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From the Editor

Welcome to the third issue of The Excellence in Education Journal. The Excellence in Education Journal (www.excellenceineducationjournal.org) is an open access, refereed, online journal that promotes and disseminates international scholarly writing about excellent practices in all aspects of education. The goal is to share these practices to benefit the education of children and adults worldwide**.** For this reason, there are no publications fees and the journal is available free of charge on the internet. Typeset and graphics are intentionally simple in order that the journal can be more easily accessed worldwide to fulfill the mission of the journal.

We were pleased to have received many submissions for this issue. I would like to thank those who submitted manuscripts for this journal, the review team for its work in reviewing these submissions, Prof. Cheng who served as Assistant to the Editor, and the authors whose writing is published herein.

This issue focuses on both excellent practices as well as reshaping current practices to attain excellence. Dr. Bulger and Dr. Jones examine the use of an audience response system in undergraduate physical education teacher education programs. Professor Osborn examines dissent as a patriotic act and topic in civic education. Professor Cheng discusses the benefits and challenges of web-based self-directed learning of the Mandarin language among university students. Finally, Dr. Wilson provides an historical description about the role of The Curry School of Education at The University of Virginia in the desegregation of schools in America.

I hope that the excellent practices discussed in this journal will be helpful to those who are involved with education of children and adults worldwide.

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Reviewers

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A Systematic Approach to Integrating an Audience Response System into an Undergraduate Physical Education Teacher Education Program

Sean Bulger and Emily Jones

Abstract

As technological advances continue to influence the methods by which we communicate, manage information, and entertain ourselves, educators must keep pace with these changes by integrating technology when it supports content delivery and enhances student learning. There is considerable potential for technology use across all content areas, but it appears that physical educators are lagging behind with respect to this professional expectation. Recent studies demonstrate that physical education teacher education (PETE) faculty are also not using technology to support or enhance their instructional practice. The purpose of this paper is to describe the integration of an audience response system into a PETE undergraduate and graduate program of study. The handheld clickers enable students to respond to instructor-posed questions during class. The student responses are recorded and can be displayed which facilitates the provision of corrective feedback, assessment of learning, analysis, and dissemination of results.

Sean M. Bulger, Ed.D. is an Associate Professor in the College of Physical Activity and Sport Sciences at West Virginia University, Morgantown. In addition to his primary research interest in comprehensive school-based physical activity intervention, he maintains an active line of scholarly inquiry with respect to the scholarship of teaching and learning in higher education with a particular focus in the use of instructional technologies.

Dr. Emily M. Jones, Assistant Professor in the College of Physical Activity and Sport Sciences at West Virginia University, Morgantown, teaches courses and conducts research related to instructional technology use in physical education and physical activity programming. Her specific more interests include the preparation of teacher candidates to effectively apply technology in their own teaching and the use of action-based research paradigms to engage teachers in critical thinking and problem-solving.

Technology affects the methodologies by which teachers across disciplines and developmental levels communicate, collect and manage information, deliver instructional content, provide feedback to learners, and assess student achievement (Solomon & Schrum, 2007). As technology continues to advance over time, educators are challenged to integrate it into their teaching to enhance teacher efficacy and effectiveness, improve student comprehension, and achieve instructional or managerial tasks that cannot to be accomplished using alternative approaches (Castelli & Fiorentino, 2008). This integral relationship between technology use and teaching is perhaps best summarized in the International Society for Technology in Education (ISTE) Standards for Teachers (2013) which describe that across content areas, teachers need to develop the capacity to plan, manage, instruct, assess, and reflect on student learning using technology for the following purposes: (1) Facilitate and Inspire Student Learning and Creativity; (2) Design and Develop Digital Age Learning Experiences and Assessments; (3) Model Digital-Age Work and Learning; (4) Promote and Model Digital Citizenship and Responsibility; and (5) Engage in Professional Growth and Leadership.

Despite the significant potential for instructional technology to positively impact student learning across all educational settings and the related standards for teacher preparation programs, numerous concerns persist that physical educators are lagging behind with respect to this professional expectation and may not apply technological innovations to support or enhance their instructional effectiveness (Gibbone, Rukavina, & Silverman, 2010; Ince, Goodway, Ward, & Lee, 2006; Jones, Bulger, & Wyant, 2011). A number of personal and contextual factors are likely to have contributed to this problematic trend including pre-existent teacher attitudes toward technology, restricted

curricular space, related costs and financial constraints, limited experience using instructional technology, infrequent opportunities to observe effective modeling, and inadequate teacher preparation (Cheon, Song, Jones, & Nam, 2010; Cuban, 2011; Ertmer & Ottenbreit-Leftwich, 2010; Gibbone et al., 2010; Koc & Bakir, 2010; Park & Ertmer, 2007; Vannatta & Beyerbach, 2000; Wepner, Ziomek, & Tao, 2003).

In the interest of facilitating more effective technology use among teacher candidates in physical education teacher education (PETE), Jones et al. (2011) recommend that programs adopt systematic approaches to integrating technology that include establishing a conceptual framework to guide its use, exploring teacher candidate biographies and perceived barriers, using evidence-based approaches for technology integration, critically examining model programs that are effective, and focusing integration efforts on the most impactful technologies. Furthermore, PETE faculty should seek to create additional efficiencies by aligning instructional technology integration efforts with broader campus-wide initiatives that allow for collaboration and the sharing of resources including hardware, software, technical expertise, and instructional support.

Toward that important outcome, faculty members at a large, land-grant university secured a teaching innovation grant to support the systematic integration of an audience response or clicker system across an undergraduate PETE curriculum. The employed audience response system had been previously adopted university-wide to facilitate increased student engagement and interactivity in the classroom. The handheld devices enable learners to respond to instructor-presented questions in a digital format. Student responses are recorded and displayed in real-time which allows for immediate feedback and discussion, performance analysis and grading, and dissemination of results in report

form. While the general use of this instructional technology in higher education settings has been well documented, this paper extends the knowledge base by describing the process used to integrate an audience response system into PETE undergraduate and graduate programs of study as well as the resultant lessons learned.

Description of the Involved PETE Program

As recommended by Kay (2006), when discussing the use of any instructional technology in teacher education, it is helpful to incorporate a description of the related context. Within the involved PETE program, pre-majors (students not yet accepted into a program of study) are required to complete the university general education requirements and a series of foundational courses prior to program application and admission to teacher candidacy (see Figure 1). The probationary courses within the major include an introduction to physical education, anatomy, biomechanics, motor development, motor learning, and special populations. These courses address the various sub-disciplines of physical education teaching that are considered to represent foundational content knowledge within the field (Wiegand, Bulger, & Mohr, 2004). Following program admission, teacher candidates complete four semesters of sequentially arranged courses in health and physical education that are focused on providing the subject matter knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, and technological pedagogical content knowledge required of an effective beginning teacher.

These semesters are organized around a developmental continuum that teacher candidates progress through following a lock-step format: Curriculum and Instruction Theory, Elementary School (ages 6-11), Middle School (ages 12-14), and Secondary School (ages 15-18). Each semester incorporates multiple practice teaching opportunities

in a variety of settings including school-, community-, and university-based physical education programs. During the final two semesters in the program, teacher candidates engage in their capstone experiences which focus on post-college transition, self-reflective practice, and conceptual integration. As the signature feature of the capstone experience, teacher candidates are required to complete two student teaching placements at the elementary, middle, and/or secondary levels. Each student teaching placement is eight weeks in length and successful completion is compulsory for program graduation and the granting of teaching licensure within the state.

Audience Response System Integration

Working within this context, PETE faculty members responded to an internal call for funding proposals related to support for the integration of technology into the curriculum. As previously described, there is significant potential for technology use in physical education but recent studies have demonstrated that teachers in schools and teacher education faculty may not be using it to effectively support or enhance their instructional practices (Jones et al., 2011). As technological advances continue to influence the methods by which we communicate, manage information, and entertain ourselves, teacher educators must keep pace with these changes by integrating various technologies when they enhance content delivery and contribute to student learning in a meaningful way. The purpose of the involved grant proposal was to systematically integrate a broader campus-wide clicker technology initiative into the PETE undergraduate and graduate programs of study. The handheld clickers are an instructional technology that enables students to respond to instructor-posed inquiries during class using a variety of question formats. Student responses are recorded and available for

immediate display which allows for discussion, feedback, assessment, grading, analysis of student performance, and reporting of results in real-time.

Rationale for Use of Clicker Technology

The reported advantages of clicker use in the classroom are well-documented including higher levels of student engagement in active learning, increased student participation and more effective classroom interaction, enhanced communication and feedback regarding student comprehension of course content, and provision of an alternative form of assessment to complement traditional grading (Caldwell, 2007; DeBourgh, 2007; Martyn, 2007; Micheletto, 2011; Morse, Ruggieri, & Whelan-Berry, 2010; Premuroso, Tong, & Beed, 2011). The most significant benefit of clicker use, may extend to its impact on teaching behavior within the classroom as faculty eliminate or reduce time allocated for lecture in favor of instructional approaches that place greater emphasis on peer instruction and interactive student engagement (Caldwell, 2007). Inherent in their design, clickers increase student engagement by enabling "all students to respond to all questions asked by the instructor" during a class session (Caldwell, 2007, p. 11). In other words, effective use of clickers in the classroom prevents students from a adopting a more passive role with respect to their in-class participation and the resultant learning that takes place.

Underlying Principles for Clicker Integration

Audience response systems have been shown to positively impact student motivation for learning and engagement in a range of instructional settings. College and university instructors in a variety of disciplines have effectively used clickers to promote increased student learning, active engagement, and motivation. The related knowledge

base is rich with recommendations for best practice related to clicker use and instructional planning, attendance, communication, peer learning, grading, technology management and reduction of student frustration, and effective question development (Caldwell, 2007). For the purposes of this specific project, three guiding principles were identified in the related literature and shared with faculty as the basis for a gradual, strategic, and systematic integration of the audience response system across the curriculum. It was determined that the clickers would be used in PETE courses to (a) Set-up Learning, (b) Develop Knowledge, and (c) Assess Learning (see Figure 2). An initial instructional benchmark was that all faculty members would incorporate a minimum of one related clicker episode per classroom session. The instructors were also provided with a framework for guiding their use of the clickers which incorporated the instructional sequence illustrated in Figure 3.

The grant proposal incorporated a series of meetings among the primary investigators and representatives from the office of instructional technology to share resources, develop guidelines for best practice with respect to clicker use, and organize the purchasing of the related technology. Results of those meetings were then communicated with PETE faculty members through professional development workshops developed to introduce everyone to the mechanics of technology use, brainstorm ideas for integrating clickers into various course formats, and initiate the instructional planning process in selected courses. Following these meetings, faculty members were tasked with developing a formal action plan for using the clicker technology in their own courses. Near the mid-point of each semester, instructors using clickers in their courses shared an overview of their clicker efforts and experiences at a regularly scheduled faculty meeting.

Strategic and Phased Clicker Integration

Within the existing lock-step format of the PETE curriculum, a phased approach to integrate the clickers across an entire program was adopted. An initial three-semester integration schedule included incremental use of the clickers in select cohort courses (see Figure 4). Starting with the two most recently admitted cohorts, students were introduced to the clickers in lecture-based classroom settings (16-week courses). Instructor feedback during the first semester of integration suggested there was a moderate, but not unmanageable, learning curve with the devices. As a result, some instructors described using the most basic functions of the device until they experienced regular success and a perceived level of familiarity with the clickers before progressing to using more advanced functions (e.g., self-paced polling). It should also be noted that at this stage of integration, the clickers were not utilized in the field experience portion of any course. Some students were familiar with the devices because of previous use in other university-level general education courses; if willing, students were encouraged to assist their peers in learning to use the clickers.

The second phase of the integration schedule involved the use of the clickers again in lecture-based classroom settings (1 and 3-week courses). Students in this phase were both undergraduate and graduate level who had no experience with audience response technology. Enrolled undergraduate students consisted of those in their third and fourth semesters of the PETE program (five semesters in total). Several instructors used the clickers in the previous semester which facilitated greater variety of use and enhanced familiarity with the clickers.

The third and final integration semester involved use of the clickers in all four

semesters prior to student teaching in the PETE curriculum. At this point, the newly admitted cohort of students were the only ones being introduced to the clickers for the first time, while the rest had been oriented either in the first or second integration semesters. Unique to this semester was the use of the clickers in field-based settings (10-week courses) and the number of new instructors using the clickers to deliver, reinforce, and assess knowledge of content. Because of this, several brainstorming sessions were held to discuss meaningful integration and effective management strategies (e.g., use of multimedia to prompt responses, use of authentic or situation based questions, delegation of persons responsible for clicker distribution and collection, etc.) of the clickers in this new setting. Admittedly, use of the clickers in the field-based settings remains a work-in-progress and further development of these strategies is needed.

The strategic and phased approach used to integrate clickers across a PETE program was dependent on student and instructor willingness to engage, explore, and experiment with a device that when used effectively, can enhance the teaching and learning environment. Using the first integration semester as a pilot allowed instructors and students to adjust and adapt to challenges as they arose and helped to inform subsequent integration semesters. Furthermore, and possibly more importantly, the phased approach allowed instructors to become familiar and confident with the device. Anecdotally, this produced a positive outlook on the technology and provided instructors time to gradually explore functions and features of the device and how they effectively integrate to enhance their pedagogy.

Sample Course Application of Clickers

This section provides an overview of clicker use within one of the required

courses in the PETE undergraduate curriculum. The course is completed during the second semester after program admission and introduces teacher candidates to the foundations and components of health-related fitness, appropriate curriculum for K-12 programming, effective teaching principles, and assessment of health-related fitness. The class meets one day per week for a 3-hour time block and is delivered in a blended format (combination of online and face-to-face interaction). Cooperative learning is used as the primary instructional model and the students work in teams on problems and projects within a teaching-learning environment that promotes positive interdependence and individual accountability. Toward that end, teams are formed after the initial class meeting and maintained across the entire semester. In addition to the individual accountability system (course grading), students have the opportunity to earn bonus points toward their final course grade based on study team performance during in-class activities.

