approach to learning.

## **2. A quick comprehensive reference?**

Anna Sfard is one of the main scholars investigating the two learning metaphors. Her paper from 2009 provides a brief **theoretical overview** which will give you a more in-depth presentation of the topic.

# **Moving Between Discourses: From Learning-As-Acquisition To Learning-As-Participation**

Anna Sfard

*The University of Haifa, Israel<sup>1</sup> & Michigan State University, Michigan, US*

*<sup>1</sup> The Faculty of Education, Haifa 31905, Israel*

**Abstract.** In this paper I address the question of how to talk about learning so as to be able to cope with at least some of the longstanding quandaries and to arrive at new insights. After a very brief historical review, I concentrate on two basic metaphors for learning in which current educational research seems to be grounded: the metaphors of learning-as-acquisition and of learning-as-participation. After stating the importance of both of these approaches and arguing that researches should be adjusting their leading metaphors to the questions they ask, I present my own choice: a brand of participationist discourse which is grounded in the vision of thinking as a form of communication and of physics and mathematics as types of discourses. The usefulness of the proposed way of talking about learning is then illustrated with the help of empirical materials taken from my recent study on a 7<sup>th</sup> grade class just introduced to *negative numbers*.

A good empirical research article investigating the effect of participation on student performance is the one by Carini, Kuh and Clein (2006), in which they show that the critical thinking and the overall academic performance of students is positively, albeit weakly, associated with their participation within the educational contexts.

### **3. Attempts to apply the theory in practice**

#### **Video: A School Efforts to Increase Participation in Knowledge Formation**

**Johansson and Sandberg (2010)** took a descriptive approach in an exploratory study and asked 112 preschool teachers and teacher students for their understanding of the concepts learning and participation. The study used the critical-incident technique and found that learning was perceived as both knowledge acquisition and active interaction with others. However, more experienced teachers found teacher-student interaction more important than student-student interaction. Four categories of participation features came up in this study: being part of a group, listening, influence and being involved.

**Lambson (2010)** used Lave & Wenger's communities of practice framework to examine the change from peripheral participation to central participation in a group of three novice teachers. They participated in a study group with experienced teachers who mediated legitimacy and peripherality. The initial feelings of pressure, discomfort and insecurity and the very limited contributions to the group sessions were described to turn into more confident feelings and an increased participation. The participants shifted from an outer circle of participation to the inner circle of enhanced participation. Moreover, a gradual adapting to the culture, way of talking and practices of the group over the long-term engagement was observed.

One form of participating in the classroom is having debates and discussions. Studies suggest that these have a positive influence on curricular involvement and increased general course participation and engagement (**Coogan & Pawson, 2008**). **Kennedy (2007)** found more advantages of debates, including greater course material understanding, enhanced ability to share opinion, greater mastery of the subject and an improvement concerning critical thinking and verbal skills. King (1990) suggested that college students, who asked more critical questions during a guided peer reciprocal questioning tasks, were also able to provide more explanations and had better academic performance. **Johnson, Johnson & Stanne (2000)** performed a meta-analysis and found that all cooperative learning methods have a significant positive impact on achievement. They investigated 164 studies which suggested that

learning together brought the most benefit in comparison to individual or competitive learning. Carini, Kuh & Klein (2006) as well found that participation had a positive effect on student's grades and achievement. The data also suggests that students with the lowest ability might profit the most by engaging with the classroom.

### ***3.1 The role of participation in e-learning***

The special features of e-learning and participation lie in the lack of close interaction and the question if in fact a community of practice is given under these circumstances. However, Rovai's study (2002) could show, that e-learners indeed feel a sense of community and that crucial features such as interaction, shared goals and values are present. An advantage of online participation is that students have more time to express themselves in comparison to face-to-face interactions

In their survey, **Fredericksen, Picket, Shea, Pelz and Swan** (2000) pointed out the importance of collaboration and participation for online learning. Asking 1406 university online learners it turns out, that interaction with the teachers, participation level and classmate interaction were most crucial for perceived learning effectiveness. Measuring not only the perceived but the actual outcome, **Hilzt, Coppola, Rotter, Turoff and Benbunan-Fich (2000)**, who based their study on 26 university online courses, could confirm that participation in collaborative or group learning are related to better grades in comparison to traditional settings. Nevertheless they pointed out that in comparison to traditional classroom settings, student's results are even poorer when they took part in a distant correspondence course.

