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Abstract	This chapter discusses one of the research perspectives of the Learning Sciences and Technologies academic group in the National Institute of Education (Singapore). Premised on social constructivists' view of learning, we explore design for learner agency and voice by adopting design experiment approach to study knowledge building and distributing the power of design decisions to the learners. We illustrate our efforts with vignettes of two of our research studies: one that demonstrates the importance of students' agency in knowledge construction and another that incorporates the diverse voices of stakeholders, including students, in developing a game for learning Earth system science.	
Keywords (separated by '-')	Agency - Learner voice - Knowledge construction	

Learning with Technology: Learner Voice and Agency

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Abstract This chapter discusses one of the research perspectives of the Learning Sciences and Technologies academic group in the National Institute of Education (Singapore). Premised on social constructivists' view of learning, we explore design for learner agency and voice by adopting design experiment approach to study knowledge building and distributing the power of design decisions to the learners. We illustrate our efforts with vignettes of two of our research studies: one that demonstrates the importance of students' agency in knowledge construction and another that incorporates the diverse voices of stakeholders, including students, in developing a game for learning Earth system science.

Keywords Agency · Learner voice · Knowledge construction

Introduction

The field of instructional design and technology (IDT) is facing challenges posed by several forces – advent of knowledge-based economy, rapid development in technologies, and growing interest in the competing field of learning sciences. We are living in the Knowledge Age, a time when knowledge is regarded as the key asset for socioeconomic development of a country. The economic well-being of a

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country is now dependent on workers who possess in-depth understanding of a field of knowledge, who can search for relevant information, interpret, and critically analyze information and design innovative applications. In short, new economies need *knowledge workers* more than productive factory workers. The traditional mindset of IDT that focuses on training workers for efficiency and productivity has to be transformed to approaches that develop knowledge-building capacity among the workers.

Technologically, we are living in the Digital Age, where digital technologies have stealthily seeped into every aspect of our lives, making their ubiquitous presence in many objects surrounding us. We have witnessed how Internet has significantly multiplied the speed at which information can be communicated and, most critically, affords a platform where collective intelligence ~~and~~ of the worldwide community can be leveraged for rapid development of new ideas. Building on the Internet, we are now experiencing another wave of technological revolution, the Web 2.0 technologies, which challenge the reader–author relationship and spawn the development of new literacies. These networking technologies and user-generated contents are also hugely influencing the game industry, where online games and user-created virtual worlds are at its center. The use of technologies to *teach* has to be changed to the use of technologies to *learn* or *create with*.

Concomitantly, learning sciences as a field of study is gaining momentum. It brings together a synergy of expertise in cognitive science, educational psychology, computer science, and even instructional design to focus more on basic theory and research on learning. Learning sciences, as a field of study, aims to study the cognitive and social processes for learning and uses our understanding on learning to design more effective learning environments and to develop prototypes and tools for learning. Thus, rather than designing instructions, the focus is on researching and refining theories and practices of learning.

In the context of these changes, the Instructional Sciences academic group in the National Institute of Education, Singapore, has repositioned itself and was renamed to Learning Sciences and Technologies academic group (<http://eduweb.nie.edu.sg/LST/home/default.asp>). In this transition stage, we take an inclusive view that embraces pluralism in ideology and theoretical base. For instance, we offer Master of Arts in Instructional Design and Technology, as well as Master of Education (Learning Sciences and Technologies); our researchers conduct studies in the areas of new literacies, mathematics and problem solving, and knowledge building (<http://www.lsl.nie.edu.sg/>). Given the longer history of instructional science, we assume that the readers are familiar with research and practices in this discipline. In this chapter, we discuss the learning sciences perspective among our local research community, in particular one that focuses on empowering learners by giving them voice and agency for learning and design.

Learning with Technology

We believe in learning and creating with technology, as opposed to teaching with or through technology. The differences have been clearly explained by proponents

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91 of using technologies as cognitive tools (Jonassen & Reeves, 1996) and Mindtools
92 (Jonassen, 2006). In essence, rather than using computers to replace tutors in giving
93 instructions, computers are used as “intellectual partners to enable and facilitate critical
94 thinking and higher order learning” (Jonassen & Reeves, 1996, p. 694). Unlike
95 computer-based tutorial programs or intelligent tutoring system, the information or
96 content knowledge are not hard-coded in the program and presented to the learners.
97 The computers facilitate meaning making and knowledge constructions by and
98 among the learners. For example, an asynchronous online discussion forum allows a
99 group of learners to discuss an issue or debate about a topic; an online role-playing
100 game requires players to dynamically form groups in order to play a role (e.g., making
101 sure team members are in good health) and acquire skills that help them progress
102 in the game. With proper scaffolding, the learners can be engaged in higher-order
103 thinking processes: make meaning about what they have read, put forth their ideas,
104 discuss their positions, apply what they have learnt to solve a problem, and many
105 other cognitive processes.

