Deriving a theory of learning from social movement practices: A systematic literature review

Mai Atta
The Pennsylvania State University, USA (mma6173@psu.edu)

John D. Holst The Pennsylvania State University, USA (jdh91@psu.edu)

Abstract

The field of Adult Education is rich with general theories of learning but limited in terms of theories that inform social movement learning (SML). Today, there are several conceptualizations of SML, but little learning theory development based directly on empirical studies of SML. This article aims to present findings from a systematic literature review of empirical studies on social movement learning (SML). We collected and identified 69 empirical studies focusing on adult learning and education within social movements for this literature review. We purposely focused on empirical research studies and did not include works that conceptualise or theorise social movement learning outside of actual empirical studies of SML. From our review of empirical studies, we have identified five elements we believe could serve as the foundation of a theory of learning and education in social movements.

Keywords: social movement learning, systematic literature review, dialectics of learning and education, popular education, radical adult education

Introduction: Popular Education and Social Movement Learning

Radical popular education is part and parcel of social change. This social change, however, is consciously and collectively achieved through organised social movements. The relationship between popular education and social movements has been a topic of interest for several decades now (e.g., Sur, 1987; Walters & Manicom, 1996; Kane, 2001), and has been more recently addressed by Torres Carrillo (2016).

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Largely parallel to the decades-long interest in popular education and social movements, has been the developing body of literature that falls under the moniker of social movement learning (SML). Our contribution to this special issue focuses on the empirical research that has been developing in the subfield of SML. We feel that the popular education tradition, particularly its focus on educational practices, can potentially re-anchor SML in considering the role of the popular or movement education in social movements. We also feel that SML can enrich popular education through its focus on the learning elements within organised efforts for social change.

The adult education field is rich with learning theories (e.g., Illeris, 2018; Merriam & Baumgartner, 2020). In the subfield of SML, several scholars have attempted conceptualising the nature of SML (e.g., Hall & Turay, 2006; Holst, 2002; Niesz et al., 2018). The SML subfield also has a growing number of empirical studies of learning within social movements. Nevertheless, when we look to our field's broader learning theories, they do not necessarily provide us with theories directly drawn from or directly related to learning that takes place in social movements. Moreover, when we look at SML's conceptualisations, it is not clear that these SML's conceptualisations stem from empirical research of actual instances of learning in social movements. Finally, the empirical studies of SML describe specific cases of SML in various social movements but tend not to theorize or look into the characteristics of this learning beyond the particular circumstances. In short, we do not have significant development of a theory of learning in social movements.

Given that the field is increasingly interested in learning and theories of learning; and that the field has a growing number of empirical studies of learning in social movements, we feel it is time that the subfield of SML begin to work toward theorising SML. In other words, begin to develop a theory of learning in social movements. In this article, we report on a systematic literature review (Tight, 2019) of empirical research studies on learning in social movements to identify elements of a theory of learning in social movements. Given the number of empirical studies we found for this literature review, we do feel that the field is ready to begin this theoretical project. We realize that our effort is only a beginning, and we present it to the field with the hope that others will engage in this long-term project of theorising the nature of learning in social movements.

Research purpose and methodology

Our systematic literature review addresses two gaps. First, there is a lack of a theory of SML in our field's theories of learning, and second, we believe there is a gap in theorising in the empirical research on SML. In this study, we reviewed 69 empirical studies of SML. We aimed to analyse the learning identified in each study in its particular context and we tried to find the building blocks of a theory for social movement learning across these studies. We wanted to examine if social movements had unique learning elements.

Searching for Empirical Studies in the Literature

To find empirical research studies on SML, we searched ERIC, Proquest education, GALE global issues, Women & social movements (USA and international), and WorldCat. We concentrated on empirical research studies and excluded conceptual or theoretical studies on SML. An example of such theoretical work would be Holst (2002). In our first search query, we paired 'Adult Education,' 'Adult Learning,' and 'Lifelong Learning' with the following keyword descriptors: social movements, labour union, LGBTQ movement, community organising, aboriginal, indigenous, race education, the

student movement, activism, social change, Marxism, communism, colonialism, abolition, anarchism, imperialism, anti-imperialism, women's movement, and socialism. This query generated 10,000 hits. Many of these results were irrelevant since they came from different disciplines (nursing, political science, human development, or family studies) or were theoretical, not empirical. We then searched for 'adult education,' 'adult learning,' and 'lifelong learning.' We linked these phrases with an AND command with the keyword descriptors 'social movements' and 'social movement learning'. This query produced 118 articles.

We engaged in a further refinement of the 118 articles by eliminating 1) K-12 focused studies, and 2) eliminating studies that focused on the history or culture of social movements, not pedagogy, learning, or education. After this refinement, we identified 69 empirical studies concentrating on adult learning and education within social movements, which we list by publication date in Table 1 (see appendix 1). The studies included empirical research on labor (Bleakney & Choudry, 2013; Schied, 1993; Spencer, 1995; Terriquez, 2011; Woodin, 2005), environmental (Bowles, 2006; Kim 2011; Walter, 2012; Ollis & Hamel-Green, 2015), queer (Walker, 2009), social justice (Brown, 2018), health awareness (DiFilippo, 2015; Endresen & Von Kotze, 2005), women's (Drew, 2015), animal rights (Vea, 2020) movements.

