ABSTRACT

LARI, POONEH. Understanding Teaching Experiences: Faculty Transitions from Traditional to Online Classrooms. (Under the direction of Dr. Colleen Aalsburg Wiessner.)

The purpose of this study was to describe the transition of faculty members from traditional to online environments and to examine their assumptions about their teaching and learning in face-to-face and online environments. In that it describes the transition experiences of faculty members from traditional to online environments, their teaching and learning assumptions and possible changes and transformations, this study may assist those faculty members who have been resistant to transitioning from traditional to online classrooms.

The questions guiding this research were (a) How do faculty members describe their transition from teaching face-to-face to teaching in an online environment? (b) What personal, professional, pedagogical or other assumptions do faculty members hold about the teaching and learning in traditional and online environments before starting their transition and how do those assumptions change after their transition? And (c) How are the changes the faculty members experience as they transition from traditional to online environments defined along a continuum in relation to change theories?

This qualitative study research was conducted as a heuristic multiple case study, meaning participants at various locations were interviewed. The results of this study contribute to creating a body of knowledge useful to institutions, faculty members, and others transitioning from traditional to online classrooms. It expands the online teaching literature regarding what teaching and learning means to the faculty members and allows them to bridge technology with pedagogy. It also contributes to the literature that discusses the role

of emotional intelligence as faculty members transition from traditional to online environment and how emotions affect the decision-making process in this transition. This research also adds to the different types of presence the faculty members can have online that enable the faculty members to be more effective in the way the faculty members teach, learn, and interact within their community of practice.

Understanding Teaching Experiences: Faculty Transitions From Traditional To Online Classrooms

by
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DEDICATION

I dedicate this dissertation to Mom and Dad for their guidance, encouragement, and unconditional love throughout every day of my life; for all the times they talked me through the rough patches or simply listened to me vent, and for all the times they celebrated my successes as if they were greater than their own. And here's to my beautiful sister for her funny, fun-spirited, and loving ways. It was wonderful being in school with you once more, experiencing the good, the bad, and the ugly together.

Also, I would like to dedicate this work that has been one of my closest companions over the past couple of years, to my other, more charming and loving companion, my husband Aaron. I dedicate this to you for all your love, support, and counsel.

BIOGRAPHY

Pooneh Lari began her higher education studies at Bloomsburg University of Pennsylvania and attained an M.S. in Instructional Technology in 1999. After working for three years, she returned for the doctorate in Adult and Community College Education from North Carolina State University. She is currently teaching as an adjunct instructor at NC State.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

The purpose of the first chapter of this study is to acquaint the reader with the transition trends in distance education in colleges and universities and correspondingly, with the transition of students and faculty members from traditional to online environments. In a comparative study, Dabbagh and Nanna-Ritland (2005) described the differences between traditional learning environments and web-based learning environments and argued that traditional learning environments are (a) bound by location and presence of instructor and student, (b) presented in real time, (c) controlled by an instructor and (d) are linear in teaching methods. Using evolving technology, asynchronous communication and real-time information, online learning environments are unbound and dynamic. McCombs (2000) states that instructional approaches are becoming more learner-centered and are "recursive and non-linear, engaging, self-directed, and meaningful from the learner's perspective" (p. 1). The research cited in this introduction describes what the faculty members experience in their transition from traditional to online environments, how the faculty members perceive this transition, and articulates their assumptions about teaching and learning. This chapter also includes the three research questions along with the purpose and significance of the study.

Research Questions

Three questions guided this research:

1. How do faculty members describe their transition from teaching face-to-face to teaching in an online environment?

2. What personal, professional, pedagogical or other assumptions do faculty members hold about teaching and learning in traditional and online environments before starting their transition and how do those assumptions change after their transition?
3. How are the changes the faculty members experience as they transition from traditional to online environments defined along a continuum in relation to change theories?

Background and Statement of Problem

Much has been written in the literature regarding the development of distance education both in educational institutions and in industry (Dabbagh & Nanna-Ritland, 2005). Maguire (2005) states that distance education used as a medium for teaching and learning has grown tremendously in the past 10 years as indicated by the number of higher education institutions that offer courses and/or full degree programs via distance learning. According to the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES, 1999), the number of degree-granting higher education institutions offering distance education courses increased from 33 percent in 1995 to 44 percent in 1997-98.

Vignare (2006) states that 20 percent of all higher education students now take online courses, a dramatic increase from under one percent in 1995. She goes on to say that the Internet and most of the new Internet communications technology have also been added to the higher education environment within the past 10 years. Hence, the shift in student demand and new Internet communications technologies has created real opportunities for new approaches to teaching and learning.

Allen and Seaman (2006) state that the overall percent of schools identifying online education as a critical long-term strategy grew from 49 percent in 2003 to 56 percent in 2005. Interestingly, sixty-five percent of higher education institutions report that they are using primarily core faculty members to teach their online courses compared to 62 percent that report they are using primarily core faculty members to teach their face-to-face courses.

Howell, Williams, and Lindsay (2003) attempted to identify the current state and future directions of distance education. Through this study, several themes emerged; these themes pertained to students and enrollment, faculty members and academics, technology, and distance learning. Howell et al. (2003) concluded that the current higher education infrastructure cannot accommodate the growing college-aged population and enrollments, a fact that makes distance education programs necessary.

Students and Enrollment

At the 88th University Continuing Education Association (UCEA) conference, Callahan (2003) noted that the largest high school class in United States history will graduate in 2009. Based on a survey conducted by the U.S. Department of Education in collaboration with the UCEA conference, the National Center for Education Statistics predicted that college enrollment will grow 16% over the next ten years (Jones, 2003). Reeve and Perlich (2002) argue that since enrollment is not limited to traditional students, many colleges and universities acknowledge that there will be more students than their campus facilities can accommodate. Howell et al. (2003) believe that distance education may provide a solution to this growing problem for higher education institutions. Allen and Seaman (2006) stated that

the overall online enrollment increased from 1.98 million in 2003 to 2.35 million in 2004, 19% increase in just a year.

Faculty Members and Academics

An emerging theme from the Howell et al. (2003) study is shifting roles of traditional faculty members. Paulson (2002), Miller (2001), and Williams (2003) state that rather than delegating all technology- and competency-based functions to individual faculty members, these roles are now being distributed among distance education *teams* made up of instructional designers, technologists, and faculty members themselves. In addition to the traditional role, faculty members now play the role of facilitator, teacher, organizer, assessor, mentor, role model, counselor, coach, supervisor, problem solver, and liaison (Riffee, 2003; Roberson & Klotz, 2002; Scagnoli, 2001).

Research has shown that faculty members regard teaching online as more difficult than teaching traditional face-to-face classes (Hartman, Dziuban, & Moskal, 2000). Results of a survey of 32 online faculty members revealed that 90 percent of faculty members believed online courses to be more difficult to teach because of workload increases due to more interaction with students (Hartman et al., 2000). Similarly, Sellani and Harrington (2002) found that faculty members complained that the online delivery was more labor intensive because of the amount of time required to grade papers and respond to questions.

Dasher-Alston and Patton (1998) claim that while many studies have shown no significant difference in learning outcomes between online and traditional courses, initially the faculty members try to use their traditional classroom methods to teach an online course and become frustrated when their efforts are unsuccessful in applying traditional teaching

strategies to online courses. In a survey conducted by Green (2002) regarding the role of computing and information technology (IT) in higher education, chief academic and information technology officials rated "helping faculty integrate technology into their instruction" as the single most important IT issue confronting their campuses over the next few years (p. 7). Brogden & Couros (2002) suggest that the labor-intensive and time-consuming demands required to develop online courses are also a cause for faculty member's frustration.

Technology

In 2003, the annual market for distance learning was approximately $4.5 billion (Kariya, 2003; Howell et al., 2002; Pond, 2003). Gallagher (2002) argues that not only is online learning more common now but it increases 40% annually. Distance learning students include both traditional continuing-education students and younger on-campus students (Anderson, 2001). Roach (2002) estimates that "As many as half the students in online courses are from the traditional 18- to 25-year-old students, who normally take campus-based courses" (p. 24). Hickman (2003) states that the Internet is being used more than any other distance education delivery method.

Carr (2000) reported that 72% of those who had taught online courses were in favor of this method compared with 51% who had not taught at a distance. A similar study conducted by Linder in 2002 showed that "Most teachers (85%) were not philosophically opposed to distance education" (p.5). This study also found that teaching at a distance improves perceptions of distance education: "Faculty members who had not taught distance education courses perceived the level of support as lower than those who had" (p.5). The

results of a four-year study conducted by Chick et al. (2003) show that there has been a dramatic increase in overall faculty member support for technology in their distance education endeavors, with 22% of the faculty members viewing it as important in 1999 and 57% in 2003. The study also shows that instructors feel that technology is helping them achieve their teaching objectives.

The result of a survey by the National Educational Association (NEA, 2000) indicates that despite the growth of online education, faculty members are hesitant to teach online. In this survey, 50% of faculty members conveyed negative or uncertain feelings towards distance learning. The faculty members were not comfortable with online teaching environments, expressing a form of disconnectedness and dissatisfaction along with feelings of ineffectiveness in this instructional environment (Dillon & Walsh, 1992; Bower, 2001; Williams, 2003). Faculty members stated that lack of time, institutional support, and scholarly respect in the areas of promotion, tenure and training added to their frustration in teaching online classes (Baldwin, 1998; Bonk, 2001; Lee, 2001; Northrup, 1997; O'Quinn & Corry, 2002; Parisot, 1997). They were also concerned with the lack of standards for creating an online course, the threat of fewer jobs, and a decline in usage of full-time faculty members, which faculty members believe results in a decline in quality of faculty members (IHEP, 2000; NEA, 2000).

This resistance to online or distance education suggests that in order for faculty members to adopt online instruction as a norm, they are likely to require adjustment strategies, either from their institutions or developed among their peers. For example, these faculty members are faced with new situations when developing an online course versus a

traditional one (Levy, 2003), which includes additional planning in order to make traditional face-to-face assignments work effectively in online environments. Converting a traditional, one-credit hour course to an online format requires a 75 percent increase in design and development time, and a 125 percent increase in the time to maintain the online course (Carroll-Barefield & Murdoch, 2004). The advancements in technology have caused faculty members to ask if "new technologies such as wireless, mobile laptop computing, personal digital assistants (PDAs), videoconferencing, video streaming, virtual reality, and gaming environments enhance learning" (Crawford et al., 2003, p. 24). That is, will these technologies assist the online learning process? And for many faculty members, "*how*" is the question. Carroll-Barefield (2004) suggests that in transitioning from traditional classrooms to online environments, faculty members should be knowledgeable not only in their content areas but also in the instructional design process.

Nevertheless, due to development of such information and communication technologies, and their implications for education, online education is gaining importance (Bernard et al., 2004). Although most faculty members continue to teach in traditional formats, using classrooms as their primary sites, the transition to virtual environments is inevitable (Glenn, 2001). In fact, most distance learning faculty members have had teaching and learning experience in a traditional classroom.

With universities embracing distance education (Baldwin, 1998; Cornell, 1999; Gandolfo, 1998), the faculty members have been obligated to teach these classes online (Wilson, 1998). Yet, as mentioned earlier, most faculty members do not have prior

experience in teaching online and are struggling with the new technology and new methodologies (Dillon & Walsh, 1992; Bower, 2001).

A National Center for Education Statistics ([NCES], 1998) report indicates that about 60 percent of higher education institutions provided training opportunities for distance learning faculty members, whereas the other 40 percent of the universities asked faculty members to teach distance education courses without providing any special preparation for teaching online. Of the 60 percent of the universities who provide training to faculty members, about one quarter required faculty to have training in distance learning technology, 13 percent required training in curriculum development, and 17 percent in teaching methods for distance learning. The NCES survey did not address the depth or extent of the training that was provided to the faculty members at these universities (NCES, 1998).

Expanding on the preceding literature review, chapter 2 of this studyincludes a literature review that indicates that there are numerous factors that affect faculty members' teaching and learning, such as technological changes. In transitioning from traditional to online classrooms, faculty members may experience many changes or transformations. Richardson and Placier (2001) state that faculty members change in terms of their learning, development, socialization, growth, improvement, and cognition. The researchers frame these changes in three categories. The first are voluntary and naturalistic changes that are related to the person's background, personality, experience and their different approaches to change. The second category of change looks at the teacher's stages of development. Richardson and Placier (2001) refer to the term development as a concept of learning and moving towards becoming an experienced, expert teacher. In the final category of change,

the researchers take into consideration those changes taking place in faculty members who are engaged in formal preparation for improvement of their teaching skills.

Mezirow (1991) suggests that individuals can be transformed through a process of critical reflection and perspective transformation. Transformative learning can be initiated by a disorienting dilemma; a situation that does not fit one's preconceived notions; in this case, how teaching and learning take place. These dilemmas can lead to critical reflection and development of new ways of interpreting experiences. Our meaning schemes are comprised of beliefs, attitudes, opinions, and emotions that guide action (Mezirow & Associates, 2000). As described by Mezirow (1991), transformative learning occurs when individuals change their frames of reference by reflecting critically on their assumptions and beliefs and make plans that bring about new ways of defining their worlds, thereby, transforming their perspectives.

By understanding the nature of transition the faculty members go through, I was able to better comprehend how this transition affects their learning and teaching assumptions from traditional to online classroom. For those individuals following these faculty members' paths, this study will be an eye opening and revealing experience into the world of online learning and teaching, an experience that has not been addressed adequately thus far in other related literature.

Bateson (1994) uses several metaphors to describe the ways in which we learn from experience. The first and most central is what she calls peripheral vision, explaining that "Sometimes change is directly visible, but sometimes it is apparent only to peripheral vision, altering the meaning of the foreground" (p. 243). Bateson (1994) argues that while the

society focuses on gaining specialization in one thing at a time, such a focus limits our learning and impedes our ability to make meaningful connections between our different life experiences.

As a foundation for this dissertation, I conducted a pilot study in which four adult education graduate faculty members participated. The purpose of the pilot study was to examine the nature of transition that faculty members go through when transitioning from traditional to distance classrooms. Results of the pilot study showed that, in all incidences that occurred in their transition from face-to-face to online classrooms, the faculty members needed to be able to connect what they experienced in face-to-face teaching to their online teaching in order to be able to understand the incident and to figure out the next best steps for themselves. It is through this process of meaning-making and connecting the experiences that I believe that faculty members will be able to succeed as online teachers. Thus this pilot study helped to shape my methodology for this research.

Bateson (2005) writes, "We are not what we know but what we are willing to learn." This quote seems to exemplify the faculty members. In their transition, the importance is on what they are willing to learn, not only to help themselves develop professionally, but also to help the learners reach new heights. Bateson (2005) explains that willingness to learn demands respect. She argues that even ideas and beliefs that are unlike our own are invitations to curiosity and that in fact the greater the differences, the more there may be to be learned. Bateson (2005) says that the willingness to learn is a form of spirituality in that it is a stance of humility, because there is so much to be learned.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to describe the transition of faculty members from traditional to online environments and to examine their assumptions about their teaching and learning in face-to-face and online environments. Three questions guided this research:

1. How do faculty members describe their transition from teaching face-to-face to teaching in an online environment?
2. What personal, professional, pedagogical or other assumptions do faculty members hold about teaching and learning in traditional and online environments before starting their transition and how do those assumptions change after their transition?
3. How are the changes the faculty members experience as they transition from traditional to online environments defined along a continuum in relation to change theories?

Significance of Study

By describing the transition experiences of faculty members from traditional to online environments, their teaching and learning assumptions and possible changes and transformations, this study may assist those faculty members who have been frustrated and resistant to transitioning from traditional to online classrooms. This study will enable them to understand how they can transfer their teaching skills into another area so that they will not fear that they are losing their teaching abilities and effectiveness in the classroom. In addition to its appeal to faculty members, this study contributes to creating a body of knowledge useful to educational institutions, faculty members and others transitioning from traditional to

online classrooms. Armed with this study's findings, faculty members will be able to relate to a generation of new learners, to expand the online teaching literature regarding what teaching and learning means to the faculty members, and to bridge technology with pedagogy.

By looking at the faculty members' transition experiences detailed in this study, other faculty members can view the distorted or incomplete aspects of their assumptions that need further investigation. As a result of this study, fundamental deep beliefs of faculty members may change: The implication will be less resistance of faculty members to teaching online. Rather, faculty members will be able to teach in an online environment that is more compatible as well as in alignment with their beliefs.

In the context of faculty members in transition from traditional to online environments, this study also illuminated an area of transformative learning that had been largely unexamined in previous studies. Furthermore, in addition to existing faculty members, this study may benefit a whole host of others, such as new online faculty members, online support staff, department chairs, curriculum developers, directors of faculty development, and those involved in planning and developing distance education efforts.

Three expressions recur often in this document: "situated learning," "communities of practice," and "transformative learning theory." Lave and Wenger (1991) state that "situated learning" means to place thought and action in a specific place and time and to involve other learners and the environment to create meaning. In the same study, Lave and Wenger explain that "communities of practice" are everywhere—such as work, home and school—and that over time, collective learning in these communities result in practices that cause social relations (Wenger, 1998). Mezirow (1996) explains "transformative learning theory" as a

learning theory that is partly a developmental process, but more precisely as "the process of using a prior interpretation to construe a new or revised interpretation of the meaning of one's experience in order to guide future action" (p. 162).

Limitations

When the researcher cannot be with participants to observe them directly, face-to-face and telephone interviews are the closest the researcher can get to vital facts of the experience (Bogdan & Biklin, 1992; Creswell, 2002; Merriam, 1998). These researchers state that it is through interviews that the researcher can gain access to historical facts and also have control over the line of questioning. However, they claim that the limitations to interviewing is that interviewees provide indirect information that is filtered through their points of views; further, the provided information is in a designated place rather than the natural setting. Moreover, the presence of the researcher may bias their responses; finally, the interviewees may not be equally articulate and perceptive (Bogdan & Biklin, 1992; Creswell, 2002; Merriam, 1998). I have utilized the interviewing method to interview the five faculty members and respectively, one student and one colleague for each faculty member.

There are several limitations in using documents as data. One limitation is that the data might be protected information unavailable to public or private access (Bogdan & Biklin, 1992; Creswell, 2002; Merriam, 1998). They state that documents might require the researcher to search out information in hard to find places and may be incomplete, inaccurate and its authenticity in question. Another limitation of this study is in its context. This research is limited to faculty members whose experience with transition from face-to-face to online classrooms has been successful and who have experienced changes or transformations

in their teaching and learning assumptions. My own bias in this study was that I had worked with faculty members in transition from traditional to online classrooms in the past couple of years and my interest in the topic evolved from my own experience with the graduate adult education faculty members. By using Brookfield's lens and Garrison's model, I have attempted to minimize my own bias.

About the Role of the Researcher

It is easy for bystanders to say that teaching an online course is more difficult than teaching in a face-to-face class or vice versa. It is harder to explain exactly what the differences are and how to make the transition from face-to-face to online environments in order to meet the instructional goals. As faculty members gain more experience with online teaching, they seem able to accumulate effective and alternative strategies to teach online and to meet their instructional goals. As a technical assistant and course support person to the faculty members in their teaching online endeavors over the past couple of years, and also from the perspective of an online student observing these faculty members, I have noted some differences between the two environments. I have sensed a feeling of isolation in faculty members and also, between the faculty members and the students at the beginning of the course. It takes a longer time for the two to get acquainted and to identify with each other, whereas in a face-to-face classroom, the faculty member and the students see one another and, to some extent, become acquainted immediately.

Another observation I have made relates to creating a comfortable environment for the students, to make it easy for them to engage in dialogue and learning both with the faculty member and other students. The online environment creates communication

challenges between the faculty member and the students. I viewed this issue on the discussion board in online classes. The students made many posts and their expectation of the faculty member was to get a prompt and direct feedback to every question they posted. Having been bombarded with so many posts, the faculty member compiled similar questions and posted one single response. The students failed to recognize what the faculty member had done and complained that their questions remained unanswered. I found that communication is even more vital in online environment than it is in a face-to-face classroom. Clear and direct communication stood out as one of the major keys to success for these faculty members teaching online. Through this open line of communication between the faculty members, students, and the course support staff, we were able to discuss and clear up unrealistic expectations, technical difficulties, and questions about course content, thus easing confusion, frustration, and disappointment on the part of faculty member and students alike.

In my observations as technical support person to the faculty members, I viewed some pros and cons to their teaching in an online environment. One of the major advantages to online teaching is that, when equipped with an Internet connection, faculty members can access, monitor and teach their class from any location and at any time. The downside is that the students expect their presence at all times. Another challenge I observed is that faculty members not only must provide constant support and feedback to the students but also design new teaching materials that are suitable for online delivery while trying not to reinvent the wheel. Some faculty members were also challenged because they underestimated the time they needed to invest in design and delivery of their online courses. My observations

certainly support the idea that there are some areas of differentiation between face-to-face and online teaching, including student interaction with the faculty member, the student interactions among themselves, delivery of content by faculty member, types of communication (asynchronous as opposed to synchronous), and the assessment of learning. I believe that in an online environment, assessment is an ongoing process for the faculty members.

In observing faculty members transition from traditional to online classrooms, I became interested in how faculty members view their assumptions about teaching and learning. It became apparent that they needed to understand how learning takes place in an online environment in order to address their different learning situations and issues appropriately as well as to teach accordingly. The existence of teaching is based on how people learn. For these faculty members, becoming proficient at online teaching and learning is like becoming fluent in a second language as an adult, whereas the younger generations are considered bilingual due to the fact that they have become literate in Internet technology at a younger age.

Summary

As noted in this introductory section, through this study, I have explained the transition of faculty members from traditional to online classrooms and described how they experienced their transition. The next section of this dissertation reviews the literature supporting the topic of study and grounds the need of this study within the literature. The literature reviewed includes online education; situated learning and communities of practice; and transformative learning theory.

CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter is an overview of the literature chosen to serve as a foundation to the research questions presented:

1. How do faculty members describe their transition from teaching face-to-face to teaching in online environments?
2. What personal, professional, pedagogical or other assumptions do faculty members hold about teaching and learning in traditional and online environments before starting their transition and how do those assumptions change after their transition?
3. How are the changes the faculty members experience as they transition from traditional to online environments defined along a continuum in relation to change theories?

For the purposes of this study, three bodies of literature have been reviewed: comparison of faculty members' teaching in face-to-face and online environments, situated learning and communities of practice, and transformative learning theory.

Part I. Comparison of Faculty Members' Teaching Methods in Face-to-Face and Online Environments

Reviewing the literature on the topic of face-to-face versus online teaching experiences helped me better understand how faculty members worked in each of these environments and as a result, the literature review enabled me to better observe and understand their transition and how they perceived their teaching and learning. This section describes the difference between the two environments as well the changes faculty members go through in their transition from the traditional environment to the online environment. It

also describes the role of the instructional design process, the role the faculty member plays, and the characteristics of an online instructor. The end of this section includes my own assumptions and observations, and a summary of the topics discussed.

Advancements in telecommunications technologies have created opportunities for faculty members in educational institutions to expand the educational process beyond the traditional classroom and to deliver instruction to geographically dispersed audiences via distance education (Rockwell, Schauer, Fritz, and Marx, 1999; Maguire, 2005). Educational models for delivering instruction continues to broaden as technologies advance, educational delivery methods expand, and audiences become more diversified (Rockwell et al., 1999; Maguire, 2005). In this changing environment, the faculty members remain a key element in the teaching and learning process (Rockwell et al., 1999; Maguire, 2005). To use distance-learning strategies, faculty members may need to alter their teaching styles used within the "traditional classroom," and develop new skills to effectively reach the distant learner (Rockwell et al., 1999; Valentine, 2002; Maguire, 2005). There have been observations (Dillon & Walsh, 1992; Clark, 1993; Valentine, 2002; Maguire, 2005) that faculty members using distance education technology face a variety of challenges when adapting their teaching styles to a framework compatible with the distance learning environment, such as, creating online communities.

Changes of Faculty Members in Transition from Face-to-Face to Online Environments

Greenwood (2000) conducted a study that examined organizational and individual change in higher education and showed that the teaching methodology of faculty members in higher education has changed as a result of the incorporation of technology. Greenwood

(2000) says that for faculty members who have not taught online before, making the methodological change can be a very challenging task. It is important for faculty members to understand the advantages and disadvantages of online teaching (Greenwood, 2000).

In the transition from face-to-face to online teaching, faculty members could go through either revolutionary or evolutionary change. Burke (2002) defines revolutionary or transformational change as a type of change where an initial activity or a disorienting dilemma will trigger movement. An evolutionary or continuous change involves the faculty member taking improvement measures into action and consideration in order to make their transition more successful. The revolutionary change is a drastic change in which all the change factors are listed and the plan for change is prepared and implemented. This drastic change requires a lot of concurrent actions in all areas of change and if the planning is not well done, it may not lead to the anticipated results. Another term for revolutionary transition is reengineering, as used by Michael Hammer (Hammer & Champy, 1993).

In order to better understand how faculty members change from face-to-face to online teaching, we must understand the different components involved. These include the different aspects of design and delivery of an online course, as well as challenges and opportunities they encounter. This section presents an overview of these components. I believe that in order to help ease the transition path from face-to-face to online teaching, an instructional guide should be carefully designed that can address all components of the teaching process.

Transitions from face-to-face to online environments should be planned as a project: A sequence of activities, required resources, and timing should be carefully determined and planned. In designing a successful online course, faculty members need to understand the

components involved in both setting the stage and also the change process. Some of the major components in design of a course are a clear: course description, specific course objectives, course competencies, evaluation criteria, and teaching strategies (Maguire, 2005). Once these major components are addressed, faculty members must look at the challenges and opportunities that they might face.

Difference between Face-to-Face and Online Environments

Understanding the differences between face-to-face and online environments, as well as the transition process, will give faculty members the ability to design better online courses and focus more on course delivery. It is noted that some faculty members may resist distance teaching because they are concerned that distance courses may require more time for advanced planning (Carl, 1991; Valentine, 2002; Maguire, 2005). Also, faculty members may be hesitant about this transition because of the loss of autonomy and control of the curriculum, lack of technical training and support, and lack of release time for planning (Clark 1993; Olcott & Wright 1995; Valentine, 2002; Maguire, 2005).

Faculty members teaching online must be aware that the use of the Internet has transformed student expectations (VanSickle, 2003; Valentine, 2002; Maguire, 2005). Lansdell (2001) said that in online environments, students expect more feedback, more attention, and more resources to help them learn. VanSickle (2003) explains that a necessary component of successful web-based instruction is ongoing communication. Kasworm, Polson, and Fishback (2002) noted that it is the responsibility of the faculty members to create a learning community among class members. They state that since students do not meet face-to-face in an online setting, they need to become acquainted with each other

through initial introductions and be shown how to interact effectively and appropriately in this new environment. Kasworm et al. (2002) explained that faculty members have significantly more responsibility for establishing specific structures and processes within a virtual classroom than in regular classrooms. For faculty members new to online environments, this means instructors will need to take time to understand their different roles and responsibilities in the new virtual setting (Oliver, 1999).

Palloff and Pratt (2001) explain that first-time online faculty members must remember that it is pedagogy not technology that is critical to success of an online course. In support of their statement and based on my own experience with the faculty members, I believe that technology is just a set of skills that the faculty members must acquire in order to teach online and the faculty members must question their teaching and learning assumptions as they transition from face-to-face to online environments. Lari and Wiessner (2005), based on an NSF-funded study, concluded that technical issues and challenges were not the primary determinants as to whether or not the faculty members will persist as online instructors. They observed that the faculty members' subject matter knowledge and the meaning the faculty members made of their experiences were what influenced their success as online teachers.

Instructional Design Role

Few researchers have directly compared an online course with its traditional course counterpart (D. W. Sunal, C. S. Sunal, Odell, & Sundberg, 2003). The faculty members who participated in my pilot study have years of experience teaching face-to-face in classrooms. Now they are transitioning from teaching in a face-to-face environment to online. In this section, I have looked at face-to-face and online teaching through the lens of instructional

systems design. Instructional systems design, also known as ISD, is the analysis of learning needs, design, systematic development, implementation and evaluation of instruction. It is a systematic process in which every component (i.e., teacher, student, materials, and learning environment) is crucial to learning (Dick & Carey, 1996). ISD evolved from post-World War II research in the United States military to find more effective and manageable ways to create training programs. These efforts led to early ISD models that were developed and taught in the late 1960's at Florida State University.

The most commonly used model of ISD is the ADDIE model (Figure 1), which stands for Analysis, Design, Development, Implementation, and Evaluation and has been associated with Leslie Briggs (1970) at Florida State University. In the analysis phase, the instructional problem is clarified, the goals and objectives are established, and the learning environment and learner characteristics are identified. The design phase is where the instructional strategies are planned and media choices are made. In the development phase, materials are produced according to decisions made during the design phase. The implementation phase includes the testing of the materials created with the target audience and showing the learners and faculty members how to use the created lesson or instructions. The evaluation phase consists of two parts—formative and summative evaluation. Formative evaluation is present at every stage of the process. Summative evaluation occurs at the end. One criticism of the ADDIE model is that it is too linear, inflexible, and too time consuming to implement. I disagree with this criticism, however, because this process does not necessarily need to be a linear but can be viewed as an interactive circle as seen in Figure 1.

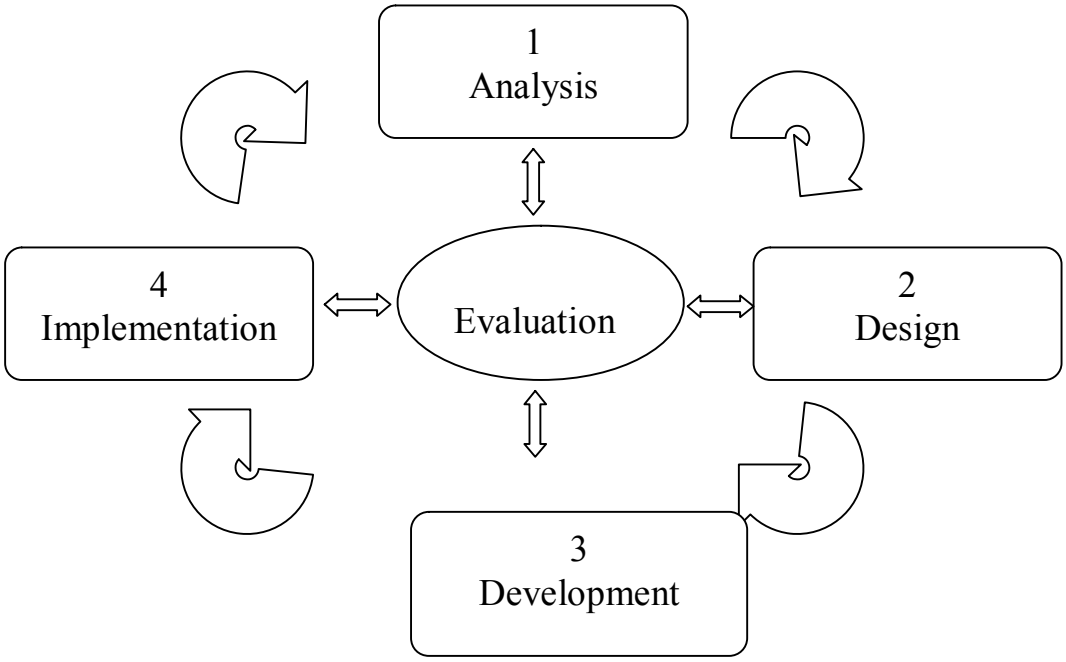


Figure 1. The ADDIE Model (Briggs, 1970)

Among the many ISD models used, I found the Dick and Carey (1996) model of ISD, as seen in Figure 2, particularly useful due to the fact that it clearly defines and spells out the entire instructional design process.

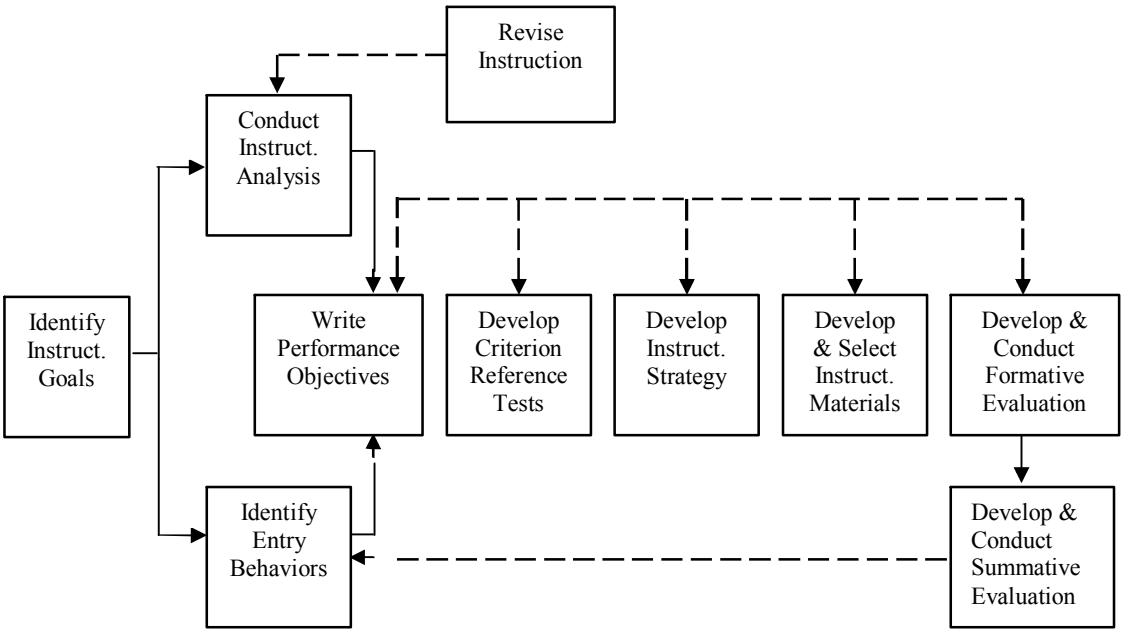


Figure 2. Dick and Carey Design Model (Dick & Carey, 1996)

The literature review suggests that the ISD process may be viewed through a constructivist lens and also be seen as a possible transformative process (Goldberg, 2005; Karagiorgi & Symeou, 2005; Murphy, 2005). Goldberg (2005) argues that the concept of learning is based on the assumption that individuals construct their knowledge by considering existing perceptions, interpretations, and understanding through a process of collaboration, sharing, and negotiating interpretations, experience, and understanding with others. Tam (2000) explains the constructivists' approach to ISD as the following:

> The constructivist designers tend to avoid the breaking down of context into component parts as traditional instructional designers do, but are in favor of environments in which knowledge, skills, and complexity exist naturally. Therefore,

> instead of adopting a linear approach to instructional design, constructivist designers need to develop procedures for situations in which the instructional context plays a dominant part and the instructional goals evolve as learning progresses. (p. 54-55)

An open system design (Von Bertalanffy, 1950; Katz & Kahn, 1978; Capra, 1996) may be used for creating a program for the transition of faculty members from traditional to online classroom. Rothwell and Kazanas (1998) argue that instructional design is based on open systems theory. They explain that an open system receives input from the environment, transforms them through operations within the system, submits outputs to the environment, and receives feedback indicating how these functions are carried out. Rothwell and Kazanas (1998) explain that open systems theory is important to instructional designers for two reasons. The first is that instructional designers recognize the critical importance of adapting to changes in the environment and even anticipating them. Second, instructional designers must be able to recognize that any measures they take to correct one component will affect the entire process or system, so they must realize that all the components are interconnected and dependent on one another. A link may even be drawn to chaos theory (Capra, 1996; Wheatley, 1999). An important phenomenon about chaos theory is that even among apparent chaos, order exists (Burke, 2002). Pascal, Milleman, and Gioja (2000) say that at the "edge of chaos," there is innovation and creativity. Richey (1995) argues that "Chaos theory enriches the traditional open systems orientation of instructional design by assuming a more holistic orientation rather than one of unidirectional causality and by reflecting the dynamic and unpredictable aspects of the learning process" (p. 100-101).

