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Of Catwalk Technologies and Boundary Creatures

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Researchers designing and deploying technologies in the wild can find it difficult to balance pure innovation with scalable solutions. We propose a catwalk technology metaphor where researchers as boundary creatures focus on innovation whilst providing links to prêt-a-porter (ready to wear) developments. Evidence from three ‘in-the-wild’ field-based learning case studies with 140 geosciences and history learners are used to conceptualise the researchers’ ‘boundary creature’ role in managing these design process tensions, specifically for e-learning using mobile systems, distributed collaboration, sensors and augmented reality in quarries, up mountains and in the city. The analysis details the researcher issues of spatial/temporal acuity and socio-political astuteness in an adapted practitioner inquiry approach. Ultimately, a researcher design role (RDR) model reveals how researchers establish expectations with the design team, stakeholders and users around what is to be innovated (e.g. technology, activities) and how the system will change or enable current practices.

Categories & Subject Descriptors: H1.2 [User/machine systems] – human factors; H5.1 [Multimedia Information Systems] – artificial, augmented and virtual realities; evaluation / methodology; H.5.2 [User interfaces] – evaluation / methodology, theory and methods; H.5.3 [Group and Organisational Interfaces] – theory and models

General Descriptors: Human Factors; Design; Theory, Methods and Models.

Keywords: researchers’ role, boundary creatures, catwalk technology, innovation design, scalability.

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1. INTRODUCTION

As an HCI researcher working ‘in the wild’ we need to balance many conflicting needs. However, wild contexts such as field trip learning can also enable creative, often serendipitous, innovations that would never have occurred in a controlled environment [Rogers 2011]. In adapting design decisions to meet the complex changing needs of the wild, we can be free to be creative outside the constraints of the laboratory. What might be considered as innovative design decisions for technology enhanced learning up a mountain, in a quarry or on the streets of a city might be considered crazy in a classroom. As a HCI researcher working across different social, physical and technological boundaries we can easily be thought of as both bizarre yet also empowering. To enable the later perception we need to understand ourselves and the role we play in the research and design processes as we traverse these boundaries.

In the wild research can represent contexts that range from those that are physically desolate and uncultivated to those that are simply natural habitats for the users but not necessarily for the researchers. This makes the distinction between contexts that have physical attributes that are ‘wild’ and uncontrolled in contrast to contexts that can be perceived as ‘wild’ by those interacting with them. Our sense of control over a context could then be defined as one attribute of defining an ‘in-the-wild’ study. Within geoscience and historical field trips, presenting ‘in-the-wild’ learning is often perceived by both the learners and the researchers as a context that is ‘in-the-wild’ for them. However, often some stakeholders such as teachers and community organisations are in their

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3 comfort zones and natural habitats. This presents a very different situation from those usually
4 encountered by HCI research in the laboratory where the researcher feels at home, but the user or
5 stakeholders feel they are in unfamiliar territory. In all cases, the onus is on the HCI researcher to
6 step across these boundaries to support the research and design processes.

7
8 It could be argued that these issues are important to any design processes regardless of whether
9 they are in the wild or not. This paper maintains that these tensions become heightened and more
10 valuable in wild projects. For example, whilst HCI researchers often seek to innovate in their
11 research and designs, they also have to balance competing expectations from different stakeholder
12 groups together with managing the practicalities of the design, development, deployment and
13 evaluation process. Many within the educational field seek to turn those innovative designs into
14 developments that are scalable and have sustained impact. However, the line between innovation
15 and scalable, sustainable HCI design has become an ever more complicated one to tread. We
16 propose that using a fashion design metaphor of catwalk technologies into prêt-a-porter (ready to
17 wear) developments may be a useful one to consider. whilst the notion of researchers as boundary
18 creatures might support managing those tensions. This paper reviews both these notions and
19 strengthens them through theoretically underpinning them with a practitioner inquiry, cognitive
20 ethnography and grounded theory perspectives.

21 **2. BACKGROUND**

22 The 'wild' context can act a crucible for inspiring serendipitous technical innovations [Rogers
23 2011]. However, along with the development of novel technologies for the wild, there is a push
24 from stakeholders to develop usable, scalable and sustainable systems [Blevis 2007] making the
25 tensions between innovation and scalability apparent. As part of this process, the researcher has to
26 manage their role and identity within the design, development and deployment of systems with
27 that of users in the wild. Within research-led education projects the approach towards innovation is
28 overseen by the researcher, often within a complex social context. Within field work learning,
29 dealing with this complexity often relies on the researchers' flexibility towards rapidly changing
30 temporal, spatial and socio-political issues in the research process. In order to do this, the
31 researcher ultimately relies on methods that support their own reflexive approach not only to the
32 research within a complex changing context but also to the design process.

33 **2.1 The Wild Crucible**

34 Rogers [2011] discusses the role of technology 'in-the-wild' design as a move away from
35 designing for user needs in-situ, to developing novel technologies for peoples' changing situated
36 experiences. This highlights the issue of innovation in the design process as well as the reflexive
37 nature of the researcher (i.e. not only reflecting on the design process taken but the methodology
38 and epistemological approach taken and the researchers place in that process). Thus, this describes
39 a shift in HCI research from a task driven approach to one that focuses on experiences, creative
40 and often serendipitous inquiries There are many issues that impact on the 'wild' design process
41 described here; from designing for an embodied [Beckett and Morris 2001; Giddens 1984] or felt
42 experience [McCarthy and Wright 2004; Wright et al. 2008] to that of the cognitive sense making
43 process [Hutchins 1995]. Rogers [2011] argues that the next challenge is a need to create new
44 'wild' theories. The wild theories we focus on specifically in this paper examine the researcher
45 role in designing novel technologies for field trip learning and the need for balancing issues of
46 innovation against the pressures for scalable and sustainable solutions. The generalisation of this
47 work is achieved through reference to research in other 'wild' domains that have encountered
48 similar issues. This paper therefore seeks to inform the design of broader 'in-the-wild' human
49 systems [Becvar et al. 2008; Hutchins 1995]. The researcher has one of the most important roles in
50 this process.
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53 **2.2 The Researcher as Boundary Creature**

54 Johnson et al [2012] review some roles that researchers take on within an 'in-the-wild' study and
55 some insights provided by the investigator in the evaluation process. This paper details within a
56 well-defined wild context and the complex researcher role when becoming a participant observer
57 (as perceived by themselves and the participant). The roles are described as those of facilitating or
58 encouraging, explaining, developing a level of authority, a familiarity with participants, and a
59 relationship with their research. The reflexive approach to this research has unpicked personal
60 accounts of the researchers' evolving identity within the research context and how they facilitate
the technology users' development of identity. The social-psychological role of the researcher in
the research process has long been debated [Atkinson and Hammersley 1994; Henwood and

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3 Pidgeon 1992; Willig 2001]. However, their developing identities when researching the design
4 process are sorely under-represented.

5 The literature on identity theories has been developing for centuries but we focus upon identity
6 in technology enhanced situated learning contexts. “Who we are”, is very tightly interwoven with
7 “what we have learnt” [Bernstein and Solomon 1999]. However, our identities are not fixed
8 commodities that can be simply traded up or down after learning occurs. We remain one person
9 who inhabits multiple social worlds [Goffman 1969; Lave and Wenger 1991]. Our identities are a
10 muddled interaction of perspectives within those changing social worlds. Added to this chaos is
11 the impact from each situated space and time in the learning process [Bowker and Star 2000].
12 Physical, temporal and social psychological contexts can seriously impact on our identities and
13 their development. Moving between different locations has been thought by some as physically
14 separating these identities. ‘I’m at university now so I’m a student, I’m at work now so I’m an
15 employee, I’m home now so I’m a daughter / son / mother / father’. However, our identities, lives
16 and the learning process cannot be as clearly divided as this, with most of us living in blurred
17 overlaps. However, it has been argued that the gap between our identities in different social worlds
18 should never be fully bridged otherwise how can we be encouraged to continually develop and
19 transcend our immediate practices and identities [Guile 2006]? Learning often involves dissonance
20 and disequilibrium not only for our own identities but also for others, as identity reconstruction
21 can impact dramatically on organisational and sociocultural objectives [Alvesson and Willmott
22 2002].

23 For centuries the teacher has taken on the role of supporting not only our learning processes but
24 our identity reformation. Technology on its own cannot and would not replace this role. However,
25 technology can facilitate the learning process, albeit with inevitable gaps due to poor or
26 inappropriate design of these systems. As we have noted, social practices shape how we learn and,
27 in turn, who we become [Lave and Wenger 1991]. However, although knowledge may have its
28 roots within a formal discipline area (e.g. history, biology, mathematics) this paper reviews a
29 broader perception of what ‘knowledge’ is. Knowledge can be enclosed by both formal and
30 informal practices which are not fixed as we produce schema and mental models which are
31 cognitively, contextually and socially mediated. Technology as ‘boundary objects’ often traverse
32 these knowledge domains and social structures, and support communication and collaboration by
33 acting as an interface between these boundaries of domain knowledge [Star and Griesemer 1989].
34 These boundary objects can be thought of as both enablers and barriers to understanding. Some
35 objects facilitate knowledge sharing and understanding across boundaries. Other boundary objects
36 become barriers for users moving between communities as they may be embedded in local jargon,
37 informal practices and unfamiliar norms of behaviour. As HCI researchers and designers we often
38 aim to design boundary objects that allow users to flexibly move between communities and
39 contexts expanding their knowledge as they go. However, our use of these objects and their
40 smooth movement between communities is often hampered by poor design. For example, Adams
41 et al. [2005] present evidence of how the poor design of digital libraries for use across healthcare
42 settings, where different terminology is used and practices are the norm, produces poor access to
43 safety critical information.