Data analysis

Though empirical studies only make up a small percentage of the literature on social movements in our field, we were nonetheless able to recognise similarities in the ways in which movements educate and organise. We kept a log of all 69 of our studies on a Google spreadsheet. We classified each study by publication year, research methodology, learning theories employed, social movement studied, movement region, theoretical frameworks if available, and movement cause. Since our literature analysis focused primarily on the learning and educational activities within the movement, we had little difficulty extracting data from the studies. We frequently took quotes from participant interviews as well as any descriptions of educational materials or activities.

Coding data

We applied the thematic analysis process outlined by Braun & Clarke (2006) to our studies in order to find codes and generate themes. We utilised a theoretical thematic analysis in which we approached the extracted data with predetermined questions and used them to code our data.

In this first phase of data analysis, we used Engeström's (2018) four questions on learning theories to analyse the research studies and to look for codes: Who are the learning participants? Why do they learn? What do they learn? How do they learn? We added our own fifth question to for the analysis: What are they learning for? Holst (2002) suggests that it is crucial to understand the movements and the learning within them, but it is also important to understand the political direction or goals of social movement learning and education (Holst, 2002; Köpsén, 2011; Mayo, 1999).

Generating and reviewing themes

Using our codes from the five questions, we were able to find within- and cross-movement themes. Despite variation in movement knowledge production based on regional location and movement causes, we found that similar themes emerged across movements. At this point, we began to review our spreadsheet to compare the codes.

When we saw that particular themes appeared multiple times within certain codes as well as across codes, we assigned these themes to the codes (question) where they had appeared most frequently.

Once we identified all the themes, we reviewed them and combined related themes into broader themes. For instance, the themes 'triggered by shame' and 'feeling anger toward injustice' were combined under the theme 'emotions as a catalyst for learning within social movements'. Another approach we used was to connect themes that did not have the same exact meaning but were related in terms of participant situations and perspectives. An example of this was the theme of 'agency and autonomy', which was the result of integrating and combining the previous themes of 'independence' and 'feeling in control of one's surrounding' into one.

Findings

In the findings section, we will describe the data collected and explain the results of the two phases of analysis. The goal here is simply to illustrate the codes and themes that emerged from our extracted data. Then, in the following discussion section, we will discuss our interpretation and the significance of these findings in the SML literature.

Findings from the Phase I analysis of using Engeström's questions and our own question

Who are the learners?

Beginning with Engeström's first question of who the learning participants in movements are, the research studies in our review focused on the learning of members (e.g., Martin, 1988; Vea; 2020), whom we identified as activists who organise the movement, participants (e.g., Lee 1993; Ollis & Hamel-Green, 2015), whom we identified as people who join the movement, and finally the public who observe the movement from the outside. Few scholars (e.g., Church et al., 2016; Díez-Gutiérrez & Díaz-Nafría, 2018; Roy, 2012) have considered the public in terms of SML research. When they have considered the public, it has been in the form of visitors or the audience of social justice events such as film festivals.

What do learners learn?

By examining what members learn from and about movements, we identified three types of learning and the knowledge they lead to: practical or instrumental learning, raising individual and social consciousness, and experiencing more connectedness. First, instrumental learning includes knowledge that helps members execute daily tasks. Instrumental learning includes computer literacy (Bleakney & Choudry, 2013), media literacy (Roy, 2014), gardening (Walter, 2013), farming (Flowers & Swan, 2011; Scandrett et al., 2010), public speaking (Chovanec et al., 2007; Larri & Whitehouse, 2019; Schied, 1993), and leadership (Harris, 2002). Instrumental learning helps people reject prevailing hegemony, or common-sensical thinking, and helps them build movement-based meaning (Saguy & Ward, 2011; Walter, 2012).

Second, raising individual and social consciousness involves increasing people's understanding of their social, political, and economic realities. Participants learned to be involved by organising and tackling public problems. This expertise came from studying their country's economic, political, and power dynamics. Participants learned about the

history of movements and social change in their cities (Langdon, 2011) and worldwide through lectures, workshops, and field visits (Bleakney & Choudry, 2013; Brown, 2018; O'Donnell, 2014).

Last is community development and engagement. Examples include forming alliances (Walter, 2007), exercising solidarity (Ollis & Hamel-Green, 2015; Roy, 2012; Woodin, 2007), and building community (Harris, 2002; Serrat et al., 2016; Woodin, 2007). Working in movements gave members social support, which enabled them to communicate with neighbours and officials. This connectedness, it is argued, led to horizontal structures within movements, unlike hierarchical or authoritarian systems in society. Participants realised that 'you are not a number here; you are a person integrated with other people who are producing knowledge' (O'Donnell, 2014, p. 280). This understanding gave people empathy for other marginalised communities (Hamilton, 2016).