Capra (1996) defines a system as "an integrated whole whose essential properties arise from the relationships between its parts" (p. 27). To better understand the transition of faculty members from traditional to online classrooms, the faculty members and their community of practice need to be viewed as a system. Capra (1996) compares human communities with ecological communities and states that both are living systems that exhibit the same principles of organization and are open to flow of energy and resources. He expresses a set of principles of organization that maybe used to guide human communities.

These principles are interdependence, recycling, partnership, flexibility, and diversity. Capra (1996) defines interdependence as interconnectedness and dependence in a network of relationships where the success of the whole community depends on the success of its individual members, in this case the faculty members, while the success of each member depends on the success of the community as a whole. He defines recycling, the second principle, as a situation where the wastes from one member of the community may be useful to another member within the community. This idea could relate to the faculty members' community of practice as the resources that are not useful to one member and can be shared with other members of the community.

Partnership, another principle, is defined by Capra as democracy and empowerment. He states that because each member of the community plays an important role in the change and development of the organization, this partnership turns into "coevolution" where each partner learns to change and develop, and to better understand the needs of the others. The faculty members, their colleagues, their students and their community of practice as a whole grows and evolves together and causes growth, change, transformation and development.

Capra (1996) defines the fourth principle as flexibility, which is the result of feedback into the system. Flexibility brings balance back into the system allowing it to find stability. For faculty members, this could translate into the feedback they receive from their community of practice, allowing them to learn, change and perform better in their new environment of online teaching. The final principle noted by Capra (1996) is diversity, which is defined as the many different relationships within a community and the many different approaches to the same problem. He states that a diverse community is one which is capable of adapting to changing situations but which can only survive through its relationships, partnerships and interdependencies of its individual members. It is within this network that information and ideas flow freely, and the diversity of interpretations, learning styles, and even mistakes allow the community as a whole to grow and prosper.

Kruse (2000) argues that the systemic approach to development of instruction has many advantages when it comes to creating instructions in an online format and feels that a modified version of ADDIE model should be used. He explains that a rapid prototyping phase should be added as an extension to the design phase of the ADDIE model. Kruse (2000) defines rapid prototyping as a quickly assembled module that can be tested with the students early in the instructional design process. The evaluation looks at components such as how effective the learning activities are and how well does the technology chosen support the instructions given to the students. Based on the feedback, the design can be revised and another prototype can be developed. Kruse (2000) explains that this process can continue until there is agreement on the prototype. With cooperation between an instructional designer

and the faculty member, the two can determine how they want the course to look and what it will be capable of doing, with technical issues addressed in the design of the course.

In my pilot study, the faculty members did not always need to go through a prototype phase since the content that they were using had been previously developed when the course was taught, and most often the structure of the course had already been created in a Learning Management System (LMS) such as WebCT Vista. Some of the faculty members in the pilot study were new to online teaching and some were new to the course content. Some were new to both. The faculty members needed to insert their content and tailor it to their audience. This process has always been a challenge because instructors not only have to transfer and compile their course content into WebCT Vista, but also be able to get the meaning across to the learners. Such a process involves taking into consideration the faculty members' previous teaching experiences, their techniques and styles, and student learning styles. The faculty members also had to choose one of several different synchronous tools to support their courses (i.e., Netmeeting and Centra Symposium). The synchronous tool was used to make the course more interactive and to create a better learning experience for the students.

Faculty Member Roles

Not only are the instructional design aspects important to the success of both face-to-face and online classes, but also the role the faculty members play is a factor in the success or failure of an online class. Palloff and Pratt (2001) argue that the faculty members' role in adult learning is guided by a constructivist perspective where adult learners create their own knowledge and the process is learner centered rather than instructor centered. Heuer and King (2004) explain that while online instruction shares many features with the face-to-face

environment, it also is unique in its flexibility—anytime, any place—along with time for reflection and learners' anonymity. They go on to say that the literature from online learning differentiates the online instructor's role from that in face-to-face instruction. This online instructor's role is viewed as "new and more complex" (Schofield, Melville, Bennet, & Walsh, 2001, p. 1). It has moved from "teacher-centered learning towards constructivist, learner-directed learning" (Adult Education Resource and Information Service [ARIS], 2001, p. 1).

Collins and Berge (as cited in Palloff & Pratt, 1999) divide the online instructor's role into four categories of pedagogical, social, managerial, and technical. They describe the pedagogical role as one that revolves around educational facilitation. The social role is creating a friendly social environment necessary for online learning. The managerial role involves agenda setting, pacing, objective setting, rule making, and decision making. The technical role depends on the instructor first becoming comfortable with the technology being used and then being able to transfer that level of comfort to the learners.

Teaching in an online environment requires specific sets of skills (Smith, 2005). Palloff and Pratt (2001) argue that online teaching requires moving beyond traditional pedagogy to adopt new practices. They also explain "Not all faculty members are suited for the online environment" (p. 21). Furthermore, they believe that "Faculty members cannot be expected to know intuitively how to design and deliver an effective online course" (p. 23) because, even though courses in technology are becoming more available to students, "Seasoned faculty members have not been exposed to techniques and methods needed to make online work successful" (p. 23). Smith (2005) created a table of fifty-one competencies

for online instructors, noting whether the competency will be of primary importance before, during, and/or after the course.

Characteristics of an Online Instructor

Savery (2005) created the acronym VOCAL, which identifies the characteristics of an effective online instructor as one who is visible, organized, compassionate, analytical, and a leader-by-example.

Visible. In a face-to-face classroom where students and the faculty member meet regularly in the same place at the same time, the degree of visibility is very high. The faculty members communicate verbally while the students sit and listen. Students are able to see and hear faculty members, and to form opinions about them. In an online learning environment where the students and the faculty member meet in an online classroom but at different times, the experience is very different. In this environment, the communication is mostly through text and as mentioned before, the faculty member and students may feel isolated in this unfamiliar environment (Savery, 2005). From the student's perspective, they feel that the faculty member is absent when a little time passes and they do no see their instructor online, which they may interpret as the faculty member not being concerned with teaching and learning (Savery, 2005). Savery suggests several ways to increase faculty members' visibility online. One suggestion is for the faculty members to create a website with personal and professional information about themselves, allowing the students to get to know them better. Other suggestions include faculty members making timely comments regarding student messages and postings, updating the welcome page with new news regularly, maintaining a shared calendar with the students, and including video and audio clips in their online lessons.

Organized. Simon (2000) places great importance on faculty members' organization in teaching online. He explains that experienced teachers must prepare online instructional materials for their students that are clear and specific, making sure that any possible problems arising have been addressed. Savery (2005) explains that it is better to have more materials prepared than might be needed. He goes on to say that in an online environment, being specific is important, given the possible time delay in questions being posed and answers received.

Compassionate. Many adults choose to participate in an online class because of their life situations. These learners choose to take classes perhaps to acquire new skills or gain new qualifications. Not all learners are familiar with using a computer and different technologies, which can leave them frustrated and cause some to give up participating in online classes.

In an online environment, learners are willing to share details of their personal lives in an email to the faculty member that they would not share in a face-to-face classroom, which creates a combination of intimacy, privacy, and distance that does not exist in a traditional classroom (Savery, 2005). In these situations, a level of compassion is required of the faculty member that may exceed what would be required in a regular classroom (Savery, 2005). It is necessary for the faculty member to deal with each situation and try to treat it as fairly as possible.

Analytical. Instructors need to manage the online learning environment and ensure that students are completing assignments and achieving the intended instructional goals (Savery, 2005). It is of great importance to make sure the students receive timely feedback

regarding their assignments. Swan (2004) explains that successful learners are active participants in their learning experiences and in an online learning community; this means being involved in discussions related to the course (Swan, 2004). In an online environment, Swan (2004) suggests that faculty members use the tracking system in their LMS to view the amount of involvement of the learners, allowing instructors to monitor their student's learning and participation.

Leader-by-example. Everything a faculty member does in the classroom and in the online environment should model best practices in teaching (Savery, 2005). Students will take their lead from the instructor in the areas of visibility, organization, and compassion. The instructor sets the tone for the online learning community early in the course and maintains it until the final class (Savery, 2005).

Social presence. Another characteristic of an online instructor not mentioned by Savery is social presence *(*Lakin, 2005; Rourke, Anderson, Garrison, & Archer, 2001; Richardson & Swan, 2003; Swan & Shih, 2005). This is interpreted as the degree to which a person is perceived as "real" in online communication (Gunawardena & Zittle, 1997; Richardson & Swan, 2003). Short, Williams, and Christie (1976), the original researchers of social presence, explained that users of media are in some sense aware of the degree of social presence of each medium and tend to avoid using particular interactions in particular types of media and also avoid interactions that require high social presence in media that lack the capacity. They explain that social presence varies among different media and affects the nature of the interaction.

Social presence can be conveyed through faculty members' behaviors and careful design of online discussions, as well as faculty development focusing on social presence issues (Swan & Shih, 2005). Firstly, they highlight the importance of the design of course discussions in support of the development of social presence. They indicate that course designers and faculty members should seek ways to provoke personal experience in discussion and other design factors. Secondly, Swan and Shih (2005) emphasize the importance of faculty members' presence and behaviors in the development of social presence among online discussion participants. They suggest that faculty members should be made aware of the importance of such development and ways to support it, perhaps through professional development.

Lakin (2005) defines social presence as the degree to which an online user feels he or she has access to the intelligence, intentions, and impressions of other learners. Lakin (2005) further believes that social presence is key to the learner's participatory level and to their success of online collaboration. Facial expression, direction of gaze, posture, dress, and non-verbal and vocal cues contribute to social presence in a face-to-face environment but in an online environment, without these factors, other elements enhance social presence and affect the quality of online collaboration (Lakin, 2005). Examples include online forums and BLOGs.

Summary

In this section, I have explained the ongoing trends of the transition of colleges and universities from traditional to online environments and described the need for faculty members to be transitioning from one environment to the other. I have reviewed the

characteristics of an online faculty member, how faculty member's roles have changed between face-to-face and online environments, how the instructional design process differed and how the faculty members are transitioning between the two environments.

As this literature shows, faculty members are interacting with their students, colleagues, the external environment and the research literature; therefore, their transition is not simply an individual experience in that they are affected by different situations and factors in the online collaborative environment. Consequently, I have chosen literature regarding situated learning and communities of practice to further investigate their transition and learning in different situations and in their interactions with the community around them.

Part II. Situated Learning and Communities of Practice

In this section, I have reviewed the situated learning and communities of practice literature. The reason for reviewing this literature is that as faculty members transition from traditional to online classrooms, they are not in isolation. They are in a community and this community can include their students, colleagues, support staff, literature, and the environment that surrounds them. It is in this environment that the faculty members will encounter different learning moments. Further, it is within this environment that they will interact and learn from others and share their experiences and exchange ideas.

A premise of this study is that the community surrounding the faculty members influences their transition from face-to-face to online teaching. The faculty member is embedded in an organization with cultures, norms, practices, policies, colleagues, and resources. These external factors help to shape and actually co-create the learning and working trajectories during the transition from face-to-face to online teaching. The situated

learning literature provides the theoretical foundation for understanding how individuals learn while embedded in some larger system. The community of practice literature provides the analytical perspective to understand and organize that larger system. Further, the community of practice perspective focuses on three key elements: identity, meaning, and learning. These three elements, when analyzed through the lens of the transformative learning literature, help us to connect transformative learning to the wider social system.

Situated Learning

Lave and Wenger (1991) state that situated learning "is not itself an educational form, much less a pedagogical strategy or a teaching technique. It is an analytical viewpoint on learning, a way of understanding learning" (p. 40). Clancey (1995) explains that situated learning is concerned with how learning occurs everyday. It is a theory about the nature of human knowledge and how that knowledge is constructed as we make meaning of what is happening to us (Clancey, 1995).

Lave and Wenger note the following regarding situated learning:

> Learning …takes place, no matter which educational form provides a context for learning, or whether there is any intentional educational form at all. Indeed, this viewpoint makes a fundamental distinction between learning and intentional instruction. Such decoupling does not deny that learning takes place where there is teaching, but does not take intentional instruction to be in itself the source or cause of learning, and thus does not blunt the claim that what gets learned is problematic with respect to what is taught. (p. 40-41)

Situated learning has its origins in Dewey's work on experience, interaction, reflection, and informal education. Dewey (1916) explains that to learn from experience means to make a connection forward and backwards between the things we do; therefore, we learn and make meaning of this experience and discover the good and bad consequences. In respect to reflection that stems from experience, Dewey (1916) believes that there is no meaningful experience possible without some thought and reflection. He explains when we experience something and we fail in this experience, we try again and again and through reflection, we try get things right and make the experience valuable and comprehensible. Dewey (1916) states that a person whose activities are associated with other people has a social environment. He believes that a person within a social environment cannot perform his or her own activity without taking others' activity into account and without being affected and influenced by them. Dewey (1916) states that a community or social group sustains itself by continuous growth. He explains that this sustainability and stability of the group happens when the novice members of the group start to develop and grow and move toward an expert level.

Situated learning theory states that learning occurs through everyday social activities within everyday settings (Marsick & Watkins, 2001). Faculty members' transition from traditional to online environments may be viewed as a social activity because in their transition, they are in contact with their students, their colleagues and others who may affect this process. All are a social network rather than in isolation and perhaps, it is within these social interactions that they begin to question their assumptions about teaching and learning.

Lave and Wenger (1991) and Wenger (1998) believe that the concepts of participation, identity and practice are central to situated learning. Wenger (1998) argues that humans are social beings and in order for them to learn, they must acquire knowledge through understanding a situation, come to know that knowledge by participating in their practice and then making meaning of what they experience.

Wenger (1998) defines four components as a process of learning and knowing; these four components working together assist faculty members during change and transformation. These components include:

1. Meaning: a way of talking about our (changing) ability—individually and collectively— to experience our life and the world as meaningful.
2. Practice: a way of talking about the shared historical and social resources, frameworks, and perspectives that can sustain mutual engagement in action.
3. Community: a way of talking about the social configurations on which our enterprises are defined as worth pursuing and our participation is recognizable competence.
4. Identity: a way of talking about how learning changes who we are and creates personal histories of becoming in the context of our communities. (p. 49)

Lave (2004) explains that learning is concerned not only with developing ways of knowing and practice, but also with understanding who we are and what potential we have. This is what Wenger (1998) refers to as identity. Wenger (1998) draws a parallel between practice and identity, and expresses identity in the following ways:

1. Identity as negotiated experience

2. Identity as community membership
3. Identity as learning trajectory
4. Identity as nexus of multi-membership
5. Identity as a relation between the local and the global. (p. 149)

In trying to understand who we are and developing a sense of self, we can go through a transformative learning process to help us develop a personal sense of identity (Cranton, 2000a). It is in this transformative journey that we question our assumptions and norms and see how our values are different from and the same as those of others in the community and environment that we exist and try to make meaning of our experience (Cranton, 2000a).

According to some scholars grounded in the cognitive perspective, a situated learning experience has four major premises guiding the development of activities (Anderson et al., 1996; Stein, 1998; Wilson, 1993). First is that learning is grounded in the actions of everyday situations (Anderson et al., 1996). Second, the knowledge is acquired through a situation and transfers only to similar situations (Anderson et al., 1996). The third premise is that learning is the result of a social process that includes ways of thinking, understanding, problem solving, and interacting with others (Anderson et al., 1996). The fourth is that learning is not separated from the action but exists in the environments (Anderson et al., 1996). These four premises separate situated learning from other types of learning. However, this cognitive challenge has been critiqued by scholars, including Greeno (1997), who have provided evidence to contradict these premises.

Greeno (1997) suggested that these four premises do not accurately reflect the situated learning perspective. He found that their critique seemed to have missed the point

about what is important in situated learning. In the situated learning perspective, the focus is on interactions, which lead to individual participation. The cognitive perspective does not present the idea of influence of external forces on individual learning because it is focused on the internalities of cognition, not the externalities of a learning system. Greeno (1997) believes that in situated learning, knowledge is not just "in the head," but rather knowledge consists in the ways a person interacts with other people and situations. Greeno's concern about the effects of outside influence on individual learning is similar to one that Dewey (1916) made regarding the fact that the activities of an individual in social environment cannot be without the influence of the other members of the social group.

Greeno (1997) states that situated learning does not say that group learning will always be productive, regardless of how it is organized, or that individual practice cannot contribute to a person's becoming a more successful participant in social practices (Greeno, 1997). It requires various learning situations. Greeno (1997) states that from the perspective of situated learning, successful transfer means improved participation. He also claims that situated learning does not assume that learning transfer between various learning situations is impossible, like Anderson's et al (1996) premises suggest. Situated learning scholars look at how knowledge is shaped and used in practice by the larger system; learners carry into the practice what they have already learned and then it is reshaped into the new context.

Also opposing the cognitive scholars' view, Stein (1998) suggested there are four elements of situated learning: content, context, community of practice, and participation. Situated learning emphasizes higher-order thinking processes rather than learning facts independent of the real lives of the participants (Choi & Hannafin, 1995). Content situated in

learners' daily experiences becomes the means to engage in reflective thinking (Shor, 1996). A community of practice provides an environment for social interaction between learners to have a dialogue and discuss their learning and perspectives (Brown, 1994; Lave & Wenger, 1991). It is in participation in a dialogue with other learners that knowledge is shared, a community is formed, and dialogue occurs (Lave, 1988). Stein (1998) states that learning becomes a process of reflecting, interpreting, and negotiating meaning among the participants of a community.

A faculty member as a learner can become enculturated (Brown et al., 1989; Lave & Wenger, 1991). These authors state that culture is what determines the way the faculty members see the world; through interaction and observation with the members of the culture, faculty members will pick up new learning with which to act in accordance. Enculturation allows the faculty members to solve most of their problems in their own situated way, meaning that they can solve their problems within the framework of the context that produced them, and they will be able to share the problem with their environment and receive response in "real-time" (Brown et al., 1989).

The acknowledged role of the wider learning system on "individual" learning implies that the cognitive perspective is limited in its capability to analyze the larger system. Brown et al. (1989) state that knowledge is contextually situated and it is influenced by the activity, context, and culture in which it is used. The researchers believe that what is learned is merged together with how it is learned and used. Brown et al. (1989) explain that knowledge, in some ways, is similar to a set of tools. Like tools, knowledge can only be fully understood through its use, and using knowledge includes both changing the user's view of the world

and adopting the belief system of the culture in which knowledge is used (Brown et al., 1989).

Brown et al. (1989) believe that when a concept is learned, it will continually evolve with each new occasion in which it is used. This evolution is so because new situations and activities give that original concept a new light and form. Anderson et al. (1996) disagree with this concept and believe that the acquired knowledge transfers only to a similar situation. However, Greeno (1997) disagrees with Anderson et al. and claims that transfer of knowledge happens through participation, that when an individual learns something, they reshape this new knowledge in a new context. I agree with Greeno's critique of Anderson et al. because in my pilot study with the graduate faculty members, I observed that the knowledge the faculty members acquired was constantly evolving with each situation they encountered and that they were able to carry their new learning into different situations and shape it to meet their needs. This concept seems similar to Bateson's (1994) metaphor of a spiral. She uses the metaphor of a spiral for how we learn, like the spiral, always expanding, yet always circling back on itself.

> Spiral learning moves through complexity with partial understanding, allowing for later returns. For some people, what is ambiguous and not immediately applicable is discarded, while for others, much that is unclear is vaguely retained, taken in with peripheral vision for possible later clarification. (p.243)

In their transition period, the faculty members are bombarded with challenges from dealing with students, to technical difficulties, to their own learning, and coming to terms with their environment as online teachers. With all this chaos around them, they will not be

able to make sense of every experience, but as time goes by, and they get familiar with their surroundings and learn what they need to learn to guarantee their success in the new environment, they eventually come full circle with their experiences and have a spiral learning experience as Bateson explains. She says that we must explore how we think and make sense of the world through stories, how we learn from experience, whether we learn best through participation or through instruction, and in what order these are most effective.

McLellan (1996) states that reflection is an important component of situated learning, while Norman (1993) explains that we must not accept experience as a substitute for thought and that the cognitive processing happens in the heads of individuals. He says that in order to understand how learning takes place one cannot look just at the situation, or the environment, or the individual. All must be taken into consideration since they all affect one another.

While this concept may seem true for the faculty members in transition from face-to-face to online classrooms, many researchers believe that when in a new environment, teaching and learning assumptions must be renegotiated and what this means in their community of practice (Billett, 2001; Lave, 1988; Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998). The faculty members in transition initially learn by observation and active participation within their community of practice. As the faculty members' comfort levels increase and the new environment begins to make sense to them, they begin to learn. The faculty members' level of participation and learning increases as they move from peripheral to a more central role of participation. Since situated learning occurs in everyday activities, the faculty members will consciously or unconsciously begin questioning their teaching and learning assumptions (Lave & Wenger, 1991).

Clancey (1995) states that the situated learning discussions often refer to the idea of a community of practice. He explains that this is a way of describing any group of people who work together to accomplish some activity, which usually involves collaboration between individuals with different experiences.

Communities of Practice

Lave and Wenger first introduced the concept of a community of practice in 1991. Wenger (1998) states that communities of practice are groups of people who share enthusiasm or interest for something they do and learn how to do it better as they interact with each other. Wenger, McDermott, and Snyder (2002) similarly define communities of practice as "groups of people who share a concern, a set of problems, or a passion about a topic, and who deepen their knowledge and expertise in this area by interacting on an ongoing basis" (p. 7). Lave and Wenger (1991) argue that communities of practice are everywhere. They say that learning can happen in a social process where people can participate at different levels.

Central to Lave and Wenger's (1991) notion of a community of practice as a means of acquiring knowledge is the process by which new learners, as they learn from others, move from peripheral to full participation in the community. Lave and Wenger called this process legitimate peripheral participation.

> Legitimate peripheral participation provides…a way to speak about the relations between newcomers and old-timers, and about activities, identities, artifacts, and communities of knowledge and practice. A person's intentions to learn are engaged and the meaning of learning is configured through the process of becoming a full

> participant in a socio-cultural practice. This social process, includes, indeed it subsumes, the learning of knowledgeable skills. (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 29)

Brown et al. (1989) believe that in order for learning to happen, the faculty member must have access to a culture and become what Lave and Wenger (1991) call a "legitimate peripheral participant." In legitimate peripheral participation, Lave and Wenger (1991) provide a way to speak about the relations between newcomers and old-timers and how newcomers become part of a community of practice. As a result of learning, newcomers can become full participants of a socio-cultural practice. Lave and Wenger (1991) state that engagement in a social practice entails learning, which is an integral part of legitimate peripheral participation.

Lave and Wenger (1991) use legitimate peripheral participation to characterize the process by which newcomers become included in a community of practice where their learning takes place through participation. Wenger (1998) states that there are two types of modification required to make participation possible: peripheral participation and legitimacy. Peripherality approximates full participation, which allows the newcomers to engage in a community and provides them with a sense of how a community works. Legitimacy means the newcomers are treated as potential members of a community. As such, legitimacy allows the newcomers to make mistakes but then enables them to turn these mistakes into learning opportunities rather than dismissals (Wenger, 1998).

Lave and Wenger (1991) state that legitimate peripherality includes the notion of social structures that involve relations of power. They argue that as the learner moves from peripherality towards a more intensive participation, the learner becomes empowered. Lave

and Wenger (1991) explain that if the learners are not allowed a legitimate participation in the community then the learner is placed in a disempowering position. Lave and Wenger (1991) explain that legitimate peripheral participation has led to the emphasis on a developmental cycle in a community of practice where, in a gradual process, the learner gains the identity of a full participant and a practitioner.

There could be a link drawn between the concept of legitimate peripheral participation and the faculty members' journey from face-to-face to online classrooms. As the faculty members start their transition to an online environment, they are at the periphery of the online faculty community. At this stage, they are beginners in this transition, feel powerless, and are very much novices at online teaching and learning. But through their interaction with their colleagues, students, technical support, the research literature, and the online environment, they began to learn and in a developmental process, begin to move from a legitimate peripheral participation to gaining an identity as an online instructor and becoming a full participant in their community of practice. At this point in their experience, the faculty members begin their participation in this community with a shared meaning.

This transition from peripheral participation to a central participation may generate change and transformation in the faculty members' beliefs and assumptions in teaching and learning. However, in the transition from a face-to-face to an online environment, if the faculty members are somehow marginalized—by not receiving the support that they need to make a total and complete transition—and if they are not allowed a legitimate participation in the community, the faculty members will remain on the periphery of their community of practice. They will feel disempowered and will not be able to form their own identity. It is

through this developmental movement from the periphery to the center that the faculty members will feel challenged and will be able to change and transform; otherwise, there will be no movement and therefore, no growth.

Avis and Fisher (2006) state that engagement in communities of practice has increasingly been seen as an important aspect of adult learning. They believe that participation within such communities provides a dialogic space for learning. In the community of practice literature, learning is viewed as a social activity that occurs as new learners move through an established community's professional hierarchy toward expertise (Brown & Duguid, 1996; Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998). Learning opportunities occur through informal interaction among colleagues in the context of work. New learners gain access to the community's professional knowledge in authentic contexts through encounters with people, tools, tasks, and social norms (Schlager, Fusco, & Schank, 2002). Schlager et al. (2002) state that new practices and technologies are adopted by the communities of practice through their implementation over time.

Lave and Wenger (1991) originally described a community of practice as a set of relations among persons, activity and world, over time and in relation with other tangential and overlapping communities of practice. Later Wenger (1998) abandoned the idea of process legitimate peripheral participation and described communities of practice in terms of four fundamentals of participation vs. reification, designed vs. emergent, identification vs. negotiability, and local vs. global.

Wenger (1998) explains that

> …being alive as human beings means that we are constantly engaged in the pursuit of enterprises of all kinds, from ensuring our physical survival to seeking the most lofty pleasures. As we define these enterprises and engage in their pursuit together, we interact with each other and with the world and we tune our relations with each other and with the world accordingly. In other words we learn. Over time, this collective learning results in practices that reflect both the pursuit of our enterprises and the attendant social relations. These practices are thus the property of a kind of community created over time by the sustained pursuit of a shared enterprise. It makes sense, therefore to call these kinds of communities, communities of practice. (p. 45)

Wenger (1998) explains that participants are brought together by joining in common activities and by what they have learned through their mutual activities; he goes on to argue that a community of practice is different from a community of interest since it involves a shared practice. This claim holds true for the faculty members since they are on a journey to transition from a traditional to an online environment. Wenger (1998) states that in communities of practice, one must rethink the concept of learning. He states that for individuals, "learning is an issue of engaging in and contributing to the practice of their communities" and for communities, "learning is an issue of refining their practice and ensuring new a generation of members" (p. 73).

A community of practice has three dimensions: what it is about, how it functions, and what capability it has produced (Wenger, 1998). Within a community of practice there must be a mutual agreement and engagement between the participants. The participants are

engaged in actions where they must negotiate meanings of their practice and actions with each other. Similarly, the transitioning faculty members have to negotiate their teaching and learning assumptions in accordance to the situation they are in and their interactions within the community. Their shared practice with their students, colleagues and community is complex and diverse. These relationships include power struggles and dependence, pleasure, alliance and competition, collaboration, expertise, helplessness, success and failure, anger and tenderness, trust and suspicion, friendship and hatred, ease and struggle, authority and collegiality and many more (Wenger, 1998).

Lave and Wenger (1991) argue that a community of practice involves more than the just technical knowledge or skill involved with completing a task. They believe that the participants are involved in a series of relationships and communities develop around things that matter to people (Wenger, 1998). Wenger (1998) states that the fact that the participants are concentrating on and around a specific knowledge or activity allows them to feel a sense of community, camaraderie and identity. Lieberman (1996) and Rényi (1996) argue that communities of practice can be powerful catalysts for enabling faculty members to improve their practice.

Summary

In this section, I have discussed the literature on situated learning and communities of practice and have established that these learning theories are useful to analyze the experience of faculty members as they transition from face-to-face to online teaching. The faculty members are situated within their environment and it is in this context that they experience, reflect, learn, and make meaning of their experiences. Also, faculty members are not in

isolation. It is through the faculty members' communities of practice that they share and exchange ideas with their surrounding environment that forms and frames their experiences. So it is in this situatedness and communities of practice that faculty members learn and teach.

Part III. Transformative Learning Theory

In order to be able to address the research questions, I saw it necessary to include the literature on transformative learning theory. As faculty members transition from traditional to online environments and go through this transition of learning and teaching in their communities of practice through interaction with their students, colleagues and their surrounding environment, they might encounter some transformation in their learning and teaching assumptions as well. In this section, I have given an overview and history of the transformative learning theory and have pointed out the criticisms of this theory. I have discussed the different perspectives on the transformative learning theory and provided a conceptual map of the theory. I have also discussed the relationship between transformative learning theory and other adult learning theories and how transformative learning fits among these theories.

This literature review has proven helpful in describing the kinds of transitions the faculty member's experience. Additionally, identification and questioning of assumptions has been a key element of this study and is at the core of transformative learning theory. At the end of this section, there is a summary of the entire literature review chapter and an explanation of how this literature has assisted in addressing the research questions.

Overview of Transformative Learning Theory

In 1978, Jack Mezirow introduced the concept of transformative learning while investigating the learning experiences of women returning to college after an extended time (as cited in Taylor, 1998; Merriam & Caffarella, 1999; Mezirow & Associates, 2000). Transformative learning theory is partly a developmental process, but it is better understood as the process of using a prior interpretation to construe a new or revised interpretation of the meaning of one's experience in order to guide future action (Mezirow, 1996; Taylor, 1998). Taylor explains that Mezirow originally conceptualized transformative learning as a linear process resulting from a single, dramatic event. Over time, however, it came to be understood that transformative learning can be a long cumulative process and perhaps spiral-like (Cranton, 2000b; Taylor, 2000).

Cranton (2006) defines transformative learning a process by which previous assumptions, beliefs, values and perspectives are questioned and therefore have become more understandable, open and justified. When something unexpected happens where the situation does not fit within their expectations based on their past experiences, people have to make a choice of whether to dismiss the occurrence or question it (Cranton, 2006). When people critically reflect and examine their expectations, revise them and act on the new point of view, it is then that transformation has occurred (Cranton, 2006). She explains that roles of imagination, intuition, soul and affect are a few perspectives that have been added to the original theory.

Cranton (2006) states that by taking their learning styles into consideration, we can better understand the transformation people experience. Cranton (2006) states that

transformative learning is no doubt voluntary, whereas people do not always set out to critically question their beliefs and values. She believes that many times transformative learning is prompted by an outside event that may be unexpected. She also explains that the way people experience transformation depends on their learning style.

Transformative learning theory is based on constructivist assumptions (Cranton, 2006). This means that that meaning-making exists within ourselves and not externally. She states that we construct meaning from our experiences and validate it through interactions with our community.

Understanding Transformative Learning Theory

Transformative theory does not derive from an extension of an existing theory or tradition (Mezirow, 1991; Cranton, 1994). Transformative theory has its context in constructivism, critical theory, and deconstructivism in social theory, as well as in the cognitive revolution in psychology (Mezirow, 1991). Through transformative learning theory, researchers have found that it is not so much what happens to people, but how they interpret and explain what happens to them that determine their actions, hopes, contentment, emotional well being, and performance (Mezirow, 1991; Mezirow, 2000). Mezirow draws on the work of Jurgen Habermas, but does not write from the perspectives of the Frankfurt School of critical theory, with which Habermas is associated (Mezirow, 1991).

Influence of Paulo Freire

In the early 1970s, while reviewing the work of Paulo Freire, Mezirow realized that the concepts of conscientization, power, and the centrality of conscientization in the process of learning (Mezirow, 1991) were missing from his work with developing adult literacy

programs where adults achieve a deepening awareness of both the sociocultural reality which shapes their lives and their capacity to transform that reality through action upon it (Freire, 1983). This new body of literature stimulated the realization that social dimensions and power play a big role in determining how meaning perspectives are formed and transformation occurs. Like Habermas, Freire's primary difficulty with society is that in modern society, human beings lack freedom; they also lack focus on transformed consciousness (Freire, 1983). Freire wants people to develop further, reflecting and acting on transformation of their world so it can be a more equitable place to live (Taylor, 1998). Unlike Mezirow's focus on personal transformation, Freire is more concerned about social transformation and unveiling of reality by the oppressed through the awakening of their critical consciousness (Taylor, 1998).

Like Mezirow, Freire sees critical reflection as central to transformation; however, Freire sees the purpose of critical reflection in rediscovery of power. He believes that the more critically aware learners become, the more they are able to transform the society and thus, their own reality (Taylor, 1998). For Mezirow, transformation is first a personal experience that empowers a person to reintegrate or act on the world if they choose. Mezirow believes that personal transformation in and of itself is sufficient. Mezirow links himself conceptually to Freire by linking conscientization to critical reflection (Taylor, 1998). The objective of conscientization is to give power to the knowledge and resources of groups by facilitating a learning process that becomes critical self-reflection, giving learners dialogical consciousness, and potentially, liberation (Freire, 1983).

