

Redesigning Introductory College Geology Courses at Arizona State University

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Setting of ASU Geology Redesign

- GLG101 taken by ~2,500 students per year
- Five classes per semester, each with 220-230 students
- Taught by various faculty members
- Laboratory is separate, but related course and generally follows same sequence of topics
- Most students are non-science majors (fulfill science requirement), but some majors

Goals of GLG101

- Teach students about scientific methods
- Improve their observation and critical thinking skills
- Learn key geologic concepts and processes
- Help student understand the relevance of geology to their lives
- Not hate science more as a result of taking the class

Goals of ASU Redesign Effort

- Free up class time to engage students in active learning
- Allow students to learn in different modes, some asynchronous
- Have students engage in inquiry/problem solving
- Develop authentic methods of assessment that demonstrate mastery of subject
- Allow faculty instructor and teaching assistant to be more efficient, saving time and money

Context of ASU Reform Effort

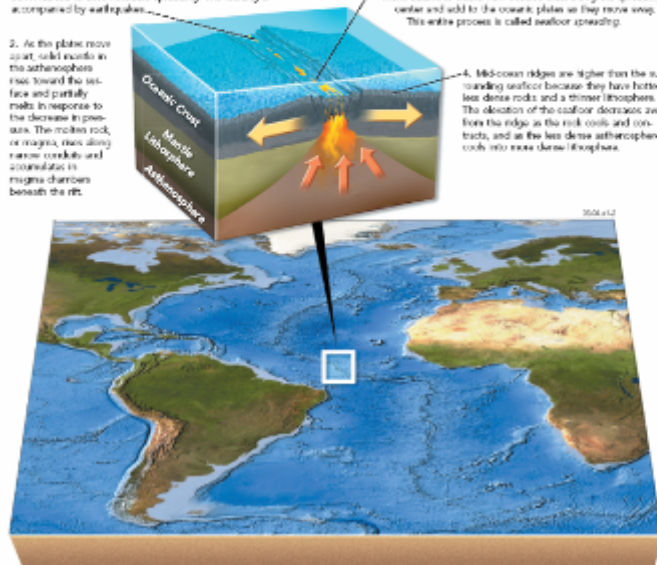
What Happens When Plates Move Apart?

AT MID-OCEAN RIDGES, Earth's tectonic plates are moving apart (diverging), forming new oceanic lithosphere. Such boundaries are the sites of numerous small earthquakes and submarine volcanism. Divergent motion can split a continent into two pieces and form a new ocean basin as the rifted pieces move apart.

A How Do Mid-Ocean Ridges Form?

Mid-ocean ridges mark divergent boundaries in the ocean where two oceanic plates move apart relative to one another. These boundaries are also called spreading centers because of the way the plates spread apart.

1. A narrow trough, called a rift, runs along the axis of most mid-ocean ridges. The rift forms as large blocks of crust are downfaulted to accommodate spreading. The faulting is accompanied by earthquakes.
2. As the plates move apart, solid rock in the asthenosphere rises toward the surface and partially melts in response to the decrease in pressure. The molten rock, or magma, rises along narrow conduits and accumulates in magma chambers beneath the rift.
3. Along the rift, magma erupts onto the seafloor as submarine lava flows, while other magma solidifies at depth. These magmatic additions create new oceanic crust along the spreading center and add to the oceanic plates as they move away. This entire process is called seafloor spreading.
4. Mid-ocean ridges are higher than the surrounding seafloor because they have hotter, less dense rocks and a thinner lithosphere. The elevation of the seafloor decreases away from the ridge as the rock cools and contracts, and as the less dense asthenosphere cools into more dense lithosphere.



B What Happens When Divergence Splits a Continent Apart?

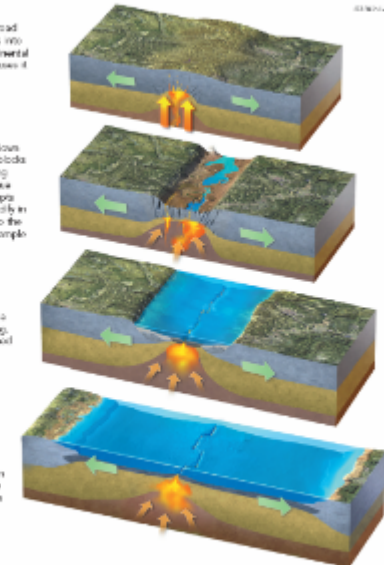
A divergent boundary can form within a continent, causing a continental rift such as the Great Rift Valley in East Africa. Such rifting, if it continues, leads to seafloor spreading and the formation of a mid-ocean ridge and new ocean basin, following the progression shown here.

The initial stage of continental rifting commonly includes broad uplift of the land surface as mantle-derived magma ascends into and heats the crust. The magma can melt parts of the continental crust, producing additional magma. Heating of the crust causes it to expand, which results in further uplift.

Stretching of the crust causes large crustal blocks to dip down along faults, forming a continental rift. The down-dropped blocks are basins that can trap sediment and water. At depth, rifting causes solid mantle material in the asthenosphere to continue flowing upward and partially melt. The resulting magma wags from subsurface and long fissures on the surface, or can solidify in the subsurface. The entire crust thins as it is pulled apart, so the rifted region will drop in elevation as it cools. A modern example of this stage is the East African rift.

If rifting continues, the continent splits into two pieces and a narrow ocean basin forms by the onset of seafloor spreading. A modern example of this stage is the Red Sea, which formed when the Arabian Peninsula rifted away from Africa.

With continuing seafloor spreading, the ocean basin becomes progressively wider, eventually becoming a broad ocean like the modern-day Atlantic Ocean. The Atlantic Ocean basin formed when North and South America rifted away from Europe and Africa, following the sequence shown here. Seafloor spreading continues today along the ridge in the middle of the Atlantic Ocean, transporting the Americas farther away from Europe and Africa.



Before You Leave This Page Be Able To

- Sketch, label, and explain an oceanic divergent boundary.
- Sketch, label, and explain a divergent boundary within a continent (i.e., a continental rift).
- Sketch, label, and explain how continental rifting can lead to the formation of a new ocean basin.

- Textbook designed from cognitive research allows students to learn on their own (*Exploring Geology*, Reynolds and others, McGraw-Hill)

Integrating Text, Figures, Photos

What Sedimentary Environments Are Near Shorelines and in Oceans?