44 The role of intermediaries supporting technology as an aid to the learning process was evaluated
45 by Murphy and Adams [2005]. Their research identified great benefits in the support but found
46 that these were qualitatively larger indirect benefits (such as changing roles and responsibilities,
47 improved social interaction) rather than direct benefits (such as cost and time saving, skills
48 acquired). In a related study, Adams et al. [2005] specifically review the use of digital library
49 technology within the healthcare setting as a lifelong learning resource. They identify how an
50 information intermediary (e.g. a librarian) can compensate for the inevitable gaps between system
51 design and users’ ability, awareness and motivation. Ultimately the research identifies that the
52 information intermediary can act as a flexible catalyst for producing and empowering technology
53 within the community of practice. The paper concludes that it is important to further understand
54 the relationship of communities within social structures in order to ensure that technology can
55 facilitate (and not inhibit) learning in those groupings. We argue that these intermediaries act as
56 ‘boundary creatures’ moving between different communities of practice, in keeping with
57 McGinnis’s definition [1999] of the intermediary role as being ‘a boundary creature [that] inhabits
58 more than one world’ (p.61).

59 Donna Haraway [1991], the feminist scholar and historian of science and technology, presents a
60 more complex notion of a ‘boundary creature’ as a deviant from the norm and a ‘monster’
(resulting from the Latin origins of ‘demonstratus’ – to demonstrate and ‘monstrare’ – to show,
derived from ‘monstrum’: a sign or portent). Burt [2005] in contrast highlights how brokers

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3 between social worlds can gain social capital as they appear creative, insightful and possessing a
4 genius born out of the import-export of ideas. As HCI researchers in an educational research led
5 processes we move and import concepts between different social worlds thus requiring a certain
6 degree of temporal and spatial acuity. Understanding when, where and from whom information is
7 important enables us to bridge 'gaps' between different communities. As well as temporal and
8 spatial acuity, we also require political astuteness which often requires an understanding of the
9 'passion' that many of these concepts evoke in people. Jones et al. [2004] discusses the notion of
10 bringing passions back into the study of social structures to remove the idea of knowledge being
11 thought of as an 'objective representation' or a 'social construction'. It is argued that the issue of
12 alignment with notions of 'good' and 'bad' practices and outcomes need to be reviewed. Many
13 organizational initiatives and teaching practices have a history of evoking emotive responses as the
14 balance between creativity and standardization are maintained [Bernstein and Solomon 1999]. It
15 could similarly be argued that we need to provide flexible support to affective responses to the
16 balance between the creativity of technical innovation and the call for standardization leading to
17 practical, scalable, sustainable, mainstreamed systems. Within HCI, this has long been a tension
18 that different design processes have sought to deal with. Although this paper is not a detailed
19 review of those design processes for the wild, we do examine tensions in that process that the
20 researcher has to balance.

21 22 **2.3 Innovation and scalability in the catwalk technologies design process**

23 Innovation could be defined as simply a novel change without any association to improvement.
24 However, as HCI researchers we seek to associate any innovation with benefits for the users. One
25 approach to innovation that links with enhancement is that of transformational design. But how
26 should we make those transformations? Within computing, transformations often refer to the
27 computational transfer (e.g. of data, packets etc) from one node to another. However, in the design
28 and learning domains, transformation refers to transforming the self. In the design community a
29 transformational design perspective [Burns et al. 2006; Design Council 2011] looks at technology
30 design as taking the viewpoint of and making things visible to the self often through prototyping as
31 a key step in this process. However, within the design lifecycle for transformational design there
32 has been an undue emphasis on the adoption lifecycle and so naturally this approach focuses on
33 metrics for scalability and sustainable systems.

34 Adams et al [2005] highlight the importance of viewing the design process as evolutionary or
35 revolutionary. Their research, on the design of digital libraries in healthcare settings, defines these
36 two processes as:

- 37 • Evolutionary design involving incremental design changes, responsive to recognised needs
38 whilst maintaining consistency in the fundamental design concepts.
- 39 • Revolutionary design involving conceptually new designs with new possibilities that create
40 exiting changes which may not be acceptable and thus sink into oblivion.

41 They argued that technology progress consists of a well balanced mix of these two design
42 approaches. In particular, this paper focuses on the role of the 'information intermediary' within
43 the organisation of study (i.e. hospitals) as a catalyst to support design processes that maintain
44 evolutions of redesign whilst allowing for revolutionary design through engagement with
45 communities of practice. They also add that a combination of social and organisational forces and
46 pressures (both internal and external to the context of study) can create revolutionary ways in
47 which people work and use technology. One thread, however, that this research misses is that of
48 the researchers' role in the design process.

49 Within the HCI domain, research into online communities has taken many approaches to
50 learning theory in order to gain a different lens on designing systems for participation in online
51 communities [Bryant et al. 2005; Preece and Schneiderman 2009]. Bryant [2005] in particular
52 emphasised how the design of novel cooperative systems can produce a 'transformed' use of tools,
53 views of the community and ultimately the users' identity. Much of the literature on technology
54 and embodiment also draws from a literature around learning, identity and the self. Schiphorst
55 [2011] reviews the design process for somatic experiences from four different perspectives of the
56 world: a Cartesian view; first person; second person; and finally viewing the world through a
57 mirror of the self. It is argued that self-learning and self-knowledge occur through co-experience
58 of these perspectives, which can then, in turn, transform the self.

59 Within the fashion world the designer is considered visionary. Ferrero-Regis [2010] presents
60 the concept of catwalk fashions as being considered more as wearable art or fantasy garments
rather than being aimed at the prêt-à-porter (ready to wear) market. It is argued that previous
catwalk fashions taken into department lines were scorned as copies of the original, even

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producing copyright battles. They argue that more recently the catwalk fashions have acted more as creative inspiration for the fashion houses with a push for an adapted design process being accepted throughout the industry. Within HCI a similar tension between the creative and practical has been growing. Wolf et al. [2006] give a detailed account of the tensions that have been growing for decades in HCI between an engineering design approach and a more qualitative and creative design-oriented approach. This paper argues that both approaches are not mutually exclusive and are both valid.

If we take this approach into wild technologies, we can see a theory for a ‘*catwalk technologies*’ approach to design processes whereby innovation leads the development process but provides hooks into an iterative scalable and sustained technology design process. Wolf et al. [2006] detail the elements of a creative design praxis as those of a non-linear process; design judgement (i.e. knowledge, reflection, practice and action), creating and critiquing artefacts. Their paper argues for respect for the creative design process and an argument presented around how creativity in design and iterative engineering design are both essential in the design process but are not necessarily combined in one activity. This seems to concur with Rogers’ [2011] arguments around novel wild technologies.

2.4 Field-based technology and learning innovations

Field trips form an important part of learning in many domains providing a valuable experience beyond the classroom. However, field work is inherently complex and students can become overwhelmed by its complexity unless the value of the experience is carefully explored [Boyle et al. 2003; Spicer and Stratford 2001]. But how do we define a valuable experience? For the purposes of this paper we focus on learning where there is a clear pedagogical benefit to either a formal or informal learning process. One way to review this is through the level of critical reflection within the experience. Reflection-in-action as defined by Schön [1983] happens in what is the ‘action-present’. This is highly appropriate for wild research, since it comes in response to a surprise experience felt by the learner where the expected outcome is beyond their ‘knowing-in-action’. This reflection-in-action process focuses on challenging the learners’ assumptions, allowing them to think in a new way about the problem encountered. Schön [1983] argues this is very different to the ‘reflection-on-action’ that is often designed for in traditional learning activities. Within traditional field-based educational activities, the learner often collects data in the field and then reflects upon it in the laboratory. Taking a ‘reflection-in-action’ approach the students should be reflecting on learning whilst ‘in-the-wild’. This is not to say that the learner will not reflect again ‘on-the-action’ at a later date but the focus in this paper is on their learning experience in the wild, in the ‘action-present’. The technology should therefore support this reflection process whilst ‘in-the-wild’. The importance of guiding these reflections so that they are substantive enough to be of value yet constructive enough for developing others reflective learning has been noted by several researchers [e.g. Land 2004; O’Malley and Scanlon 1990].]

When reviewing technology in the wild there are several hierarchical and ontological models that review concept of ecologies with regard to resources and devices [Luckin 2008; Nardi and O’Day 1999]. Many recent reviews of learning within a field context also review the importance of social and political structures with regard to these resources. Adams et al. [2005] highlighted the impact of social and hierarchical impacts on the use of resources within hospital settings. As these socio-political issues impact on the implementation of technologies in the wild then, previously noted, researchers require astuteness in their reflexive account of these issues. However, whether we are focusing on the resources or the devices, all these theories highlight the importance of the contextual experience.

‘In-the-wild’ research has uncovered several directions of value to the reflective learning process [Sharples 2000]. The concept of time and space in collaboration is one that researchers into experience design have started to unpick; for example, Marshall et al. [2011] view the concepts of using technology within space in the wild as distinctly different to that of the laboratory. Schiphorst [2011] relates transformations of the self and our own state to the physicality of the somatic (corporeal) self rather than the visceral (perceptual) experience. This could also be related to the physical experience within a field-based learning situation in a storm up a mountain, on a sunny day in a quarry or in the rain in the city.

Nerb et al. [2007] highlight how time factors increase the importance of ordering complex tasks, to increase the learning potential from an interaction. Benford et al. [2009] reviewed the interaction between different spaces, and the concept of moving between real world and virtual spaces. The interaction trajectories conceptual framework developed from this research provides a useful starting point for exploring concepts of collaborative learning and technically mediated

experience design. The framework identifies four key concepts; *space, time, roles* and *interfaces*. Their continually changing inter-relationship with each other through temporal factors is a very relevant concept when considering 'in-the-wild' research.