108 *Development in Technologies*

110 The idea of using technologies as Mindtools revolutionizes learning using existing
111 technologies. Many software used as Mindtools are initially developed as productivity
112 tools that facilitate our works, for example, word processors. Thus, Mindtools
113 is a learning technology that helps educators to look at existing computer programs
114 (e.g., word-processing software and spreadsheet) from a different perspective. For
115 educational applications, terms like “open tools” (Lim, 2009) are used to describe
116 these tools. They are *open* because unlike tutorial programs, their epistemic values
117 lie in the scaffolds/constraints they provide for/impose on learners to engage in critical
118 thinking, rather than hard-coded content knowledge to be communicated to the
119 learners.

120 In recent years, a new wave of technology development, collectively known
121 as social software, has created new opportunities on the ways learning can be
122 supported. Social software includes a wide range of social tools like discussion
123 boards, messaging, web blogs (e.g., www.blogger.com), social book-marking tools
124 (e.g., www.blinklist.com), wikis (e.g., en.wikipedia.org), and others. These tools
125 capitalize on the collective intelligences and dynamics of a wide community connected
126 through the Internet, beyond the physical boundaries. Initially, they are used
127 for social purposes, for example, sharing of music, pictures, and opinions. It has
128 become increasingly apparent that these technologies begin to challenge the traditional
129 notion of literacies and literacy practices, giving rise to *new literacies*. Beyond
130 reading and writing, new literacies include “socially recognized ways of generating,
131 communicating and negotiating meaningful content through the medium of encoded
132 texts within contexts of participating in Discourse” (Lankshear & Knobel, 2006,
133 p. 64). Thus, participating in online forums or multi-user games, publishing personal
134 blogs, and writing in wikis can be examples of new literacies. It requires the
135 technical skills to participate in these activities, as well as a change in mindset

136 (Lankshear & Knobel, 2006, 2007), especially in the participants' agency. The par-
137 ticipants have greater control in participating (e.g., as a participant in an online
138 forum or game rather than a reader of a website), but at the same time, need to
139 have awareness of the social codes and norms to participate in these activities.

140 An important development in social software is multi-user immersive virtual
141 environments. These environments use rich 3D graphics to create a virtual space
142 where participants can interact with each other, usually through informal communi-
143 cation styles, and experience a sense of being in a virtual world, in the company of
144 other people (Bartle, 2004). According to Gee (2003), participating in video games
145 is also a form of new literacy where the learners "situate meaning in a multimodal
146 space through embodied experiences to solve problems and reflect on the intricacies
147 of the design of imagined worlds and the design of both real and imagined social
148 relationships in the modern world" (p. 48).

151 *Social Constructivist View of Learning*

154 Underpinning learning with technology is the ontological and epistemological view
155 of social constructivism, one that treats reality as constructed by individual's mind
156 rather than the mind as a reflection of the objective reality, and learning involves
157 active and agentive participation among learners who engage in collaborative know-
158 ing through social interactions. The constructivist views of learning, though a
159 relatively recent development in the field of IDT, have received growing interest
160 among many researchers and catalyzed the convergence between the discipline of
161 learning sciences and instructional design. They partly explain the coexistence of
162 "traditional" IDT and learning sciences programs in many universities (e.g., Indiana
163 University, Pennsylvania State University, and Nanyang Technological University).

164 Building on constructivist views of learning, Lipponen, Hakkarainen, and
165 Paavola (2004) further differentiated between the participatory approach and the
166 knowledge creation approach of learning. The participatory approach of learning
167 is epitomized in learning through apprenticeship in a community of practice. For
168 example, in medical field, a novice pre-registration doctor is enculturated into the
169 practice of medicine by first participating from the periphery as an intern, shadow-
170 ing licensed medical doctors to learn the culture and practices of being a doctor. It
171 takes many years for a foundation house officer to become a registrar and eventually
172 a consultant, through formal examinations and years of embodied experience. Thus,
173 learning is premised on situation cognition and the notion of identity creation, often
174 in the context of a real-life community. However, this approach of learning seems
175 to focus more on preserving the cultural capital of a community rather than being
176 innovative. To address this concern, the knowledge creation approach advocates col-
177 laborative knowledge building, with the constant goal of improving cultural artifacts
178 and collective knowledge. This approach of learning is exemplified in a scientist
179 community where scientists constantly discuss and explore new ideas and build on
180 existing body of knowledge to create new theories.