Prior to and during a typical lesson, the following instructional system is adhered to: (a) Pre-class preparation involving access to online study guide materials and assigned readings; (b) Entrance requirement during which study teams meet at the start of class to review readings and any content requiring further clarification; (c) Teacher question and answer session focused on difficult areas from the assigned readings; (d) Quiz based on the assigned readings; (e) Brief study break following quiz completion; (f) Lecture and discussion session that is intended to extend the content learned in the weekly readings; and (g) Lecture response during which the study teams work in small group format to complete brief case studies highlighting key concepts. The 3-hour time block proved to be particularly conducive to clicker use and allowed for multiple applications of the

technology each week.

Course orientation. The clickers were used during the initial class meeting to poll students with respect to selected demographic questions and provide a basis for study team selection and course pre/posttest administration. These steps were observed to be of critical importance in that the students should be introduced to the protocol for using the clickers at a very early point of the semester with continual reinforcement.

Set-up learning. The clickers were used at the start of each class (Entrance Requirement) to provide an advance organizer for the lesson. This clicker episode was instructor-paced and consisted of several multiple-choice questions derived from the readings to provide a preliminary check-for-understanding prior to completion of the weekly quiz. The instructional sequence previously described in Figure 3 was followed: Question, Discuss, Respond, and Lecture. The automated response system allows for various grading configurations and students earned 1-point for responding to each question and 1-point for each correct response. The points earned did not contribute to the individual course grade but factored into study team point totals.

Assessing Learning. The clickers were also employed at the mid-point of each class period (Reading Quiz) to assess learning with reference to the assigned readings. This clicker episode was self-paced (roughly 20-minutes) and consisted of student responses to 25 multiple choice questions derived from the readings. The students were provided with a hard-copy of the question sheet and recorded their responses using the clickers. One point was earned for each correct response which contributed to individual grades through synchronization with the employed web-based course management system. Additionally, the grading feature within the automated response system enabled

the course instructor to view student quiz performance in real time and tailor the subsequent lecture to those areas where difficulties were observed.

Developing Knowledge. The clickers were also used toward the latter part of each class session (Lecture and Discussion) to emphasize key points and stimulate increased peer-to-peer interaction during lecture. This clicker episode was instructor-paced and consisted of 2-3 multiple-choice questions integrated into lecture PowerPoint slides. These questions were used intermittently throughout the lecture to engage students in periodic checks-for-understanding, prompt peer discussion, and clarify difficult content through the provision of instructor feedback. In the interest of establishing a consistent routine for clicker use, the instructional sequence described in Figure 3 was applied. The points earned did not contribute to the individual course grade but was factored into team point total. An alternative interactive instructional technology, Immediate Feedback Assessment Technique (IFAT), was employed to formally assess comprehension of the lecture content during the lecture response component of the class. The IFAT involves the use of scratch-off forms (think instant lottery games) which also allow for immediate affirmation and/or corrective feedback as students work individually or in small groups to complete brief application tasks or case studies prior to exiting class.

Key Lessons Learned

Faculty members met periodically to discuss the audience response system integration, debrief on the process, and discuss progress. These reflective discussions are summarized in the following subsections: Successes, Pitfalls, and Words of Advice.

Successes

As illustrated in Figure 4, the clicker technology was integrated across three

semesters with an initial focus on earlier courses within the program of study. This incremental approach was decided upon so that the integration process remained manageable and faculty experienced some early success incorporating the technology within their instruction. It also allowed for a relatively small group of motivated faculty to pilot the initial integration efforts in advance of its broader application. One concern related to the use of any instructional technology, remains its management and the preparation of students to use it effectively and efficiently. In this specific situation the faculty members, all of whom had limited previous experience using the clickers, agreed upon a standard protocol for managing, introducing, and teaching with the audience response system. For example, common verbiage with respect to the clickers was developed for use in all course syllabi and there was a consistent protocol for distributing and collecting clickers across semesters. While faculty were provided with basic principles (see Figure 2) and recommended instructional sequences (see Figure 3), they were also encouraged to make modifications based on their unique classroom environments. Several faculty members, for example, adopted the additional step of re-polling after an initial individual clicker response and class discussion period with considerable success.

Pitfalls

As with any new technology, the involved instructors did experience several difficulties during their initial attempts at adopting the audience response system. Fortunately, the clickers purchased were very intuitive in their use and faculty experienced limited technical problems. The few problems that did occur were attributed to user error. The more substantial challenges experienced related to the development of

effective questions or prompts. In other words, the multiple choice, true/false, numeric, short answer, and/or polling question formats need to be written in a manner that challenges students to think critically. Instructors readily observed that questions which fell short of this requirement and were more factual in nature did very little to stimulate discussion and reduced the instructional process to an exercise in button-pushing. Other potential pitfalls stemmed from the infrequent use of the clickers which negatively impacted both faculty and student buy-in in some instances and an over-reliance on the use of question responses for grading purposes which prompted students to be less interested in the discussion due to their focus on simply providing the correct answer.

Words of Advice

Perhaps the most significant take-home messages from this project relate directly to the influence of clicker use on teacher behavior. As summarized by Bulger, Mohr, and Walls (2002), "formal lecture represents an archaic model defined by instructor as deliverer and student as receiver. This model exemplifies one-way communication and perpetuates an incomplete model of education. Accordingly, teachers must create a dynamic educational environment that affords students the opportunity to practice every concept that they are learning" (Ace 3: Engagement section, ¶ 1). While most teacher educators are well versed in this basic premise, when confronted with the competing responsibilities of teaching, advising, research, grant writing, and service it is sometimes easy for university faculty to loose site of this fundamental principle and resort to lecture-based approaches based on time constraints, convenience, and comfort level. Use of an audience response system necessitates that instructors re-think their approach to teaching by focusing less on content delivery and more on meaningful student engagement. The

clickers were found to be most effective when faculty provided an interactive episode every 15 minutes or so during a lesson. This increased focus on student engagement, is also reflected in the need for the involved faculty to think critically about question development in order to move past simple recall of facts or figures to higher order levels of questioning regarding conceptual understanding, application, critical thinking, self-monitoring and reflection, and/or experiments.

Future Direction

Based on the successes experienced during the piloting of the audience response system or clickers, faculty members have proposed a number of alternative possible uses. For example, one group of researchers within the college employed the clickers to collect and share in real-time community member perspectives during a series of "town hall" meetings at the onset of a participatory action research project. From an instructional standpoint, the use of the audience response system in field-based courses and practicum experiences has yet to be investigated although several faculty members have speculated as to its potential application in those settings for the purpose of collecting student learning data and/or enhancing post-lesson reflection and discussion. From a program administration standpoint, an immediate priority relates to the construction of a bank of pilot-tested clicker question formats that are accessible and have been found to work in the classroom setting.

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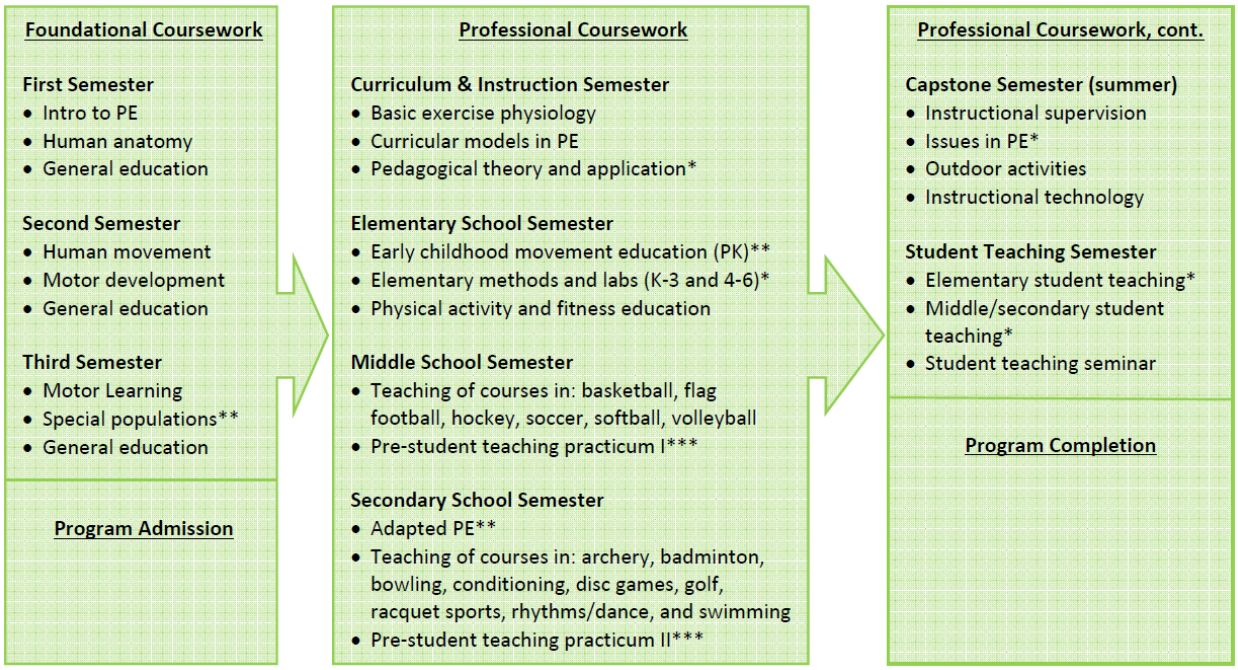

Figure 1. **Physical education teacher education curriculum including practicum teaching opportunities in school (*), community (**), and university-based (***) settings.**

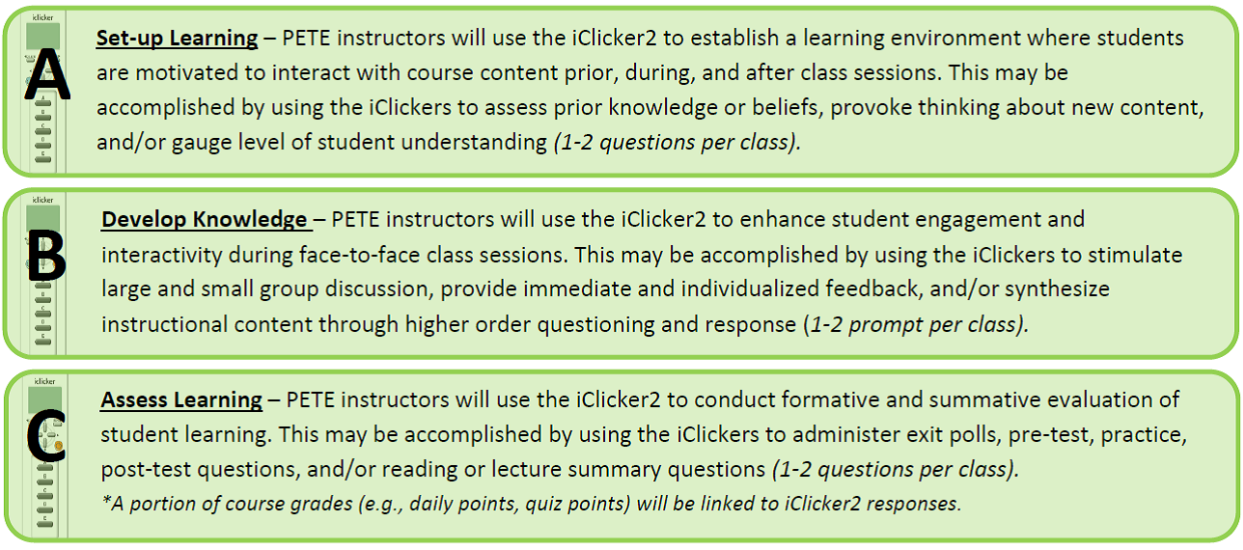

Figure 2. **Principle uses of audience response systems within courses.**

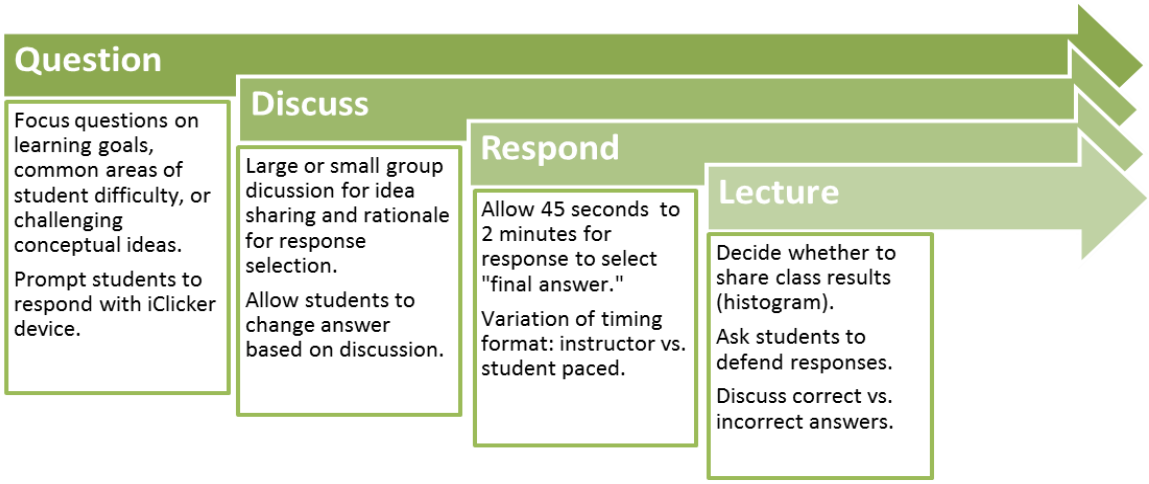

Figure 3. **Recommended instructional sequence for in-class audience response system application.**