**Davies and Graff** in 2005 documented the activity on two distinct online interaction platform areas of 122 first year students and compared it with their marks in the end of the year as well. The results show, that the people who fail are the ones with the lowest platform activity and vice versa. Nevertheless the degree of participation was not able to distinguish between students with medium and high marks. This finding can raise the question if the mere quantitative online participation explains the outcome. **Morris, Finnegan and Sz-Shyan** in 2005 were able to show that indeed activity on online learning and interaction platforms is not the only important thing to predict learning outcomes. The authors looked at 354 student's platform activity regarding both frequency variables (number of discussion postings) and duration variables (time spent looking at content pages) and their final marks. The findings showed that not only the more quantitative measures but also the qualitative measures were important to predict the learning outcome. Moreover, **Weisskirch and Milburn** (2003) could show by analyzing 3125 interactive platforms that better exam marks are connected to a high

number of tutor-directed postings but not in the same amount to a high number of student-to-student postings.

### ***3.2 Participation at the workplace***

Work related activities, the workplace itself as a social environment as well as guidance of, interacting with, listening to and observing other co-workers are mentioned to be the key sources for workers to learn through their work (Billett, 1999). The role of learning through participation in the context of work becomes clear in particular when regarding part-time, contractual or home-based workers: Lacking many opportunities of participation, they often struggle to stay at the same skill level as their fully employed co-workers, which could even influence them negatively in realising their career aspirations (Tam, 1997).

**Billett** (2001), who examined 5 organizations and some of their workers in order to get an idea about how individuals learn in the context of work through participation and which role guidance plays. The author found out that the degree in which workers are interacting with and observe more experienced co-workers and mentors influences the quality of their learning outcomes. **Filstad** collected the experiences of 30 newly graduated science students in their first jobs. The qualitative interview study showed the perceived importance of social practice, observations and participation when performing in a still unknown organizations.

### ***3.3 Real-life examples***

Evidently, previous literature has provided a number of empirical examples of the application of the two learning metaphors. Drawing on your present knowledge of the topic, try to guess, alone and in a group, which approaches to learning have been applied within the following three examples, and whether they incorporate only one of the metaphors investigated or both of them:

#### **1. *Chan, Frydenberg, & Lee, 2007:***

First-year undergraduate students, studying in Charles Sturt University and Bentley College, were asked to work in teams of people from both institution. Each team had to collaboratively produce a brief podcast, which had to be recorded over Skype (*Skypecast*). The project involved discussions over issues on technology and culture implemented within the curricula at both higher education institutions. The task outcomes were to overcome the problems associated with cross-cultural communication as well as the development of teamwork skills from working with people whom were not met face-to-face.

### **2. Frydenberg, 2006:**

Students at Bentley College (USA) who were enrolled in the IT Intensive course were required to purchase Pocket PCs instead of textbooks, which would provide them with hands-on, learner-centered type of learning. Participants were allocated to pairs or groups and were asked to plan and create vodcasts. All groups had to produce vodcasts on one of the course topics that were to be shared with the rest of the class. This was an innovative form of peer teaching incorporating two purposes: (1) learning the subject matter through the production of material for their coursemates and (2) exercising and implementing IT skills that are in line with the aims of the course.

### **3. Lee, Chan, & McLoughlin, 2006:**

At Charles Sturt University, second-year students produced brief, three-to-five-minute radio-style podcasts that were to be listened by first-year students enrolled in a subject that the participants had already successfully completed. The second-years had to brainstorm script ideas, as well as to scriptwrite, to edit and to record the podcasts without being provided with guidance by their teacher. The objectives of the project were to enhance a variety of technical skills, to develop transferable attributes such as teamwork and presentation skills as well as to apply their knowledge of the course they studied. Students were able to extend and adapt content for a peer audience by engaging in group peer review and critique of podcast scripts.

