

## Chapter 6

# The role of diagrams in collaborative argumentation-based learning

Lisette Munneke, Marije van Amelsvoort\*, Jerry Andriessen

*Department of Educational Sciences, Utrecht University, Heidelberglaan 2, Utrecht CS 3584,  
The Netherlands*

---

### Abstract

In this article two studies on the use of diagrams in computer-supported collaborative learning are compared. Focus is on the way argumentative diagrams can be used during collaborative learning tasks, more specifically how diagrams support argumentative interaction between students when they discuss ill-defined topics. The main goal is to discover how diagram construction before discussion, and diagram construction during discussion, influence the way students explore the space of debate during discussion. Twenty pairs of 16/17-year-old students were randomly selected from 126 pairs. Ten pairs worked with a diagram before discussion and ten during discussion. The research showed that students use diagrams in very different ways, ranging from a means for talking to just a notebook. Our expectation that using a diagram during discussion leads to more depth in discussion than using one before discussion, was not confirmed. Possible explanations for this finding are structure of the task, and the way students interpreted the goal of the task.

© 2003 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

*Keywords:* Computer-supported collaborative learning; Representational tools; Argumentative interaction

---

### 1. Introduction

Mike: I am against GMOs, because they can disturb the natural ecosystem.

Bob: Yes, you are right.

Mike: But, it is very handy to adapt those plants.

---

\*Corresponding author.

*E-mail address:* m.vanamelsvoort@fss.uu.nl (M. van Amelsvoort).

Bob: But what about evil people? They can misuse those GMOs.

Mike: You mean for biological weapons?

Bob: No not really, I mean for example that they change plants in such a way that people get sick from eating them.

Mike: That is what I meant with biological weapons.

Bob: Ok, that is clear.

This fragment is part of an electronic interaction between two secondary school students in a computer-supported collaborative learning environment. They chat about the topic of genetically modified organisms (GMOs). One may ask questions about the quality of the fragment: is this a ‘good’ discussion? Do these students learn something here? What support is needed to make this a valuable learning experience in everyday classroom practice? In this paper, we zoom in on a specific kind of collaborative interaction: argumentative interaction. We describe argumentative interactions, and how to support these with a specific tool: a computer-based argumentative diagram. Two ways of constructing diagrams, before and during the discussion, are compared with respect to how well students explore the space of debate in the domain of GMOs.

## **2. Theoretical background**

### *2.1. Collaborative learning and ICT in the Dutch classroom*

The focus in research on collaborative learning has shifted from products and individual participants to the social interaction during the collaborative process (Dillenbourg, Baker, Blaye, & O’Malley, 1996). In focusing on the interaction, researchers try to understand what happens during the collaboration in order to design learning tasks and tools to support the interaction between students.

It is not always clear what collaborative learning is. Andriessen and Sandberg (1999) define three types of educational contexts in which collaborative learning plays different roles: the transmission scenario, the studio scenario, and the negotiation scenario. In the transmission scenario emphasis is put on knowledge as chunks of information that are more or less directly transmittable from an expert teacher to a novice student. Collaboration is mainly considered to be useful for learning and practicing skills (Luttik, 1998). If students collaborate, they do this by dividing rather than sharing tasks. In the studio scenario the focus is on knowledge as actively processed by learners instead of learning ‘set’ knowledge. The responsibility for learning resides more with the students. Collaborative learning is a goal in itself in this scenario, because collaboration requires active learning and thinking by the individual student. In the negotiation scenario, the emphasis is put on knowledge building as a process of collective interaction. The goal is not knowledge acquisition per se, but learning to participate in the discourses

of knowledge domains. Collaborative learning is a natural and essential characteristic of learning in this scenario, because students need to communicate and negotiate with others to understand and develop knowledge within the discourse community.

The innovation that secondary education in the Netherlands went through since 1999, can be described as a transition from transmission to negotiation scenario. Currently all upper secondary education schools have introduced the ‘Study House’, in which active acquisition and collaborative construction of knowledge in project-based settings is emphasized (Stuurgroep Profiel Tweede Fase Voortgezet Onderwijs, 1994). An essential part of the Study House is the use of ICT; one of its goals is for all students to be able to work with ICT applications individually and collaboratively. Students do not only need to learn to work with computers as a goal in itself, but computers can also be used as a means to reach the new educational goals (Stichting ICT op school, 2001). A short survey on teachers’ ideas on ICT and collaborative learning (Deliverable 8, SCALE-team, 2002a, b) showed that they are very interested in learning more about collaboration and the possibilities of using computer tools to implement the educational innovations. They also were very eager to see and use our computer tool because they indicated there was a shortage of educational software.

## 2.2. Argumentative interaction in collaborative learning

The focus on collaborative processes is entirely in line with the new view on classroom practice. One characteristic of this educational innovation is that the problems students encounter in classroom practice are linked to the problems of daily life. These types of problems have been called wicked (Rittel & Webber, 1984; Van Bruggen & Kirschner, 2003), implying that there are many acceptable solutions, and many stakeholders whose views on the problem may vary even during the process.