Why do people learn?

Studies that use empirical methods to investigate why people learn focus on members of social movements who are actively involved in organising activities. According to the findings of our review, participants in movements consciously organise learning activities in order to develop skills and knowledge they see as necessary to achieve the goals of the movement. We also believe that these activities are examples of intentional educational endeavours. According to the literature, the primary motivation for learning is functional. Participants and activists alike are interested in acquiring new knowledge in order to improve their capabilities for participating in movement-related activities. In addition, they need to arm themselves with the necessary knowledge in order to participate in community discussions.

How do people learn?

Looking at how people learned, we found four modalities. Some movements show elements of a community of practice where participants learn from more experienced members (Foroughi, 2013; Ollis & Hamel-Green, 2015; Underhill, 2016). Movement members learn about advocacy and organising by observing other members' daily activities. Another popular form of learning was the instruction and facilitation of skills and professional development workshops such as fundraising and letter writing (Ollis, 2020; Schedler, 1993). These are examples of intentional educational efforts within movements. They are most definitely how people learn, but it is learning directly facilitated by others in the movement. Finally, we identified self-generated learning activities where people advance their own learning (Schedler, 1993; Tobias, 2000) often followed by reflections and discussions (O'Donnell, 2014; Zieliska et al., 2011). These modes are not mutually exclusive, they can be combined.

What are people learning for?

Finally, when examining the purpose of learning within movements, we found four common elements in the empirical studies: strengthening communities, building collective power, pursuing new identities, and seeking change, liberation, and emancipation. A member of a movement in Serrat et al.'s (2016, p. 77) study said they joined the movement to 'avoid being manipulated'. Another group of women activists said SML was their source of collective power and liberation because the 'City Department of Environment couldn't continue to sit in [their] faces and lie to [them] about

what was going on' (Bowles, 2006, p. 56). In Lee's (1993) study, women said their participation in the movement enabled them to learn about their new identities as immigrants.

Findings from the Phase II analysis

After organising and analysing the empirical studies based on Engeström's four questions and our additional question, we identified five main themes that we believe can be building blocks of a learning theory for social movements. The first element is reflection as a way to bridge events and experiences with education. In this case, activist-educators lead the educational process by helping members and participants to examine and reflect on their own experiences. Secondly, we identified enhancing agency and autonomy as characteristics of learning within and from social movements. Our analysis has shown that participants' agency facilitates their taking the lead and responsibility for their learning. The third element is the importance of emotions, an affective element that plays a role in members' participation in learning within and from the movements. Next, unlearning, or reversed learning has negative and positive impacts on participation. An unfavourable outcome of the unlearning is that when participants start to face challenges during their organising, there is a tendency that they unlearn the knowledge that led them to be engaged with the movement initially. A positive outcome of unlearning is when participants rid themselves of knowledge that is not helpful to their participation and replace it with new knowledge. Finally, depending on where activists organise, the broader political atmosphere influences their education.

From event to experience in social movement learning and education

Participants of social movements apply various tools to educate and organise one another, and one of the most common tools was reflecting on their own experience. Members of social movements witness or participate in events that are not turned into experience unless they revisit and reflect on them. That is when experience can turn into learning. We understand this revisiting and reflecting on events as intentional acts to generate learning. We also understand this to be a major task of popular education in social movements. In other words, these intentional pedagogical acts by movement activists are social movement education dialectically linked to social movement learning; Social movement learning does not occur spontaneously; it is a result of pedagogical activity within movements. What we found, then, in this review of research on social movement learning, was actually evidence of social movement education; the intentional acts of movement members to generate learning. Köpsén (2011) states that this education's political purpose or direction are determined by the amount of critical reflection allowed in the learning process. Faced with encouraging or frustrating events from social movement participation, activists cannot help but keep asking questions about their practice, the reason for and the result of their work; 'this process, self-questioning, and self-answering, is exactly the process of reflection' (Kim, 2011, p. 324).

We also found in our review less intentionally pedagogical activity in movements that also leads to learning. A learner's contemplation of a given event is strongly dependent on their cognitive praxis and reflection on it, which is arguably maximised when a learner's reality and community are acknowledged in the process. This ongoing process of directed action and reflection contributes to the participants' learning. These forms of directed action and reflection were difficult to capture in the literature because they were not necessarily intentionally designed as educational by the members. Our

review of research studies indicates that knowledge creation occurs within the movements' everyday activities, which is sometimes difficult to assess. More empirical research is needed to understand this type of learning and how movements utilise the generated knowledge of these experiences.