	Spring 2013		
	Course	**Course Format**	**Instructor / Frequency**
Curriculum & Instruction Block	**PET 233** Pedagogy Theory & Application	Lecture & Field Experience	Instructor / AA
	PET 228 Curriculum	Lecture	Instructor / AB
Elementary School Block	**PET 349** Elementary Fitness Education	Lecture	Instructor / AC
	PET 350 Teaching Primary PE	Lecture & Field Experience	Instructor / AD
	PET 369 Teaching Lower Elementary PE	Lecture & Field Experience	Instructor / AE
	PET 379 Teaching Upper Elementary PE	Lecture & Field Experience	Instructor / AD
	Summer 2013		
	Course	**Course Format**	**Instructor / Frequency**
Capstone Semester	**PET 452** Outdoor Leisure Pursuits	Lecture & Field Based	Instructor
	PET 483 Professional Issues in PE	Lecture	Instructor
	PET 485 Supervision in PE	Lecture	Instructor
	PET 441 Instructional Technology in PE	Lecture	Instructor
PETE Masters Courses	**PET 673** Instructional Technology in PE	Lecture	Instructor
	PET 605 Professional Issues in PE	Lecture	Instructor
	PET 686 Final Teaching Practicum	Lecture	Instructor
	Fall 2013		
	Course	**Course Format**	**Instructor / Frequency**
Curriculum & Instruction Block	**PET 233** Pedagogy Theory & Application	Lecture & Field Experience	Instructor / AA
	PET 228 Curriculum	Lecture	Instructor / AB
Elementary School Block	**PET 349** Elementary Fitness Education	Lecture	Instructor / AC
	PET 350 Teaching Primary PE	Lecture & Field Experience	Instructor / AD
	PET 369 Teaching Lower Elementary PE	Lecture & Field Experience	Instructor / BA
	PET 379 Teaching Upper Elementary PE	Lecture & Field Experience	Instructor / BA
Middle School Block	**PET 339** Volleyball	Field Based & Field Experience	Instructor / BB
	PET 340 Soccer	Field Based & Field Experience	Instructor / BC
	PET 341 Basketball	Field Based & Field Experience	Instructor / BD
	PET 342 Flag Football	Field Based & Field Experience	Instructor / CA
	PET 344 Hockey	Field Based & Field Experience	Instructor / CA
	PET 358 Softball	Field Based & Field Experience	Instructor / CB
Secondary School Block	**PET 354** Archery/Bowling	Field Based & Field Experience	Instructor / CC
	PET 448 Golf	Field Based & Field Experience	Instructor / BC
	PET 451 Secondary Fitness Lab	Field Based & Field Experience	Instructor / BA
	PET 452 Outdoor Leisure Pursuits	Field Based & Field Experience	Instructor / CD
	PET 453 Dance	Field Based & Field Experience	Instructor / BA
	PET 460 Tennis/Badminton/Pickle ball	Field Based & Field Experience	Instructor / DA
	PET 477 Adapted Lab	Lecture	Instructor / DB

Figure 4. **Schedule for audience response system integration across multiple semesters.**

The Patriotism of Dissent
Civic Education for a Disposition of Critical Allegiance

Daniel Osborn

Daniel Osborn is a doctoral student at Boston University's School of Education in the Department of Curriculum and Teaching. Osborn's concentration is in History and Social Science Education.

To criticize one's country is to do it a service and pay it a compliment. It is a service because it may spur the country to do better than it is doing; it is a compliment because it evidences a belief that the country can do better than it is doing.

Senator J. William Fulbright[1]

[1] Senator J. William Fulbright, *The Arrogance of Power*, New York: Random House, 1966, 25.

Introduction

There are perennial debates in civic education regarding the definition, rights and responsibilities of citizenship while failing to address the issue of civic dispositions. Underpinning the discourse is a consensus that a democracy can only function when citizens are knowledgeable of and adept at exercising their rights (Weissberg, 2001). Yet the aptitudes and dispositions required of citizens in order to be active participants in civic life presents another dilemma for educators implementing a civic education regimen meant to stimulate sustained student interest in politics and society. Westheimer and Kahne (2004) deconstruct the consensus regarding civic competence and find it to be lacking clearly articulated parameters. They propose that, "At the level of rhetoric, most educators, policymakers, and citizens agree that developing students' capabilities and commitments for effective and democratic citizenship is important. When we get specific about what democracy requires and about what kind of school curricula will best promote it, however, much of that consensus falls away" (Westheimer and Kahane, 2004, p. 241). Civic competency is vaguely defined and in need of further examination. While patriotism and dissidence may appear to be antithetical dispositions, there is no innate incompatibility. The fissure between patriotism and dissent is surmountable and, by recasting dissent as a patriotic act, civic education can circumvent the poles of uncritical indoctrination and counterproductive contrarianism associated with these temperaments. In doing so, patriotism and dissent can be recast as two dispositions of sober and critical civic identity.

In order to reconcile the apparent contradiction in presenting dissent as a patriotic act, it is necessary to remain aware of some of the pressing sociopolitical issues twenty-first century students will be inheriting upon completion of their studies. Recognizing the

magnitude of contemporary domestic and international challenges illuminates how dissident behavior can be constructive rather than detrimental to civic affairs. Contemporary domestic and international demands necessitate this ongoing analysis of citizenship roles, expectations, and legitimate forms of active civic participation. Abowitz and Harnish (2006) examine how the dynamic political landscape of the last half-century is a reminder of how citizenship is not static. They argue that the demise of the Soviet Union, establishment of the European Union, ascent of multinational corporations, and trends in globalization- among other seminal features of the contemporary political landscape- illuminate the need for a paradigm shift in how schools encounter citizenship education. The viability of notions of citizen dispositions and behaviors is predicated upon the conditions of the domestic and international political milieus in which citizens navigate.

This discourse presumes there is a need for revisiting the question of what skills, knowledge, and dispositions civic education should yield. Its detractors argue that democracy is intact and unchallenged. As such, modifying civic education to imbue curricula with an emphasis on critical allegiance in the form of patriotic dissent is alarmist and solicits undue scrutiny of America's institutions and social condition. Weissberg (2001) contends, "The United States is hardly some Third World nation overwhelmed by the prospect of conducting a free election, let alone inculcating the very idea of a loyal opposition. Citizens never resort to vigilantism to overturn unpopular court decisions (p. 281)." Weissberg articulates that evaluating civic competencies presumes America is in some way vulnerable. He dismisses this outright, stating that such political behavior should be reserved for emerging democracies and is "unwarranted" in America (p. 281). Weissberg does not entertain how curtailing the sensibility for collective sociopolitical self-

examination may result in the citizenry's indifference, passivity, and complacency. While alarmism undermines the functionality of democracy, so too does an aloof stance towards the need to equip young citizens with the ability to participate in civic life during their intellectually formative years.

Education designed to prepare students for engagement in society must introduce the tension and disparity between ideals and reality between political thought and function, especially regarding America's political framework and history. The American ethos is a composite of the principles found in disparate sources including, but not confined to, the nation's founding documents. The lofty concepts of equality and liberty, among other facets of this evolving and expanding body of convictions and principles, are exemplars of the features harbored by this overarching ethos. While this ethos is cherished for its ethical standard, it is also lamented for not being fully actualized. Banks (1990) explains how this disconnect should be conveyed to students. He posits, "Citizenship education for the twenty-first century must also help students to understand and to deal reflectively with the contradictions that result from the ideals within American society… and the racial discrimination that they will experience or observe in history, current affairs, and the wider society or in the school community" (Banks, 1990, p. 214). American society is not pristine but continues to be plagued by injustices and inequalities. Banks reminds, "Problems such as racism, sexism, poverty and inequality are widespread within U.S. society and permeate many of the nation's institutions" (p. 212). The ongoing salience of social problems in America is illustrative of why civic education can be invigorated by advancing dissent as a patriotic manifestation to redress the fault between ethos and reality. In this way, civic education fosters a collective consciousness that internalizes a vision of a just, humane,

and equitable society; recognizes the deficiencies in society; and seeks to reduce the margin between noble vision and reality.

The objectives of civic education must also take into account the transforming nature of contemporary society. America is demographically pluralistic and civic education should be receptive to the infusion of peoples and cultures into this increasingly multicultural society. Additionally, the influx of technological advancements has irreversibly altered notions of the individual's scope of existence. As such, conceptions of society are more diffuse. While plurality and diversity may produce cultural reciprocity, hybridity, and cohabitation of customs and ideas, it can also be a fragmenting condition (Sunder, 2001). Societal heterogeneity has an innate potentiality for cosmopolitanism and detachment from insularity but also presents a corresponding dilemma. A corollary to plurality and intergroup mingling is socioeconomic stratification and ensuing social problems. The accumulation of the trappings of post-industrial society is not readily available to all of society, much less immigrants and marginalized and voiceless segments (Banks, 1990). Appreciating the value and confronting the emergent problems associated with changing domestic demographic realities and trends in global interconnectedness can be addressed through a robust civic education that concentrates on student critical analysis of social and political phenomena. This critical analytical disposition can be accompanied by patriotic sentiments in order to allow civic dispositions to be exercised without there being a contradiction between dissidence and patriotism.

The emergence of a global age in the twenty-first century has altered perceptions of collective identity. In this climate, the definition of patriotism has become contested territory. Competing notions of global citizenship, national identity, and the tension

between them have produced an array of patriotic sensibilities ranging from inclusive to chauvinistic. In this respect, patriotism has been appropriated by different political camps without the emergence of a clear definition of the term and its implications for political behavior. According to the Pew Research Center, America has witnessed a resurgence of patriotic fervor in the wake of 9/11 (Pew Research Center, 2003). The perception of national crisis may usher in a tenor of conformity and indoctrination (Ohles, 1968). In 2004, 56% of Americans polled agreed with the statement, "I am very patriotic," and 52% agreed with the statement, "We should all be willing to fight for the country, whether it is right or wrong" (Pew Research Center, 2003, p. 4). Westheimer and Kahne also report that during the Bush administration, civic education programs launched had patriotism and homeland defense as the focal points of the agenda, "emphasizing narrow visions of patriotism" (Westheimer and Kahne, 2004, p. 244). In a climate of war and terrorism, the concept of a global society may appear ominous and result in a retreat into the familiar while immunizing the nation-state from criticism for wrongdoing in turbulent times. In doing so, civic education may reinforce misconceptions regarding the peoples of the world, artificially inflate Americans' sense of collective superiority, and breed competitive inclinations rather than examining the prospects for transnational cooperation and peaceful coexistence. While globalization provides the opportunity to reevaluate patriotism, the potential exists for patriotism to be coopted into a nationalist agenda and for dissent to be dismissed as a form of self-loathing or anti-American sentiment.

Patriotism

The definition of patriotism is not self-evident. In order to determine how best to implement a civic education program that has the explicit objective of equipping students

with the skills to be actively engaged citizens in a democracy and that introduces dissent as a patriotic act, it is necessary to first deconstruct patriotism. The concept of patriotism is contentious and the discourse of civic education is saturated with polemics on the subject. Ravitch (2006) reflects, "The extent to which we abhor or admire patriotism in the schools depends on how it is taught" (p. 579). Ravitch goes on to establish a dichotomy between "jingoistic, uncritical self-praise," and "appreciation of the principles and practices of democratic self-government" (p. 579). In this conceptual framework, Ravitch recognizes how no singular definition exists and that the term is porous with ever changing ideological content. Yet, Ravitch presents a binary in a zero-sum configuration whereby the adoption of one conception entails the negation of another. By examining the contours of some proposals of what constitutes an affirmative patriotic identity, it becomes evident that no ready-made definition exists. Rather, constituent parts of existing definitions may be wedded to allow for a more multifaceted definition of patriotism to be promoted in schools that is compatible with political dissidence as one manifestation of patriotism.

A conservative notion of patriotism underscores national allegiance while designating school as the societal mechanism of transmitting and instilling this sentiment. A sense of allegiance is internalized by familiarizing students with symbols while confining participatory modes of democracy to involvement with political parties and activities such as voting (Abowitz and Harnish, 2006). Symbols exist as a surrogate and shorthand for the ideals of the nation. Flags, among other national symbols, synthesize complex political philosophy into readily available iconography that can be showcased and presented as evidence of one's commitment to national ideals. Symbols are ascribed an amount of content that imbues an otherwise innocuous object with the sort of baggage that

elicits an emotional response. According to this conception of patriotism, typically aligned with civic republicanism, political discourse shuns controversy and elevates universal cultural adhesives that bind the citizenry. Abowitz and Harnish (2006) explain that by avoiding ideological and political differences, a perception of national unity emerges. In doing so, institutions are preserved, radicalism sidelined, and allegiance to the country and its values remain intact (Damon, 2006). By promoting this form of patriotism in the classroom, schools generally, and civic education more pointedly, become custodians of tradition chartered with the task of perpetuating the status quo. Students are instructed to know about government institutions and informed that an archetypal good citizen, "upholds the law, and engages in conventional forms of political participation" (Anderson, et al. 1997, p. 335). Within this framework, teachers often function as the archivists of tradition, preserving, caretaking, and disseminating normative cultural knowledge (O'Loughlin, 1995).

By generating allegiance and safeguarding venerable traditions, conservative patriotism seeks to crystallize group cohesion and preemptively prevent fragmentation and factionalism within the citizenry. Recognizing that divergences of ideology, wants, and needs exist in a complex post-industrial society, the prominence of conservative patriotism promotes uniformity to prevent differences from rupturing solidarity. Moore (1952) elaborates, stating, "Underlying the advocacy of sheer indoctrination is also the assumption that divisions of opinion among us, often arising out of consideration of alternative proposals, are inherently harmful to society" (p. 226). As one of the most outspoken proponents of this variety of patriotism and schooling that promotes it, Finn (2006) formulates a nexus between patriotism and identity. Accordingly, Finn prescribes a

curriculum replete with examinations of the "character, courage, vision and tenacity," of the Founders in order to instill students with a sense of heritage and, by extension, identity (p. 580). Consequently, by presenting America's Founders as harbingers of an enlightened polity who were of high moral caliber, this conception of patriotism is founded upon American Exceptionalism. Unrivaled moral rectitude and a tradition of consensus intersect to promote a polished and lustrous patriotism.

Critics have indicted the conservative account of patriotism for its attractive veneer with little substantive content. The most prominent critique regards the absence of critical thought in what is perceived to be indoctrinatory curricula and pedagogy. Indoctrination denies students access to provocative thought that nurtures the development of a critical consciousness. Critics of conservative patriotism in the classroom argue that this process subtly implies that certain currents of thought, if they are incongruent with conservative patriotic ideals, are deemed "unthinkable" (O'Loughlin, 1995, p. 112). Countervailing thought is dismissed and the marketplace of ideas in the classroom withers. Normative ideas take on a position of primacy and deliberation becomes demoted because ideas are dispensed, not constructed or evaluated. If, as Ross (2004) contends, "The primary pedagogical goal is to support students as they come to understand their world and have agency as citizens" (p. 250), conservative patriotism usurps this agency and the purpose of schooling is undermined. Schools are no longer attempting to implement an objective agenda but rather esteem certain values and disseminate certain thought to students who are not taught to question or doubt (Giroux, 1991). O'Loughlin suggests that students in such environments become dependent and emulate authority rather than rely on their own problem-solving abilities. Schools, when implementing civic education based on

conservative patriotic tenets, may stifle critical and autonomous thought rather than establishing a domain conducive to it.