Influence of Roger Gould

The psychiatrist Roger Gould influenced the work of Jack Mezirow in 1978, broadening his understanding of what he had defined as transformative learning. Gould was attempting to develop ways of adapting approaches of psychotherapy to an educational format using workbooks and workshops. By looking at adult learners who had overcome childhood learning impediments through a transformative learning experience, Mezirow realized the importance of adding a psychological dimension to his theory (Mezirow, 1991). Mezirow considered this a natural extension of the work of Paulo Freire on conscientization and social assumptions, where Freire concentrated on social change and Mezirow focused on personal transformation (Merriam & Caffarella, 1999). Conscientization is defined as developing consciousness but a consciousness that is understood to have the power to transform reality (Taylor 1993, p. 52). Conscientization refers to a learning process in which people, as knowing subjects, achieve a deepening awareness of both the socio-cultural reality that shapes their lives and of their capacity to transform that reality (Freire, 1983).

Influence of Habermas

In order to understand transformative learning, an educator must understand the different types of learning adults engage in (Cranton, 1994). Transformative learning offers an explanation for change in meaning structures that evolves in the domains of learning based on Habermas' dimensions of learning (as cited in Taylor, 1998). Habermas differentiates three primary areas in which human interest produces knowledge. These areas determine the mode of discovering knowledge. They also define cognitive interests or

learning domains and are grounded in different aspects of social existence such as work, interaction, and power (Roderick, 1986).

Habermas (1984) stated that different human interests require different forms of knowledge, leading him to classify knowledge as instrumental, practical, or emancipatory. Instrumental knowledge is defined as an interest in controlling and manipulating the external environment, which requires comprehension of causal relationships between events. Practical knowledge is identified as an interest in understanding each other through language, which leads to understanding about social norms, cultural values, and traditions. Emancipatory knowledge is characterized as an interest in understanding ourselves and maintaining our freedom. This type of knowledge includes the knowledge of influence of past experiences and social context.

Habermas classified people's interests into three categories: technical, practical, and emancipatory (Cranton, 1994). Technical interests are based on the need to control the outside environment (Bullough & Goldstein, 1984). Practical interests are reflected in people's use of language to further mutual understanding and coordinate social actions to satisfy needs and interests (Ewert, 1991). Emancipatory interests are reflected in people's drive to grow and develop both as individuals and in relation to groups (Bullough & Goldstein, 1984).

Based on Habermas' classification of interests and knowledge, Mezirow describes three learning domains: instrumental learning, communicative learning, and emancipatory learning (Mezirow, 1991; Cranton, 1994). Determining cause-effect relationships and learning through task-oriented problem solving is central to instrumental learning (Mezirow,

1991). This type of learning involves forming hypotheses about observable events, making predictions about them, and evaluating outcomes (Cranton, 1994). Communicative learning includes learning to understand what others mean and learning to make ourselves understood (Mezirow, 1991). Mezirow sees this domain as encompassing most of learning in adulthood (Cranton, 1994).

Although problem solving may be used in communicative learning, the process is quite different from instrumental learning. In communicative learning, the learner interacts with others through the use of language and nonverbal communication. It is a process influenced by social norms that provide a frame of reference for their understanding (Cranton, 1994; Mezirow, 1991). By contrast, with instrumental learning, problem solving is task oriented and aims at technical control and manipulation (Mezirow, 1991).

Mezirow (1991) defines emancipatory learning as "emancipation from libidinal, linguistic, epistemic, institutional or environmental forces that limit our options and our rational control over our lives but have been taken for granted or seen as beyond human control" (p. 87). Mezirow (1991) believes that "emancipatory learning is often transformative" (p. 88). Mezirow stated that emancipatory learning takes place through critical self-reflection, including reflection on instrumental and communicative domains (Mezirow, 1991; Cranton, 1994), which is in agreement with how Habermas envisions communicative and instrumental learning.

Habermas recognized the central role of communicative and instrumental learning concepts as major domains of learning. He also recognized the central role of discourse in validating beliefs, as well as the notion of reflection as a form of self-formation that

emancipates as it dissolves the constraining spell of unexamined beliefs (Roderick, 1986). Mezirow (Mezirow & Associates, 2000) finds that transformative theory redefines emancipatory learning as a transformation process pertaining to both instrumental and communicative learning. Wiessner and Mezirow (2000) note in reviewing the three learning domains that Susan Collard (as cited in Wiessner & Mezirow, 2000) also recognized emancipatory learning as a process that pertains in different ways to both instrumental and communicative learning domains. Cranton (2006) argues that we often cannot separate different kinds of learning and that many times, different types of learning occur together.

Influence of Illeris

Illeris believes that the concept of transformative learning as defined by Mezirow (1991) can be understood through Piaget's four types of learning. Illeris (2003a, 2003b) explains Piage's four types of learning as cumulation, assimilation, accommodation, and personality change, which includes reorganizing the cognitive, emotional, and social dimensions. Illeris goes on to state that the fourth type of learning, personality change, is the result of confronting a crisis-like situation caused by challenges considered urgent and unavoidable.

Influence of O'Sullivan

O'Sullivan (as cited in Mezirow, 2000) has a broader definition of transformative learning that is concerned with greater respect and understanding of the planet. Within the context of ecological consciousness, Daloz places emphasis on interdependency of consciousness (as cited in O'Sullivan & Taylor, 2004). He uses the term interdependence to identify a new global phenomenon brought on by technological developments, to make a

phenomenological assertion about the nature of reality, and to describe a highly developed way of making meaning (as cited in O'Sullivan & Taylor, 2004). Daloz goes on to explain that this consciousness will bring about cultural transformation in the ecological system (as cited in O'Sullivan & Taylor, 2004).

O'Sullivan's use of the term transformation is both rigorous and complex. He states that the planets are looking for some profound and deeply needed change that appears to be at an order of magnitude that we have not experienced before. He believes that these changes will offer new and wonderful possibilities but that we must understand that these changes will bring along their own unique problems and limitations. O'Sullivan notes that the burden of responsibility on humans in this transformation is great, since we have the most significant influence on the direction it will take—we have the power to make life extinct. The challenge is education in all these areas. Education must be within the context of a transformative vision by keeping concerns for the planet at the forefront (O'Sullivan, 1999).

Role of Critical Reflection

Development of critical theory and critical reflection as the means of unmasking hegemonic ideology stems from the work of Habermas (as cited in Brookfield, 2000). Although Mezirow considers critical reflection central to transformative learning, Brookfield (2000) states that critical reflection is necessary but not sufficient for transformative learning. He holds that transformative learning cannot happen without critical reflection, but critical reflection can happen without transformation in perspective (Mezirow, 1991; Grabove, 1997; Taylor, 1997; Brookfield, 2000; Wiessner & Mezirow, 2000).

Mezirow suggested that an individual might go through a transformative experience when faced with a disorienting event (Mezirow, 1991; Cranton, 1994) and could go through the critical reflection process as a result of this disorientation (Mezirow, 1991; Cranton, 1994). Looking at a study conducted by Taylor (1997), Mezirow found that Taylor was in agreement with him about critical reflection being central to a transformation process (Wiessner & Mezirow, 2000). However, Mezirow further determined that critical reflection must include intuition, feelings, empathy, spirituality and other factors outside of focal awareness. Other examinations of the role of critical reflection in transformative learning come from Marsick (2003), who states that most reflection in workplaces is simple reflection rather than critical; Stanton relates critical reflection to developmental stages (Belenky et al., 1997); Cranton believes that reflection is done differently by different people; and Brookfield (2000) believes that power and hegemony should be central focuses for critical reflection (Wiessner & Mezirow, 2000). Mezirow (1991) states that from the perspective of transformation theory, critical reflection on assumptions is an element of the transformative learning process by which we may challenge problematic frames of reference in relation to values, beliefs, feelings, narratives, or understandings.

Role of Meaning Perspective.

Mezirow's theory is about how adults interpret their life experiences and how they make meaning of it (Merriam & Caffarella, 1999). He defines learning as a "meaning-making activity". Mezirow (1990, 1996) defines meaning schemes as specific beliefs, feelings, attitudes, and value judgments. Meaning-making Mezirow defines as broad, generalized, orienting dispositions. It is a frame of reference or a set of expectations that is

based on past experiences (Cranton, 1994; Mezirow, 1997; Rossiter, 1999). Mezirow (1991) believes that in order for learners to change their meaning schemes, by which he means specific beliefs, attitudes, and emotional reactions, they must engage in critical reflection on their experiences, which in turn leads to a perspective transformation. Perspective transformation refers to how the meaning structures that adults have acquired over a lifetime become transformed. These meaning structures are frames of reference that are based on the totality of individuals' cultural and contextual experiences and that influence how they behave and interpret events (Taylor 1998).

The concept Mezirow refers to as meaning perspective was introduced as a paradigm by Thomas Kuhn in 1962 (Mezirow, 1991). It refers to a collection of ways of seeing, methods of inquiry, beliefs, ideas, values, and attitudes that influence the conduct of scientific inquiry. The context and terminology used by Kuhn were different from Mezirow, but understanding of transformative learning was influenced by the concept of a paradigm, which is widely held as a factor in the development of scientific thought (Mezirow, 1991).

Meaning perspectives are the lenses through which each person filters, engages and interprets the world (Mezirow, 1990, 1991; Cranton, 1994; Taylor, 1998, Taylor, 2005). Learning can consist of a change in one of our beliefs or attitudes (meaning schemes), or it can be a change in our entire perspective (Merriam & Caffarella, 1999). Mezirow describes adults as having meaning perspectives. He explains that we expect to see things in certain ways because of our past experiences (Mezirow, 1991; Cranton, 1994), providing a frame of reference for interpreting what happens to us. This frame of reference comes from the way we grew up, the culture in which we live, and what we have previously experienced

(Mezirow, 1991; Cranton, 1994; Belenky et al., 1997; Mezirow, 1997; Rossiter, 1999). Mezirow (1991) explains that even though transformation of meaning perspectives occurs less frequently, it is more likely to involve our sense of self and always involves critical reflection.

A frame of reference is a type of meaning perspective (Mezirow, 2000; Cranton, 2006) and is the structure of assumptions and expectations through which we filter impressions. Frames of reference are the result of interpreting experiences and are made up of two dimensions: a habit of mind and a point of view. A habit of mind is a set of assumptions—broad, generalized dispositions that act as a filter for interpreting the meaning of experiences (Mezirow, 2000). A habit of mind becomes expressed as a way of being. Ways of being are clusters of meaning schemes—sets of immediate expectations, beliefs, feelings, attitudes and judgments—that direct and shape specific interpretations (Mezirow, 2000). Transformations in habits of mind may be epochal, i.e., a sudden and dramatic insight, or incremental or gradual, or may simply cause awareness (Mezirow, 1991; Taylor, 1998; Mezirow, 2000). A habit of mind is a way of seeing the world based on our experience, background, personality and culture (Cranton, 2006). A point of view is the way we express or demonstrate our habits of mind in interaction with others, which is often done unconsciously.

Mezirow (1990, 1991, 2000) defines six types of meaning perspectives: epistemic, sociolinguistic, psychological, moral-ethical, philosophical, and aesthetic. Epistemic meaning perspectives are those related to knowledge and the way we use knowledge. Cranton (2006) believes that epistemic habits of mind are also about the way we learn, our leaning styles and

preferences. Sociolinguistic habits of mind are based on people's social norms, cultural expectations, socialization, and language. Cranton (2006) states that since we can enter the world of others who are different from us, it is not easy to bring out sociolinguistic habits of mind to consciousness and have them lead to transformation. Psychological habits of mind relate to the way people see themselves as individuals, such as their self-concept, needs, inhibitions, anxieties, and personality-based preferences. Moral-ethical habits of mind incorporate consciousness and morality, which means how people define good and evil, how they act on their views, and to what extent they see themselves responsible for meaning-making in the world (Cranton, 2006). Philosophical habits of mind can be based on a transcendental worldview, philosophy, or religious doctrine (Cranton, 2006). Aesthetic habits of mind include our values, attitudes and judgments. They are basically sociolinguistic habits of mind and are determined by the social norms of the community and culture (Cranton, 2006).

Other Influences

Mezirow's transformative learning theory is derived from culturally specific conditions associated with democratic societies and with the development of adult education as a vocation in Western Europe and North America (Mezirow & Associates, 2000). He states that transformative learning shares the goals of enlightenment: to provide self-emancipation through self-understanding, to overcome systematically distorted communication, and to strengthen the capacity for self-determination through rational discourse (Mezirow, 1991; Cranton, 1994). Transformative theory seeks to explain the way adult learning is structured, as well as determine by what processes the frames of reference

through which we view and interpret our experiences (meaning perspective) are changed or transformed (Mezirow, 1991).

Critique of Transformative Learning Theory

Collard and Law. In 1989 the first critiques of Mezirow's transformative learning theory began to appear (Collard & Law, 1989). Upon critically outlining Mezirow's theory, Collard and Law state that the fundamental problem in his theory is the "lack of coherent, comprehensive theory of social exchange" (Collard & Law, 1989, p. 102) and explain that this gap is "evident in Mezirow's selective interpretation and adaptation of Habermas and partially dependent on problems within Habermas' own work" (Collard & Law, 1989, p. 102). Collard and Law note that Mezirow has "painted himself into a Habermasian corner" (Collard & Law, 1989, p. 105) and believe that Mezirow's work emphasizes individual transformation and fails to acknowledge the social environment.

Mezirow (1989) responds to this critique by clarifying the point that he sees perspective transformation as an individual, group, and collective process. Mezirow goes on to say that social action is important but not as the only goal in adult education and emphasizes that it is the decision of the learner to take a step toward social action. Collard and Law (1989) also criticize Mezirow for shifting his paradigm of language just as Habermas had done. Mezirow argues that his seeing critical reflection as applicable to both instrumental and communicative learning "had nothing to do with Habermas' change in his point of view" (Mezirow, 1989, p. 175).

Hart. In response to the debate between Mezirow and Collard and Law, Hart (1990) enters the debate by criticizing Mezirow's interpretation of Habermas' theory of

communicative action on the basis that Mezirow severed this theory from a critique of power (Cranton, 1994). Hart states that Mezirow's claim on the educator's role of being without power and as a result, providing a distorted context, is invalid. Hart further argues that the role of the educator cannot be clear-cut, "particularly not when power and distorted forms of interaction and communication are placed at the center of one's educational program" (1990, p. 136).

Cranton (1994) explains that whether or not Mezirow neglects the power issues in his theory is questionable; however, Cranton further states that although Mezirow does not define or discuss power, an awareness of power seems to underlie his theory simply due to the fact that "Learner empowerment appears to be the central theme in the history of adult education" (p. 138). McDonald et al. (1999) also state that transformative learning does not adequately account for power relations. They explain that Mezirow's perspective on transformative learning lacks attention to social transformations and the equalizing of power relations in society.

Clark and Wilson. In their critique of Mezirow's transformative learning theory, Clark and Wilson (1991) criticize Mezirow for failing to account for the cultural context of learning, asserting that Mezirow limits his theory to masculine, white, middle class values and thus fails to reflect the values he holds himself. They state that Mezirow fails to "maintain the essential link between the meaning of experience and the context in which it rises and by which it is interpreted" (p. 76).

Boyd and Myers. Mezirow views transformative theory as having its roots in constructivism, critical theory, and deconstructivism and thus describes the process of critical

reflection leading to transformation as conscious and rational (Cranton, 1994). In their criticism of Mezirow's transformative learning theory, Boyd and Myers (1988; Boyd, 1985; Boyd, 1989) define personal transformation within a framework of analytical psychology (Jung, 1969a; 1969b) and suggest that transformation is not completely rational, believing that symbols and images play a role in this transformation.

Kegan. Kegan (2000) believes that some of the concepts of transformative learning as identified by Mezirow need to be more explicit. Kegan explains that transformational types of learning need to be more clearly distinguished from informational learning. He defines informational learning as a type of learning that involves a kind of leading in or filling in of the form; a change in what we know. Kegan see transformative learning as a change in how we know. He explains that these transformative changes should not refer to just any kind of change but to changes in one's fund of knowledge, confidence as a learner, and self-perception as a learner (Kegan, 2000).

Mezirow (Mezirow & Associates, 2000) explains that frames of reference made up of habits of mind and points of view and that at its root, a frame of reference is a way of knowing. Kegan (2000) explains that at the heart of transformative learning there are two kinds of processes. The first is meaning forming, where individuals shape meaning out of what they experience. The second process is reforming our meaning forming, where people change the very form that they are making out of meanings. These concepts mean people are changing their epistemologies, which Kegan defines as not what we know but our way of knowing (Kegan, 2000).

In his critique of Mezirow, Kegan (2000) suggests that it is the form that is undergoing transformation that needs to be better understood; "If there is no form, there is no transformation" (p.48). He says that at the heart of a form is a way of knowing (Mezirow's "frame of reference"); thus transformative learning is always to some extent an epistemological change, not a change in behavior or an increase in knowledge (Kegan, 2000). Kegan (2000) believes that while the concept of transformative learning needs to be narrowed by focusing more on the epistemology, it needs to be broadened to include the entire life span and not adult education alone.

Belenky and Stanton. Although Belenky and Stanton (2000) acknowledge Mezirow's transformative learning theory for providing a detailed description of a developmental process endpoint that people reach through their transformation, they criticize Mezirow for not tracing the steps people take before they can "know what they know" (p. 72). Another criticism from Belenky and Stanton (2000) is that in transformative learning theory, Mezirow assumes relations of equality among participants in reflective discourse, but he also asserts that "In actuality, most human relationships are asymmetrical" (p.73). They believe that ignoring "asymmetrical relationships" has serious consequences, that in doing so we fail to support people reaching their full developmental potential, especially women struggling to gain voice and power of mind (Belenky & Stanton, 2000).

Brookfield. Brookfield (2000) defines ideologies as sets of values, beliefs, myths, explanations, and justifications that appear true and desirable. He believes that the idea of ideology critique is central to critical reflection and therefore, to transformation. He describes ideology critique as the process by which people learn to recognize how uncritically accepted

the dominant ideologies are embedded in our everyday life. Brookfield (2000) explains that looking at critical reflection as an ideology critique helps people come to an awareness of how capitalism shapes belief systems and assumptions. Ideology critique is close to what Mezirow calls systemic critical reflection and in his theory of transformative learning, he inquires about sociocultural distortions (Brookfield, 2000).

Brookfield (2000) states that his interpretation of critical reflection through the tradition of ideology critique differs from Mezirow in the sense that Brookfield's definition is more limited. Mezirow allows for the possibility of implicit critical reflection "as when we mindlessly choose between good and evil because of our assimilated values" (1998, p. 186). Brookfield (2000) states that he disagrees with this possibility in the sense that it denies the intentionality central to ideology critique. For Brookfield (2000), critical reflection focuses on making explicit and analyzing what was previously implicit and uncritically accepted.

Perspectives on Transformative Learning

Transformative learning in adult and continuing education has been around for over 25 years and is considered to be the most researched theory in adult education (Taylor, 2005). Analyzing the literature, Taylor (2005) has identified seven perspectives on transformative learning and has categorized these seven perspectives into two groups based on their locus of learning, either individual or sociocultural. In Table 1, Taylor (2005) has organized these theoretical views of transformative learning.

Table 1: *Organizing Framework of Varied Theoretical Views of Transformative Learning*

Locus of control: Individual

Theoretical View	**Goal**	**Teacher's Role**	**Student's Role**
Psychoanalytic (Boyd; Cranton; Dirkx)	Interdependence	Seasoned guide	Self-analysis
Psycho-developmental (Kegan; Daloz)	Lifelong personal	Mentor	Protégé
Psycho-critical (Mezirow)	Autonomy/Independence	Facilitator	Rational constructor

Locus of control: Sociocultural

Theoretical View	**Goal**	**Teacher's Role**	**Student's Role**
Social-emancipatory (Freire)	Conscientization	Activist-class	Learner activist
Cultural-spiritual (Brooks; Tisdell)	Cultural-spiritual consciousness	Cultural symbolist	Co-creator
Race-centric (Johnson-Bailey; Sheard)	Race consciousness	Activist-race	Learner activist
Planetary (O'Sullivan)	Planetary consciousness	Guide	Self-directed revisionist

Relating to Mezirow's transformative learning theory, I have encountered several different perspectives with regard to this theory. I have made no attempt to categorize these perspectives as Taylor (2005) did, but I have further defined them and added other perspectives to introduce the extent of expansion of transformative learning theory.

Emancipatory

The goal of emancipatory learning is to free learners from the forces that limit their options and control over their lives, forces that they have taken for granted or seen as beyond their control. Emancipatory learning results in transformations of learner perspectives through critical reflection (Mezirow, 1991). The educator plays an active role in fostering critical reflection by challenging learners to consider why they hold certain assumptions, values, and beliefs (Cranton, 1994).

Some researchers (Freire, 1983; Roderick, 1986; McDonald et al., 1999; Baumgartner, 2001) use education for purposes of liberation and focus on unjust power relations. In this process, the students discuss real life issues; through conscientization, the learners come to see the world and their place in it, becoming empowered by the new perception that they could act to transform their world. Freire (1983) also discusses the concept of the banking method of education, which Freire refers to as passive listening and acceptance of facts (Roderick, 1986; McDonald et al., 1999; Baumgartner, 2001). While Mezirow focuses on personal transformation, Freire concentrates on a larger framework of radical social change (Merriam & Caffarella, 1999). Freire's ultimate goal is liberation and his ideas emerge out of the context of poverty, illiteracy, and oppression (Freire, 1983).

Cognition

The cognitive-rational approach to transformative learning shares theoretical underpinnings with Freire, who believes that adult education should lead to empowerment. In a constructivist approach, knowledge is not out there but is created from interpretation and reinterpretation, known as perspective transformation (Mezirow, 1991; Mezirow, 1996;

Rossiter, 1999; Merriam, 2001; Taylor, 2003). Edward Taylor (1998) notes that Mezirow emphasizes the importance of the meaning-making process and believes resolution of cognitive conflicts leads to transformation. Taylor explains that Freire concentrates on social justice orientation while Mezirow concentrates on rational thought and reflection (Taylor, 1998).

Constructivist-Development Theory

Constructive developmental psychology (Kegan, 1982, 1994; Piaget, 1954/1999; Kohlberg, 1984; Belenky et al., 1997) attends to natural evolution of the forms of meaning constructing. Kegan (2000) suggests that transformative learning attends to the deliberate efforts and designs that support changes in the learner's form of knowing. He goes on to say that for those interested in transformative learning, constructive developmental theory asks them to consider that forms of knowing always consist of relationships between the subject and the object in one's knowing (Kegan, 2000). Object is what we can look at, take responsibility for, reflect upon, have control over, and integrate with some other way of knowing, while subject is what we are governed by and identified with (Kegan, 2000). Kegan (2000) states that constructive developmental theory looks at the process it calls developmental as the gradual process by which what was subject in our knowing becomes object. He explains that when a way knowing moves from a place where we are "had by it" to a place where we "have it" and can be in relationship to it, the form of knowing becomes more complex (Kegan, 2000). Kegan (2000) believes that it is this process of development that comes closest to the meaning of transformation in transformative learning. The transformative learning process is intuitive, holistic, and contextually based, using a narrative

approach to humanize (Freire, 1983). Transformative learning processes demonstrate how students negotiate developmental transition and are changed in the process (Daloz, 1999; Mezirow, 2000; K. Taylor, 2000a; Taylor & Marienau, 2002). Seidman, in his interviewing methods, utilizes narrative by looking at the relationship between time and meaning, as well as past and future, thereby looking at meaning-making and trying to identify transformation that allows for identification of a developmental process in a learner (Rossiter, 1999).

Belenky et al. (1997) and Merriam and Caffarella (1999) group women's perspectives on knowing into five categories: silence, received knowledge, subjective knowledge, procedural knowledge, and constructed knowledge. Belenky et al. (1997) states that these categories are not fixed or universal, but they show women moving from simple to complex, moving from no voice to being able to value and create different ways of knowing. Clark (1990) and Goldberger (1996) state that even though Belenky et al. do not refer to this process as stages of cognitive development, they appear to be such and people continue to interpret these categories as a cognitive developmental process.

A constructive developmental perspective on transformative learning creates an image that learning happens over a lifetime in a gradual and developmental manner (Kegan, 2000). The success of the transition of faculty members from traditional to online environments and their learning happens in a gradual manner during the semester, and it is a developmental process for them. Kegan (2000) likens this transformation and development to a gradual crossing of bridges. He says that we first need to know what bridge we are on. Then we need to understand how far along we need to travel on this particular bridge, whether it is a safe bridge to walk across, and that it is well anchored on both ends, meaning

that this new learning process is anchored in our past experience and also in what we are experiencing. As Kegan (2000) notes, what these transitioning faculty members experience is "not technical challenges but adaptive challenges that require not knowing more but knowing differently" (p. 65).

Spirituality and Learning

Tisdell (2000, 2001, 2003) and Ludwig (2005) state that spirituality is not the same as religion, which is considered to be an organized community of faith that has written codes of regulatory behavior. She explains that spirituality is more about one's personal belief and experience of a higher power or higher purpose (Tisdell, 2000, 2001). Tisdell (2003) believes that spirituality is an awareness and honoring of wholeness and interconnectedness of all things. She explains that spirituality is about meaning-making and is always present although not often acknowledged; further, she suggests that a spiritual experience happens by surprise.

In a study conducted to define spirituality, Hamilton and Jackson (1998) came up with three major themes in their participants' responses: further development of self-awareness, a sense of interconnectedness, and a relationship to a higher power. Tisdell (2001) explains that these three themes appear to be common aspects of spirituality for most who consider it an important meaning-making aspect of their life. Dirkx (1997) suggests that our interest is not so much to teach spirituality, but rather to nurture the soul, meaning "to recognize what is already inherent within our relationships and experiences, to acknowledge its presence with the teaching and learning environment, to respect its sacred message" (p. 83). Tisdell (2001) explains that spirituality is one of the ways people construct knowledge

and meaning; to ignore spirituality is to ignore an important aspect of human experience and ways of learning and meaning-making.

Taylor (1998) explains that some have used Mezirow's theory of transformative learning as a starting point to examine ways adults transform thought processes and develop through other ways of knowing, including through spirituality. However, Taylor (1998) goes on to say that Mezirow's theory is mainly driven by rationality, does not discuss transformation as spirituality, and neglects the role of unconscious thought processes in learning.

Jungian Perspective

With an interest in Mezirow's transformative learning theory, Cranton (2003) looks at how individuals of different psychological types might engage in transformative learning. She states that Mezirow focuses heavily on cognitive processes and therefore, those people inclined to sensing, intuition, and feeling might have a different experience. Cranton (2000b) explains that individuals see their own transformation through the lens of their psychological make-up and that this experience is different for different people. She explains that "Jung is clear about development of our preference into a holistic Self as a lifelong journey" (p. 2).

The major components of the Jungian perspective are noted as consciousness, individuation, self-knowledge, and persona (Hart, 1990; Stevens, 1994; Elias, 1997; Cranton, 2000b; Dirkx, 2000; Mezirow, 2000; Cranton 2003). Consciousness is defined as a continuous and progressive process of the ego assimilating what was previously known and is central to the transformative learning theory (Cranton, 2003). She explains that consciousness-raising is a process by which individuals become aware of oppressive social

forces. From a Jungian perspective, becoming conscious involves examining the unexamined, becoming aware of depths of Self, moving underneath the surface of life through introspection and reflection, and delving into our emotions and imagination (Cranton, 2003). Jungian psychology provides a perspective through which we can gain insights into our transformative experiences (Cranton, 2003).

Individuation is the journey in which we become conscious and develop self-knowledge (Cranton, 2003). Dirkx (2000) suggests that individuation is an ongoing process that occurs in everyone whether they are conscious of it or not. We gain self-knowledge through transformative learning as we critically question ego knowledge. Transformative learning depends on increasing self-knowledge and is the emergence of self (Cranton, 2003), whereas transformation is the emergence of the Self (Dirkx, 2000). Jung (as cited in Jacoby, 1990) defines individuation as a process by which individual beings are being formed and differentiated, having as its goal the development of the individual personality. Jung believes that the development of individuality is inseparable from human beings and that the process is guided by striving for individuation (as cited in Dirkx, 2000). Cranton (2000a) states that the Jungian concept of individuation is used to understand how transformative learning helps us develop a personal sense of identity. She goes on to say that without individuation, we have no foundation upon which to question assumptions and norms, as we cannot see ourselves as separate from those norms. Cranton (2000a) believes that individuation is a transformative process where in order to differentiate our Self from others, we need to see where our values are different from and the same as those of others.

Cranton (2000a) states that in Jungian psychology, individuation includes a developmental journey by understanding our unconscious and realizing the roles of anima and animus in our life. She defines anima as a man's feminine side that resides in his consciousness and animus as a woman's masculine side that resides in her consciousness. She goes on to say that deliberate efforts to work with the feminine or masculine facets of ourselves creates consciousness and is transformative.

Cranton (2003) defines persona as a facet of collective psychosocial identities and ideal images, such as teachers or mothers. She explains that our persona is a compromise between what we know of our Self and what is expected of us. Cranton (2003) states that in order to make meaning, people group and label things, events, and people. Critical questioning of our psychological habits of mind helps in maintaining an awareness of our persona, when we are hiding behind it, and who we are, apart from it.

Elias (1997) states that the Jungian theorist's perspective on transformative learning is complementary to Mezirow's. Boyd and Myers (1988) propose that transformative learning moves the person to active realization of their true being wherein such transformations, the individual reveals critical insight and develops fundamental understanding. Elias (1997) says that while Mezirow argues that transformative learning happens only through critical analysis, Jungians argue that a view is shaped not only by rational assumptions in the personal unconscious but also by symbols and myths that emerge from collective unconscious. Elias explains that as a consequence, transformative learning can happen through understanding of alternative frames of meaning that emerge form the unconscious, a process called discernment.

Ideological Perspective

Brookfield (2000) looks at transformative learning from an ideological perspective. He defines ideology as a set of values, beliefs, myths, explanations, and justifications that appear self-evidently true or morally desirable. Brookfield (2000) states that ideology critique is close to what Mezirow (1998) calls "systemic" critical reflection and he deals with it in the socio-cultural distortions (Mezirow, 1990), part of his transformative learning theory. Brookfield explains that the first important focus of critical reflection is on uncovering power dynamics and relationships. He believes that power is an active part of adult education and that becoming aware of these power dynamics will help us recognize the forces that exist in society which interfere with the learning processes of the learners. This power over learners needs to be transformed to power with the learners. The second purpose of critical reflection is hegemonic assumptions—those that we believe are commonsense wisdom and which, without our realizing it, are harmful to us in the long run. Transformative learning is occasionally fostered when we question these hegemonic assumptions through critical reflection and challenge these thoughts. Brookfield (2000) states that transformative learning cannot happen without critical reflection but critical reflection can happen without an accompanying transformation in perspective.

Affective and Holistic Perspective

Kasl and Elias (2000) and Elias (1997) believe that theories about individual learning can be used as guidance in how to understand and facilitate group learning. They believe that groups have the capacity to learn and to support, emphasizing systems thinking. Two aspects of systems thinking are involved in this belief system; one, that there are similarities among

human systems such as individuals, groups, and organizations and two, the idea of group mind. Based on these concepts, Kasl and Elias conclude that groups can learn just as individuals.

Kasl and Elias (2000) believe that groups can go through transformative learning just as individuals can, that transformative learning is the expansion of consciousness in any human system and thus is collective as well as individual. Elias (1997) states that transformative learning is the expansion of consciousness in any human system through transforming basic worldview and specific capacities of the self. Kasl and Elias (2000) state that from a constructivist perspective, human growth is the reconstruction or transformation of systems of meaning and it is "the evolution of consciousness" (p. 230). For Mezirow (1991) this evolution of consciousness means that perspectives are "more inclusive, differentiated, permeable and integrated" (p. 155). He focuses on the transformation of the content of consciousness, that is, the assumptions that form the content of a person's frames of reference, meaning schemes, or meaning perspectives (Mezirow, 2000).

Cosmological Perspective

O'Sullivan (as cited in Mezirow, 2000) has a broader definition of transformative learning that is concerned with greater respect and understanding of the planet.

Within the context of ecological consciousness, Daloz places emphasis on interdependency of consciousness (as cited in O'Sullivan & Taylor, 2004). He uses the term interdependence to identify a new global phenomenon brought on by technological developments, to make a phenomenological assertion about nature of reality, and to describe a highly developed way of making meaning (as cited in O'Sullivan & Taylor, 2004). Daloz

goes on to explain that this consciousness will bring about cultural transformation in the ecological system (as cited in O'Sullivan & Taylor, 2004).

O'Sullivan's use of the term transformation is both rigorous and complex. He states that the planets are looking for some profound and deeply needed change that appears to be at an order of magnitude that we have not experienced before. He believes that these changes will offer new and wonderful possibilities but that we must understand that these changes will bring along their own unique problems and limitations. O'Sullivan notes that the burden of responsibility on humans in this transformation is great, since we have the most significant influence on the direction it will take—we have the power to make life extinct. The challenge is education in all these areas. Education must be within the context of a transformative vision by keeping concerns for the planet at the forefront (O'Sullivan, 1999).

Emotional and Social Perspective

Brookfield (2000) states we can learn about the emotional dimensions of our lives by investigating the extent to which our feelings and emotional responses to certain situations are socially learned. These emotions may be individual and emerge as outrage or hysteria, or they can be a social phenomenon (Brookfield, 2000). Kathleen Taylor (2000b) explains that even though developmental growth may be experienced as exhilarating and energizing, it may also be experienced as traumatic and overwhelming. She explains that changing the way individuals recognize risks changes the way they know everything, including personal and professional relationships, ideas, goals, and values. Wiessner and Mezirow (2000) recognize that a common critique of transformative learning theory is its inability to address emotions

properly. They go on to say that Kasl, Cranton and Daloz are addressing emotions and intuitions within their work.

Organizational

Kasl, Marsick and Dechant (1997) define team learning as a process through which groups create knowledge for their members, for themselves as a system, and for others. Senge (1990) describes teams as the fundamental learning units in an organization and goes on to say, unless teams learn, an organization cannot learn. Watkins and Marsick (1993) state that teams and groups can become the medium for moving new knowledge throughout the learning organization and that this type of collaborative structure enhances the organization's ability to learn because it offers ways for exchanges about new ways of working. Kasl and Elias (2000) state that if an individual can learn so can a group, an organization, or a community. There is no organizational learning without individual learning.