Agency and Autonomy

SML is rooted in movement participants' perceptions of their agency and autonomy within their communities (Sandlin & Walther, 2009). This agency stems from their realisation that they are subjects within their environments and not mere objects that react to their surroundings. Autonomy is built on participants' willingness and ability to create spaces of 'counter-hegemonic' learning that values their knowledge and experience over experts. Learning within or through social movements is an autonomous educational tool that enhances people's ability to seek solutions to their own specific problems, as well as a means to exercise autonomy and power in order to transform existing institutional relations (Hemphill & Leskowitz, 2013). Additionally, autonomy in SML represents a discourse where workers, women, and indigenous people get the chance to create their 'useful' knowledge that is born from and thus relevant to their very own realities. These groups increasingly choose to engage and learn from meaningful educational activities that reflect the 'situation of real people' (Gillespie & Melching, 2010).

Though agency and autonomy are often thought of as processes of individualisation, in social movements, they are collective endeavours (Kapoor, 2007). These collective practices are viewed as means to reclaiming power. Participants make their movements to be powerful platforms through which they feel they matter, experience solidarity, and can be actively engaged in problem solving. Most simply put, people coming together in organised ways and around a common vision gives them more power. In Kapoor's (2007) research, for example, one participant said: 'I am not powerful by myself. But when we sit together... much more is accomplished' (p. 29).

Emotions as an affective element of SML

Learning is both driven by emotions and an emotional process (Vea, 2020). Movement participants talk about experiencing a wide range of emotions, including fear, anger, despair, shame, hope, empathy, satisfaction or trauma, and acknowledged how these feelings resulted from their participation in and helped facilitated their learning within movements (e.g., Endresen & Von Kotze, 2005; Ollis, 2020; Underhill, 2016; Vea, 2020). In some studies (e.g., Drew, 2015; Foroughi, 2013), members of movements who through their activism overcame the feeling of shame, were able to better participate and become more active members of movements (Drew, 2015; Foroughi, 2013). Other studies (e.g., Hill, 2004; Mirshak, 2020), highlighted that oppressed populations could repurpose the feeling of rage and anger toward injustice and use it to facilitate their learning about themselves and their lived realities and how they can change those realities while at the same time building feelings of community and connectedness (Bowles, 2006; Woodin, 2007).

We found that researchers often identify the role of emotions in SML, nevertheless, affective learning does not capture the totality of SML; rather, in our view, it is more accurate to claim that SML has an affective element. Our review has pointed to the idea that emotions either triggered, mediated, or enhanced the learning process in social movements. Given these findings, we believe it is important that movement activists and educators acknowledge these emotions in their educational practices in order to enhance learning and participation within movements.

Unlearning as both positive and negative

Finally, and related to our findings on emotions, our review affirms Baltodano et al.'s (2007) notion of 'learning in reverse' or 'delearning' as Zielińska, Kowzan, and Prusinowska (2011) called it, which refers to the disappointment or negative learning that can tear movements apart. This learning can be a result of intergroup conflicts or members' burnout. After one of these experiences, one participant in Zielińska et al.'s study commented, 'Sometimes, by sharing our knowledge, we demobilise people who would otherwise challenge the 'police order' again. Maybe they would even succeed, because something might have changed meanwhile or because our knowledge was 'wrong' (p. 265).

More research is needed to understand the dynamics of this learning as it leads individuals to believe that their work has no significant impact. Other social movement scholars, on the other hand, have suggested that 'unlearning' can be constructive. An example of this would be the trend of women from marginalised backgrounds opting to give birth at home rather than in hospitals (DiFilippo, 2015). In addition, in Gillespie and Melching's (2010) study in Tostan, it was found that women had to unlearn everything about female genital cutting that they had been taught by people in power. Alternately, these women's involvement in the movement helped educate them about their own bodies and the ways in which they care for their health. Unlearning or reversed learning in movements centres reflection as a core element in social movement education. Kim's (2011) study showed that when activists experience frustration with their movement experience, they keep looping back and questioning their participation, resulting in an ongoing process of unlearning and relearning. A challenge for movement activists in their educational work is to balance unlearning or reverse learning in order to maintain or build a movement without allowing these emotions to derail it.

Surrounding environments shape learning and organisation

A prevalent theme in the literature was how the movement's context affect the types of activism of the movement and leads to various forms of knowledge production. In Figure 1, solid-lined arrows point to each quadrant's learning. To comprehend this learning/context link, researchers need to study the relationships between the goals of a movement, the worldviews of a movement's members, and the movement's sociohistorical circumstances. Local cultures and surroundings of social movements may impose different educational roles on activists; in some movements, activists become adult educators (Martin, 1988; Schedler, 1993). Other movements plan education alongside other organisational activities (Baltodano et al., 2007; English, 2005).