OCEANS AND THEIR SHORELINES are dominated by wind, waves, ocean currents, and sediment that may be eroded along the coastline or brought in from elsewhere. The characteristics of each environment, especially the types of sediment, depend mostly on the proximity to shore, the availability of sediment, and the depth and temperature of the water.

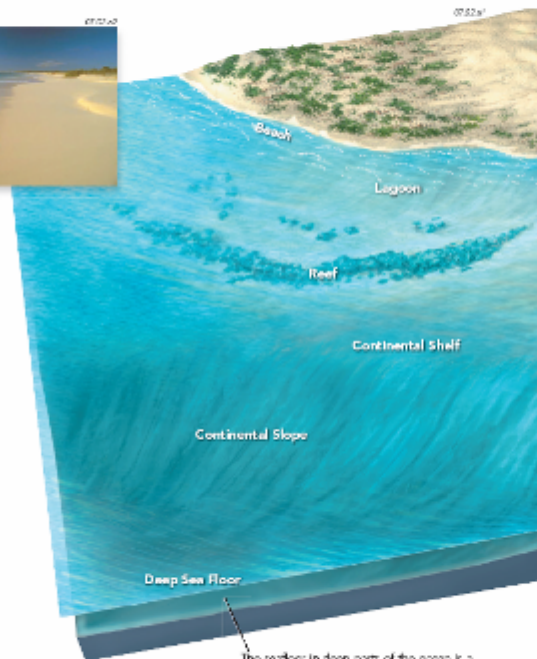
B Beaches are stretches of coastline along which sediment has accumulated. Some shorelines have bedrock all the way to the ocean and so have little or no beach. Most beaches consist of sand, pieces of shell, and rounded gravel, cobbles, or boulders. The sorting determines which of these components is most abundant.



A The water near the shoreline may be sheltered by a reef or islands. The sheltered water, called a lagoon, is commonly shallow, quiet, and perhaps warm. The nearshore parts of lagoons contain sand and mud derived from land, whereas the outer parts may have calcite sand and pieces of coral eroded from a reef.



Δ Where ocean water is shallow, warm, and clear, coral and other marine organisms construct reefs, which can parallel the coast, enclose islands, or form broad lowlands and plateaus. Reefs typically buffer the shoreline from the energetic, big waves of the deeper ocean. (Red Sea, Egypt)

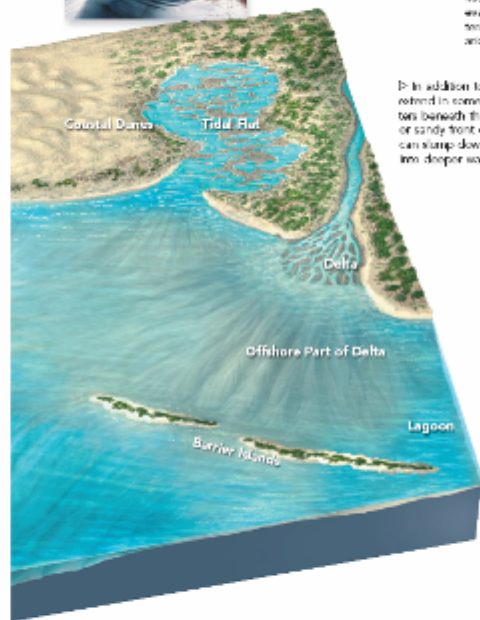


The seafloor in deep parts of the ocean is a dark, cold environment that commonly is several kilometers beneath the surface. It generally receives less sediment from areas closer to land, and its sediment is dominated by fine, wind-blown dust and by the remains of mostly single-celled organisms.



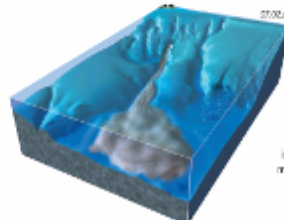
Q Sandy dunes that are inland from beaches are called coastal dunes. These dunes commonly form where sand and fine sediment from the beach are blown or washed inland and reshaped by the wind.

D Some shorelines include low areas, called tidal flats, that are flooded by the sea during high tide but exposed to the air during low tide. Most tidal flats are covered by mud and sand or are rocky. Some low parts of the land adjacent to tidal flats can accumulate salt and other water-soluble minerals as seawater and rainwater evaporate under arid (dry) conditions.



D In addition to the part of deltas on land, deltas extend in some places for many tens of kilometers beneath the waters of the ocean. The muddy or sandy front of the delta may be unstable and can slump down the slope, sending sediment into deeper water. (Mississippi Delta)

Other accumulations of sand rise above the shallow coastal waters as long, narrow islands, called barrier islands. Most barrier islands, such as the one below, are only hundreds of meters wide. The areas between barrier islands and the shoreline are commonly shallow lagoons or saltwater marshes. (Maryland/Virginia)



Q Away from the shoreline, many landmasses are flanked by continental shelves and slopes consisting of layers of mud, sand, and carbonate minerals. Material from these sites can collapse down the slope in landslides or in turbulent, flowing masses of sand, mud, and water, called turbidity currents. The slopes of some continents are indented by branching submarine canyons that funnel sediment toward deeper waters.

Before You Leave This Page Be Able To

- Summarize or sketch the main sedimentary environments in oceanic and near-shore environments.

Two-Page Spreads Reduce Cognitive Load

How Are Earth's Surface and Subsurface Depicted?

MAPS AND DIAGRAMS OF THE LAND and underlying geology are essential tools for visualizing and understanding Earth. We represent the land surface with several types of maps and with satellite images that are informative and sometimes beautiful. We use two-dimensional and three-dimensional diagrams to depict the subsurface geometry of rock units and to show how these units interact with the surface.

A How Do Maps and Satellite Images Help Us Study Earth's Surface?

Satellite images and various types of maps are the primary ways we portray the land surface and the geology exposed at the surface. Maps of SP Crater in northern Arizona provide a particularly clear example of the relationship between geologic features and the land surface.



◀ A shaded relief map emphasizes the shape of the land by simulating light and shadows on the hills and valleys. Some hills on this map are small volcanoes called cinder cones or scoria cones. The area is dissected by straight and curving stream valleys. The simulated light comes from the left of the image.

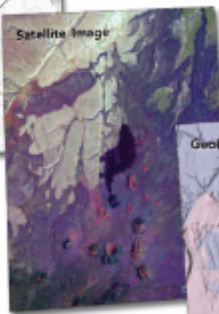
◻ A topographic map shows the elevation above sea level of the land surface with a series of lines called contours. Each contour line follows a specific elevation on the surface.



