

# Metadata of the chapter that will be visualized online

---

Chapter Title	Social Interactions and Learning	
Copyright Year	2011	
Copyright Holder	Springer Science + Business Media, LLC	
Corresponding Author	Family Name	<b>Okita</b>
	Particle	
	Given Name	<b>Sandra Y.</b>
	Suffix	
	Division	Dept. of Mathematics, Science and Technology
	Organization	Teachers College, Columbia University
	Address	525 West 120th Street, 10027, New York, NY, USA
	Email	okita@tc.columbia.edu

---

---

# S

1

## 2 **Social Interactions and Learning**

3 SANDRA Y. OKITA

4 Dept. of Mathematics, Science and Technology, Teachers  
5 College, Columbia University, New York, NY, USA

### 6 **Synonyms**

7 Collaborative learning; Peer learning

### 8 **Definition**

9 Social interaction plays an important role in learning.  
10 Interacting with other people has proven to be quite  
11 effective in assisting the learner to organize their thoughts,  
12 reflect on their understanding, and find gaps in their  
13 reasoning. Underneath the broad umbrella of social inter-  
14 actions and learning, variants can range from peer learn-  
15 ing, reciprocal teaching, learning by teaching, learning by  
16 observation, learning by doing, and self–other monitor-  
17 ing. These areas overlap in scholarship and are often an  
18 optimal way to help students learn. Different forms of  
19 collaborative learning can create ideal circumstances  
20 when examining the impact of social interactions on  
21 learning.

### 22 **Theoretical Background**

23 Vygotsky believed that culture, history, and social interac-  
24 tions play a critical role in the cognitive development of  
25 children. Through observation, Vygotsky found that chil-  
26 dren develop higher mental functions such as identifying  
27 speech patterns, learning a language, and deriving mean-  
28 ing from symbols, when interacting with parents and  
29 other adults within the community. Vygotsky referred to  
30 language, numbers, signs, and symbols as cultural tools  
31 that help integrate the child into the culture. Vygotsky  
32 believed that the internalization of these cultural tools  
33 led to higher thinking skills. Children first learn how to  
34 use these cultural tools through the social interactions  
35 with parents, teachers, or more experienced peers, and  
36 later internalize the skills so they can perform independ-  
37 tly. This is different from Jean Piaget’s understanding

of child development where development precedes 38  
learning. 39

Vygotsky’s Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) is 40  
a theory about the dynamic relationship between learning 41  
and development. ZPD is the area between the learner’s 42  
independent performance level and the level that can be 43  
achieved with assistance of a more knowledgeable peer. 44  
ZPD not only reveals the learner’s potential but also shows 45  
that with assistance, a higher performance level can be 46  
achieved. 47

Social interaction is also a critical component for other 48  
theories. Vygotsky’s theories were further elaborated upon 49  
by other researchers and implemented into practical appli- 50  
cations. Some examples are *Situated Learning*, when learn- 51  
ing occurs in the same context in which it is applied. 52  
Learning is a social process that is co-constructed through 53  
the involvement in “community of practice” where mem- 54  
bers of the community share information and learn from 55  
one another (Lave and Wenger 1990). The novice learner 56  
embodies beliefs and behaviors through social interac- 57  
tions with more experienced members of the community. 58  
With time, the learner moves from the periphery of the 59  
community to the center, becoming more engaged and 60  
active within the culture, and eventually takes the role of 61  
the expert or senior member. Another example, *Cognitive*  
62 *Apprenticeship* (Collins et al. 1989), further develops the  
63 theory of knowledge construction through social interac-  
64 tions like coaching, scaffolding, modeling, and reflection.  
65 *Reciprocal teaching* (Palincsar and Brown 1984) is when  
66 the teacher or peer provides the learner with guided prac-  
67 tice using four strategies of summarizing, question gener-  
68 ating, clarifying, and predicting, when reading a piece of  
69 common text. The learner and teacher (or peer) take turns  
70 playing the lead role as a teacher, and use the four strate-  
71 gies to support their discussion on segments of the text.  
72 Over time, children begin to internalize the processes until  
73 the strategies become a natural part of their internal read-  
74 ing and listening skills. The strategies help the learner and  
75 teacher (or peer) develop deeper understanding of the text  
76 and better reading comprehension skills. 77

These theories have also been applied in the context of 78  
technology-based learning activities. Peer learning and 79  
collaborative learning was once only possible in shared 80

81 physical space, but now learners can participate remotely  
82 via the Internet and technology-mediated tools.

