

01 **Chapter 10**
02 **Computer-Supported Collaboration Scripts**

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05 **Perspectives from Educational Psychology**
06 **and Computer Science**

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09 **Armin Weinberger, Ingo Kollar, Yannis Dimitriadis, Kati Mäkitalo-Siegl**
10 **and Frank Fischer**

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16 **Abstract** Students are often at a loss for what to do or have inadequate ideas of
17 how to build knowledge collaboratively through computer-supported collaborative
18 learning (CSCL). Facilitating specific CSCL processes by providing learners with
19 computer-supported collaboration scripts is regarded as a promising approach. Im-
20 plemented in CSCL environments, computer-supported collaboration scripts spec-
21 ify, sequence and distribute roles and activities. Scripts are intended to scaffold
22 activities that students could not yet engage in on their own. One of the main chal-
23 lenges of this approach for realising effective CSCL is the continuous adaptation
24 of scripts to learners' needs and knowledge. Efforts to specify and formalise script
25 components and mechanisms have led to an integrative framework for computer
26 scientists, educational scientists and psychologists of what constitutes computer-
27 supported collaboration scripts as well as a growing library of prototypical CSCL
28 scripts.

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30 **Keywords** Collaboration script · Computer-supported collaborative learning
31 (CSCL) · External script · Internal script · Scripting · Modelling · Formalisation ·
32 Adaptivity

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35 **10.1 Challenges of Implementing Effective Collaborative**
36 **Learning**

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38 Collaborative learning is a central component of many current theoretical and
39 practical approaches to learning and instruction and is assumed to foster specific
40 learning processes and outcomes. Having ownership of their learning processes,
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43 A. Weinberger (✉)
44 Department of Instructional Technology, University of Twente, Enschede, The Netherlands
45 e-mail: a.weinberger@utwente.nl

01 collaborative learners are expected to elaborate and share knowledge with peers and
02 thus acquire and become able to apply domain-specific knowledge as well as attain-
03 ing soft outcomes, such as self-esteem, motivation, and social skills (Johnson &
04 Johnson, 2002; Lave & Wenger, 1991; O'Donnell & King, 1999; Slavin, 1995;
05 Vygotsky, 1978). However, implementing effective collaborative learning in schools
06 and universities today is a challenging task. Imagine a university teacher giving an
07 introductory lecture to about 100 students on some basic approaches in educational
08 psychology, such as theories of attribution. Beyond the lecture itself, in which the
09 basic theories should be introduced, the lecturer wants the students to learn how to
10 apply the psychological theories to single problem cases collaboratively, including
11 additional literature in their work. Therefore, students are expected to learn collab-
12 oratively through solving complex problems. Guiding a large number of students
13 through a problem-oriented learning environment including facilitation of specific
14 activities and providing feedback is a challenging task. Throughout this chapter, this
15 example will be revisited to outline how computer-supported collaboration scripts
16 can help to realise effective collaborative learning scenarios.

17 Computers can support collaborative learning through a number of communi-
18 cation and representation tools, such as asynchronous discussion boards or wikis,
19 creating a virtual space for students to work on learning tasks together (Chapter 1;
20 Stahl, Koschmann, & Suthers, 2006). Yet merely assigning a collaborative task and
21 providing learners with communication tools may not suffice to establish effective
22 (computer-supported) collaborative learning. Teachers therefore need to scaffold
23 learners in building and maintaining shared understanding (see Chapter 1; Dillen-
24 bourg, 1999; Fischer & Mandl, 2005; Mäkitalo, Weinberger, Häkkinen, Järvelä, &
25 Fischer, 2005; Weinberger, Stegmann, & Fischer, 2007b). As educational psycholo-
26 gists and computer scientists, we must investigate ways of supporting both learners
27 and teachers in reaching their goals in collaborative learning and teaching.

28 Computer-supported collaboration scripts (CSCL scripts) are an approach to
29 setting up and facilitating effective collaborative learning and can be defined as a
30 specific type of instructional support or scaffold. There is a variety of scaffolding
31 techniques for very different purposes (see Quintana et al., 2004). What makes col-
32 laboration scripts special (both for face-to-face groups and for computer-mediated
33 groups) is their focus on the collaboration process between two or more group mem-
34 bers. That is, collaboration scripts do not necessarily provide guidance on a concep-
35 tual level (for example by providing content-specific prompts such as “Explain why
36 ball A moved slower after it hit ball B”), but rather on a (collaboration) process level
37 (e.g. “Listen to your partner’s explanation and think about counterarguments for her
38 explanation”).

39 On a macro-level, CSCL scripts can structure and link lectures, individual and
40 collaborative learning phases in face-to-face or in computer-mediated environments.
41 For instance, the university lecturer in the above example might design a script that
42 coordinates the distribution of resources between the lecture and an online environ-
43 ment. Additional literature that is downloadable in an online course management
44 system could be identified in the lecture. After handing out specific reading and
45 writing assignments to individual learners, groups of three or four students could
be formed. In these groups, learners could be assigned the task of collaboratively

01 analysing problem cases on the basis of theoretical texts they have read and initial
02 ideas they have noted down individually.