### **Implications:**

Both the research and the more theoretical reviews on the topic of participation lead the reader to some important practical implications. Assuming that learning can be improved through participation approaches, some of the crucial features mentioned within the theoretical literature can help to educators to make full use of the learning process. For example, some of the important factors suggested by previous research are the feeling of being part of a group, the close relations with others and the enhancement of people's willingness to share experiences (Filstad). Furthermore, as Lave & Wenger already suggested in the 1990s, legitimacy and peripherality are other important conditions to be considered when applying the theory into practice. Graff (2003) also described the benefits of belonging to a group, the feelings of acceptance, trust and cohesion, the recognition of a membership and the social interaction when taking part in participatory learning. However, it should be noted that the degree to which these constructs are perceived depends on cognitive style of the learner.

Additionally, participation is about the newcomer's observing, listening and discussing in a proactive way (Filstad). An interesting finding, which is repeatedly shown in the literature, then, is the fact that participation with a more experienced person seem to be more fruitful than interaction with a person who is on the same or lower level of knowledge and practice, *which fits to Vygotsky's approach of zones of proximal development (1978)*. Nevertheless, the role of student-to-student interaction should not be underestimated. Participation in a community of practice is not only about learning and knowledge, but also about social interaction, meaning that student support for each other can crucially decide about another person's withdrawal or continuing when struggling in a learning challenge (Davis et al., 2005). There are as well important implications for adult learners at workplaces: as they are less likely to engage in a learning process, in which they are unable to see the relevance for their actual life, the combination of practical workplace learning and educational learning has to be taken under special consideration (Illeris, 2003).

### **Research critique:**

A general critique on theoretical articles in the field of learning through participation is the fact, that many authors take the benefits of participation for granted (Hrastinski, 2009). Many empirical studies in addition are only descriptive and do not measure performance or success. Especially when concerning teacher's experiences or teacher trainings, the participation approach is mentioned or used very often, but without giving any information about teachers actual performance in their classrooms. Furthermore, one can find many qualitative studies with obscure and non-transparent evaluation practices.

Additionally, previous research has shown that the effectiveness of participation depends on factors such as shared goals and conscientiousness (Slavin, 1994), compositions of the groups (Azmitia, 1998; Lou, Abrami & d'Apollonia, 2001), task specificities and

### **References**

Bandura, A. (1989). Human agency in social cognitive theory. *American psychologist*, 44(9), 1175.

Bereiter, C. (2002). Education in a knowledge society. *Liberal education in a knowledge society*, 11-34.

Boylan, M. (2010). Ecologies of participation in school classrooms. *Teaching and teacher education*, 26(1), 61-70.

Brown, J. S., Collins, A., & Duguid, P. (1989). Situated cognition and the culture of learning. *Educational researcher*, 18(1), 32-42.

Burr, V. (2002). *Gender and social psychology*. Routledge.

Chan, A., Frydenberg, M., & Lee, M. J. (2007, October). Facilitating cross-cultural learning through collaborative skypecasting. In *Proceedings of the 8th ACM SIGITE conference on Information technology education* (pp. 59-66). ACM.

Chowdry, H., Crawford, C., Dearden, L., Goodman, A., & Vignoles, A. (2013). Widening participation in higher education: analysis using linked administrative data. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society: Series A (Statistics in Society)*, 176(2), 431-457.

Cobb, P., Wood, T., Yackel, E., Nicholls, J., Wheatley, G., Trigatti, B., & Perwitz, M. (1991). Assessment of a problem-centered second-grade mathematics project. *Journal for research in mathematics education*, 3-29.

Eddy, M. D. (2004). Fallible or inerrant? A belated review of the 'constructivist's bible' Jan Golinski, *Making Natural Knowledge: Constructivism and the History of Science*. Cambridge History of Science. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1999. Pp. xiv+ 236. ISBN 0-521-44913-8. £ 15.95 (paperback). *The British Journal for the History of Science*, 37(01), 93-98.

Falchikov, N. (2013). *Improving assessment through student involvement: Practical solutions for aiding learning in higher and further education*. Routledge.

Fleming, M. J., & Grace, D. M. (2014). Increasing participation of rural and regional students in higher education. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, 36(5), 483-495.

Fodor, J. A. (1981). *Representations: Philosophical essays on the foundations of cognitive science* (pp. 257-316). Brighton: Harvester Press.