From the perspective of organizational transformation, the goal of transformation is to allow the organization to more effectively realize its performance objective (Mezirow, 2000). Transformative learning in this case involves fundamental changes in how organizations function, breaking away organizational actions, and creating new behaviors among its organizational members (Burke & Litwin, 1992).

Yorks and Marsick (as cited in Mezirow & Associates, 2000) argue that action learning and collaborative inquiry can lead to transformative learning in individuals, groups, and organizations. In action learning, people work together in a group to solve a problem; it is through this process that they discover how to learn from that action. Collaborative inquiry is a process of reflection and action in which group members participate together to try to

answer a question. In both types of learning, group members incorporate cycles of action and reflection. Using these types of learning, group members develop the capacity for stepping outside their environment, as well as using action and reflection to reframe a situation and try new ways of thinking and feeling in the safe environment of a group where feedback and critiques are provided.

Marsick (2003) states that transformation in organizations may occur through globalization, knowledge economy, and increasing workforce diversity. Globalization impacts organizations by changing employee contracts, which influence transformative learning in that individuals may be more aware of organizational norms and find it easier to critique them freely. Knowledge economy influences organizations by changing the nature of work. The resulting innovation that invites critical reflection and thinking in a liberal structure relates to transformative learning. Diversity of workforce creates a changing mix of meaning schemes and perspectives and thus can influence transformative learning. People can use many alternative viewpoints that can help them question their own meaning schemes. As Marsick (2003) explains, this period of change creates a climate for unlearning old ways of doing things, but it is not very common for this change to happen.

Social Action Perspective

Mezirow (Mezirow & Associates, 2000) states that new ways of seeing lead to some kind of action. Daloz (2000) describes transformation as a historical, developmental, and social action as illustrated by Nelson Mandela's life, whereas Mezirow describes this process as an incremental transformation. In interactions with others and the environment, a dialogue

and critical discourse is created which, along with perceived experiences, helps the process of transformation.

Social action is placed as the key to transformation and there are four components that play an important part in this process. The first is the presence of others, which Daloz (2000) explains by saying that without diversity, evolution itself could not occur. The second is reflective discourse, the process in which we use dialogue to better understand the meaning of our experience. In order to have a successful discourse, we must place emphasis on empowerment and self-determination. The third component is a mentoring community, by which Daloz (1986) means the power of relationships that affect transformative learning. From a developmentalist point of view, it is through relationships that we understand the Self and it is through a composite of many Selves that we interpret our world. The final component as described by Daloz is the opportunity for committed action. He notes that even though discourse and mentoring are essential to transformative learning, the opportunity to act on ones beliefs and values is ground for growth.

Dialogical (Discourse) Perspective

The primary purpose of a developmental dialogue or discourse, as Mezirow refers to it, is to help the learners engage in different perspectives, different ways of viewing a problem or phenomenon (Daloz, 1999). According to Vella (2002), open dialogue between instructors and participants is essential even at the very beginning of an educational endeavor. Dialogue allows learners to find their own voices when creating a safe environment within the classroom. Another example is the way facilitators are encouraged to

develop sound relationships with participants by practicing listening, open communication, and mutual respect.

Mezirow (Mezirow & Associates, 2000) states that discourse with others plays an important role in transformation. Belenky and Stanton (2000) emphasize transformative learning is participatory and collaborative and by use of dialogue, conversation, storytelling, and perspective sharing, conflicts maybe resolved. However, Cranton (2006) disagrees with their view. She argues that transformation can occur without collaboration and it can be an individual occurrence.

Cultural and Social Perspectives

Cajete (1994) outlines key elements of American Indian perspectives on learning and teaching. He advocates developing a contemporary, culturally based educational process founded upon traditional tribal values, orientations, and principles, while simultaneously using the most appropriate concepts, technologies, and content of modern education. He explains that environmental relationship, myth, visionary traditions, traditional arts, tribal community, and nature-centered spirituality have traditionally formed the foundations of American Indian life for discovering one's true face (character, potential, identity), one's heart (soul, creative self, true passion), and one's foundation (true work, vocation), all of which lead to the expression of a complete life. For Cajete (1994), indigenous education is a process of education grounded in the basics of human nature. It can provide new ways of educating for ecological thinking and environmental sustainability; it has the potential not only for the transformation of what is misnamed "Indian education," but also for profound applications toward transforming modern American education.

Ecological Perspective of Power

McDonald et al. (1999) write that critics have argued for a better understanding of power in transformational learning. They state that Mezirow's transformative learning theory does not adequately account for power relations and a more explicit role for power relations is necessary. Power and context are interdependent (Cervero & Wilson, 1994; Hart, 1990). Clark and Wilson (1991) suggest that the meaning of any experience cannot be understood apart from its context. They explain that the political and social systems in which people negotiate personal change, "actually provide ... meaning" to the discourse that occurs in service to that change (p. 83). Cunningham (1992) criticized Mezirow's theory for its lack of attention to "social transformations and the equalizing of power relations in society" (p. 185).

Ecological understanding of transformative learning promotes the idea that context may be as important as psychology in understanding learning (McDonald, Cervero & Courtenay, 1999). In an ecological sense, the model supported a holistic study of both parts and wholes and viewed the system as an open system (McDonald et al., 1999). McDonald et al. (1999) gave the example of vegans and how their moral-practical questioning, which raises consciousness, is considered an adult educational situation as defined by Mezirow, calling into question deeply held personal values. In this case, power was central to emancipatory and transformative learning, and thus to better view emancipatory and transformative learning, learning should be viewed from a more holistic perspective. McDonald et al. (1999) categorize power as empowerment, which is the capacity to operate within the existing ideology and emancipation, which allows for resistance and challenge to such ideology.

Mezirow does not address the effects of power on learning (McDonald, Cervero & Courtenay, 1999). Power is an implication of the transformational journey. Transformative learning by nature struggles against normative ideologies sustained by power relations (McDonald et al., 1999). Transformative learning theory focuses more on the interpersonal level rather than the organizational level; therefore, from an ecological perspective, transformative learning can only be partly understood (McDonald et al., 1999). Transformative learning began to take effect at the intrapersonal level as a psychological recognition of the truth. When truth is discovered, learners become free to examine or acknowledge the psychological distortions that have motivated them in the past (McDonald et al., 1999).

Transformative learning originates at the intrapersonal level but is affected by and can influence the interpersonal level most profoundly. Although individuals may transform their meaning perspective, they do so in the face of enormous interpersonal and social-cultural challenges. Transformative learning recognizes the need to confront normative ideologies through "critical reflection, rational discourse and collective participatory action" (McDonald et al., 1999, p. 14).

Mytho-poetic Perspective

This perspective is a less developed notion of transformative learning as an imaginative process, mediated through images, feelings, and emotions, and critical reflection in adult lives (Dirkx, 1998a; 1998b). Mytho-poetic theory suggests that meaning in transformative learning is understood through symbols and images, placing more stress on emotion in the learning process (Kritskaya & Dirkx, 2000). The imaginative view allows for

a wider and more integrative interpretation of the experiences that make up the environment (Kritskaya & Dirkx, 2000).

Dirkx (1998b) states that by approaching experiences imaginatively rather than conceptually, learners discover how to locate and construct deep meaning, value, and quality in the relationship between the text and their own life experiences through enduring mythological motifs, themes, and images. Verene (1981) states that the philosophy of imagination "places the image over the concept, the speech over the argument, and the mythic divination over the fact" (p. 30). Images are the way in which we perceive, see and come to know ourselves and the world. They play a critical role in making sense of our experiences by allowing us to find value and meaning in them (Hillman, 1989).

The mytho-poetic perspective places importance on recognizing and understanding the images, which populate consciousness, and these images represent gateways to the unconscious (Dirkx, 1998b). The self is understood and experienced as inner entities which seem to have a life of their own, such as "intentions, behaviors, voices, feelings, that I do not control with my will or cannot connect with my reason" (Hillman, 1975, p. 2).

Looking at these different perspectives as they relates to the research question, the fact that faculty members have the ability to act independently in conducting their online teaching is empowering. The faculty members are constructing new knowledge by interpreting what they have acquired and reinterpreting it so it makes sense to them, leading to possible perspective transformation. This process of interpretation and reinterpretation, reflection, reflective discourse, and meaning-making is key to the faculty members' success. The faculty members transitioning from traditional to online environments experience new

learning through a social exchange, which enables them to be more productive and independent in their design, development, and teaching; however, this empowerment is not from the context of oppression and social change, but rather from a personal change or transformation.

Through interaction and dialogue within the new environment, the faculty members flourish and grow. The "presence of others" (Daloz, 2000), reflective discourse, a mentoring community, and opportunities for committed action allow for the transformation of faculty members in transition. Through the presence of others in the online classroom, the faculty members are exposed to different points of view and therefore get a more holistic view of the situation. Through reflective discourse or dialogue, participants can better understand the meaning of their experience. Through the mentoring community, such as the support staff, other faculty members and teaching assistants, faculty members develop a sense of Self, may be able to see other Selves, and can learn and grow within their profession. And finally, because of their commitment to teach, the faculty members have the opportunity to act on and practice their new beliefs, as well as to grow, change, and improve their existing knowledge and situation.

Central to transformative learning is critical reflection (Mezirow, 1991), even though Cranton (2006) believes that transformation may happen without critical reflection. Without critical reflection, these faculty members may face problems in their transition from traditional to online classroom because they may fail to consider using a new perspective to change their ways from how they taught in a face-to-face classroom. Their old perspectives may not be enough or suitable in this new environment. Through critical reflection, they can

challenge their own previous thoughts and frames of reference to see and understand more clearly. Brookfield (1995) argues that reflection is not by definition, critical. He describes that reflection becomes critical when we concentrate on two assumptions. The first is "to understand how considerations of power undergird, frame, and distort educational processes and interactions"; the second is "to question assumptions and practices that seem to make our teaching lives easier but actually work against our own best interest" (p. 8).

It is important for the faculty members to be able to look at their transition from traditional to online classroom holistically. The process they go through does not have to be an individualistic process. By consulting and collaborating with other faculty members, they can have a transformative learning experience through expansion of their consciousness and belief system, and be able to have a worldview but yet know the Self. In the process of their transition, the faculty members question their frames of reference and meaning perspectives in order to understand and be able to identify themselves with the new situation.

Dialogue is a big component of transformative learning (Daloz, 1999) and it is through dialogue and interaction that one begins to have insight, to see the way others view things, and to make meaning of those experiences. It is through this dialogue that the faculty members will be able to improve their existing knowledge and also open doors to the unknown and get the opportunity to discover.

Transformative learning is more of a journey and less of a decision at any given point in time. It is not just the decision to adopt a new expectation or meaning perspective but is a process continuing past the decision to adopt a new perspective; this process may include interaction with others as one learns how to apply new perspectives. The faculty members'

learning and gaining knowledge of online classrooms gave them freedom to act on in their new environment without dependency; I recognize this as power. In this section I have included a conceptual map of transformative learning theory as I envision it (Figure 3).

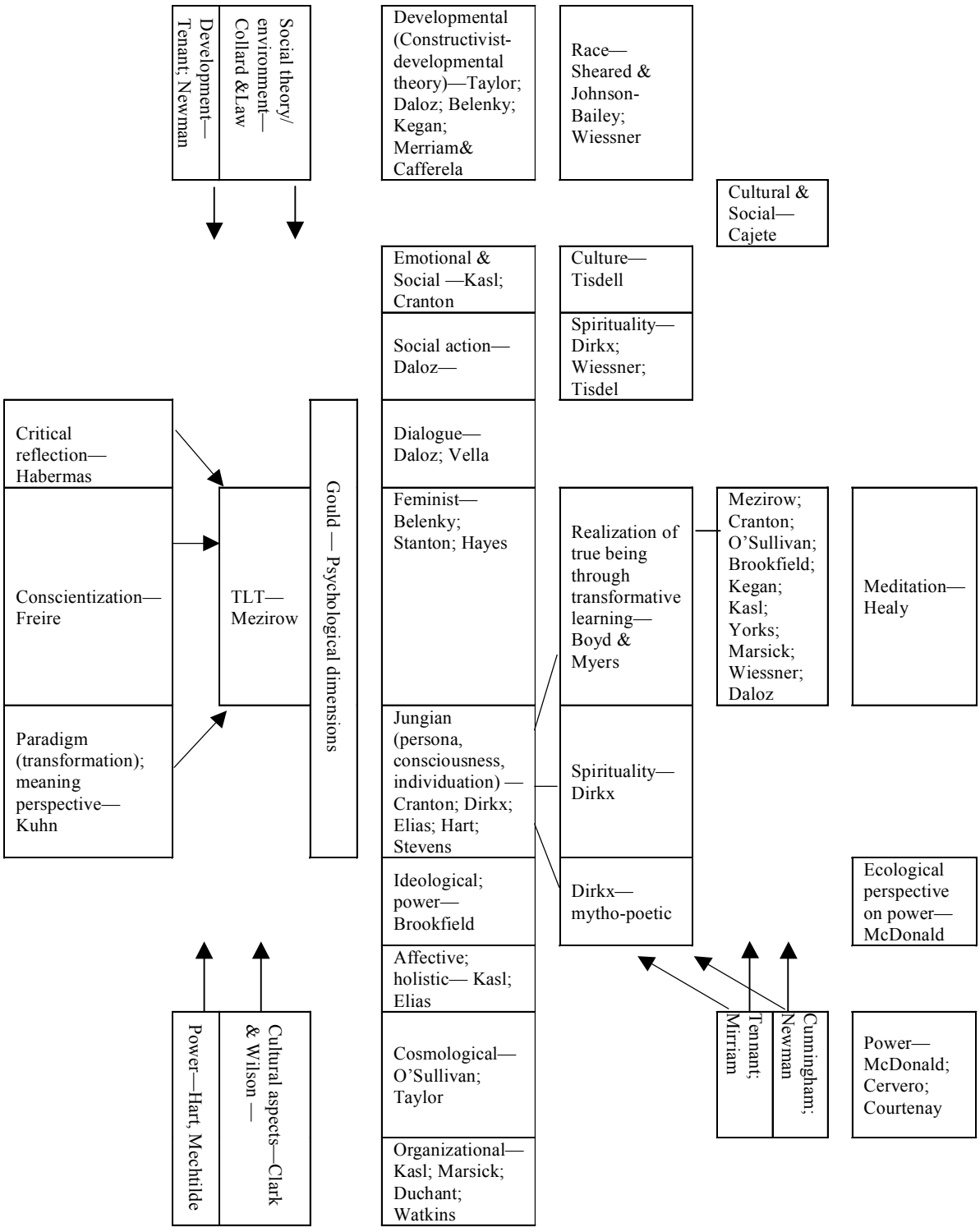


Figure 3: Conceptual map of transformative learning theory

Relationship Between Transformative Learning Theory and Other Adult learning Theories, and the Difference between Transformation and Change

In this section of the literature review, I have looked at the relationship between transformative learning theory and other adult learning theories, how transformative learning theory fits among other theories, and the distinctions made between transformation and change.

Relationship Between Transformative Learning Theory and Other Adult learning Theories

Constructivism. Constructivism specifies that meaning is a function of how the individual creates meaning from his experiences and actions. In constructivist perspective, the learner is viewed as an active participant in the instructional experience by developing knowledge through a process of perception and meaning-making (Dabbagh & Nanna-Ritland, 2005). Merriam and Caffarella (1999) define constructivism as the process of constructing meaning and how people make sense of their experience. They explain that meaning is constructed by the individual and is dependent on the individual's previous and current knowledge structure. Merriam and Caffarella (1999) find that the process of meaning-making is both an individual mental activity and a socially interactive exchange. From the social constructivist view, Driver, Asoko, Leach, Mortimer, and Scott (1994) state that knowledge is constructed when individuals engage socially and actively about a problem; the researchers conclude that meaning-making is a dialogic process involving individuals in a learning process in contact with a culture or a group of people.

Aspects of constructivism can be found in many kinds of learning: self-directed learning, transformative learning, experiential learning, situated cognition (which is

constructivist in nature as linked to professional education), reflective practices, situated learning, communities of practice, and cognitive apprenticeship (Merriam and Caffarella, 1999).

Transformative learning theory has its context in constructivism, critical theory and deconstructivism in social theory, and the cognitive revolution in psychology (Mezirow, 1991; Cranton, 1994). In the constructivist perspective, learning is a process of accumulating and constructing knowledge by individuals' perceptions of the world (Cranton, 1994). It is a process of construing meaning and transforming understanding. Mezirow concentrated both on social and individual meaning construction (Mezirow, 1991).

Mezirow (1991) explains that it is not so much what happens to people but how they interpret what happens to them that determines their actions, hopes, contentment, emotional well being, and performance. Two components discussed in the context of constructivism are perspective transformation and role of experience (Mezirow, 1991; Mezirow, 1997; Rossiter, 1999; Benson & Tallman, 2001; Merriam, 2001).

Constructivist assumptions underlying transformative learning theory include convictions that meaning exists within ourselves rather than in external forms such as books and that personal meanings that we attribute to our experience are acquired and validated through human interaction and communication (Mezirow, 1991). From a constructivist's point of view, human growth is the reconstruction or transformation of systems of meaning (Mezirow, 2000)

Feminist theory. Tisdell (1995) has categorized feminist theories into individually focused theories, structural theories, and postmodern theories. Individually focused feminist

theories are concerned with women as individuals, with how they have come to internalize patriarchy as the norm and what needs to be done to obtain equal access, rights, and opportunities (Tisdell, 1995). Structural feminist theories deal with problems in terms of societal structures and institutions that oppress women, while postmodern or poststructural feminist theorists look at problems as how they are framed by the structuralists (Tisdell, 1995). The poststructural feminist theorists do not believe that one or even two systems of power and oppression adequately capture the reality of women's experience and oppression because "some groups are more privileged than others within particular structural units" (Tisdell, 1995, p. 61).

In the postmodern feminist perspective, individuals have some power to affect or resist the status quo; thus they "tend to account for multiple systems of privilege and oppression and their intersections, along with people's capacity for agency and resistance" (Tisdell, 1995, p. 61). In their book *Woman's Ways of Knowing,* Belenky et al. (1997) have associated the more effective and appropriate ways of women's learning in the work place and in formal education with the competitive and individualistic modes of knowing associated with men. Hayes (2001) believes that women speak different languages. She explains that there are two prevalent and interrelated sets of beliefs about women as learners, which include significance of relationships or "connection," and effective ways of learning. Hayes (2001) believes that all learning is intertwined with the context in which it occurs and that attributes of women's learning are not innate, fixed, and uniform across situations but are connected to a particular set of situational, social, and historical circumstances and thus changeable as those circumstances change.

Belenky and Stanton (2000) look at women's ways of knowing as a theory of developmental process tracing women's struggles to gain voice and claim power of mind. They state that although Mezirow's theory of transformative learning describes an endpoint of a developmental process, it does not trace the steps people take before they realize what they already know (Belenky and Stanton, 2000). Belenky and Stanton (2000) believe that in every area of life, the old dualistic categories and assumptions of men and women must be reevaluated and replaced with more integrative ways of thinking. The feminist thinkers have reexamined the kinds of dualistic categories that shape the ways we conceptualize men and women; the feminist thinkers are concerned with reclaiming the rights that have been denied simply because of being women (Belenky and Stanton, 2000). Belenky and Stanton (2000) state that these feminists question why only men and their experiences are the center of human experiences and they draw attention to the importance of both genders experiences.

Critical theory and postmodern theory. Critical theory was developed in the 1920's by a group of intellectuals who were influenced by Hegel and Marx at the Institute of Frankfurt (Newman, 1999). They looked to develop a critique constructed on the idea of a person who achieves both self-knowledge and knowledge of the world through reflection and action (Newman, 1999). Newman (1999) believes that this kind of self-reflection is transformative for the individual in that it allows the person to come to know herself or himself at a higher level of consciousness and also allows for reflection on history that is transformative in the political and social sense. Newman (1999) believes that the struggle for social justice is central to critical theory and believes that all three forms of knowledge as

defined by Habermas (technical, practical, and emancipatory) can have their place in this struggle.

Different people have defined critical theory from their own point of view. Fay (1987, p. 27) suggests that "a critical theory wants to explain a social order in such a way that it becomes itself the catalyst which leads to the transformation of this social order." Welton (1995) believes that critical theory is a theory of history and society that is driven by the commitment and social structures hinder and impede development of a human's potential to be self-reflective and self-determining.

Horkheimer (1995) states that critical theory is grounded in a particular political analysis; a conflicting relationship between social classes within an economy based on the exchange of commodities. In this regard, Brookfield (1995) explains that "A transformative adult learning experience such as going to college and finding one's world view radically altered, becomes viewed by us as the pursuit of a qualification that can be exchanged for higher salary and status" (p. 25). Horkheimer (1995) says that critical theory is concerned with providing people with knowledge and understanding intended to free them from oppression. He further explains that the point of the theory is to generate knowledge that will change, not interpret, the world. Brookfield (1995) finds that by this statement Horkheimer has indicated that "Critical theory qualifies for that most overused of adjectives, transformative" (p. 25).

Rasmussen (1996) believes that critical theory derives its basic insight from the idea that thought can transform itself through a process of self-reflection in history. Kilgore (2001) believes that knowledge is socially constructed and takes form in the eyes of the

knower rather than being acquired from existing reality. She notes that knowledge is socially constructed and situated in a particular context. She states that power plays an important role in socially constructing knowledge.

Brookfield (1995) states that postmodernism and critical theory both question the idea that "people act as autonomous entities in realizing or discovering core desires" (p. 51). He believes that postmodernism states that because our lives are embedded in social and cultural contexts that are constantly shifting, freedom has no universal face and how freedom is seen depends on time and location. Kilgore (2001) explains that in both critical and postmodern perspectives, knowledge is socially constructed and situated in a particular context. She states that the primary difference between postmodern and critical perspectives is that critical theorists assume that rationality is a means to better knowledge and that people tend to know what they are interested in being able to do. Postmodern theorists see knowledge as contextual rather waiting to be discovered (Bagnall, 1999) and also as tentative, multifaceted and not rational (Kilgore, 2001). In the Table 2, Kilgore (2001) has drawn a comparison between critical and postmodern worldviews.

Table 2: *Comparison of Critical and Postmodern Worldviews*

Critical Theory	**Postmodernism**
Knowledge is a rational product of human interest	Knowledge is tentative, multifaceted, not necessarily rational
Power is possessed by subjects, repressive	Power is expressed by subjects, productive
Knowledge frees subject from power	Knowledge is an expression of power
Learning is achieved through critical reflection, consciousness raising	Learning is achieved through deconstruction, eclecticism

A critical theory may be distinguished from a traditional theory based on a specific purpose. A theory is considered critical when it seeks human emancipation, "to liberate human beings from the circumstances that enslave them" (Horkheimer, 1995). As it relates to transformative learning, Freire discusses the concepts of emancipation and liberation. Freire (1983) believes that in order for education to be liberating, one's consciousness must be transformed. He calls this process of transformation *conscientization*, "in which men, not as recipients but as knowing subjects, achieve a deepening awareness both of the sociocultural reality that shapes their lives and of their capacity to transform reality" (Freire, 1983, P. 27).

Critical social theory. Scott (1997) believes that social structures and collective culture shape reality and individual identity. She states that theorists initiate their inquiry from the level of material and social conditions, focusing on the disjuncture between how those in power claim things are and how things actually are.

Grabove (1997) writes that transformative learning, just as in critical social theory, relies on critical reflection and dialogue to uncover meaning. Social theorists view personal transformation as either dialectic in social interaction and action or as a by-product of social forces at play (Scott, 1997). Scott (1997) puts forward grieving as an example of critical social theory and states that the "letting go" part of grieving constitutes transformation. The "letting go of grief" frame of reference has been uncritically assimilated and is moving away from what used to be a meaningful state of being. In order to facilitate transformation from a rational perspective, Scott says that we talk to someone, using dialogue as a way to sort out the meaning of loss and begin to heal. Scott (1997) notes that the dialectical process in critical reflection and meaning-making is what causes transformation. Transformation is in

seeing (your belief system); it occurs while dwelling on your thoughts and in how your soul copes with your loss.

Brookfield (as cited in Mezirow, 2000) explains that based on the Freirean school of thought, reflection only becomes critical when it leads to transformation; Freire believed that without social action, critical reflection is only a form of speculation that makes no real difference to anything. Mezirow has responded to this critique of transformative learning theory by distinguishing between transformation as habits of mind and as transforming structures. He notes that significant personal and social transformation may result from this kind of critical reflection. In transformative learning, Mezirow (Mezirow & Associates, 2000) explains that upon reflection, one can decide to change one's behavior or not.

Context-based learning and situated cognition. Hansman (2001) notes that the real-world experience of learning is crucial to context-based learning; this type of learning is approached through situations not subjects. Learning is put into context by paying attention to interactions among people and their environment within a learning situation (Hansman, 2001). He states that learning can take place in many settings. Hansman (2001) states that knowledge, skills and abilities of "just plain folks" are valued; this view allows adult educators to create or enhance contexts for adult learning that empowers learners to share in the design, process, and evaluation of learning activities in communities of practice. It also enables the members of the community to discover, shape, and make explicit their own knowledge.

Hansman (2001) relates context-based learning to situated cognition by stating that in situated cognition, learning is a social event. The nature of the interactions among the

learners, the tools they use for interaction, the activity itself, and the social context shape the learning. Situated cognition emphasizes interactions among people. In transformative learning, the socialization of people and their interaction with the environment affects the way they make meaning of their experience. In this context, dialogue plays an important role.

Situated cognition theory and communities of practice. The idea in situated cognition is that learning is inherently social in nature and is a recurring process in which adults act and interact within their social situations. The emphasis is on the interaction between the learner and other learners and tools in a socio-cultural context (Grabove, 1997; Hansman, 2001).

Lave and Wenger (1991) describe the first component of situated learning as cognitive apprenticeship, where learning involves personal development as well as development in interpersonal and community processes. From a situated learning point of view, people learn as they participate and become involved with a community of learning, through interacting with the community and learning to understand its history, assumptions, cultural rules, and values (Lave and Wenger, 1991). As Lave and Wenger (1991) explain, this type of learning is accomplished through modeling, approximating, scaffolding, fading, and generalizing. The second component of situated learning, as defined by Lave and Wenger (1991), is communities of practice, which are informal, self-organized, and selected groups of people who share a common sense of purpose, a desire to learn, and to know what each other knows.

Building on Lave and Wenger, Hansman (2001) explains that the dimensions of relations within communities of practice are with mutual agreement, joint enterprise and shared repertoire. In addition, Hansman (2001) states that from a situated learning point of

view, people learn as they participate and become intimately involved with a community or culture of learning. They interact with the community, learning to understand and participate in its history and assumptions, as well as its cultural values and rules (Hansman, 2001). Here, learning is situated in interactions among peripheral participants and full participants in a community of meaning (Hansman, 2001).

Situated cognition has two tenets (Bredo, 1994). The first tenet is that meanings are perceived as inseparable from interpretation and knowledge; meanings are linked to the relationships of which they are a product (Bredo, 1994). The second tenet is that every thought is a reconstruction because the memory we possess is not a stored memory but a process memory (Bredo, 1994). On the other hand, Clancey (1995) says that the situated cognition perspective does not deal with relationships between entities but deals with the system as a whole, coexisting and jointly defining meanings.

Self-directed learning. Knowles (1975) defines self-directed learning as a process in which learners take initiative for analysis and diagnosis of their learning needs, formulate personal learning goals, identify how to achieve them, and reflect on their achievement. Merriam and Caffarella (1999) categorize the goals of self-directed learning into three groups: 1) to enhance the ability of adult learners to be self-directed in their learning, 2) to foster transformative learning as central to self-directed learning, and 3) to promote emancipatory learning and social action as a vital part of self-directed learning. In order for faculty development to be emancipatory or transformative, it is important that they have control over their learning and access to resources they need (Grabove, 1997). Mezirow (1985, p. 27) suggests that "There is no self-directed learner, except in the sense that there is

a learner who can participate fully and freely in the dialogue through which we test our interests and perspectives against those of others and accordingly modify them and our learning goals." He goes on to say that adult learners, in order to learn, need to reflect critically and have an understanding of their reasons for their needs and interests. The process of becoming a self-directed learner may be a transformative learning experience (Cranton, 1996). Cranton (1996) notes that while teaching is often a solitary activity, even truer for those who teach online, learning to teach online often becomes primarily a self-directed pursuit.

Informal and incidental learning. Marsick and Watkins (2001) contrast informal and incidental learning with formal learning. They define formal learning as a type of learning which is classroom-based, highly structured, and usually a sponsored event. Incidental learning, which falls in the category of informal learning, involves types of learning that typically are not classroom-based and the control of learning usually falls into the hands of the learner. Informal learning is usually intentional but not highly structured, whereas in incidental learning, people are not always conscious of their learning (Marsick & Watkins, 1990). Informal and incidental learning both take place in the process of doing, but not in a planned way.

Marsick and Watkins (2001) state that informal and incidental learning can take place wherever people have the opportunity for learning. Marsick and Volpe (1999) have determined several characteristics for informal learning. They believe informal learning can be integrated with daily life, may be triggered by an internal or external jolt, is not highly

conscious, may be haphazard, and may be influenced by chance. Informal learning is a reductive process of reflection and action, and is linked to learning of others.

Marsick & Watkins (2001) state that there are three conditions required in order to enhance learning. The first is the use of critical reflection to bring to the surface tacit knowledge and beliefs. The second requires proactivity on the part of learner to actively identify options and learning new skills. The final condition is the use of creativity to encourage a wider range of options. Marsick & Watkins (2001) believe that without critical reflection, it is equally possible to hold incorrect as well as correct assumptions.

Both informal and incidental learning are learner-centered, wherein lessons are learned from life experiences. Informal and incidental learning are linked to experiential learning, self-directed learning, reflection in action, critical reflection and transformative learning, situated cognition, and communities of practice.

Experiential learning. Kolb (1984) defines experiential learning as the process by which experience is transformed into knowledge. In reviewing Kolb's work, Illeris (2004) states that Kolb views all learning as essentially experiential learning and is concerned only with cognitive dimensions of learning. Illeris (2004) believes that it is crucial that experiential learning is included in all three dimensions of learning—cognitive, psychodynamic, and societal.

Merriam and Caffarella (1999) explain that for Jarvis (1987), all experience occurs within a social situation, which is in the context within one's life experience. Jarvis (1987) defines experiential learning as the result of a person's experimenting with their environment. Jarvis's model of learning begins with a person moving into a social situation

where there is potential for a learning experience. He explains that the learner might take nine different routes, which may result in learning. The first three are non-learning, the second three are non-reflective and the final three are reflective learning. Jarvis calls the three final learning as higher forms of learning.

Meaning-making. Ignelzi (2000) notes some key developmental principles, which are useful in considering how humans experience and learn. The first is that humans actively construct their own reality. Kegan (1982, 1994) calls this process meaning-making. The second principle is that meaning-making develops over time and with experience. Kegan (1994) explains that meaning-making is a process that continues to develop throughout one's life span. He goes on further to say that in this developmental process there must be a bridge which provides a path to cross over from the current way of understanding to the new way (Kegan, 1994, 2000) as also noted by the constructive developmental theory. Ignelzi (2000) says that it is important to note that meaning-making is not the same as intellectual property or ability. Meaning-making is a developmental measure of how individuals organize their experience, which evolves over time (Kritskaya & Dirkx, 2000).

Transformative learning theory uses the concept of meaning-making as one of its main components; other components include thoughts and feelings, relationships, personal contextual factors (such as readiness for change) and culture (Taylor, 2000), power dynamics (Smith, 2002), and emotions (Daloz, 1999). I believe that transformative learning theory has strong links to constructivism, self-directed learning, experiential learning, and situated cognition for the following reasons: it is through constructivism that individuals create meaning form their experiences and actions; self-directed learning allows learners to analyze

and diagnose their own learning needs and goals, and to define a plan to achieve them which calls for critical reflection; experiential learning allows time for the learner to think, reflect and transform their experience into knowledge; and finally, situated cognition permits learners to learn as they participate and interact with their surroundings, affecting the way they learn and transform.

Differences between Transformation and Change

In order to make sense of how the faculty members' transition from traditional to online classrooms has affected their teaching and learning paradigms, we need to understand how they have changed or transformed in this process. This section defines the differences between transformation and change.

In drawing a comparison between change and transformation, it seems that in going through change, one is not abandoning one's values and perceptions (Senge, 1990) but in a transformation, we question our beliefs and what they stand for, and try to make meaning of new concepts (Mezirow, 1991). Therefore, in a transformation, some of a person's values and beliefs will be questioned.

Kegan (2000) notes that transformation can refer to any kind of change or process at all, known as change in learning what we know. Transformative learning aims at changes not only in what we know but changes in how we know. Learning could be considered transformative when it involves development of the capacity for abstract thinking.

Senge (1990) explains that change does not mean abandoning one's values and precepts. He goes on to say that we must learn not to abandon the core while simultaneously letting go of past ways of doing things. Looking at transformation, Kegan (2000) says that

transformation should not refer to just any kind of change, even those that are dramatic and consequential changes. He says that changes in one's knowledge, confidence as a learner, self-perception as a learner, motives in learning, and self esteem are all worthy of noting but it is possible for any number of these changes to take place without any transformation taking place because they could all occur within an existing frame of reference. Mezirow (1991) considers changes in transformative learning as those changes in the basic perceptions of context and meaning complexes that are deeply incorporated from childhood and are often unconsciously the basis for the individual's meaning schemes and meaning perspectives.

Burke (2002) defines two types of change in an organization. The first is revolutionary or transformational change. In this type of change, an initial activity calls attention to a dramatic modification of mission or strategy, or the prospect of a new, unforeseen competitor. A transformation requires immediate attention from all members of the organization. The second type of change is known as evolutionary or continuous change. In this type of change, improvement measures are taken into consideration and acted upon. Continuous improvement may require the attention of only certain segments of the organization population.

Porras and Robertson (1992) also define two types of change. First order changes are those that involve continuous improvement or modifications to the existing system characteristics. This is also referred to as developmental or evolutionary change. Second order changes are more radical, fundamental changes. Change to the fundamentals of an organization is known as transformational or revolutionary change.