Collaboration in such cases is often not guided by scripts or clear-cut solution criteria, since solving wicked problems requires many skills, such as negotiation about possible solutions. We see argumentation as one of the important activities for negotiation (Baker, 1994; Andriessen, Erkens, Peters, van de Laak, & Coirier, 2003). Argumentation in this context is the production of opinions accompanied by reasons in favor or against, in combination with questioning, clarification, explanation and acknowledgement. It is not a mere confrontation of points of view (Baker, 2003), because in some cases a strict dialectic argumentation could be inefficient for learning. Clear defined opinions and indisputable attitudes towards a position may form an epistemological obstacle for students (Baker, 1999). Stein, Bernas and Calicchia (1997) confirmed this idea in an experiment where they asked students to discuss two real life conflicts. It appeared that when students ended a discussion in a compromise, they gathered more knowledge of the content of arguments and had more balanced knowledge of both sides of a position. We also need to be aware of the fact that good argumentation does not necessarily imply a good learning process. Hence, ‘bad’ arguments can be a more important trigger for learning than good ones,

because they require activities that play an important role in learning, such as redefining concepts.

In our research, the pedagogical objective is to create collaborative situations for argumentation-based learning (CABLE, deliverables 1&2, SCALE-team, 2002a, b). Students do not need to learn factual information, but rather the type of knowledge that is necessary to discuss a wicked topic. We want students to collaboratively acquire, refine, and restructure knowledge of a space of debate. Students might do so in a number of ways, e.g. enumerate arguments, or elaborate upon one or more arguments. The best imaginable situation is one in which students co-construct an understanding of the space of debate by exploring it thoroughly in breadth and in depth. Broadening the space of debate is defined as students using different epistemological and societal views with associated arguments. Deepening the space of debate is defined as students using many related concepts and modes of reasoning when exploring an argument or point of view.

### *2.3. Support of argumentative interaction*

Recent research showed that students have problems with exploring the space of debate. Veerman, Andriessen, and Kanselaar (2002) showed that students, when presented with assignments in which argumentation is needed to arrive at a solution, tend to focus on the solutions instead of arguing the space of debate.

One way to support the exploration of the space of debate is to provide representational tools. With these tools users can construct, research and manipulate their own representation of knowledge. Van Bruggen, Boshuizen, and Kirschner (2002) mention several possible advantages of representations for argumentation. Firstly, the use of a representation forces students to make their opinions and arguments explicit. This sharing can stimulate students to negotiate and elaborate to come to a shared understanding of the space of debate (see also Suthers, 2003). Secondly, representations can help students to maintain focus on the task, by making the argumentation visible. Thirdly, representations can support the maintaining of consistency, accuracy, and plausibility of the argumentation, since a visible structure clearly shows which arguments, relations and backing information are missing.

There are different ways to represent and support argumentation. Van Bruggen and Kirschner (2003) distinguish discussion-based tools and knowledge representation tools. In discussion-based tools like CSILE (Scardamalia, Bereiter, & Lamon, 1994) and the Collaborative Notebook (Edelson, O'Neill, Gomez, & D'Amico, 1995) the environment offers students the opportunity to exchange arguments, but the structure of argumentation is not explicitly represented. In knowledge representation tools like Belvédère (Paolucci, Suthers, & Weiner, 1995) and the Knowledge Integration Environment (Bell, 1997) the structure of argumentation is explicitly represented, offering students an overview.

The ways in which representations can support argumentation are based on relatively scarce empirical research. Veerman (2000) found some evidence that Belvédère helps students to maintain focus, and stimulates constructive activities such as explaining and summarizing information. Suthers (2001) compared three

kinds of representations—texts, diagrams, and matrices—on the way students talk about concepts, how much they elaborate, and how much the representations trigger searching for missing information. He found that diagrams are best in supporting the ontology of users and the amount of elaboration, and that matrices are best in triggering search for missing information.

These advantages of representations will not emerge automatically; other variables, such as the type of task used, also play an important role. Besides knowing *what* the tool supports, it is also important knowing *when* a tool is used in the task sequence. Baker (2003) used a representational tool to display an individual point of view *before* discussing an issue. Collaborating students were individually asked to give their opinions about a topic and both opinions were represented on screen to be compared. This task was based on the premise that students will argue more when they clearly see the things in which they differ. Baker found that students talk a lot about their opinions but quickly change their opinions without much argumentation. In contrast to Baker, Suthers (2003) used representational tools for collaborative construction *during* discussion. He found that students using diagrams and matrices talked more about evidential relations between arguments than students using a plain text representation. Comparing these results is difficult, because the researchers used different representations, tasks and variables. There is need for more systematic research to find out if this indication is true.

#### 2.4. Two experiments: SCALE and Twins

In this paper, two similar experiments are discussed in which an argumentative diagram is either used *before* or *during* discussion. The first study is part of the SCALE project<sup>1</sup> and the second study is part of Twins.<sup>2</sup> As stated earlier the pedagogical objective of the two projects is to create collaborative situations for argumentation-based learning. Both projects carried out a first experiment in which the same argumentative diagram is used; in the SCALE experiment students had to construct a diagram *individually before* engaging in the discussion, while in the Twins experiment students had to construct a diagram *together, during* discussion.

Context in both studies was a collaborative writing task. In this paper, we focus on the diagrams and the chat discussions in the two studies, but it may be assumed that the presence of a text window has an effect on discussion as well. The space of debate is extended to the text window; students might use the text to interact about concepts as well. Although the text production may cause argumentative interaction to serve the purpose of content generation, we decided to add the writing task to the

---

<sup>1</sup>The research reported here was carried out within the SCALE project (Internet-based intelligent tool to Support Collaborative Argumentation-based LEarning in secondary schools, March 2001–February 2004) funded by the European Community under the ‘Information Societies Technology’ (IST) Programme. The project is studying the effects of diagram tools on the quality of interaction in computer-supported collaborative argumentation-based learning. More Information on the project can be found at: <http://www.euroscale.net/>.