◻ Adjacent contour lines are widely spaced where the land surface is fairly flat (has a gentle slope).

◻ Contour lines are more closely spaced where the land surface is steep, such as on the slopes of the cinder cones.

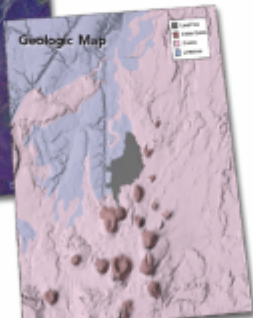
◻ A satellite image is produced by measuring different wavelengths of light to portray the distribution of different types of plants, rocks, and other features. The dark feature in the center of the image is a black, solidified lava flow that erupted from the base of SP Crater. SP Crater is the dark cinder cone connected with the flow.



◻ This photograph, taken from the air, shows the small volcano at SP Crater and a dark lava flow that erupted from the base of the volcano.

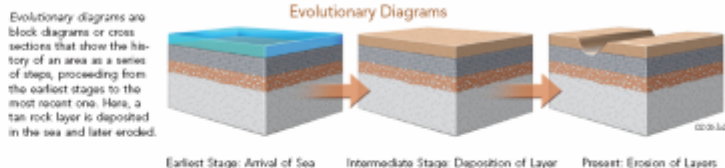
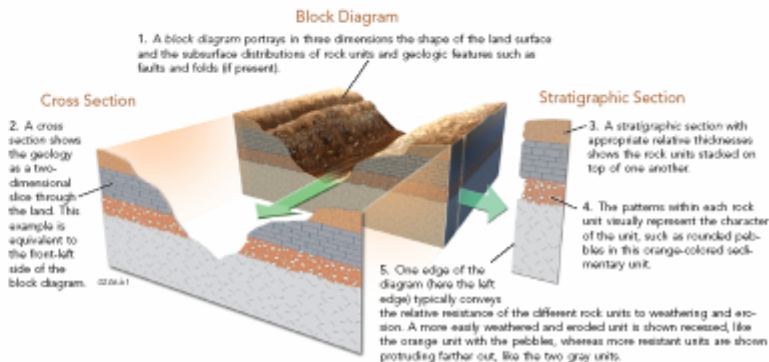
◻ A geologic map represents the distribution of rock units and geologic features on the surface. This one shows the SP Crater lava flow and older rock units. Compare the four maps to match specific features.

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B How Do We Represent Geologic Features in the Subsurface?

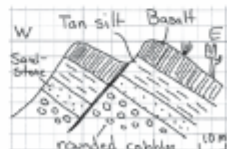
Most of the planet's geology is hidden from our view beneath Earth's surface. We are most aware that rock units exist where they are exposed in a mountainside or deep canyon, but such units are also present beneath areas of relatively flat topography. Geologic diagrams help us envision and understand the thicknesses, orientations, and subsurface distributions of rock units. Such diagrams are also one of the main ways that geologists document and communicate their understanding of an area.



Sketching Geology

One of the more interesting challenges of geologic field studies is trying to visualize how geology exposed at the surface continues at depth. Sketches drawn in the field while studying the geology are an excellent way to capture one's thoughts while they are still fresh and while the ideas can be tested by making additional field observations. The field sketch to the right is a simplified geologic cross section drawn to summarize the field relationships for a faulted sequence of

rocks. Such sketches are an excellent way to conceptualize and think about geology, either in the field or from a textbook.



Before You Leave This Page Be Able To

- ✓ Summarize how different types of maps depict Earth's surface.
- ✓ Sketch or describe the types of diagrams geologists use to represent subsurface geology and the sequence of rock units.
- ✓ Sketch or describe what is shown by a series of evolutionary diagrams.

Built-In What-to-Know List in Textbook

286 9.4

What Is the Significance of an Unconformity?

EROSION SURFACES CAN BE BURIED AND PRESERVED beneath later deposits. These buried erosion surfaces, called *unconformities*, can be billions of years old and can represent large intervals of time.

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Before You Leave This Page Be Able To



Summarize or sketch the three main types of unconformities and what sequence of events is implied by each type.

B How Does a Nonconformity Form?

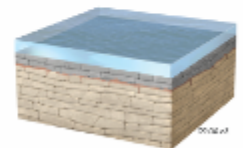
Some erosion surfaces form on top of rocks that are not layered, such as granite or massive metamorphic rocks. This type of unconformity is called a nonconformity.



A dark, crystalline rock is granite. It is the same rock as the granite in the previous page, but here it overlies a layered rock (sandstone).

What Does a Nonconformity Tell Us about an Area's History?

The boundary still represents millions of years of time.



The surface is buried by an overlying layer, forming the nonconformity. This new layer can be deposited by water or can be deposited on land, such as by sand dunes. A nonconformity can form because of erosion, as illustrated here, or because there was little or no deposition for some time period.

Before You Leave This Page Be Able To

- Summarize or sketch the three main types of unconformities and what sequence of events is implied by each type.

9.4

- Master list handed out at start of semester and guides all assessment

Investigation Spread: Authentic Inquiry

Who Polluted Surface and Groundwater in This Place?

SURFACE WATER AND GROUNDWATER IN THIS AREA are contaminated. You will use the geology of the area, along with elevations of the water table and chemical analyses of the contaminated water, to determine where the contamination is, where it came from, and where it is going. From your conclusions, you will decide where to drill new wells for uncontaminated groundwater.

Goals of This Exercise:

- Observe the landscape to interpret the area's geologic setting.
- Read descriptions of various natural and constructed features.
- Use well data and water chemistry to draw a map showing where contamination is and which way groundwater is flowing.
- Use the map and other information to interpret where contamination originated, which facilities might be responsible, and where the contamination is headed.
- Determine a well location that is unlikely to be contaminated.
- Suggest a way to remediate some of the contamination.

Procedures

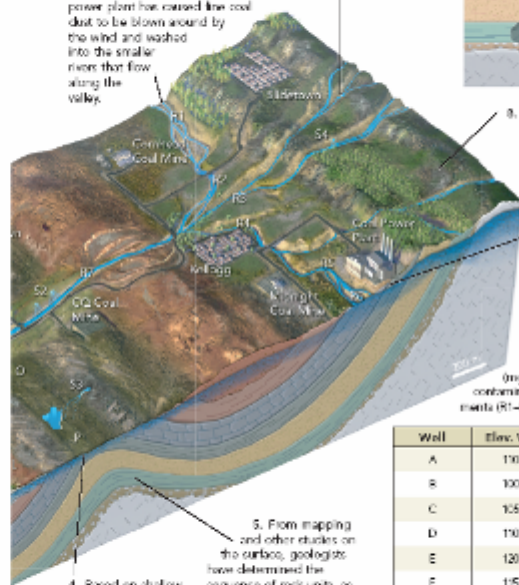
Use the available information to complete the following steps, entering your answers in appropriate places on the worksheet.