### 83 **Important Scientific Research and Open** 84 **Questions**

85 People learn from various sources. Traditional sources  
86 involve learning from humans or objects (e.g., books),  
87 while recent sources may involve computerized people  
88 (e.g., pedagogical agents and avatars) and/or computer-  
89 ized instructions (e.g., intelligent tutoring systems). Social  
90 interactions also occur in various settings. Traditional  
91 settings involve face-to-face interactions in both formal  
92 and informal environments (e.g., classroom and private  
93 tutor), while recent settings can involve online learning  
94 environments (e.g., video conferencing systems like Adobe  
95 Connect and virtual reality environments like Second  
96 Life). Under this broad umbrella, the following may be  
97 considered: (1) learning in social interactions with others,  
98 (2) learning in social interactions with others through  
99 ► computer-mediated communication (CMC), and  
100 (3) learning in social interactions with technology.

101 *Learning in social interactions with others:* People often  
102 turn to others for learning. Social interaction plays an  
103 important role in learning, and has proven to be quite  
104 effective in peer learning, reciprocal teaching, and behav-  
105 ior modeling. Such forms of collaborative learning are  
106 often an optimal way to help people learn (Chi et al.  
107 2001). For example, Learning by teaching and explaining  
108 to others can be an effective way to learn (Palincsar and  
109 Brown 1984). Another situation may be learning by  
110 observing other people. In tutoring, one observes whether  
111 their pupil applies what they were taught during problem  
112 solving. Their pupils' performance can reveal gaps in what  
113 the tutor taught and perhaps understands. The perfor-  
114 mance of the pupil can provide alternatives the tutor did  
115 not think of. Even if these alternatives are not correct, they  
116 may slow down the tutor's natural inertia to keep thinking  
117 in the same way. Studies have shown that learning among  
118 peers can be very useful in several ways. Learning can  
119 occur by comparing ourselves to peers, or observing  
120 others to develop a better understanding of the self. For  
121 example, even if a student cannot solve a math problem,  
122 observing someone else may help you learn how to solve  
123 the problem. This is because the person they are observing  
124 can provide a model of competent performance. In other  
125 situations, interacting with somebody who knows about  
126 the same as (or knows less than you) can be beneficial. For  
127 example, in reciprocal teaching, students may spontane-  
128 ously compare their understanding to what they observe  
129 in another person, and any discrepancies can alert them to  
130 think more deeply about who is right. This implies that

observing a peer, under the right circumstances, can trig- 131  
ger learning and reflection. In other cases, just anticipating 132  
a social interaction can lead to more learning. For exam- 133  
ple, *preparing to teach* others influences students to learn 134  
more compared to students who study for themselves 135  
(e.g., study for exam). In this case, learning occurs just 136  
with the "thought" of a social interaction. 137

*Learning in social interactions with others through com- 138*  
*puter-mediated communication tools:* There is no need to 139  
be physically present to learn in person. Through the use 140  
of the Internet technology and computer-mediated com- 141  
munication tools, real-time social interactions are possi- 142  
ble. Many synchronous online learning (or distance 143  
learning) environments use video conferencing tools that 144  
allow face-to-face interaction via technology mediation 145  
(e.g., Adobe Connect). More recent forms of online learn- 146  
ing may involve virtual reality (e.g., Second Life) where 147  
your peers are represented by a computer graphic charac- 148  
ter that they remotely control in a virtual reality environ- 149  
ment (e.g., an avatar). Such technological tools allow real- 150  
time exchange of audio, video, text, and graphical infor- 151  
mation between learners (Dede et al. 2002). Successful 152  
virtual reality environments such as Second Life and 153  
Active Worlds provide space to support online group 154  
activities. There are some concerns that social interactions 155  
are limited in online learning, compared to the traditional 156  
face-to-face learning experience. Others attest that 157  
technology-mediated tools can elicit social responses and 158  
create unique social interactions with interesting implica- 159  
tions for learning. For example, children can *build* their 160  
own simulated world (e.g., Eco-system) rather than pas- 161  
sively partake in a given situation. This may allow children 162  
to directly experience the causal chains from their actions 163  
and help visualize and reason about the situation. Another 164  
distinct feature in virtual reality is that the learner's envi- 165  
ronment can be manipulated based on their needs. For 166  
example, the teacher can be represented differently to 167  
communicate with the learner in the most optimal way 168  
(e.g., with or without eye contact), allow the learner to 169  
experience different points of view (e.g., first person, third 170  
person, and birds-eye view), and the seating in virtual 171  
classrooms can even be positioned based on the learner's 172  
attention level. 173

*Learning in social interaction with technological tools:* 174  
Applying educational content and pedagogy to technol- 175  
ogy is not new. The first testing and teaching machine by 176  
Pressey appeared in 1926, and since then people have had 177  
high hopes for technology in restoring personalized 178  
instruction. Technology has the potential to provide 179  
a wide range of tools tailored to each student's learning 180  
needs. However, much of the *learning* in the initial stage 181

