

1 Social-Constructivism: Futuristic Sphere for eLearning in HEIs

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4 *Received: 14 December 2011 Accepted: 3 January 2012 Published: 15 January 2012*

5

6 **Abstract**

7 Under the theory of ?objectivism? a teacher is ?sage-on-the-stage? where student is passive
8 while teacher is active and whatever is delivered by the teacher is accepted by the student
9 unquestionably. However, in ?constructivism? learning environment a teacher is supposed to
10 play the role of ?guide-on-the-side? thereby giving more space and place to the students for
11 learning by themselves and on their own. There is mushrooming research on the mundane
12 roles of information and communication technologies (ICTs) in the learning environments.
13 Research reveals that networking technologies and social software has created the
14 opportunities to shift from traditional and biblical models of teaching through objectivism to
15 the new styles of learning under the models of cognitive and social constructivism. This paper
16 is effort to trace the milestones on the way from objectivism to constructivism particularly in
17 the higher education institutions (HEIs).

18

19 **Index terms**— ICTs, HEIs, Paradigm-Shift, Objectivism, Constructivism,

20 **1 Introduction**

21 CTs are creating a new global economy, which uses technology as power; information as fuel and knowledge
22 controls the driving seat and these technologies are emerging as the electricity of information-age (Macleod, 2005)
23 to construct an information-society and knowledge-economy (Hameed, 2007). However, technological innovations
24 and applications depend on the education system of a country for example; any digital initiative is fueled by a
25 batch of ICT-professionals to develop and users to apply technologies for organizational objectives (Nawaz, 2010).
26 It is the education system which helps a nation in taming ICTs for government, business, agriculture, banking
27 and education by generating professionals however, this requires the education system itself to be computerized
28 first (Nawaz, 2011;Nawaz, 2012aNawaz, , 2012b)).

29 As the learning technologies are becoming inexpensive and widely accessible, the models of teaching and
30 learning are significantly changing. There are "paradigm shifts" in different dimensions of eLearning and the
31 environment around it. For example, modern eTeacher is mentor, coach or facilitator for the successful integration
32 of ICTs into the pedagogy. The teacher's role has shifted from being 'a sage on the stage' to 'guide on the side'
33 (Mehra & Mital, 2007). Likewise, contemporary students are called 'Millennials, Electronic Natives, the Net
34 Generation' who are grown up digital therefore possess absolutely new learning habits like independence and
35 autonomy in their learning styles and multitasking due to the availability of new gadgets (Nawaz & Kundi,
36 2010b;Kundi & Nawaz, 2010).

37 Within education community, ICTs have begun penetration, for example, in Western Europe, it is common
38 to use ICT for logistical, organizational and educational functions of higher education institutions (HEIs)
39 (Baumeister, 2006) showing that ICTs are changing the nature of work and the workplace for all the university
40 constituents (Qureshi et al., 2009). ICTs are changing the organization and delivery of higher education because
41 they are adopting alternatives to the traditional classroom pedagogy and developing a variety of eLearning courses
42 (Nawaz et al, 2011d). Research also suggests that ICTs offer new learning opportunities for students 'eLearning',
43 develop teacher's professional capabilities 'ePedagogy' and strengthen institutional capacity 'eEducation' and
44 most universities today offer some form of eLearning (Nawaz et al., 2011a).

5 APPROACHES TO E-LEARNING

45 Given the new learning environments emanating from the explosion of ICTs, the pedagogy is departing from
46 transmitting knowledge based on behaviorism where students are passive receivers of whatever is given by the
47 teacher, to negotiated and harvested knowledge founded on cognitive and social constructivism where students
48 are free to construct their knowledge by negotiating with others and harvesting the learning process (Kundi &
49 Nawaz, 2010). The use of ICTs in and for education is rapidly expanding in many countries and considered both
50 as a necessity and an opportunity (Nawaz & Zubair, 2012a).

51 2 II.

52 3 Icts In Heis

53 eLearning is a popular topic for the researchers on higher education and corporate training and explained as the
54 'application of electronic technologies' in supporting, enhancing and delivering education (teaching and learning)
55 (Qureshi et al., 2009). ICTs represent computers, networks, software, Internet, wireless and mobile technologies
56 to access, analyze, create, distribute, exchange and use facts and figures (Nawaz & Kundi, 2010c). eLearning
57 is an individualized instruction accessed over a public (Internet) or private (Intranet) networks therefore, it is
58 also known as 'internet-based training (Nawaz et al., 2011a).' Several terminologies are used for eLearning:
59 computer-based instruction, computer-assisted instruction, web-based learning, electronic learning, distance
60 education, distance learning, online instruction, multimedia instruction, online courses, networked learning,
61 virtual classrooms, and so on (Nawaz, 2012a).