Without a designated space for critical analysis in schools, students imbibe patriotic ideals but may not necessarily comprehend them. Critics attest that this is an untenable form of education since students are not granted the opportunity to defend ideas with evidence or reason because their critical faculties are not engaged. Students are intellectually vulnerable and ill equipped to counter opposing ideas (Moore, 1952). Extending from this critique is the insight that alleged allegiance is more akin to passive obedience in a civic education aligned with the strictures of conservative patriotism. Students become, "Blind patriots [who] adopt a stance of unquestioning endorsement of their country- denying the value of critique and analysis and generally emphasizing allegiance and symbolic behaviors" (Kahne and Middaugh, 2006, p. 602). Giroux (1991) asserts that this education only serves to reproduce power paradigms while Westheimer and Kahne (2004) reply that the skills of critical reflection necessary for the ongoing vitality of democracy are conspicuously absent. Reform does not permeate the political scene when students are unfamiliar with how to be critical consumers of information and astute assessors of their sociopolitical environments.

The narrative of American history constructed to instill this conservative form of patriotism is inherently selective in the portrayal of America's sometimes troubled and troubling past. By deemphasizing unsavory trends and episodes in American history and by being hypersensitive to the redeeming characteristics of the country's political life, conservative patriotism promotes triumphalism and, by extension, collective amnesia. Ravitch (2006) warns, "Students must learn too about the failings of our democracy, about

the denials of freedom and justice that blight our history" (p. 581), lest their formal education culminate with the fallacy of America's infallibility. In addition to historical distortions, critics also call attention to how there is a presumption that politics and society are static. Moore (1952) reminds that the facets of America's political legacy that are lauded by proponents of conservative patriotism were products of prolonged processes and incremental advancements; equality of rights and rule of law- among other political conditions- were not always present in American history and their appearance was the result of shifts in law and national consciousness. America's civic identity is the product of centuries of refinement and modifications originating in antiquity and continuing through the present; it was not ready made in the Declaration of Independence nor were American political leaders responsible for all the provisions in the nation's political tradition (Moore, 1952, p. 227). As such, the features of American history and civic life lauded by proponents of conservative patriotism were not always present and had to be earned. While conservative patriotism seeks to maintain the status quo and balks at dissent, dynamism is fundamental to staving off political ossification and ensuring civic life retains its vitality. In order to ensure there is an ongoing political evolution favorable to the preservation and enhancement of America's political ethos, criticism must be a constant in civic life and cultivated early through civic education.

The last notable critique of conservative patriotism is that nominal reverence for America's political legacy is not synonymous with civic action. Merely appreciating a political apparatus founded upon liberty is not necessarily acting according to the precepts of liberty. McGee (2006) rejoins, "To destroy freedom in the name of protecting it betrays- not preserves- our national traditions" (p. 41). If indoctrination suppresses countervailing

ideas from penetrating the accepted spectrum of discourse, the esteemed virtues of democracy are eroded by the measures instituted to care for it. Westheimer (2006) adds that democratic patriotism finds sustenance when uniformity is absent and that the presence of contending political ideas does not compromise collective solidarity. Liberty is a condition that allows for mobility of mind and body. Freedom of speech and expression are not preserved by showering flattery on the memory of the Founders but by engaging in critical thought. Rather than jeopardize the civic legacy held in such high regard by advocates of conservative patriotism, engagement in critical reflection and dissent may be a means to actualize this legacy. Critics of conservative notions of patriotism argue that alternative definitions of patriotism more accurately manifest the American ethos and do more to protect and rejuvenate it.

A more inclusive definition of patriotism that satisfies the criteria of conservative and more critical camps is not found in a zero-sum arrangement. Rather, a definition that furthers the cause of democracy, seeks to diminish the potency of injustice and inequality, is enhanced- rather than threatened- by multiculturalism, and embraces the mingling of cultures and peoples in a globalizing society must be two-fold.

Firstly, it must be predicated upon an informed comprehension of the American democratic ethos that can be articulated, elaborated upon, defended and deconstructed into component elements. Butts (1988) states that, "A sense of obligation and responsibility manifested by loyalty, patriotism, discipline and duty is still needed as a social and political glue if the very structure of the democratic polity is to persist, let alone thrive" (p. 184). This obligation can only be enforced if students emerge from school with a mature and robust understanding of the meaning of patriotism and the duties incumbent upon citizenry.

Secondly, it must recognize that theory and legacy are not omnipresent and that marginalization, impoverishment, and disempowerment are the product of the gulf between political conviction and political reality. Citizens adhering to this inclusive definition "applaud some actions by the state and criticize others in an effort to promote positive change and consistency with the nation's ideals" (Kahne and Middaugh, 2006 p. 602). Patriotism within this framework is a disposition that does not deny the existence of unsavory tendencies or characteristics in society. Rather, seeking to repair society through the implementation of civic convictions, a citizen of this variety finds that it is incumbent to indict in order to remedy. Kvitka (2006) advises, "Being patriotic requires the audacity to explore equally what is right and what is wrong about our nation and the courage to accept responsibility for both" (p. 593). In this sense, patriotism may become a disposition that is unfettered by chauvinism and divisiveness. Instead, it is a propellant for change, reform, and accountability.

Dissent

Granting social studies teachers license to allow students to critically investigate social and political trends and equipping them with the skills to be agents of change, reform, and repair through acts of dissent has generated a deluge of responses. To reiterate, an almost universal consensus exists regarding the necessity of having citizens qualified at the conduct of democracy yet determining civic dispositions produces ideological divergence and polarizes the discourse on civic education. In order to appreciate how dissent is part of a democratic tradition and can be a manifestation of patriotic sensibilities, it is first necessary to examine the landscape of arguments proposed by opponents and proponents of civic education granting space to legitimate dissent.

Weissberg questions the principle of allocating resources for civic education. More pointedly, he dismisses the notion of fostering a sense of commitment to social justice within schools as superfluous when democratic institutions appear to be functioning unabated by twenty-first century social problems. Weissberg (2001) ponders, "Why then does democracy require its citizens to possess a burning passion for social justice or a knack for unraveling knotty moral quandaries" (p. 281)? Answering his own rhetorical question, Weissberg replies, "When it is all said and done, everything seems to work satisfactorily, and most essentially, it is accomplished democratically" (p. 281). The logic is that deliberations on civic education are unnecessary as there is no real urgency in the matter. This argument presumes democracy functions regardless of the extent to which citizens are discriminating consumers of media, informed decision-makers, and capable of exercising agency. Variables such as susceptibility to rhetoric and polemics are absent in Weissberg's rationale. Weissberg's conclusions are based on macro-level analysis and are devoid of an awareness of how the democratic process functions inequitably in certain locales prone to poverty, violence, and economic stratification.

Opponents of appropriating dissent into the canon of civic education curricula contend that this behavior exists outside the realm of permissible political channels and foments undue cynicism. By questioning the functionality of sociopolitical conditions, opponents fear that dissent translates into mistrust and collective malaise. Nock (1995) suggests, "Dissidents tend to be viewed as deviant, threatening, and wrong" (p. 154). This form of active participation in civil affairs is considered to jeopardize collective cohesion. Society atomizes and selfish vying for individual or special interest eclipses unity, solidarity, and a sense of joint responsibility (Abowitz and Harnish, 2006). In this sense,

dissent is characterized as an activity resultant from disenchantment and factional interests that unbind society.

Those who question dissent as a tenable vehicle of reform also argue that there is a misplaced assumption that social problems are systemic. If dissent aims to alleviate the ills of society by calling attention to institutional failure, critics contest that this fails to assign responsibility to the appropriate parties. "Personal deficits" rather than dysfunctional structures are the underlying cause of socioeconomic stratification and impediments to upward mobility (Westheimer and Kahne, 2004). Detractors contend that assigning blame to structures denies the existence of an American meritocracy and individualism. For dissident voices to direct attention at and indict entrenched social and political defects, according to the logic of detractors' position, minimizes personal responsibility in the perpetuation of social problems. Such argumentation renders dissent a misguided campaign to reassign blame away from the actual source of social ills.

The most salient retort against dissent is the concern that such behavior is harmful to the nation and is an unpatriotic activity. Participation in civil society must be constructive and yield a positive contribution to society (Hansen, 1999). Dissent under the auspices of participation is disingenuous as it is detrimental to healthy forms of involvement- voting, etc.- that enhance the existing civic framework. Dissent is a disruptive force that deviates from the conventional avenues for political engagement (Theiss-Morse, 1993). Within this opposition is the underlying orthodoxy that parameters demarcating prohibited and permissible civic behavior exist and that venturing towards dissent broaches the threshold of prohibited activities.

Critics cast aside dissent as being machinations that erode and undermine the

continued stability of democracy whereas proponents of this form of political participation assert that it diagnoses society's deficiencies in a manner that equitably distributes power. Through dissent, citizens are able to hold authorities accountable and challenge them to redress instances where there is a lapse in the American ethos. If citizens in a democracy are rulers who delegate to elected officials, dissent maintains a power equilibrium (Dahl, 1992). As such, dissent is not deviant or destructive but is an extension of democratic participation and a reminder that meaningful engagement in civic affairs is multifaceted and cannot adequately be encapsulated by the occasional visit to the voting booth. The prerogative of the citizen is, "To disagree without being disagreeable" (McGee, 1966, p. 45), through dissident behavior.

By allowing dissent to occur, democratic society promotes political tolerance. The cohabitation of a diverse array of ideas engenders the tacit acknowledgement that society is strengthened by the deliberation that ensues when ideas are contrasted, weighed, and evaluated. By protecting freedom of speech, press and assembly, the founding generation issued, "a declaration that political controversy is the fresh air of free men" (Pollak, 1968, p. 693). Controversy in a marketplace of ideas allows for a cerebral democracy to flourish. By allowing the study of controversy into civic education curricula, students will be granted the opportunity to become astute judges of an idea's validity. Controversy and a free exchange of ideas is not unchecked relativism but rather the opportunity for students to construct deep knowledge and implement a course of action after careful evaluation. Students in a classroom that introduces dissent as a political activity are allowed to consider ambiguity, nuance and complexity contrary to reductive thought. By granting space to voice controversial ideas "we find the balance that promotes peaceful resolution of the

most contentious conflicts facing us" (Gomez, 2006, p. 56). As Brandeis asserted, "without free speech and assembly discussion would be futile; that with them, discussion affords ordinarily adequate protection against the dissemination of noxious doctrine; that the greatest menace to freedom is an inert people (Pollak, 1968, 694). Staving off free speech and dissident actions resulting from the exchange of ideas is counterproductive to democracy; civic ossification may arise when ideas do not circulate and citizens are not harbingers of change. When dissent is understood to be the end result of this process of political tolerance, free exchange of ideas, and sober-minded deliberation, it becomes the embodiment of America's political virtues and conscience.

Patriotism of Dissent

As the proponents of dissent attest, broaching controversial subjects and taking action to rectify the disparity between ideals and reality is an action grounded in a commitment to the ongoing welfare of society. A patriotism steeped in affinity for the ideals preserved in the tenets of America's political ethos is multifaceted and dissident behavior is one of many manifestations that can be nurtured by civic education. In doing so, students may be made aware of America's political heritage, acknowledge how the persistence of social ills is evidence of an arrested implementation of ideals, and galvanized to redress the impediments to a just and equitable society from flourishing.

When framed as a mechanism not only to safeguard but to realize political ideals, dissent becomes a means of transmitting and practicing political tradition. The vision of patriotism as allegiance to a polity that is founded upon enlightened tenets should seek to ensure this vision is translated into a reality. By instilling an awareness that dissent is one option to ensure a patriotism-of-critical-allegiance becomes a feature of civic education,

teachers become "caretaker and transmitter of the traditions of a democratic society" (Ohles, 1968, p. 458).

Much of the opposition to dissent is the product of a concern that any contrarian behavior constitutes an act of dissent. Dissent as a patriotic act is not destructive or in opposition to society and political institutions. The insistence that citizens be vigilant of injustice and act accordingly to call attention to systemic forces impinging upon democracy is an attempt to resolve rather than exacerbate anti-democratic forces. By erecting parameters of dissent, a more coherent definition emerges that makes for more meaningful distinctions between behavior designed to defuse social problems and reinforce democracy and that which is indeed dangerous. Pollak reminds that the First Amendment provides the foundation for dissent. Speech and assembly are agreeable forms of questioning the status quo, diagnosing problems, and positing remedies. In contradistinction, "intimidation, obstruction, assaults" (Pollak, 1968, p. 695), endanger individuals and dismantle the edifice of democratic tradition. Dissent is not coercion or forceful imposition of one agenda over another. Rather, it is an attempt to repair a disconnect between theory and reality; such an endeavor is not arbitrary but is a tactical motion to reverse social problems.

Untempered radicalism and unlawful actions do not register as acts of dissent under a patriotic purview. Dissent as a manifestation of patriotism has origins in social justice education that is meant to transform society to become more humane. Actions beyond dissent would not be in the vein of incremental, surgical, and reparative action. As Pollak (1968) reminds, because democracy is functioning, revolutionary behavior is undue whereas dissent for reformist agendas, underscored by critical patriotic allegiance to the

tenets of American political theory, is pointed and conducive for change but not for a political overhaul. Pollak concludes, "I am sure it will be understood that in urging political action as a remedy which must take preference to disobedience of the law, I have assumed that the ordinary political process on which our democracy depends are in fact functioning" (p. 695). Under such circumstances, dissent promotes refinement, alterations, and modifications to civic life; dissent is targeted, "to reinterpret cultural norms," rather than rejecting or denouncing. Dissent propelled by patriotism is an avowal of the ideals harbored in conservative discourse but, rather than merely curating these values, seeks to reconstitute them and animate them through action and change. Radical and drastic measures veiled as dissent tend to be rejected by the vast majority of Americans and prove to be exercises in futility more so than consequential political action (Kazin, 2002).