182 focused on *machine learning*, intelligent expert systems,  
183 and computer modeling of human behavior. Expert sys-  
184 tems were successful in their intended domain, but often  
185 evaluated unfairly, because of the high expectation of the  
186 ► Turing Test. Some have argued that by making  
187 machines smarter, good teaching and tutoring strategies  
188 can be implemented for the learner. However, interactions  
189 with intelligent machines do not always guarantee learn-  
190 ing. Learning can be difficult without a meaningful inter-  
191 action between the human and machine. Recently,  
192 development has shifted the focus from intelligent to  
193 *directable* technologies in assisting *human learning*. Com-  
194 puterized people and instructions still consist of intelli-  
195 gent behaviors, but more emphasis is placed on human-  
196 like features for eliciting social responses. Technological  
197 tools such as pedagogical agents, tutoring agents, and  
198 humanoid robots, consist of strong social components  
199 that enable students to share knowledge and build peer-  
200 like relations. However, not all technologies put emphasis  
201 on direct social exchange with humans (e.g., industrial  
202 robots). Most fall somewhere in between, and partake of  
203 both machine-like and human-like features (e.g., peda-  
204 gogical agents and humanoid robots). Some systems may  
205 tacitly draw on social schemas, but not include a real social  
206 presence or metaphor. For example an intelligent tutor  
207 that is a computational model may represent student  
208 thinking and cognition, but its appearance may be  
209 a disembodied text with no visual character. Other systems  
210 build on explicit social metaphors of interaction and  
211 appearances to invite social interaction. An example may  
212 be a socially explicit pedagogical agent taking on the role  
213 of a peer learner. Students learn by teaching this pedagog-  
214 ical agent. Based on what the agent is taught, the agent can  
215 answer questions. Students can observe their agent's  
216 answers and revise the agent's understanding (and their  
217 own). The learner can structure their thoughts through  
218 the social interactions with the agent, and even develop  
219 metacognitive skills (Biswas et al. 2001).

220 Aside from content, advancement in sensors and  
221 audio-visual tools has helped *detect* human behavior  
222 (e.g., physiological sensors). Automation and expressive  
223 tools have helped technological tools *respond* to humans.  
224 Sensors and behavior models implemented into the sys-  
225 tem have improved some aspects in the quality of social

interactions between human and machines. However, 226  
technological tools still fall short when coming across 227  
unfamiliar content, and do not easily afford the wide 228  
range of possible social interactions. Unlike a human 229  
peer or teacher, technology presents limitations, where 230  
the learner may often times be constrained by what the 231  
tool (e.g., pedagogical agent) or environment (e.g., Second 232  
Life, avatars) can do in response. Until technological tools 233  
have both the intelligence and flexibility to respond to the 234  
learner's interactive bids, examining the social exchange 235  
and interactive styles that guide learning is crucial. 236

### Cross-References

► Cognitive Apprenticeship Learning	237
► Learning by Teaching	238
► Reciprocal Learning	239
► Situated Learning	240
► Observational Learning	241
► Online Learning	242
► Pedagogical Agents	243
► Peer Learning and Assessment	244
► Vygotsky's Philosophy of Learning	245
► Zone of Proximal Development	246

### References

Biswas, G., Schwartz, D. L., & Bransford, J. D. (2001). Technology support for complex problem solving: From SAD environments to AI. In K. Forbus & P. Feltovich (Eds.), <i>Smart machines in education</i> (pp. 71–98). Menlo Park, CA: AAAI/MIT Press.	248
Chi, M. T. H., Silver, S. A., Jeong, H., Yamauchi, T., & Hausmann, R. G. (2001). Learning from human tutoring. <i>Cognitive Science</i> , 25, 471–533.	249
Collins, A., Brown, J. S., & Newman, S. E. (1989). Cognitive apprenticeship: Teaching the craft of reading, writing and mathematics. In L. B. Resnick (Ed.), <i>Knowing, learning, and instruction: Essays in honor of Robert Glaser</i> (pp. 453–494). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.	250
Dede, C., Whitehouse, P., & Brown-L'Bahy, T. (2002). Designing and studying learning experiences that use multiple interactive media to bridge distance and time. In C. Vrasid & G. Glass (Eds.), <i>Current perspectives on applied information technologies</i> (Distance Education, Vol. 1, pp. 1–30). Greenwich, CT: Information Age Press.	251
Lave, J., & Wenger, E. (1990). <i>Situated learning: Legitimate peripheral participation</i> . Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.	252
Palincsar, A. S., & Brown, A. L. (1984). Reciprocal teaching of comprehension-fostering and comprehension monitoring activities. <i>Cognition and Instruction</i> , 1, 117–175.	253