Ollis (2008), for example, distinguishes two types of activists: lifelong activists and accidental activists, based on how they became involved in social movements, their political environment at the time, and the type of formal schooling they received. The lifelong activist is someone who received formal education in politics, law, or the humanities and grew up in a politically permissive community. These lifelong activists tend to be well-versed in social movements and have experience participating in a variety of protests and campaigns. An accidental activist, on the other hand, is someone who became involved in organising due to a series of events in their life. They were motivated to protest for a variety of reasons, such as personal circumstances or a specific social crisis. Their education is rapid and ongoing because they need to keep learning, act and organise at the same time. Other scholars (Kapoor, 2007; Kim, 2011) use Foley's (1999) approach to classify activists depending on their surroundings, level of struggle, and local context. Foley emphasised learning in, from, and within the struggle, where struggle can

be a continual process for some movements like the struggle for liberation or a single event like struggling to find a job or learn something new. Foley (1999) claimed that this type of learning helps individuals evolve into 'knowledge-creating...beings,' (p. 64), which necessarily makes social movement members knowledge producers (Flowers & Swan, 2011).

In other words, the distinctions between social movements based on their surrounding environments or contexts are vital for SML scholars to recognize because they impact how these movements educate or generate learning. Established movements have more prerequisite critical and formal political training and may operate in an environment with more public involvement with politics. These movements, then, have preestablished access to knowledge and educational resources before they even begin to organize. Other movements, however, face or emerge in contexts with less favourable conditions for learning and education and must create them as they begin to respond to existing injustices and inequalities.

Discussion

The Dialectics of Learning and Education

Exploring empirical research studies on 26 different countries and a wide range of movements demonstrates that the discourse of learning and education within the context of social movements has changed over time. We found that more studies focused on learning within the movements or used a discourse of learning in their analysis and only a few studies (Martin, 1988; McGregor & Price, 2010; Roy, 2014; Walter, 2012) examined how movements educate their participants. Between 1988 and 2005, scholars employed a discourse that was more oriented toward analysing educational practices and pedagogies. This research described education as a purposeful activity among a group of people rather than a spontaneous process. Since 2005, researchers have focused more on learning than education, or at least have used a learning discourse to describe what in the previous period was identified as education. The SML studies in this latter period we examined reflected what Biesta (2012) identified as a trend to separate learning from education, leading to a conceptualisation of learning as an individual process.

There is no doubt that social movements are sites of learning and knowledge production, whether within or from the movement. How, why, and which knowledge is produced within movements is an essential element for theorising SML. Movements, however, are also sites of education. If in developing a theory of SML, we fail to consider learning in dialectical relation with education, we fail to see the social nature of learning itself. Following Freire (1993), we understand learning in dialectical relation to education. This puts the pedagogical practices of movements at the centre of our theorising from the empirical studies we reviewed. To put this more simply, social movements have educators, or if you will, teachers. Much of the practice of social movements is intentionally educational in that people, and in particular activists, engage in activities that are crafted to assist their own and other's learning. This learning, however, does not happen spontaneously or in isolation from others; it is the product of specific people's actions in relation to others that are pedagogical in nature whether consciously so or not. Therefore, there are people in movements who educate through what they do in the movement. They are movement educators.

Some studies from both periods (e.g., Butterwick & Elfert, 2015; Martin, 1988) did examine how members learn collectively, reflect on learning from one another, and how

education had a radical effect on the participants of the movement. In other words, for these researchers, educating within social movements was political in every sense and had consequences and actions that stem from its political nature. Nevertheless, we clearly saw a shift over time from a discourse of education to a discourse of learning in the research studies even though the dialectical relationship between learning and education in actual movements continues unabated. Today's learning-oriented research seems to be well distanced from Paulston's (1980) research in which he specifically refers to 'social-movement education' (p. xiii) and his definition of 'movement education' he developed with Lejeune (Paulston & Lejeune, 1980) as 'structured learning activities, developed and controlled by a social movement within a liberating framework, for the express purpose of meeting movement needs, priorities, and goals' (p. 30). For us, Freire's (1993) insistence on seeing education and learning as dialectically related is a way forward for future research that seek to identify and understand learning as part and parcel of (educational) practices of social movements.

Building blocks of a theory of social movement learning and education

Previous researchers have situated learning within social movements along one or more dimensions (Cooper, 2007; Duguid et al., 2007; Foroughi, 2013; Scandrett et al., 2010; Serrat et al., 2016).

In this section we, present social movement literature's theorisation before addressing our findings and proposed SML building blocks. Overall, the available theories were based on sample studies or a specific movement, with questionable generalisability to SML across movements. Also, the typologies we examined did not provide enough details on the pedagogical aspects of social movements, but rather borrowed from human resources and development literature.

Schugurensky (2000) defines informal learning as a mix of learning types. Although the term informal learning captures an important form of learning, it is still too broad when it comes to explaining its causes, results, and manifestation. Using two continuums, he proposed a typology for informal learning. Intentional vs. unintentional and conscious vs. unconscious. He outlined three learning types: socialisation, incidental learning, and self-directed learning. Kluttz and Walter (2018) expanded on Scandrett et al. (2010) to conceptualise climate justice learning. They identified three main education levels: micro (individual learning), meso (reframing the individual perspective), and macro (the world and the power dynamics outside the movements). These levels are on two continuums: disordered and organised learning and individual and collective learning. These continuums were an excellent way to visualise how learning and education occur within the movement, and we use them below to explain our proposed building blocks.