03 On a micro-level, CSCL scripts scaffold specific collaborative learning processes
04 and provide learners with more or less detailed instructions concerning the types
05 and sequence of different activities and roles they are expected to perform during
06 collaboration (Kollar, Fischer, & Hesse, 2006). Unlike early scripting approaches,
07 CSCL scripts may be designed flexibly to guide learners to communicate and share
08 representations of their knowledge. CSCL scripts could be adapted by learners as
09 well as by teachers to fit specific pedagogical scenarios and goals.

10 Besides supporting the implementation of scripts in a specific learning environ-
11 ment, computers can also support the design and adaptation of scripts to different
12 learning environments. In the university lecture example, specific interaction pat-
13 terns could be facilitated by assigning different roles to the students, such as case
14 analyst and constructive critic. These roles in turn can be supported by sentence
15 starters provided in asynchronous discussion boards within the CSCL platform, such
16 as “The most important theoretical concepts that can be applied here are . . .” or
17 “What I did not understand was. . .” (see Weinberger, Ertl, Fischer, & Mandl, 2005).

18 For the remainder of this chapter, the university lecture example will be used as a
19 reference when synthesising recent theoretical, empirical and design-related devel-
20 opments in educational psychology and computer science leading to the specifica-
21 tion and formalisation of CSCL scripts. The following sections elucidate how CSCL
22 scripts can be designed to facilitate learners’ transition from other- to self-regulation
23 and outline a vision for future research and practice.

26 **10.2 Outlines of a Script Theory of Collaborative Learning**

28 An essential aspect of most forms of collaborative learning is that peers verbally
29 negotiate with each other about how to solve specific learning tasks, with the goal
30 of acquiring knowledge individually. Learners’ interaction processes are therefore
31 assumed to be related to cognitive processes of learning in “spirals of reciprocity”
32 (Salomon & Perkins, 1998). In constructing explanations and arguments, learners
33 outline and thereby restructure their individual knowledge in a linear form. Recip-
34 rocally, learners hear their peers’ arguments, which may comprise additional re-
35 sources in solving a task and prompt learners to reply and construct new (counter-)
36 arguments. Learners who are able to balance arguments fairly will thus acquire
37 knowledge individually, which in turn enables them to execute cognitive activities
38 on a higher level (Schwarz, Neuman, Gil, & Ilya, 2003).

42 **10.2.1 Internal and External Scripts**

44 One reason for the wide variation in students’ learning and academic success
45 lies in different patterns of socialisation in the classroom (e.g. teacher–student or

01 student–student interactions, actual instruction, teacher’s expectations; Brophy &
02 Good, 1986). Students may know little about how to collaborate and learn together.
03 For instance, learners often lack procedural knowledge of how to construct and in-
04 terpret arguments. This procedural knowledge has been conceptualised as *internal*
05 *scripts* (Kollar, Fischer, & Slotta, 2007).

06 From a cognitive psychology perspective, internal scripts are understood as a
07 particular type of cognitive schemata: cognitive constructs that help individuals un-
08 derstand and act in meaningful ways in dynamic events (Kolodner, 2007; Schank &
09 Abelson, 1977). In other words, individuals have already existing expectations, a set
10 of beliefs and a repertoire of possible actions to choose from in certain situations.
11 If the situation is new, individuals refer to similar past experiences and modify their
12 behaviour accordingly to better fit the new situation. From a schema theory perspec-
13 tive, collaborative learners would share some more or less elaborated knowledge
14 on what events and activities could be expected during the learning process. For
15 instance, some learners might expect to communicate with their partners and par-
16 ticipate more or less equally in working on a joint task. Depending on the novelty
17 of the situation, learners may also have more elaborated scripts and sub-scripts,
18 such as introducing yourself and your perspective on the task, asking questions,
19 giving explanations, providing counterarguments, synthesising different opinions,
20 documenting group processes and outcomes (with specific artefacts) and coming to
21 a joint conclusion.

22 Contrary to Schank and Abelson’s (1977) initial conceptualisation, scripts are not
23 rigid plans that determine processes from start to end (cf. Suchman, 1988, 2003), but
24 culturally shared knowledge represented within the individual mind about abstract
25 events and activities that take different concrete forms in single instances of col-
26 laborative learning events. As a result, internal scripts are postulated to be flexible
27 enough to adjust to changes in the collaborative situation as well as to be applied
28 in different collaborative learning situations. As CSCL may pose a particular novel
29 situation for most, learners’ internal scripts may be less elaborated, lack specific
30 sub-scripts or bias learners’ perceptions and lead to inadequate activities with re-
31 spect to the collaborative learning goals.

32 As internal scripts often appear to be fragmentary and even dysfunctional, col-
33 laborative learning has been facilitated with experimenter-generated (O’Donnell &
34 Dansereau, 1992) or *external scripts* (Kollar et al., 2007). External scripting involves
35 an approach that aims to scaffold learners and facilitate knowledge acquisition at the
36 level of the groups and the individuals by specifying, sequencing and distributing
37 roles and activities. Different from theatre scripts, external collaboration scripts are
38 to guide and scaffold rather than impose learners’ collaborative activities. Different
39 from internal scripts, which are flexible and adaptive to changes in the collabora-
40 tive situation, external scripts are generally set up prior to collaboration and cannot
41 be adapted to situational demands arising during the collaborative process. One
42 major issue of CSCL research on scripts is therefore to investigate how external
43 scripts can become more flexible for learners to use in different collaborative sce-
44 narios and CSCL platforms through specification and formalisation of scripts (see
45 Section 10.3.2).