2.5 The research process and the researchers role

At the heart of this review are some issues that relate to the researchers' identity in the research process. However, related to this are complex inter-relationships of identity change and reformation throughout that research process. A student taking part in a learning process, whether as part of a research project or not, undergoes an evolution in changing their perceptions of their own identity. The researchers conducting the research also develop their own identity and together they advance the identity of the research itself. This can be defined along the lines of physical, temporal and social psychological contexts [Adams In press]. Although complex, this process of identity reformation can benefit from our understanding of the technology as facilitating or inhibiting these transformations. One lens that can help us understand this process is that of social and contextual boundaries that we and the technology cross over. Thus it can be extremely beneficial to be reflexive with regard to this process. Reflexivity (i.e. taking account of the researcher within the research process) has long been considered by social scientists as an important part of the research process [Atkinson and Hammersley 1994; Henwood and Pidgeon 1992]. Henwood and Pidgeon [1992], when reviewing grounded theory, suggest that all good quality research should provide documentation of the analytic process and a reflexive account of researchers' research backgrounds and perspectives. With regard to HCI, Adams et al. [2008] detail the importance of reflexivity in a qualitative HCI approach. Reflexivity, whilst being a central element of phenomenography, is also considered an important part of two other research methods relevant for wild research and in particular field based learning: cognitive ethnography and practitioner inquiry.

Cognitive ethnography is suggested as an alternative approach to traditional ethnography which reviews the meaning that participants create within a situation by examining 'how' that meaning is made [Becvar et al. 2008; Williams 2006]. It is suggested that the researcher brings to the study several forms of pertinent expertise around: 1) knowledge of the activity; 2) knowledge of the discipline being observed; 3) theoretical and methodological underpinning; and 4) knowledge of the community of practice being studied. We would also add to this, that through the research process additional expertise is developed in the form of an increased understanding of the context; with regard to the case studies presented in this paper, this is specifically around the *situated* learning context (e.g. the physicality of a particular mountain and its interpretation within different conditions and through different technologies).

The concepts of practice and the practitioner in the research process are central to the methodological approaches underpinning practitioner inquiry. Practitioner inquiry is an extension of action research which has been used effectively within practice based contexts for several decades [Carr and Kemmis 1986; Drennon 2002]. This approach to research supports the development of knowledge contextualised within specific contexts of practice and particularly emphasises the role of collaboration. Practitioner inquiry also highlights the importance of a cyclic self-reflective systematic inquiry; to plan, act observe and reflect (see Figure 1).

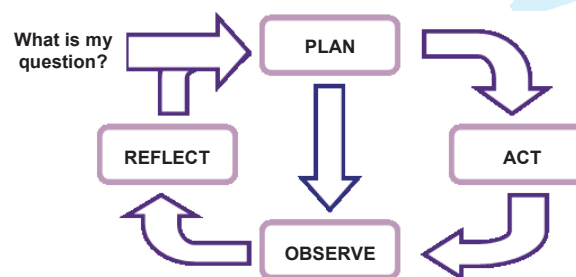


Fig. 1. Practitioner inquiry cycle [based on Reason and Brandbury 2001]

3. RESEARCH METHOD

This set of 3 studies covered a range of different technologies for geoscience and history e-learning, for a variety of different types of users. This was based within formal and informal learning in Higher Education and for the general public. The 'in-the-wild' contexts ranged from mountains and quarries, to cemeteries and lastly the streets of a city. The research design processes

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3 ranged from a 6 month to a 14 year period, and results from users – university students, school
4 children and the public – were gathered, compared and contrasted, to identify issues relevant to the
5 role of the researcher in the design process, both specific to each study and generic. Current work
6 practices were identified and the impact of the design process on those practices was assessed. A
7 pre-defined concept of an ‘in-the-wild’ design process was not employed, so that users could
8 explore what they perceived as comprising these systems.
9

10 **3.1 Study 1: Out There In Here**

11 The ‘Out There and In Here’ (OTIH) project examined the possibilities for new technologies to
12 support distributed, synchronous collaborations between students in the field, and others based in a
13 stationary location (an indoor lab). The design process involved a 1st stage workshop, gathering
14 perceptions from 19 earth science and postgraduate students around the nature, requirements and
15 benefits of field-based learning. This was followed by the core researchers working with an
16 interaction designer (external to the organisation) supporting a creative and focused design
17 process. Once a system design had been established, the interaction designer supported developing
18 graphics for the system. Once prototypes had been developed, participants took part in a
19 technology pilot on a nature trail nearby. The system was then adapted according to feedback from
20 the participants and the research team. Once the full system was developed, 21 students
21 participated in a geosciences field trip using the OTIH technologies. The lab had projections
22 onto three screens of the ‘Out There’ camera feed, an interactive table display and data presented
23 on a laptop. A table was set up for the ‘In Here’ team control desk, with another table for hardcopy
24 materials such as books, leaflets and British Geological Society maps to which the team referred
25 during the course of the live trials. The interactive multitouch tabletop was set up for mapping and
26 enlarging artefacts discovered Out There and prompted further field investigation. Researchers
27 from the project team, housed in an adjacent observation lab, were able to look through the one-
28 way observation window to monitor lab activity. In addition, two wall mounted-plasma screens in
29 the observation room showed what was being projected in the lab.

30 The student team Out There at the field site (a local quarry) used mobile phones with Internet
31 access to communicate with the student and tutor team in the lab. They sent geotagged
32 photographs taken on location via their smartphones to be mapped on the interactive table in the
33 lab. The In Here team used this and other information communicated during the field work to build
34 an overall picture of the dig, gave feedback and their observations to the team Out There and even
35 provided links to relevant websites and scanned pages from books to help inform further enquiries.
36 Various hypotheses were formulated during the trial, and students were able to vote on whether
37 they agreed with these or not.

38 The students were given a short questionnaire before the trial and at the end to establish
39 approaches to hypothesis generation. They were all filmed in both locations throughout the trials.
40 At the end of the trial a focus group discussion was completed with each of the teams. Afterwards,
41 the whole group was brought together to discuss the day’s activities. Finally, the research team met
42 after the trials for a debrief session on the activities and how to develop the system further. The
43 tabletop and mobile systems were redesigned over several subsequent trials to support a wider
44 group of participants and activities.
45

46 **3.2 Study 2: Mobile GIS**

47 The title Mobile GIS (Geographic Information System) is used to describe a range of practical
48 fieldwork activities carried out by students from the School of Geography at the University of
49 Nottingham, dating back to 1997 but with more recent technological advances occurring from
50 2007-2012. Each year, a different cohort of students attended a short residential field trip to the
51 around March/April, to investigate how information about the landscape could be visualised and
52 represented through mobile media. Over this fifteen-year time period, more than 100 students
53 attended these field trips, initially presented as an option as part of a wider field trip for first-year
54 undergraduates (1997-2007) and later as a standalone module into the use of mobile GIS in the
55 field (2008-2012) aimed at third-year undergraduates.

56 The learning outcomes on these field trips focused specifically on the application of different
57 techniques and digital geographic data in the field, to present information and visualisations about
58 the local environment and also to consider designs for future in-field augmentation.. Students were
59 asked to conduct HCI evaluations of the usability and suitability of a range of approaches that
60 included:

- acetates: these were printed acetate sheets featuring perspective outlines of the terrain rendered from particular viewpoints in the landscape by students using Digital Terrain Modelling

1
2
3 software overlaid with labels or other annotations and used by participants when in the relevant
4 physical location (see Figure 4). The use of acetates was originally used as part of a field
5 exercise to encourage students to compare digital models of landscapes with the real world
6 scenes, to raise awareness of the representational fidelity of such models;

- 7 • 'electronic acetates', using GeoMole, an application on a PDA (Personal Digital Assistant).
8 GeoMole was a digital equivalent of the acetate exercise albeit relying on loose matching of
9 the scene rather than through direct transparency overlays. This was developed in part to
10 explore some research questions related to in-field geographic visualisation, but also to add
11 additional capability and flexibility to the teaching exercise (e.g. it enabled sketching of notes
12 on the PDA and avoided the bottleneck of printing many acetates in a short time frame);
- 13 • Google Earth running on a tablet computer: this provided layered geographical and geological
14 information, through a larger screen, a familiar interactive interface and the ability to switch
15 from first person location-centred view to aerial perspective;
- 16 • mScape (MediaScape) software [Stenton et al. 2007] delivered on a PDA: this enabled students
17 to investigate the geographical relevance of locative media, triggered by the participants'
18 movements through various 'trigger regions', by allowing students to author their own content
19 and associate this with trigger zones of various shapes, sizes and positions;
- 20 • Geo-located Virtual Reality delivered through a head-mounted display and laptop [Jarvis et al.
21 2008]: a VR headset showed computer generated reconstructions of valley glaciers, as a way to
22 visualise the size of position of such features from a first-person real-time perspective in the
23 field (see Figure 3);
- 24 • Layar (an AR - Augmented Reality application) on a smartphone: This allowed students to
25 explore real-time augmentation and electronic annotation of the landscape, using a digital
26 compass in addition to GPS (Global Positioning System) position;
- 27 • Zapp [Meek et al. 2012]: another simple AR app, that allows authoring of zones on the
28 landscape to be overlain with digital information. Rather than using a typical, 'where's my
29 nearest query of trigger zone, it uses a line-of-sight algorithm along with a digital terrain model
30 to allow users to point the device at a distant part of the landscape and derive information about
31 that area.

32 Students on the field trip were asked to record video diaries as part of the experience, and it is
33 through analysis of these diaries, together with researcher observations and follow-up focus
34 groups, that we have obtained critical reflections in respect of practitioner inquiry and the broader
35 findings presented in this paper.