<sup>2</sup>Twins is a Ph.D. project started in 2000, studying the effect of different collaborative tasks and communication tools on the quality of interaction in computer-supported collaborative learning.

experiment because the text gives students a reason for discussion. Also, the argumentative text gives us the possibility to compare chat and text to see what topics are discussed and which ones end up being put in the text, and shows us what has been put in the text that has not been discussed.

### 2.5. *The scope of research*

With SCALE and Twins, we want to find out which conditions in computer-supported collaborative learning lead to argumentative interaction, i.e. broad and deep understanding of the space of debate. More specifically we want to know whether there is a difference in argumentative interaction when using argumentative diagrams *individually before* discussion or *collaboratively during* discussion. Thus, the main research questions are:

1. How are argumentative diagrams used during electronic argumentative interaction, in particular:
  - (a) An individual diagram constructed *before* the debate?
  - (b) A collaborative diagram constructed *during* debate?
2. To what extent do students collaboratively explore the space of debate in depth and breadth using these two kinds of diagrams?

We expect the role of the diagrams to be different before or during the task. Following the research of Baker (2003) and Suthers (2003), using representations *before* collaboration stimulates students to talk about their opinions and reflect on their own point of view, but does not stimulate elaboration on arguments, concepts and relations. Using a representation *during* collaboration helps students to elaborate on arguments and relations in depth and breadth of the space of debate, but does not help them to see the differences between their different opinions and arguments.

## 3. Method

### 3.1. *Participants*

In total, 126 pairs of 16/17-year-old students participated in the experiments, from five different schools for upper secondary education in the Netherlands. These schools volunteered to participate after a survey answered by 77 schools (Deliverable 8, SCALE-team, 2002a, b). Pairs were formed within classes, but worked at their own computer during the experimental sessions and, when possible, worked in different classrooms. For this article, we randomly selected 10 pairs from each experiment ( $N = 20$ ).

### 3.2. CSCL tool

Both studies used the tool TC3 (Text Composer, Computer-supported, and Collaborative). TC3 supports collaborative argumentative writing in dyads (Jaspers & Erkens, 2000). It consists of three main windows; the left one is for communication by chat, the upper-right window for information about the topic and aim of the task, and the lower-right window for collaborative writing of a text (Fig. 1.)

Fig. 2 shows the diagram tool in TC3. This is a representational tool in which students can construct an argumentative representation of the topic. There are two kinds of boxes and two kinds of arrows. One box is for representing opinions, the other for representing arguments to support or rebut the opinion. The arrows are green and red, respectively, for indicating a positive relation ('in favor') and a negative relation ('against') between boxes. The diagram is kept simple, because Suthers (2002) found that a complex tool might distract students from the content of discussion.

### 3.3. Task and procedure

Both experiments consisted of six sessions of 50 min. Students were asked to discuss and write about the topic of genetically modified organisms (GMOs). The topic is part of the curriculum in upper secondary education, so the experiments could be conducted during regular hours in classes of Dutch language, General Sciences, or Biology.

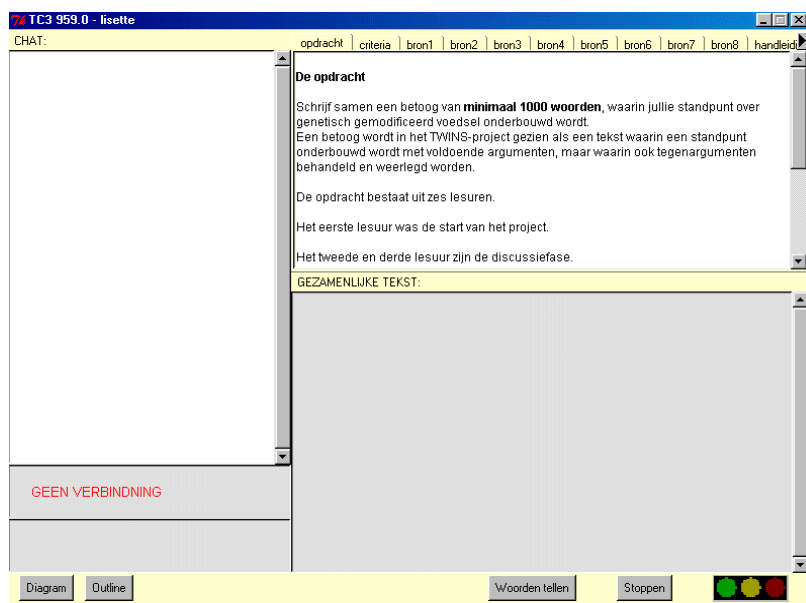


Fig. 1. TC3.