01 Another key difference between internal and external scripts is that the latter
02 are represented first by means of cultural artefacts, such as chairs and tables, pen
03 and paper or online discussion boards. External scripts may also be represented
04 in teacher contributions or in a text handed out to the learners (Kollar et al., 2006).
05 Only as a second step are external scripts internally represented by the learners. That
06 is, learners are challenged to make sense of the situation with the help of external
07 scripts, but also to make sense of the external script itself. External scripts thus com-
08 plement and potentially alter learners' internal scripts. This is especially desirable
09 when the external script represents important strategies within a domain that should
10 ultimately be acquired individually by the learners. To illustrate, goals of science
11 education may include learning how to construct and analyse sound arguments in
12 a domain, how to review literature and critically reflect on hypotheses or how to
13 investigate hypotheses and interpret data. Research on scripts that aimed to facili-
14 tate the construction of single arguments and argumentation sequences has shown
15 to facilitate not only the specified activities during the collaborative phase but also
16 the individual acquisition of argumentative knowledge (Stegmann, Weinberger, &
17 Fischer, 2007).

18 However, not all scripts are to be internalised. Some scripts or script components
19 may regulate effortful functions that are not directly connected to cognitive activities
20 of learning, such as group formation or regulating turn taking within these small
21 groups (e.g. Pfister, 2005). CSCL scripts should be represented in the individual
22 learners' mind to different degrees and time spans for the purpose of modifying the
23 emerging interaction patterns in CSCL environments. These observable interaction
24 patterns can be referred to as another representation of scripts (see Section 10.2.2).
25 They do not result from any single script being executed, but from the combined
26 and reciprocal effect of different learners' internal and external scripts including
27 non-intentional situational affordances.

28 An important design decision that must be made in the university lecture example
29 is whether the script itself should induce a strategy and to what degree it should be
30 internalised. The university teacher may decide that the students in the course should
31 learn to construct sound arguments based on psychological theories. To this end,
32 learners' messages could be classified as arguments or counterarguments and con-
33 tain prompts suggesting that learners warrant and qualify their claims. The teacher
34 may also consider what an ideal argumentation sequence in terms of emerging pat-
35 terns of student interaction is supposed to look like (cf. Stegmann et al., 2007) and
36 what aspects of the argumentative interaction are thought to need support or are
37 already represented within students' internal scripts.

40 ***10.2.2 Scripts and Observable Interaction Patterns***

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42 The basic rationale of scripted collaboration implies that students acquire knowl-
43 edge individually by engaging in specific learning activities. Consequently, script
44 design depends essentially on the designer's theoretical model of which specific
45 collaborative learning activities and interaction patterns impinge on individual

01 knowledge acquisition. In one such model, termed *argumentative knowledge construction*,
 02 collaborative learners acquire knowledge individually in particular when
 03 they construct sound, elaborate and well-interlinked arguments (Weinberger &
 04 Fischer, 2004).

05 Scripts are meant to facilitate individual knowledge construction mainly through
 06 supporting these specific activities. However, learners do not necessarily follow a
 07 particular external script in full. When especially several scripts exist, learners'
 08 actual observable activities and interaction patterns may not resemble any partic-
 09 ular script. Both internal and external scripts as well as situational components co-
 10 determine the actual interaction patterns observed. Although it has been shown that
 11 students basically adhere to external script structures, some variance can be found
 12 with respect to the degree to which external scripts regulate collaborative learning
 13 activities (Weinberger, Stegmann, Fischer, & Mandl, 2007). Over longer periods of
 14 time especially, external scripts may become redundant or even dysfunctional when
 15 they are not dynamically adapted to learners' needs throughout the course of the
 16 learning process. This dynamic adaptation could be realised by teachers who contin-
 17 uously monitor the collaborative learning activities, by the learners themselves who
 18 could choose what script support to select or drop, or by software that could propose
 19 scripts to teachers or learners based on automatic analyses of learners' interaction
 20 patterns (Dönmez, Rosé, Stegmann, Weinberger, & Fischer, 2005).

21 There is yet little knowledge about how internal scripts may guide collabora-
 22 tive learners and how learners converge or diverge with respect to how they han-
 23 dle learning tasks together. Typically, students may not make their internal scripts
 24 explicit. One may assume that learners quickly converge on a common style (e.g.
 25 through primacy effects) and participate according to how motivation and compe-
 26 tencies are distributed within the small group of learners (Weinberger, Stegmann, &
 27 Fischer, 2007a). As little is known about the ways in which internal scripts of group
 28 members interact, there is also little knowledge on how internal and external scripts
 29 interact in qualitatively different ways. Thus far, researchers have converged on the
 30 notion that external scripting needs to be adapted to learners' internal scripts. The
 31 more learners are able to self-regulate their collaborative learning processes, the less
 32 elaborated and regulative an external script should be (Cohen, 1994).