37 3.3 Study 3. Hidden Histories

38 This project investigated the use of location-based audio to enable public learning of historical
39 events, specifically the 1831 Reform Riot as it occurred in the city of Nottingham, England. The
40 audio was delivered through two different types of walk: a guided, 'person-led' walk with
41 historical information narrated by members of a community history group at specific points of
42 interest along a planned route; and another, 'technology-led' walk, where the audio narrations
43 were delivered through location-aware smartphones at the same points of interest as the first walk.
44 Both experiences were carried out in groups, although the person-led walk was attended by
45 approximately 50 participants whilst the technology-led walk was tested out by a much smaller
46 group of 6 participants.

47 Many of the participants for the person-led walk already had contact with the community history
48 group, being existing friends or acquaintances. Those attending the technology-led walk were
49 recruited directly by the research team, through existing acquaintances known to have an interest
50 in local history, but not directly associated with or known by the community history group.

51 The community history group had planned to carry out a guided walk around the streets of
52 Nottingham but this in itself was a new activity for them and they had not thought to attempt to use
53 any form of technological solution to help them in this endeavour, beyond the use of their group's
54 website to publicise the event and upload historical content (or links to such) that were of
55 relevance to the walk and the Reform Riot itself. They had planned the walk to take place with
56 people as the central resource, who would guide the participants around and stop them at relevant
57 points of interest; they then took it in turns to read out pre-prepared narrative, based on a variety of
58 historical sources. Very few of the community history group owned or were experienced in using
59 smartphones and the idea of using a device that utilised GPS as means of detecting location was
60 considered (by them) to be beyond their capabilities, in terms of technical 'know-how'.

Data from participants were collected through questionnaires, researcher observations (where possible) and group interviews. In the person-led walk, the research team were able to take on the

1
2
3 role of participant observer, although in the technology-led walk the researchers were not able to
4 take on this role, as their attention was mostly taken up with resolving unforeseen technical issues
5 with the equipment and guiding the participants from one point of interest to another.
6

7 **3.4 Data collection and analysis**

8 This paper takes an approach to the research which merges cognitive ethnography, grounded
9 theory and practitioner inquiry. Practitioner inquiry provides an overarching theoretical
10 perspective on the evaluation process appropriate for technology enhanced situated learning.
11 Cognitive ethnography [Becvar et al. 2008; Williams 2006] provides guidance on knowledge bases
12 to be utilised and data to be collected and finally grounded theory [Adams et al. 2008] can provide
13 an analysis approach that ties these three together.

14 More specifically the approach taken to these case studies by the research teams has been
15 according to an iterative practitioner inquiry cycle (i.e. plan, act, observe, reflect OR observe,
16 reflect, plan, act, observe, reflect), collecting data to identify systems and procedures that can
17 enhance teaching and learning processes. The research teams have utilised their knowledge to
18 guide data collection around 5 themes:

- 19 • Knowledge of field-based inquiries,
- 20 • Spatial and historical knowledge bases specific to the humanities,
- 21 • HCI and teaching and learning theory bases
- 22 • Understanding the specific communities of practice for the stakeholder groups involved in the
23 design processes.
- 24 • Specific technological device benefits (e.g. augmented reality, mobile devices, distributed
25 communication systems).

26 From a cognitive ecological perspective we need to understand the full complex
27 interconnections (including culture, context, history and affect) that impact on cognition which is
28 especially important for learning. This theoretical approach strongly ties up with cognitive
29 ethnography, and thus strongly highlights identifying correlations between multiple reflections of
30 all parties within the field-based learning system design process. Therefore, rather than taking an
31 auto-ethnographic approach [Cunningham and Jones 2005; Cunningham et al. 2010] focusing just
32 on reflexive accounts from researchers, this study uses a network of reflections impacting on the
33 researcher and the research (i.e. users, stakeholders, designers and developers) to understand the
34 researchers' role within this wild research. The data collected within each of the studies was
35 similar in its qualitative roots (i.e. reflections from researchers during and after the design process,
36 video recordings of the project evaluations, participant questionnaires and in-depth interviews and
37 focus groups), although it differed in the depth and variety of data collected as the projects ranged
38 in length from 6mths to 5yrs. An in-depth analysis of all the data was conducted using a grounded
39 theory approach [Strauss and Corbin 1990] with the data collection and analysis combining
40 systematic levels of abstraction into a model, which was verified and expanded throughout each
41 study and into a final meta-analysis across the three case-studies. This meta-analysis was
42 examined through a standard grounded theory format (i.e. open, axial and selective coding and
43 identification of process effects). Once analysed, the data synthesis was verified with the case
44 study project leads to verify its validity.

45 In the results discussed below, many points are illustrated with verbatim extracts from the
46 interviews, focus groups and video extracts. In these quotations, the speaker is identified by the
47 study, and given a participant number to distinguish their accounts from other participants (so, for
48 instance, HH stands for the Hidden Histories project and p6 as participant 6 in that study; OT
49 stands for 'Out There' field based student, whilst 'IH' is the 'In Here' lab-based student).

50 **4. RESULTS**

51 Throughout the analysis of the data from the three studies there was a common theme on the need
52 for the researcher to balance tensions around three important issues for field trip learning
53 technology: spatial acuity, temporal acuity and socio-political astuteness.

54 With regard to issues of spatial acuity, the researcher must understand that the field trip
55 technology could supplement outdoor spaces by increasing the amount of relevant information
56 available, resulting in critical reflection, immersion and emotional engagement by visitors.
57 However, the risk is that poor design of the technology can distract from those spaces, in some
58 cases making them more dangerous.

59 Within field situations, time was found to flow in a different way to that in the laboratory where
60 many devices are designed and developed. For researchers, effectively balancing this temporal
difference can produce an increased reflection in the field which is beneficial for learning.

However, researchers taking too much control, through orchestrating time in the field, can disrupt the natural flow of activities, making them too time consuming, slow and inflexible for changing user needs.

Finally, the project researchers felt the pressure of socio-political issues and their own astuteness, with regard to these needs, allowed for more effective technology enhanced field learning. The researcher needs to consider obvious social issues such as shared rather than personal devices for group work. However, some social context issues may not be so apparent whilst still impacting powerfully on the learning process through a sense of increased inhibition (i.e. looking silly in public) or decreased safety (i.e. feeling at risk in public). The political issues can be a lot more subtle but still require the researcher to remain aware of related impacts on the design process. Stakeholders' desire for scalable and sustainable systems can push developments in specific directions, whilst some collaborations with groups may allow the expression of ideologies offensive or inappropriate to the users, that may appear to be championed by the technology.

4.1 Spatial Acuity

The HCI researchers' sensitivity to spatial issues is particularly important to studies 'in-the-wild' since the physicality of the environment is of paramount importance. The use of the technology can change within different 'wild' environments and the researcher has to adapt designs, activities and evaluation procedures to fit with these environmental changes for example: "It was raining so I had to put [the device] in a plastic bag." (HH p1)

4.1.1 Spatial technology design

Within all the projects the technology provided increased access to information that was tailored for the participants' location and learning needs. The 'Out There In Here' (OTIH) project sought to achieve this innovation in geology field work by using an ecology of multiple devices distributed in 'live' communication between the field and a laboratory. However, whilst the technical innovations in the laboratory were fairly easy for the researcher to maintain, in the wild there were a number of technological challenges. Of key importance was the issue of technology in relation to the weather. The research team had to deal with severe delays to the project because the laptop suppliers had, from their own volition, upgraded the technical specification for the laptops to those with touchscreens which could not be viewed outdoors. In contrast the tablet computers (e.g. iPads) that the research team used could be viewed easily on cloudy days during initial piloting and trials; however, during the height of summer, participants could only see the tablet screens effectively by covering them with umbrellas or coats (see Figure 2).



Fig. 2. Using iPads 'in-the-wild', illustrating use under different environmental conditions

Researchers in the Mobile GIS project found some environmental problems were exacerbated when walking in a mountainous area for their field work:

"I thought with the hand-held [devices] they were good, you know, because they were so mobile and stuff. But I thought when you're up on the mountains there's often like wind and rain and glare and things, so if you're trying to look at a screen often like there's going to be like sunlight reflecting off it or the wind, you can't hear it because the wind's going to be gales." (MGIS p12)

When seeking to innovate in the wild, one spatial issue that must be considered by the researcher is the users' management of these pieces of technology. The Mobile GIS project required the students to compare a multitude of mobile devices, one of which was a mobile virtual

reality (VR) headset, connected to a laptop that was carried in a backpack. The geography students described this technology as cumbersome and heavy:

"I don't want to carry so much electronic devices with me ... the augmented reality kit... was very heavy, a very big device on [your] back with the computer in it." (MGIS p5)

The research team developing the technology in the laboratory had endeavoured to make the system as light as possible, although the wild context did intensify issues already identified. The use of a VR system in the laboratory was noted by the researchers as increasing the sense of immersion in the virtual environment, which could be physically moved through in the real world. This was noted as a safety issues by the researchers when the students were up a mountain, as students could not see the real world through the VR headset and so couldn't see where they were going (and thus be unaware of dangers in the environment such as uneven ground or even a cliff edge), thus the participants were asked not to move around whilst wearing the headset outdoors. However, so powerful was the immersion in the system that the researchers found it hard to stop the students from involuntary movements with the headset on. Students' video diaries show quite powerful shots of students moving towards cliff faces as they move through VR shots of the landscape with researchers or fellow students stopping them before this becomes dangerous.