Conclusion

By binding acts of dissent to a patriotic outlook, patriotism is defined according to more nuanced criteria and transcends national apologetics, triumphalism, and conflation between obedience and allegiance. By casting dissent as a manifestation of a patriotic framework, citizens can conduct their civic affairs unencumbered by political passivity, indiscriminate veneration for country, and a superficial sense of national infallibility. As such dissent is not abnegation, indignant nonconformity, uncouth activism or dangerous subversion. Civic education should be constructed around imbuing the classroom with an awareness of what the American ethos entails, how the country has struggled to achieve its social and political aims, and how dissent is a form of sociopolitical diagnostics to ensure the country acts in accordance to this foundational set of principles.

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The Use of Web-Based Self-Directed Learning for Mandarin Study

Li Cheng

Abstract

Self-directed learning has been researched by scholars for many years. However, there is a lack of literature on web-based self-directed Mandarin learning. This research was aimed to investigate how students can learn Mandarin through self-directed study with Internet resources, what the advantages and challenges are, and what strategies students could use to enhance their self-directed Mandarin learning. A web-based survey and in-depth interviews were conducted with students at West Liberty University (WLU), West Liberty, West Virginia, U.S.A. The research found that most of the subjects chose to learn Mandarin because of personal interest, most of the subjects have difficulty in finding appropriate Internet resources although they have been using various types of Internet resources to learn Mandarin, and the biggest challenge they have encountered is that the lack of face-to-face interaction inhibits their learning. This research also put forward some strategies to enhance web-based self-directed Mandarin learning and some recommendations for future research.

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Introduction

Self-directed learning has been a very popular topic in academic research. The 27th Self-Directed Learning Symposium was held in Florida on February 6-9, 2013. Many scholars presented concerning self-directed learning. Self-directed learning is a valuable skill both in workplaces and school settings (Chou, 2012; Rees & Bary, 2006). Self-directed learning is a critical skill for lifelong learning (Candy, 1991).

With the development of technology and globalization, students are faced with a different learning circumstance in which technology plays a great role. Technology development requires skills and abilities, including self-directed learning in the 21st century (Francis & Flanigan, 2012). The study of online learning has gained much attention in higher education institutions. At the same time, self-directed learning in online contexts has attracted more attention with the increase of online learning in higher education (Song & Hill, 2007).

Along with China's continuous development and the increasing influence on the international stage and global market, Mandarin has been an imperative language for many American students. More and more American students are learning Mandarin, and an increasing number of web-based resources are designed for Mandarin learning.

Because of no Mandarin courses in school, economic problems, inflexibility of time and place, personalized learning needs, or some other reasons, some students choose to use self-directed learning to learn Mandarin with Internet resources since technology has brought great opportunities and convenience for students. Especially for students who have no Mandarin class offered at school, who are not able to afford to go to a language school or training center to learn Mandarin, and who do not have any people to teach

them Mandarin, the best way for them to learn Mandarin is using self-directed learning with Internet resources. Even for some people who are learning Mandarin at school or a training center, they may also go to the Internet and look for some resources to improve their learning. The Internet resources provide great opportunities for students to use self-directed learning to learn Mandarin. However, some challenges exist when students use self-directed learning to learn Mandarin with Internet resources. Some students are not able to find appropriate Internet resources. Some students have difficulty in self-motivation. Many students are not able to persist and learn Mandarin effectively through web-based self-directed learning.

West Liberty University (WLU) is located in West Liberty, West Virginia. The exchange program between West Liberty University and Zhejiang Normal University has been bringing Chinese students to WLU since 2011. WLU students have been exposed to Chinese language and culture, and more and more students are interested in learning Mandarin. However, WLU does not offer Mandarin class, so students can only use Internet resources to learn Mandarin through self-directed learning. I established the WLU Chinese Club in August, 2012. The club has been offering free Mandarin lessons. Students get the chance to learn Mandarin through face-to-face classes once a week. However, due to the schedule and transportation, some students still do not have the opportunity to learn Mandarin in the Chinese club and have to choose to use self-directed learning with Internet resources.

A web-based survey and in-depth interviews were conducted with students at WLU who are pursuing self-directed study of Mandarin using Internet resources. This research was aimed to investigate how students can use self-directed learning of Mandarin with

Internet resources, what the advantages and challenges are, and what strategies students could use to enhance their self-directed Mandarin learning.

Literature Review

The 27th Self-Directed Learning Symposium was held in Florida on February 6-9, 2013. Many scholars presented concerning self-directed learning. Self-directed learning is a valuable skill both in workplaces and school settings (Chou, 2012; Rees & Bary, 2006). The definition and significance of self-directed learning, Benefits and challenges of self-directed learning in online contexts, self-directed learning models, and Strategies to improve self-directed learning in online contexts will be discussed.

Definition and significance of self-directed learning

Knowles (1975) defined Self-directed learning as:

> A process in which individuals take the initiative, with or without the help of others, in diagnosing their learning needs, formulating learning goals, identifying human and materials resources for learning, choosing and implementing appropriate learning strategies, and evaluating learning outcomes. (P.18)

Merriam and Caffarella (1991) defined Self-directed learning as "a form of study in which learners have the primary responsibility for planning, carrying out and evaluating their own learning experiences" (p. 41).

Both of the definitions emphasize the learning process including plan, implement, and evaluate autonomously. They also reflect the importance of personal initiative and responsibility in self-directed learning. However, they did not mention about learning

contexts in the definition.

In the literature, there are some closely related terms, including independent learning, self-planned learning, autonomous leaning, self-education (Chou & Chen, 2008), and also self-study (Berndt, 2012), self-regulated learning (Carneiro, Lefrere, & Steffens, 2007; Jézégou, 2012), and so forth.

Self-directed learning is a critical skill for lifelong learning, as Candy (1991) stated,

> The relationship between self-directed learning and life-long education is a reciprocal one. On the one hand, self-directed learning is one of the most common ways in which adults pursue learning throughout their life span, as well as being a way in which people supplement learning received in formal settings. (p. 15)

Due to the beneficial learning outcomes, school and corporate settings strongly emphasize the importance of self-directed learning, as a required skill in the 21st century global environment (Berndt, 2012; Chou & Chen, 2008). As the shift from instructor-centered to learner-centered in the 21st century learning, learners need to be motivated and self-directed (Lee, 2000). As Du (2012) summarized, self-directed learning holds promise in developing student-centered curricula (e.g., problem-based learning) and lifelong autonomous learners.

Benefits and challenges of self-directed learning in online contexts

In the literature, various benefits and challenges of self-directed learning in online contexts have been discussed. The benefits include convenience, flexibility, activeness, and autonomy. The challenges include that students may no longer be able to rely on an educator for support, as well as the challenges in planning, monitoring, and evaluating

learning in online contexts, the technical difficulties, lack of a sense of community, and delayed communication. In addition, there is a doubt if people could learn effectively with online self-directed learning.

New technologies enable self-directed learners to participate informally in learning events on open online networks (Kop & Fournier, 2010). The proliferation of Information and Communications Technology (ICT) has added to the complexity of our lives and aided in the creation of a plethora of new opportunities for learning, and informal and self-directed learning now form part of our everyday existence (Kop & Fournier, 2010). However, both benefits and challenges exist in self-directed learning in online contexts.

As Song and Hill (2007) stated, various studies have explored the benefits of online learning, such as convenience, and flexibility. Learners became self-directed, active, and exploratory in a short time when they were learning from a multimedia program (as cited by Chang, 2007). Technologies provide us with access to various information and possibility to learn globally (Downes, 2010; Fournier & Kop, 2010). New structures and environments enable people to learn autonomously (Kop & Bouchard, 2011).

However, the technology raises new challenges and opportunities for self-directed learners, who might no longer be able to rely on educator for support in their learning endeavor (Kop & Fournier, 2010). Although the online learning context provides learners with benefits associated with flexibility, there are also challenges in planning, monitoring, and evaluating learning, many of which learners have not faced with in traditional classroom environments (Song&Hill, 2007). The challenges also include technical difficulties, lack of a sense of community, and delayed communication (Song&Hill, 2007),

In addition, as Kop and Bouchard (2011) stated, there is a doubt if people could learn effectively with online self-directed learning. Chou and Chen (2008) and Francis and Flanigan (2012) conducted a study on the relationship between web-based self-directed learning and academic performance. Both of the studies did not find a direct relationship between web-based self-directed learning and academic performance.

Chou and Chen (2008) conducted an exploratory study of the relationship between self-directed learning and academic performance in a web-based learning environment to identify whether or not self-directed learning is a key factor leading to successful academic performance. They examined six empirical studies and found that the effect of self-directed learning on academic success in web-based environments is divergent among six case studies. Only one case showed a strongly positive relationship between self-directed learning and academic success. They indicated that a number of factors could affect the result of such a study, which include reliability of academic performance as a measure, students' learning style, time for distributing, quality of online learning materials, sample subject's demographics, leaner's educational background, prior knowledge for contents, measurement of self-directed learning, or sample size (Chou & Chen, 2008). Chou (2012) examined two experimental studies which explored the effect of self-directed learning on engineering students' online learning, and found that the effect of self-directed learning did not exist in the online setting as four potential extraneous factors which lead to inconsistent findings: randomization, online learning environment, self-directed ability, and online instructional activity (Chou, 2012).

Similarly, Francis and Flanigan (2012) did the research regarding the degree to which higher education is compatible with self-directed learning with 188 college

students. The results suggest that self-directed learning is not directly related to academic performance. Patterns of academic motivation suggest increasing levels of self-directed learning may be associated with disengagement from formal higher educational structures (Francis & Flanigan, 2012).

Self-directed learning models

Some scholars have presented different perspectives on Self-directed learning. Some scholars see Self-directed learning as a process of organizing the instruction, focusing their attention on the level of learner autonomy. Others view self-direction as a personal attribute, with the goal of education described as developing individuals who can assume moral, emotional, and intellectual autonomy. There are several models for understanding self-directed learning. (as cited in Song & Hill, 2007).

Candy's Four-Dimensional Model

Candy (1991) concluded that Self-directed learning encompasses four dimensions: "'self-direction' as a personal attribute; 'self-direction' as the willingness and capacity to conduct one's own education; 'self-direction' as a mode of organizing instruction in formal settings; and 'self-direction' as the individual, non-institutional pursuit of learning opportunities in the natural societal setting" (p. 23) Candy's model was the first to state that a learner's self-direction might be different in different content areas. However, the model does not describe how self-directed learning is relevant in different learning contexts such as classroom learning or online learning. (Song & Hill, 2007)

Brockett and Hiemstra's personal responsibility orientation model

Brockett and Hiemstra (1991) provided two primary orientations in understanding self-directed learning: process and goal. In the first orientation, Self-directed learning is

viewed as a process "in which a learner assumes primary responsibility for planning, implementing, and evaluating the learning process" (p. 24). In the second orientation, self-directed learning is referred to as a goal, which focuses on "a learner's desire or preference for assuming responsibility for learning" (Brockett&Hiemstra, 1991, p.24). Different from Candy (1991), Brockett and Hiemstra (1991) defined the social context as different physical institutions where learning takes place, such as community colleges, libraries, and museums. In the educational situation nowadays, online learning continues to increase, which has stimulated the study of web-based self-directed learning.

Garrison's three-dimensional model

According to Garrison (1997), self-directed learning is accomplished by three dimensions interacting with each other: self-management, self-monitoring, and motivation. Garrison's model is focused on resource use, learning strategies use, and motivation to learn (as cited in Song & Hill). Garrison explained that self-management involved learners taking control of the leaning context to reach their learning objectives. Garrison's model also had a focus on the learning process. According to Song and Hill (2007), Garrison also recognized the context factor in his model, but the role of context was somewhat superficial and the dynamic interaction between learning context and self-directed learning was not explicit.

Song and Hill's conceptual model for understanding self-directed learning in online environment

In the research of self-directed learning in an online environment, as pointed out by Song and Hill (2007), self-directed learning is primarily depicted as a process, focusing on learner autonomy in the learning process, and personal attributes are emphasized,

which focusing on learner's capabilities of self-regulating the learning process. Prior knowledge, time-management, and gender differences are some of the specific attributes. (Song & Hill, 2007).

Song and Hill (2007) argued that the models of Candy (1991), Brockett & Hiemstra (1991), and Garrison (1997), have been valuable in enabling the extension of our thinking about self-directed learning, examining process and learner control as well as the interaction between the two, however, the awareness of the importance of context in self-directed learning has not attracted much attention to date. Song and Hill (2007) brought up a conceptual model for understanding the self-directed learning online environment, which is more comprehensive with the incorporation context as a contributor to the overall process of self-directed learning.

In Song and Hill's model, personal attribute and learning process are incorporated in self-directed learning as pointed out by most scholars in the literature of self-directed learning, and a third dimension--the learning context is also incorporated to indicate the impact of environmental factors on self-directed learning.

Song and Hill (2007) concluded that to succeed in an online learning context, learners need to take control in planning their learning pace, monitoring their learning comprehension, and making judgments on various aspects in their learning process. Learners need to explore various learning resources actively in an online learning context, and learners need to develop strategies to effectively use resources and overcome challenges in online learning. (Song & Hill, 2007). Last but not least, Song and Hill (2007) added, "online learners need to become motivated to overcome the procrastination challenge associated with online learning, and to take advantage of online communication

affordances to create meaningful interaction" (p. 35).

Kop and Fournier's model in learner autonomy and connectivism

Kop and Fournier (2010) conducted research based on two foundational areas: learner autonomy and connectivism, to examine self-directed learning in open networked environments, and they brought up some new dimensions. Learner autonomy is an important component of self-directed learning (Ponton, 2005; Bouchard, 2009; Boucouvalas, 2009; Kop and Fournier, 2010). Bouchard (2009) pointed out particular factors that influence autonomous learning strategies, including four dimensions with psychological issues, pedagogical issues, and two environmental issues (Kop & Fournier, 2010). The first dimension relates to psychological issues such as drive, motivation, initiative and confidence, and the second dimension relates to pedagogical issues, for instance the sequencing, pacing and goal setting in learning, the evaluation of progress, and final evaluation and preparation for validation (Kop and Fournier, 2010). The other two dimensions which Bouchard (2009) identified concerns environmental issues which are related to the delivery model of resources and economy. As Kop and Fournier (2010) stated, the delivery model has drastically changed from the use of resources of books and paper to electronic texts and multimedia, and also blogs, wikis, and synchronous and asynchronous communication. Learners will need to be able to evaluate and navigate the new information landscape through social networks (Kop and Fournier, 2010). As to the economy, the possible cost will influence learner's self-directed learning in online context (Kop and Fournier, 2010). The first two dimensions are actually related to the learner attribute and learning process and the latter two dimensions are related to the learning context as Song and Hill (2010) mentioned.