1. The figure shows geologic features, rivers, springs, and human-constructed features, including a series of wells (labeled A through P). Observe the distribution of rock units, sediment, rivers, springs, and other features on the landscape. Compare these observations with the cross sections on the sides of the terrain to interpret how the geology is expressed in different areas.
2. Read the descriptions of key features and consider how this information relates to the geologic setting, to the flow of surface water and groundwater, and to the contamination.
3. The data table on the next page shows elevation of the water table in each labeled well. Use these data and the base map on the worksheet to construct a groundwater map with contours of the water table at the following elevations: 100, 110, 120, 130, and 140 meters. On the contoured map, draw arrows pointing down the slope of the water table to show the direction of groundwater flow.
4. Use the data table showing concentrations of a contaminant, purposely unnamed here, in groundwater to shade in areas where there is contamination. Use darker shades for higher levels of contamination.
5. Use the groundwater map to interpret where the contamination most likely originated and which facilities were probably responsible. Mark a large X over these facilities on the map and explain your reasons in the worksheet.
6. Determine which of the labeled well sites will most likely remain free of contamination, and draw circles around two such wells.
7. Devise a plan to remediate the groundwater contamination by drilling wells in front of the plume of contamination; mark these on the map with the letter R.



3. Drilling and gravity surveys have shown that the valley is underlain by a thick sequence of relatively unconsolidated and weakly cemented sand and gravel. The deepest part of the basin has been developed by normal faults, one of which is buried beneath the gravel.

6. Bedrock units cross the landscape in a series of north-south stripes, parallel to the strike of the rock layers. One of the north-south valleys is named Coal Mine valley because it contains several large coal mines and a coal-burning electrical generating plant. An unsubsided miner says that one of the mines had some sort of chemical spill that was never reported. Activity at the mines and power plant has caused the coal dust to be blown around by the wind and washed into the smaller river that flows along the valley.



5. From mapping and other studies on the carbon, geologists have determined the sequence of rock units, as summarized in the stratigraphic section in the upper right corner of this page. These studies also document a broad anticline and syncline beneath the eastern part of the region.



8. The highest part of the region is a ridge of granite and sedimentary rocks along the east edge of the area. The ridge remains quite a bit of rain during the summer and now in the winter. Several clear streams begin in the ridge and flow westward toward the lowlands.

9. A coal-burning power plant was built over thick beds of a unit named the Slaterton Limestone, so-called because it is associated with many sinkholes, caves, and karst topography. The limestone is so permeable that the power plant has had difficulty keeping water in ponds built to dispose waste waters that are rich in the chemical substances that are normally present in coal.

10. The tables below list water-table elevations in meters and concentrations of contamination in milligrams per liter (mg/L) for each of the labeled wells (A–P), and the concentration of contamination in samples from four springs (S1–S4) and eight river segments (R1–R8). The location of each sample site is marked on the figure.

Well	Elev. WT	mg/L	Well	Elev. WT	mg/L
A	110	0	I	130	30
B	100	0	J	125	0
C	125	0	K	130	0
D	110	20	L	130	0
E	120	10	M	140	50
F	115	0	N	140	0
G	120	0	O	110	0
H	130	50	P	110	0
Spring	mg/L	River	mg/L	River	mg/L
S1	50	R1	0	R5	0
S2	0	R2	20	R6	0
S3	0	R3	0	R7	5
S4	0	R4	0	R8	5

Online Content

- Truly multimedia – images and narration
 - Photos
 - Illustrations
 - Animations
 - Video clips
 - Audio
 - Embedded assessment
- Graduate-student designed and produced media
- Formative and final assessment via online surveys and in-person interviews