In transformative learning theory, three types of transformation are defined. Transformations in habits of mind may be epochal, which are sudden and dramatic insight; they may be incremental, gradual or developmental; or they may simply be awareness of an existing meaning system (Mezirow, 1991; Mezirow and Associates, 2000). Harris (2002) observes that developmental stage theorists share transformative learning theorists' interests in transformations of individuals' meaning systems. However, rather than assuming a common capacity for reflection and framing, they describe major transformations that involve an individual's differentiation from elements of his or her Self, a process that influences what he or she can reflect upon. Evolving from one stage to the next involves integrating the previous meaning system into a new meaning system. Harris (2000) goes on to say that since evolution from one stage to another involves a fundamental change in the Self, there is not only a change in what is framed, reflected upon, or done but also a change in the person who is framing and reflecting at each stage. Harris explains further that transformative learning processes facilitate developmental evolution but not all transformative learning involves transformation from one stage to another. It is the meaning system that can be transformed and enhanced within stages, but what is experienced as transformative at one stage may not be transformative at later stages.

Golia (2003) explains that through transformative learning, we examine and question our experiences, how they color what we perceive, and what meaning we give our experiences. She goes on to say that if we experience an event that is out of the ordinary in our lives, we examine our expectations built on prior experiences and alter how we view the world. She defines this event or disorienting dilemma as change. To Golia, how we process

and respond to the change experience is what leads to learning and development, to transformation. Mezirow (1991) also observed that people can change through learning.

Richardson and Placier (2001) examined teachers changing in terms of learning, development, socialization, growth, improvement, and implementation of something new or different, as well as cognitive and affective change. The researchers divided these changes into two categories. The first category includes voluntary and naturalistic changes, which are related to the person's background, personality, experience, and their different approaches to change. The second category includes the teacher's stages of development. Richardson and Placier refer to the term "development" as a concept of learning. Accordingly, the authors take into consideration those developmental changes that take place during the formal preparation of teachers as they move towards becoming experienced and expert teachers.

Summary

By considering the literature regarding transformative learning, its relationship to other learning theories, and the distinctions made between transformation and change, we can better understand and identify the experiences the faculty members encounter in their journey between traditional and online environments. This body of literature provides ways first, to identify the assumptions faculty members have about their teaching and learning paradigms; second, to identify their traditional teaching practices; and finally, to identify how both their assumptions and practices were changed or transformed in this transition.

As a faculty members transition from traditional to online classrooms, the transition is not in isolation from their teaching and learning environment. Consciously or unconsciously, faculty members are affected by their students, their colleagues and their surroundings. All

three affect the way these faculty members practice, causing them to question their assumptions regarding their teaching and learning practices. It is the way they make meaning of their interactions in the environment in which they are "situated" that will influence the way they practice; their success or failure depends on their interaction with their situation. Merriam and Caffarella (1991) state, "Even miseducative experiences may be regarded as learning experiences…all learning begins with experience" (p. 256). This observation suggests that perhaps the faculty members in transition not only are learning from what they read in the literature and manuals to assist their transition process from traditional to online environments, but that they are gaining their knowledge through their peripheral participation with their students, colleagues and their community of practice.

In reviewing the literature and having presented at numerous conferences, I have found the assumptions that faculty members have regarding their teaching and learning as they transition from traditional to online environment is an increasingly popular topic in adult education and distance education disciplines and venues. Yet, there are very few studies that, at a deeper level, look at faculty members transitioning from traditional to online classroom, that explore faculty members' assumptions regarding their own teaching and learning in this transition process, and that investigate how they view this transition as teachers and learners.

In my effort to understand how faculty members transition from a traditional to online environment, what their perceptions are, and how they believe their learning and teaching takes place, I have reviewed three different types of literature including the comparison of faculty member's teaching methods from traditional to online classroon, situated learning and communites of practice and transformative learning theory. In order to situate my study and

participants of this study, I have compared the faculty member's teaching methods as they transition from traditional to online classroom, the changes they face ad the difference between the two environments and looked at the different roles faculty members hold in these environments and the characteristics they have.

The second section talks about situated learning and communties practice establishing the fact that the faculty members are not alone in their transition and that they within a community. The third type of literature talks about the transformatibe learning theory. I have not found literature addressing this deeper level of understanding about the transition of faculty members and their changes and transformations they face, which I categorize as a gap in the literature and most important to this study. Through this research, I have undertaken to understand how faculty members perceived their transition from traditional to online classrooms, how this transition affected their assumptions and held beliefs about their teaching and learning paradigms and their practice, and how the faculty members experienced changes as they transition from traditional to online environments.

In analyzing the data collected during this case study, it became apparent that three new types of literature were required to support the finding of this study. These literature types include research on presence, image metaphors, and emotional intelligence. They are presented in chapter 5.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

This research investigated faculty members who have taught in both face-to-face and online environments and explored the experiences faculty members had while transitioning from traditional to online environment. It explored their teaching and learning assumptions, transformations they experienced, and how they believed their learning and teaching practices were affected though this process. The purpose of this study was to understand how faculty members discovered and examined their assumptions about their teaching and learning practices in face-to-face and online environments. Three questions guided this research:

1. How do faculty members describe their transition from teaching face-to-face to teaching in online environments?
2. What personal, professional, pedagogical or other assumptions do faculty members hold about teaching and learning in traditional and online environments before starting their transition and how do those assumptions change after their transition?
3. How are the changes the faculty members experience as they transition from traditional to online environments defined along a continuum in relation to change theories?

Through case studies involving selected faculty members, the general approach to this research study was to gain greater understanding of personal, professional, or pedagogical assumptions that faculty members hold about teaching and learning in traditional and online environments. The goals also included understanding how learning takes place in this

transition process as well as how the faculty members' teaching paradigms are affected. The participants of this study were selected based on the following characteristics: their experience in teaching in both traditional and online environments, their successful transition from traditional to online classrooms, and their being located at a local university.

This chapter has outlined the research design for the study. Included is a discussion about the conceptual framework of the study, the data collection methods, data analysis, and ethical issues, followed by strategies for validating findings in the study.

Research Design

This research has undertaken an in-depth exploration of how faculty members' learning and teaching paradigms are affected in transitioning from a traditional to an online environment. This research study was conducted as a heuristic multiple case study (Stake, 1995; Yin, 1994), meaning participants at various locations were interviewed. A heuristic case study illuminates the reader's understanding of the phenomenon under study and brings about the discovery of new meaning, extends the reader's experience, or confirms what was known (Merriam, 1998). Stake (1981) described case studies as follows:

> Previously unknown relationships and variables can be expected to emerge from case studies leading to a rethinking of the phenomenon being studied. Insights into how things get to be the way they are can be expected to result from case studies. (Stake, 1981, p. 47)

The reason for reviewing several cases was that it was very difficult to draw meaning from only one single case or to identify major patterns (Kennedy, 1979). Merriam (1998)

states that the more cases are included in the study, the more compelling an interpretation is likely to be.

> By looking at a range of similar and contrasting cases, we can understand a single-case finding, grounding it by specifying how and where and if possible, why it occurred as it did. We can strengthen the precision, the validity, and the stability of the findings. (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 29)

Since I reviewed five cases, I have first provided a detailed description of each case and the themes within each case, which Creswell (1998) calls a within-case analysis, and then I have conducted a cross-case analysis (Creswell, 1998) of the emergent themes. Each of the five cases was comprised of one faculty member, one of the respective faculty member's colleagues, and one of the respective faculty member's students for a total of 15 participants. The boundaries of these cases were the duration of a semester for faculty members who transitioned successfully from traditional to online classrooms. Through this data analysis, a detailed description of the cases and a series of themes have emerged (Stake, 1995).

The data collection process consisted of semi-structured interviewing of the faculty members in multiple departments, along with teaching artifacts and related documents. The purpose of interviews was for the participants to reflect on recent behavior, to discuss changes in detail and give accounts of events, to record their responses and interpretations, and to describe how they negotiated meaning (Marshall & Rossman, 1999).

Qualitative approach

For the purposes of this study, a qualitative methodology was used (Marshall & Rossman, 1999) because the research deals with human actions, thoughts and behaviors that

are influenced by the environment in which they take place. Merriam (1998) states that qualitative research is an umbrella concept covering different inquiries that help us understand and explain the meaning of a social phenomenon with little disruption to the natural setting. She explains that qualitative researchers are interested in understanding how people experience their world and how they make meaning of it. This study focused on the individual's lived experiences and depended heavily on descriptive and narrative data in order to understand actions, thoughts and behaviors of these individuals.

Creswell (2003) defines the qualitative approach as follows:

> The researcher often makes knowledge claims based on constructivist perspectives (i.e., the multiple meanings of individual experiences, meanings socially and historically constructed, with an intent to develop a theory or pattern) or advocacy and/or participatory perspectives (i.e., political, issue-oriented, collaborative, or change oriented) or both. It also uses strategies of inquiry such as narrative, grounded theory studies, phenomenologies, ethnographies, or case studies. The researcher collects open-ended, emerging data with the primary intent of developing themes from the data. (p. 18)

Glesne and Peshkin (1992) state that in a qualitative study, the research deals with 'socially constructed' realities which require the researcher to understand and interpret how different participants of the study construct the world around them and how they make meaning of their experience. They explain that qualitative research is an evolutionary process with a problem statement, a design, interview questions, and interpretations that develop and change along the way. Openness of qualitative research allows the researcher to approach the

complex social interactions of the participants, do justice to that complexity, to respect it in its own right by immersing themselves in the setting of lives of others, and to use multiple means to gather data (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992).

Case study approach

This study assumed the case study research tradition of inquiry. A case study is "an exploration of a bounded system over time through detailed, in-depth data collection involving multiple sources of information rich in context" (Creswell, 1998, p. 61). Yin (1994) defines case studies as research on a specific organization, program, or process. Marshall and Rossman (1999) argue that case studies, for data collection, rely on historical and document analysis, interviewing, and some forms of observation. They state that case studies take the researcher into a setting with detail not typically presented in a more analytic format. Merriam states: "A qualitative case study is an ideal design for understanding and interpreting observations of educational phenomena" (Merriam, 1998 p. 2). She states that a qualitative case study represents "an intensive, holistic description and analysis of a single entity, phenomenon, or social unit" (p.10).

Merriam (1998) states that determining what constitutes a case depends on delimiting the object of study, meaning that the case is a single entity with boundaries. With this in mind, then, a case maybe a person, a program, a group, a community, and so on. Miles and Huberman (1994) define a case as "a phenomenon of some sort occurring in a bounded context" (p. 25). They envision the case with a heart at the center surrounded by a circle that defines the case's boundary; outside the circle will not be studied. Yin (1989) suggests that

case studies should be utilized if answering questions of "how" or "why" when the researcher has little control over real-life events.

Merriam (1998) explains that there is no one or any single method of data collection or data analysis in a case study. She states that researchers using a case study approach are interested in insight, discovery, and interpretation of a phenomenon; by concentrating on a case, the researcher can uncover the interaction of different factors with the phenomena. Yin (1994) observes that a case study is a design best suited to situations in which it is impossible to separate the phenomenon's variables from its context. Tellis (1997) states that case studies can be seen to satisfy the three tenets of the qualitative method: describing, understanding, and explaining. Tellis (1997) goes on to say that a case study is done by paying special attention to completeness in observation, reconstruction, and analysis of the cases under study in order to understand meaning and to find patterns and themes.

Merriam (1998) characterizes case studies as being heuristic, particularistic, or descriptive. Heuristic means that case studies bring about discovery of new meaning, extend the reader's experience or confirm what is known. Particularistic case studies focus on a particular situation, event, program, or phenomenon. A descriptive case study means that the end product is a rich and thick description of the phenomenon under study.

For the purposes of this research, I have used a descriptive case study. Merriam (1998) presents several characteristics of a descriptive case study. A descriptive case study sheds light on the complexities of a situation; it can give the advantage of hindsight yet can be relevant to the present. Merriam (1998) states that this sort of case study can show the influence of personalities as well as the influence of passage of time on the issue. A

descriptive case study can include materials such as quotations, interviews, and scholarly articles, and the researcher may gather information from a variety of sources. It can also present differences of opinion on an issue, suggesting how these differences influence the results; further, a descriptive case study can present information in a variety ways and from different viewpoints.

Conceptual Framework

In the process of faculty members' transition from traditional to online classrooms, the faculty members critically reflected on their teaching and tried to identify the assumptions that undergirded how they practiced. Brookfield (1995) argues that in order for us to become critically reflective, we need to find a way that we can reflect back on ourselves, to be able to see a picture of who we are and what we do. He specifically studied teachers and states that the most effective way to become aware of these assumptions is to view the teachers' practice from four different but interrelated perspectives or lenses.

Brookfield (1995) describes the four different lenses: autobiographical reflection; the lens represented by the student's eyes; the lens provided by the colleague's perceptions and experiences; and finally, the lens of the literature used as my framework. Through autobiographical reflection, Brookfield instructs us to look at ourselves as learners and teachers. Telling the story of our experience as a learner allows a connection with our students and often brings an insight into our teaching practices that we feel strongly about but that might be disconnected from our students. As teachers, these stories make us realize our individual dilemmas and bring meaning to our experiences and pedagogical beliefs. Our

autobiographical perspective allows us to embrace or change our ways and practices as teachers.

Brookfield (1995) states that viewing ourselves through a student's eyes is one of the most surprising elements of a teacher's career. He believes that seeing one's practice through students' eyes leads us to teach more responsibly and responsively. Without this perspective, the job of teaching well is not accomplished. Further, Brookfield explains that by taking into consideration the perspective of our colleagues, we can gain access to their version of events that we also experienced so as to gain new insights. Through hearing their stories and experiences, we can mirror our own against them and "be able to check, reframe and broaden our own theories of practice" (p. 35). Brookfield (1995) asserts that theories in the literature help us to name our experiences and allow us to see alternative frameworks for the situations we come across, enabling us to interpret them more accurately. Brookfield (1995) also emphasizes that by studying the theoretical literature, "it becomes a psychological and political survival necessity through which teachers come to understand the link between their private troubles and broader political processes" (p.37).

Through describing the faculty members' "critically reflective journey" in transitioning from traditional to online classrooms, this study looked at faculty members' teaching and learning paradigms. Through their critical reflective practice of teaching and learning, and using the multiple lenses involved in that process, the faculty members could move in a direction where the outcomes best reflect the interests of specific students in specific situations (Brookfield, 1995).

Data Collection Methods

Participants

In order to select the participant of this study, I requested a list from the university distance education and learning technology application (DELTA) office that indicated all faculty members who had started to teach in an online environment within the past two semesters. The list was very comprehensive. Reading through the list, I chose to contact those faculty members whose concentration was in humanities, education, social sciences, and languages because of my own familiarity in this field of study. I e-mailed each one of them numerous times and after explaining my research, I requested interviews with them. At the end of this process, with all potential participants given an equal chance to participate in this research study, five faculty members agreed to be interviewed. Then, I asked each of those faculty members to refer me to one colleague and one student who had insight to their transition from traditional to online classrooms. By selecting five triads for a total of five cases, I was able to triangulate my data between the triads and between the cases.

For this research, I used Brookfield's four lenses as a framework to collect the data. This study relied on in-depth interviews with five faculty members (who as previously mentioned had been teaching for at least one semester online and had had a successful experience in transitioning from face-to-face to online classroom), plus one student and one colleague of each faculty member, for a total number of 15 participants. The reason for using Brookfield's four lenses to frame the data collection process was that viewing what the faculty members do through these different lenses showed the distorted or incomplete aspects of their assumptions that need further investigation (Brookfield, 1995). By having

conversations with students and colleagues and reviewing the literature, I was able to test the accuracy and validity of the assumptions (Brookfield, 1995). Using only the self-analysis of the faculty member reflects on only one meaning scheme and perspective (Mezirow, 1991; Brookfield, 1995).

Looking at the autobiographies of the faculty members through reflection made me aware of assumptions and reasoning that frame how they worked. Their autobiographies explained those parts of their practice to which they felt strongly committed but that seemed unconnected to any particular pedagogic model or approach that they had learned (Brookfield, 1995). Seeing the faculty members through their student's eyes made the faculty aware of those assumptions that either confirmed or challenged existing power relationships in the classroom. It also allowed the faculty members to check whether the students took from their practice the meaning that they intended (Brookfield, 1995). Interviews with colleagues uncovered aspects of faculty member practices that were normally hidden from the faculty members. As colleagues described the situations that the faculty members faced, the faculty members saw their practice in a new light. Their colleagues served as mirrors reflecting back to them images of their actions (Brookfield, 1995). As colleagues described their own experience dealing with the same crises and dilemmas the faculty members had faced, the faculty members were able to check, reframe and broaden their own theories of practice (Brookfield, 1995). The literature helped me understand their experiences by naming it in different ways; the literature also illuminated general aspects of what they thought were individual events and processes.

Based on my experience with graduate adult education faculty members and my interest in contributing to the field of adult education and online learning, and using a criterion-based sampling strategy, I selected five faculty members to participate in the case study. Then the faculty members each nominated one colleague and one student to be in the case study, for a total of 15 participants. Criterion-based sampling strategy (LeCompte & Preissle, 1993; Miles & Huberman, 1994) is thought best when all individuals being studied represent people who have experienced the phenomenon and where the primary goal of the research is exploration and explanation of meaning. For this reason, I selected my participants from the faculty members at a local university who had experience in teaching both face-to-face and online, who had taught at least one semester in an online format, and who had had a successful transition from traditional to online classroom. Faculty members were given the opportunity to describe their experiences in teaching and learning in traditional and online classes as well as their transition between the two environments, allowing time for self-reflection Colleagues and students of these faculty members were questioned regarding their experience with the faculty member as they were going through their transition.

Interviews

A study focusing on individuals' lived experiences relies on an in-depth interview strategy to capture the deep meaning of experience in their own words (Marshall & Rossman, 1999). When the researcher cannot observe how individuals interpret meaning, Merriam (1998) states that interviews are a necessary data collection method. To collect data, I utilized interviews, teaching artifacts, and related documents. The interviews were composed of three

components (Seidman, 1991). The first part of the interview focused on the past experiences of the participant with the phenomenon of interest; the second part focused on their present experience; and the third part of the interview joined these two narratives to describe the participant's essential experience with the phenomenon. According to Seidman (1991) using this type of interview structure will enhance validity by placing the participant's comments in context.

Through the interviewing process, the participants explained the significance, turning points, and critical incidents, while interpreting the meaning of their experience. They examined their assumptions about teaching and learning in face-to-face and online environments. The students and colleagues interviewed provided detailed accounts of their experiences with their respective faculty member; in addition, the students and colleagues described how they perceived their respective faculty member's teaching and learning. Using this interviewing process made it possible to connect the participants' experiences and to identify cause-and-effect relationships. This format enabled me to better understand how the faculty members made meaning of their teaching and learning experiences. It is through use of this type of interview that I addressed the research questions.

Documents

Another method of data collection was through a review of teaching artifacts. This method of data collection is the fourth lens of Brookfield's framework. These artifacts may be public documents such as minutes of meetings or private documents such as journals, articles, class website, or e-mails (Bogdan & Biklin, 1992; Creswell, 2002; Merriam, 1998). They state that these artifacts will enable the researcher to obtain the language and words of

the participants; such artifacts can be accessed at a time convenient to the researcher. Another benefit to using teaching artifacts is that they represent data to which participants have given thought and attention while compiling them (Bogdan & Biklin, 1992; Creswell, 2002; Merriam, 1998).

Data Analysis Methods

Marshall and Rossman (1999) emphasize that the raw data have no real meaning and it is by the researcher's interpretation through data analysis and coding that it becomes meaningful; they also state that data collection and analysis go hand-in-hand in interpreting the data. They categorize the analysis of data into six stages: (a) organizing the data, (b) generating categories, themes, and patterns, (c) coding the data, (d) testing the emergent understandings, (e) searching for alternative explanations, and (f) writing the report. In each of these stages, the data collected are reduced to a more manageable size, allowing the researcher to better interpret the lived experiences of the faculty members in transitioning from traditional classrooms to online environment.

Transcription

Miles and Huberman (1994) outline qualitative data analysis as three components: data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing and verification. Data reduction is the process of selecting, simplifying, abstracting and transforming the data into transcriptions. Upon interviewing the faculty members, the recorded interviews were transcribed for further understanding and analysis of information. A transcriber and I transcribed these taped interviews verbatim, and to ensure confidentiality, the transcriptionist signed a confidentiality agreement not to disclose any information in their possession.

After each interview was transcribed, each participant was given the opportunity to review their transcripts for accuracy, make clarifications, and point out any parts of the interview that they preferred not to make public. As these transcriptions were summarized and coded, emerging themes and topics were clustered, and therefore, more data reduction occurred, to relate the data to the research questions. This process continued throughout the research study until all three research questions were addressed. The data reduction process is not separate from analysis of data but a part of analysis (Miles and Huberman, 1994).

Coding

Creswell (2003) has created several standards for the coding process. He states that before the researcher starts the coding process, all transcriptions must be read carefully in order to get a sense of the whole. Then the researcher should pick one of the documents either of most interest or the shortest, go through it, and write thoughts in the margin. When this task has been done for all transcriptions, a list of topics must be made. In this list, the researcher should cluster similar topics together and divide them into major topics, unique topics and leftovers. He says then to take the list and go back to the data and abbreviate the topics as codes and write the codes next to the appropriate segments of the text and as the researcher does this, new categories and codes may emerge. Creswell (2003) then recommends finding the most descriptive wording for the topics and turning them into categories. He advises looking for ways to reduce the list of categories by grouping topics that relate to each other and then alphabetizing the list of the codes. Finally, Creswell (2003) suggests assembling the data belonging to each category in one place and performing a preliminary analysis and, if necessary, recoding the existing data.

The second component of data analysis as noted by Miles and Huberman (1994) is displaying the data. In displaying the data, the information is organized and arranged in a format where the researcher is able to draw conclusions from data and create an action plan. In displaying the data gathered from faculty members' critical incident questionnaires, a critical incident chart, and a timeline was created to analyze the data from the critical incident questionnaires. Stiegelbauer, Goldstein and Huling (1982) state that in creating a critical incident chart and timeline, the relationships between events can be seen by relating the incidents within the time they took place. In using this type of chart, the researcher can see events that were seen as critical, influential or decisive in the course of action taken by the faculty members.

In coding the data, I used two different types of coding to address the research questions. I used the first type of coding to identify the experiences the faculty members had in their transition from the face-to-face to an online environment, and I used the second type of coding to identify the types of "presence" existing in an online learning community.

The second type of coding has been presented in Figure 4. I have used a model of a Community of Inquiry (Garrison, Anderson, & Archer, 2000) that indicates the elements of an educational experience as it relates to Brookfield's four lenses used in data collection process. In this model, Garrison et al. (2000) explain that an educational experience is embedded within a Community of Inquiry that is composed of teachers and students who are the key components of an educational process. Here, the authors identify some of the elements that are crucial for a successful higher educational experience. Garrison's framework, published in 2006, is composed of three types of presence—social, cognitive and

teaching. The framework was developed to guide transcript analysis. He states that this framework provides a comprehensive model that makes possible the consideration of the interaction effects of all the core elements in this model. Garrison (2006) explains that the purpose of the model is exploratory and explanatory in the sense of providing insights into constructing meaning. Social presence includes interaction with peers, cognitive presence is interaction with content, and teaching presence is interaction with instructors or students.

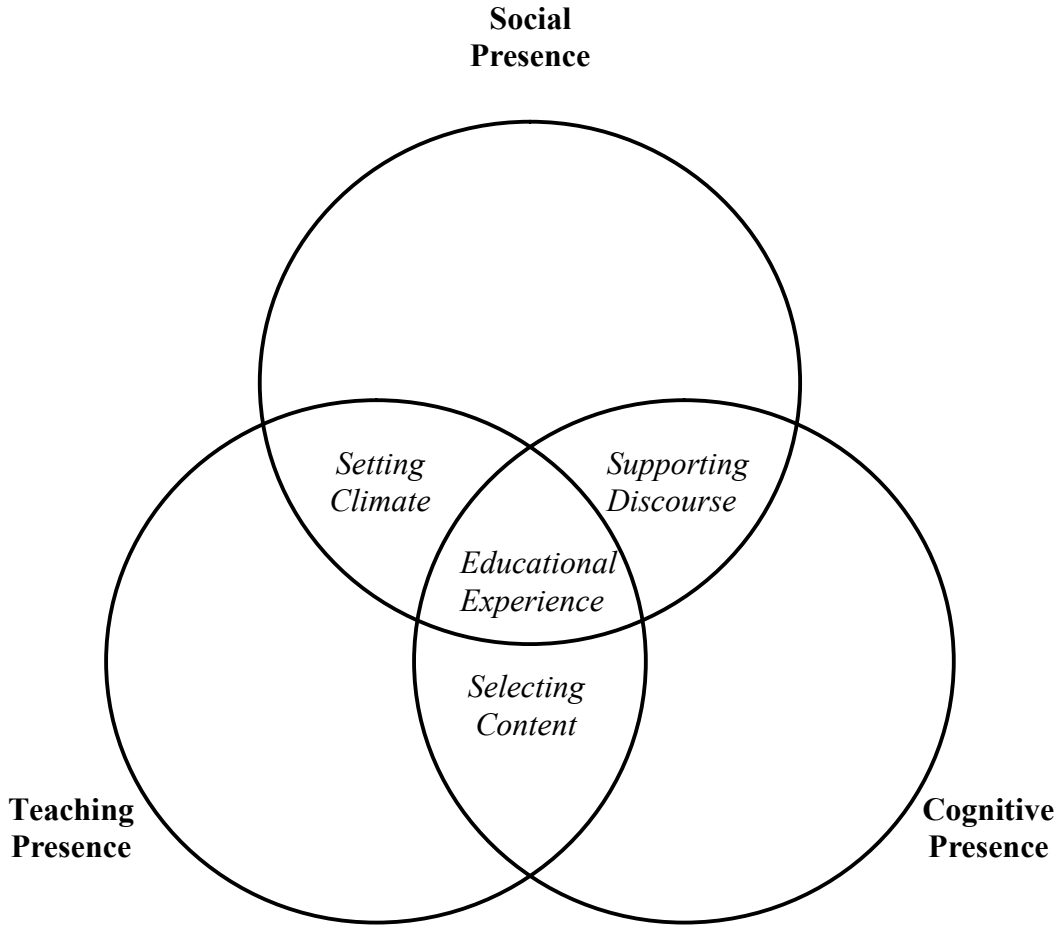


Figure 4: Community of Inquiry: Elements of an educational experience (*Garrison, Anderson, & Archer, 2000)*

In coding the transcripts, I utilized the Community of Inquiry model in addition to any other codes I saw arising from the text. Garrison (2006) gives an example using his coding scheme as seen in Table 3. At the beginning of the coding process, he uses the Communities of Inquiry coding scheme to look at the transcripts. Then he advises to look for other indicators to code.

Table 3: *Community of inquiry coding scheme*

Elements	**Categories**	**Indicators (examples only)**
Cognitive presence	Triggering event Exploration Integration Resolution	Sense of puzzlement Information exchange Connecting ideas Apply new ideas
Social presence	Affective (emotional expression) Open communication Group cohesion	Expressing emotions (emotions) Risk-free expression Encouraging collaboration
Teaching presence	Design and organization (instructional management) Facilitating discourse (building understanding) Direct instruction	Setting curriculum & methods Sharing personal meaning Focusing discussion

I have used a qualitative analysis software package called ATLAS.ti, which allowed me to code and sort data based on predetermined codes. Codes can be added, changed or redirected as necessary. ATLAS.ti allows coding to be done at a paragraph, line, or word level, but I identified my codes before starting this process.

Themes

Themes from the interview transcripts were organized using a matrix. Miles and Huberman (1994) recommend using a thematic conceptual matrix. In using this type of

matrix, the data do not need to be organized by persons or roles. Analyzing data can be made more manageable through categorizing the data in themes and organizing them in this matrix. By using inferences taken from the data displayed, the researcher can look for patterns, themes and search for variables underlying the specifics. In the final step of drawing conclusions and verifying the data, Miles and Huberman (1994) state that "final" conclusions may not appear until the meanings emerging from the data are tested for their plausibility, confirmability, and validity.

Ethical Issues

To consider the possibility of any ethical issues arising as a result of this study, I conducted a pilot study of the methodology and interview questions to ensure that potential problems would be addressed prior to commencing the actual research (Seidman, 1991) and through this pilot study, I was able to shape my methodology. The faculty member participants in the pilot study were not participants in the actual study and adjustments to both the questions and coded data were made.

The participants of the study received a letter stating the purpose of the study in advance of the interviews. Institutional Review Board (IRB) procedures for human subject involvement in research at North Carolina State University were completed. I developed consent forms in accordance with good research practice and included the following: purpose of the research, the voluntary nature of participation, methods to be used in the study, potential benefits and outcomes of the study, entitlement to view results of the research, and the right to ask questions (Creswell, 2003). Necessary validation strategies were employed to ensure accuracy in data collection. I used appropriate and unbiased language in conducting

the research and carefully guarded against "suppressing, falsifying, or inventing findings" (Creswell, 2003) to strengthen the outcomes of the study.

Strategies for Validating Findings

Triangulation

Creswell (2003) suggests several strategies for validating the findings. Triangulation is a method of pinpointing the accuracy of qualitative data by drawing on multiple sources of data (Creswell, 2003; LeCompte & Preissle, 1993). By combining multiple data collection methods, theories and analysis, I overcame any weaknesses or biases and problems that might have risen from using a single method or single theory in this study. The purpose of triangulation is to obtain confirmation of findings through merging different perspectives to the point that the perspectives merged are seen to represent reality. There are five types of triangulation: (1) data triangulation, (2) methodological triangulation, (3) investigative triangulation, (4) theory triangulation, and (5) environment triangulation. Triangulation is important to establish validity, reliability and objectivity (Singleton & Straits, 1999).

Member Checking

I conducted triangulation of data to obtain validity and reliability of data. Upon conducting interviews with the faculty members, their respective students and colleagues, and then collecting teaching artifacts, the data was summarized, coded with themes seen to be emerging and topics around which they were clustered. They were shared with faculty members on a one-on-one basis. Creswell (2003) calls this process member checking. This approach determined the accuracy of the descriptions and themes through taking the data results to the participants to determine that they felt that the themes are accurate. By this

process, I gathered different perspectives of how the faculty members felt about the issues at hand. This triangulation ensured that I appropriately represented the faculty members, their respective students and colleagues, and the participant member checks confirmed whether I interpreted their responses appropriately and represented their perspectives accurately.

Creswell (2003) recommends using rich, thick description to convey the findings. This will allow the readers to be transported to the setting and give the discussion an element of shared experiences. This assisted in clarifying the bias I brought to the study. This self-reflection creates an open and honest narrative that will resonate well with the readers (Creswell, 2003). I also used what Creswell (2003) calls peer debriefing to enhance the accuracy of study. In this process, I identified a person who reviewed and asked questions about the study so that the account was noteworthy to other people besides me. Also, detailed records of the research process and data provided reliability (Marshall & Rossman, 1999) and contributed to the overall trustworthiness of the study (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000).

Summary

The purpose of this dissertation was to discover and examine how faculty members perceive their transition from traditional to online classrooms, how this transition affected their assumptions and held beliefs about their teaching and learning paradigms and their practice, and how are the faculty members experience changes as they transition from traditional to online environments. The questions guiding this research were:

1. How do faculty members describe their transition from teaching face-to-face to teaching in online environments?

2. What personal, professional, pedagogical or other assumptions do faculty members hold about teaching and learning in traditional and online environments before starting their transition and how do those assumptions change after their transition?
3. How are the changes the faculty members experience as they transition from traditional to online environments defined along a continuum in relation to change theories?

The three bodies of literature supporting this research study were (a) comparison of faculty members teaching in face-to-face and online environments, (b) situated learning and communities of practice theory, and (c) transformative learning theory. This was a qualitative multiple case study and I used interviews, teaching artifacts and other documents to gather data for analysis. My participants were five faculty members along with one of their students and one colleague for a total of 15 participants. The study was confined to a local university.

CHAPTER 4—FINDINGS

This research examines faculty members who have taught in both face-to-face and online environments and explores the experiences faculty members had while transitioning from traditional to online environments. It explores their teaching and learning assumptions, possible transformations they experienced and how they believed their learning and teaching methods were affected though this process. To triangulate the data, the researcher utilized Brookfield's (1995) four lenses: (a) the lens of autobiographical reflection, (b) the lens represented by the student's eyes, (c) the lens provided by the colleague's perceptions and experiences, and finally (d) the lens of the literature. For the purposes of this research, five faculty members, one of their colleagues, and one of their students, for a total of fifteen participants, were interviewed.

This chapter presents the findings that address the first two research questions guiding this study. The findings on the different types of online presence the faculty members experienced based on the Garrison et al. (2000) model of *Community of Inquiry: Elements of an educational experience*, which links to the third research question, will be addressed in chapter 5.

Transition of faculty members from face-to-face to online environments

The first question that guided this research was how do faculty members describe their transition from teaching face-to-face to teaching in online environments? As faculty members transition from traditional to online environments, they face many different situations. In interviews conducted for this research, the faculty members talked about how they started their journey to an online environment, what advantages and disadvantages they

saw between the two environments, the roles they played and different situations they faced as they transitioned from traditional to online environment.

In their interviews, faculty members identified several types of initial problems they encountered as they started to teach online. These issues included *organizational problems*, *technological problems*, *sense of confusion*, *problems dealing with students* and *personal problems*, such as lack of confidence and fear.

They cited o*rganizational problems*. To start off the course, one faculty member noted: "The first two weeks were really difficult just in terms of what to do, how to get organized, how to make the course my own rather than someone else's." In organizing online synchronous meetings, one faculty member stated, "Finding a time where everybody could meet synchronously, that was an issue." Other organizational problems were creating and organizing a collaborative experience for the students online. One of the new faculty members interviewed expressed frustration that, "Because I was new, I didn't have access to the course right away".

There were *technological problems* with getting all students on the course site as students "had a little bit of experience with Centra, but I think working out the technical difficulties in Centra where people were using dial up or just having trouble getting in" was also problematic. One of the faculty members explained that you must work "in advance of what you're going to do to set up a session and organize things because you don't want to waste people's time fumbling around during an online session. You are going to be in there for about an hour or an hour and half instead of three hours."