62 Traditionally, students used transmissive modes of learning, however, now there are shifts from contentcentered
63 to competency-based curricula as well as departures from teacher-centered to student-centered delivery where
64 students are encouraged to take on the driving seat for self-learning. eLearning offers a complete information
65 technology support to these innovations (Nawaz et al., 2011d) for example, its tools and techniques can be applied
66 in any learning situation, no matter whether it happens face-to-face, in blended or hybrid courses, or online virtual
67 learning (Nawaz et al., 2011a). There are two types of eLearning: self-managed (asynchronous) and teacher-led
68 (synchronous) where first is off-line while the later is online. Web-based learning is globally accessible, easily
69 maintainable, platform-independent, secure, and quickly updatable and entertains a diversity of learning styles
70 by providing a self-controlled system (Nawaz & Zubair, 2012b).

71 In nutshell, HEIs are passing through an evolutionary process of getting digitized from simple to sophisticated
72 chip-technologies. eLearning begins with a partial or supplementary use of ICTs in classroom then steps into
73 a blended or hybrid use (a mix of face-2-face and electronic instruction), and finally, emerges as a fully online
74 synchronous and asynchronous virtual learning environments serving physically dispersed learners (Kundi &
75 Nawaz, 2010). However, it can never be possible to completely replace face to face pedagogy and learning with
76 virtual education except some institutions may be operating completely online but rest of the institutions will
77 continue blended use of educational technologies because 'this, in itself, serves the purpose' (Nawaz et al., 2011d).

78 4 III.

79 5 Approaches To E-Learning

80 It is well-established that the use of ICTs is dependant on the perceptions of developers and users about the
81 nature of technologies and their role in different walks of life (Aviram & Tami, 2004). Sasseville (2004) have found
82 that technology-related changes are "not perceived as a collective experience or social change rather, personal
83 challenge." An analysis of the literature suggests that two broader theories are discussed over and over saying that
84 ICTs can either play 'instrumental' or 'substantive' role in the learning process (Macleod, 2005). Instrumental
85 view asserts that ICTs are just technologies and their use defines their role while substantive view posits that these
86 technologies have the power to change the society and just their existence can make the difference. Likewise, the
87 same ideas are also characterized as 'instrumental' and 'liberal' theories of eLearning (Nawaz & Qureshi, 2010b).
88 a) Objectivism Historically, computer-based learning has been built around the realist/objectivist notions of
89 knowledge with the assumption that reading, watching videos or controlling a button on these digital gadgets
90 constituted 'active learning' but experience testifies that these models have failed to bridge the gap between
91 theory-npractice (Nawaz & Kundi, 2010c). In this mode, learning is achieved through a model where teacher
92 comes wellprepared with learning contents, which are simply transmitted to the students who receive everything
93 passively to remember whatever is given by the teachers and instructors and then evaluated through observable
94 measures like tests, assignments and examinations (Kundi & Nawaz, 2010).

95 As a psychological theory, behaviorism emerged as a reaction to theories of mind in late 19th century,
96 suggesting that mental processes cannot be understood without objective scientific methods like observational
97 and quantifiable investigation (Ward et al., 2006). The objectivist teaching gives complete control of materials to
98 the teacher who manages the pace and direction of learning thereby making learning a sequential process where
99 there is a single reality about which students have to demonstrate their command and "understandings through
100 declarative, procedural and conditional knowledge (Phillips et al., 2008)." Taken together, objectivist teaching
101 and learning is based more on visible dimensions of education and less on cognitive and social determinants of
102 pedagogy and learning (Nawaz et al., 2011a).