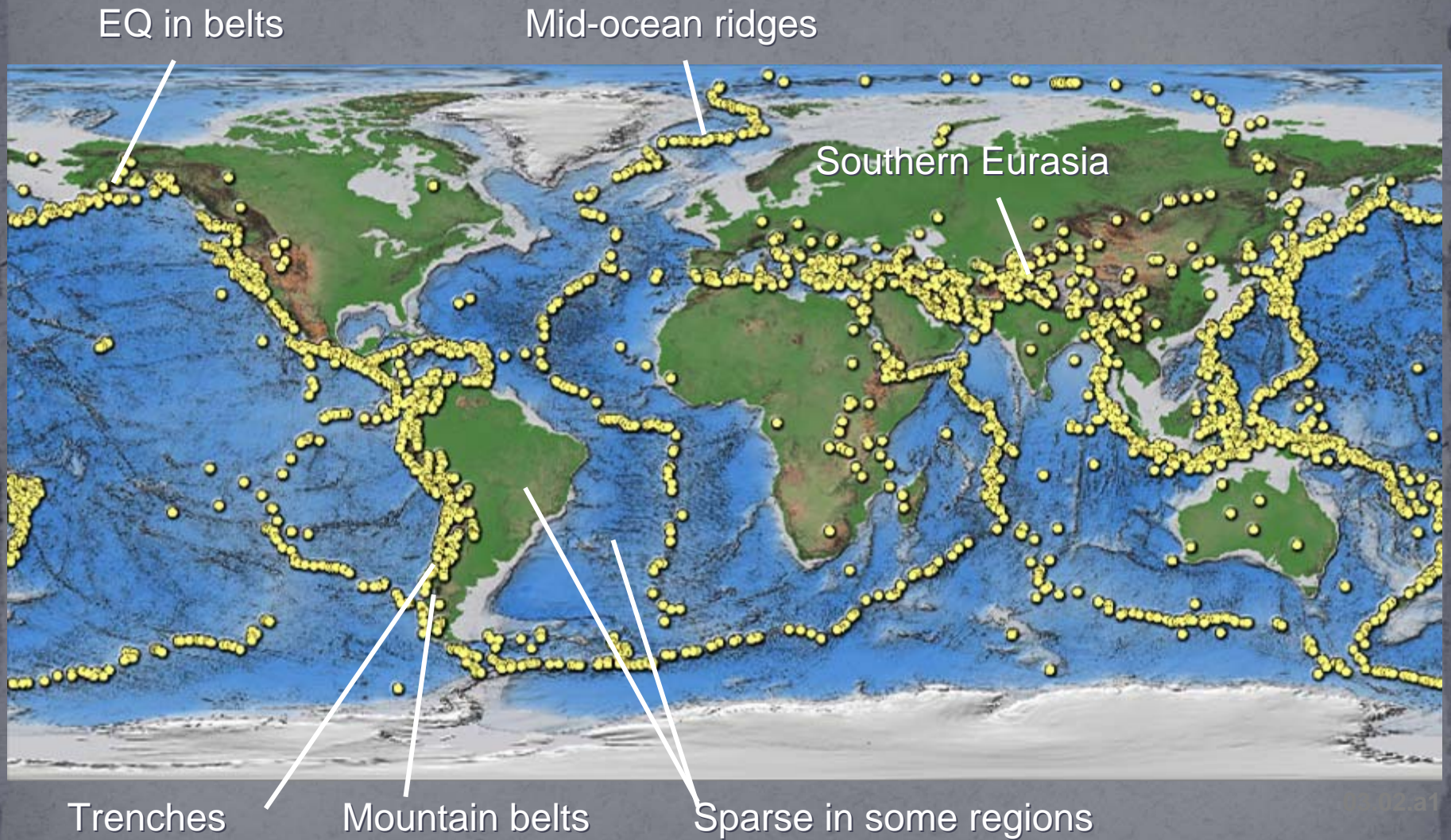
Activities During Class

- Less covering of content (more time for activities consistent with goals)
- Time for student observations, interpretations, problem solving (critical thinking)
- PowerPoint with interactive media
- Think-Pair-Share, small-group discussions, and whole-class discussions
- Meaningful demonstrations
- CPS questions, including from online quizzes

*Observe the location of cities
with respect to mountains and valleys*



Observe the pattern of earthquakes (yellow dots)



Assessment: Online Quizzes and Investigations

462 15.14 INVESTIGATION

Which Areas Have the Highest Risk of Slope Failure?

THIS GEOLOGICALLY DIVERSE PLACE has stylized and exaggerated features that appear to be related to slope failure. Large angular blocks occur in several different settings, and some of the hills may not be stable or safe. You will use descriptions and images of these features to determine what hillslope processes are occurring in different areas, and how they impact where people may live safely.

Goals of This Exercise:

- Observe the landscape to investigate the geologic setting of different areas, and interpret the geologic setting from descriptions of each location.
- Assess the hazards in different areas.
- Construct a map that shows areas that have a high risk for different types of slope failure.
- Identify locations that you think are most safe, moderately safe, and least safe on which to build.

Procedures

Use the available information to complete the following steps, entering your answers in the appropriate places on the worksheet.

1. Observe the features shown on this landscape. Read the text boxes associated with each feature and decide what that statement implies about the geologic setting of the area and how the landscape reflects the underlying geology.
2. Think about the description of each area and consider possible types of slope failure that could have occurred there. Provide a reasonable interpretation of what types of slope processes are occurring and what key observations led you to that conclusion.
3. On the figure in the worksheet, draw approximate boundaries around areas that you interpret as having the highest risk for each type of slope failure. Label each area with a few words to identify the main hazard you interpret to be present.
4. Draw the letters S, M, and L on the map for sites where you think it would be relatively safe to live. Write an (S) for one or more relatively safe places, an (M) for a moderately safe place, and an (L) for each place you think is less safe to live. There is not a single best choice for any of these sites, so be prepared to describe your reasoning and defend your choice.

1. A series of small hills, referred to by local people as the Bent Fence Hills, contains trees that are tipped over at odd angles. Local farmers complain that they have to keep straightening their crooked fences on these hillslopes. For some reason, no one has ever built a house here.

2. A flat-topped hill, called Flattop Hill, is surrounded by a steep cliff formed by a resistant layer of basalt. The basalt is underlain by a weak layer of clay. Below the cliff are a series of large, angular blocks of basalt. A large spoon-shaped scar scoops into part of the cliff.

9. The Annabelle River cuts through the landscape, flowing from right to left. Parallel to the river on both sides are low terraces that are only a few meters higher than river level. On these low terraces are large volcanic blocks of andesite, some as big as a house. They are not present on higher areas away from the river. No one has ever seen the river with enough water to move such large blocks.



WEATHERING, SOIL, AND UNSTABLE SLOPES 463

3. The highest mountain, called Snow Mountain, is an ice-capped volcano. The volcano has not erupted since people settled here, but steam occasionally rises from the central crater. Next to the volcano are huge blocks of andesite, some of which have a partially preserved coating of mud.

4. On the lower flanks of the volcano is a place named Rock Valley, which contains a mass of large rocks and other debris with hummocky topography. This mass can be followed back up slope to a huge, bare scar on the side of the volcano. This debris cut across the paths of smaller streams that originated in adjacent hills. The area has no soil.

5. Gray Mountain contains a gray granite cut by widely spaced fractures that dip back into the mountain.

6. In Wild Side Valley, a layer of volcanic ash has been altered and weathered into sticky clays. Roads crossing this area, such as shown in the photograph below, are very bumpy, have visible cracks and are in constant need of repair, especially when the weather changes back and forth between the rainy season and dry season.



7. A mountain is called Tilted Mountain by the local people because of the way the tilted limestone layers are exposed on the mountain's sides. Cutting across the center of the mountain are some open fissures, which some people claim have become wider over the past several years.

8. The base of Tilted Mountain is a cliff exposing a shale layer beneath the limestone layers. Downhill from the cliff are huge blocks of limestone identical to the limestone that makes up the top of the mountain. These blocks are chaotically strewn about and not part of the underlying bedrock. Near an adjacent creek, the blocks are smooth and partially worn away.

Assessment: Concept-Sketch Exams

A How Do Mid-Ocean Ridges Form?