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181 Extending this to K-12 setting, Scardamalia and Bereiter (2006) proposed the
182 knowledge-building pedagogy. Knowledge building aims to develop students' dis-
183 position and skills in knowledge work in a learning community that consists of
184 a cohesive group of learners with a culture and practice of collaboration and col-
185 lective advancement of understanding (Bielaczyc & Collins, 1999). One of the
186 central principles of knowledge building is collective idea improvement, which
187 happens when individuals put forth their ideas in a public space (e.g., an online
188 forum) to be discussed and critiqued with the goal of improving these ideas.
189 The students need to be engaged in knowledge-building talk, a discourse that
190 focuses on epistemic reflection on assumptions, evidence, and premises that sup-
191 port the ideas. Knowledge building sounds like a daunting task for the K-12
192 students, but it is important to note that we are not demanding the students to
193 report new discoveries or propose new theories like scientists do, neither are we
194 engaging the students in nonproductive discussion that seems to "reinvent the
195 wheels." The goal is to not only put students in the trajectory of development of
196 knowledge works but develop their dispositions, attitudes, and skills in knowledge
197 building.

Learner Voice and Agency

203 Several conditions need to be present for knowledge building to happen, among
204 them, students need to possess the epistemic agency for knowledge building. The
205 word *agency* connotes motivation and ownership. That means the students see it as
206 their responsibility to discuss and improve their ideas or to come up with solutions
207 to a problem. There is an element of self-directed learning – students initiate per-
208 sonally challenging inquiry and developing personal knowledge and skills to pursue
209 the challenges (Gibbons, 2002). In addition, the students must possess the *epistemic*
210 capacity to engage in knowledge building; in other words, the cognitive abilities
211 to think and talk about knowledge work like asking relevant questions, communi-
212 cating and putting forth personal ideas, seeking for relevant answers, and critically
213 discussing ideas related to the object of inquiry. In short, a student with epistemic
214 agency takes on the responsibility to engage in inquiry works, looks for informa-
215 tion, makes meaning of the information, and uses appropriate criteria to assess the
216 validity of an idea to the inquiry. Lest we are misunderstood for interpreting knowl-
217 edge building as a personal pursuit of knowing, it is important to emphasize that
218 knowledge building occurs in a learning community, where there is a reciprocal rela-
219 tionship between self-directed learning and collaborative learning: students assume
220 both personal and collective cognitive responsibility to advance both personal and
221 collective understanding of a topic.

222 Similarly, many learners are accustomed to speak through the voice of authority
223 (i.e., textbooks and teachers) rather than through their personal beliefs and ideas
224 in our school context. Bakhtin (1981) terms such discourses as *authoritative dis-*
225 *course* and *internally persuasive discourse*. As designers and researchers, we also

226 often see learners as having empty vessels to be filled in with a flux of knowledge.
227 However, learners' daily literacy practices outside of classrooms could influence
228 their beliefs and ideas about the world. In the classroom context, both students
229 and teachers assume that the authoritative voices from the textbook and traditional
230 ways of interacting in the classrooms (i.e., quietly engaged in reading and listen-
231 ing) are what good students should foreground. In designing learning technologies,
232 we should engage learner voices about what personal beliefs and ideas they have
233 about the world, what excites them, and what kind of experience they have outside
234 of classroom.

235 The notion of students' agency and voice possess great challenges to the instruc-
236 tional designers. What then are the roles of the instructors? Many ID models that
237 build on the foundation of ADDIE approach (analysis, design, develop, implement,
238 evaluate) will break down because they are premised on the assumption that a body
239 of knowledge can be analyzed into parts (whole to parts) and presented to the learn-
240 ers sequentially so that the learners can construct the knowledge (parts to whole).
241 There are, however, very few instructional design models that advise on construc-
242 tivist learning, one of which is Jonassen's (1999) model that focuses on designing
243 constructivist learning environments rather than prescribing instructions. In a con-
244 structivist learning environment, we present the learners with authentic problems
245 and support the learners with related cases, information resources, and collaboration
246 tools. The instructor supports the learners by modelling, coaching, and scaffold-
247 ing. Researchers in learning sciences, on the other hand, suggest conducting design
248 experiments that emphasize reciprocal relationship between theory-based design
249 and analysis of practice in the learning environment. For example, a researcher
250 works with a teacher to design a learning environment based on existing theories of
251 learning; the analysis of the implementation of this learning environment provides
252 empirical evidence of the process and outcomes of learning, which inform the next
253 cycle of intervention. Through iterative research cycles, we refine both the theoret-
254 ical models of learning premised on empirical evidence and the actual educational
255 practices.

256 Another emerging development is the breaking of artificial barrier between
257 experts and learners in learning designs. Designers have started to involve learn-
258 ers in the design process in order to reflect their voices in the design in various
259 ways, namely, user-centered design, participatory design, and informant design
260 approaches (Facer & Williamson, 2004). User-centered design views learners as
261 testers for designs to assess whether their needs are met (Norman & Draper, 1986),
262 whereas participatory design considers them as partners throughout the design pro-
263 cess by assigning them more responsible roles (Druin, 1999). Informant design, on
264 the other hand, combined these two approaches to involve informants (e.g., learn-
265 ers and teachers) in various roles in different stages. For example, learners may
266 be asked to observe and evaluate existing designs and prototypes, and then become
267 testers when the technology is ready (Scaife, Rogers, Aldrich, & Davies, 1997). The
268 most challenging work for the researchers in this approach is to make sure that we
269 hear "learner" voices without imposing our own views.