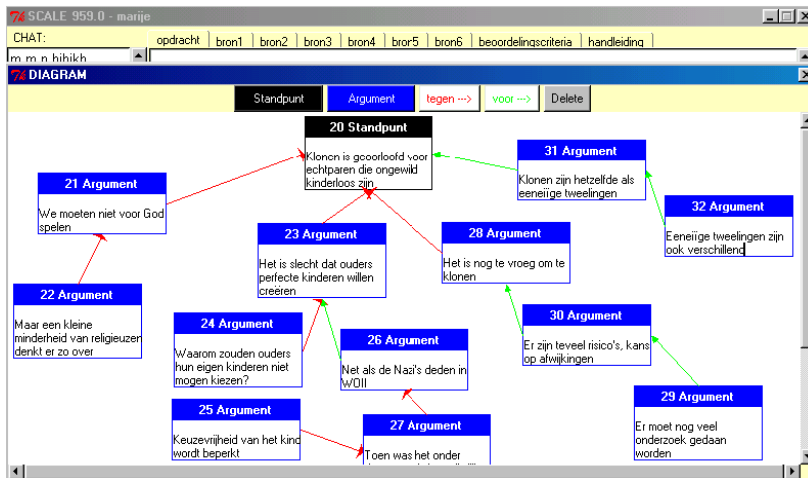


Fig. 2. Diagram tool in TC3.

In the SCALE experiment students had to construct a diagram *individually before* engaging in the discussion. After this individual phase the two diagrams were presented in the TC3 environment, so students could look at both diagrams and compare them. In the Twins experiment students had to construct a diagram *collaboratively, during* discussion. Tables 1 and 2 explain the similarities and differences between the projects further.

## 4. Analysis

### 4.1. Analysis of interactions

Most of the studies in the domain of CSCL and collaborative interactions use coding schemes and frequencies to analyze students' individual utterances. For example Veldhuis-Diermanse (2002) tries to grasp the variable 'cognitive learning activities' by scoring students' utterances on categories like 'debating', 'using external information' and 'linking or repeating information'. Subsequent analyses are based on frequencies of codes in each category, reducing qualitative data to frequencies.

In our opinion these kinds of reductions do not say much about the quality of collaborative interactions. Counting the number of times students summarize information says little about the way they summarize information or about the quality of their summaries. We have tried to develop a way of analyzing interaction in which we can grasp the quality of the interaction in a more extensive way than frequency counting.



Table 1  
SCALE task sequences

Phase	Task	Duration (min)
Debate preparation	Individuals gain initial knowledge on the issue of GMOs by reading information, and form their opinion, supported with arguments and counter arguments, to put in a diagram	50
Debate and collaborative writing	Based on their individual point of view, pairs of students are put together that think differently about the issue of GMOs. They then discuss GMOs and collaboratively write an argumentative text reflecting their joint opinion. Information is not available anymore, but the individually made diagrams of both students are	150
Debate consolidation	Individuals go back to their individual diagram and can adjust this product to what they think and know about the topic after debate	50

Table 2  
Twins task sequences

Phase	Task	Duration (min)
Debate preparation	Individual students gain initial knowledge on the issue of GMOs by reading information	50
Debate and collaborative diagram construction	Students in pairs discuss the topic of GMOs and collaboratively construct a diagram reflecting their discussion. In this phase, students are not allowed to write the collaborative text yet. The original information is still available to the students	100
Collaborative writing	Students collaboratively write an argumentative text reflecting their joint opinion. Both the original information and the collaborative diagram are available	150

The data collected are protocols in which all communication and actions of students are recorded. These protocols are analyzed using a program called Multi Episode Protocol Analysis (MEPA), developed by [Erkens \(2001\)](#) at Utrecht University. With MEPA every utterance and action of students can be coded on several variables.

#### 4.2. *Rainbow*

To order our data and get an overview, we firstly performed a functional and a content analysis of the utterances. The functional analysis is called the Rainbow

framework<sup>3</sup> and consists of seven principal categories, each represented by a color of the rainbow. These categories are shown in Table 3.

Some categories have subcategories. Task management, for example, consists of the subcategories ‘management of the task in general’, ‘management of the discussion’, ‘management of the tool’, and ‘management of the information’. These subcategories are useful in the development of other variables, but beyond the scope of this article.

In the content analysis, we distinguish topics and subtopics of the GMOs issue. The five main topics are worldview, health, environment, affluence, and other. These main topics are divided in 14 subtopics, for example affluence—hunger/food or affluence—costs/benefits. All actions of students in categories five to seven (the content-related categories), and some in category four, were screened for these topics. The Rainbow and content analyses constitute the basis for further analyses on variables such as ‘depth and breadth of the space of debate’.

#### *4.3. Depth and breadth of the space of debate*

The breadth of the space of debate is defined as the amount of topics and subtopics a pair mentions in the collaborative task. The breadth of the debate is calculated for the whole task as well as for the different parts of the task separately, so we can distinguish between topics taken up in the chat and topics actually put in the argumentative text students wrote collaboratively.

When students talk in depth about the space of debate, they relate different concepts, and elaborate upon their arguments. For the analysis of the depth of the debate, we developed a scoring system in which all content-related utterances are analyzed in their immediate context. Every utterance was rated 1, 2, 4, or 8. The rating of 1 is used for students stating an argument, 2 for giving an example or explanation of an argument, 4 for stating a support or rebuttal, and 8 for the explicit explanation of a relation between different arguments. Table 4 gives an example of a scored protocol. We look at episodes of content-related activities, e.g. a support or rebuttal can only be scored if an argument is scored first. Because the rating of utterances depends on their context, we are able to calculate averages to talk about the quality of the depth of the space of debate instead of only talking about quantity of arguments, rebuttals, examples and relations.