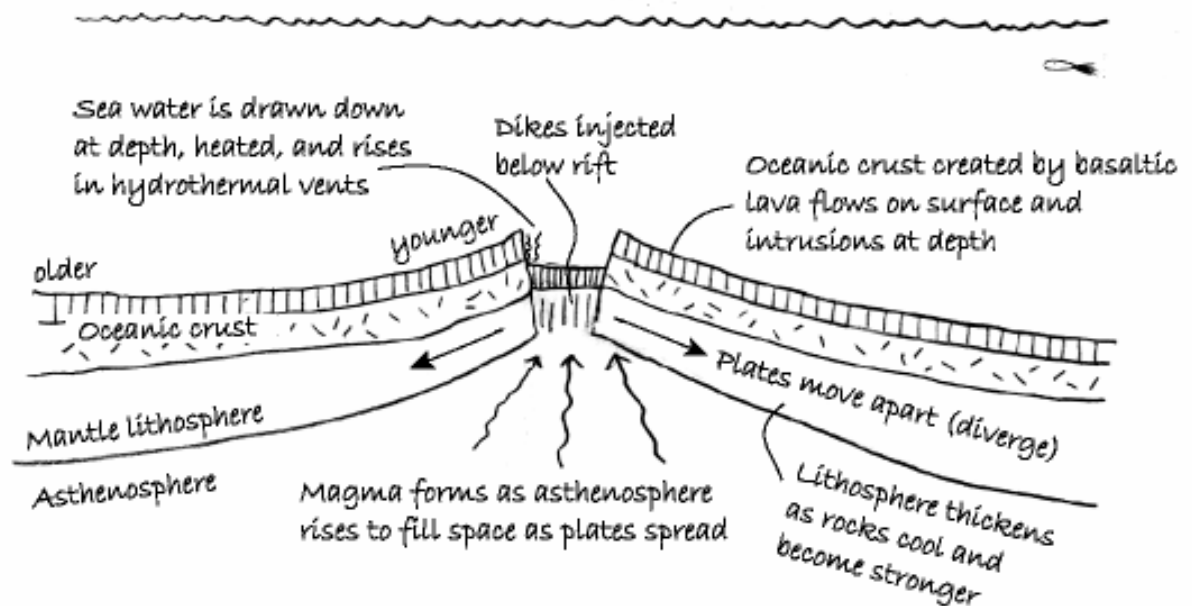
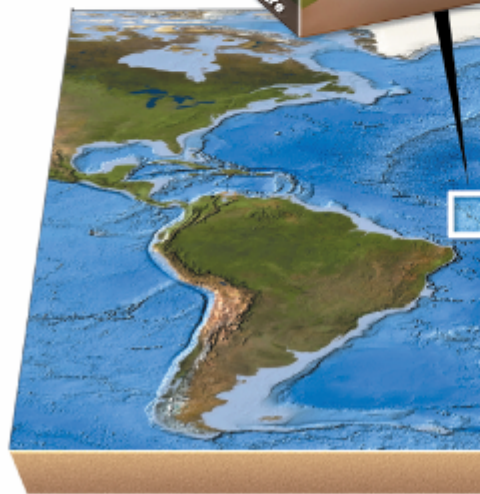
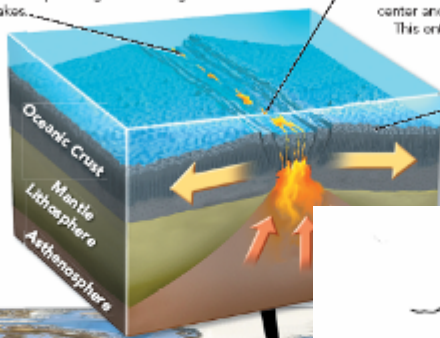
Mid-ocean ridges mark divergent boundaries in the ocean where two oceanic plates move apart relative to one another. These boundaries are also called spreading centers because of the way the plates spread apart.

1. A narrow trough, called a rift runs along the axis of most mid-ocean ridges. The rift forms as large blocks of crust are down-faulted to accommodate spreading. The faulting is accompanied by earthquakes.

2. As the plates move apart, solid mantle in the asthenosphere rises toward the surface and partially melts in response to the decrease in pressure. The molten rock, or magma, rises along narrow conduits and accumulates in magma chambers beneath the rift.

3. Along the rift, magma erupts onto the seafloor as submarine lava flows, while other magma solidifies at depth. These magmatic additions create new oceanic crust along the spreading center and add to the oceanic plates as they move away. This entire process is called seafloor spreading.

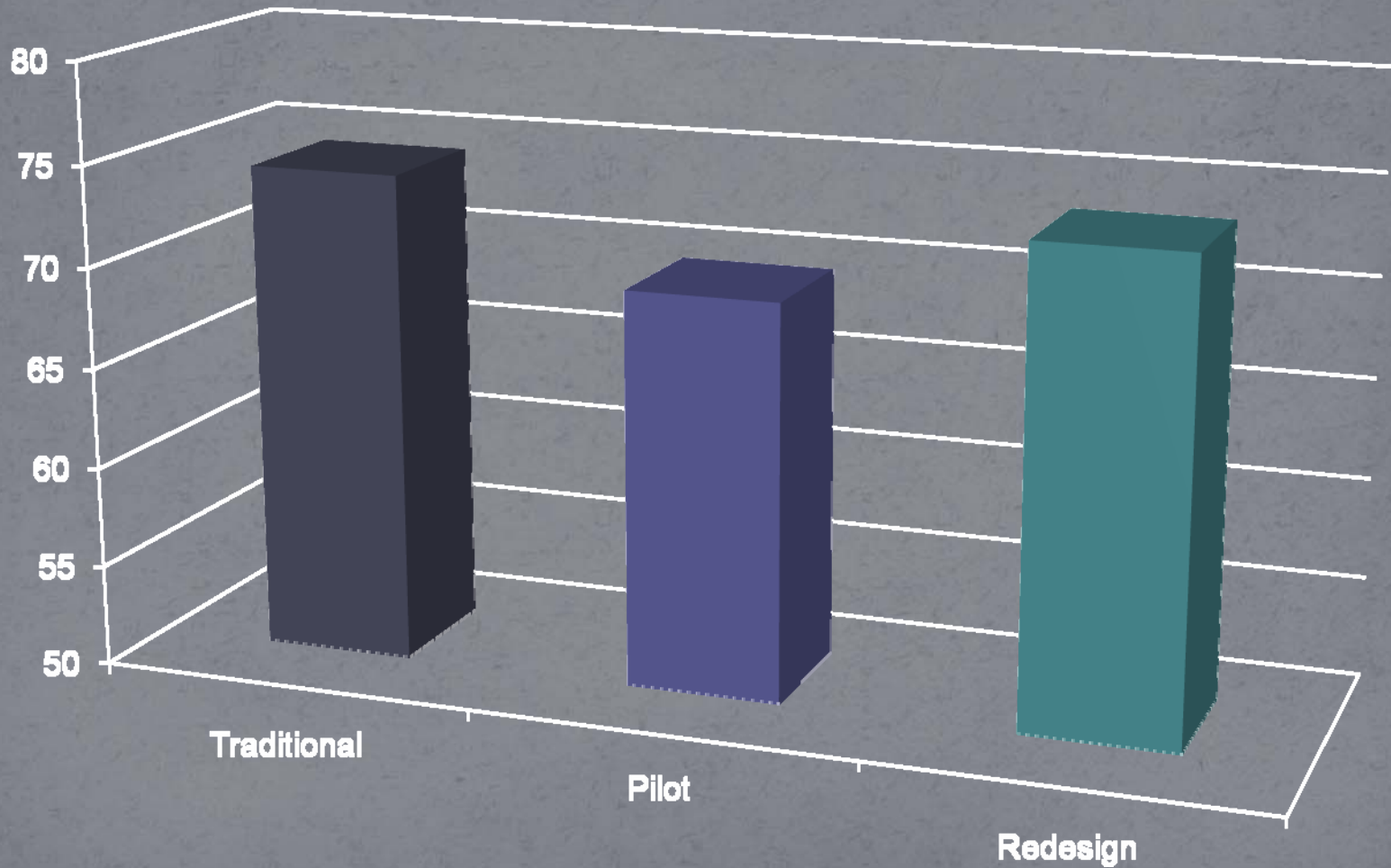
4. Mid-ocean ridges are higher than the surrounding seafloor because they have hotter, less dense rocks and a thinner lithosphere. The elevation of the seafloor decreases away from the ridge as the rock cools and contracts, and as the less dense asthenosphere *reads into more dense lithosphere*.