They also experienced a s*ense of confusion*. There was a sense of puzzlement and confusion on the part of the faculty member. One stated, "My first fear was I couldn't imagine teaching using just a WebCT Vista or that type of software because with the graduate classes there's so much interaction and getting to know one another". *Problems dealing with students* were also present in this sense: "That was another thing I forgot to mention earlier. In transitioning, I learned that you don't want to do discussion boards with all fifteen students in one board". The faculty member went on to explain that with a large number of students, students will not perform as well and will not do their work; whereas where they were divided into smaller groups resulted in a more productive session. Some students will assume that just because there are a lot of other students, their non-participation will go unnoticed by the faculty member. By contrast, in smaller groups, the students will feel more obligated to their group and there will be more of sense a community that they belong to and are responsible for.

Advantages and Disadvantages of Online and Face-to-Face Teaching

In our conversations, the faculty members, their colleagues, and their students talked about the many advantages and disadvantages in teaching in a face-to-face versus an online environment.

Advantages of Face-to-Face Teaching

Among all of the advantages of being in a face-to-face environment, their most agreed upon were *collaboration*, *feedback, learning styles,* and *presence*. An interesting observation in this research worth noting is that some advantages and disadvantages to online and face-to-face teaching played opposite roles in alternate environments. *Learning styles*

were considered an advantage in both face-to-face and online teaching because there are different means in both environments to assist students in their learning abilities or disabilities.

Collaboration is important in any classroom because it allows the students and the faculty member to share their ideas and stories and to learn from each other's experiences. It also allows students to work more easily together by being in close proximity. One student said, "I like face-to-face because you're able to hear other people's questions and other people's responses and you can also talk to your peers as well as the teacher."

Giving timely and appropriate *feedback* is an important part of a learning process. A faculty member said that, "You meet somebody and if the students have questions, everything's answered and said and done at the end of the three hours." Faculty members felt that in a face-to-face class there is more immediate feedback. They also stated that in this environment they could better accommodate different *learning styles* with the students as they can get a feel for how a student is doing and how he or she learns best.

In a face-to-face environment, *presence* of faculty members is more distinct during the class period than in an online environment, because they are more visible and available as students need them. A student voiced his positive response towards a face-to-face class by saying, "I feel like you really develop friendships when you're face-to-face and you really get to see your professor, put a face instead of a name, and again the questioning we talked about before—I get to hear what other people have to say."

Disadvantages of Face-to-Face Teaching

The faculty members noted *lack of flexibility*, and *age* as main disadvantages of teaching in a face-to-face classroom. On issues of *lack of flexibility* in a face-to-face class, a faculty member stated that "I'm very aware of this and in the classroom sometimes I see students struggling because we have to go fast. We have a schedule to follow." Other faculty members interviewed also commented on the time dependency of a face-to-face class, being bound by allotted class time, and how you must fill up the time and also, the travel time to get to and from the class. On preparation for the class, all faculty members noted that they must be completely prepared before entering the class and it is "Intimidating when you are standing up in front of fifteen students" and one faculty member stated, "I'm sort of stressed the whole day up to four o'clock knowing that you have to be there and be the person on the stage."

A surprising finding in disadvantages of teaching in a face-to-face environment was the issue of *age*. The younger faculty members stated that they are not taken seriously in a face-to-face environment due to their age. One faculty member noted:

> The students were all older. They were teaching and had taught for many years. I just sort of got the impression they weren't that interested in listening to me talk about theory. We talked a lot about educational theory but didn't have any practical experience so you sort of get this impression that your students are not really absorbing what you're trying to get them to listen to or taking it seriously.

On the other hand, an older faculty member stated, "Three courses in a classroom back to back is very tiring. I started out doing four, but I was young. Now two classes are

enough." She went on to say that for older faculty members teaching online is less tiring and less draining, which she noted as an advantage of teaching online, but the learning curve is steeper and it is sometimes difficult to learn all the technology. Some other disadvantages noted by the faculty members were, again, flexibility, which was also an advantage of a face-to-face environment, preparation, and the feeling of intimidation. In his view about his professor, one student said that, "In the face-to-face class the only disadvantage is you have to really be prepared for your class, completely prepared. You also have to be aware of the [software]. You have to be ready when they ask you a question, so it is more challenging. That's the way I see it. It's more challenging to teach face-to-face."

Advantages of Online Teaching

The faculty members, their colleagues, and their students stated several advantages to teaching in an online environment. Some of the advantages noted were sense of *power*, *use of technology*, *access to resources*, *flexibility*, *reflection*, *anonymity*, *teaching options*, *learning styles* and *teaching styles*. All participants were enthusiastic to be in an online environment and believed that there are many advantages to teaching in an online environment rather than face-to-face.

An advantage of teaching in an online environment for the faculty members was a sense of *power*. A faculty member felt that "the students know that I'm the teacher and that I'm in charge of the class and that's just the way it is." A colleague noted,

> I think the students feel totally comfortable with him being in charge of their learning in the online environment. I think he was definitely in charge of the class because he

knew more than the [students] did but they saw it more as a resource and less of an authoritative figure looking over their shoulder and slapping their wrists.

A student expressed that "He [the faculty member] was a master of that website instrument. I guess the only time he used his power is a couple of times when someone was going overtime talking too much or whatever, then he needed to step in. So he was stepping in and letting the person know to conclude or he would take away the access so you could talk but no one could hear you."

Use of technology to enhance the online class experience for students was important as noted by one faculty member. "Technology can really reach out and can help people who are not 20-year-olds with a family supporting them and being able to have a good time in college for four years. So that's very important to me. It makes it accessible to a lot more people."

Other advantages to using technology were creating opportunities for students to *access resources* online, the *flexibility* of attending class anytime and anywhere, and the fact that you can pace yourself and have more time for *reflection*, which allows both the faculty members and the students to think about what they need to say. A faculty member's comment on flexibility and technology was that in an online environment, "Let's say somebody has some kind of handicap or learning disability or things like that—cannot hear well, whatever. These [situations] are where the technical tools are so important. They really do help people go over the obstacles." There is also the sense of *anonymity*, which gives comfort to some students to respond to class posts and state their ideas. The faculty members have more *teaching options* with the different tools available and are also able to

accommodate students with different *learning styles*. They felt online teaching can also accommodate faculty members with different *teaching styles*.

Disadvantages of Online Teaching

The participants of this study noted several disadvantages to teaching in an online environment. These disadvantages are related to *relationships* and *communication*, *preparation* for teaching online, providing *feedback*, online *presence,* creating *communities*, and use of *technology*. One colleague said, "We have our emotions that try to help us to send messages but there's so much that can be misinterpreted in an email where it's innocent and it's [mis]taken completely on the other end and it has to do completely with personality and how the person is feeling or perceiving the other person. So much is lost so that's a sad thing." The faculty members find it difficult to see if the student is struggling and cannot easily establish relationships with the students. The faculty members seem to lack presence online to the students, and sometimes, this can make the online experience impersonal. Another faculty member stated that, "Like I said, I don't feel like I really know my students. I know faces, I know names and I know a general background, but I don't really get to know their real personalities."

> On preparing to teach an online class, one of the colleagues interviewed stated,
>
> Preparing quality material for a distance course is going to take a substantial amount of time and effort and focus so that the product is going to more or less equal to what you could do in a classroom. In other words, you have to anticipate so much more in a computer-based instruction environment—a technology delivered environment—anticipate much more what the students might be thinking and what they need.

The faculty members all feel that they spend a lot of time preparing for the class and answering e-mails and it takes more time to teach a course online.

On providing *feedback* and *presence* in an online environment, one faculty member stated, "In my teaching, I find that it starts and it never ends. My students expect me to be online sometimes like late at night or early in the morning and so I'm constantly monitoring what they're doing because I don't want them to go a long period." The faculty members find being present and available constantly very time consuming. They state that there is a need to find balance in giving feedback and responding to student needs in teaching in an online environment. Another struggle in the online environment is to figure out ways to create and monitor group activities and form communities of learning among the students. It is often hard to find common times for students to meet online, and maintaining a discussion is a struggle due to lack of student participation.

Almost everyone interviewed mentioned problems with *technology*. A faculty member said,

> Technology-wise there was a definite hurdle for folks who had never seen this technology before, just to get accustomed to the mechanics of you're in a virtual environment, you use keyboard controls to move around, you have to do these things to install the software, you have to do these things to follow the system requirements. So just the ramp up of getting people into the environment was a little bit of a challenge.

Another faculty member pointed out that in order to create an effective online environment, "You have to know what the tools are capable of doing."

All participants noted that faculty members play different roles in an online environment. One student stated,

> Well, in the online class, it takes a little bit of everything. He's a facilitator definitely, a teacher, a mentor because he will teach you but sometimes if you couldn't understand anything, he'd actually go and personally talk to you. He would isolate you in a different window and talk to you on your own. So he was a mentor. He was helping. Not so much a lecturer because most of the material you read on your own. And then a facilitator again because we had DVDs so he was facilitating those DVDs.

They stated that a faculty member plays different roles and wears multiple hats, sometimes at the same time, to conduct an online class. A faculty member is a conveyer of information, a facilitator, a mentor, a teacher, a moderator, a technical supporter, a boss and an instructional designer, depending on the situation.

In summary, there were several advantages and disadvantages noted by the participants in teaching in a face-to-face and online environment. Among the advantages and disadvantages were collaboration, feedback, learning styles, presence, and lack of flexibility. Sometimes what the faculty members thought were disadvantages to teaching in one environment was actually discovered as an advantage where they had assumed there would be none. Their assumptions turned out to be opposite of what they had believed would be true about their teaching in these environments.

Assumptions of Faculty Members about Teaching and Learning Environments

The second question guiding this research is what personal, professional, pedagogical or other assumptions do faculty members hold about the teaching and learning in traditional

and online environments before starting their transition and how do those assumptions change after their transition? This section discusses assumptions about faculty members' teaching in online and face-to-face environments, their impetus for transitioning to the online environment, their online experiences, and their strengths and weaknesses in face-to-face and online environments.

As the faculty members were prompted to transition from traditional to online environments, they had different assumptions regarding teaching and learning in face-to-face and online environments. Some assumptions cited by faculty members, colleagues, and students were *use of time*, *ease of online classes*, and *evaluations*.

Regarding filling up the *time* in an online class, one faculty member commented that "In the face-to-face class, it's very time dependent—there's like a three hour window. You sort of feel like you have to fill that up completely when the students come in and you have to lecture and have interaction and discussion to sort of fill the whole three hours. That's sort of the assumption about a face-to-face class and I think the students have that assumption." Another commented that, "I don't think there was an expectation that you really have to keep them occupied for three full hours in their online course," as compared to a face-to-face classroom.

Another participant stated, "I think there are some assumptions about online learning that the students have that maybe those *courses are easier*. I get pretty good feedback on my online course." One concern for the faculty members was that their *evaluations* were lower in an online class than in face-to-face. "They say that you get worse evaluations in general for an online course compared to a face-to-face course. I guess that's another assumption which

may be based on facts but that hasn't held true for me yet, so I don't think I'm overworking the students too much."

Some participants interviewed did not think there was much difference between a traditional and online class and one noted that,

> I don't think [face-to-face and online class are] any different. I think your values and beliefs in teaching remain the same. They should remain the same. I think oftentimes people see teaching online as sort of the easy way out because it's teaching from home, but in a lot of ways it's more work. You still have to prepare activities even though it's still not a lecture. I don't teach online any different than I do face-to-face. So yes, for me, there's really no difference.

Another faculty member stated, "My beliefs about my teaching or assumptions about my teaching is maybe different depending on whether or not I'm teaching an undergraduate course or graduate course." So the distinction was not whether it was a traditional or online class but the level it was. One noted that "I don't think [face-to-face and online classes are] necessarily different but I think in a face-to-face course I would try to have some lecture controlling [boundaries on topics discussed], to try to at least convey what I think are important points about different topics"

Impetus for transitioning to online environment

All faculty members interviewed had an impetus that caused them to see the need to transition from face-to-face to online environment. This section discusses how the faculty members moved through their transition and started to teach online, and describes further the

effects it had on them as well as what their weaknesses and strengths were in this transition and in the online environment.

All the faculty members interviewed for this study had different reasons for why they had to transition from face-to-face to an online environment. Among those reasons were grant seeking, financial incentives, student needs, program requirements and personal interest. One faculty member stated: "I was mostly asked by the department to teach." A colleague noted: "The reason for her [faculty member] teaching more and more courses online has been the demand for them from students and the instructional technology program." Another faculty member explained her reasons for teaching online:

> First of all, I was motivated to teach online because we just started a graduate program … and we wanted to encourage older students to sign up for classes and our target often is high school teachers and of course they have to come after they finish teaching themselves. Also these people, working people, have other obligations so online was a good way to reach out for the non-traditional students.

One faculty member reasoned, "I had a strong interest in technology and wanted to learn more and see how it all works." Another reason for one of the faculty member to take on the responsibility of teaching an online class was that "The grant had just been funded, which is what I was working on, and no one really had an interest in doing any research on the distance education component." Another faculty member stated:

> Initially the reason I got involved in this online stuff is because of this NSF grant and that grant came at just the right time for me. It was right before I went up for tenure

> and promotion and I think part of the reason I jumped onto that is I needed something big to help with promotion and tenure and then we got it.

Regardless of the motivation that got them involved, the faculty member started to find that it was more comfortable for them to teach in this environment and that they could teach as well online as face-to-face. They found that "It was a really good cultural experience for me getting to know the inner city schools in … and then getting to know those really remote, rural teachers"; they also claimed to have "learned a lot more from my students." The faculty members also acknowledged the following:

> I teach three of my four classes online now so I feel from that standpoint that people realize it's a lot more work so it gives you a leg up … people recognize and appreciate that you're making the effort to do something that could be of benefit to the college and the e-learning certificate they're creating is another example.

A faculty member explained that "I would say initially my assumptions and beliefs about my teaching online—I was not very confident at all. I had a lot to learn. I still do but I'm feeling better about teaching online. I think some of that is confidence—more confidence in those tools—but then also feedback I'm getting from students about their experiences in my course."

Online Experiences

As the faculty members transitioned from traditional to online environment, they had many different experiences. Some of the major areas the faculty members encountered were *learning styles*, *presence*, *feedback*, *reorganization of teaching methods and concepts*, *professional development*, *technology*, *collaboration*, *time* and *obligations*. On the subject of

learning styles, one faculty member stated, "I know that they are not all wonderful, but I really truly believe that everybody has potential to learn and to strive at their own pace sometimes." The participants noted that in an online environment you can use different activities to accommodate different learning styles and what might seem logical for the faculty member may not make sense to the student. They felt as faculty members they should use research to see how students learn best and adjust their teaching styles to accommodate the students. Faculty members were used to having students face-to-face and not in the cyberspace and, therefore, sometimes they would forget to ask them questions. The faculty members felt that the students expected them to be *present* online all the time to answers e-mails and provide *feedback*. A faculty member stated, "Students sometimes forget that faculty members have other responsibilities as well."

A faculty member explained that there was a need to *reorganize* his or her teaching methods and concepts.

> We have a lot of students that are coming back as second career students, meaning that they're older adults and they haven't been in a classroom or educational setting for you know fifteen, twenty years, and so they're coming in with all these fears and misconceptions and trepidations and so I had to learn how to address them and make them feel comfortable as well as modify my teaching strategies and develop new resources.

A faculty member noted that in an online environment, "We give [students] not just an opportunity to discuss but to organize new information and you become more diverse in your teaching once you're exposed to these different ways of teaching people information."

Online environment was a good *professional development* experience for all the faculty members interviewed and they felt that it expanded their approaches to teaching. One faculty member noted, "It was great being a student again to know how much I didn't know and to learn new techniques. It really was very interesting. It's not an experience I get to have very often, to be able to take a class like that so I really enjoyed that time because I was purely a student then." They stated that they learned a lot from their students and learned by teaching the online class and found new perspectives on teaching by being in this new environment. They felt that by transitioning from face-to-face to an online environment, they gained maturity and skills. They improved with experience and felt a gradual sense of confidence as the semester went by. Some of the faculty members even took workshops on learning how to teach online in addition to learning a lot through trial and error.

Technology was sometimes troublesome as the faculty members had to familiarize themselves with the tools and also explain the use of the technology to the students. They also noted that receiving technical support was sometimes hard and they had to look for new more capable tools to use in their online classrooms. The faculty members were frustrated with setting up online groups and had a hard time using technology for *collaborative* purposes, even though they feel that "Including collaborative component is important so [students] feel more part of the class online." *Time* was a major factor, as it was hard to manage time more efficiently online and it was very time-consuming to teach in this format.

One uncomfortable aspect in their experience of teaching in an online environment was the many *obligations* the faculty members had to fulfill. They felt uncomfortable

because they did not have enough time to teach online and deal with many other institutional issues that demand their attention. One faculty member said this about her responsibilities:

> So you know the way the university system is, you have to publish. So when we talk about motivation, yes if you care enough about teaching and reaching out to other people and all that, yes you make the sacrifice of saying ok, for one semester I'm going to put my research on the side burner and do this but you're not going to get rewarded by the administration for teaching online. They'll say how many articles did you publish that semester? So you see you are caught between two things and you have to make a choice. And I'm particularly thinking about the kids—for me I've been tenured for twenty years or so. So it's not the same as somebody who's brand new and has to get tenure and will be judged almost entirely on their publications. It's a paradox because these people are young, they've always had a computer in their lives and they probably would be the best to teach online or do this kind of thing but they have to invest time that's too precious because they need the publications to get tenure. I've always felt that we're supposed to be judged on teaching and research, but what I've seen basically is we're judged on research.

Strengths and Weaknesses

There was an array of faculty members' strengths and weaknesses noted by faculty members, their colleagues, and their students as they transitioned from traditional to online environments. Among them were *age*, *timidness*, *lack of knowledge in the literature*, *comfort level*, *collaboration*, *communication*, *experience*, o*rganization*, and *technology*.

One faculty member and his colleague explained his weakness being in front of and teaching in a face-to-face class, due to his young *age* and *timidness* with new people. He, therefore, found the online environment more comfortable. The faculty member said,

> A lot of the students are older than me, a lot of the students teach, they control students all day long before they come into my class and so I think maybe there is this—it could be a paranoid thing in my mind but it seems to be maybe the students think they have more teaching experience and why is this guy teaching us.

His colleague stated that "The only thing I have ever thought of as [his] weakness is that he is—timid maybe—I don't know the right word right when he meets new groups of people. Especially initially, it's difficult for him to connect really easily with people"; his young age was not seen as much of an issue.

A faculty member stated that his weakness sometimes both in a face-to-face and online class was *lack of knowledge in the literature* due to the vast array of student backgrounds and experiences. He stated,

> Weaknesses—this could be online or face-to-face—I think in graduate courses, my depth of understanding may be the literature in that particular field is not as deep as other people's. I don't know—I would say that I'm not as well read as others probably because my focus is on engineering design graphics. If you ask me a question about that, I feel pretty confident. I think part of that is because in my position I might feel like I'm trying to do too many things, teach undergraduate and graduate courses in instructional design. Then you have to learn all these tools and I think I don't spend enough time looking at literature in certain areas and I'll let

> students do that and bring that to class. I'd say if I had a weakness that would be one of them. Not being able to know everybody's fields and what the literature is.

Comfort level and being used to doing things a certain way was another weakness for one of the faculty members. "I think as far as any weakness goes, I think it's a classic example of any faculty member—just being comfortable with a certain way that they do things so I think we found it to be challenging on occasion to use a different way of presenting information and material." One colleague commented on the fact that it was hard to *collaborate* and work as a team to develop an online environment saying, "I think that was difficult sometimes to understand the direction at all times. The *communication* [italics added] was another small barrier. Well not barrier, but obstacle. I think we all could have done better with communication but I think there were times where we felt [the faculty member] may have gone off into the weeds and kind of did his own thing and we wouldn't find out about it until later on in the process." Feedback ties into having a good communication system.

> Maybe a strength is either online or face-to-face, I respect people's time and the time they're putting into the course. But I do my best to give them feedback as soon as possible. If they send me an email I try to respond right away. My big problem is if I don't respond right away, I forget that someone sent me an email and then I forget to respond. That's the same with grading homework and if I collect an assignment I feel obligated to give it back to them the next time we meet. That's graduate and undergraduate.

It seems it was easier for faculty members to communicate and get to know students better in a face-to-face class. As noted by one faculty member, "The strengths of teaching the traditional class for me would be getting to know my students and have them getting to know me."

Experience was a topic that was referred to often in the interviews. "I have more strengths in the classroom than I do online because of experience and I feel at ease in the classroom. I don't feel threatened. I don't feel threatening. I have a good rapport with my students." Prompt feedback online was a strength most of those interviewed pointed out. One student said,

> You would request something you needed … and he'd have it the next day. Or if there was some problem with something that was not working, he would immediately go out and try to figure out what the problem was. He managed to get us all set up so we could hear him and we all had the ability if we wanted to talk.

The colleague and student of one faculty member agreed: "He is 100% ready to go back and revise things which is not always a trait that's maybe—no but he really is like he gets feedback that something didn't work, he's 100% willing to go back and figure out where the adjustment needs to be made to make it better the next time around."

Organization was a big factor in an online class and was a big strength for one faculty member. "Each week that you log into the course you can sort of expect very similar looking fields with a weekly folder and I think the expectations are pretty clear of things you're supposed to do that worked for you the week before. I think that's a strength." Being organized was also of great value in a face-to-face class. "I still do that for the most part even

when I'm moving a new course online, I do that same kind of organization trying to get all the resources pulled together first." Another faculty member said, "I'm pretty organized so what I did was go in and create a folder for each week of the course."

Working with *technology* and learning by trial and error was both a strength and weakness noted by all participants. "Strengths online, I think, [are] I'm not afraid to try new software or try new methodology. I'm not afraid to fail. Maybe some people consider that a weakness but I consider it a strength. I feel comfortable learning new tools. I don't have a fear that I'm not going to be able to learn it. Probably one of the biggest reasons I'm not afraid is we have such a great support structure on campus I can call or send an email or get online and get help with things."

One student stated that the faculty member was very resourceful both in face-to-face and online environment. "He really concentrates and I think he's really good at identifying resources whether online or face-to-face for varying levels of students." Another commented that, "She also was very good at asking questions so she challenged what was not challenging. She challenges students to think and she had well-rounded lessons so there was the beginning, middle and end." A strength of one faculty member was that "… His expectations aren't such that the students—he's not setting the students up to fail—they always have an opportunity to revise and resubmit." A faculty member stated that he was better with activities in a face-to-face classroom: "I think one of my strengths, though, in the traditional classroom is just the array of hands-on activities that I can do with them and the problem-based activities I can do with them and just getting to know the students and having that personal connection with them."

In summary, in reflecting on their transition from traditional to online classroom, one faculty member said: "Reflecting on that [transition], and I'll be my worst critic, really created a lot more in terms of research questions forming" and tying it into his own research. Another member stated in this transition, "You've got to continuously reflect on what you're doing and try to make that better; otherwise you're not going to be able to exist." One member said: "You're interacting with people and there are more ideas, you can't help but reflect on who you are and why you do what you do." Among other reflections was the need for continuous revision of the course and teaching methodology to accommodate different situations and students. One described his transition saying:

> Especially if you're teaching courses that deal with technology, there's the issue of how the technology interacts with societal issues, so if I didn't teach online I could imagine what the problems or issues or successes might be when we're teaching online. But teaching online you know what they are because you experience them and your students are experiencing them. That changes you.

Summary

While the faculty members, their colleagues and their students witnessed the faculty member's transition from traditional to online environment, they were all in agreement that it was very strenuous, hard work and that their experiences were affected by many components. Their learning and teaching styles, organizational and management skills, professional development efforts, past experiences, age and other obligations are only a few forces named that affected this transition. In all, there were more similarities between the participants than there were differences in their transition efforts. All of the participants had one goal in mind

and that was to create the best learning and teaching opportunities for themselves and their students and to be successful in this transition.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

The focus of this study was to analyze the experiences faculty members had while transitioning from face-to-face to online classrooms and to explore how they believe their teaching and learning assumptions changed or transformed as a result of their transition. This chapter details the transformations and changes the faculty members experienced as they transitioned from face-to-face to online environments. As part of these transformations and changes, the full power of their online presence was realized, whereas before, the faculty members felt that they were bound in the way their students and their community saw them in online environments. This section also discusses the role of emotional intelligence along with images or metaphors participants found effective in understanding and describing the changes they experienced in their transition.

In analyzing the data for this study, I have utilized two types of coding for the purposes of addressing the research questions. The first type of coding was used to identify the faculty member experiences in transitioning from face-to-face to online environments and their assumptions about teaching and learning in these environments, as presented in the previous chapter. A second type of coding was utilized to answer the third question guiding this research: how are the changes the faculty members experience as they transition from traditional to online environments defined along a continuum in relation to change theories?

While the literature about *presence, images* or *metaphors*, and *emotional intelligence* was not utilized previously to present the data, in interpreting the findings of this study, it was necessary to analyze these new research topics to support the findings and in order to address the third research question. The analysis of data identified the different

transformations and changes the faculty members experienced in their transition from traditional to online environments. The analysis of data also identified different types of online presence that went beyond those described by Garrison et al. (2000) in their Community of Inquiry model (Figure 5). As a result on finding additional types of online presence, this researcher developed Lari's Online Community of Practice (Figure 6). This analysis ties the study data to the relevant literature described in Chapters 1 and 2.

Change

In transition from traditional to online environments, the faculty members experienced many changes. Some of their experiences were sudden and drastic, while others were smooth and continuous. In the transition from face-to-face to online teaching, the faculty members went through revolutionary or evolutionary changes.

Burke (2002) defines revolutionary or transformational change as a type of change where an initial activity or a disorienting dilemma will trigger movement. The revolutionary change is a drastic change in which all the change factors are listed and the plan for change is prepared and implemented. This drastic change requires a lot of concurrent actions in all areas of change and if the planning is not well done, it may not lead to the anticipated results. Another term for revolutionary transition is reengineering, as used by Hammer and Champy (1993). One faculty members said,

> I was scared to death. I could not even imagine trying to interact with people online because at that time all I knew was WebCT. I had helped to administer that class. I was very afraid that I was going to do an awful job in that course. I just couldn't imagine how I was going to conduct the instructional design class without talking to

> the class as a whole or parts of the class and giving them more face-to-face feedback on what they were given. So eventually I learned that Centra was out there and that changed everything. I was happy.

For some of the faculty members that were interviewed, the initial start of their transition was a revolutionary or transformational event in the sense that their department had required them to transition from a face-to-face classroom and begin teaching in online environments. The faculty members were scared about "the use of technology" and had to find appropriate technology tools for their class and learn to use them by "trial and error." The interviews revealed that some of the faculty members' journeys of transitioning from traditional to online classroom took an evolutionary cycle.

An evolutionary or continuous change involves the faculty member taking improvement measures into action and consideration in order to make their transition more successful. In their interviews, the faculty members stated that their transition was a "learning process" for them. They had to continuously look for new tools and methods to take their instructional content to online environments. But as the semester progressed, the faculty members felt that they became "more flexible as you become a more experienced [online] teacher." All of the faculty members stated that they were "nervous at the beginning" of their transition, felt "overwhelmed," and that it was an "ongoing struggle" for them. They had to alter the way they thought about teaching and how they presented themselves online. This transformation in the habits of mind, I believe, is what is known as an epochal or incremental transformation (Mezirow, 1991; Taylor, 1998; Mezirow &

Associates, 2000). Cranton (2006) defines a habit of mind as a way of seeing the world based on our experience, background, personality, and culture.

In order to comprehend and describe these changes and transformations, the topics of online presence, images or metaphors, and emotional intelligence were looked at. In transitioning from face-to-face to online environments, the faculty members felt bound by the limitations that they felt existed in online environments. The study revealed, however, that the faculty members have numerous types of presence in online environments and, actually, more so than being in a face-to-face classroom where their presence is limited to the amount of time they are physically present in the classroom.

The faculty members, their colleagues, and their students described the faculty members through images or metaphors in order to draw a picture to better understand their transition, their changes and possible transformations. Faculty members' emotions also played a significant role in their transitions from traditional to online environments. These factors assisted in addressing the third research question regarding changes faculty members experienced in their transition.

Types of Presence in Online Environments

As faculty members transitioned from face-to-face to online classrooms, presence was evident as part of this transition. Senge, Jaworski, Scharmer, and Flowers (2005) state that everything we have to say about presence starts with understanding the nature of wholes, and how parts and wholes are interrelated. The "wholes" are not assemblies of their parts but are continually growing and changing along with their elements. I believe this process is how different components of an online community work together.

The design for this research included an analysis of the data using Garrison's model (Garrison et al., 2000) to address the third research question. Garrison et al. (2000) developed their model of Community of Inquiry (Figure 5) based on their research in computer-mediated conferencing (CMC) specifically designed to guide the use of computer conferencing to support critical thinking in higher education.

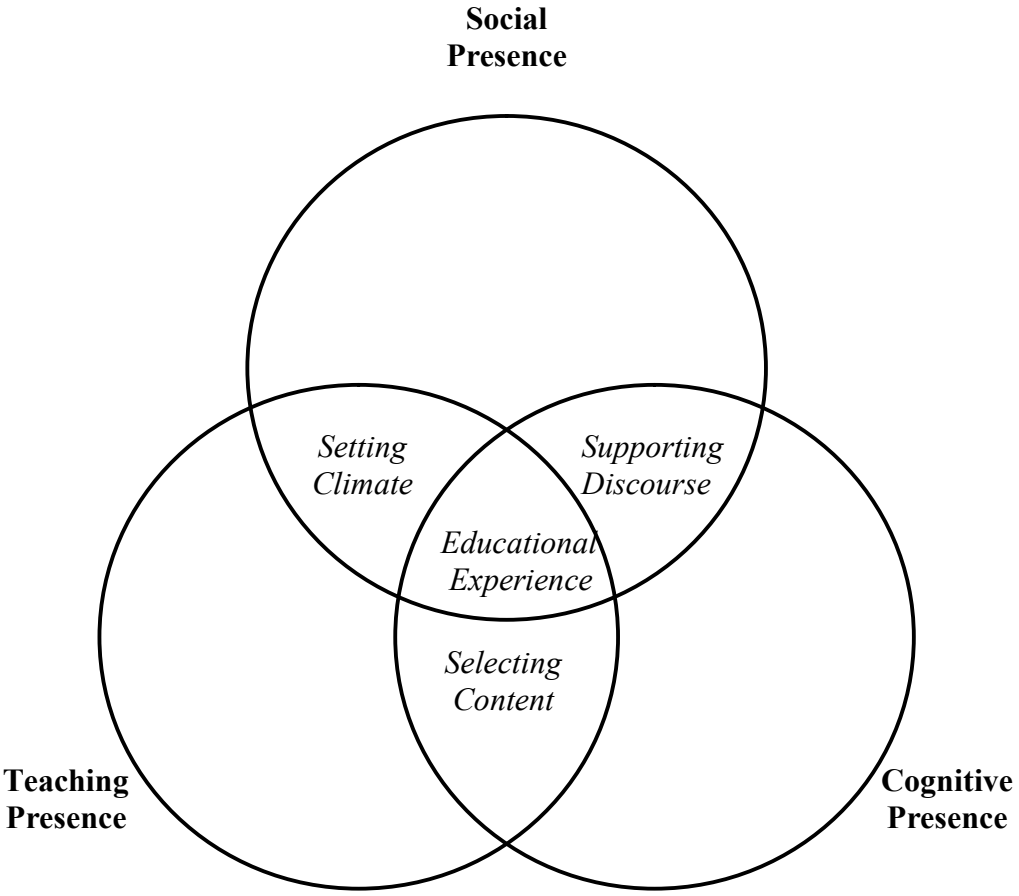


Figure 5: Community of Inquiry: Elements of an educational experience (*Garrison, Anderson, & Archer, 2000)*

In the context of CMC, Garrison et al. (2000) developed a model that is composed of teachers and students who are the key participants of an educational process. My research, based on Brookfield's four lenses on teaching (1995), includes the colleagues' perspectives on teaching and learning interactions as well as teachers' and students' perspectives. Garrison et al.'s (2000) framework has three elements of presence: *social, cognitive,* and *teaching*. They interact with each other to create a learning experience. *Social presence* is the ability of the learners to express their emotions and feelings through interaction with peers to project their personal characteristics (interaction with peers). *Cognitive presence* is the extent to which the participants of a community are able to construct meaning through interaction with content, critical discourse, and reflection (thinking about content). *Teaching presence* is the design and facilitation of cognitive and social processes for the purpose of understanding personally meaningful and educational learning outcomes (interaction of instructors and students).

The term presence is defined as "The fact or condition of being present" or "Something… felt or believed to be present" (*http://dictionary.reference.com*). Presence has different meanings. It can be defined as being in a particular place; when someone or something is in a place; a feeling that a person is still in a place although he or she is not there, or is dead; or a quality that makes people notice or admire a person, even when he or she is not speaking. Presence can be identified in different contexts in online environments, such as occupancy (attendance), appearance (behavior), vicinity (proximity), composure (equanimity), cool headedness (patience), style (appearance), manifestation (representation), characteristic (demeanor), conduct (attitude), existence (reality), and technique (ability). In

online environments, the faculty members are not always seen but his or her presence is felt through different means.

In developing this model, Garrison et al.'s (2000) goal was to create tools that help instructors both understand and improve their online teaching. My research study is based on their model but looks at faculty members' teaching and learning experiences in the learning management system (LMS), WebCT. While Garrison et al. (2000) looked at the transcripts of their computer-mediated conferencing (CMC) and analyzed them through content analysis, I have conducted interviews with faculty members, their colleagues and their students regarding their teaching and learning experiences and analyzed the interviews and teaching artifacts.

Patrick (2002) states that an illusion of presence is not new to virtual environments. While I have acknowledged what Garrison et al. (2000) describe in their model as "Elements of an educational experience"—specifically, social, cognitive, and teaching presence—upon analysis of the data while using this framework, the data revealed several other types of presence that affect online learning environments. This research identified the following types of presence: *cultural presence, societal presence, technical presence, attitudinal presence, research presence, virtual presence, and literary presence*.

In Lari's Online Community of Practice (Figure 6), all interactions happen in a society; the components of the community interact with each other and affect one another. These different types of presence help online students to move from the periphery of the online community towards participation in these environments where the students become more integrated with the "community of practice" (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Wenger (1998)

defines communities of practice as groups of people who share enthusiasm or interest in something they do; they learn how to do it better as they interact with each other. The online classroom can be identified as a community of practice because the participants are in mutual agreement and engagement and negotiate their teaching and learning assumptions. In these environments, all the participants are in relationships with each other and Wenger (1998) believes that where there is a concentration of relationships, communities tend to develop around things that matter to those people. Communities can develop within communities and they can cooperate and collaborate simultaneously.