33 With respect to the university lecture example, this leaves us with the question of
 34 how to adapt external scripts to learners' internal scripts. After the university lecturer
 35 analysed what kinds of internal scripts the students held and how elaborated these
 36 internal scripts were, the lecturer could select external scripts that regulate activi-
 37 ties that the respective learners would normally not engage in, such as constructing
 38 warranted claims. Based on continuous analyses of learners' arguments – possibly
 39 supported through automatic discourse analysis software (Dönmez et al., 2005) –
 40 the lecturer could decide if and when to gradually fade out the script.

43 **10.2.3 Internalising External Scripts**

44 Early scripting approaches were proposed before computers became ubiquitous
 45 learning tools and aimed to facilitate collaborative learning processes by instructing

01 learners to engage in a specific sequence of activities (O'Donnell & Dansereau,
02 1992). Some of these approaches additionally provided learners with scaffolds,
03 such as sentence starters or prompts that learners were expected to respond to
04 and complete when learning together (King, 1999). Unlike CSCL scripts, learners
05 were taught how to use these early scripts prior to collaborative learning phases,
06 mostly by teacher-guided instruction. Such scripts were represented in paper form
07 or through verbal instructions only. These early approaches often emphasised that
08 the actual goal of scripting collaboration was to help students become self-regulated
09 learners (e.g. King, 2007). At least during the initial stages of the learning pro-
10 cess, the facilitation of self-regulated learning therefore entails a certain degree of
11 other-regulation (see Kollar & Fischer, 2006), which in later stages may be grad-
12 ually reduced or "faded out" (Pea, 2004). From a script perspective, the transition
13 from other- to self-regulation can be conceptualised as a gradual internalisation of
14 scripts – not including those external scripts that are not meant to be internalised
15 (see above). The goal of this internalisation is for learners to become more and
16 more self-guided individuals who can solve problems by relying primarily on their
17 internal resources. Scripts are more effective once internalised, because they are
18 more accessible and a smaller load to working memory capacity than external
19 scripts.

20 In a study conducted in an inquiry learning context, Kollar and colleagues (2007;
21 see also Kollar, 2006) found that highly structured external CSCL scripts can indeed
22 overlie the internal scripts that learners bring to the collaborative learning situation.
23 However, after the external script was faded out and not available to the learners any
24 more, the learners did not engage in the activities suggested by the external scripts
25 and mainly followed their original internal scripts. Thus, there was no evidence
26 for a strong internalisation of external script components. However, the duration of
27 the learning session was rather short. Internalisation of external scripts may be more
28 likely to be observed over longer periods of time. This, however, is subject to further
29 examination.

30 Another possibility could be the pace of fading of external scripts. Transition
31 from other- to self-regulation can possibly be realised with a gradual fading of
32 external script components rather than an on-off switch of scripts. CSCL scripts
33 may be more flexibly designed and capable of being faded out in comparison to
34 teacher-instructed scripts (Kobbe et al., 2007). Additionally, regulation of activities
35 may be temporarily shifted from external scripts to co-learners, who could continue
36 to control the engagement in the formerly scripted activities. An empirical study
37 on fading out of computer-supported collaboration scripts in a university context
38 produced promising results by showing that distributing metacognitive functions to
39 co-learners when the script fades out is a fruitful way to facilitate the internalisation
40 of scripts (Wecker & Fischer, 2007).

41 The university lecturer in our example thus needs to decide how to support the
42 transition from other- to self-regulation and successively fade out the external script
43 components. There are indications that fading out in terms of switching scripts on
44 and off does not necessarily lead to learners' internalisation of the script and con-
45 tinued engagement in activities suggested by the script (Kollar et al., 2007). The
lecturer might want to motivate students to continue the scripted activities after

01 the script components are faded out by having the learners mutually control the
02 continued engagement in the specified activities and possibly also by rewarding
03 engagement in these activities.

04

05

06 ***10.2.4 How Do CSCL Scripts Work?***

07

08 CSCL scripts are considered an effective means of facilitating specific interac-
09 tion patterns in computer-supported collaborative learning situations (see Fischer,
10 Kollar Mandl, & Haake, 2007). External scripts are, however, ill defined in terms
11 of how their effects unfold in collaborative learning. Reducing process losses and
12 inducing specific cognitive activities related to individual knowledge acquisition are
13 two major functions of scripts. Introducing computers to classrooms drew attention
14 to the fact that learning and instruction are not only distributed between teachers
15 and students. Cognitive functions may be also distributed among the environment
16 and the tools being used in the learning process. For a first approximation, Kollar
17 and colleagues (2006) therefore proposed viewing CSCL as an instantiation of a
18 “person-plus-surround” system (Perkins, 1993, p. 89). The basic assumption of such
19 a systemic view is that cognition does not (only) happen in the minds of individual
20 learners (the “person-solos”), but that the group as a whole including the artefacts
21 it is using participates in cognition (“person plus surround”). A crucial question in
22 analysing a person-plus-surround system is which component(s) execute metacog-
23 nitive control such as goal setting or performance monitoring (Perkins, 1993, p. 96,
24 calls this the “executive function” within the person-plus-surround system). The
25 question as to whether students need a script that helps them to perform a particular
26 activity (and thereby takes over the executive function for the system) thus depends
27 heavily on the extent to which the collaborators (or at least one of them) are capable
28 of effectively regulating the group processes themselves.