271 In the next section, we provide two short descriptions of our research effort: one
272 is part of a design research that demonstrates the importance of students' agency
273 in knowledge construction; another incorporates the diverse voices of stakeholders,
274 including students, in developing a game for learning Earth system science.
275
276
277

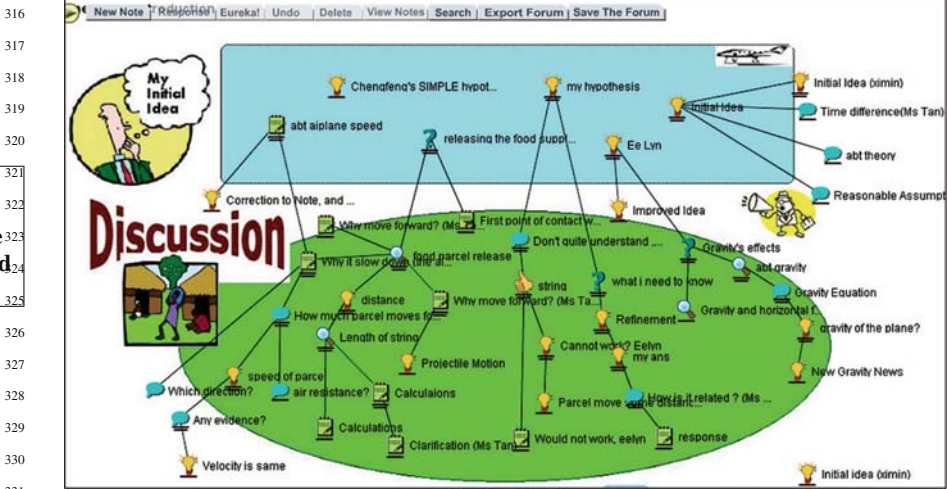
278 **Vignette 1: Students' Agency for Knowledge Creation**

279

280 One design research undertaken by a team of learning scientists from Learning
281 Sciences Lab in National Institute of Education was the design of pedagogical sup-
282 ports for enabling inquiry learning through a learning community approach. This is
283 a collaborative project conducted with a group of science teachers from a local high
284 school to refine a Problem-based Learning (PBL) model, ~~called THINK cycle~~, they
285 had developed to foster deep science learning. The ~~THINK cycle~~ is a five-stage col-
286 laborative learning process whereby students, presented with a (T)rigger problem,
287 will (H)arness information by identifying and exploring learning issues, followed
288 by carrying out tests to (I)nvestigate their hypothesis, and concluding the learning
289 activity by presenting what they (K)now through a group report or presentation. In
290 this learning environment, the teacher acts as a metacognitive coach.

291 One of the challenges in conducting a constructivist learning environment is
292 supporting students' agency. For effective learning in a constructivist learning envi-
293 ronment such as PBL, students need to work collaboratively with one another by
294 keeping themselves up to date with the group's goals, knowledge, action, and statu-
295 s; engaging in sharing, questioning, negotiation, explanation, and reflection of
296 ideas; and producing both cognitive and physical artifacts as evidence of their
297 collaborative efforts (Dillenbourg, 1999). This is a challenge for both teachers
298 and students in managing time, space, and cognitive processes. One of the ways
299 this project supports collaborative learning is through a computer-supported col-
300 laborative learning (CSCL) system, Knowledge Constructor, which is an online
301 discussion tool that represents discussion threads in a graphical form. A screenshot
302 of Knowledge Constructor environment of one of the forum discussions is shown in
303 Fig. 1.

304 Knowledge Constructor provides an easily accessible common space for regis-
305 tered students to share and negotiate ideas. The database of ideas and interaction
306 on the asynchronous system provides a permanent record of individual and group
307 deliberation over the problem, thus allowing ideas to be read and built on anywhere
308 and anytime. The graphical representation of student's ideas, with links showing
309 how each idea is built upon, displays the interconnectedness of multiple viewpoints.
310 Exposing individual responses to ideas allows them to be scrutinized by others and
311 helps to trigger cognitive activity around the ideas. However, technology alone may
312 not be sufficient to support students' agency, as will be demonstrated by case exam-
313 ple 1 below. Instead cognitive scaffolds, as will be illustrated in case example 2, are
314 equally crucial to support students' agency.
315