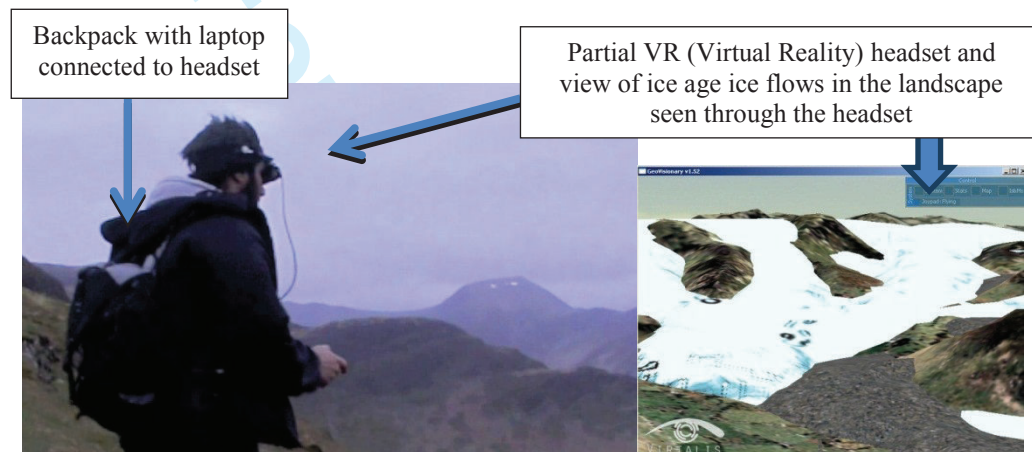


Fig. 3. Geo-located Virtual Reality, showing user and user's view through the headset

In contrast, although the smartphones in the Hidden Histories project were small and carried easily, participants still had to manage this new technology with the everyday objects they required on a daily basis when in the wild of the city:

"I had to keep taking off my gloves and juggle the umbrella/paperwork to switch the phone on and off." (HH p1)

4.1.2 Spatial activity design

All the projects reviewed sought in different ways to innovate field trip activities to enhance learning outcomes. The OTIH project sought to design an innovative learning activity in conjunction with the technology design. Traditional field trips require students to interact with the environment and reflect on their learning either within that situation or at a later time. This project sought to change that approach by using technology-supported distributed collaboration to support 'live' group reflection in both the field and the lab, during the field trip:

"and you heard what was being said by the people in here and you thought, Ah, nice little point, nice bit of direction and let's go and have a look at that particular aspect." (2OT p1)

However this innovation to the learning activity did produce spatial implications that had not been fully understood by the research team before starting the evaluation trials. For example, the students in the laboratory found it difficult to spatially locate and understand the information they had received from students in the field. This was noted as a potential issue by the team in the design phase and was thought to be counteracted by geo-referencing the data from the field location, so that those out of context in the laboratory could locate it on the map and build a

coherent picture for themselves. Unfortunately, the limited accuracy and scope of the GPS geotagging was not sufficient for the scale required with the geological tasks. This made it hard for the team, for example, to locate whether one fossil was found above another and thus hypothesise about landscape changes across the different era. However, the multiple different communication technologies provided for the students (e.g. phone, SMS, live video feed) allowed them to communicate these issues and again encouraged those in the wild to reflect on their own activities.

“sometimes the field trips I’d been on, you just go and look at the strata [layers of rock] and then you’re discussing or drawing something, looking at grain size, sorting things like that, whereas this time I felt you looked at the whole picture.” (IOT p6)

For the Mobile GIS project, innovation of the spatial elements in the learning experience was crucial. The research team engaged in reflective practices, resulting in several developmental iterations from the low technology use of computer-generated acetates, to mobile representations of geospatial data and head-mounted displays. Throughout each innovation there was a core set of spatial learning criteria focusing on critical reflection of the landscape through examination of reconstructed viewpoints compared to the current landscape. The students noted how powerful the innovative spatial approach was, regardless of the technology used:

“the acetate was actually so effective, because you could, it was very easy to sort of place yourself in the right position and then it’s just there in front of you” (MGIS p14)



Fig. 4. Examples of how the acetates were used in the field

The transparent nature of the acetate which emphasises the visual richness of the landscape and simplifies the additional layer, meant that students easily related the two together. Within subsequent technical advancements in the visualisations, the richness of additional layers meant that students were absorbed with the electronic media rather than the real ‘wild’ environment. For example, students were observed noticing only general aspects of their location and thus incorrectly identified one particular location as the target valley (the actual target location being behind them). Recent developments using the Layar augmented reality application, as a ‘digital acetate’, have sought to retain the simplicity of these acetates whilst allowing a more rich and varied content to be accessed.

Within the Hidden Histories project, participants’ interaction with the information was designed to be related to a specific physical location. The project aimed to allow the general public to interpret for themselves conflicting accounts of the same historical event tied to certain key locations, in order to allow them to critically reflect and produce their own understanding of the event as and where it happened. To support this process, the system had information from historical sources linked to specific locations and provided through GPS-enabled devices, which would only activate once participants entered each ‘trigger region’. This approach to the learning activity meant that the user did not have to interpret what location they were at, in order to trigger the appropriate audio information (which might otherwise lead to participants’ accidentally hearing information in the wrong context). This left them free to visually and physically experience the space they were in, whilst listening to the appropriate dialogue. The researchers noted how, with many of the participants, this increased their emotive response to the accounts and their memory of details given, as they could concentrate on the audio narrative rather than having to work out if they were in the right location. However, researchers found when using the

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2
3 technology in the city streets that ‘not spots’, i.e. areas of unreliable GPS and/or WiFi connectivity
4 [see Gaved et al. 2010], rather than ‘hot spots’ increased the frustration for the participants:
5

6 “A couple of the stories didn't kick in. Finding the exact location for the stories to kick in was
7 rather difficult.” (HH p2), “The GPS didn't work, so I had the manual instructions.” (HH p6)
8

9 4.1.3 Summary

10 Ultimately technology innovation will change within a ‘wild’ location and researchers must
11 identify the potential implications on the design for that environment (e.g. weather, physical
12 safety, practical usage in context) which may change on a daily basis. When researchers
13 maintained a sense of spatial acuity they developed an increased access to information tailored to
14 students’ locational and learning needs. This provided students with a greater immersion and
15 affective engagement in the locational data and critical reflection on its meaning in context.
16 However, poor accuracy in relating the information to specific locations could disorientate the
17 students thus losing these benefits.
18

19 4.2 Temporal Acuity

20 Within a wild context such as a field trip, the flow of time in relation to that environment has
21 critical importance, as learners’ activities are often constrained by the amount of time available to
22 them. The technology and the activity within that environmental context can either enable or
23 inhibit the symbiotic flow of these two conditions, with the user, in that context. Of key
24 importance for the researcher to consider is that temporal issues within a laboratory situation will
25 be completely different to those within ‘wild’ environments and that they will need to review
26 designs, activities and evaluation procedures to fit with these changes.
27

28 4.2.1 Temporal technology design

29 Many of the mobile systems used in the projects reviewed in this paper increased the speed and
30 quantity of appropriate information that could be accessed up a mountain, in a quarry or on the
31 streets of the city. Within both the formal learning contexts for the geography and geology
32 students timescales were tight as the requirements for a field trip put pressure on certain activities
33 being completed on time. This was especially true for the Mobile GIS project where students’
34 activities were formally assessed as part of their degree. Many of the students anxiously noted the
35 time it took to learn and use these devices whilst on a field trip:
36

37 “But, I mean, all these things just take more time and like more knowledge of how to use the
38 thing.” (MGIS p18)
39

40 The researcher team often had to manage the tensions of technology limitations and learning
41 time constraints whilst out in the field. This usually meant creative and innovative solutions by the
42 research team thought up on the spur of the moment to deal with changing needs.

43 Within the OTIH project there was the extra consideration of information movement and
44 overload between the two locations (i.e. between the field and the laboratory). The students
45 realised different needs for the different locations and were remarkably astute in their
46 consideration of the transmission of information to partners in the other location. The research
47 team noted from video analysis of discussions between students in the field that they were
48 themselves actively considering these issues before sending information:
49

50 ‘this will be interesting because I don't know which one we want to send back or how many we
51 want to send back in one go’ (IOT p4)

52 ‘We don't need to photograph this because they've had enough of that’ (IOT p4)
53

54 Within system iterations, content management feedback and a parallel networking infrastructure
55 tried to support a steady flow of information exchange (see Figure 5).

56 The use of technology to support information flow between the two locations was supported by
57 mobile communication devices and systems. The use of a video stream provided feedback to those
58 in the laboratory of how the students in the field were progressing. However, this was not a
59 continual synchronous video feed. During the pilot trials it was realised that intermittent video
60 images sent through still provided enough information to be valuable without slowing down the
network connections too dramatically. At one point during the evaluation trials the research team

noted that the images also triggered those in the laboratory going for lunch as they noticed their colleagues in the field had all stopped for lunch.

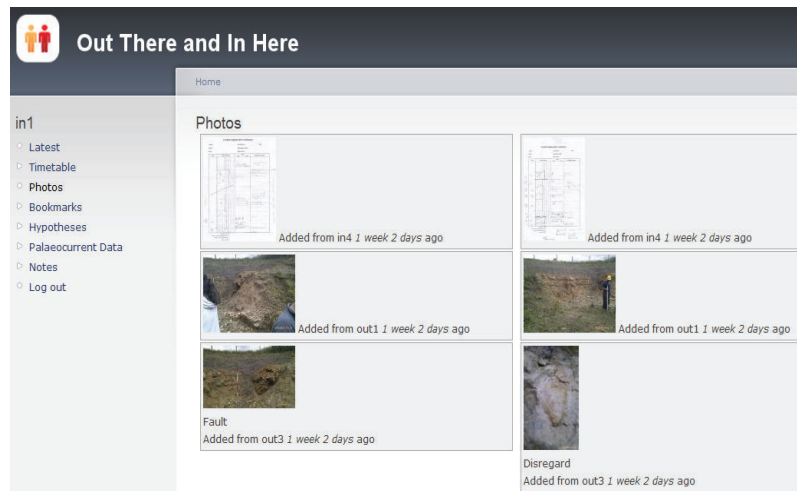


Fig. 5. OTIH content management system

Within the Hidden Histories project, participants found that the technology often gave them an additional control over temporal issues that they didn't have when in a person-led guided tour. For example the control over replay of commentaries when in the right location was noted as particularly useful by the participants.