103 **6 b) Constructivism**

104 With the emergence of collaborative technologies, it has been recognized that behaviorist models do not fit with
105 contemporary teaching and learning environments, therefore 7 current research is focusing on the development
106 of constructivist models of eLearning (Nawaz & Qureshi, 2010b). Constructivists contend that ICTs should
107 not be guided by a technologically deterministic approach rather in the context of social, cultural, political and
108 economic dimensions in the sense that culturally relevant online content, interfaces and multimedia can help in
109 social inclusion to the developing countries (Kundi & Nawaz, 2010). Furthermore, the effectiveness of behavioral
110 approach is questionable in areas where there is the The constructivists believe that there is no single version of
111 reality, rather a multitude of realities situated within each learner. As such, learning is dependent upon learners'
112 abilities of analyzing, synthesizing and evaluating information to construct "meaningful, personalized knowledge
113 (Phillips et al., 2008)." The constructivist theories of learning dominate today and propagate that learning is
114 achieved by the active construction of knowledge supported by various perspectives within meaningful contexts
115 and social interactions. These environments create engaging and content-relevant experiences by utilizing ICTs
116 and resources to support unique learning goals and knowledge construction (Nawaz, 2012b).

117 The strengths of constructivism lie in its emphasis on learning as a process of personal understanding and the
118 development of meaning where learning is viewed as the construction of meaning rather than the memorization
119 of facts. eLearning environments provide many opportunities of student-centered constructivist learning that
120 is situated in the contexts (Nawaz & Kundi, 2010c). Since knowledge is quickly changing; the design and
121 development principles need to be aligned with the emerging requirements of teachers and students, which are
122 the provision of such cognitive tools, which can be adapted for intellectual partnerships among teachers and
123 students to facilitate critical thinking and higher-order learning (Kundi & Nawaz, 2010).

124 **7 i. Cognitive Constructivism**

125 The cognitive constructivism gives priority to the cognitive powers of an individual rather than the behavioral or
126 physical dimensions, for example, users' 'learning-styles' are used to measure the cognitive trends the users. The
127 developers of eLearning face the challenges of producing systems, which accommodate individual differences such
128 as nationality, gender and cognitive learning style (Qureshi et al., 2009). The ICTs can play a supplemental as well
129 as central role in learning by providing digital cognitive or adaptive tools or systems to support constructivist
130 learning ??Nawaz & Kundi, 2010a). The design of computer-based learning has undergone a paradigm shift;
131 moving students away from creating technical rationality with objectivism, to the use of ICTs in developing
132 cognitive tools for constructivist learning (Nawaz & Kundi, 2010c).

133 Since students vary in their cognitive or learning styles therefore, they benefit more from those teaching
134 techniques that appeal to their individual styles (Cagiltay et al., 2006). Similarly, the rapid development of digital
135 technologies in the emerging information society is forcing the individuals to command and employ cognitive skills
136 in teaching and learning process (Aviram & Eshet-Alkalai, 2006). Thus, in cognitive learning learners create and
137 test their own hypotheses about the realities and analyze data according to their learningstyle, preferences and
138 "a dynamic process of personal trial and error (Ward et al., 2006)" with the cognitive participation of teacher
139 (Nawaz et al., 2011a).

140 **8 ii. Social Constructivism**

141 In contrast to cognitive-constructivism, 'socialconstructivism' emphasizes 'collective-learning' where the role
142 of teachers, parents, peers and other community members in helping learners becomes prominent. Social
143 constructivists emphasize that learning is active, contextual and social therefore the best method is 'group-
144 learning' where teacher is a facilitator and guide (Nawaz & Qureshi, 2010b). Social constructivists explain the
145 technology-adoption as a process of involving social groups into the innovation process where learning takes
146 place on the learners' experiences, knowledge, habits, and preferences (Kundi & Nawaz, 2010). In contrast to
147 traditional classrooms where teachers used a linear model and one-way communication, the modern learning is
148 becoming more personalized, student-centric, non-linear and learnerdirected (Nawaz, 2012a).

149 While cognitive constructivists believe that learning takes place through interaction with environmental stimuli
150 alone, social constructivists argue that culture also influences the design and development of the learning models
151 (Qureshi et al., 2009). Therefore, it is necessary to move eLearning beyond learning management systems and
152 engage students in an active use of the web as a resource for their self-governed, problem-based and collaborative
153 activities like using social software (Nawaz, 2011). The concept of social constructivism has been around since
154 1990s when research started on the interpretivism in the design and development of computer-based information
155 systems (Nawaz, 2012b).