29 With respect to inducing activities related to individual knowledge acquisition,
30 scripts should represent the procedural knowledge learners have not yet developed.
31 Still, even when internal and external scripts complement each other, they do not
32 simply combine so that learners are enabled to engage in specific activities, accom-
33 plish the learning task and acquire knowledge individually. Internal and external
34 scripts may interact in qualitatively different ways that are yet to be investigated.

35 From a scaffolding perspective, external scripts induce activities that learners
36 could not engage in without additional support, in the sense of Vygotsky’s zone of
37 proximal development (1978). The scaffolds provided to the learners do not make
38 activities necessary to complete the task redundant, but lead learners to engage in
39 the activities relevant for individual knowledge acquisition. From this perspective, it
40 is important to limit scripts to the regulation of specific functions and to include the
41 possibility for learners to take over the activities relevant for individual knowledge
42 construction without further support. If scripts relieve learners of vital collaborative
43 learning activities they might interfere with the social dynamics of the group and
44 even impede learning – a situation known as over-scripting (Dillenbourg, 2002).
45 Scripts might also provide too little help for some students or groups, which could

01 be called under-scripting. Therefore, there is a need to strike an optimal balance be-
02 tween internal and external scripts. One of the major issues in scripting is thus how
03 scripts can facilitate self-regulated learning and which collaborative and cognitive
04 activities the actual human agents in learning and teaching processes in authentic
05 classroom contexts are meant to take over when interpreting an external script and
06 when following script suggestions.

07 Scripts may also induce specific activities by shaping learners' expectations of
08 what is going to happen in the collaborative phase. Learners expecting to engage
09 in specific activities (e.g. giving explanations) have been found to acquire more
10 knowledge individually than learners who do not (Renkl, 1997). Making the col-
11 laborative scenario more transparent through scripts may also alter the motivational
12 configuration of the learning group. For instance, scripts explaining that all group
13 members are required to participate similarly may reduce social loafing and sucker
14 effects (Kerr, 1983; Latané, Williams, & Harkins, 1979). Scripts may also clarify
15 how specific activities may eventually lead to desired outcomes and thus increase
16 learners' motivation (Weinberger & Fischer, 2004).

17 With respect to reducing process losses, scripts may be designed to take over
18 effortful tasks not directly related to individual knowledge acquisition independent
19 of learners' capabilities. For instance, students may be perfectly able to distribute
20 responsibilities of sub-tasks or develop a schedule of who is doing what at what
21 time. External scripts may, however, take over these organisational tasks, thus al-
22 lowing learners to spend more time on the actual learning activities (cf. Weinberger,
23 Stegmann, Fischer, & Mandl, 2007). Given that learners generally adhere to script
24 prescriptions, external scripts may also reduce process losses by harmonising dif-
25 ferent internal scripts. Internal scripts can be considered as culturally shared proce-
26 dural knowledge, so that learners of one culture may carry similar internal scripts.
27 Collaborative learners from different cultures may thus particularly benefit from
28 following external script prescriptions (Weinberger, Clark, Häkkinen, Tamura, &
29 Fischer, 2007).

30 With respect to the university lecture example, the script may be designed to
31 first make explicit to the students that they are expected to construct arguments
32 and thus acquire important argumentative knowledge. The script may further con-
33 tain a task schedule to reduce process losses and facilitate the construction of
34 arguments, as by providing learners with an interface in which messages are ti-
35 tled arguments, counterarguments and syntheses by default (see Stegmann et al.,
36 2007).

37 38 39 **10.3 Specification, Formalisation, Design and Deployment** 40 **of CSCL Scripts**

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42 Research on scripts has predominantly been undertaken in the context of European
43 CSCL research, in which the script approach has had an increasing impact over
44 recent years (Fischer, Kollar et al., 2007; Fischer, Weinberger et al., 2007). The
45 CSCL context poses specific difficulties that scripts address, such as learners being

01 at loss of what to do in complex CSCL environments. It has been suggested that
 02 unstructured, problem-based CSCL environments are too demanding for learners
 03 to actually benefit more from them than from traditional instruction (cf. Kirschner,
 04 Sweller, & Clark, 2006). There are indications that collaborative learners surpass
 05 individual learners in a complex computer-supported environment only if they are
 06 supported by a script (Weinberger et al., 2007b).

AQ2

07 The script approach has been at the crossroads of several research and de-
 08 velopment fields and has attracted special attention, especially in the e-learning
 09 community, although sometimes under different terminology. Approaches such as
 10 Educational Modelling Languages (EML) in instructional design (Learning Tech-
 11 nology Standards Observatory, 2007), workflows in business processes (Vantroys &
 12 Peter, 2003) or patterns and visual languages (Botturi & Stubbs, 2008) share many
 13 ideas, assumptions and trends with the CSCL script approach (Vignollet, David,
 14 Ferraris, Martel, & Lejeune, 2006). Such a confluence heightens the need to take
 15 advantage of all previous and current related work, merge these perspectives and
 16 converge to a stable and widely accepted solution for all stakeholders (researchers
 17 in education, psychology and engineering, together with educational practitioners,
 18 or even technology and service providers).