To obtain the absolute depth of the space of debate, all scored utterances on depth are added. This absolute score is obtained for every pair, and for every student and subtask separately. However, since some pairs worked longer than others the absolute depth might be distorting. To solve this problem, we converted the absolute numbers to relative numbers by dividing the absolute numbers by the total number

---

<sup>3</sup>The Rainbow framework is collaboratively developed by researchers from four different countries (most of them involved in the SCALE project): Michael Baker, Jerry Andriessen, Matthieu Quignard, Marije van Amelsvoort, Kristine Lund, Timo Salminen, Lia Litosseliti, and Lisette Munneke. An article on this framework is in preparation.

Table 3  
Rainbow categories

Rainbow category	Explanation	Example
1 Outside activity	All interactions that do not have anything to do with the task	“How was the party yesterday?”
2 Social relation	All remarks about the social relation	“You are doing well!”
3 Interaction management	All remarks about communication, like checking presence, checking understanding	“Hello, are you there?”
4 Task management	All remarks and actions for managing the task	“It’s your turn to write now”
5 Opinions	All statements about students’ opinions	“I am in favor of GMOs”
6 Arguments	All arguments and counter-arguments students use to support or rebut a statement	“Because of genetically modified food hunger in the third world will be banned”
7 Explore and deepen	All remarks that explore and deepen the (counter)arguments	“But hunger in the third world is not due to lack of food in the world, but to unequal division of food”

of utterances scored. The relative depth of the space of debate is used to compare the different subtasks and to compare Twins and SCALE.

## 5. Results

### 5.1. How do students deal with the task in general?

The Rainbow analysis gave us an overview of how students dealt with the task in general (Table 5).

In both studies students showed a lot of task management (67.5% in SCALE, 76.9% in Twins). A *t*-test showed that the difference in task management between the two studies is significant ( $t = 2.62; p < 0.05$ ). Thus, in Twins students manage the task more than in SCALE.

Students’ activities are aimed at argumentative content (categories 5–7) 8.6% in Twins, and 13.8% in SCALE. In SCALE there is significantly more talking and writing about the opinions of the students (category 5;  $t = -3.12; p < 0.01$ ), but there is no real difference on providing arguments and exploration and deepening (categories 6 and 7).

The students are mostly working on the task in both projects, only about 5% of all interaction is outside-activity. Interaction on social relations is also scarce. On

Table 4  
Example of scoring the depth of the space of debate

No.	Content of argument (with topics)	Who	From where	What happens	Depth
1	Health-nutrients; I am pro, because it is good for the third world, they can use extra vitamins	1	Own diagram	Argument and explanation	1 + 2
2	Affluence-division; no, third world cannot afford Genetic Modification, it is only meant for the rich West, and then nobody will buy product from the third world anymore	0	New	Rebuttal, explicit relation and explanation	4 + 8 + 2
3	Affluence-division; but the rich countries will help the poor countries with money and funding	1	New	Rebuttal and explanation	4 + 2
4	Affluence-division; that happens already (funding), but with Genetic Modification nobody will buy things from the third world and they will become even more poor	0	New	Rebuttal and further explanation of argument #2	4 + 2
Total					29

category 3, interaction management, there is a significant difference between the two studies ( $t = -3.39; p < 0.01$ ). Students in SCALE manage their interaction more than students in Twins.

### 5.2. How are argumentative diagrams used in this exploration of the space of debate?

In SCALE there is a huge difference in how students constructed their diagram *before* discussion. The analyzed diagrams range in size from four to 17 boxes. All diagrams have a ‘standpoint’ box in the middle or the top, and arguments around them. Most students have arguments in a random order scattered around the standpoint, others give a very structured overview. There are more arguments in favor of the standpoint (total of 137) than against (total of 56). It seems that students find it especially hard to rebut an argument.

The individual diagrams are mostly used as information sources. Many students look at their own diagram to gather arguments to use either in discussion or text writing. Others look at their partner’s diagram to find out on what topics they differ. One pair of students was very structured in doing this:

Ann: Hello Mary, what do you think about this subject?

Table 5  
Mean frequencies and percentages of functional Rainbow categories in SCALE and Twins

	SCALE frequencies (with standard deviations)	SCALE percentages (with standard deviations)	Twins frequencies (with standard deviations)	Twins percentages (with standard deviations)
Off-task	23.1 (35.8)	4.6 (6.1)	51.7 (55.5)	5.3 (5.3)
Social relation	18.2 (11.3)	4.0 (2.8)	29.7 (21.5)	3.2 (2.1)
Interaction management	47.7 (20.4)	10.1 (3.3)	52.7 (22.5)	5.9 (2.0)
Task management	318.1 (93.5)	67.5 (10.4)	680.4 (128.1)	76.9 (4.7)
Opinions	18.0 (7.2)	3.9 (1.7)	18.1 (7.2)	2.2 (0.6)
Arguments	20.0 (10.9)	4.2 (2.0)	26.6 (10.2)	3.1 (1.3)
Explore and deepen	25.1 (13.3)	5.74 (4.0)	29.5 (14.1)	3.4 (1.8)

Mary: Wait a minute ok? Because you can see what you have made and what the other has made

Ann: Ok, I'll look at your diagram first

Mary: Ok

Ann: The one about antibiotics is a good one, I agree with that

Mary: Yes, and I agree with your opinion on scarce products

Ann: Hunger can be banned that way, and that is necessary in the Third World

...

Although the diagrams are mostly used as 'given' information, they can also give rise to an exploration of the space of debate that goes beyond the arguments presented in the individual diagrams. Oftentimes students start the discussion with an argument from their own diagram but discuss this argument with 'new' ones, not mentioned before (see also [Table 4](#)).