Downes (2010) and Siemens (2008) did research based on connectivism in the online environment. "Connectivism advocates the active engagement of people with resources in communication with others, rather than the transfer of knowledge from educator to learner" (as cited by Kop and Fournier, 2010). As Kop and Fournier stated, a connectivist approach and learning environment might pose both new challenges and opportunities for learners to enhance their learning experiences.

Kop and Fournier (2010) concluded four challenges and pertinent developments to connectivist learning based on the current literature related web development: first, the nature of the network and the levels of presence has been highlighted as an important factor in the willingness of participants to actively engage online; second, digital literacies are critical for learners to effectively direct their own learning in an open online networked environment; third, cloud computing and the emergence of Web 2.0 and social media have altered the dynamics of the Web; fourth, the Semantic Web and learning analytics are the latest developments of the Web and can be used for the visualization of large amounts of data, creating a need for learners to be able to understand and critically analyze graphs and figures.

According to the research in Massive Open Online Courses, Kop and Fournier (2010) concluded that learners have their own ideas on what type of activities would suit them and their lifestyles, psychological factors such as drive, motivation, and confidence are important, time management, goal setting, and time availability are important too. It is important for learners to learn about new tools, economic factors are also relevant to the course participants, and some additional issues such as a different mind-set and higher level of critical analysis of resources than is the case in a more organized classroom

environment (Kop and Fournier, 2010). Kop and Fournier (2010) also suggest that educators and institutions might introduce more openness in the curriculum by using social media and global participation.

Strategies to improve self-directed learning in online contexts

Song and Hill (2007) put forward suggestions in resources and strategies in the online self-directed learning process, namely, 1) investigating learner's self-directed learning personal attributes in an online learning context; 2) investigating the interaction between self-directed learning process and self-directed personal attributes; 3) designing effective online self-directed learning environments.

Strategies to improve self-directed learning in online contexts include self-motivation, self-monitoring, self-regulation, know about our learning styles, study plan, and improve technology skills. Scholars did various research regarding these strategies, as we can see from the following.

Self-motivation

As one of the personal attributes, motivation had been studied by many earlier scholars such as Candy, Brockett and Hiemstra, and Garrison, and many contemporary scholars have conducted research concerning motivation in self-directed learning in online contexts (Kop and Fournier, 2010; Song and Hill, 2007; Chang, 2007). Maslow (1970) defined motivation as a psychological process where a behavior is directed toward a goal according to learner's needs. For language learning, Gardner (1985) defined motivation as a combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favorable attitudes towards learning the language. In his model, Gardner talked about two kinds of motivation, the integrative and the instrumental. The integrative

motivation refers to learner's desire to at least communicate or at most integrate with the members of the target language. The instrumental motivation refers to more functional reasons for learning the language such as getting a better job, a higher salary or passing an examination (Gardner, 1985).

A challenge to motivation in online learning is procrastination (Song and Hill, 2007). Song and Hill (2007) stated that, in a face-to-face class, although students may procrastinate, the required physical presence exposes them to the materials on a regular basis, however, learners may not engage in an online situation. Online learners need motivational strategies to improve self-directed learning.

Jézégou (2012) strengthened the importance of self-determined motivation and self-regulation. A high level of self-determined motivation is necessary to involve oneself in an activity to achieve a personal goal, and self-regulation is important in maintaining this motivation during the activity (Jézégou, 2012).

Self-monitoring

Chang (2007) investigated the effects of a self-monitoring strategy on web-based language learning, in which both students' academic performance and their motivational beliefs were investigated. A total of 99 college students who were enrolled in classes for Freshmen English participated in Chang's study. The experimental group was led to a web page with a self-monitoring form for recording study time and environment, learning process, predicting test scores, and self-evaluation while the control group was not. Chang's research found that self-monitoring strategy had a significant effect on students' academic performance and their motivational beliefs. Encouraging students to develop self-monitoring could help increase the success of online learning (Chang, 2007).

As Chang (2007) stated, "self-monitoring activities give students a sense of personal control that has been shown to be a major source of intrinsic motivation to continue learning on their own." (p. 188) The results of the study revealed a significant effect of the self-monitoring strategy. Chang (2007) also suggested further studies that investigate the effect of individual differences, such as personality factors and different learning styles.

Self-regulation

Andrade and Bunker (2009) developed a new model of self-regulated language learning. The model demonstrates how learners interact with the variables of structure and dialogue to become self-regulated distance language learners. Learners begin a course with individual levels of self-regulated learning, commitment, and language proficiency. They interact with the course content, materials, and technology, etc. As learners interact with the structure and dialogue of the course and develop self-regulated learning skills, they reflect on and monitor their performance, set new goals, and continue to improve and build on the strategies they encounter and practice. (Andrade & Bunker, 2009)

Different learning styles

In this vein, Ng and Confessore (2010) conducted a study in examining the relationship of multiple learning styles to learner autonomy. Ng and Confessore (2010) stated that learners who possess both independent and collaborative learning styles are less likely to face preference problems of completing both independent and collaborative tasks, and the same in other circumstances which may require learners to employ different learning styles. The more learning styles individuals are comfortable using, the

more likely they will effectively and efficiently implement them in learning situations. Results of this study also reflect the importance of being comfortable with a variety of learning styles when approaching learning. This study provides evidence that the number of preferred learning styles is important in determining the intention to learn among distance learners. Learners who are flexible in using different learning styles according to their needs and situations are found to be more autonomous. (Ng & Confessore, 2010)

Study plan

Du (2012) conducted research using study plans to develop self-directed learning skills in language learning. Three factors have been found which could influence the successful implementation of self-study plans, namely: specific learning objectives, feasible and detailed learning activities and resources, and constant monitoring and feedback.

Ley, Kump, and Gerdenitsch (2010) conducted research in scaffolding self-directed learning with personalized learning goal recommendations. The study found that students with personalized learning goal scaffolding outperformed students with random suggestions of learning goals in self-directed learning.

Improved technology skills

An important and essential strategy to improve self-directed learning in online contexts is to improve technology skills. Deepwell and Malik (2008) conducted an investigation into how students studying at the university level engage actively with learning technology in their self-directed study time. In this study, they explored three emerging aspects of the learning experience, namely students' expectations of the technology, their lecturers' engagement with technology and how the technology might

support processes of transition in higher education. One key implication from this study is that more academic guidance is needed on what and how to use the technology effectively for independent learning, even where ICT (Information and Communication Technology) skills levels are high.

The strategies of self-motivation, self-monitoring, self-regulation, and knowing about our learning styles are from the perspective of personal attribute. The study plan strategy is from the perspective of learning process. The strategy of improving technology skills is to adapt to the web-based learning context. When designing strategies to improve web-based self-directed learning, it is necessary to pay attention to all the three dimensions: personal attribute, learning process, and web-based learning context. Utilizing strategies from all the three aspects is essential to improve web-based self-directed learning.

In the literature, the definition and significance of self-directed learning, benefits and challenges of self-directed learning in online contexts, self-directed learning models, and strategies to improve self-directed learning in online contexts have been discussed. However, there is a lack of literature on web-based self-directed Mandarin learning. There was no research on how students could utilize Internet in their self-directed learning of Mandarin or the advantages and challenges, and strategies of web-based Mandarin self-directed learning.

Methodology

The purpose of this study was to learn about the advantages and challenges of self-directed learning of the Mandarin language through the Internet, and how it can be

improved. The experiences and attitudes of WLU students participating in self-directed learning of the Mandarin language were investigated. The collection of data was accomplished through a web-based survey and individual interviews with WLU students who were participating in self-directed study of the Mandarin language sponsored the WLU Chinese Club. These students had expressed interest in participating in the self-directed study of Mandarin, and they have learned Mandarin by themselves. The web-based survey was conducted through Survey Monkey (www.surveymonkey.com) to collect quantitative data and the individual interviews were conducted through face-to-face discussion to collect more rich, qualitative data. The permission for this study was granted from the WLU Human Subjects Committee. West Liberty University is located in West Liberty, West Virginia, USA. The university has approximately 3000 students including undergraduate and graduate students and more than 50 different academic programs.

Participants

The participants were 23 male and female students at West Liberty University. They were Mandarin learners with different Mandarin levels in different grades and majors. Some of them had been studying Mandarin for a long time, some of them just began to learn Mandarin, and some of them studied Mandarin before but did not continue. One of the common things about them was that they were interested in learning Mandarin and had the experience of learning Mandarin by themselves with Internet resources. They expressed interest in participating in the self-directed study of Mandarin. This self-directed learning opportunity was sponsored by the WLU Chinese Club. The role of the Chinese club was to locate internet resources for the students to use in self-directed study.

Research questions

Based on the research objectives and literature review, the research was focused on the following research questions:

1. How do students utilize Internet in their self-directed learning of Mandarin?

2. What are the advantages and challenges of web-based Mandarin self-directed learning?

3. What strategies could students use to enhance their web-based Mandarin self-directed learning?

These questions were investigated through an online survey through Survey Monkey and individual interviews.

Web-based survey

Advantages and challenges of a web-based survey

A web-based survey is efficient and is becoming more user-friendly, and it can increase the response rate that may result in a more valid analysis of the data collected. (Greenlaw and Brown-Welty, 2009)

As Marra and Bogue (2006) concluded from Yun and Trumbo (2000), a web-based survey has the following advantages:

- Lower cost relative to other data collection methods
- A supportive environment for actual development of an instrument
- An online data collection product that for some populations may facilitate a better response rates
- Support for the data collection process; responses are

> automatically stored in the provider's database with the ability for you to download the results when you wish. This eliminates the need for manual data entry. (p. 2)

A web-based survey could reduce the time and cost of conducting a survey, avoid the often error prone, and tedious task of data entry (Solomon, 2001)

However, a web-based survey should be used with caution. Currently the biggest concern in a web-based survey is coverage bias or bias due to sampled people not having or choosing not to access the Internet (Kay & Johnson, 1999; Solomon, 2001). Solomon (2001) stated another challenge about a web-based survey:

> The Web is a very public place and unless steps are taken to limit access to a survey, it may be found and responded to by people who are not among those sampled by the researcher. This can either happen by accident or maliciously. Since one only has to "click" their mouse pointer on the "submit" button to respond to a Web-based survey instrument once it is filled out, it is also quite possible for respondents to either mistakenly or purposefully submit multiple copies of their responses. (p. 2)

The use of web-based survey in this study

Compared with a paper-based survey, a web-based survey is more convenient. It was difficult to schedule a certain time for a paper-based survey for all the participants, however, a web-based survey does not have this problem. Participants could finish the survey anytime, anywhere with the access of Internet and computer, or with other technology devices. A web-based survey saves time since the conductor does not have to

hand out the survey to different participants and does not need to wait until the participants finish the survey. It saves paper, which is a good way to save resources. Moreover, it is more confidential since there is no handwriting and no face-to-face contact during the survey. The participants will not need to worry about the personal privacy. At last, a web-based survey usually has the function of gather data and analyze data, which is very convenient. All of the participants are accustomed to frequently accessing the internet for their classes. In addition, the web-based survey in this study was just conducted in a week, and it is not easy to be found without knowing the link. Even though irrelevant people find this survey, they are not likely to take this survey which they will not benefit from. Hence, the concerns of the literature are not applicable in this setting.

In the survey of this study, Survey Monkey (www.surveymonkey.com) was chosen as the web-based survey tool. An account needed to be registered before the survey could be conducted. With the free trial account, up to ten questions could be designed which is enough for this study. Various types of questions could be designed.

Ten questions were carefully designed and after finishing the design, there was a survey link. The link was emailed to all participants. From the management view, the number of participants was recorded and the survey results were very clear. Additionally, the data was gathered and analyzed by the system.

In the survey, basic demographics, the reason why the subjects use self-directed learning to study Mandarin, web resources they had been using, the difficulties they came across and the strategies they used, and their attitude to web-based self-directed learning of Mandarin were investigated. The link is

http://www.surveymonkey.com/s/YWHQLTZ. The complete survey is attached at the end of this paper (see appendix A). In addition to this survey, in-depth interviews were conducted to provide more rich, qualitative data which complimented the quantitative data acquired from the survey.

In-depth Interview research

Definition, advantages and challenges of individual interview research

An in-depth interview is defined by Boyce and Neale (2006) as a "qualitative research technique that involves conducting intensive individual interviews with a small number of respondents to explore their perspectives on a particular idea, program, or situation" (p. 3).

According to World Bank Institute (WBI) evaluation group (2007), individual interviews can often provide in-depth context, stories, and discussion related to one or more topics in an environment where the interviewer can ask for elaboration or explanation with follow-up questions. Individuals in positions of influence may also appreciate the additional personal attention that the interview can offer as opposed to a survey or focus group.

According to Boyce and Neale (2006) , in-depth interviews provide much more detailed information and provide a more relaxed atmosphere in which people may feel more comfortable having a conversation than through other data collection methods. However, in-depth interviews also have some limitation, including they are prone to bias, can be time-intensive, interviewer must be appropriately trained in interviewing techniques, and not generalizable. (Boyce & Neale, 2006)

As WBI evaluation group (2007) concluded, there are both advantages and

disadvantages to individual interviews. Advantages include: Interviews typically allow for more focused discussions and follow-up questions; Individuals may offer information in interviews that they wouldn't offer in a group context; Interviews can be an excellent source for stories and context; the interviewer can observe the non-verbal behaviors of an interviewee. Disadvantages include: Time requirements for interviewers and interviewees can be significant; Interviews have the potential to reduce the scope and sample for data collection; The results of multiple interviews may contradict each other or be difficult to analyze; Interviewees may be biased or represent only a limited perspective on performance issues/themes. (p. 1)

The use of in-depth interview research in this study

After participants completed the survey, I emailed a request for subjects to additionally participate in an in-depth interview individually. Six students responded and participated in the interview as well.

An informational letter for participants about this research project as well as the informed consent form were given to participants at the beginning of each interview (See Appendix B). The letter explained that there were no foreseeable risks associated with this project nor were there any benefits to the participants. There was no compensation for participants. Each of the interview discussions would be recorded in order to analyze the responses for patterns and neither the participants nor their responses would be identified in any way. Participation was voluntary and the participant could withdraw at any time.

When the individual interview discussion began, each participant received a written copy of the questions. I also read each question orally. This was done in order to

accommodate visual and oral learning styles.