156 The extreme form of constructivism is social constructivism, which is gaining foothold in higher education
157 because teaching and learning can now easily be undertaken as a social and community activity (Sasseville, 2004)
158 thereby propagating collective (social) as well as individual (cognitive) learning with the help of traditional
159 email/chatting and modern wikis, blogs, vblogs, RSS feeds and several emerging collaborative technologies
160 (Klamma et al., (2007). For example, RSS is a format used to publish frequently updated works like blog-
161 entries, new headlines, audio and video publications ??Wikipedia, 2011).

162 9 iii. Signposts Of Social Constructivism

163 The change in teaching, learning and education management is not just technical; it has rather transformed the
164 whole scenario of education in HEIs. The tenets of globalization in the background of global village are not
165 neutral rather contain ideological underpinnings which influence the technology-users not only the way they work
166 rather their perception of pedagogy, learning and education delivery has gone through metamorphosis (Nawaz
167 et al., 2011a). Summarizing the multiplicity of these paradigm shifts it can be noted that this is the shift from
168 instruction to construction and discovery; teacher-centered to learnercentered pedagogy; teacher as transmitter
169 to the teacher as facilitator; absorbing material to learning how to navigate and how to learn; one-size-fits-all to
170 customized learning; linear to hypermedia learning; learning as torture to learning as fun, and, from school to
171 lifelong learning (Nawaz & Zubair, 2012b).

172 In the present knowledge-society where there is information overload the profession of teaching is shifting from
173 transferring knowledge to guiding learning processes (Qureshi et al., 2009). Research tells that the condition of
174 ICTs in HEIs of UK and Ghana have been changing over the last decade from seeing ICTs as either a subject
175 or a set of skills to recognizing the importance of ICTs as tools for learning. If used adequately, ICTs can
176 assist a pedagogical shift resulting into a constructive educational interaction between teachers and learners
177 (Nawaz, 2010). There is need to implement a wider range of teaching and learning strategies based on a techno-
178 constructivist paradigm that is aligned with the skills needed for an information society (Nawaz et al., 2011d).

179 10 a) From Technocracy to Democracy

180 The higher education is moving away from an 'elite system to a mass education system' as it is evident from
181 the mushrooming number of students around the world (Nawaz & Kundi, 2010b). Modern higher education
182 can perform new functions in the favor of society at national and international levels, for example: identify
183 the preconditions for development; provide education for all; produce graduates to provide leadership roles in
184 education as researchers, teachers, consultants and managers for public and private sectors; enhance educational
185 management, and finally, HEIs can go beyond their traditional models to new formats of learning, teaching
186 and research (Nawaz & Kundi, 2010c). Furthermore, eLearning and digital literacy have the potential to shift
187 power bases for developing countries from elites to masses by elevating the education systems to capitalize on
188 the collective intellectual capital of educators and educated (Nawaz et al., 2011a).

189 11 i. Life-Long Learning (LLL)

190 eLearning is defined as the use of ICTs for student-oriented, open, active, collaborative, and lifelong teaching-
191 learning processes (Thurab-Nkhosi et al., 2005). The difference between 'traditional and current education' is
192 that formerly people were used to 'Learn at a given age' while current education is for 'Lifelong learning' (Nawaz,
193 2010). The European Commission defines lifelong learning as any activity undertaken at any stage of life for
194 improving knowledge, skills and competences for personal, social and/or employment-related purposes (Nawaz
195 & Kundi, 2010b).

196 Several studies suggest that ICTs can transform the education by motivating the students toward lifelong
197 learning (Valdez et al. 2004). Similarly, new functions of HEIs include meeting the needs of learners and teachers
198 for "lifelong learning (Goddard & Cornford, (2007)." UNESCO adopted Lifelong Learning as a master concept in
199 1970 after recognizing the relationship between the mass-education and economic and social outcomes therefore,
200 by the end of the last century most world governments had recognized the importance of support for lifelong
201 learning (Nawaz, 2010).