332 Fig. 1 Screenshot of knowledge constructor environment

335 Case Example 1

337 Case example 1 illustrates a group of five 14-year-old students solving a physics
338 problem based on the topic of two-dimension kinematics. They were tasked to find
339 out the length of a string needed to drop a parcel onto a pre-designated area from
340 a remote-controlled car running on tracks placed above a table. In line with the
341 PBL approach, students were to identify and explore learning issues and propose
342 solutions to solve the problem with the newly constructed knowledge. However,
343 observation showed little motivation from the students to discuss learning issues
344 identified. For example, learning issues raised by individual students such as “does
345 gravity affect velocity of the package as it falls to the ground” were dismissed by
346 other group members to be irrelevant without any convincing justification. Similar
347 questions that sought to understand the effect of “flying forward of the parcel (being)
348 a factor in the experiment” and the effect of “velocity of the dropping parcel (on)
349 the displacement of where the parcel would hit” merely drew cursory responses
350 (i.e., “yes”) from other group members. The result of an absence of exploration and
351 critical discussion of the learning issues raised was many missed opportunities to
352 advance the group’s understanding of two-dimension kinematics. Having to propose
353 a solution to the given problem, two of the students sought the help of their older
354 sibling or school seniors to provide scientifically consistent answers. However, they
355 were unable to explain their solutions when questioned. Another proposed solution
356 was obtained through trial-and-error. When asked about their apparent lack of
357 agency in searching for information, constructing new understandings, and solving
358 the problem, one student said that she often did not know what to search for since
359 she had little idea what topic was relevant to the problem context. Thus it was dif-
360 ficult to participate meaningfully in the online discussion with the little knowledge

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361 they had. In other words, while technological supports such as CSCL system may be
362 necessary for ideas to be recorded, displayed, and built upon, technology alone may
363 not be a sufficient condition for knowledge creation. Without appropriate cognitive
364 structures to signpost the content area relevant to the problem, it may be difficult for
365 students to be engaged in any meaningful talk.

369 *Case Example 2*

370
371 To address the design gaps described in case example 1, two key interventions were
372 introduced to the next design cycle to assist students in identifying and exploring rel-
373 evant learning issues. First, the problem task provided clear indication of the topic
374 area associated to the problem. This was meant to direct students' attention to the
375 relevant topic so that meaningful and relevant ideas might be shared and discussed
376 among the students. Second, a knowledge-building process *precedes* problem solv-
377 ing. The knowledge-building process, which *engages* students in building shared
378 knowledge among the group members, was meant to encourage students to con-
379 struct their understanding of the problem context before applying the knowledge to
380 solve the problem. The result of these interventions was an improved demonstration
381 of students' agency.

382 Case example 2 shows a group of five high school students trying to find out
383 the causes of a roller coaster accident. They were instructed by their teacher (1) to
384 derive a mathematical expression to explain how the roller coaster ride worked by
385 considering energy changes as the roller coaster cart moved down a slope and (2) to
386 test their hypothesis for the reason why the roller coaster cart overshot its usual stop-
387 ping distance. By directing students' attention to the "energy changes" in the roller
388 coaster ride, students were able to identify and explore learning issues relevant to
389 the problem right from the start of the THINK cycle. A question raised by one of
390 the students about the effect of friction on the roller coaster cart drew many built-
391 on notes from her team members, who enthusiastically posted information that they
392 found on the Internet. They posted information about the effect of friction on energy
393 changes, the work–energy theorem, and interpretation of the relationship among the
394 different forms of energy associated with a roller coaster ride in a coherent man-
395 ner. While some of these threads might seem shallow in cognitive processes since
396 most information was taken directly off the Internet, there were other threads that
397 demonstrated a high degree of critical thinking. The excerpt in Table 1, which shows
398 students evaluating a piece of information taken from the Internet, is one example.

399 In note 21, student M questioned whether it was possible to "eliminate other fac-
400 tors like air resistance, friction" as shared by student J in note 17. This led student
401 J to evaluate the two effects of the two forces on the roller coaster (i.e., "friction
402 would affect the roller coaster more than the air resistance" in note 30), justifying
403 that "the roller coaster has more contact with the track than the air" in note 37.
404 Although this interpretation might seem somewhat inconsistent with the scientific
405 view, this thread of discussion nonetheless showed students' engagement, critically

Table 1 Excerpt of students discussing information obtained from the Internet

Note	Author	Date/time	Content
17	J	2006-07-26 10:11:51	Once a roller coaster has reached its initial summit and begins its descent, the forces acting upon it are gravity, normal force and dissipative forces such as air resistance. . . . air resistance is able to do work upon cars, draining a small amount of energy from the total mechanical energy which the cars possess . . . Since the effect is small, it is often neglected. By neglecting the influence of air resistance, it can be said that the total mechanical energy of the train of cars is conserved during the ride. . . . Energy is neither gained nor lost, . . . http://www.glenbrook.k12.il.us/gbssci/phys/mmedia/energy/ce.html
21	M	2006-07-26 10:18:45	Iff u eliminate other factors like air resistance, friction etc, the roller coaster will never stopp in the first place since energy is neither gain nor lost if, u concentrate on factors like mass, speed the result wil be completly different from the one which includes air resistance and friction
30	J	2006-07-26 10:30:13	Friction would affect the roller coaster more than the air resistance and cannot be negligent. friction would cause energy to be converted to heat energy and thus lesser energy would be available for kinetic energy, and distanced object moves is reduced
34	Ms Cho	2006-07-26 10:35:57	Why do you say that the effect of air resistance is less than friction?
37	J	2006-07-26 10:39:15	The air resistance is smaller than friction because the roller coaster has more contact with the track than the air. furthermore, there is gravity acting on the train, pulling it to the track which makes friction greater as gravity has to be overcome to create horizontal motion