In Twins the diagrams were constructed during the discussion. The number of boxes varies from 9 to 16 boxes, so there was less variation in the number of boxes than in SCALE. Most diagrams were very chaotic. It often happened that arguments that belonged together were not linked. Some diagrams were very structured but in that case just one student was in control of the diagram. As in SCALE, students use more arguments in favor (72) of their point of view than against (32).

Lisa and Gwen's fragment shows a special way of using the diagram. Lisa is communicating by chat, but oftentimes Gwen reacts on Lisa's arguments by putting a new box in the diagram (dia) with her counterargument or further elaboration.

Lisa: When there is too much genetic modification certain plants and animals can become extinct.

Gwen (dia): Some people say that GMO causes extinction of some plants and animals.

Gwen (dia): But if we keep GMO under control, the consequences will be minimal.

Gwen (dia): And solving the problem of hunger is more important than for example a specific kind of ants.

Three other functions of the diagram are showed in the discussion between Bob and Mike.

Bob (dia): GMO has advantages for the production of food. You get food that fits the demands of the consumers or you can produce food that you can keep longer, so less food is wasted.

Mike: Shall I give the counter argumentation?

Bob: Ok.

Mike (dia): You can also get the desirable properties by crossing plants instead of manipulating genes.

Bob: You wrote that nicely

Mike: Shall I type another argument pro?

Bob: I think we first have to rebut your argument: Crossing plants takes much more time than using GM, or not?

Mike: Oh yes you are right, with crossing it is much more difficult to get the desired properties.

First the construction of the diagram creates input for further discussion. Mike puts something in the diagram and this causes a new discussion about crossing versus genetic modification. Secondly, the diagram is used as a notebook to summarize the communication. After the discussion Mike puts the conclusion in the diagram. Finally, Mike and Bob use the diagram as a way to discuss relations between arguments.

### 5.3. To what extent do students explore the space of debate in breadth and in depth?

#### 5.3.1. Breadth of the space of debate

Almost all pairs in both SCALE and Twins discuss the five main topics we distinguish in the debate on GMOs. Most pairs have a preference for certain topics in the debate that they discuss extensively, and only touch on other topics lightly. Of the 18 subtopics possible, students in SCALE discuss a mean of 11.9 subtopics ( $SD = 1.3$ ), and students in Twins 9.7 subtopics ( $SD = 1.8$ ). The tasks are too different to really compare these actual means so we calculated the percentages of events in which topics were mentioned. In SCALE this was a mean of 11% of all events, and in Twins a mean of 7%. A  $t$ -test showed this was a significant difference ( $t = 2.71; p < 0.05$ ). This means students in SCALE talk and write more in breadth about the topic.

#### 5.3.2. Depth of the space of debate

For depth of the space of debate in diagrams and discussion, we calculated absolute and relative depths. In SCALE, students deepen the individual diagram before discussion with an average of 25.1 points, compared with 58.2 in the chat. This difference is significant ( $t = -2.475; p < 0.05$ ). However, the significant difference disappears when correcting for size of the diagram and chat (2.5 versus 2.8). So, students say more about GMOs in chat, but relatively the depth is the same as in the average diagram. This means that students talk a lot about arguments and examples in the chat, but do not deepen these with rebuttals, supports or links. In the individual diagrams they do this more.

In Twins the collaborative diagram constructed during discussion is deepened with an average of 30.5, compared to 29.6 in the discussion. This was not a significant difference. In relative depth, we neither found significant differences between chat ( $M = 2.3$ ) and diagram ( $M = 2.6$ ). Overall, students in Twins mostly give arguments and explanations, but do not rebut, support or relate arguments much. The diagram shows the same picture.

In comparing SCALE and Twins, the difference in the absolute depth of the diagrams ( $M = 30.5$  for Twins,  $M = 25.1$  for SCALE) was not significant. The absolute depth of the discussion (chat) differed much more: 58.2 versus 29.6. However, because there was much more variation in the discussion of SCALE ( $SD = 39.75$  versus  $SD = 29.7$ ), this difference was not significant. The same results are obtained when comparing the relative depths of Twins and SCALE in diagrams and chat.

Finally, we looked at the depth of the text students had to produce in comparison with the diagrams they produced. In SCALE the average absolute depth of the texts was 64.6. This was significantly higher ( $t = -11.49; p < 0.01$ ) than the depth of the diagrams. This difference remains significant ( $t = -3.36; p < 0.01$ ) when correcting for size. Twins shows the same picture. The absolute depth of the texts was 64.7 and differed significantly ( $t = -5.81; p < 0.01$ ) from the depth of diagrams. The relative depth of the texts was 3.3 and also differed significantly from the relative depths of the diagrams ( $t = -2.60; p < 0.05$ ). These numbers show that in both SCALE and

Twins students rebutted, supported, and related their arguments more in the text than in the diagrams.

## 6. Discussion

### 6.1. Supporting argumentative interactions with diagrams

In the theoretical background three possible advantages of supporting argumentative interactions during discussion with diagrams were mentioned: (1) Forcing to make opinions and arguments explicit and initiating negotiation, (2) maintaining focus, and (3) maintaining consistency, accuracy and plausibility of the argumentations. The results will be discussed according to these points.