202 ii. Education For All (EFA)

203 In a conference by UNESCO on 'Education for All', broader objectives, requirements and strategies have been
204 identified by the participants from member countries, which include: 1. Create such educational contents and
205 process which fits within local context of social and cultural requirements with modern ICTs to create individual
206 autonomy in the global society. 2. Develop such formal and informal education services, which are accessible
207 to all. 3. Harness the ICTs for all in order to broaden the reach of education, particularly for the excluded
208 and underprivileged groups. 4. Replace costly and culturally alien education structures with less expensive
209 systems, which are more flexible, diversified and globally affordable (Nawaz & Qureshi, 2010b). One of the
210 biggest expectations from eLearning is about its ability to offer equal education for everyone. For example, the
211 eCourses over internet have the power to reach any corner of the planet and deliver same highquality education
212 everywhere (Nawaz, 2010). The technological, economic, and social changes of the past decades have made
213 education for all (EFA) more significant than ever before therefore, HEIs are making efforts to bring educational
214 opportunities to all and provide learners with knowledge and skills for evolving workplaces and sophisticated
215 living environments, and to prepare citizens for lifelong learning (Nawaz, 2011).

216 iii. Bridging the Digital Divide (DOI)

217 The issue of 'digital-divide' is commonplace and has generated a plethora of public addresses, reports, policies,
218 and plans thereby attesting the importance of the concept (Macleod, 2005). Though computers are becoming
219 more prevalent, the rapidly increasing digital divide continues to separate those who have access to ICTs from
220 those who do not thus, today is a world of many divides, with 'Digital-Divide' on the top, which is generating
221 and worsening other refers to the divergence between individuals, communities, cultures and nations at socio-

222 economic levels in terms of access to ICTs and use of internet (Moolman & Blignaut, 2008). Access and digital
223 divide have always been an issue for eLearning in many countries (Koo, 2008).

224 Research asserts that educational technologies have a key role in effectively reducing the digital divide
225 particularly in the developing states. Digital Opportunity initiatives (DOI) are the efforts to bridge the digital
226 divide (Hameed, 2007). Policy makers in Africa and elsewhere have put forth technology, technical competence,
227 and computer and information literacy as solutions for many of the problems, like, teacher shortages, low
228 achievement, high drop-out rates, lack of opportunities and materials (Wells, 2007). Likewise, the incorporation
229 of ICT into the educational contents is promoted as a key step to bridge the digital divide (Nawaz & Qureshi,
230 2010a). HEC (2012) resolves on its website that by providing the HEIs with ICT-infrastructure, the nation will
231 become capable to achieve sustainable economic growth and prosperity for all citizens and thereby bridge the
232 digital divide between institutions in Pakistan and worldwide.

233 **12 b) From Computerization to Personalization**

234 When ICTs emerged, their primary use was the automation of individual and organizational jobs therefore no
235 consideration was given to the user's personal relation with technology or customized use of ICTs. It was simply
236 not possible because technologies did not allow so whatever was done by technology was great. In this way, there
237 was computerization or digitization of the individuals and organizations and not otherwise (Nawaz & Kundi,
238 2010c). However, as the computer technologies evolved into first information technologies and then ICTs, the
239 scenario has begun to change. Now, ICTs are more diverse, powerful, mobile and integrative to help users in
240 personalizing and adapting the ICTs to their individual requirements and not otherwise).

241 **13 i. Computerization of Individuals and Organizations**

242 Transaction processing systems (TPS) were the first popular programs to automate mechanical, structured and
243 routine matters and decisions. So the view of technology was naturally 'instrumental' and not 'substantive'
244 in the sense that computerization was considered as a neutral process with no implications for humans and
245 therefore society at large (Mehra & Mital, 2007). Before the emergence of new social technologies, the ICTs were
246 not capable to be used for broader and instant social interactions therefore; most of the applications remained
247 instrumental and not liberal and substantive (Nawaz & Kundi, 2010b).

248 ii. Personalization and Adaptation of ICTs Personalization and adaptation technologies are that group of ICTs,
249 which are used in the design and development of 'end-user-computing' to make the environment user-centered.
250 Adaptation is the process of modifying the learning environments in the support of learning processes (Nawaz
251 et al., 2011a). While personalization technologies range from simply displaying the user-name on a web-page,
252 to advanced navigation and customization according to the rich models of user behaviors (Nawaz, 2011). It is
253 generally recognized that effective and efficient learning need to be individualized, personalized, and adapted
254 to the learner's preferences, competences, and knowledge, as well as to the current context. Adaptive learning
255 systems keep the information about the user in the learner model and thus provide adaptation effects on the
256 digital environment (Nawaz, 2012b). c) From Teacher to Student i. Teacher-Centric ePedagogy As learning shifts
257 from the 'teacher-centered model' to a 'learner-centered pedagogy' the teacher becomes a facilitator, mentor and
258 coach with primary task of preparing students in asking questions, formulating hypotheses, locating information
259 and then critically assessing the information in relation to the proposed hypotheses (Qureshi et al., 2009). For
260 example, new hypermedia applications are offering individualized and learner-centered delivery systems because
261 these are the quickest way of acquiring knowledge (Kundi & Nawaz, 2010). If ICTs are used correctly they can
262 assist in adopting a more people or learner-centered and dialogical approach to education through a meaningful
263 two-way communication between teachers and learners (Nawaz & Qureshi, 2010b).