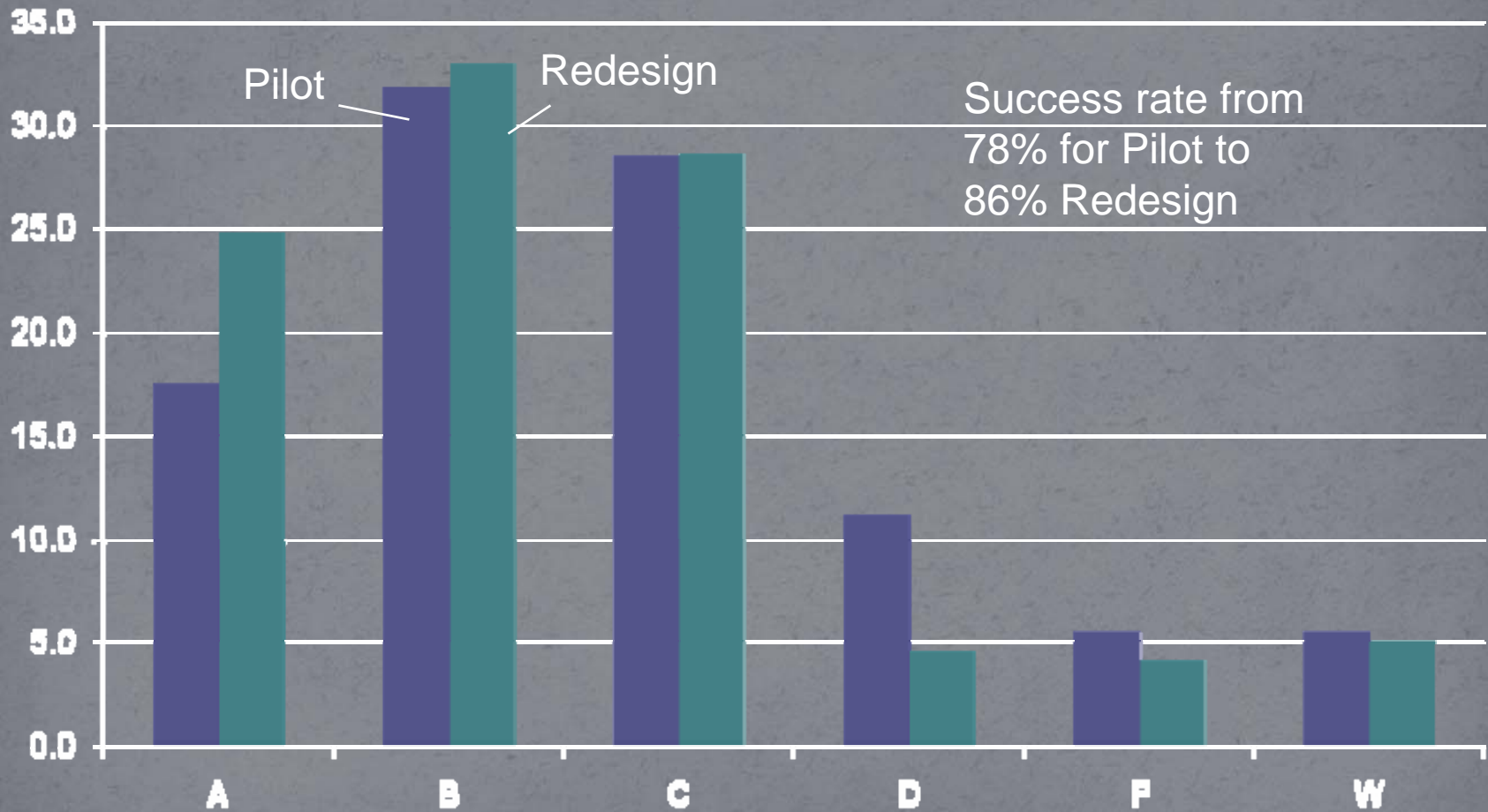
Redesign Experiment

- Quasi-experimental (intact sections)
- Traditional and Pilot taught by same instructor during same semester (Spring 2008)
 - same exams but pilot used online materials
- Compared Pilot versus fully Redesigned, which shared balance of in-class versus online
- Drastic revision of type of exams in summer 2008 (after pilot), moving to concept sketches only -- greatly improved class but made comparisons to traditional difficult

Results: Final Class Percentage



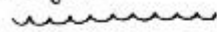
Results: Student Success (Grades)



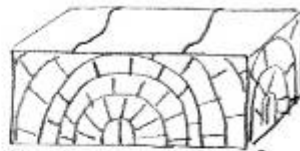
Results: Improved Concept Sketches

Question 1: Sketch and summarize an angular unconformity, nonconformity, and disconformity, and what sequence of events is implied by each type of feature. (10 points)

Angular Unconformity



Limestone is deposited beneath the sea.



The layers become folded, the sea regresses and erosion takes place.