Eight questions were discussed in the individual interview:

1. Why did you choose to learn Mandarin?

2. What motivates you to use self-directed Mandarin learning with internet resources?

3. What type of internet resources have you used? Which have been the most helpful? Which have been the least helpful?

4. What benefits have you experienced from internet-based self-directed Mandarin study?

5. What challenges have you experienced with internet-based self-directed Mandarin study?

6. Do you anticipate continuing to learn Mandarin through internet-based self-directed study? Why or why not? Please explain.

7. Would you recommend to other higher education students learning Mandarin through internet-based self-directed study? Why or why not? Please explain.

8. What strategies do you think could be used to improve web-based self-directed Mandarin learning?

The interview was recorded on the Audacity program on both a laptop and cell phone simultaneously. Two devices were utilized for recording in the event that one did not record. At the same time, handwritten notes were taken by me, which included key points of the interview, notable quotes, and body language and mood of the participant. Sound checks were conducted before the interview to ensure that our voices were audible on the recording. Each interview was saved as an independent electronic file.

The data of the in-depth interviews was captured through a Tape-Based Abridged Transcript. As cited by Dr. Ann Gaudino (2008), Kruger and Casey describe the Tape-Based Abridged Transcript Approach by stating that it, "Relies on listening to a tape recording of each focus group and then developing an abridged transcript of the relevant

and useful portions of the discussion…It is a condensed version of the focus group discussion with irrelevant conversation removed" (p. 131). The use of the Tape-Based Abridged Transcript approach in group interviews is a reference to draw from and to be used in in-depth interviews. In the following weeks, I listened to the recordings, took notes and organized the data from the interview in a transcript. This transcript was used to systematically address the research questions and present the findings.

Findings

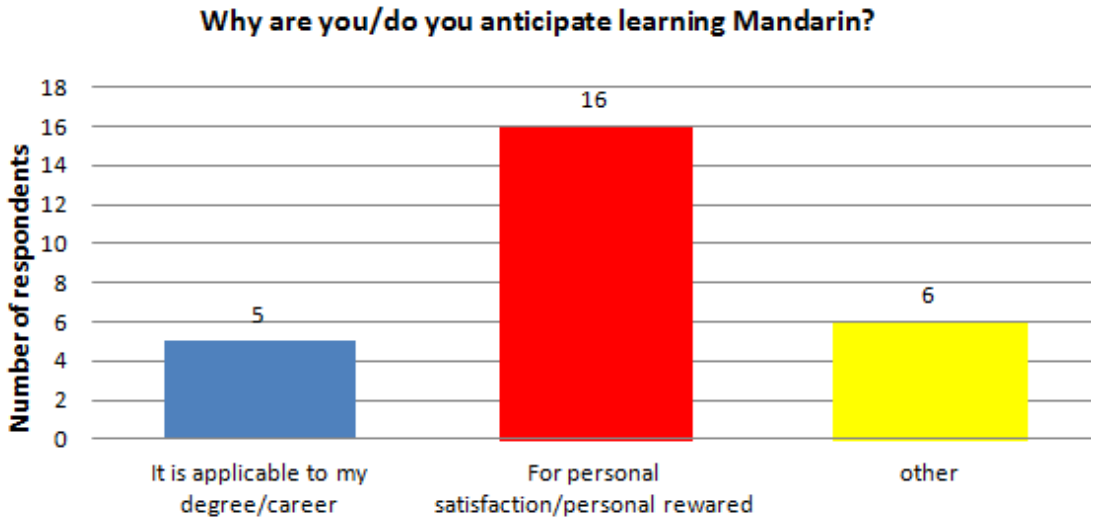
Twenty three WLU students participated in the web-based survey conducted through Survey monkey, including 14 females and 9 males. They include freshmen, sophomores, juniors, and seniors, with different majors and minors. Most of them have been learning Mandarin for several months to 2 years. Some of them just began to learn. Six students participated in the in-depth interviews. They were asked eight questions pertaining web-based Mandarin self-directed study. There were some similarities among their responses as well as some differences.

Reasons for Mandarin Learning

Question 1 of the survey investigated the reason for the subjects learning Mandarin. About why they chose to learn Mandarin, 16 students chose "for personal satisfaction/personal reward", 5 students chose "it is applicable to my degree/career", and 6 students chose other. 26.3 % chose to learn Mandarin for their degree or career, as one student mentioned in the response, "I'm going to be working in China". 84.2% chose to learn Mandarin because of personal satisfaction or reward. Most of them chose to learn Mandarin not because of degree or career but personal interest. In the response, some

students mentioned, "I have friends that speak the language, and hope to visit them in their home country", "I want to communicate with my Chinese friends in their native language."

Table 1: Reasons for Learning Mandarin



70.6% of the students use self-directed study to learn Mandarin because there are no Mandarin courses available locally. 58.8% of the students feel they learn well through self-directed study so they use this method to learn Mandarin. Some students mentioned, "prior course work UT", "limited teachers in my area", and "convenience of using online tools in my own time".

In the in-depth interviews, the subjects chose to learn Mandarin because of personal interest, traveling to China, or because of career.

Student G and student J expressed their interests in Chinese culture, history, and art. Student G said he used to like Chinese calligraphy, and "different Chinese stuff, like Jack Chen." He thought it would be fun to learn Mandarin. Student J said he was very

interested in China, Chinese history, and Chinese culture, and he had a lot of great friends from China. Student S said Chinese characters look interesting and she would like to know more about Mandarin so that she can help her Chinese friends.

Student L and student N chose to learn Mandarin because they went to travel in China. They thought it would be better to learn some Chinese before they went there. Student N said, "I started learning Mandarin because I was going to travel to China and I decided that I need to at least learn a few phrases before I went there. Once I started learning it, I really liked it and I decided to continue. I now have quite a few Chinese friends, and I would like to be able to communicate with them. Also, I think it's really healthy for your brain to learn a new language and I chose Mandarin."

Student S and student A chose to learn Mandarin because they thought Mandarin may help their careers. Student A said, "It's my strong desire to learn Chinese language, to go to China, and to have a business with Chinese people. It will help my career. It will help me to interact with Chinese people when I do business with them."

Motivations for self-directed Mandarin learning with internet resources

About the motivations to use self-directed Mandarin learning with internet resources, most of the subjects cited convenience as the predominant factor in their choice to utilize internet resources. Student N said, "Internet resource for me is the most convenient because I have a very unpredictable and hectic schedule, so for me to access Mandarin learning tools online in my free time is the most convenient way to learn." Student J said, "With all the internet resources available, it is very easy to learn language very quickly. It's very useful for me even though we only have (Mandarin) lessons once a week to continue to learn and to learn more practically. We can find more resources to

learn in addition to the lessons. It's very convenient. " Student S said, "You can learn at home. You don't have to go somewhere else, or to pay to get the lesson."

In addition, student A mentioned that we need to be self-sufficient. He said, "You need to be self-sufficient. You need to do everything by yourself. The teacher is there and the tutor is there just to give you guideline, Just to help you when you face some problems. We need to practice online."

Web resources used for self-directed Mandarin Learning

In the survey, pertaining to the web resources they have been using to learn Mandarin, 40% chose social media, 40% chose software, 46.7% chose apps, and 33.3% chose online program. The specific resources they have been using are TVB channel, YouTube, Skype lessons, Rosetta Stone, chinesetools.com, MIT open courseware, Mandarin Madness, Confucius Institute Online, Skype with friends in Taiwan and China, LinkedIn groups, Google app, QQ/Weixin, and TrainChinese.com. Some of them also mentioned that they learn Mandarin through In-law family member and interaction with people.

In the in-depth interviews, as to the internet resources the subjects have used, which have been the most helpful and the least helpful, they gave various responses. Students used a variety of different internet resources, but they did not all utilize the same programs. Student N said she used Rosetta Stone. She said, "It was good, but it was not my favorite because it doesn't explain things, and it just makes me kind of guess." She used a website called trainchinese.com, and she had an iPhone app for it. "It is great because it is a free tool and it has a very good flashcard system and really good dictionary. It is very helpful." she said. Aside from that, the other primary sources she

used were YouTube videos. She found several programs that have free videos online and she has watched yoyo Chinese which has a paid program but she used the free videos. She is currently looking into Livemocha.com, which is social networking style of language learning, but she found a coupon online to purchase the program, so she might be using that in future.

Student G also used the YouTube videos, however, he could only find some short lessons teaching phrases such as "hello, goodbye". He could not find long lessons and he found that he had to pay most of the resources online. Student L used Rosetta Stone and a translation website. She said, "Rosetta Stone was helpful because you can not only read it and it has pronunciation. The translation website wasn't that helpful because it just told the meaning without pronunciation."

Student J used the Confucius Institute Online. He said the program teaching how to write Chinese characters with strokes was very helpful. Student S used an app called Lingo. Student A used a website called chinesetools.com. He said, "It's very user-friendly. They have lessons uploaded. You can choose the lessons. They have audio and video tracks. It has pronunciation to help people to learn. It's interesting."

Benefits of web-based self-directed Mandarin learning

In the term of benefits they have experienced from Internet-based self-directed Mandarin study, the flexibility and convenience are the main benefits.

Student N said,

> Flexibility and convenience are definitely the main benefit, and being able to study what I want to learn in my own pace, for example, if I were taking a structured class, even if I knew some

> of the things already or even if there was something that I wasn't particularly interested, that was the subject matter the class would be. Whereas, when I have self-directed online study, if I think of a phrase that I want to know how to say or if I think of a grammatical concept that I want to know more about, can look that up and I can go directed to what I want to learn about.

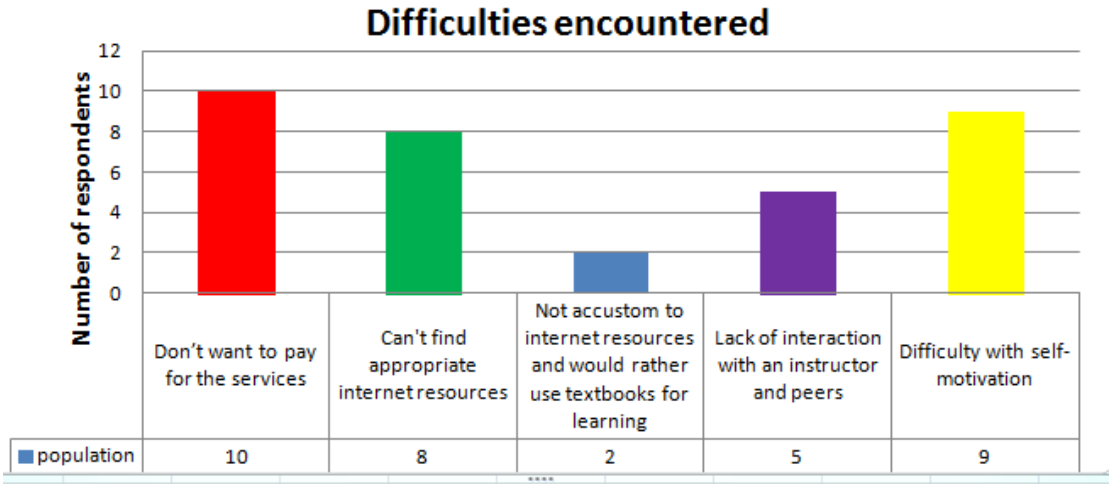
Student G had a similar idea about the convenience, he said, "With YouTube videos, you can stop it and relisten to it, and you can continue where you left off. You can listen to it from anywhere you like". Student S said, "It helps me to get an idea, and helps me to practice more in Chinese. And it saves time." Student L said she learned a few word at least before she went to China. Similarly, Student J said, "It's really helpful to see it practically, and see how to apply it in everyday life."

Challenges of web-based self-directed Mandarin learning

From the survey, as to how much they enjoy learning Mandarin through self-directed study with internet resources, 14.3% chose very much, 38.1% chose much, 38.1% chose not much, and 9.5% chose not at all. Most of them are satisfied with learning Mandarin through self-directed study with internet resources.

With regard to difficulties they have encountered, there were various difficulties with self-directed study of Mandarin using web resources, as we can see from the following table.

Table 2: Difficulties experienced in self-directed Mandarin learning



Only 10% of them are not accustom to internet resources and would rather use textbooks, so most of them feel comfortable to use internet resources to learn Mandarin. The other main difficulties they have encountered are about economy, internet resources, interaction, and self-motivation. 50% of them don't want to pay for the services. 40% of them can't find appropriate internet resources, 25% of them lack of interaction with an instructor and peers, and 45% of them have difficulty with self-motivation. In other responses, some students also mentioned about time management. One student wrote, "I don't have a lot of time for study".

In the in-depth interviews, students talked about the challenges they experienced with Web-based self-directed Mandarin learning. They experienced different challenges, for example, the cost, the website does not work sometimes, difficulty in pronunciation, and most of them mentioned about interaction. Student N said,

> Some of the challenges are that almost all of the resources that are of value have a cost and while that's acceptable for a

> company who want to pay for the services, you can't sample what you options are, because you have to pay for them, it's hard to find the one program that exactly right for you without trying everything out first. Other than that, Sometimes it's just easier to have a concept explained by a person rather than trying to figure it out for yourself.

Student J said, "The link didn't work. The website was under construction. Technology doesn't always work." Student L said, "Pronunciation is the challenging part as the translation website just gives the meaning without pronunciation."

Most of the students mentioned about the challenge of interaction.

Student G said,

> The biggest thing is when you listen to it online, it is difficult to remember how the sentence structures are. When you listen to it online, they just tell you the sentences... The easy way to do that would be get out of in public and practice with real people. (There is) no chance to ask and interact online.

Student N said,

> Sometimes it's just easier to have a concept explained by a person rather than trying to figure it out for yourself. Probably, the biggest challenge is just not having a real person to speak with. Like, in order to practice my skills, I have to be able to speak out loud in Mandarin to another person who knows what I'm trying to say and can correct me when I don't have another

> person there cooperating with me, I have no idea how well or how poorly I'm doing.

Student S said,

> I'm more a face-to-face interaction person. The Internet couldn't interact or give tips for me, like I have to roll my tongue or do it certain way to get the word it right when I want to say or repeat some words. Because some people have hard tongue to pronounce, if they don't have the way to do it, it's hard to get the pronunciation right.