Frydenberg, M. (2006). Principles and pedagogy: The two P's of podcasting in the information technology classroom. In *The Proceedings of ISECON 2006*(Vol. 23).

Gardner, H. (1985). *The mind's new science*. Basic Books.

Greeno, J.G. (1997). 'On Claims That Answer the Wrong Questions'. *Educational Researcher*, 26(1), 5–17.

Greeno, S. (1996). Situated Learning and Education<sup>1</sup>. *Educational Researcher*, 25(4), 5-11.

Johansson, I., & Sandberg, A. (2010). Learning and participation: two interrelated key - concepts in the preschool. *European Early Childhood Education Research Journal*, 18(2), 229-242.

Jonassen, D., & Land, S. (Eds.). (2012). *Theoretical foundations of learning environments*. Routledge.

Kennedy, H. (1997). Learning works: widening participation in further education.

Koohang, A., Riley, L., Smith, T., & Schreurs, J. (2009). E-learning and constructivism: From theory to application. *Interdisciplinary Journal of E-Learning and Learning Objects*, 5(1), 91-109.



Lane, A. (2012). A review of the role of national policy and institutional mission in European Distance Teaching Universities with respect to widening participation in higher education study through open educational resources. *Distance Education*, 33(2), 135-150.

Lave, J., & Wenger, E. (1991). *Situated learning: Legitimate peripheral participation*. Cambridge university press.

Lee, M. J., Chan, A., & McLoughlin, C. (2006, July). Students as producers: Second year students' experiences as podcasters of content for first year undergraduates. In *Information Technology Based Higher Education and Training, 2006. ITHET'06. 7th International Conference on* (pp. 832-841). IEEE.

McLellan, H. (Ed.). (1996). *Situated learning perspectives*. Educational Technology.

Moen, A., Mørch, A. I., & Paavola, S. (2012). *Collaborative knowledge creation: Practices, tools, concepts* (Vol. 7). Springer Science & Business Media.

Morton, J. (2012). Communities of practice in higher education: A challenge from the discipline of architecture. *Linguistics and Education*, 23(1), 100-111.

Murphy, P., & McCormick, R. (Eds.). (2008). *Knowledge and practice: Representations and identities*. Sage.

Nehamas, A. (1985). Meno's Paradox and Socrates as a Teacher.

Neisser, U. (1976). *Cognition and reality: Principles and implications of cognitive psychology*. WH Freeman/Times Books/Henry Holt & Co.

Olsson, H., & Persson Slumpi, T. (2012). Increasing participation and social interaction in an e-learning context–The conceptual framework of an edentity.

Paavola, S., & Hakkarainen, K. (2005). The knowledge creation metaphor—An emergent epistemological approach to learning. *Science & Education*, 14(6), 535-557.

Paavola, S., Lipponen, L., & Hakkarainen, K. (2004). Models of innovative knowledge communities and three metaphors of learning. *Review of educational research*, 74(4), 557-576.

Piaget, J. (1977). *The development of thought: Equilibration of cognitive structures.*(Trans A. Rosin). Viking.

Rogoff, B., Baker - Sennett, J., Lacasa, P., & Goldsmith, D. (1995). Development through participation in sociocultural activity. *New Directions for Child and Adolescent Development*, 1995(67), 45-65.

Salomon, G., & Perkins, D. N. (1998). Individual and social aspects of learning.*Review of research in education*, 1-24.

Sfard, A. (1998). On two metaphors for learning and the dangers of choosing just one. *Educational Researcher*, 27(2), 4-13.

Sfard, A. (2009). Moving Between Discourses: From Learning - As - Acquisition To Learning - As - Participation. In *2009 Physics Education Research Conference* (Vol. 1179, No. 1, pp. 55-58). AIP Publishing.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes.* Harvard university press.

Wenger, E. (1998). *Communities of practice: Learning, meaning, and identity.* Cambridge university press.

Wertsch, J. V. (1997). Vygotsky and the formation of the mind. *Cambridge, MA.*

Wertsch, J. V., & Bivens, J. A. (1993). The social origins of individual mental functioning: Alternatives and perspectives. *The development and meaning of psychological distance*, 203-218.