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Chapter Title	Discourse in Asynchronous Learning Networks	
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Corresponding Author	Family Name	Jeong
	Particle	
	Given Name	Allan
	Suffix	
	Division	Educational Psychology & Learning Systems
	Organization	Florida State University
	Address	Stone Building 305B, Tallahassee, FL, 32306-4453, USA
	Email	ajeong@fsu.edu

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2 **Discourse in Asynchronous** 3 **Learning Networks**

4 ALLAN JEONG

5 Educational Psychology & Learning Systems, Florida State
6 University, Tallahassee, FL, USA

7 **Synonyms**

8 Computer-mediated communication

9 **Definition**

10 *Discourse* – communication of thought via written text
11 and speech. In the field of linguistics, discourse is any unit
12 of connected speech or writing longer than a sentence.

13 *Asynchronous learning* – A network of people engaged
14 in peer-to-peer interaction and information sharing via
15 online resources (e.g., email, electronic mail lists, threaded
16 discussion boards, blogs, wikis, twitter, document sharing
17 systems) that overcome the constraints to time and place.

18 *Network* – a collection of electronic tools (e.g., email,
19 discussion boards, text messaging, video conferencing),
20 and devices (e.g., computers, cell phones, mobile devices)
21 interconnected by multiple communication channels
22 (e.g., text, voice, visual) used to facilitate information
23 sharing and communications.

24 *Discourse in asynchronous learning networks* –
25 The communicative behaviors exhibited in peer-to-peer
26 interactions observed in ~~via~~ electronic media.

27 **Theoretical Background**

28 The earliest form of *asynchronous learning* was established
29 with the introduction of *distance education* and corre-
30 spondence courses in the early 1800s and increased access
31 to postal mail. Although postal mail enabled learners to
32 overcome the constraints of time and place, asynchronous
33 learning was primarily a solitary activity where commu-
34 nication with instructors and other learners were limited
35 by the cost and time delays associated with postal mail.
36 With limited opportunities for learners to engage in *dis-*
37 *course* with instructors and peers, the instructional con-
38 tent and instructional activities were by necessity carefully

developed and determined by the course instructor and/or 39
sponsoring program to ensure that learners are able to 40
work independently to successfully achieve the learning 41
objectives. As a result, asynchronous learning was primar- 42
ily if not exclusively instructor-led. 43

With advances in technologies over the last century, 44
learners are gaining increased access to tools and resources 45
that support multi-channel discourse (text, voice, visuals). 46
The steady improvements in tools and tool integration 47
enables better coordination, communication, and infor- 48
mation sharing between peers and at the same time 49
enables learners to pool their collective knowledge and 50
experiences in ways that is decreasing learners' reliance 51
on the input and guidance of instructors. As a result, 52
asynchronous learning not only incorporates methods 53
that support self-directed learning but also incorporates 54
methods that support collaborative learning. Collabora- 55
tive learning is more a student-centered than an instruc- 56
tor-led approach to learning given that the ► discourse 57
between learners reflect the learner's interests, motiva- 58
tions, prior knowledge and experiences, and ways of 59
~~knowing, and forms~~ much of the foundation on which 60
knowledge and meaning is constructed. Some of the com- 61
mon goals of discourse (when conducted within an asyn- 62
chronous learning network or ALN) are to promote and 63
increase the level of critical thinking, meaningful problem 64
solving, and knowledge construction. 65

With the development of the World-wide web, ALN 66
discourse has become a key component in most online 67
courses. As a result, online discourse has been the focus of 68
much research among educational and instructional psy- 69
chologists. The ultimate goal of the research is to examine 70
and better understand how different tools can be used and 71
further refined to facilitate discourse in ways that increases 72
learning and performance. However, researchers have 73
faced difficult challenges in the attempt to determine 74
which tools help produce better discourse because there 75
are too many independent variables that must be con- 76
trolled – variables such as group size, composition of 77
group, and nature of tasks. Furthermore, these variables 78
interact in such ways that it is difficult if not impossible to 79
establish cause and effect between choice of tools, quality 80
of discourse, and learning outcomes. 81

82 To address these challenges, researchers are examining
83 how specific attributes of a tool changes and mediates the
84 interactions exhibited in online discourse (Dillenbourg
85 et al. 1996). In order to examine how tool attributes
86 mediate learner interactions, new conceptual frameworks,
87 methods, and tools have been developed to analyze and/or
88 model learner interactions and learning processes
89 exhibited in the interactions. At the heart of this research
90 is the issue of *what* (e.g., cognitive, meta-cognitive, social
91 behaviors; quantitative vs qualitative; individual vs group;
92 message vs sentence units; data from self-reports vs
93 discussion transcripts) to examine and code from the
94 discourse, and *how* to analyze the data (e.g., frequency
95 counts, response probabilities, Markov chains). A myriad
96 of models and approaches have been developed and used
97 to elucidate, make more explicit, and operationally
98 measure the form, function, and/or the dynamic and
99 interactive nature of ALN discourse.