Fig. 6. Mobile audio GPS tagged and accessed in the city in the Hidden Histories project

“You could replay the commentary if you wanted to re-listen” (HHp14)

4.2.2 Temporal activity design

The Mobile GIS project took a novel approach to geographical learning activities by asking the students to change their usual field practices and complete an expert walkthrough with the technology as a means of providing contextual geographic information in the field. This meant the students critically reflected on their own requirements and those of other potential target users in order to evaluate the technologies ability to meet those needs. The researchers noted that the students showed a remarkably shrewd perspective on the technology being open to innovation if it met their needs. Of particular interest was the students' acceptance of the fast changing capabilities of the technology and their expectation that there will in the near future be usable, efficient and cost-effective geospatially-aware information delivery systems available to complete these tasks quickly in context. The current technologies, although interesting, did not meet their expectations for usability and speed of access to information whilst out in the field.

1
2
3 The OTIH project maintained current field trip practices and sought to innovate existing
4 learning design processes for field trips by technically supporting students in the field and in the
5 laboratory with 'live' communication between the two locations. Built into existing activities was
6 a requirement to share practical evidence collected in the field and abstract knowledge-based
7 understanding obtained and analysed by students in the laboratory. The students had to vote on a
8 collective hypotheses they had made as a distributed group. An orchestrated timetable for the
9 students' actions was constructed to support the momentum of the whole activity across both
10 locations. Scheduled meetings and sub-goals were co-ordinated between the groups. However,
11 during the trials it was realised that the flow of time occurred very differently in the two locations.
12 In the field, where the students were dealing with environmental, technical and sensory
13 information, time flowed very quickly. Within the laboratory, where technology ran smoothly and
14 sensory information was diminished, students highlighted how time seemed to flow slowly whilst
15 they were waiting for, or researching data received from the field. The following quote highlights
16 how the students indoors who had time to think in-depth on an issue were often frustrated by the
17 team out being 'slow' in their cognitive thinking processes and responses:

18
19 *Everyone at the tabletop In Here (IH), looking closely at a bridge site image, the, phone rings, B*
20 *answers and exchanges greetings with the Out There team (OT).*

21 OT: "... you should have a close up of the rock face here and our hypothesis."

22 *A and C look at the Latest Updates projection*

23 B: "Uh we have a hypothesis that this is sedimentary rock, which we've agreed with, we've
24 actually put up another hypothesis, which... we think its oolitic limestone"

25 *OT laughs: "Great!"*

26 *Discussion about what has been received and sent. Pleasantries are exchanged and call ended.*

27 B: "God they are so slow out there!" *laughs*

28 *Participants return to looking at images on the tabletop*
29

30 Review of the video in both locations identified that the out there teams were often distracted by
31 environmental issues which distracted them from in-depth thinking about the data collected and
32 hypothesis made. Because of this difference in the flow of time, the synchronous orchestration of
33 activities across the wild and laboratory location became very difficult to maintain and ultimately
34 unproductive.

35 Throughout the OTIH trials it was realised that both locations valued the active 'live'
36 experience even though this wasn't a synchronous event. The research team were flexible in their
37 response to these changing needs and adapted the timetable to allow key points of interaction
38 between the two locations when both teams decided they were required to complete a task. This
39 flexibility in the research team allowed students in both locations to benefit from the different
40 'flow' of time in those locations. In the lab they participated in the engaging speed of how
41 fieldwork time flowed, in the field the students benefited from capturing moments of the slower
42 reflective time flow from the laboratory (see Figure 7).
43



57 Fig. 7. Group focus around mobile technology (smartphone and tablet) in the field
58

59 Often, a key question from the laboratory, or piece of information sent to the field tablet
60 brought the field team together to instigate a discussion of the issues amongst the whole distributed group:

1
2
3 “So you do it on your own and then you form a group; trying to do it as a group is
4 possibly more of a challenge... and I think we got that as time went on.” (2OT p1)
5

6 Within the Hidden Histories project, the sense of time was very strongly connected to the
7 location being public. Participants focused on issues related to their activities in a public space
8 being acceptable or unacceptable to the rest of the general public present in that vicinity. This
9 increased sensitivity to time factors was found to impact negatively on the design of learning
10 activities within these locations. In particular, the length of the audio clips listened to by
11 participants whilst found to be acceptable when reviewed in the laboratory were noted as too
12 lengthy in the field. Again the flow of time appears to be faster in the wild than in the laboratory
13 where the system had been designed and tested.
14

15 “The individual segments were too long. You ended up standing still for a long time,
16 feeling a bit conspicuous at times!” (HH p4)
17

18 4.2.3 Summary

19 Many of the mobile systems used in the projects increased the speed and quantity of appropriate
20 information that could be accessed up a mountain, in a quarry or on the streets of the city. The
21 technology for information sharing supported critical reflection, both in terms of what
22 information/data to share and also when allowing the participant to repeat the activity as often as
23 required. However, in the Mobile GIS project, students’ expectations of technology usability were
24 not met by the systems that took too long to learn. In OTIH, support provided through orchestrated
25 and scaffolded activities was not initially flexible enough to allow for the different flow of time in
26 the different locations. However, with a responsive change to the activity design, students
27 benefited from dipping into the different temporal flow streams for the two locations: the field
28 students experienced slower reflective time whilst the lab students engaged with speedy decision
29 making and information capture.
30

31 4.3 Socio-Political Astuteness

32 It is important to understand that within ‘in-the-wild’ technology and activity design, the
33 researcher not only has to balance users’ interactions and perceptions but also those of different
34 stakeholders that they may be working with. The researcher is required in their role to balance the
35 needs of different community groups, user advocates and industrial investors’ interests. It could be
36 argued that research that aims primarily to innovate can avoid many socio-political issues by
37 aiming not to support sustainable change to practices or systems. However, the researcher will still
38 need to establish expectations regarding the value of the research and their contribution to it,
39 particularly with respect to research funders, the broader research community and the
40 aforementioned stakeholders.
41

42 4.3.1 Socio-Political Technology Design

43 Both the Mobile GIS and the OTIH projects actively sought to innovate with the technology whilst
44 maintaining hooks into separate streams of sustainable development. For the Mobile GIS project,
45 this resulted in using the widely-available Layar mobile phone app as a replacement for the
46 original acetates. The OTIH project sought to develop flexible systems to support field work
47 learning through collaboration both across and between different locations. However, although
48 innovation was the initial approach taken by both these projects, the students were eager to provide
49 feedback on routes to valuable sustainability and scalable systems. What was surprising was the
50 ease with which they expressed socio-political astuteness in those developments. For OTIH
51 students, the phone applications were noted as provided poor collaborative support because of the
52 small size of images that could be captured and shared with others at the same location. Despite
53 the difficulty of carrying a larger sized tablet, students in the field were very positive about these
54 devices for the presentation of information to the co-located group. This also enabled quick and
55 effective communication with the distributed group. With the addition of a touch-sensitive cover,
56 these devices quickly became a focal point for collaborations in the group, whilst the smartphones
57 remained personal devices primarily used to take photos and share them remotely. It could be that
58 the success of the tablet device as a social device for the field lies in its similarity to the clipboard
59 traditionally used for sharing field information.
60



Fig. 8. Personal smartphone usage compared to sharing through the tablet

Within the Hidden Histories and Mobile GIS projects, the social space itself had an important impact on the design of the technology. In Hidden Histories, the use of smartphones in the city by the participants was noted as innovative but this location also posed some safety concerns. The tours took users to the older parts of the city which had narrow, dark Victorian streets:



Fig. 9. A narrow dark street used as a stopping point in the Hidden Histories project [left image courtesy of Thom White, www.thomwhite.co.uk]

Within this location, participants noted a sense of unease at using what they saw as high technology:

“It was interesting and high-tech. Looked nice. Wouldn't have been good to be mugged.” (HH p1)

Even whilst walking up a mountain where there were far fewer members of the general public in the immediate area, Mobile GIS project students expressed concerns about how they were viewed whilst using these devices. One of the students noted of others that they:

“didn't want to be walking about with things on their heads and they found it, I think they classed it as weird or something along those lines... they were also quite keen on the portable small devices – [they were] user-friendly and less obtrusive” (MGIS p9)

These students also went on to highlight key issues with regard to sustainability of the technology. They discussed the technologies that they used personally, mainly in terms of the cost of different smartphones, which they considered to be appropriate devices that could provide similar augmentations to those used in the Mobile GIS project. The VR head-mounted display was thought of as fun but not a realistic solution for mass use. The Hidden Histories participants also debated the tension between innovation and the sustainability of the devices they used:

“The tech was too high-tech, not everyone will have smartphones in 2 years time – you should still consider “basic” phones with SMS/WAP capabilities” (HH p3)

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3 The project researchers emphasised the innovation and developmental aspects of this project to
4 participants. However, the participants still compared the devices with standard off-the shelf
5 systems expecting the reliability and stability that typically accompany these:
6

7 “English Heritage have a very simple system - just press buttons. Couldn't even find volume
8 controls [on this device]! The English Heritage one goes round your neck - very useful.” (HH P3)
9

10 This meant again that the participants were continually comparing the devices with other,
11 similar technologies, with an emphasis on practical, sustainable solutions.
12

13 4.3.2 Socio-Political Activity Design

14 Both the OTIH and Mobile GIS projects were couched within sensitive political contexts with
15 regard to field work in the learning process. Field trips are very expensive yet a highly valued part
16 of the geoscience learning process. As such, increasing the value or scalability of these
17 experiences has strong implications for the disciplines as a whole. This means that any
18 development within these contexts will be scrutinised closely by stakeholders from any of the
19 disciplines that use fieldwork in the learning process. This can cause tensions for the researcher, as
20 they are continually encouraged to turn innovation into sustainable solutions. Criticisms can be
21 levelled not so much at the innovations achieved but more at the lack of routes to immediate
22 scalable, sustainable solutions. All the researchers within these projects felt the weight of this
23 tension.