AQ3

19 In the university example, the teacher faces the problem of how to put into prac-
 20 tice on short notice and without excessive effort all the ideas for a script, taking into
 21 account limited time availability and experience in technology-enhanced environ-
 22 ments. Thus, the teacher needs to consider the widely adopted Learning Manage-
 23 ment System (LMS), which has strong support from the university administration,
 24 and an EML, which allows expression of the main characteristics of the script. In
 25 addition, the script should be easy to describe and design in common language based
 26 on established knowledge or innovative approaches towards collaborative learning.

30 *10.3.1 Life Cycle and Framework for CSCL Scripts*

31 Considerations such as those arising in the university lecture example of specify-
 32 ing and designing scripts drive many current efforts that aim to provide scientific
 33 and technological support for different phases of the life cycle of a CSCL script.
 34 The integrated framework proposed by the European Research Team CoSSICLE
 35 (Computer-Supported Scripting of Interaction in Collaborative Learning Environ-
 36 ments; Kobbe et al., 2007) allows understanding and specification of components
 37 and mechanisms, that is, the elements and procedures that are necessary for study
 38 and research on CSCL scripts. The formalisation of such a framework in compu-
 39 tational terms opens the path for the use of computer-based tools for modelling
 40 and design of the scripts, while on the other hand it enables the interpretation and
 41 execution of such scripts in CSCL environments.

42 Formal expressions in terms of a computational language disambiguate the
 43 specified components and mechanisms. This is a prerequisite for adapting scripts
 44 to different learning environments, so as to avoid the proliferation of ad hoc
 45

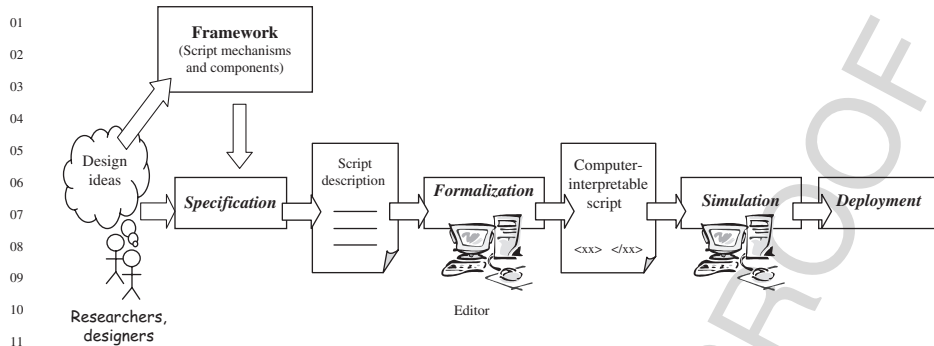


Fig. 10.1 Life cycle of and technology support for CSCL scripts

implementations that are hardwired in a specific system. There is a practical need for a specification and formalisation of scripts to provide teachers and designers of collaborative learning environments with a script toolbox, dynamically adapt scripts during phases of collaborative learning and make scripts transferable from one learning environment to another (see Fig. 10.1).

Teachers may be supported by tools for the conception and delivery of scripts in a general-purpose LMS or a specific CSCL environment. Besides the individual teacher, instructional designers may be more productive in the setup of similar environments, creating a community of teachers who exchange and tailor scripts, data and tools for their classes. It is then possible to expect wider adoption of the CSCL script approach, taking into account the needs of all stakeholders and providing appropriate support.

A stratified approach has been adopted to specify scripts in the CoSSICLE framework, differentiating between schemata and families. While schemata follow some general design principles, script classes are variations of schemata prototypes that are adapted to the specific educational context (i.e. the extrinsic constraints), while complying with the script intrinsic constraints (Dillenbourg & Jermann, 2007). Similar to a pattern-based approach (Hernández-Leo, 2007), this framework builds on existing knowledge that is widely adopted by practitioners while being based on extensive educational research. Its main advantage lies in the flexibility provided to practitioners or educational designers, since they can properly instantiate schemata and families, and facilitates specific interaction patterns that are best suited for specific scenarios.

Different script schemata have been identified (Dillenbourg & Jermann, 2007) such as those that refer to *jigsaw* grouping and re-grouping learners with complementary knowledge (Aronson, Blaney, Stephan, Sikes, & Snapp, 1978), *conflict* grouping learners of contradictory knowledge and roles (e.g. Weinberger et al., 2005) and *reciprocal* facilitating questioning and tutoring activities (King, 2007). Similarly, collaborative learning flow patterns, such as jigsaw, pyramid and think-pair-share, have been detected and included in the pattern-oriented framework that

01 supports similar levels of abstraction and specialisation (Hernández-Leo, Harrer,
02 Dodero Asensio-Pérez, & Burgos, 2007).

03 In addition to general script schemata and more specialised script classes, the
04 CoSSICLE framework specifies a structural decomposition that conveys a minimal
05 number of elements that cover the needs of a CSCL script. While scripts can be bro-
06 ken down into components, the dynamic and distributed character is defined through
07 mechanisms. With respect to components, roles, for example, are supposed to facil-
08 itate specific collaborative learning activities such as question asking, explaining or
09 finding evidence (see King, 2007). On the other hand, participants in the activities
10 may form groups (e.g. expert and super groups in the jigsaw script class) and use
11 computer and network resources, which may be offered as services (e.g. a shared
12 workspace), although individual activities and non-ICT (Information and Commu-
13 nications Technologies) resources are also considered. The dynamic mechanisms
14 that govern CSCL scripts include task distribution among groups and roles, group
15 formation and sequencing of activities. It is noteworthy that many instances of script
16 classes can be described through a small set of components and mechanisms. For
17 example, the specific group formation and rotation of roles are characteristic of the
18 jigsaw script class fostering homogeneous participation in complementary learning
19 activities.