100 **Important Scientific Research and Open** 101 **Questions**

102 Despite the complexity and scope of the research in this
103 field, three critical overarching questions are identified
104 and presented below – questions that reflect current chal-
105 lenges and suggest directions for future research. Included
106 are brief descriptions of studies that illustrate how some of
107 the latest tools and methods have been used to address
108 these questions and that can be used to make further
109 advancements in the field.

110 *What discourse models or typologies are most useful for*
111 *identifying the interactions that produce higher gains in*
112 *learning?* Although an abundance of studies have devel-
113 oped and/or implemented various models to code and
114 analyze online discourse (brief descriptions of some of
115 the existing models presented in Marra et al. [2004]), the
116 focus of the analysis needs to be centered foremost around the
117 *cognitive* operations exhibited within each dialog move –
118 cognitive operations that learners must perform to com-
119 plete the learning task and achieve the desired learning
120 outcome. Other dialog moves associated with the social
121 and meta-cognitive behaviors (or any other dimensions of
122 discourse) should be analyzed in terms of how they influ-
123 ence the sequence of cognitive actions exhibited by
124 learners as they engage in discourse. For example,
125 Garrison et al.'s (2010) structural equation analysis pro-
126 duced a model that revealed the extent to which learners'
127 social interactions and interactions with instructors
128 impacted the cognitive interactions performed by
129 learners. However, this study like most studies that
130 examine online discourse did not determine how different
131 types of cognitive interactions affect the learning outcome.

In order to do this, particular methods must be used to
precisely identify and convey the similarities and differ-
ences in interaction patterns produced by high versus low
performing learners.

*Which methods and tools can identify, convey, and
model interactions patterns and identify which interactions
produce higher gains in learning?* Given the complexity and
dynamic nature of discourse, dialog move sequences do
not always unfold in orderly and predictable ways. Soller
(2004) believed that this is one reason why the simple
frequencies of each dialog move performed by learners
did not distinguish learners that scored high versus low
on a posttest measuring knowledge acquisition. As
a result, Soller incorporated a process-oriented approach
that examined how interactions unfold over time by pro-
ducing transitional state diagrams (often referred to as
Markov chains) to convey how likely (or the probability)
one dialog move was followed by another dialog move
(e.g., inform, acknowledge, request information, discuss
with doubt, agree). This interaction data combined with
posttest scores were analyzed using multidimensional
scaling to reveal three to four interactions (spanning
from one to three conversational turns) that distinguished
the groups that collectively scored high versus low on the
posttest. Using a similar approach to examine how social
interactions influence cognitive interactions, Jeong (2006)
used transitional state diagrams (Fig. 1) to determine how
the use of conversational language (e.g., making references
to participants by name, saying thank you, and use of
greetings and emoticons) affected the probabilities of cer-
tain responses elicited by arguments, challenges, explana-
tions, and presentation of supporting evidence. The
findings reveal that the (argument → challenge → expla-
nation) interaction was more likely to be evolved from
students' interactions when students used conversational
language while presenting arguments, challenges, and
explanations.

*How do communication tools change and mediate the
interactions in ways that produce higher gains in learning?*
Olson et al. (1992) conducted one study that examined
both the relationship between tool and group interactions,
and the relationship between group interactions and
learning outcome. Their study compared the effects of
using a shared document editor, ShrEdit, against the use
of whiteboard with paper and pencil on group interaction
patterns and performance on a group paper. Their find-
ings revealed that students using ShrEdit produced signif-
icantly higher quality papers even though the interaction
patterns produced in both groups (visually conveyed in
transitional state diagrams) appeared to be very similar.
However, Olson did not perform any statistical tests on the

183 transitional probabilities (e.g., z-score tests) to determine
184 which of the interaction patterns occurred at rates that
185 were significantly higher or lower than expected. However,
186 the study did find significant group differences in the
187 amount of time spent on performing specific actions
188 (discussing issues, actions, and alternatives) and some
189 significant differences in the frequency of actions
190 performed by the groups between conditions.