Looking at the breadth of the space of debate, we found that both in SCALE and Twins students talk about a lot of different topics, but that students in SCALE talked more about opinions than those in Twins. This is in line with Baker's (in press) results and our predictions that an individual preparation stimulates talk about opinions. The individual representations provoke utterances such as 'I agree' or 'I don't agree'. When making a collaborative diagram these utterances are provoked less, because all arguments are new for both students. However, in both SCALE and Twins it appeared that students easily take over each other's opinions and arguments. This was different from what we expected. As shown in the absolute and relative depth of the space of debate students talk about possible arguments and explain these arguments, but support and rebuttals are less frequently seen. Agreement and even disagreement are often followed by a quick acceptance of the other's ideas instead of negotiation. The task might be responsible for this behavior; many students just want to construct the diagram or write the text. In SCALE the diagrams were mostly seen as a source of information in which arguments for the text could be gathered, and not as a representation of the other student's opinion that could be discussed. In Twins we found similar results. Many students saw the discussion phase as a phase of gathering content, and they used the diagram as a notebook in which all ideas for the text were gathered instead of discussed. This might also explain why the text is deeper than the diagrams. Students extend their ideas, that were put forward in diagram and discussion, in the text.

The second advantage, maintaining focus, is confirmed by the Rainbow analysis. In both studies we found little social talk. Students are mostly focused on managing the task, and on content. An explanation for this is that the task was complex and students had to look at information sources, compare each other's diagrams or construct a collaborative diagram, write the collaborative text, and discuss content. The question arises whether it is wise to let students write an argumentative text if discussing the domain is the main goal. It appears that writing and managing the writing of the text distracts students from discussing the content. In SCALE the individual diagrams helped to focus on content at the start of discussion, but the diagrams were quickly reduced to sources of information for writing the text. In Twins it is difficult to say in what way the diagram helps students to focus on the



discussion, because a lot of the discussion happens through the diagram. In Section 5 we saw an example in which one student chats her arguments and the other reacts in the diagram. Thus, comparing the depth of chat and diagram does not say much about the way the diagram stimulated the discussion. Veerman (2000) also found in her Belvédère-study that a part of the focus on discussion is maintained in the diagram. However, it appeared that the focus on discussion disappeared as soon as students started writing the text.

Looking at maintaining consistency, accuracy and plausibility it was found that students do talk about what argumentation should look like. The fragment of Bob and Mike showed in which way the diagram stimulated looking at rebuttals and relations between arguments, but most diagrams were very unbalanced in the pro and counter arguments. The diagrams were very chaotic and many relations between arguments were missing or not accurate. It can be concluded that students know how to set up an argumentation, but they did not succeed in accomplishing this. In the text, we found many more relations between arguments, but the balance of argumentation was still poor. Thus, the diagram provokes talk about how to argue, but does not support the right use of rebuttals, support and relations between arguments. Suthers' (2003) finding that Belvédère stimulated talk about relations between arguments was not confirmed in our studies. Students sometimes talk about the arrows they put in the diagram, but not about the meaning of these arrows. They just enumerate arguments and counter arguments without discussing their relations.

## 6.2. Classroom practice

In general, students really enjoyed the task. The Rainbow analysis showed they were indeed focused on the task. In a post-questionnaire not discussed here, we found that students especially liked the use of computers in this task, the collaboration with a classmate, and the chat function. Students are used to chat outside school, but they hardly ever use it for school tasks.

How and when to use computer-supported collaborative argumentation tasks such as the ones described in this article, largely depends on the goals and desired outcomes. When the main goal is to get students to discuss their opinions and arguments, an individual preparation with a diagram is helpful. When students need to learn to collaborate and negotiate, a collaborative diagram during discussion is more helpful. When the main goal for students is to collaboratively write an argumentative text, a diagram might be supportive in eliciting discussion on arguments and relations to be put in the text. In our studies, the text was indeed deeper than the diagrams. However, writing a collaborative argumentative text also interferes with discussing a topic, because the students are focused on the text product.

Even though students did interact argumentatively, and the diagrams were supportive, the discussions and diagrams are, in our opinion, not of very high quality. Using argumentation is very difficult for students, although they do seem to know how it should be done. Supporting and rebutting arguments is especially difficult, students merely exchange arguments instead of relating them. Content

related sequences mainly consist of what students want to put in the text, and exploring what the other person means to say (Andriessen et al., 2003). This behavior could be explained by current classroom practice. At this moment education puts emphasis on learning argumentation, and there is less attention for argumentation as a mean to learn. Also, products are often still the things students are graded for, so students focus on products, instead of really exploring the space of debate.

For classroom practice it might be interesting to combine both kinds of diagrams in a task. In forcing students to collaboratively reach consensus on a shared diagram, discussion might be triggered more because both students have constructed their individual diagram before. On the other hand, the task might be too complicated, or students might just combine the two individual representations into one. Students could also be forced to put only the most important arguments and relations in the diagram, so students really have to negotiate on what they consider really important and what not. Finally, the teacher could play a more supportive role in constructing diagrams or guiding discussion by emphasizing more the content of discussion instead the form of logical argumentation. SCALE and Twins will examine these suggestions further in future research.