To theorise social movement learning, we tried to situate each of its elements we identified above based on its intentionality, consciousness, and educational method. In Figure 1, we identify four quadrants: QUAD 1: formal and non-formal instruction (intentional and conscious), self-directed learning (intentional and conscious); QUAD 2: incidental learning (unintentional but conscious); QUAD 3: through observing other members (intentional and unconscious); and QUAD 4: social and spontaneous learning (unintentional and unconscious).

This is our attempt to develop a theory of the nature of SML. Figure 1 shows what social movements participants actively do for internal education, which is a combination of self-directed learning and non-formal instruction methods. The building block of this work is reflection. Educators of the movements, regardless of whether they self-identify as such,

help movement participants make meaning of their own experience through the creation of various learning experiences.

In the first quadrant, learning is pre-planned and mainly occurs before the movement acts and sometimes within organising for the movement. In the second quadrant, incidental learning occurs when members are conscious that their participation produces knowledge and furthers their learning, but this is an unintentional process and results from their engagement. In the third quadrant, learning occurs through observing other members and participating in various activities within the movement. Members observe other members engaging in tasks and try to learn from them in an intentional process. However, the analysis has shown that they are not usually conscious of how this observation results in significant learning experiences. The fourth quadrant is the most challenging form of learning, and we have less empirical data from current studies to explain it. Learning occurs due to social connections and is mostly invisible and hard to measure because it is unintentional and unconscious, so it requires researchers' investigation and observation because participants are mostly not aware of it.

We placed our suggested four elements of SML on the quadrant at moments where we believe that element was most prevalent. In the first quadrant, where learning is an intentional and a conscious process, the elements of education as a result of reflection on events that create experiences, and agency and autonomy are more prevalent. Our analysis revealed that both scholars and interviewed participants could quickly identify intentional and conscious learning due to its nature, and because it often requires prior planning. In the second and fourth quadrants, where subtle experiences and social connections take place, elements of unlearning and emotions as drivers for learning are more prevalent. Finally, in the third quadrant, watching other participants perform tasks emphasise the elements of reflection as an educational tool along with emotions.

In summary, each form of learning in the four quadrants represents an educational process. Our review of the literature revealed that social movements always have someone or some people to assist members in learning, designing learning experiences, or advancing learning. Learning within movements is rarely spontaneous; it is more commonly the result of someone, or some people consciously engaged in activities that create learning.

To separate these, or to only present the pedagogical work that occurs within movements as learning processes is a double error. Because first, it separates what is a dialectical process; it becomes one side. Second, and relatedly, it underplays one of the most important roles of social movements, which is to educate; to be sites of education and to be schools. To fail to see movements and those within them as educators is to miss one of their major purposes: to educate.

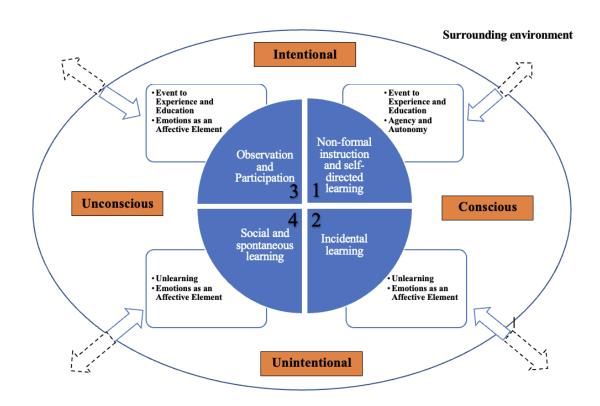


Figure 1. Elements of a theory of SML (authors' own figure)

Conclusion

We began this article by placing radical popular education in the context of social movement learning. As we argue for the need to consider learning and education as dialectically related, so as to avoid a one-sided focus on learning, SML researchers may want to consider that popular education has maintained the term education precisely because popular educators understand very well that they play an educative role in organised efforts for social change. To overcome the teacher/student contradiction as Freire (1993) insisted is not to make everyone only learners, but to make everyone learners and educators. There is no question that learning takes place in social movements, we should heed popular educators, however, and not forget that education also takes place in social movements.

The elements of learning we have identified can be interrelated, but each can be unique within a movement. We found that for most researchers, prevailing learning theories could not explain what was happening within movements. Current research focuses on activists' experiences and explicitly non-formal educational activities. Future studies should identify the learning process that emerges from pedagogical work or what we would define as education that turns events into experience through conscious reflection. This focus could help us understand how people transform and use experience-based knowledge.

Our research has two major limitations that could be addressed in future research. To begin, the study focused on existing literature in the field of adult education and lifelong learning, which resulted in a set of empirical research studies on progressive, left-oriented social justice movements. We did not examine, because we did not find, any research on right-wing movements. Second, we found that the literature we examined did not fit neatly into a Global North-South dichotomy. The studies appear to focus predominantly on the Global North. However, there have been several studies of Global South immigrants and refugees in Global North countries, as well as Indigenous Peoples within Global North countries. This prevented us from studying how specific educational practices were related to specific geographies, and it may limit any universality of our findings.