24 Researchers within the Mobile GIS project dealt with this tension by feeding directly into the
25 formal learning process for the Geography department that offered the field trip module. The
26 OTIH project developed further systems with community groups for informal as well as formal
27 learning. However, the role of the researcher in collaboration with community groups, though
28 immensely beneficial, was again found to be complex and requires careful management by the
29 researchers.

30 The Hidden Histories project engaged with a local community history group, who possessed a
31 specific socio-political approach known as ‘radical history’. The group focused on how life and
32 living conditions were experienced by the working classes or ‘common people’ throughout history
33 with a certain bias against ‘the ruling elite’ and law enforcement in general. During instances on
34 both walks, these points of view were expressed, either intentionally or not, through comments in
35 the spoken narrative. The technology used to communicate this information made these historical
36 accounts more accessible than would usually be the case and the participants responded quite
37 emotively. However, the participants in the two different walks reacted quite differently to this. In
38 the person-led walk, this was seen as an amusing aside; ‘I invariably will side with the ‘mob’
39 against the ruling class!’ HH p9. Feedback from the participants on the technology-led walk
40 detailed that they felt the audio clips contained uncalled-for ‘jibes’ at Community Police officers
41 and ‘the fictitious figure’ Robin Hood whilst other aspects of the narrative and the interpretations
42 themselves were criticised for being ‘patronising’ and ‘middle class’. The researcher team was
43 placed in a position where they had to unexpectedly calm concerns from participants on the
44 technology-led walk, which related to ideological perspectives rather than technical issues. This
45 example reveals the sensitive position that HCI researchers can often find themselves in when
46 working in ‘wild’ locations. Often the technology or activity they seek to evaluate acts as a
47 boundary object that can facilitate the movement of ideals and political ideologies quicker than
48 traditional media. As a boundary creature, the researcher can find they are unaware that they are
49 perceived as facilitating this transmission of ideologies which have nothing to do with the research
50 at hand.

51 4.3.3 Summary

52 There are many potential benefits from researchers developing socio-political astuteness within a
53 project. However, within these aforementioned projects it often meant pushing towards other
54 objectives which the researcher then had to balance. From the social end, the participants noted
55 benefits for field-based learning activities of shared social devices (e.g. tablets) rather than
56 personal devices (e.g. smartphones). However, the social context for the device usage was found to
57 increase their inhibitions and decrease their sense of safety.

58 The desire of participants and stakeholders to develop sustainable versions of the systems was
59 expressed in design meetings and evaluation reports. However, the most difficult balance was in
60 relation to collaborating with community groups as project stakeholders. These stakeholders can
retain ideological approaches that when instantiated within the technology can make the researcher

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3 appear as an advocate and champion of those approaches rather than the technology and
4 techniques of the trial.
5

6 7 **5. DISCUSSION**

8 The research findings identified 3 key perspectives that the researcher as a boundary creature had
9 to develop in the design, deployment and evaluation of field based learning systems: spatial and
10 temporal acuity and socio-political astuteness. Researchers within the projects found that reflection
11 on these perspectives and a reflexive review of how they interact within the design, deployment
12 and evaluation processes (through the RDR model below) provided a mechanism to manage their
13 boundary creature role within future interactions. As one researcher noted, "I've often had to deal
14 with these tensions but never had the appropriate language to articulate it or legitimise it; this gives
15 me a starting point for managing expectations within the research process."

16 The analysis of these three projects presents evidence around researchers working in the wild as
17 boundary creatures needing to acquire some quite concrete acuity skills. As a boundary creature
18 working in the wild, they must remain aware and be sensitive to spatial issues and tensions that
19 can occur in the research process. Within these field-based learning projects, these spread from the
20 quite simplistic concerns of managing technology in different weather conditions, to complex
21 safety issues as students immersed in a virtual representation forget they are near a cliff edge in the
22 real world. These could have ethical ramifications as people could become disengaged from
23 physical locations and the subsequent consequences of this in their physical reality. Suchman
24 [2011] notes how the use of game-like visualisations in military systems can support users'
25 detachment from the implications of their actions in a real space. As researchers working across
26 the boundaries of communities, we have to be reflexive about our actions and the implications of
27 the technology we develop.

28 The findings also identified that researchers need to acquire a sensitivity and awareness of
29 temporal issues that could impact on the research. The findings highlighted, in different ways
30 across the three projects, there was a different flow of time in the laboratory to that within the
31 wild. As already noted, Marshal et al. [2011] identified through their own reflexive accounts of
32 their personal spatial acuity within the research, how collaboration in the laboratory was
33 completely different to that within the wild. The researchers in our studies identified how students
34 felt this change in time impacted negatively on their engagement with the activities and the
35 acceptability of the technologies. Within some cases, however, the researchers developed this
36 temporal acuity and adapted the design of the activities and the technologies to allow the students
37 to gain a better temporal flow.

38 The researchers' ability to develop spatial and temporal acuity could be argued as the first step
39 in allowing the participants to become immersed in the research experience and develop an
40 enchantment and affinity for the technology and the activities. Wright et al. [2008] review the
41 concepts that make an aesthetic experience and highlights the importance of 'enchantment' (i.e.
42 being charmed and delighted), saying that this relates to the element of being 'caught up' and
43 'carried away', characteristics that are often related to the concepts of 'flow' [Csikszentmihalyi
44 1990] and 'immersion' [Sanders and Cairns 2010]. Wright et al. [2008] note a framework for five
45 sensibilities that supports design for enchantment. We summarise these as: *object sensuousness*
46 involving the user's intimate engagement and absorption with the object within a specific place
47 (spatial acuity) and time (temporal acuity); *holistic engagement* for the whole intellectual,
48 emotional and sensual person; *being-in-play* is about allowing the user to enjoy the whole
49 moments of play; *fuzzy flexibility* where the user accepts paradoxes, openness and ambiguity;
50 finally *transformation*. Wright and his colleagues see transformation both as a site for initiating
51 enchantment and also as a product of the enchantment. Jordan [2010] reviews the related concept
52 of affinity in design also relates to concepts of identity and the self. In particular, this paper
53 highlights the notion of how the design of technology can fit with temporal perceptions of how we
54 see ourselves now, in the past or the future, with an affinity to both nostalgic and aspirational
55 designs. Researchers as boundary creatures in the wild can support or inhibit personal
56 transformation.

57 Brydon-Miller and Maguire [2009] present arguments, framed from a practitioner inquiry
58 perspective, proposing that research can never be neutral as it is always located within a social,
59 political and economic context. This can be identified within the results from all three projects
60 documented in this paper, which are couched within the current world economic crisis. It is not
surprising then, that the students' comments frequently turned to the cost of devices or applications
and the potential to be mugged with expensive equipment. The Mobile GIS and OTIH researchers
also noted the pressure placed on them within the current climate to turn these systems into

scalable solutions to reduce field-work costs. Socio-political issues presented the users and researchers with a wealth of tensions to manage. Whilst the students felt self-conscious wearing fairly obvious head-mounted displays in public situations, the researchers felt uncomfortable when they realised they had unwittingly allowed community group stakeholders to use the technology as a boundary object to more effectively communicate their political ideology. It was noted by the researchers that an earlier reflection on the different parties' expectations and astute reflexive account of how this may be reviewed in the wild context may have countered this oversight. The design cycle for practitioner inquiry has strongly built into the process these reflection points. With a simple connection between different communities use of language this can be translated into computing / HCI terminology (see Figure10).

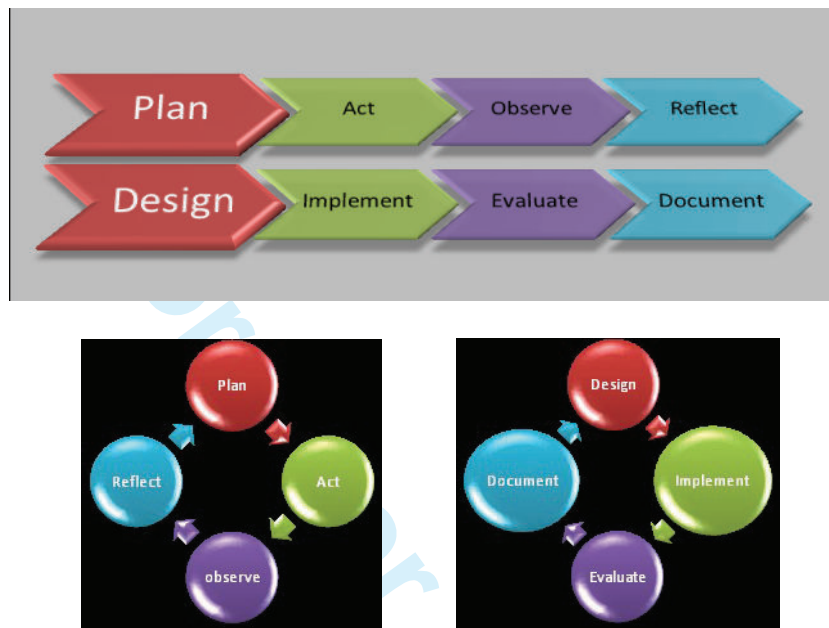


Fig. 10. Practitioner inquiry cycle mapped onto HCI research cycle [adapted from Reason and Brandbury 2001]

It is important to note that through translating the practitioner inquiry cycle into a HCI frame of reference that the different potential starting points for initiating a research project become apparent. Within HCI, the researcher could start with the implementation of a system that is then evaluated, or from an ethnographic approach the researcher could start by observing current practices in the wild.