## References

- Andriessen, J., Erkens, G., Laak, C. Vande, Peters, N., Coirier, P. (2003). Argumentation as negotiation in electronic collaborative writing. In: J. Andriessen, M. Baker, D. Suthers (Eds.), *Confronting cognitions: Arguing to learn*. Netherlands: Kluwer Academic Publishers.
- Andriessen, J., & Sandberg, J. (1999). Where is education heading and how about AI? *International Journal of Artificial Intelligence in Education*, 10, 130–150.
- Baker, M. J. (1994). A model for negotiation in teaching–learning dialogues. *Journal of Artificial Intelligence in Education*, 5(2), 199–254.
- Baker, M. J. (1999). Argumentative interactions and cooperative learning. *Escritos*.
- Baker, M. J. (2003). Computer-mediated argumentative interactions for the co-elaboration of scientific notions. In: J. Andriessen, M. Baker, D. Suthers (Eds.), *Confronting cognitions: Arguing to learn*. Netherlands: Kluwer Academic Publishers.
- Bell, P. (1997). Using argument representations to make thinking visible for individuals and groups. In R. Hall, N. Miyake, & N. Enyedy (Eds.), *Proceedings of CSCL'97: The Second International Conference on Computer Support for Collaborative Learning* (pp. 10–19). Toronto: University of Toronto Press.
- Dillenbourg, P., Baker, M., Blaye, A., O'Malley, C. O. (1996). The evolution of research on collaborative learning. In: E. Spada, P. Reiman (Eds.), *Learning in humans and machine: Towards an interdisciplinary learning science*. Oxford: Elsevier.
- Edelson, D. C., O'Neill, D. K., Gomez, L. M., D'Amico, L. (1995). A design for effective support of inquiry and collaboration. In: J. L. Schnase, E. L. Cunnius (Eds.), *Proceedings of CSCL '95: The first international conference on computer support for collaborative learning*, October 1995. Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana, USA, Nahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Erkens, G. (2001). *MEPA. Multiple episode protocol analysis (version 4.7) [computer software]*. Utrecht. The Netherlands: Utrecht University.
- Jaspers, J. G. M., & Erkens, G. (2000). *TC3. Text composer, computer supported & collaborative (version 1.4) [computer software]*. Utrecht. The Netherlands: Utrecht University.
- Luttik, B. A. J. (1998). *Samen leren een huis te bouwen; een studiehuis, Een onderzoek naarsamenwerkend leren in het Studiehuis. [Learning to build a house together: A study house. Research on collaborative learning in the study house] literature study*. Utrecht: Utrecht University.

- Paolucci, M., Suthers, D., Weiner, A. (1995). *Belvédère: stimulating students' critical discussion*. CHI95 conference companion, interactive posters, May 7–11, Denver, CO (pp. 123–124).
- Rittel, H. W. J., Webber, M. M. (1984). Planning problems are wicked problems. In: N. Cross (Ed.), *Developments in design methodology*. Chichester: Wiley.
- SCALE-team. (2002a). *Teaching materials and task design for collaborative argumentation-based learning with intelligent internet tools*, Deliverable 1&2, SCALE Project, IST-1999-10664.
- SCALE-team. (2002b). *Test instruments for assessing the quality of students' argumentation, and results on school experiments for teaching collaborative argumentation in secondary schools*, Deliverable 8, SCALE Project, IST-1999-10664.
- Scardamalia, M., Bereiter, C., Lamon, M. (1994). The CSILE project: trying to bring the classroom in world three. In: K. McGilly (Ed.), *Classroom lessons, integrating cognitive theory and classroom practice*. Cambridge, MA: MIT.
- Stein, N.L., Bernas, R.S., Calicchia, D. (1997). Conflict talk: understanding and resolving arguments. In: T. Giron (Ed.), *Conversation: Cognitive, communicative and social perspectives* (Typological Studies in Language, Vol. 34). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Stuurgroep Profiel Tweede Fase Voortgezet Onderwijs. (1994). *De Tweede Fase vernieuwt. Scharnier tussen basisvorming en hoger onderwijs, deel 2*. [The second phase is innovating. Hinge between lower secondary education and higher education]. Den Haag: Stuurgroep Profiel Tweede Fase Voortgezet Onderwijs.
- Stichting ICT op school. (2001). *Vier in balans: verkenning van zaken met het oog op effectief en efficiënt gebruik van ICT in het onderwijs*. [Four in balance: Exploration with focus on effective and efficient use of ICT in education]. Den Haag: Stichting ICT op school.
- Suthers, D. D. (2001). Towards a systematic study of representational guidance for collaborative learning discourse. *Journal of Universal Computer Science*, 7(3), 254–277.
- Suthers, D. D. (2003). Representational guidance for collaborative inquiry. In: J. Andriessen, M. Baker, D. Suthers (Eds.), *Confronting cognitions: Arguing to learn* (pp. 1–17). Kluwer Academic Publisher: Netherlands.
- Van Bruggen, J. M., Boshuizen, H. P. A., Kirschner, P. A. (2002). A cognitive framework for cooperative problem solving with argument visualization. In: P. A. Kirschner, S. J. Buckingham Shum, C. S. Carr (Eds.), *Visualizing Argumentation: Software Tools for Collaborative and Educational Sense-Making*. Springer: London.
- Van Bruggen, J. M., Kirschner, P. (2003). Designing external representations to support solving wicked problems. In: J. Andriessen, M. Baker, D. Suthers (Eds.), *Confronting cognitions: Arguing to learn*. Netherlands: Kluwer Academic Publishers.
- Veerman, A. J., Andriessen, J., & Kanselaar, G. (2002). Collaborative argumentation in academic education. *Instructional Science*, 30(3), 155–186.
- Veerman, A. L. (2000). *Computer-supported collaborative learning through argumentation*. Doctoral dissertation. Utrecht: Utrecht University.