discussing the ideas related to the problem context. This was an improvement from the shallow responses to learning issues raised in case example 1. The result of this sharing of information and critical discussion of ideas was a mathematical expression that describes how the roller coaster cart worked. However, due to an error in assumption made about the effect of friction on the roller coaster ride, the students found that the empirical evidence they obtained from the model setup of the roller coaster was not consistent with their derived expression. This led student D to question, “what have we neglected in e process of driving e final equation?” Her question triggered another round of inquiry into the construction of the mathematical expression – a demonstration of students’ agency as they questioned the assumption made about the problem context, reexamined their interpretation of the work–energy theorem, refined the mathematical expression, and tested their refined expression against empirical evidences, all done without much prompting from the teacher. Eventually, they found that they had to take into account air resistance in

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451 this problem context as they wrote in their report that “Without adding in air resis-
452 tance into external forces, the stopping distance is the same, so air resistance does
453 affect the stopping distance, . . .” The result of this design cycle was a significant
454 advancement of the group’s understanding of the work–energy theorem as the stu-
455 dents had delved more deeply into the meaning of the theorem through repeated
456 cycles of knowledge building and problem solving. One key attribute to the advance-
457 ment of the group’s knowledge was the motivation and ownership the students had
458 in self-directing their learning process. High level of cognitive processes was also
459 involved as students compared and evaluated different ideas they encountered about
460 the problem context and eventually applied the ideas they had constructed to the
461 problem.

462 In a nutshell, the two case examples show the importance of students’ agency in
463 knowledge creation. However, technology alone is not sufficient for supporting stu-
464 dents’ agency. Equally important are the cognitive and content scaffolds that provide
465 students with a common direction in their learning process.

466 467 468 **Vignette 2: Design of Technologies and Learner Voice**

469
470 The main thread cuts across the various projects in Learning Sciences and
471 Technologies group, and Learning Sciences Lab is to work in partnership with the
472 teachers and through observing how learners work with technologies for develop-
473 ment and local adaptations. One such design approach is to incorporate the diverse
474 voices of stakeholders in developing a game for learning Earth system science,
475 named Voyage to the Age of Dinosaurs (VAD) (Kim, Miao, Chavez, & Shen, 2007).
476 This game intends to provide an immersive experience by recreating and replaying
477 portions of Earth’s history using intelligent agent technology and a 3D multi-user
478 game environment. The design process is largely dedicated to understanding and
479 designing with learner voices by foregrounding learners’ interests, opinions, and
480 ideas about dinosaurs, earth dynamics, and games. This project attempts to address
481 design problems of many artifacts and rules in educational games not fostering
482 learning and many designers only talking to the users through the final product
483 (Norman, 2004). The second author of the chapter is the principal investigator of
484 the project, and we will briefly describe the past and future design workshops and
485 how they are contributing to the design.

486
487 The research team is in the second year of collaboration with two secondary
488 schools for the informant design process (e.g., Druin, 2002; Scaife et al., 1997).
489 One of the key intentions of the informant design workshops was to create ten-
490 tions in which learners’ role would shift from passive recipients of knowledge in
491 the classroom to providers of ideas as the empowered and acknowledged experts in
492 their own rights (Kim et al., 2009). The research team meets with teachers regularly
493 without students to review the design workshop results and prototype development
494 progress, and the teachers come back to the design workshop with their students
495

(approximately 10 students from each school). We started the first workshop when the students were at the beginning of their Secondary 1 school year (Grade 7).

Workshop I: Learner Conceptions

An after-school workshop was conducted in each school. Small groups of three to four students worked with a research team facilitator in order to elicit students' understandings of the targeted Earth systems science concepts and phenomena (Geography in Singapore; e.g., earth morphology, plate tectonics, volcanoes, earthquakes, and rock formation) and to understand students' processes of reasoning and explanations. The team developed a set of open-ended questions and asked them to explain individually using diagrams and writing. Gobert and Clement(1999) found that diagramming helped students understanding of both the spatial/static and causal/dynamic aspects of Earth's processes and, therefore, better represents their understanding.