As HCI researchers, we step across boundaries physical, social, psychological and political. We need to become reflexive in our commute across these boundaries so that we are aware of the issues that we may encounter in this journey. Supporting stakeholders and the research teams' awareness and understanding of the research process we envision can support the process. A focus on developing temporal and spatial acuity as well as socio-political astuteness is a useful evolution in our development as reflexive researchers. The practitioner inquiry cycle also provides a useful guide to different cycles through the research process. However, these do not support the researcher or stakeholders in framing expectations for the research aims and goals.

Using the practitioner inquiry approach and the evolutionary / revolutionary design process concepts [Adams et al. 2005], a secondary analysis of the researchers role within the research cycles of each project was completed (see Figure 11). The analysis was used to develop an 'in-the-wild' model and theory of the researcher design role (RDR) in that process. The RDR reveals that there is a continuum of two tensions researchers manage during their field based learning research. Firstly, they dealt with expectations and the reality of whether the technology or learning activities were led by innovation or scalable solutions and sustainability in the design and deployment process. Secondly, was the project seeking to use the technology to maintain or change current practices? This then can alter perceptions of the user as they perceive the system as 'changing practices' to those that are unworkable or insightful. In contrast, the user could perceive a focus on 'enabling current practices' as facilitating or threatening those practices. Alternatively, a push on

the importance of scalability and sustainability can be thought of as either facilitating long term practices or changing those practices for good.

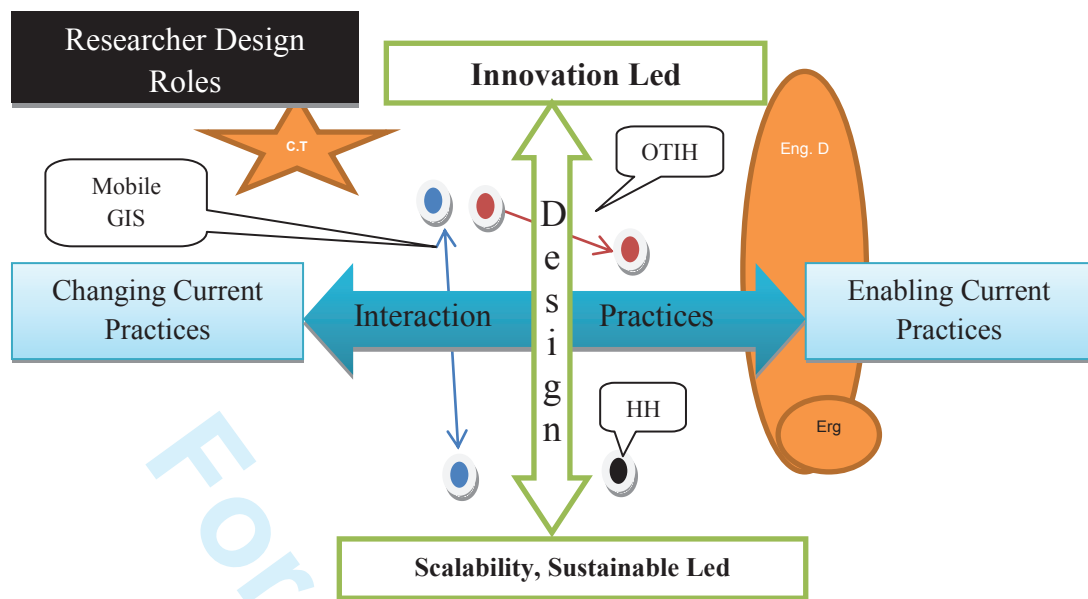


Fig. 11. Research design roles: mapping tensions researchers manage in the HCI field based learning process (CT= catwalk technologies; Eng. D = engineering design; Erg = ergonomics)

Within each project, not only did the research start at different points in the research design role (RDR) process, but they were also framed within very different expectations around each of the issues. Both the Mobile GIS and the OTIH project sought to innovate with the use of technology and within the learning activities. They also sought to change learning and technology usage practices. For example, the Mobile GIS project used virtual and augmented realities for field trip activities where geographers took on learning about their practices through critiquing the technology for those tasks. The OTIH project used an ecology of information systems, recording and communication devices across different locations and used a distributed reflective process to support live reflection in the field and the laboratory based on hypothesis generation and a voting system. The Hidden Histories project, however, aimed to make current systems and history learning practices, in the field, more effective by introducing mobile systems that are far closer to becoming scalable and sustainable than the systems in the other projects. The expectation behind this project was never to totally innovate the technology for history learning in the field, nor to totally change how the public interact with historical accounts. For example, members of the public were not expected to sing and dance accounts as historical characters from the era. Developing scalable, usable and sustainable systems was a core objective of the research team. However, the participants in the project and the community group stakeholders saw this project as innovating both through the technology and through the learning. The participants and stakeholders in the Mobile GIS and OTIH projects realised that these projects aimed to change practices and innovate technologies. However, those within the academic institutions supporting this research pushed the researchers to develop scalable and sustainable systems. The Mobile GIS project dealt with these needs by producing computer printout acetates (that were both scalable and sustainable) whilst still innovating around the field based learning practices; this then led to an innovation with 'electronic' acetates which now is currently feeding back into a scalable mobile application (Zapp, mentioned in section 3.2). The OTIH developments initially focused on 'changing practices' and later in redesigns on 'enabling current practices' enhancing links into the scalability and sustainability of systems.

Figure 11 also highlights the position of catwalk technologies in the RDR process. Catwalk fashions actively seek both to innovate in the materials used and in how they are used by the models. They also seek to change our practices with what we wear (i.e. what is a dress, what are shoes – beyond being functional). Often the fashions designed focus purely on creativity and innovation and result in products that are not functional, with shoes and clothes that are barely wearable for more than a few minutes. Like catwalk fashion designs, catwalk technologies may not be able to be used in the wild for very long or very effectively. The technology may not provide a full

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3 application (as in a ‘Wizard of Oz’ approach) or provide technical stability without a lot of
4 support. The activities may also be too labour intensive to provide long term sustainability. This
5 approach is simply a route for creativity to provide a pure absolute proof of concept. When
6 reviewing the concept of a catwalk technology, it is important to note that this is useful only as a
7 step in an iterative design process in moving forward a research group, discipline or institution. A
8 pure catwalk technology seeks to innovate in both the technology and the activities they are used
9 for. However, the iterative move from catwalk to prêt-à-porter (ready to wear) systems is often
10 where HCI systems sits. Through usability evaluations, we seek to establish hooks into how to
11 make the system scalable and sustainable. These systems can either seek to maintain current
12 practices or actively seek to change them¹. When placing these theories within a HCI context it is
13 useful to refer back to the tensions documented by Wolf et al. [2006] between the creative design-
14 oriented approach and the engineering design approach. Catwalk technologies would represent the
15 creative design-oriented approach. Within the RDR framework we can also place Wolf et al.’s
16 [2006] conception of the engineering design approach (see Figure 11). Ergonomics, specifically
17 man-machine interaction (the predecessor of HCI), actively sought to research and support
18 workers’ current practices on large scale systems. The engineering approach to HCI and related
19 methods (e.g. task analysis) has taken this forward and developed innovative technologies and
20 approaches to the activities used. As Wolf et al. [2006] argue, all these approaches are equally
21 valid and the model we present is useful only as a way to theorise and manage expectations that
22 researchers encounter from different research stakeholders. Our model is also currently based upon
23 a very narrow set of ‘in-the-wild’ field based learning trials. Further research is required to expand
24 and verify these theories.

25 26 **6. CONCLUSION**

27 As already identified in the background literature, Haraway [1991] connects the concept of
28 boundary creatures with those of being outside of the norm and monstrous. Within the ‘in the wild’
29 projects we have reviewed here, we have identified the notion that we are all at some time or
30 another ‘demonstrating’ perspectives that are not the ‘norm’ for many; rather, it is possible that we
31 as researchers are the monsters who threaten that community. Both Wolf et al. [2006] and Rogers
32 [2011] are reviewing epistemological changes in approaches within HCI that could be considered
33 ‘horrific’ and monstrous to some. However, as technology and its design moves forward at an ever
34 increasing speed as HCI researchers we need to develop reflexive approaches to our work and how
35 we see ourselves to enable us to become insightful brokers [Burt 2005].

36 We therefore need, as HCI researchers in the design process, to review our identity within that
37 process. HCI as a discipline has for many decades been finding its theoretical feet within the
38 specific confines of the research context. The wild initiative is taking us into bold new frontiers
39 where we can cross, through our creative designs and reflections, established boundaries. We can
40 become explorers and bring home to HCI, through boundary crossing, experiences from foreign
41 lands. Or we can establish ourselves as a boundary creature where we empower HCI as a
42 discipline by owning the transition between domains. To do this we must understand our identity
43 as boundary creatures. This means not only within regard to the participants or other stakeholders
44 but within the socio-political standing of the research. This requires an understanding of our
45 expectations for the research as a catwalk technology or a scalable sustainable system; whilst also
46 understanding ourselves within the context of the institutions we belong, the funders who sponsor
47 the research and the policy makers who instantiate the research within a sustainable format. In
48 facilitating the move from innovation to scalable and sustainable designs, we can proudly take on
49 the role of boundary creature transforming catwalk technologies or the innovations for current
50 practices into ready-to-wear systems. To do this however, we have to take on the mantle of being
51 considered as both horrific and empowering.

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57 anonymous reviewers who gave constructive feedback on earlier versions of this paper.

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59
60 ¹ It is worth adding that the intention of enhancing or changing practices is only in reference to the
initial objectives of the designer. In deployment of the technology how the system actually
changes practices is another issue.

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