264 ii. Student-Centered Learning-Environment

265 The learner-centered approach derives from the theory of constructivism, which argues that knowledge is
266 neither independent of the learner nor a learner passively receives it, rather, it is created through an

267 The emergence of networking, Internet, intranets, extranets, web 2.0 and social software have created an
268 integration of user-friendly ICTs, which not only help in automation but also offer socializing tools to conduct
269 collective activities like group decision making, group learning and interactions at the international level at
270 anytime from anywhere (Phillips et al., 2008). Thus, it is the technologies themselves which are changing the
271 work environments because users design multiple uses of ICTs only when technologies emerge. For example,
272 video conferencing naturally forced the individuals and organizations to socialize without physical interactions,
273 thereby introducing a technology-based group interaction with the feelings of physical involvement while all this
274 happens virtually ??Nawaz & Kundi, 2010a).

275 active process where a learner transforms information, constructs hypothesis, and makes decisions using his
276 mental models and ultimately give meaning and organization to individual experiences (Nawaz & Kundi, 2010c).
277 The use of ICT in education offers more studentcentered settings, which are constructivist in nature due to their
278 provision and support for resource-based, student centered settings and by enabling learning in a context (Nawaz
279 & Qureshi, 2010b). As internet is offering new ways of connecting and networking people, educators are learning
280 to use these technologies to create and enable learning-communities (Kundi & Nawaz, 2010).

281 14 DISCUSSIONS

282 Research tells that education is the biggest user of software and web services showing that eLearning is widening
283 the picture of education (Baumeister, 2006) thereby creating several stakeholders including knowledge-industry,
284 academia, designers, policy makers and other institutions involved in ICT-based higher education (Nawaz et al.,
285 2011d). The knowledge revolution and economic globalization has created knowledge-based industries who work
286 on the basis of computer-literate workforce thereby pushing the countries to restructure their educational system
287 and incorporate digital literacy in their curriculum because eLearning offers a diversity of opportunities for both
288 the teachers and students (Nawaz, 2012a).

289 The emergence of educational technologies is forcing educators to construct alternative theories for learning.
290 The paradigm shift in HEIs refers not only to the departure from pedagogy to ePedagogy; it also characterizes
291 the changes within eLearning environments for teaching, learning and administrative purposes (Nawaz et al.,
292 2011a). This dimension of paradigm shift is described in terms of the progress from old-ICTs to new-ICTs in
293 three stages of traditional-eLearning, blended-eLearning and contemporary virtuallearning. The technological
294 developments in eLearning are linked with the theories of learning like behaviorism, objectivism, and cognitive
295 and social constructivism (Nawaz & Zubair, 2012b).

296 Objectivism believes that everything related to learning is predictable therefore there can be one universal
297 eLearning model wherein priority is given to the stimulus-response relationship while cognitive aspects of learning
298 are ignored (Kundi & Nawaz, 2010). Constructivism, on the contrary, argues that reality does not exist out there
299 objectively rather it is constructed by the human beings subjectively therefore it is not predictable in total rather
300 most of it depends on human perception, which in turn draws the picture/image of reality (Nawaz et al., 2011d).
301 The constructivism in higher education have been pushed by the emergence of universal connectivity through
302 ICTs, which has enabled the masses to globally communicate and freely access the global knowledge resources
303 through internet (Nawaz, 2012a).

304 V.

305 15 Conclusions

306 Social constructivism have become a reality in some parts of the world particularly the advanced countries while
307 rest of the world is struggling at different levels of the trajectory (see Figure 1). The issue is multidisciplinary
308 and needs to be addressed from all related dimensions. Furthermore, shifting from objectivism to social
309 constructivism is not simply based on the willingness of the users rather several independent variables configure
310 the transformation process independently. For example, existence of latest digital technologies is indispensable
311 for creating social networks to implement social constructivism in eLearning systems.