Moving forward, we believe more empirical research efforts are needed to explore ways to capture four things: first, how members learn within and from the educational activities of movements and the extent to which these activities are consciously conceived of as educational; second, the invisible, incidental, and unintentional aspects of SML; third, more focus on the reverse learning aspects of SML will undoubtedly provide valuable insights and findings. Finally, we need more empirical studies to understand how movements educate those outside the movements in the surrounding environment as we depict with dotted arrows in Figure 1. Here, we can begin to uncover the pedagogical impacts of social movements in creating new policies, new social relations, and new ways of viewing the world beyond the activist milieu within movements. To do this, adult educators should consider the work in the sociology of social movements (Almeida, 2019) where scholars have developed theories and conceptual frameworks perhaps better suited for understanding the impact of social movements on their surrounding environments.

The typology developed by Paulston and Altenbaugh was written in 1988, before the SML explosion. The concept of SML is useful because it focuses on how people change in movements and what movements do, but we have lost sight of identifying the things that people in movements do that change others when we do not see movements as both sites of learning and sites of education.

As researchers, we are particularly interested in movement pedagogical work that purposefully creates learning events and revisits and reflects upon them. We believe that this pedagogical work demonstrates the dialectical relationship between education and learning and more fully captures the breadth of pedagogical activities within and by social movements. It potentially leads the field to consider the need not for a theory of learning in social movements, but rather a theory of learning and education within social movements. As a result, we should consider SMLE. Dare we create a new acronym?

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Appendix 1

Table 1. Empirical studies on SML

| Author | Theoretical Framework | Participants/ Movement/ Location | Global North/South |
|------------------|--|---|-----------------------|
| Martin (1988). | n/a | Anti-uranium movement activists in Australia | Global North |
| Schedler (1993). | n/a | Women's group in the Liberal Party and Leiden University in the Netherlands | Global North |
| Lee (1993). | Post-modernist and post- structuralist feminist theories | Women immigrants and refugees in Canada | Global North |
| Schied (1993). | Radical adult education | Workers Nineteenth Century in Chicago | Global North |

| Spencer (1995). | New and Old social movements | Canadian Labour Union focused on Environmental issues in Canada | Global North |
|---------------------------------------|--|--|--------------|
| Kilgore (1999). | Sociocultural learning and Critical Consciousness | Social movement groups | Global North |
| Tobias (2000). | Self-directed learning | Active citizenship programs in New Zealand | Global North |
| Sawchuk (2001). | E-learning | 40 labour activists in Canada | Global North |
| Harris (2002). | Emancipatory and Transformative Learning | Rural activists in Canada | Global North |
| Narushima (2004). | Feminist and developmental theories | Raging Grannies' movement in Canada | Global North |
| Woodin (2005) | Community-based learning and Freire's literacy theories | The Federation of Worker Writers and Community Publishers in the U.K. | Global North |
| English (2005). | Third space theory | 13 women (from Canada, Asia, and Africa) doing international adult education in the Global South | Global South |
| Endresen & Von Kotze (2005). | Frere's theory of humanization | HIV-positive activists in South Africa | Global South |
| Bowles (2006). | Interpretivism | Environmental justice movement in the USA | Global North |
| Baltodano et al. (2007). | Learning as a social process for learners to develop a political analysis of their context | Immigrant workers in Canada | Global North |
| Kapoor (2007). | Decolonizing methodologies and social movement learning | Social movement activists in India | Global South |
| Duguid, Mündel & Schugurensky (2007). | Social movement learning | Volunteers of 4 community organizations in Canada | Global North |
| Walter (2007). | Environmental adult education | Activist forest monks and Buddhist environmental movement in Thailand | Global South |
| Woodin (2007). | Radical pedagogy | Worker writing groups in the U.K. | Global North |
| Chovanec et al. (2007). | Popular education | Youth unions in Canada | Global North |
| Cooper (2007). | Radical adult education | Members of South African Local Government Union | Global South |
| Salazar (2008). | Feminist intersectionality and Freire's theories of teaching and learning | Maya women who experience state violence in Guatemala | Global South |
| Sandlin & Walther (2009). | Foucault | Adults who practice simplicity in the USA | Global North |
| Ismail (2009). | Freire and Gramsci's theories | Women from South African Homeless People's Federation | Global South |
| Walker (2009). | Foucauldian power- relations theory to create educational experiences | Queer Nation movement | Global North |
| Langdon (2009). | Post-colonial lens with Freire and Habermas' theories | Women's movement and Antimining movement in Ghana | Global South |