Regardless of their exposure to formal lesson on these topics, students' depth of understanding and explanations were mostly shallow with few exceptions, and the level of vocabulary and scientific terms used varied quite a bit. Students wrote their responses individually or as a group (with text and diagrams) and discussed their ideas (see Table 2). In Table 2, drawing and the quote from one of the workshop I participants exemplifies how he was dependent on an authoritative voice (his mother) describing his ideas of earthquake, but at the same time, he, presumably, interpreted it in his own ways by hearing "plates" as "blades." The research team found that participants during the first workshop were generally more passive, looking for "credible" sources of information (i.e., recalling some facts or images and fitting their explanations to what they remembered from lessons, textbooks, television programs, popular books, magazines, etc.), and trying to find out whether or not their answers are acceptable to the facilitator.

Workshop II: Stories of Earth and Dinosaurs

The second workshop was held over 2 days during school holidays in order to give students an opportunity to work together in groups of four (mixture of students from two schools), outside of school in a different environment, and to brainstorm and develop ideas about dinosaurs, fossils, and the prehistoric environment by beginning to draft stories about dinosaurs based on their interests and ideas. The same group of students from the first workshop was engaged in various activities: on the first day at the Singapore Science Centre they visited the Dinosaur Alive! Exhibit and watched an IMAX movie about dinosaur excavation; on the second day at the Singapore Botanic Garden and NIE's MxL Lab they visited the evolution garden, generated and presented their stories and scripts, created short movies from their scripts, and so forth.

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Table 2. Design workshops and example artifacts

Workshop	What it looked like	Artifact	Discourse
Workshop I: Learner conceptions			<p>"My mother said that the blades move, then it shakes the ground which will start to crack."</p>
Workshop II: Stories of earth and dinosaurs			<p>"Later I cry then you start... Ok ready. Then you say 'eh, I found something leh.' Don't say you found a bone. Then you cry with me like that."</p>
Workshop III: Dinosaur Game Play and ideas			<p>"They (dinosaurs) invent a, the time traveling machine from the past, go to the future."</p>

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586 The common characteristic of their movies across different groups was “role-
587 playing.” They liked to play the role of paleontologists who find fossils of dinosaurs.
588 One of the groups described, “Back in the laboratory situated in the city of Beijing.
589 We, the group of paleontologists, took out the fossils we found for research.” The
590 climax of their stories tended to include dinosaurs fighting before their resulting
591 death and burial. Dinosaurs’ actions in these scenes usually reflect how they were
592 depicted as fossils in previous scenes about fossil findings. Below is one example of
593 such scenes:

594 The Meilong gave a loud screech that frightened its prey so badly that it appears to have
595 its leg rooted into the ground. As it ate its prey in satisfaction, a Dilong Paradoxus jumped
596 in to snatch the Meilong’s delicious lunch. Seeing its own food being snatched away, the
597 Meilong decided to attack the Dilong Paradoxus.

598 Table 2 shows how students were making movies together with the props and
599 backdrops provided by the research team. Students chose what dinosaurs they would
600 like to feature in their movie (from early Cretaceous, China Liaoning province),
601 wrote their scripts of present and past (paleontologist finding fossils as well as how
602 the dinosaurs found in the fossils were interacting with each other in the past), and
603 filmed their movies by acting out various emotions, Earth processes, and actions of
604 dinosaurs and paleontologists. The figure inside of the example artifact is the screen
605 capture of the movie made by one of the groups, called T-Rex. In that particular
606 scene, two students were acting as paleontologists who finally found some fossils
607 after a long search. The excerpt beside it is from the conversation during their film-
608 ing, in which the group was detailing the interactions: they were crying while going
609 back to their car without any finding, but stumbling onto something that turned
610 out to be a fossil. This particular group started their script writing by imitating the
611 movie and a short script example written in the script-writing template. However,
612 they started to speak through what Bahktin (1981) called “internally persuasive dis-
613 course” as they tried to represent volcanic eruptions, paleontologists’ excavations,
614 and fossilization of the dinosaurs they featured. By observing how they are making
615 meanings about actions, emotions, and cognitions of the whole movie script, the
616 research team is able to capture ideas about how to distribute such emotions and
617 cognitions within the 3D game environment.

620 ***Workshop III: Dinosaur Game Play and Ideas***

622 The third design workshop was held at one of the schools to elicit students’ ideas
623 on game design. The research team brought laptop computers with the prototype
624 version 1 installed, video cameras, and blank flip charts for them to draw and write
625 their ideas. Students initially played the prototype and discussed with their group
626 members as to what are the things they would like to see in the next prototype.
627 They basically wanted more complexity, challenge, and advanced weapons in the
628 game that are more comparable to the commercial games. They were given chance
629 to evaluate two existing commercial games featuring dinosaurs as characters and
630 come up with their own “hottest” game in town. In Table 2, Workshop III, the group