In online environments, the faculty members, their colleagues, students, departments, technical support staff, and other components of the university system work as a community with a common goal to educate the population and conduct research. The types of presence recognized through this research have been identified in this online community; when these types of presence are recognized by the participants of this community of practice, then the faculty members and those involved in this community can utilize these conduits to create a better community of practice and to facilitate learning.

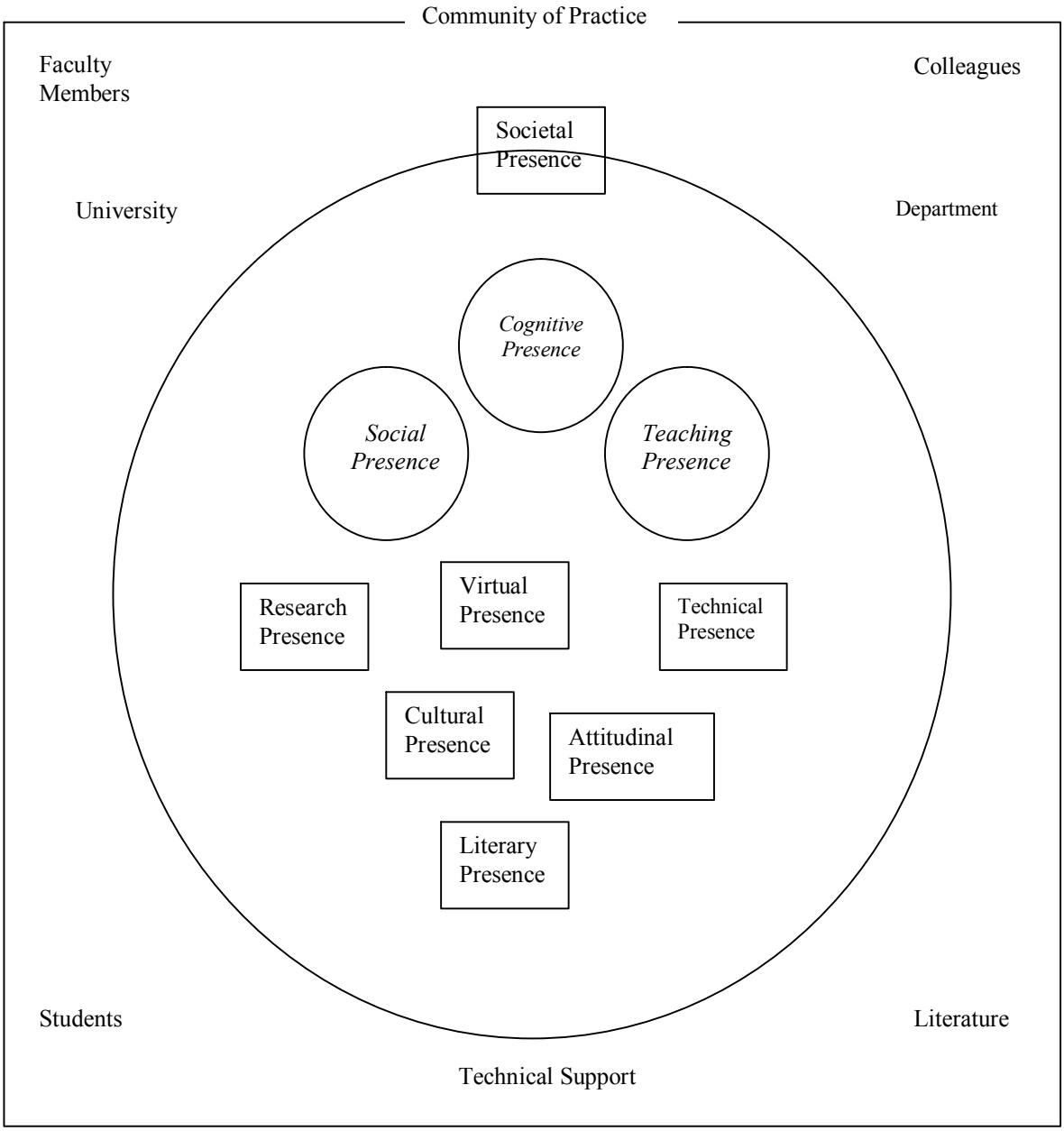


Figure 6: Lari's Online Community of Practice

Through analysis of the findings of this study, I have identified the following types of presence: *cultural presence, societal presence, technical presence, attitudinal presence, research presence, virtual presence,* and *literary presence.*

Cultural presence is defined as the interaction between cultural differences within learning environments. Here we looked at cultural awareness of those involved in a community of learning and teaching. Cultural awareness (Quappe & Cantatore, 2005) is defined as the foundation of communication; it involves the ability of standing back from ourselves and becoming aware of our cultural values, beliefs and perceptions. In learning environments, whether online or face-to-face, cultural awareness is central because we have to interact with people from other cultures. The people in these environments interpret and evaluate things in different ways and misunderstandings arise when we use *our* meanings to make sense of *their* reality (Quappe & Cantatore, 2005).

Another aspect of cultural presence is the collaborative culture. In a collaborative culture, members of a learning community work together effectively and are guided by a common purpose. All members of the community—such as the faculty members, their colleagues, their students, the administrators, and others influencing these environments—share a common vision of what an educational experience should be like and they work together toward this goal. They create a culture of discourse in which all parties involved share their ideas, respect each other, value their differences, and are open to each other's ideas (Jackson & Davis, 2000). In the interviews, the participants revealed that the faculty members had created environments of trust online and the students felt free to "ask silly or trivial questions" and were "relaxed."

In online learning environments, I identified *societal presence* in the research as the interaction with the environments that surrounds and affects this learning community, i.e., the department and the university. In societal presence, I looked at what the faculty society wants

and what the student society wants from their environments and what the respective expectations are. One of the reasons some of the faculty members transitioned to online environments was that they were participants in a departmental grant that required them to teach online. In order to create these online environments, the faculty members were involved with many parts of the community as identified in the Lari's model that distinguished their online presence.

By *technical presence*, I refer to the interaction of the learning environments with the technology, for example, connecting to servers, using software, and putting technology together for good pedagogical use; technical presence also refers to how technology affects the faculty members and online learning environments as well as how technical presence affects the instructional design process. Sconce (2000) describes the new media technologies as a living quality and states that with each new technology such "liveness" becomes the foundation for how we adopt and domesticate that technology and put it to good use. Sconce also states that presence, like "liveness," can illustrate some of the broad shifts in cultural forms associated with both new technologies and with societal uses and applications of these technologies. In creating their technical presence, the faculty members used WebCT Vista, Elluminate, and other online tools to create community and interaction with other members of the community such as the students and sometimes faculty members' colleagues.

I have defined *attitudinal presence* as the interactions, reactions, dispositions, feelings, or positions of faculty members towards transitioning from traditional to online classrooms. As evidenced in the online course and faculty-student interactions, attitudinal presence indicators include what the faculty members have learned in their transition from

traditional to online environments, their appreciation of what they learned or the skills they learned, and whether they use what they learned in their everyday life. Attitudinal presence indicators also include what attitude changes took place towards learning, the delivery of materials in online environments, and how their attitude, behavior or beliefs changed. At the beginning of their transition, the faculty members felt overwhelmed and were in a state of panic in dealing with the technology, getting their content across, and also, communicating with the students. In establishing an attitudinal presence, the faculty members were able to channel their negative feelings through emotional intelligence. Thus, they created an atmosphere of trust and comfort for their students and communicated a sense of "can do" attitude to the group and community.

Another type of presence noted through my research is *research presence*, which I have defined as the interaction with the research in the field and incorporation of research in the classroom, as well as making one's contribution to the research. Here the questions are: how did the faculty members come up with their teaching methodology, what made them teach in this way, and what research did they find to support the methodology? In transitioning from traditional to online environments, faculty members used the literature—as well as colleagues and technical support provided by the department and the university—to enhance their learning about online and thereby extended this learning into their community of practice, online and face-to-face classroom. Some faculty members also benefited from the experiences of their students who were more technologically savvy to enhance their online classes.

Virtual presence is defined as an illusion of presence that is created by artificial devices, such as computer displays and headphones (Patrick, 2002). In many virtual environments, equipment such as headphones is used to stimulate the senses and people experience an illusion of being somewhere they are not (Slater & Wilbur, 1997). In creating a virtual presence, the faculty members utilized different technology and tools to make their presence known. In their transition from traditional to online environments, the faculty members utilized online meeting tools, virtual chats, headsets, and microphones to enhance their virtual presence.

Literary presence is another type of presence identified through analysis of the data in this study. Patrick (2002) defined literary presence as an illusion of presence that is created by story telling. He explains that through the written word, the spoken voice, and images on film, people can be made to believe that they are somewhere they are not, or in the presence of people and objects that do not actually exist. One faculty member who taught technology and was, therefore, more technologically savvy, created an avatar that resembled himself and created a second world for his class. In creating this second world, he was able to develop activities that his class could do in this virtual world and also have his avatar in these environments to create a sense of his presence his students online.

As described, in online environments there are multiple ways for faculty members to make their presence known, as opposed to their assumption before transitioning from traditional classroom that they would be invisible in these environments. This study expands upon the types of presence previously identified by Garrison et al. (2000) as seen in Lari's model (Figure5). In identifying more types of presence in online environments, Lari's model

suggests that the more of the components that are utilized in Lari's model, the more involved the participants will be in the community of practice and the more their presence will be *felt*.

Images or Metaphors

To describe, identify, and understand the type of change the faculty members went through as they transitioned from traditional to online classrooms, the participants were asked to describe their transition through an image. Even though the participants were interviewed separately, the images described by the colleagues and students about the transition of the faculty members were similar. In only one case was the image described by the colleague and student of a faculty member different. I would like to coin the term "transitional metaphors" to convey those images that are used to describe the transition between two conditions or elements, that cause people to experience a change in the way they see things, and that take a person along a continuum or spectrum of feelings.

Deshler (1990) states that analysis of meaning through metaphors can help us reflect on our experiences and allows us to build a frame of reference for the way we perceive, think, feel, and act upon our experiences; this process can be an occasion for critical reflection and transformative learning. Bartel (1983) defines a metaphor as "Any comparison that cannot be taken literally" (p.3). Deshler (1990) claims that metaphors used by learners are created as an expression of their past experience or their commitment to the present or the future.

In conducting the interviews, I followed Deshler's guide on facilitating metaphor analysis. I first asked the participants to think about their transitions from face-to-face to online environments and to identify a metaphor that described their experience. Then they

were asked to describe in detail its meaning in reference to their experience and how this image reflected their values, beliefs, and assumptions about their transition. To better understand the meaning of the metaphor (as instructed by Deshler), the participants were asked why they had selected it and how it compared with their own life experiences. Metaphors are important in transformative learning because they provide a perspective on how we make meaning of our experiences and also give us the power to sort out our perceptions, to evaluate the meanings we have made, and to guide our goals. Dickey (1968) states that the use of metaphor "is not so much a way of understanding the world, but a way of creating it from its own part" (p. 5).

Senge (1990) describes these images as mental models. He defines mental models as deeply rooted assumptions, pictures, and images that influence how we understand the world and that guide how we take action. Acknowledging, testing, and improving these internal images, assumptions and stories, promises to contribute to the learning process (Senge, 1990). He believes that mental models are active and that they shape the way we act and affect what we see. Senge explains that two people with different mental models can observe the same event and describe it differently because they have looked at different details. What Senge describes holds true with the participants of this study. When asked about an image to describe a faculty member transition from face-to-face to online environments, the three members of the case study—the faculty member, the colleague, and the student—most often described different (although analogous) images because as Senge mentioned, they looked at details of the events differently. Argyris (1982) explains that even though people do not

always behave in accordance with what they say, they behave in accordance with their mental models.

In case number one, the faculty member described himself as having taken off his blind fold. He said, "The blindfold was taken off or the horse with the blinders on—this is all I see, but now because I'm jumping into the other tool the blinders are off and I can see everywhere. I can see all the possibilities." His colleague described him as a person who has no fear and has a "can do" attitude: "I said, [you have] got a job, got to do it, and he goes about doing it." The student saw his teacher as an actor. He said his professor was

> …like somebody in a movie. Like they give you the script and want you to learn it. So he had to start learning in the beginning and he was acting because he didn't know it very well. And then later on he went and he really knew his role, and then he became better and better. But like every artist, there's always more space for perfection. So I think he will become better later on.

In this case, the colleague and student had every confidence in the faculty member and saw him as a very capable teacher, whereas the faculty member had doubts about himself at first but gained confidence with experience.

In case number two, the faculty member described herself as learning to ice skate and said she changed with more experience. She said at first it was "like learning to ice skate. You know, you go out and you might fall down but you pick yourself up. And after you keep at it, you're able to skate around." Her colleague described her as a quick learner, "fast but as a team player." Her student said, "I think she's naturally fitted to teaching in this style. I don't know how you would describe that as an image. Like some athletes that are naturals.

You know what I mean? Like someone that might just be their style. I feel like this is probably her niche in teaching." In this case, the colleague and the faculty member saw it as a progression in learning, but to the student, the faculty member seemed very capable and sure of what she was doing.

In case number three, the faculty member described his experience as shopping for tools. He said it was

> …sort of like shopping a little bit for a different tool. Like maybe going to Lowe's or Home Depot, or something, and you're trying out different tools or different things that sort of accomplish the same task. That's what I've done. I started out with boards and I dropped all discussion boards and I've brought in content maps and some people like them and some people don't. I'm going to try Trail Fire this summer and have students do reflections in BLOGS. So we keep trying out all these different tools to see how they work for different assignments. So it's sort of like shopping around.

His colleague described his experience as like going home. She said,

> The only thing is like something about going home. For him being in a face-to-face environments is foreign and like being away on a trip … being able to facilitate an online course where he really saw much more value in the work that he put into it that the students were getting out of it, it was like coming home from a trip. So he was going home to something he felt much more comfortable in doing.

His student commented,

> It kind of flows like a river. Like you're just kind of going down it with him and you're just stopping periodically and learning things and then you go to the next thing

> and you just go to the next thing … Just kind of like a river—you just go down it. You just go with the flow and that's how I picture him. He just kind of goes with the flow.

In this case, his colleague and student saw him as a natural in online environments as he also felt himself more comfortable teaching in these environments rather than face-to-face.

In case number four, the faculty member viewed his transition from traditional to online environments saying,

> I'm going to say ladder because although ladders can be scary as you climb higher and higher, you're sort of growing in that sense too. You're moving up, you're learning more. It's enlightening and you can see more when you get to the top. That's been the experience and by no means do I consider myself an expert in the field but I've learned so much by making that first transition.

His colleague likened him to a football coach. He picked this image "just because he seems very team oriented, very engaged. You know, he's a good motivator. He gets excited about what he's doing and he motivates the people around him. Not to just act as individuals but act as a team to accomplish a task."

Since his student had taken a class with him both in face-to-face and online environments, she explained,

> It's like comparing apples to oranges because the face-to-face class was very different than the online class. And the face-to-face class, the first one I had was his first semester … so he was still figuring out how the school works and then having to teach a technology class. So for that one he was not as good at letting us know what

> was coming up in the next class so that we could bring materials that would help the class take on more meaning for us. That changed in the second one. So that was a transition that I definitely saw but I think his nature is to be prepared for the students. It was just one of those things where you're in a new place and everything takes that much longer to figure out—how do I get this resource and who do I need to go to if I want this, that or the other. So changing into a more competent instructor … So that shift—and I don't know—I don't think it's an online, face-to-face shift. I think it's more a factor of the time he had been teaching.

In this case, all members of the threesome had a different vision of what the transition was like and, therefore, described it differently.

In the fifth and final case, the faculty member described herself as going through this transition with closed eyes, like missing one of the senses. She said, "It's like I had my eyes closed and I was trying to—I felt like one of my senses was missing. That's the best way I can describe it. And I had to give up other senses to make up for the one that was missing." Her colleague described her as a person playing karate, saying, "maybe karate. Because that's more controlled and you do—you have a group that is working together and they're trained and they bounce things off of each other. But there's somebody there that's going to provide the training and the help that the person needs but you're going to take some hits." Her student envisioned her this way,

> At the beginning of the course she was like one planet side—people who only have one eye—and now she can see with both eyes. So what I'm trying to say exactly is she gained maturity and more skills by the end of the semester. Compared to those

> only teaching face-to-face she got more skills per se. She can teach face-to-face and she can teach online so now she can see with both eyes. I compare them to one eye…. Only one eye because they only have that skill. Like I said, it's challenging to teach face-to-face but being able to teach face-to-face and also online makes you more accomplished. It makes you a whole because teaching art in the twenty first century online is something really important. People don't have time anymore—time is money and also distance is more different per se, which means people want to be able to get an education even if they are paying more.

The student and the faculty member, interestingly enough, used the same image to describe her transition from traditional to online classroom.

In using metaphors, the faculty members were able to describe their transition from traditional to online environments. Their images showed a progression of improvement as they became more experienced in their transition from traditional to online environments. This research study recommends that faculty members to use an image before starting their transition to envision where they are and where they would like to see themselves after their transition. This image in effect can act as a guide to assist them in meeting their goals. This recommendation will be discussed further in the implications section.

Emotions and Emotional Intelligence

In analyzing the data for this study, it became evident that emotions and emotional intelligence played a great role in the transition of faculty members from traditional to online classrooms. As faculty members were transitioning from face-to-face to online environments, they experienced many different emotions in learning to teach in online environments and

they had to make sense of these emotions in order to be able to learn from them and use them as a resource, rather than shy away from them.

Use of the theory of emotional intelligence is important in understanding these emotions. To explain emotional intelligence, Elder (1997) defines intelligence as "the ability to learn or understand from experience or to respond successfully to new experiences" (Webster's New World Dictionary) and defines emotion as "a state of consciousness having to do with the arousal of feelings" (Webster's New World Dictionary). She describes emotional intelligence as "a measure of the degree to which a person successfully or unsuccessfully applies sound judgment and reasoning to situations in the process of determining an emotional or feeling response to those situations" (p. 40).

Even though the faculty members faced similar emotions, they all expressed themselves in different ways. One faculty member stated, "So I think the difference is you have the opportunity to see that emotional side of the person. That emotional side you can't see online. I couldn't see online as far as I was concerned. So you know the professor better in person in the face-to-face." Another faculty member noted that, "I guess in one sense when you're face-to-face—when he's like 'Oh you really did a great job' again you can see the facial expression and the way his body language is so in that sense—when somebody writes something it's a little bit different than when they actually say it."

Some experienced several emotions at the same time such as fear, excitement, frustration, and nervousness. Sometimes they felt good about what they were doing. One student stated that she could see the faculty member's excitement online because

> …it was her dissertation was in that and she—you could just tell—I think we were using instant messenger that day and she just got really excited. She just started typing a lot of—you know—you know—rapidly and getting really excited. You could just tell based on her typing that she was really excited about it.

Another student said, "In the online environments emotions play an important role because you can't see the person; but by listening to the person and listening to what they are excited about, it makes the student excited too." The word used most to describe their emotion in this transition was, "Excited"!

By acknowledging and taking time to ponder their emotions, the faculty members were not only able to have a more solid presence online, but also by using their emotional intelligence through applying reasoning to the situations that aroused their feelings and preparing a response to that feeling, they were able to direct their emotions to work to their advantage in their online experience, to make better decisions, and to enable them to better communicate with the students. The benefit of using emotional intelligence was evident in the findings of this study. The students and colleagues described the faculty members' transition from traditional to online classrooms as a smooth one, whereas the faculty members were feeling chaos. But the faculty members were successful in using their emotional intelligence in analyzing the situations that were causing them to feel chaos, enabling them to control the chaotic feelings they had, and were able to convey a feeling of safety to their students despite feeling overwhelmed.

Summary

By utilizing the data to address the questions guiding this study, two types of coding were used. The first type of coding addressed mainly the first two research questions and the second type of coding addressed primarily the third research question: how are the changes the faculty members experience as they transition from traditional to online environments defined along a continuum in relation to change theories?

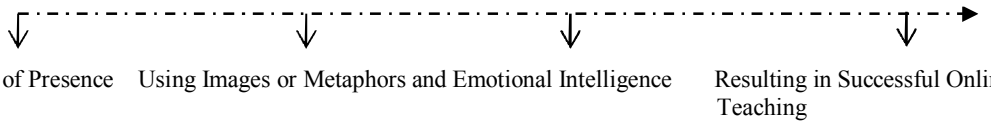
In this chapter changes and transformations, as they relate to the transition of faculty members from face-to-face to online environments, were discussed. Presence was seen as a major change in the way the faculty members saw themselves in online environments as opposed to a traditional setting. By recognizing other types of presence in these online environments in addition to those noted by Garrison et al. model (2000), an Online Community of Practice figure was created that will add to the existing presence literature, will assist in improving the learning and teaching of faulty members, and will strengthen the sense of community for all parties involved. The types of presence identified as the result of this research study include *cultural presence, societal presence, technical presence, attitudinal presence, research presence, virtual presence, and literary presence*. The identification of these types of presence gives us a glimpse of how an online community interacts and works together. As Senge et al. (2005) noted, these environments are living systems with different parts depending on one another and vital for its existence and success.

The participants of this research were asked to use a transitional metaphor to describe their experience as they transitioned from traditional to online environments. By identifying and recognizing this image, the faculty members were able to describe the changes and

transformations they experienced. As Deshler (1990) describes, the use of metaphors can help us identify with our experiences and allow us to reflect and act on them logically.

The transition of faculty members from traditional to online classroom is an emotional process. This section identified the role of emotional intelligence and how the faculty members can recognize and channel their emotions, applying sound judgment and reasoning to situations in order to create a more successful experience for the members of the community. The following line drawing illustrates how the changes the faculty members experienced as they transitioned from traditional to online environments are defined along a continuum in relation to change theories.

Transitioning from Face-to-Face to Online Environments:



In the next chapter (chapter 6), I have made recommendations for future research about emotional intelligence and faculty member transitions to online environments; in addition, I will talk about the implications for practice, give other recommendations for future research, and offer conclusions about this research.

CHAPTER 6: IMPLICATIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

This chapter presents an overview of this research followed by the implications for practice that focus on the potential impact the data has for existing faculty members and faculty members new to teaching online. The final section of this chapter includes recommendations for future research, followed by the conclusion.

Overview

The intention of this research has been to describe (a) the transition experiences of faculty members from traditional to online environments, (b) their teaching and learning assumptions, and (c) their possible changes and transformations. The results of this study contribute to the creation of a body of knowledge useful to institutions, faculty members, and others transitioning from traditional to online classrooms. It expands the online teaching literature regarding what teaching and learning means to the faculty members and allows them to bridge technology with pedagogy. By realizing how many different types of presence faculty members can have in an online environment and consciously employing these types of presence, the faculty members will come to understand that not only is teaching in an online environment not limiting, but also teaching online can offer them multiple opportunities to interact with the environment, to be more effective teachers, and to be an active part of a community of practice.

Three questions guided this research: (a) How do faculty members describe their transition from teaching face-to-face to teaching in an online environment? (b) What personal, professional, pedagogical or other assumptions do faculty members hold about the teaching and learning in traditional and online environments before starting their transition

and how do those assumptions change after their transition? And (c) How are the changes the faculty members experience as they transition from traditional to online environments defined along a continuum in relation to change theories?

Implications for Practice

The implications of this research affect not only new and existing faculty members preparing to teach online or transitioning from traditional to online environment but also institutions that are supporting the large number of faculty members who are transitioning between the two environments. A number of implications for practice emerged as a result of this research. These implications include professional and course development.

Professional Preparation

In the interviews for both the pilot study and this research study, the participants were provided with examples of images that described a person's undergoing change and transition, images such as wanting to become a ballerina and having to try over and over again, and also the example of going to a shoe store to try on new shoes, finding some that did not fit (Lari & Wiessner, 2005). Participants in this study were asked to choose and describe a mental image that would capture the faculty member's transitions from traditional to online classroom. Boyd and Myers (1988) and Boyd (1985, 1989) believe that symbols and images play a role in transformation. Kritskaya and Dirkx (2000) state that images make up an integrative interpretation of the experiences, this integrative interpretation makes up the environment surrounding a person and places emphasis on emotions encountered in a learning process, emphasizing the use of images. Dirkx (1998b) explains that it is when

learners view their experiences through images, they discover how to construct meaning in the relationship between the image and their own life experiences.

As the faculty members described their transition through images, they came to understand their experience better and to think of it as not a chaotic experience but rather as a more manageable task. Through these interviews, I came to realize that if faculty members who were getting ready for transitioning could create for themselves ahead of time a mental image of where they were and where they would like to be, then they could find their own roadmap so as to plan and prepare a smoother transition. They could understand that there will be obstacles along the way but that they can overcome them. By identifying an image or metaphor, the faculty members would be able to control their own perspective of where they are and where they would like to be. As for this research study, I would use the image of a swimmer. When you first start to learn to swim, you feel like you are in an ocean and the task of having to swim is enormous. As you advance, the ocean gets smaller and smaller and the task of swimming gets easier as well. When I started with this research, there was so much to understand, learn, and absorb that it felt as if there would be no end. As time went by and I became better read in the literature, the research started to take form and seemed more doable. Now, I feel that I have accomplished what I set out to do and I have discovered that I am a good swimmer! My transition has paralleled that of my research participants in many ways.

Among other things that surfaced in the interviews was the topic of preparation. As revealed in the findings, preparation for transitioning from traditional to online environments was at the top of the list for all faculty members. The interviews yielded several other

guidelines. Table 4 details a list of reminders for planning and teaching in an online environment.

Table 4: *Reminders for Planning and Teaching in an Online Environment*

1	To address their needs and make sure that the technology is up and running, the faculty members should have an initial face-to-face meeting with the technical support person.
2	The faculty members should plan out the online class ahead of time. They should get a feel for the activities planned and have a contingency plan set in place if the technology is not working, even though upfront planning and forecasting can be frustrating.
3	The faculty members should stay focused on what they are most knowledgeable in, should recognize their comfort level and the way they do things, and should understand that there are different ways to accomplish a task.
4	The faculty members should focus on the quality of the instruction they are going to provide to students in an online environment.

This table gives a few strategies to faculty members as they prepare to transition from traditional to online environments.

Course Development

In analyzing the data, the results revealed the importance of faculty presence in the development and maintenance of an online class. In their model of Community of Inquiry: Elements of an educational experience, Garrison et al. (2000) stated that there are three types of presence in an online environment (Figure 5). These types of presences include social presence, teaching presence, and cognitive presence. The findings of this study showed that there are several other types of presence in an online environment, which are presented in Lari's figure (Figure 6). As detailed in chapter 5, these types of presence include cultural presence, societal presence, technical presence, attitudinal presence, research presence, virtual presence, and literary presence. If faculty members become aware of the different types of presence in online environments, then they will not feel bound to certain types of

activities or resources. By recognizing the different types of presence in online environments, the faculty members can have more freedom in creating their new learning and teaching space, leading to a richer and fuller experience for those participating in this online environment. Moreover, the inclusion of more types of presence in the online environment makes for a fuller online space and therefore, a greater and stronger presence.

As revealed in the findings of this study, the participants felt that there were other factors involved in designing, developing, and maintaining an online course. In creating an online course, there may be numerous people involved, and it is, therefore, a team effort. If there are several people assisting with designing and developing the class, there must be balance between the production team and the faculty members for creating the online instructions. It is important for faculty members to have faith in the people they enlist to help them. In addition, their departments must commit to faculty members who will be using technology to have the necessary hardware and software to conduct the online class. The faculty members should talk to other faculty members who are currently teaching an online class, shadow them, ask questions, share their thoughts, and look at how online classes are designed, developed, and taught. The faculty members must be very flexible in using tools in an online environment because they might run into technical problems; they must have contingency plans of how to conduct the class with alternative tools and methods.

Organization is of great importance not only in a face-to-face classroom but especially in an online environment where the class might be in a synchronous or asynchronous format; there is a lot of self-directed learning both for the students and for the faculty members. The faculty members must be extremely structured and organized in an

online environment. They must consider different options in using technology as well as online teaching methodology (pedagogy); on the other hand, they must avoid becoming overwhelmed by the vast amount of options in this environment. In designing the course, the faculty members must maintain consistency in their course design and content so that the students do not get confused and so that they can work independently and can work ahead of the schedule if they choose to do so.

As in any classroom, the faculty members should set clear parameters about expectations for online communication, should be crystal clear on assignments and class operations, and should describe how the course is laid out. They should definitively state the objectives for the course and the media tools needed to meet those objectives. The faculty members must be honest with themselves about how much longer it takes for students to do assignments and readings online and set expectations for students accordingly.

Communication is vital and a lifeline for success in an online environment. Also, in an online environment, having an online presence for the faculty members is very important for the success of the class and for the students. The faculty members should get to know students the first week of class online, establishing rapport and communication with the students. The faculty members should keep in touch with the students online so that the students do not feel they are on their own; faculty members should send emails to students to inquire if there are any problems if the students are not participating and responding to class discussions. The faculty members should try to create safe learning space for students online and emphasize the importance of the students' learning in this environment; they should not give negative reinforcement online to the students. To a certain extent, the faculty members

should be accommodating to students in an online environment if they cannot meet on a certain time or date. There should be a limit set for the scope of the course so that there are more in-depth and critical conversations; faculty members should try to find means of collaboration that are more engaging. Instead of requiring so many posts that address the students as a group, the faculty members should read what students write and respond directly to the students.

As faculty members transition from traditional to online classrooms, they should not be afraid of the technology. They should utilize the tools that they are comfortable using; they can experiment with different tools over time and incorporate them in upcoming semesters. They should pay close attention to the class web page design and use technology to mediate the quality of their instruction. The faculty members should give students time to learn new programs and software related to the course instructions and to inform students of the best use of media to get information across. The faculty members should also help construct ideas that will enhance and facilitate the students' online experience. In addition, the faculty members should be patient and flexible with students who are new to technology use and to the online class environment. It would be beneficial to the students in an online environment if the instructor would provide students with external references to use. It would be beneficial for the faculty members to be provided with different resources for using technology and for teaching in online environments. Faculty members should also be provided opportunities to attend workshops and seminars.

The major implications of this research were (a) the use transitional metaphors, (b) the use of emotional intelligence, and (c) the use of different types of online presence as

noted in Lari's figure (Figure 6). By using transitional metaphors, the faculty members could better envision their transition from traditional to online environments. Through the use of emotional intelligence, the faculty members could guide their emotions to influence their successful transition. Acknowledging the different types of presence the faculty members can have online enables the faculty members and their institutions to have more power in planning an online class and to be more effective in the way the faculty members teach, learn, and interact with their community of practice.

A New Element in Communities of Practice

A community of practice is defined as a group of people who share an interest in something they do and learn how to do it better as they interact with each other in a social process (Wenger,1998). While Lari's Online Community of Practice figure (Figure 6) presents the reader with *attitudinal presence* indicating the role of emotions in an online community of practice as illustrated in the findings, Wenger's community of practice does not include this element in his components of learning, meaning, identity, and community in this environment. As evidenced in the findings, the element of attitudinal presence (emotions) should be taken into consideration for further study to extend Wenger's community of practice model and to further gain understanding of how it can generate learning, meaning, identity, and community in a community of practice.

Necessary measures were taken to ensure the trustworthiness of the data collected in this research study.

Recommendations for Future Research

This research brought to light several areas that need further investigation to expand upon and enlighten us on how transitions from traditional to online environments happen and what factors are in effect in those transitions. These areas include (a) the role of emotions and emotional intelligence in transitioning from traditional to online classroom, (b) aging and transitioning to online environments, (c) career and professional development, (d) perceptions of the faculty members who do not teach online compared with perceptions of those who do, (e) identifying more ways to create the types of presence needed in online teaching, and (f) researching to see whether it is possible only for faculty members to create types of presence in an online environment or whether students can also create such types of presence.

Emotions and emotional intelligence play a very important role in transition of faculty members from tradition to online environment. Emotional intelligence refers to ability to recognize meaning of emotions, their relationships, and to reason and problem-solve on these bases (Mayer et al., 2000). Emotional intelligence is involved in the capacity to perceive emotions, to assimilate emotion-related feelings, to understand information about those emotions, and to manage them (Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). One faculty member demonstrated this fact by stating that "being interested in tools as your area of research and bringing different tools into these courses gives me a chance to try them out so it's exciting for me to teach online". Dirkx (2006) states that understanding affective, emotional, and spiritual dimensions of adult learning, development, and transformation assists us in understanding the roles emotions play in revealing how learners perceive reality.

There is very little literature that discusses the role of emotional intelligence as faculty members transition from traditional to online environment; therefore, further investigation is much needed to understand how emotions affect the decision-making process and the transitions of these faculty members. Along this theme, it would also be beneficial to understand the stages of emotional intelligence and where the faculty members locate themselves along this continuum as they transition from traditional to online classrooms.

A somewhat surprising finding of this study was the relationship between online teaching and the age of the instructor. Despite the fact that baby boomers are coming into retirement age and that faculty members in this age range are being required to or are being given the opportunity to teach online, there is not a lot of literature that discusses the effects of aging among faculty members on their teaching in a traditional versus an online environment and the impact of aging on their learning (curve). One study addresses the age of students but not faculty: Edelson (1998) states that online "reskilling" may be a necessity as the age of learners increases and the time available for one's studies is curtailed by job and family responsibilities. Such "reskilling" may be needed for faculty as well. For aging faculty members teaching in an online environment could be both an advantage and a disadvantage .One faculty member noted that, "For older faculty teaching online is less tiring and less draining but their learning curve is high and sometimes [it is] difficult to learn all [the] technology." A younger faculty member stated, "A lot of the students are older than me, a lot of the students teach, they control students all day long before they come into my class and so I think maybe there is this—it could be a paranoid thing in my mind but it seems to be

maybe the students think they have more teaching experience and why is this guy teaching us."

An interesting area for further research is the amount of impact online teaching has on the *career and professional development* of faculty members. As evidenced in this research, the transition of faculty members from traditional to online classroom provided them with many opportunities such as prospects for different job options, chances to gain recognition in the institution, and possibilities for creating new research areas. It would be interesting to know more about what additional effects this transition has had on the faculty members' professional development. For example, would the use of transitional metaphors assist the faculty members in planning their transition in order to provide themselves more professional growth and development?