| Jennings & De Matta (2009). | Using radical education to build counterpedagogies. | Women educators in Brazil | Global South |
|--|---|---|-----------------------|
| Gillespie & Melching (2010). | Freire and Dewey's theories | Female rural activists in Senegal | Global South |
| Scandrett et al. (2010). | Lifelong education theory of Ettore Gelpi | Environmental justice movement in Scotland and India | Global North/South |
| Köpsén (2011). | Communities of Practice and Freire | Trade unions in Sweden | Global North |
| Kim (2011). | Marx (use-value and exchange-value), self- directed learning and | Five environmental social movements in the USA | Global North |
| Terriquez (2011). | n/a | Latino immigrant workers and parents in the USA | Global North |
| Flowers & Swan (2011). | Informal learning | Food Movement activists | |
| Zielińska, Kowzan, & Prusinowska (2011). | Collective learning, situated learning, and social movement learning | Activists at the University of Gdańsk in Poland | Global North |
| Saguy & Ward (2011). | Narrative learning theory | Fat rights movement and Queer movement in the USA | Global North |
| Langdon (2011). | Foley's learning in/from struggle | Social movement members in Ghana | Global South |
| Grayson (2011). | Popular worker's education and Gramsci's social movement theory | Labour movement in the U.K. | Global North |
| Larrabure, Vieta & Schugurensky (2011). | Informal and non-formal learning | Socialist Production Units in Venezuela and Worker- Recuperated Enterprises in Argentina | Global South |
| Meek (2011). | Gramsci's hegemony | Brazilian Landless Workers' movement | Global South |
| Rule (2011). | Collective and social learning | HIV & AIDS and disability movements in Uganda, Zambia and South Africa | Global South |
| Walter (2012). | Collective learning and identity and counter-hegemonic knowledge production | Environmental Movement in the USA and Canada | Global North |
| Roy (2012). | Freire's Pedagogy of indignation | Audience of community film festivals in Canada | Global North |
| Walter (2013). | Transformative learning, communities of practice and place-based learning. | Food Movement in the USA | Global North |
| Foroughi (2013). | Informal learning | Tenants of Toronto Community Housing Corporation in Canada | Global North |
| Hemphill & Leskowitz (2013). | Community of practice and Freire | Community of anarchist, anticapitalist "Do-It-Yourself" activists in the USA | Global North |
| Bleakney & Choudry (2013). | Non-formal and informal learning | Immigrant workers in Canada | Global North |
| Drew (2015). | Embodied learning and situated learning | Activists in the animal rights movement in Australia | Global North |

| | Collective learning and | Audience of documentary film | |
|--|--|--|--------------|
| Roy (2014). | experiential learning | festivals in Canada | Global North |
| O'Donnell (2014). | Foucault | Popular educators in Argentina | Global South |
| Choudry (2014). | Marxist theory | Activist researchers in the Philippines | |
| Butterwick & Elfert (2015). | Feminism and narrative learning | 27 elder women social activists in Canada | Global North |
| Ollis, & Hamel-Green (2015). | Bordieau's habitus and situated learning | Protestors against fracking in Australia | Global North |
| DiFilippo (2015). | Critical feminist lens and transformative learning | Women health movement in Canada | Global North |
| Boumlik & Schwartz (2016). | Third-space theory | An NGO and a female activist post the Jasmine Revolution in Tunisia | Global South |
| Church et al. (2016). | Learning through object and story- based cultural production | Professors and activists working on a Disability History museum exhibition in Canada | Global North |
| Hamilton (2016). | Adult education | The Poor People Movement | Global North |
| Serrat, Petriwskyj, Villar & Warburton (2016). | Informal learning | Elders' political participation in Spain | Global North |
| Holst & Vetter (2016). | Gramsci's cultural hegemony | Members of a Trade Union School in Chile | Global South |
| Underhill (2016). | Social movement learning | Egyptian revolution activists in the Diaspora | Global South |
| Chen & Rhoads (2016). | Critical race theory and ethnic studies | Staff and faculty allies of undocumented students in a university | |
| Brown (2018). | Transformative learning and non-formal learning | Citizenship education in UK and Spain | Global North |
| Kluttz & Walter (2018). | Feminist theories | Climate Justice movement in the USA | Global North |
| Díez-Gutiérrez & Díaz-Nafría (2018). | Expanded learning | Participants of vocational training center for employment in Spain | Global North |
| Larri & Whitehouse (2019). | Communities of practice and action learning | Elder activist women in Australia | Global North |
| Underhill (2019). | Emotions in social movement learning and Boler's 'Pedagogy of discomfort' | Egyptiandiaspora activists in the U.K. | Global North |
| Webb (2019). | Radical pedagogy | Occupy Wall Street activists in the USA | Global North |
| Ollis (2020). | Critical Pedagogy and new social movements | Activists from a coalition of anti- coal seam gas groups in Australia | Global North |
| Vea (2020). | Emotions and learning in sociocultural activity | Animal Rights movements in the USA | Global North |
| Mirshak (2020). | Gramscian framework | Civil society organizations in post-uprisings Egypt | Global South |