312 However, as discussed across this paper, generation of social constructivism is not actually techno-centric
313 rather human and social therefore 'digital literacy' of the users stands as the major determinant of any move
314 for adopting eLearning systems. The experience shows that provision of digital gadgets is gradually becoming
315 a minor problem and even the poorest states are now getting access to the digital devices. There are social,
316 human, organizational and managerial issues which are more critical and daunting for the authorities responsible
317 for eProjects anywhere including eLearning systems of higher education.

318 It can therefore be concluded that the only way to create 'eLearning environments' that are based on 'social
319 constructivism' is focusing on the 'native research' and 'digital literacy' of users. Domestic research will highlight
320 totally indigenous models of the problems as well as solutions for introducing latest digital technologies in the
321 learning systems of higher ^{1 2 3}

¹Global Journal of Management and Business Research Volume XII Issue VIII Version I © 2012 Global Journals Inc. (US)

²Global Journal of Management and Business Research Volume XII Issue VIII Version I © 2012 Global Journals Inc. (US)Social-Constructivism: Futuristic Sphere for eLearning in HEIs

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Figure 1: Figure 1 :

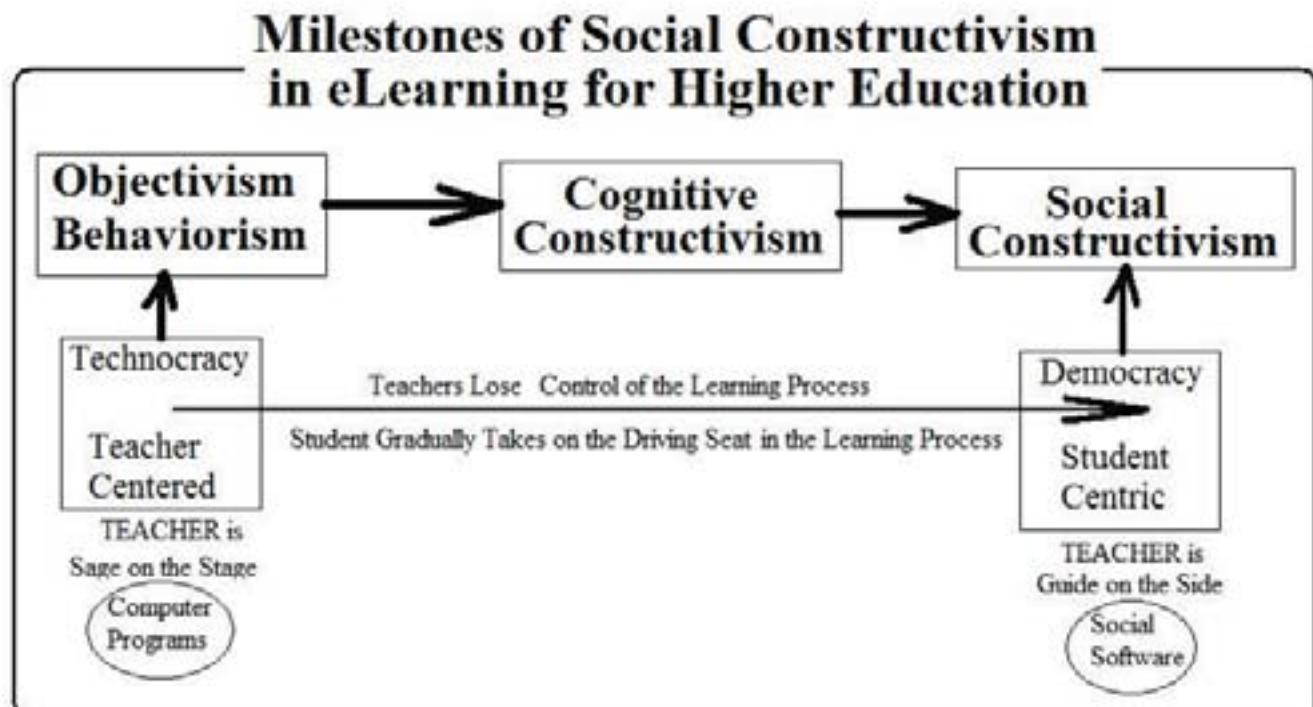


Figure 2:

15 CONCLUSIONS

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