As faculty members transition from traditional to online classrooms they face many obstacles, but many of them believe that they are not acknowledged or recognized for this difficult task. As I surveyed the literature about the *perception of the faculty members who do not teach online compared with perceptions of those who do* teach in this environment, I did not come across literature that addresses this problem. A faculty member noted that "I often get kidded a lot that I don't teach because I teach online and because I don't go to a set classroom every day in one place for three hours. They don't view that as teaching. And they think it's a lot easier." I believe it is extremely important for faculty members who are transitioning to an online environment to have a network that not only acknowledges these faculty members for their efforts but also believes in them and supports them. A major concern for the untenured faculty was that "Your [senior] faculty who will come back and

want to evaluate you, if they don't value distance education or they don't think that what you're doing has a purpose or function, it's going to have some sort of impact there."

Other recommendation for future research include identifying more ways to create the types of presence as noted in Lari's figure (Figure 6) in order for faculty members to be able to be more integrated with their respective community of practice and to have a more successful teaching experience. This research also recommends further investigation into whether is it possible only for faculty members to create types of presence in an online environment or whether students and other members of the online community of practice can also create such types of presence.

Conclusion

As faculty members started their transition from face-to-face to online environments, they were very nervous. They felt overwhelmed by the professional preparation and amount of detail necessary to create an online course. They had to adjust and modify their teaching strategies to match the population. At the same time, the faculty members were learners themselves, having to learn to use the technology through trial and error, to take workshops and to receive support from their colleagues and sometimes students (who were at times more technologically savvy than the faculty members).

As the time progressed, as the faculty members started to explore distance education, they obtained experience with the new environment as well as with the students from different backgrounds and from many walks of life. The faculty started to see the benefits of teaching online and learned to appreciate this educational approach. As a result of this

transition, they were also highly visible in their department, which allowed people to recognize and appreciate their efforts. They gained a gradual sense of confidence.

As a result of this study, many different types of online presence were identified. Through the use of these types of presence, the faculty members found that they can have a greater impact on their online community of practice; enabling the faculty members' presence to be more *felt* in an online environment. Through the use of types of presence, there can be more opportunities for the faculty members, the students, and other members of the society to collaborate and further their common goal of learning. Also, as it was revealed in this research, use of transitional metaphors can be of help in creating a path for transitioning faculty members from traditional to online classrooms; use of transitional metaphors can also assist the educational administrators in creating a road map for this type of transition for the faculty members in their institutions. As the number of institutions gravitating toward distance education grows, it is inevitable that number of faculty members transitioning from traditional to online environments will continue to increase. The findings of this research will contribute to the common goal of successful faculty member transitions.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Research Questions

1. How do faculty members describe their transition from teaching face-to-face to teaching in an online environment?
2. What personal, professional, pedagogical or other assumptions do faculty members hold about teaching and learning in traditional and online environments before starting their transition and how do those assumptions change after their transition?
3. How are the changes the faculty members experience as they transition from traditional to online environments defined along a continuum in relation to change theories?

Faculty Interview questions

1 Can you tell me the story of how you started teaching online?

2 What was that process like for you?

   a. First few weeks of your transition from face-to-face to online teaching?
   b. Mid semester in your transition process?
   c. End of the semester in your transition process?

3 Did you receive any help?

   a. What resources were helpful to you in transitioning from face-to-face to online environment?

4 Describe how you learned to teach online.

5 Can you tell me about how you think teaching online and teaching face-to-face are alike and how they are different?

6 Can you describe the advantages of teaching in a face-to-face classroom?

7 What do you think the disadvantages are in teaching in a face-to-face classroom?

8 Can you tell me about the advantages of teaching in an online classroom?

9 What do you think the disadvantages are to teaching in an online classroom?

10 Can you talk about your beliefs and assumptions about your own teaching and learning in face-to-face and online environment?

11 Can you talk about the pedagogy in teaching face-to-face and teaching in an online environment?

12 What are your thoughts about class preparation between face-to-face and an online environment?

   a. Describe the measures you took to prepare for transitioning from traditional to online environment. How adequate was your preparation?

   b. Was there enough time for you to prepare for transitioning from traditional to online environment?

13 Can you describe how you see students' learning experiences between face-to-face and online environment?

14 Can you talk about your abilities, strengths and weaknesses in teaching classes in face-to-face and online environment?

15 Thinking back to when you started teaching online, can you remember how it affected you personally and professionally?

   a. Can you tell me about power issues in terms of your teaching and your handling the classroom in a face-to-face class versus an online class?

b. Can you describe the role your emotions played in your transition from traditional to online classroom? Were you feeling excited, nervous, challenged?
c. How did technological issues affect your transition from traditional to online classroom?
d. Describe the role your voice and persona played in face-to-face and online environment.
e. Do you feel your personality as well represented online as it is face-to-face?
f. Tell me about your role as a teacher in face-to-face and online environment.
g. How do you see yourself as a result of this experience as a teacher and as a learner?
h. Tell me about the role your personal reflection played in your transition from traditional to online environment.
i. Describe how you see your professional or personal development in transitioning from traditional to online classroom.

16 If you had to choose an image to describe your transition from traditional to online environment, what would it be?

a. What made you pick this image?
b. Has your image changed from when you started out this transition and now that you have become familiar with this transition?

17 Can you share some of your most significant learning moments in your transition from traditional to online environment?

a. Can you share some of what you have learned from working with students in an online environment in comparison to face-to-face environment?
b. What are your perspectives on the relationship between student learning styles and the online environment?
c. What are your perspectives on the relationship between faculty learning styles and the online environment?
d. What are your perspectives on the relationship between faculty teaching styles and the online environment?

18 What recommendations would you have for those faculty members just starting their transition from traditional to online classroom?

19 As you know I'm going to be talking to one colleagues and one of your students, is there anything you would like me to ask them about you?

Colleague Interview questions

1 Can you tell me the story of how your colleague started teaching online.

2 What was that process like for them?

a. First few weeks of their transition from face-to-face to online teaching?
b. Mid semester in their transition process?
c. End of the semester in their transition process?

3 Did they receive any help?

4 Describe how they learned to teach online.

5 Can you tell me what kinds of things they talked about related to teaching online and teaching face-to-face? And how they thought it was similar or different?

6 Can you tell me about the advantages your colleague believed teaching in a face-to-face classroom had?

7 Can you tell me about this advantages your colleague thought teaching in a face-to-face classroom had?

8 Can you tell me about the advantages your colleague believed teaching in an online classroom had?

9 Can you tell me about the disadvantages your colleague believed teaching in an online classroom had?

10 Can you talk about their beliefs and assumptions about teaching and learning in face-to-face and online environment?

11 Can you talk about their beliefs about the pedagogy in teaching face-to-face and teaching in an online environment?

12 What were their thoughts about class preparation between face-to-face and an online environment?

13 Can you describe how they saw students' learning experiences between face-to-face and online environment?

14 Can you talk about their abilities, strengths and weaknesses in teaching classes in face-to-face and online environment?

15 Thinking back to when they started teaching online, can you remember how it affected them personally and professionally?

    a. Can you tell me about their power issues and struggles in terms of teaching and handling the classroom in a face-to-face class versus an online class?

b. Can you describe the role their emotions played in your transition from traditional to online classroom? Were they feeling excited, nervous, challenged?
c. How did technological issues affect their transition from traditional to online classroom?
d. Describe the role their voice and persona plays in face-to-face and online environment.
e. Did you feel their personality was as well represented online as it was face-to-face?
f. Tell me about their role as a teacher in face-to-face and online environment.
g. Tell me about the role their personal reflection played in their transition from traditional to online environment.
h. Describe the measures they took to prepare for transitioning from traditional to online environment. How adequate was their preparation?
i. Was there enough time for them to prepare for transitioning from traditional to online environment?
j. Describe how you see their professional or personal development in transitioning from traditional to online classroom.

16 If you had to choose an image to describe your colleagues' transition from traditional to online environment, what would it be?

a. What made you pick this image?

b. Has your image changed from when they started out this transition and now that they have become familiar with this transition?

17 Can you share some of their most significant learning moments in their transition from traditional to online environment?

a. Can you share some of what they have learned from working with students in an online environment in comparison to face-to-face environment?

b. Can you talk about their perspectives on the relationship between student learning styles and the online environment?

c. Can you tell me about their perspectives on the relationship between faculty learning styles and the online environment?

d. Describe their perspectives on the relationship between faculty teaching styles and the online environment?

e. What resources were helpful to them in transitioning from face-to-face to online environment?

f. How do you see them as a result of this experience as a teacher and as a learner?

18 What recommendations would you have for those faculty members just starting their transition from traditional to online classroom?

Student Interview questions

1- At the time when you took the class with this professor, had you taken any online classes prior to this?

2- Describe what the experience was like for you at beginning? Half way? At the end of the class?

3- Describe what your impressions were of your professor as an online teacher? At the beginning? Half way? At the end of the class?

4- Can you tell me a story about your professor in transitioning from face-to-face to online teaching?

5- What was the process like for them? What did you observe?

    a. First few weeks?

    b. Mid semester?

    c. End of the semester?

6- Did they receive any help?

7- Can you tell me what kinds of things they talked about related to teaching online and teaching face-to-face? And how they thought it was similar or different?

8- Can you tell me how they handled power issues and struggles in terms of teaching and handling the classroom?

9- Can you describe the role their emotions played when transitioning from traditional to online classroom? Were they feeling excited, nervous, challenged?

10- Can you tell me how technological issues affected their transition from traditional to online classroom?

11- Can you describe your professor's personality online?

12- Can you tell me about the role they played in teaching online?

13- How adequately prepared were they in transitioning from traditional to online environment?

14- Describe how you see their professional or personal development in transitioning from traditional to online classroom.

15-Can you describe the advantages and disadvantages about teaching in a face-to-face classroom?

16-Can you describe the advantages and disadvantages about teaching in an online classroom?

17-If you had to choose an image to describe their transition from traditional to online environment, what would it be?

a. What made you pick this image?
b. Has your image change from when they started out this transition and now that they have become familiar with this transition?

18-What do you feel were your professor' significant learning moments in transitioning from traditional to online environment?

a. Can you share some of what they have learned from working with students in an online environment in comparison to face-to-face environment?
b. Can you talk about their perspectives on the relationship between student learning styles and the online environment?
c. Can you tell me about their perspectives on the relationship between faculty learning styles and the online environment?

d. Describe their perspectives on the relationship between faculty teaching styles and the online environment?
e. What resources were helpful to them in transitioning from face-to-face to online environment?
f. How do you see them as a result of this experience as a teacher and as a learner?

19- What recommendations would you have for those faculty members just starting their transition from traditional to online classroom?

20- Overall experience; if I want to take an online class again?

Appendix B

North Carolina State University

Informed Consent Form for Research (Colleague)

Title of Study Understanding teaching experiences: Faculty transitions from traditional to online classrooms

Principal Investigator Pooneh Lari Faculty Sponsor (if applicable) Colleen Aalsburg Wiessner

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We are asking you to participate in a research study. We are asking you to participate in a research study. The purpose of this study is to learn more about how faculty members transition from traditional to online classrooms. Participation will involve interviews with faculty members who have undergone this transition, as well as interviews with one colleague and one student chosen by that faculty member.

INFORMATION
You have been chosen as a candidate for participation because your colleague has identified you as someone who may be able provide insight into his/her online teaching experience. If you agree to participate in this study, you will be asked to participate in one in-depth interview. The duration of the interview will be between 1-1.5 hour. After each interview is transcribed, you will be given the opportunity to review your transcripts for accuracy, make clarifications and point out any parts of the interview they care not to make public. Also, I may contact you for clarification of any responses you made during the interview. Besides the interview, I would appreciate if you could share any documents, e-mails or journals you may have that will help me gain insight on your colleague's learning and teaching assumptions during their transition from traditional to online classroom.

At the beginning of the interview, I'm going to explain that I am looking for description of these faculty member's learning, teaching and transition from traditional to online classroom and not any negative information. I am specifically looking for not what they have done wrong but a description of their learning process.

Also, the nature of the interview questions does not illicit negativity or criticism of another person and the questions are not aimed at personal attributes and skills but toward learning and teaching experience. This type of triad interviewing, including the faculty, the colleague and the student, is based on Brookfield's book[1] (1995). He explains that discussing ones' teaching is a natural part of a collegial relationship in academia and it is a teaching process and a part of how teachers reflect on learning to teach. Brookfield talks about how faculty learn through self-reflection and through looking at their lived experiences.

RISKS
The main risk to you from participation stems from breaches of confidentiality. A possible risk of participating in this study and interview is the discussion of your perceptions of your colleague's online teaching. If confidentiality were inadvertently breached, you may feel embarrassed or concerned about your responses. In order to protect confidentiality, all data, including emails or other teaching documents, will be maintained in a confidential manner, using a code number that is linked to your identity. The 'master list' that links your code number to your identity will be stored separately from the transcriptions. No one will read your interview responses besides the researcher and yourself. Any reports of the research results will not include any names.

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[1] Brookfield, S. D. (1995). *Becoming a critically reflective teacher*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass

BENEFITS
In this research, the faculty members have been chosen because they have identified themselves as successful online teachers and they have best practices and experiences to share which will benefit a whole community of researchers and practitioners in this field.

Through the interviews, you may gain more insight on how learning and teaching assumptions are affected through transition from traditional to online classroom and be able to take away best practices from the faculty member's experience. The results of this dissertation will also be available to you upon request.

This project also illuminates an area of transformative learning that has been largely unexamined in previous studies. Other implications of this study will be to the benefit of a whole host of others besides the North Carolina State University faulty members such as new online faulty members, online support staff, department chairs, curriculum developers, directors of faculty development and those involved in planning and developing distance education efforts.

CONFIDENTIALITY
You will not be identified by your actual name in the research. Your identity will be protected with a code number that is linked to your name. The 'master list' that matches your code number and name will be stored separately from the interview data. You will be provided with your interview transcript and you will be given the opportunity to review any information that will be shared in the research report for accuracy and for confidentiality.

CONTACT
If you have questions at any time about the study or the procedures, you may contact the researcher, Pooneh Lari, at NCSU, Department of Adult and Higher Education, Campus Box 7801, or [919-818-4360]. If you feel you have not been treated according to the descriptions in this form, or your rights as a participant in research have been violated during the course of this project, you may contact Dr. David Kaber, Chair of the NCSU IRB for the Use of Human Subjects in Research Committee, Box 7514, NCSU Campus (919/515-3086) or Mr. Matthew Ronning, Assistant Vice Chancellor, Research Administration, Box 7514, NCSU Campus (919/513-2148)

PARTICIPATION
Your participation in this study is voluntary; you may decline to participate without penalty. If you decide to participate, you may withdraw from the study at any time without penalty and without loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. If you withdraw from the study before data collection is completed your data will be returned to you or destroyed at your request.

CONSENT
"I have read and understand the above information. I have received a copy of this form. I agree to participate in this study with the understanding that I may withdraw at any time."

Subject's signature_____ **Date** _____

Investigator's signature_____ **Date** _____

Appendix C

North Carolina State University

Informed Consent Form for Research (Faculty)

Title of Study Understanding teaching experiences: Faculty transitions from traditional to online classrooms

Principal Investigator Pooneh Lari Faculty Sponsor (if applicable) Colleen Aalsburg Wiessner

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We are asking you to participate in a research study. We are asking you to participate in a research study. We are asking you to participate in a research study. The purpose of this study is to learn more about how faculty members transition from traditional to online classrooms. Participation will involve interviews with faculty members who have undergone this transition, as well as interviews with one colleague and one student chosen by that faculty member.

INFORMATION

If you agree to participate in this study, you will be asked to participate in one in-depth interview. The duration of the interview will be between 1-1.5 hour. After each interview is transcribed, you will be given the opportunity to review your transcripts for accuracy, make clarifications and point out any parts of the interview they care not to make public. Also, I may contact you for clarification of any responses you made during the interview. Besides the interview, I would appreciate if you could share any documents, e-mails or journals you may have that will help me gain insight on your learning and teaching assumptions during your transition from traditional to online classroom. Also, I will ask you to refer me to a colleague and a former student of yours who would have insight on your transition from traditional to online classroom and will be able to talk about your experience.

The nature of the interview questions does not illicit negativity or criticism and the questions are not aimed at personal attributes and skills but toward learning and teaching experience. This type of triad interviewing, including the faculty, the colleague and the student, is based on Brookfield's book[2] (1995). He explains that discussing ones' teaching is a natural part of a collegial relationship in academia and it is a teaching process and a part of how teachers reflect on learning to teach. Brookfield talks about how faculty learn through self-reflection and through looking at their lived experiences.

RISKS

The study involves an in-depth discussion of your teaching experiences while transitioning from traditional to online classrooms. You may feel some discomfort at the thought of your colleague and former student discussing their perceptions of this transition. At the beginning of the interview, I'm going to explain to your colleague and your student that I am looking for description of your learning, teaching and transition from traditional to online classroom and not any negative information. I am specifically looking for not what you have done wrong but a description of your learning process.

Additionally your identity (as well as your colleague and student) will be protected via the use of a code number on interview transcripts. This code number will be linked to your identity, and the 'master list' that matches your code number and name will be stored separately from other data.

BENEFITS

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[2] Brookfield, S. D. (1995). *Becoming a critically reflective teacher*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass

In this research, you have been chosen because you have identified yourself as successful online teacher and have best practices and experiences to share which will benefit a whole community of researchers and practitioners in this field.

Through the interviews, you might gain more insight on how your learning and teaching assumptions are affected through your transition from traditional to online classroom. The results of this dissertation will also be available to you upon request.

This project also illuminates an area of transformative learning that has been largely unexamined in previous studies. Other implications of this study will be to the benefit of a whole host of others besides the North Carolina State University faulty members such as new online faulty members, online support staff, department chairs, curriculum developers, directors of faculty development and those involved in planning and developing distance education efforts.

CONFIDENTIALITY

You will not be identified by your actual name in the research. Your identity will be protected with a code number that is linked to your name. The 'master list' that matches your code number and name will be stored separately from the interview data. You will be provided with your interview transcript and you will be given the opportunity to review any information that will be shared in the research report for accuracy and for confidentiality.

CONTACT

If you have questions at any time about the study or the procedures, you may contact the researcher, Pooneh Lari, at NCSU, Department of Adult and Higher Education, Campus Box 7801, or [919-818-4360]. If you feel you have not been treated according to the descriptions in this form, or your rights as a participant in research have been violated during the course of this project, you may contact Dr. David Kaber, Chair of the NCSU IRB for the Use of Human Subjects in Research Committee, Box 7514, NCSU Campus (919/515-3086) or Mr. Matthew Ronning, Assistant Vice Chancellor, Research Administration, Box 7514, NCSU Campus (919/513-2148)

PARTICIPATION

Your participation in this study is voluntary; you may decline to participate without penalty. If you decide to participate, you may withdraw from the study at any time without penalty and without loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. If you withdraw from the study before data collection is completed your data will be returned to you or destroyed at your request.

CONSENT

"I have read and understand the above information. I have received a copy of this form. I agree to participate in this study with the understanding that I may withdraw at any time."

Subject's signature_____ **Date** _____

Investigator's signature_____ **Date** _____

Appendix D

North Carolina State University

Informed Consent Form for Research (Student)

Title of Study Understanding teaching experiences: Faculty transitions from traditional to online classrooms
Principal Investigator Pooneh Lari
Faculty Sponsor (if applicable) Colleen Aalsburg Wiessner

We are asking you to participate in a research study. The purpose of this study is to learn more about how faculty members transition from traditional to online classrooms. Participation will involve interviews with faculty members who have undergone this transition, as well as interviews with one colleague and one student chosen by that faculty member.

INFORMATION
You have been chosen as a candidate for participation because a former professor has identified you as a student who may be able provide insight into his/her online teaching experience, and because you have no relationship with that professor at this time. If you agree to participate in this study, you will be asked to participate in one in-depth interview about your experiences as student of this professor. The duration of the interview will be between 1-1.5 hour. After each interview is transcribed, you will be given the opportunity to review your transcripts for accuracy, make clarifications and point out any parts of the interview they care not to make public. Also, I may contact you for clarification of any responses you made during the interview. Besides the interview, I would appreciate if you could share any documents, e-mails or journals you may have that will help me gain insight on your faculty member's learning and teaching assumptions during your observation of their transition from traditional to online classroom.

At the beginning of the interview, I'm going to explain that I am looking for description of these faculty member's learning, teaching and transition from traditional to online classroom and not any negative information. I am specifically looking for not what they have done wrong but a description of their learning process.

Also, the nature of the interview questions does not illicit negativity or criticism of another person and the questions are not aimed at personal attributes and skills but toward learning and teaching experience. This type of triad interviewing, including the faculty, the colleague and the student, is based on Brookfield's book[3] (1995). He explains that discussing ones' teaching is a natural part of a collegial relationship in academia and it is a teaching process and a part of how teachers reflect on learning to teach. Brookfield talks about how faculty learn through self-reflection and through looking at their lived experiences.

RISKS
The main risk to you from participation stems from breaches of confidentiality. A possible risk of participating in this study and interview is the discussion of your perceptions of your professor's online teaching. If confidentiality were inadvertently breached, you may feel embarrassed or concerned about your responses. In order to protect confidentiality, all data, including emails or other teaching documents, will be maintained in a confidential manner, using a code number that is linked to your identity. The 'master list' that links your code number to your identity will be stored separately from the transcriptions. No one will read your interview responses besides the researcher and yourself. Any reports of the research results will not include any names.

BENEFITS

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[3] Brookfield, S. D. (1995). *Becoming a critically reflective teacher*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass

In this research, the faculty members have been chosen because they have identified themselves as successful online teachers and they have best practices and experiences to share which will benefit a whole community of researchers and practitioners in this field.

Through the interviews, you may gain more insight on how learning and teaching assumptions are affected through transition from traditional to online classroom, be able to understand how and why a faculty member teachers the way they do and be able to take away best practices from the faculty member's experience. The results of this dissertation will also be available to you upon request. This may improve your online teaching.

This project also illuminates an area of transformative learning that has been largely unexamined in previous studies. Other implications of this study will be to the benefit of a whole host of others besides the North Carolina State University faulty members such as new online faulty members, online support staff, department chairs, curriculum developers, directors of faculty development and those involved in planning and developing distance education efforts.

CONFIDENTIALITY
You will not be identified by your actual name in the research. Your identity will be protected with a code number that is linked to your name. The 'master list' that matches your code number and name will be stored separately from the interview data. You will be provided with your interview transcript and you will be given the opportunity to review any information that will be shared in the research report for accuracy and for confidentiality.

CONTACT
If you have questions at any time about the study or the procedures, you may contact the researcher, Pooneh Lari, at NCSU, Department of Adult and Higher Education, Campus Box 7801, or [919-818-4360]. If you feel you have not been treated according to the descriptions in this form, or your rights as a participant in research have been violated during the course of this project, you may contact Dr. David Kaber, Chair of the NCSU IRB for the Use of Human Subjects in Research Committee, Box 7514, NCSU Campus (919/515-3086) or Mr. Matthew Ronning, Assistant Vice Chancellor, Research Administration, Box 7514, NCSU Campus (919/513-2148)

PARTICIPATION
Your participation in this study is voluntary; you may decline to participate without penalty. If you decide to participate, you may withdraw from the study at any time without penalty and without loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. If you withdraw from the study before data collection is completed your data will be returned to you or destroyed at your request.

CONSENT
"I have read and understand the above information. I have received a copy of this form. I agree to participate in this study with the understanding that I may withdraw at any time."

Subject's signature_____ **Date** _____

Investigator's signature_____ **Date** _____

Appendix E

North Carolina State University
Institutional Review Board for the Use of Human Subjects in Research
Submission for New Studies
Title of Project:

Principal Investigator Pooneh Lari **Department** Adult and Higher Education

Source of Funding (**required** information): Self
(if externally funded include sponsor name and university account number)

Campus Address (Box Number) 7801

Email: Pooneh_lari@ncsu.edu Phone: 919-818-4360 Fax:

RANK: ☐ Faculty

☒ Student: ☐Undergraduate; ☐ Masters; or ☒PhD

☐ Other (specify): _____

As the principal investigator, my signature testifies that I have read and understood the University Policy and Procedures for the Use of Human Subjects in Research. I assure the Committee that all procedures performed under this project will be conducted exactly as outlined in the Proposal Narrative and that any modification to this protocol will be submitted to the Committee in the form of an amendment for its approval prior to implementation.

Principal Investigator:

Pooneh Lari	Pooneh Lari	02/02/07
(typed/printed name)	(signature)	(date)

*As the faculty sponsor, my signature testifies that I have reviewed this application thoroughly and will oversee the research in its entirety. I hereby acknowledge my role as the **principal investigator of record**.*

Faculty Sponsor:

Colleen Aalsburg Wiessner	Colleen Aalsburg Wiessner	02/02/07
(typed/printed name)	(signature)	(date)

PLEASE COMPLETE IN DUPLICATE AND DELIVER, ALONG WITH A PROPOSAL NARRATIVE, TO:
Institutional Review Board, Box 7514, or email as an attachment to debra_paxton@ncsu.edu

****

For SPARCS office use only
*Reviewer Decision **(Expedited or Exempt Review)***
☐ Exempt ☐ Approved ☐ Approved pending modifications ☐ Table

Expedited Review Category: ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐ 6 ☒ 7 ☐ 8a ☐ 8b ☐ 8c ☐ 9

_____	_____	_____
Reviewer Name	Signature	Date

North Carolina State University
Institutional Review Board for the Use of Human Subjects in Research
GUIDELINES FOR A PROPOSAL NARRATIVE

In your narrative, address each of the topics outlined below. Every application for IRB review must contain a proposal narrative, and failure to follow these directions will result in delays in reviewing/processing the protocol.

A. INTRODUCTION

1. Briefly describe in lay language the purpose of the proposed research and why it is important.

The questions guiding this research are: 1) How do graduate faculty members describe their transition from teaching face-to-face to teaching in an online environment? 2) What personal, professional, pedagogical or other assumptions do graduate faculty members hold about the teaching and learning in traditional and online environments before starting their transition and how do those assumptions change after their transition? and 3) How are the changes the faculty members experience as they transition from traditional to online environments defined along a continuum in relation to change theories?
By describing the transition experiences of faculty members from traditional to online environments, their teaching and learning assumptions and possible changes and transformations, this study will assist those faculty members who have been frustrated, struggling and have been resistant to transitioning from traditional to online classrooms.
This study will allow them to understand how they can transfer their teaching skills into another area and won't feel like they are losing their teaching abilities and effectiveness in the classroom. With the new generation of learners coming up, this study contributes to creating a body of knowledge useful to institutions, faculty members and others transitioning from traditional to online classrooms in order to be able to relate to these new learners and expand the online teaching literature regarding what teaching and learning means to the faculty members and allows them to bridge technology with pedagogy.
By looking at the faculty members' transitions, this study will allow the faculty members to view the distorted or incomplete aspects of their assumptions that need further investigation. As a result of this study, fundamental deep beliefs of faculty members may change and the implication will be less resistance of faculty members to teaching online and be able to teach in an online environment that is more compatible and in alignment with their beliefs.
This study will also illuminates an area of transformative learning that has been largely unexamined in previous studies. Other implications of this study will be to the benefit of a whole host of others besides the faulty members such as new online faulty members, online support staff, department chairs, curriculum developers, directors of faculty development and those involved in planning and developing distance education efforts

2. If student research, indicate whether for a course, thesis, dissertation, or independent research.

Dissertation

B. SUBJECT POPULATION

1. How many subjects will be involved in the research?

15 participants

2. Describe how subjects will be recruited. Please provide the IRB with any recruitment materials that will be used.

There will be five faculty members from North Carolina State University, one of their students and one of their colleagues.

3. List specific eligibility requirements for subjects (or describe screening procedures), including those criteria that would exclude otherwise acceptable subjects.

   The participants of this study must have taught at least one semester in an online environment so I can review their transition period from traditional to online classroom and they must account for their transition as a successful experience. In order for them to be able to recall their experience better, I have indicated a cut off date of fall 2005 for faculty that have started to teach online for the first time. I am asking the faculty member to refer me to one of their colleagues and one of their students who they have had close contact with and have insight into their experience and they can tell me about what the faculty member has experienced in their transition from traditional to online classroom. I am going to be interviewing faculty members teaching in graduate programs in humanities and social sciences which are closer to my field of adult education but then I can see the different class dynamics, have more discussion components and also, so the data is not strictly related to disciplinary differences.

4. Explain any sampling procedure that might exclude specific populations.

   None

5. Disclose any relationship between researcher and subjects - such as, teacher/student; employer/employee.

   None

6. Check any vulnerable populations included in study: N/A
   - minors (under age 18) - if so, have you included a line on the consent form for the parent/guardian signature
   - fetuses
   - pregnant women
   - persons with mental, psychiatric or emotional disabilities
   - persons with physical disabilities
   - economically or educationally disadvantaged
   - prisoners
   - elderly
   - students from a class taught by principal investigator
   - other vulnerable population.

   If any of the above are used, state the necessity for doing so. Please indicate the approximate age range of the minors to be involved.

C. PROCEDURES TO BE FOLLOWED

1. In lay language, describe completely all procedures to be followed during the course of the experimentation. Provide sufficient detail so that the Committee is able to assess potential risks to human subjects.

   For the purposes of this study, a qualitative methodology is used because the research deals with human actions, thoughts and behaviors that are influenced by the environment in which they take place.

   Data collection will consist of semi-structured interviewing of the faculty in multiple universities, critical incident questionnaires, research journals and related documents. The purpose

of interviews will be to have the participants reflect on recent behavior, discuss changes in detail and give accounts of events, their responses and interpretations and how they negotiated meaning.

This research study is conducted as a multiple case study, which means that I look at more than one case, at different sites, while concentrating on issues of teaching and learning in transition of faculty from traditional to online environments. The reason for reviewing several cases is that it is very difficult to generalize from only one single case and to identify major patterns.

This study relies on in-depth interviewing of five faculty members, one student and one colleague of each faculty member for a total number of 15 participants. The participants will be selected from North Carolina State University. Through the interviewing process, the participants explain the significance, turning points, and critical incidents, while interpreting the meaning of their experience. They will examine their assumptions about teaching and learning in face-to-face and online environments. The students and colleagues interviewed will provide detailed accounts of their experiences with their specific faculty member and how they perceived their teaching and learning.

By conducting this process of interviewing, the experiences of the participants can be connected and relations may be formed between causes and effects. This format allows me to better understand how the faculty members make meaning of their teaching and learning experiences. It is through use of this type of interview that I intend to address the proposed research questions.

After each interview is transcribed, each participant will be given the opportunity to review their transcripts for accuracy, make clarifications and point out any parts of the interview they care not to make public. As these transcriptions are summarized, coded with themes emerging and clustered, more reduction will occur to correlate the data with the research questions. This process will continue through out the research study until the research questions are addressed. The data reduction process is not separate from analysis of data but a part of analysis.

2. How much time will be required of each subject?

   One to one and a half hour

D. POTENTIAL RISKS

1. State the potential risks (physical, psychological, financial, social, legal or other) connected with the proposed procedures and explain the steps taken to minimize these risks.

   The main risk to colleagues and students is from breaches of confidentiality. A possible risk of participating in this study and interview is the discussion of your perceptions of your colleague's online teaching. If confidentiality were inadvertently breached, you may feel embarrassed or concerned about your responses. In order to protect confidentiality, all data, including emails or other teaching documents, will be maintained in a confidential manner, using a code number that is linked to your identity. The 'master list' that links your code number to your identity will be stored separately from the transcriptions. No one will read your interview responses besides the researcher and yourself. Any reports of the research results will not include any names.

   Faculty members may feel some discomfort at the thought of their colleagues and former students discussing them. At the beginning of the interview colleagues and students will be told that the interviews are for descriptions of faculty members' learning, teaching and transition from traditional to online classroom and not for negative information.

2 Will there be a request for information which subjects might consider to be personal or sensitive (e.g. private behavior, economic status, sexual issues, religious beliefs, or other matters that if made public

might impair their self-esteem or reputation or could reasonably place the subjects at risk of criminal or civil liability)? None

a. If yes, please describe and explain the steps taken to minimize these risks.

3 Could any of the study procedures produce stress or anxiety, or be considered offensive, threatening, or degrading? If yes, please describe why they are important and what arrangements have been made for handling an emotional reaction from the subject.

No

4 How will data be recorded and stored?

I will be using a tape recorder to tape the interviews and I will keep them with me in a secure place at all times. In order to protect confidentiality, all data, including emails or other teaching documents, will be maintained in a confidential manner, using a code number that is linked to subjects' identities. The 'master list' that links code numbers to identities will be stored separately from the transcriptions. No one will read interview responses besides the researcher and the subject. Any reports of the research results will not include any names.

To protect students from harm to their educational experience, the researcher will verify that there is no existing relationship between the student and professor, other than a former teaching relationship.

a. How will identifiers be used in study notes and other materials?

The participants will be assigned a code name so their information is not disclosed.

b. How will reports be written, in aggregate terms, or will individual responses be described?

Upon transcribing the recorded interviews, I will review them and analyze them. In my dissertation I will use quotes from these participants but withhold their personal information and names.

5 If audio or videotaping is done how will the tapes be stored and how/when will the tapes be destroyed at the conclusion of the study.

I will keep them with me in a secure place at all times.

6 Is there any deception of the human subjects involved in this study? If yes, please describe why it is necessary and describe the debriefing procedures that have been arranged.

No

E. POTENTIAL BENEFITS

This does not include any form of compensation for participation.

1 What, if any, direct benefit is to be gained by the subject? If no direct benefit is expected, but indirect benefit may be expected (knowledge may be gained that could help others), please explain.

Through the interviews, the participants might gain more insight on how their learning and teaching assumptions are affected through their transition from traditional to online classroom. The results of this dissertation will also be available to the participants upon request.

F. COMPENSATION

1 Explain compensation provisions if the subject withdraws prior to completion of the study.

None

2 If class credit will be given, list the amount and alternative ways to earn the same amount of credit.

N/A

G COLLABORATORS

1. If you anticipate that additional investigators (other than those named on **Cover Page**) may be involved in this research, list them here indicating their institution, department and phone number.

N/A

2. Will anyone besides the PI or the research team have access to the data (including completed surveys) from the moment they are collected until they are destroyed

No

H. ADDITIONAL INFORMATION

1 If a questionnaire, survey or interview instrument is to be used, attach a copy to this proposal.

2 Attach a copy of the informed consent form to this proposal.

3 Please provide any additional materials that may aid the IRB in making its decision.