- Unconformity

Conglomerate is deposited on top and the contact between the conglomerate and limestone is an unconformity.

Nonconformity



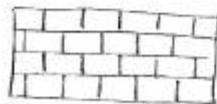
A nonlayered rock (granite) is uplifted and eroded.



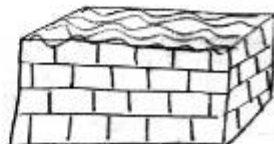
Nonconformity

Deposition occurs on top of the erosion surface creating a nonconformity.

Disconformity



A layered rock is deposited in horizontal layers (limestone).



Erosion takes place on the surface.

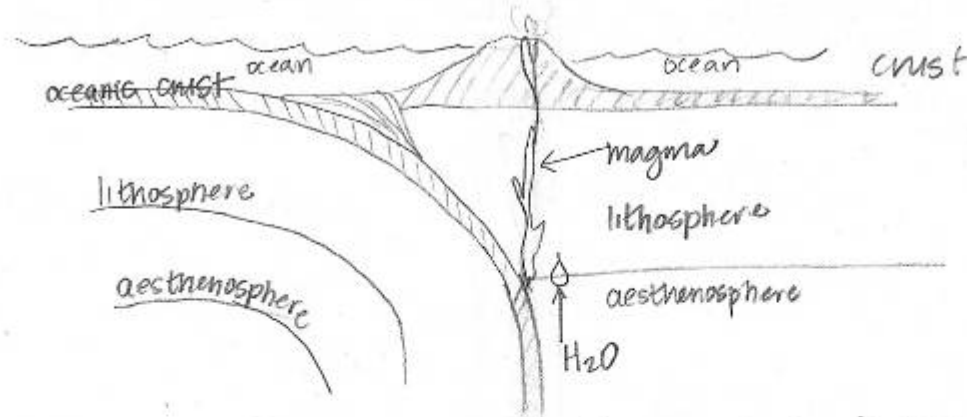


Disconformity

Deposition of new material on top creates a disconformity at the contact.

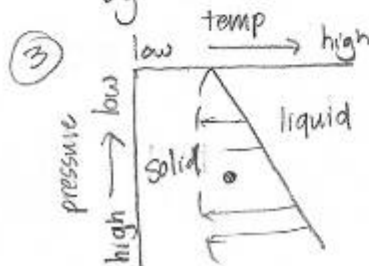
Results: Improved Concept Sketches

Question 2: • Sketch and describe how magma is generated in a subduction zone.



① in an ocean-ocean convergence (depicted above) one plate is subducted under another plate. As the depth of the plate increases, so does temperature & pressure

② changes in existing minerals occur b/c of the changes in temperature & pressure. This is called metamorphism. Minerals that contain water release it. H_2O is also introduced by wet sediments.

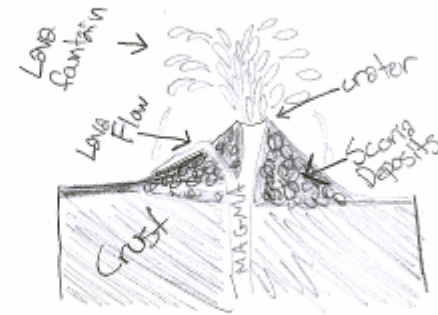
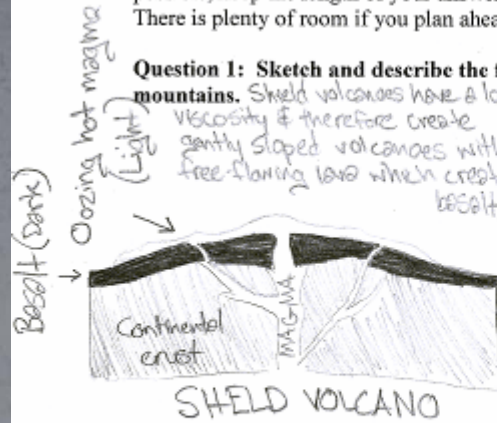


the introduction of water causes the environment to change from dry to wet. This causes a change in the melting point. Mantle melts easier. Mantle derived magma rises into the overlying plate.

Results: Improved Concept Sketches

Concept Sketch Questions: Answer BOTH of the following concept sketch questions. If possible, keep the length of your answer limited to the space provided, and don't write too small. There is plenty of room if you plan ahead. The second question is on the back of this sheet.

Question 1: Sketch and describe the four main types of volcanoes that construct hills and mountains. Shield volcanoes have a low viscosity & therefore create gently sloped volcanoes with free-flowing lava which creates basalt.



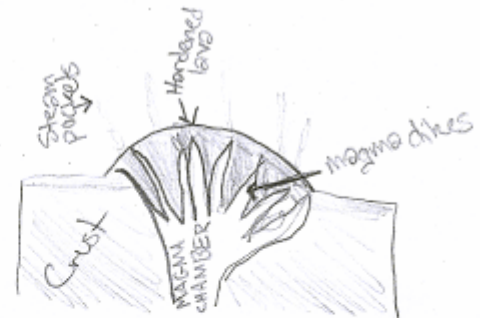
Scoria Cones have a medium viscosity, & are comprised of small-to-medium sized lava

fountains. Lava spouts from these fountains, then cools to form scoria rock, a mafic rock much like basalt but with many vesicles, or trapped bubbles of gas, from the quick lava eruption.



COMPOSITE VOLCANO

These are the most dangerous type of volcanoes due to their high viscosity, which means its magma has a high resistance to readily flow. Eruptions include lava flows, but more dangerous pyroclastic flows & ash clouds due to the sudden explosion of rock. Mudflows, or lahars, may also result if the mountain is snow-capped & the explosion causes melting



VOLCANIC DOME

Domes are created when erupted lava is so highly viscous that it does not travel, but solidifies immediately. Domes contain hardened lava as well as yielded ash & rock fragments. Domes frequently produce steam pockets. They can also be found within the crater

Cost and Time Savings

- Estimate 30% savings for instructors and more than 35% for teaching assistant
- Sources of savings
 - Less meetings per week (50% - 66% of original)
 - Less class preparation, exam preparation, and grading
 - Automation of quizzes and investigations (Blackboard)
 - Shared Resources
 - Photocopying
- Savings offset by
 - Increase in email traffic and issues with Blackboard

Implementation Issues

- Development of online materials
 - Involvement of students in process
 - Refinement of online materials using surveys, interviews, and degree of difficulty
 - Issues translating in-class or paper-based activities to Blackboard
- Buy-in of faculty members