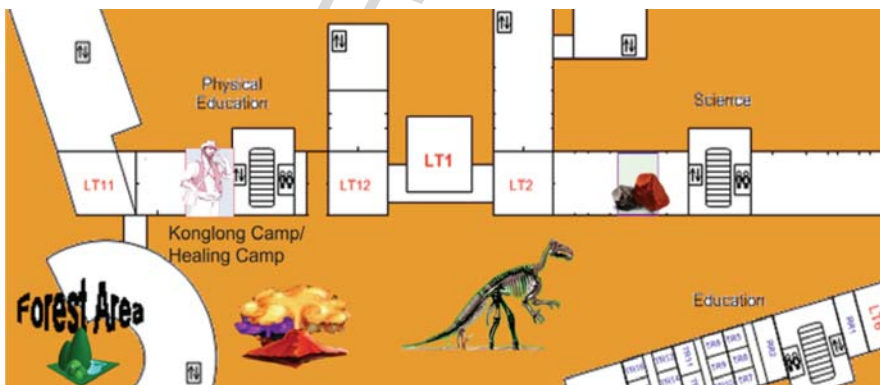
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631 is discussing and putting the information on the project website and also writing
 632 their ideas on the sheet (on the table in the picture) to share with others. During the
 633 sharing session, students as well as researchers walk through each group's station
 634 to hear their ideas and provide feedback. Out of classroom context and content,
 635 students were voicing out their ideas without being concerned too much about what
 636 adults (i.e., teachers and researchers who were present in the workshop) thought
 637 about their ideas and were not looking for confirmations from them. They were
 638 more critical to each other: one student was giving feedback to the sharing group
 639 by saying, "hey, the game is supposed to be educational. You have too much killing
 640 going on!"

641 Overall, first-person shooter genre, multi-missions/quests, and various skills for
 642 characters were reflected in their "hottest" games. For example, in Table 2, quote
 643 for Workshop III, one of the teams personified the dinosaur characters, which are
 644 intelligent enough to develop a time machine and attack people in the future. They
 645 also discussed level system, punishment and reward system (e.g., money and exper-
 646 ience points as reward), and various weapons (e.g., FireGun, IceGun, WindGun,
 647 FreezeGun, Rocket Launcher, Bombs, Big Nets, etc.).

649 *Workshop IV and Beyond: Experiencing the Story and the Concept* 650 *of the Game*

652 The research team is currently developing the next prototype and planning for the
 653 next design workshops. As the team is shaping up the game, the previous workshops
 654 on learners' conceptions, story ideas, and game ideas are constantly revisited. The
 655 subsequent design workshops will be focused on experiencing the story and the
 656 concepts in the game in the physical setting as well as in the game itself, so that
 657 learners, teachers, and members of the research team can think more deeply about
 658 what kind of interactions could enhance their game experience and learning within
 659 3D virtual world. Figure 2 shows the tentative map for the trail within NIE where
 660 learners will have a simulated experience similar to the current game prototype.
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Fig. 2 Trail map for workshop IV

676 One of the trail stop is again for them to play the prototyped game and provide
677 their ideas and feedback. The following design workshop (workshop V) is being
678 planned to make a conceptually richer experience as to visiting actual place where
679 learners can touch, see, and imagine the Earth processes, such as fossil site, rocky
680 hills, dormant volcanic mountain, or hot springs.

684 Conclusion

686 The above vignettes of our research effort feature one of the key characteristics
687 of the nature of Learning Sciences research projects: working in partnership with
688 students and teachers and through design experiments ~~and observing~~ how learners
689 work with technologies for development and local adaptations.

690 In the past, misunderstanding about constructivist learning has led to futile effort
691 by instructor designers, learners, and instructors. ~~In~~ some classrooms, we saw stu-
692 dents bustling with activities, but when we analyzed the talks, there was not much
693 meaning making and knowledge construction. We now take a holistic, multi-faceted
694 approach that recognizes instructor's effort in designing and structuring the learn-
695 ing environments and also takes into consideration learners' agency and voice. The
696 first vignette shows that even if a teacher were to relinquish power to the students,
697 students may not readily take up ownership of their learning. Learner agency needs
698 to be supported with technology and other resources for knowledge construction
699 to occur. The second vignette shows our approach in involving students in learn-
700 ing design, thus creating conditions to encourage the students to shift from passive
701 recipients of knowledge in the classroom to providers of ideas; in a way we are
702 empowering them and signifying their contributions as partners of the design pro-
703 cess. ~~We begin to see~~ evidence that such effort would lead to meaningful learning
704 with technology, ~~which gives us confidence to proceed with our approach.~~

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Chapter 8

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Q. No.	Query
AQ1	Please check the sentence “We have witnessed how Internet. . .” for clarity.
AQ2	Please check the edit made to the sentence “The goal is to put. . .”.
AQ3	Please provide better quality figure.
AQ4	The usage of “tentions” is not clear in the sentence “One of the key intentions of the informant design workshops . . .” Please check.

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