191 Future efforts to integrate the methods and tools used
192 in the studies described above will provide the basis to
193 conducting more complete investigations into the rela-
194 tionship between technology, discourse, and learning. At
195 the same time, future investigations will need to determine
196 how differences in socio and cultural contexts affect how
197 well discourse models can be used to accurately explain
198 and predict learning outcomes. These efforts all together
199 will produce the empirical research needed to arrive at
200 a better understanding of communication technologies
201 and how to refine the technologies to promote the type
202 of discourse ~~required to optimize if not maximize the~~
203 ~~learning and learning process.~~

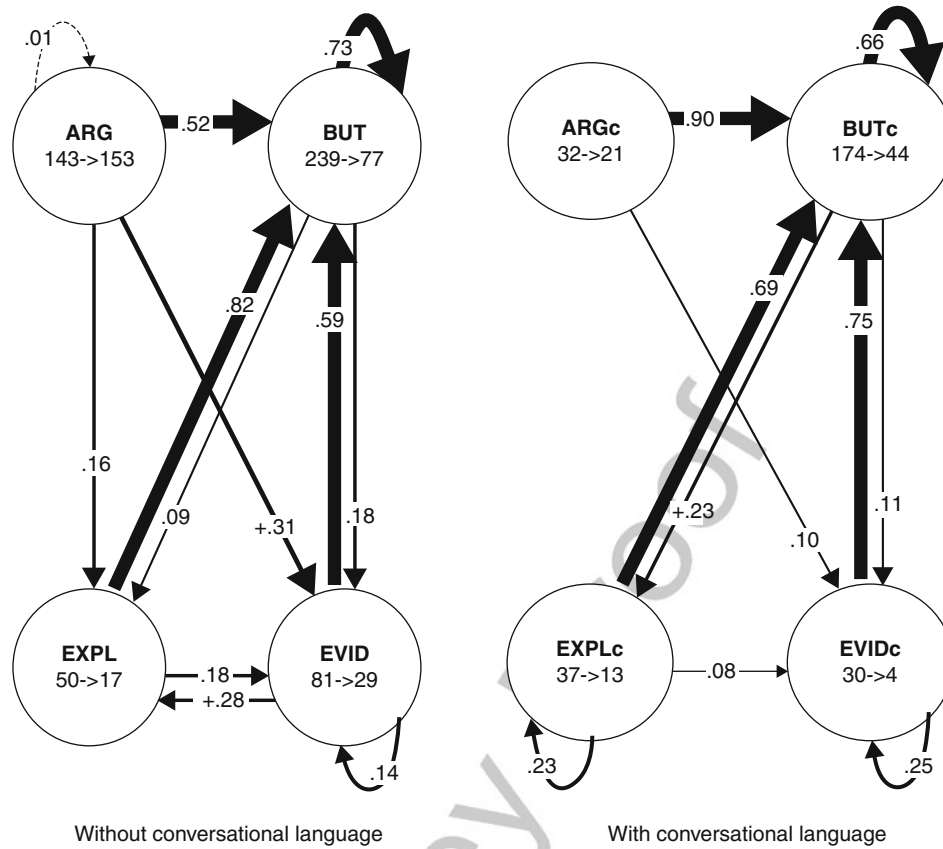
204 Cross-References

- 205 ▶ Collaboration Scripts
- 206 ▶ Collaborative Learning
- 207 ▶ Collaborative Learning Strategies
- 208 ▶ Collaborative Learning Supported by Digital Media

- ▶ Computer-Supported Collaborative Learning 209
- ▶ Discourse 210
- ▶ Discourse and the Production of Knowledge 211
- ▶ Distance Learning 212
- ▶ Learning with Collaborative Mobile Technologies 213
- ▶ Online Collaborative Learning 214
- ▶ Rapid Collaborative Knowledge Building 215

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Discourse in Asynchronous Learning Networks. Fig. 1 Transitional state diagrams illustrating the response patterns produced from messages with versus without conversational language. ARG = argument, BUT = challenge, EVID = supporting evidence, EXPL = explanation, "c" denotes a message presented in a conversational style, "+" denotes transitional probabilities that were significantly higher than expected (based on z-scores at $p < 0.01$)