AQ4

22 **10.3.2 Languages and Tools for Modelling and Deployment**

23 The selection of a formal language for representing a CSCL script is a crucial aspect,
24 since this modelling language has to be sufficiently expressive for collaborative situ-
25 ations as well as complying with standards. The general approach of EML, such
26 as Instructional Management System – Learning Design (IMS-LD; IMS, 2003),
27 does not take into account all specific characteristics of CSCL, as it has various
28 deficiencies in terms of expressiveness (Caeiro-Rodríguez, Anido-Rifón, & Llamas-
29 Nistal, 2003). However, a de facto standard supported by international organisations
30 motivates independent service providers to create tools that support the whole life
31 cycle and therefore promotes the creation of sustainable technological solutions.
32 Thus, an important dilemma has drawn the attention of researchers and developers in
33 this field: whether to use a proprietary language that allows for richer, more precise
34 and more efficient formalisation of CSCL scripts or to adopt a standard but likely in-
35 sufficient language such as IMS-LD. While a specialised language for CSCL scripts
36 may coexist, there is a clear trend and need for a solution based on standards that
37 may offer the option for gateways to specific solutions, or paths for future enrich-
38 ment. There is then the chance for wider adoption by the broad technology-enhanced
39 learning community and it is hoped by educational practitioners, in the direction of
40 solutions based on standards and open source in the general CSCL field.

AQ5

41 The difficulties of this approach are shown in a study related to the widely
42 used WISE science inquiry tool that employs scripting (Berge & Slotta, 2007). Au-
43 thors found that the SCORM (Sharable Content Object Reference Model) standard
44
45

01 (ADL, 2004) imposed serious limitations on the pedagogical functionality, while
 02 use of IMS-LD (IMS, 2003) was feasible and enabled gateways to scripts (projects)
 03 developed by third-party designers. Additionally, the adoption of open-source prin-
 04 ciples and tools is probably one of the major assets that should be taken into account,
 05 as exemplified in the Scalable Architecture for Interactive Learning (SAIL) archi-
 06 tecture (Slotta & Aleahmad, in press). Thus, the issue of standardisation seems to
 07 present the same problems and advantages as in the general discussion of the wider
 08 technology-enhanced learning community, namely the trade-off between portability
 09 and reuse on the one hand and expressiveness or flexibility on the other.

AQ6

10 Tools and computer-supported environments are final elements that must be pro-
 11 vided and considered with respect to technological support for the CSCL script life
 12 cycle. For example, an editor is necessary for a researcher, instructional designer
 13 or educational practitioner to be able to define the components and mechanisms
 14 that formally describe a CSCL script in a computational language. For instance, the
 15 Collage editor (Hernández-Leo et al., 2006) allows customisation and generation
 16 of hierarchical combinations of collaborative learning flow patterns (script classes),
 17 such as jigsaw or pyramid, represented in IMS-LD. An extensive multi-case study
 18 (Hernández-Leo, 2007) has shown that educational practitioners are able to success-
 19 fully formulate their scripts in their specific contexts. An additional element of the
 20 CSCL script toolbox points to a simulator which allows designers to run their scripts
 21 in a simulated environment and then to reformulate them for a more effective and
 22 error-free implementation class environment (Harrer, 2006). Also, players are nec-
 23 essary to interpret the CSCL scripts that have been designed and modelled, such as
 24 Coppercore for IMS-LD. Finally, computer architectures are useful to embed CSCL
 25 scripts in existing computer-supported learning environments, such as the “remote
 26 control approach” (Harrer, Malzahn, & Roth, 2006) or to enable tailoring of CSCL
 27 scripts using available tools offered as services, such as Gridcole (Bote-Lorenzo
 28 et al., in press).

AQ7

29 In the university lecture example, the teacher may decide to use the jigsaw script
 30 schema depending on the respective educational objectives. Then, the basic script
 31 components and mechanisms employing the concepts of the previously mentioned
 32 CSCL framework can be specified, as, for example, to define an *activity* for a final
 33 exchange of arguments between the members of the supergroups that were formed
 34 beforehand by the teacher, using the *resource* of an online argumentation forum
 35 integrated in a popular LMS. An editor could then be used to formalise the script
 36 and produce a machine-interpretable file, eventually in standard EML. Before the
 37 deployment of the script, the teacher may detect any eventual problems and reflect
 38 on the structure and performance of the script through the use of the available sim-
 39 ulator. Finally, an interpreter integrated in a general-purpose LMS may deliver the
 40 script in the class, with a possibility of dynamic adaptation, as well as an eventual
 41 fading out of the external script.

42 Notably, teachers may have substantially different requirements than researchers.
 43 While researchers may focus on studying the adaptive fading in and out of script
 44 components depending on learners’ individual needs and deficits, practitioners or
 45 administrators are more interested in effectively and efficiently delivering these

01 proposals in the real classroom with certain guarantees for sustainability and scalability.
02 A solution to this dilemma may be of crucial importance and may drive the
03 research and development roadmap in this field.
04
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06 **10.4 Discussion and Outlook**

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09 Considering that collaborative learning is partly about adapting and modifying
10 learners' internal scripts, external scripts may provide too little appeal for being
11 internalised. Instead, scripts focus learners on their specific instructions. As a result
12 and depending on the specific script type, learners may, for instance, reply to script
13 prompts rather than to their learning partners or may disregard solving the task in
14 favour of specific social activities or group-formation activities. Apparently, scripts
15 must be adapted to the individual needs of the collaborative learners on multiple
16 dimensions. Otherwise scripts may at best be ignored, but could just as well impede
17 the collaborative learning process (Dillenbourg, 2002; Mäkitalo, Weinberger,
18 Häkkinen, Järvelä, & Fischer, 2005). The approach to this problem suggested here
19 through modelling and design tools that support the deployment and adaptation of
20 scripts seems feasible, but also highly challenging for educational psychology and
21 computer science. First, learners' internal scripts need to be analysed. Second, external
22 scripts need to be adapted accordingly by designers, learners and teachers. Script
23 components could be faded in or out according to the identified learners' needs
24 or their actual effects on the collaborative process. Then again, scripts are entire
25 procedures and may lose their actual instructional meaning when being technically
26 described and broken up into single components.

27 One of the challenging issues in instructional design of CSCL scripts is to better
28 integrate scripts into wider social planes such as overall classroom activities. The
29 specification and formalisation of scripts can augment the use of scripts in the classroom
30 regardless of the technical learning platform applied. Technical descriptions
31 of scripts realised with specific script modelling tools can not only preserve and
32 convey the underlying educational principles of scripts but also support teachers
33 to realise and orchestrate scripts of different granularities within their classroom.
34 This includes, for instance, the orchestration of individual and collaborative learning
35 phases as well as identification of the role of the teacher within a wider classroom
36 script.

37 However, there are several limitations in the use of external scripts in authentic
38 classroom contexts that outline steps for future educational research. On the one
39 hand, external scripts do not take into account learners' already existing internal
40 scripts and might capture learners' attention differently than expected. On the other
41 hand, external scripts can predict neither changing needs of individual students nor
42 those of groups. In order to offer the right support at the right time, it is important to
43 track real-time processes so that scripts can fade in or out as necessary. A promising
44 approach is to analyse processes in real time with tools for automatic analysis
45 of natural discourse corpora (Dönmez et al., 2005). Interaction analysis methods

01 and tools (see Chapter 11) should provide sufficient and significant indicators of
 02 the real process and its relation to the external scripts, thus enabling flexible script
 03 adaptation. This new element of interaction analysis tools, and probably to a lesser
 04 extent tools for trails analysis (see Chapter 12), imposes new requirements for in-
 05 teroperability, as already discussed with respect to script design tools. Additionally,
 06 longer-term follow-up studies in research on collaboration scripts can identify how
 07 fading of scripts can support students in becoming self-regulated learners.

08 With a few notable exceptions, the social and emotional aspects of self-regulation
 09 in collaborative learning scenarios have attracted less attention than its cognitive
 10 features (Crook, 2000; see also Chapter 1). However, there are many studies ar-
 11 guing that a sense of community and an open and sensitive atmosphere are nec-
 12 essary preconditions for collaborative learning (Cutler, 1995; De Jong, Kollöffel,
 13 Van der Meijden, Kleine Staarman, & Janssen, 2005; Rourke & Anderson, 2002;
 14 Rovai, 2000; Wellman, 1999). A strong mood of group togetherness can enhance
 15 the flow of information, the availability of support, commitment to group goals and
 16 satisfaction with group efforts (Wellman, 1999). De Jong and his colleagues (2005)
 17 consider that in order to establish and maintain a secure and collaborative atmo-
 18 sphere, learners should give precise expression not only to ideas and knowledge but
 19 also to social and affective propositions. Scripts can be seen as situational and con-
 20 textual resources in learning environments (Häkkinen & Mäkitalo-Siegl, 2007) that
 21 can affect learners' motivation. Therefore, research on learners' goals when using
 22 scripts might help us to understand in what ways scripts can also affect student and
 23 group goals and whether scripts can contribute to changing these goals in addition
 24 to changing internal scripts.

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01 **Chapter-10**

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Query No.	Page No.	Line No.	Query
AQ1	155	22	Please check the edit to the sentence "One of the main challenges. . ."
AQ2	164	10	Please advise whether "Educational Modelling Languages" can be set in lowercase.
AQ3	164	22	Please advise whether "Learning Management System" can be set in lowercase.
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AQ6	167	06	Please update year of publication.
AQ7	167	28	Please update year of publication.
AQ8	169	35	Please update this reference "Bote-Lorenzo, M., Gómez-Sánchez, E., Vega-Gorgojo, G., Dimitriadis, Y.A., Asensio-Pérez, J.I., & Jorrín-Abellán, I.M."
AQ9	172	18	Please update this reference "Slotta, J. D., & Aleahmad, T."

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