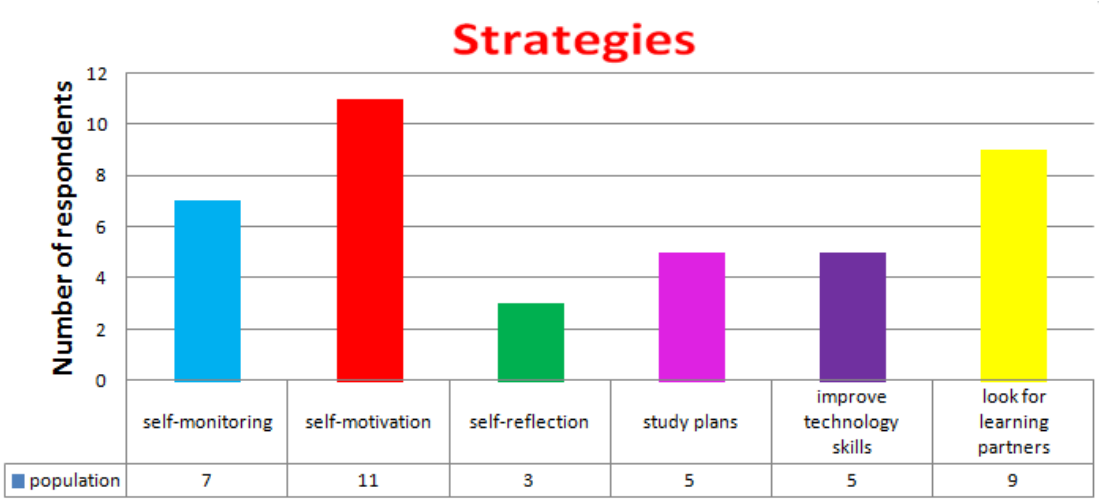
Student A said,

> I have nobody to talk with in Mandarin. No people to interact with. It's one-way communication. No two-way interaction. You can listen to them, you can watch the videos, but there is no way to check your understanding or if you have the correct pronunciation. Interaction is the main challenge.

Strategies to improve self-directed Mandarin learning

In the survey, subjects used a variety of strategies to improve their self-directed learning of Mandarin. As we can see in the following chart. 57.9% use self-motivation, 47.4% look for learning partners, 36.8% use self-monitoring, 26.3 % use study plan, 26.3% improve technology skills, and 15.8% use self-reflection. A large number of them are inclined to use self-motivation and looking for learning partners. A few of them prefer to use self-monitoring, study plan, improving technology skills, and self-reflection.

Table 3: Strategies for improving web-based self-directed Mandarin learning



In the in-depth interviews, as to the strategies used to improve web-based self-directed Mandarin learning, most of them emphasized the importance of improving interaction. Student L said, "It would be beneficial to study with someone who already knew it, you can practice conversation with each other, interaction is very important." Student J said, "If we can get face-to-face interaction with the person who can speak mandarin, we can just like slowly learn to speak with them over like webcam or something, we can actual practice in everyday use." Student G said, "Instead of just listening to it, writing it down, and having scenarios that would have you interact, if there is a web program where they would ask you or in later stages that ask you questions that you have to reply in the language in order to move on or go on with it, that would be better to know you have a better understanding of the language that you are learning." Student A said that facilities are needed to increase interaction, and increase the authenticity, namely increasing the learning of Mandarin in the right way. Student N stated that the new websites like livemocha and busuu.com that make a social media interactive format are probably at the forefront of new language learning.

Student N also expressed the strategy of choosing good internet resources. She said,

> The best thing to do is to really look into the different programs that are available. Try out gives you a better idea what you are looking for....Don't only commit to one program. For example, when I was using Rosetta Stone, I was picking up things, and I understood what Rosetta Stone wanted from me, they want you to intuitively figure out what these things mean without being directly told in your own language, but what was helpful for me was looking at Rosetta Stone and getting an idea of what it was, then looking it up in a dictionary or in a grammar book, or finding a video to explain it. Because for me, in my learning style, I really need to have the grammar explained or the structure of the language explained to me.

Student N also mentioned about choosing good internet resources. She recommended video with a person demonstrating how to say and how to do, and something interesting to catch attention, like cartoon and pictures. Student A suggested some chat rooms, and some tests. He stressed that the tests are not just about writing, but pronunciation. He expressed that because there are many words with similar pronunciation, if people can't get the correct pronunciation, the words will mean something else.

Whether or not to continue to learn Mandarin through web-based self-directed learning

In the survey, as for whether or not to continue web-based self-directed study of

Mandarin in future, 13 students chose "yes", 9 students chose "no", and one student skipped this question. 59.1% of them would like to continue this type of Mandarin learning. Some students mentioned in the other response that, "sure if I get appropriate program for that", "I need some help", "I love Mandarin! I intend to continue using it", "I want to meet more educated Chinese speakers so I can learn from them", "Convenience of studying in my free time, combined with limited other resources are the two biggest factors that determine my online self-directed Mandarin study habits",

> Although it is difficult to learn a language by yourself because language can be best learned living with the people who use the language. It's a matter of daily practice, but we are trying our level best and also we are observing some changes in Mandarin understandings and speaking day by day. So hopefully we will do it better in the future.

In the in-depth interviews, as to the question "Do you anticipate continuing to learn Mandarin through internet-based self-directed study?" all of them said "yes".

Student G said he liked educational material online most of all. For Mandarin, if he could find a better program that is not expensive or free, he will definitely continue. Student L said, a higher level of Rosetta Stone is needed, if she goes back to China again. She would be willing to pay a nominal fee to access a more advanced program. Student J told me, "Yes. When I get more time, I will do it a lot. It will help me to practice. No one in my family speaks Chinese. It will give me a good chance to practice."

Student S prefers to learn Mandarin face to face with other person. She will use the internet as a resource, however, it is not a main part. Student N said, "Yes. Now that I

have been looking at online resources for a couple of years, I'm getting a better idea of what it is that I want from a language program and I think I can better judge when I decide to purchase a subscription. I'll have a better idea what I'm looking for and I'll be able to pursue that more effectively." Student A said, "I want to do business with Chinese people. I'm determined to speak Mandarin and get Chinese knowledge. There are challenges, but I still need to work on it. There is nobody to teach me or guide me. Internet is the only way to learn Mandarin for me."

Whether or not to recommend to other higher education students learning Mandarin through web-based self-directed learning

About whether or not to recommend to other higher education students learning Mandarin through internet-based self-directed study, student N and student S both agreed and disagreed.

Student S thought it would be better for people who already know a lot of Mandarin to use self-directed study with internet resources. She said, "If the higher education students already know a lot of Mandarin, internet will be good. They already have an idea about Mandarin. " Student N said,

> "For the yes, because it does allow you to study on your own time and to find what resources work best for you. But on the negative side, you do have to be very self-motivated and structured in order to get anything out of it, because if you don't constantly keep it up, you will forget things, and also being a college student, means that I have classes that are requiring deadlines that that be other obligations, and for me, sometimes it's difficult to

> find time to study Mandarin, because I do have so many other pressing things. But I would say for someone who is graduating or for someone who is moving on from college, I think it's a perfect way to continue to activate your brain and continue learning into adulthood."

Student G, student L, student J, and student A all said "yes". Student J said,

> Especially when you are learning characters. It also gives you more time to practice. In the class, we only get an hour. With the internet, you can have as much time as you want and practice as much as you want. But don't use internet resources alone. Get a Mandarin lesson and someone you can practice with. Having practice time is really important on Internet.

Conclusion

From the findings of the web-based survey and in-depth interviews, we can see the similarities and differences of the subjects' responses with regard to the survey and interview questions.

One thing surprised me is that most of the subjects chose to learn Mandarin for personal reasons. They have a real interest in learning Mandarin. We can see this result not just in the survey but also in the in-depth interviews.

Students have been using various types of Internet resources to learn Mandarin. Although there are some free online resources for Mandarin learning, most of them are not experienced to find the appropriate resources. Many of them have difficulty in finding

appropriate Internet resources. Even if there are some very good online tools that they can choose to learn Mandarin, however, the cost is a difficulty. However, students could still make good use of the free online resources to learn Mandarin.

The convenience and flexibility are the main benefits which the students have experienced, and this aligns with the literature. Students have also experienced some challenges, such as the cost of the Internet resources, difficulty locating appropriate internet resources, difficulty with self-motivation, difficulty in pronunciation, and lack of interaction with other people which they believe is beneficial to language learning. The main difficulty they encountered is the challenge of interaction, which was mentioned the most by the students. This was not revealed in the literature.

As to the strategies, various strategies have been used by the students, such as self-monitoring, self-motivation, self-reflection, study plans, improve technology skills, and look for learning partners. Besides the strategies of self-monitoring, self-motivation, study plans, and improve technology skills, which have been discussed in the literature, the subjects also have utilized the strategies of self-reflection and looking for learning partners. In addition, the predominant strategy most of the subjects emphasized is to increase interaction.

Most of the students have enjoyed learning Mandarin through self-directed study with internet resources. Most of them will continue to learn Mandarin through web-based self-directed learning as well as recommend this method to other higher education students.

This was only a small scale research at West Liberty University which only involved 23 students. A significant limitation of this study is that it examined the topic with a

limited number of subjects. Because of this, conclusions are not generalizable to other circumstances. As the lack of literature in web-based self-directed learning of Mandarin, this small scale study provided an evidence for the need for a larger study which involve more subjects. Some specific study such as how to improve the interaction of web-based self-directed learning of Mandarin could be conducted for future research.

More and more students have the needs of learning Mandarin. It is not easy for beginners to just learn Mandarin by themselves through Internet. As one student pointed out in the in-depth interview that it would be easier for students who already know a lot about Mandarin to use self-directed learning with Internet resources. Moreover, many students expressed that they need face-to-face interaction. For these reasons, universities may wish to investigate how to serve students who would like the opportunity to learn Mandarin both in-class as well as with utilizing self-directed learning with internet resources.

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Appendix A

Survey questions:
1. Gender, Grade, Major(/minor)

2. Why are you/do you anticipate learning Mandarin? (Check all that apply)
A. It is applicable to my degree/career. B. For personal satisfaction/personal reward
C.. Other(Please explain) _____

3. How long have you been learning Mandarin?

4. Why are you using self-directed study to learn Mandarin? (Check all that apply)
   A. I feel I learn well through self-directed study.
   B. There are no Mandarin courses available locally.
   C. Other (Please specify)

5. What web resources have you been using to learn Mandarin? (Check all that apply)
A. Social media B. Software C. Apps D. Online program E. Other (please specify)_

6. What are the names/titles of the specific resources you are using to learn Mandarin? (please specify)

7. How much do you enjoy learning Mandarin through self-directed study with internet resources?
A. Very much B. Much C. Not much D. Not at all

8. What difficulties have you encountered with self-directed study of Mandarin using web resources?
A. Don't want to pay for the service B. Can't find appropriate internet resources (the program is too long to complete) C. Not accustom to internet resources and would rather use textbooks for learning D. Lack of interaction with an instructor and peers. D. Difficulty with self-motivation. E. Other (please specify)

9. What strategies do you use to improve your self-directed Mandarin learning?
A. Self-monitoring B. Self-motivation C. Self-reflection D. Improve technology skills E. Look for learning partners F. Study plans G. Other_

10. Do you intend to continue your web-based self-directed study of Mandarin in the future? Why or why not? Is there any other information you would like to provide?
A Yes
B. No

Appendix B

Consent Form

Dear Sir/Madam,

My name is Li Cheng and I am a graduate student in the MAED program at West Liberty University, West Virginia. I am completing a Capstone Research Project for the EDUC 581 class at West Liberty University. I am conducting a study to learn about the attitudes and experiences of university students participating in self-directed learning of the Mandarin language. You are invited to participate in this research study because you are participating in self-directed study of the Mandarin language sponsored the WLU Chinese Club or you have expressed interest in participating in the self-directed study of Mandarin.

For this reason, I will be conducting a survey through Survey Monkey (www.surveymonkey.com). You may access and complete this survey on this website http://www.surveymonkey.com/s/YWHQLTZ from March 18 to 22, 2013. You are then invited to participate in an in-depth interview in Student Development Center. It will be some time from March 25 to March 29, 2013. The exact date and time will be discussed with you. . Some questions pertaining to advantages and challenges of web-based Mandarin self-directed learning will be discussed in the focus group interview. If you would like to, after the interview, we could have a personal case study about your specific learning. Some strategies will be provided for you to improve your self-study.

There are no foreseeable risks associated with this project, nor are there any benefits to you. There is no compensation for you. The survey will take about 10 minutes. The in-depth interview should take approximately 20 minutes of your time.

The participation is completely voluntary. You are free to decide not to participate in this study. There is no penalty for choosing not to participate in this study. There is no penalty for choosing not to complete the questionnaire, in-depth interview, or personal case study. Please keep this informed consent form with the accompanying information in case you feel the need to contact the researcher or supervisor for this project.

Dr. Ann Gaudino will be serving as the faculty capstone advisor for this project and will also be available if you have any questions or concerns. Her contact information is agaudino@westliberty.edu or 3043368306

The survey will be conducted through Survey Monkey. Your responses will not be identified. The in-depth interview discussions will be audio recorded using the Audacity program in order to analyze responses for patterns. You are free to reply to all, none, or some of the questions posed. Neither you nor your responses will be identified in any way. Audio recordings of the interview will remain locked and under my possession alone. Your participation is voluntary and you may withdraw at any time.

There will be no identifying information recorded when you complete the survey or

identifying interview. Please refrain from stating your name or any identifying information during the survey or in-depth interview. All data collected will be to comply with research standards protecting the identity of the research participants. The data will be collected for the purpose of identifying the goals stated above. You may reach me at lcheng@westliberty.edu or (304) 280-4682 with any questions you may have.

Sincerely,
Li Cheng
Primary Investigator

Additions to or changes in procedures involving human subjects as well as any problems connected with the use of human subjects once the project has begun must be brought to the attention of the West Liberty University Human Subjects Committee.
I agree to provide whatever surveillance is necessary to ensure that the rights and welfare of the human subjects are properly protected. I understand that I cannot initiate any contact with human subjects before I have received approval/or complied with all the contingencies made in connection with the approval. I understand that as the principal investigator I am ultimately responsible for the welfare and protection of human subjects and will carry out the project as approved.

_____
Signature of Principal Investigator/Date

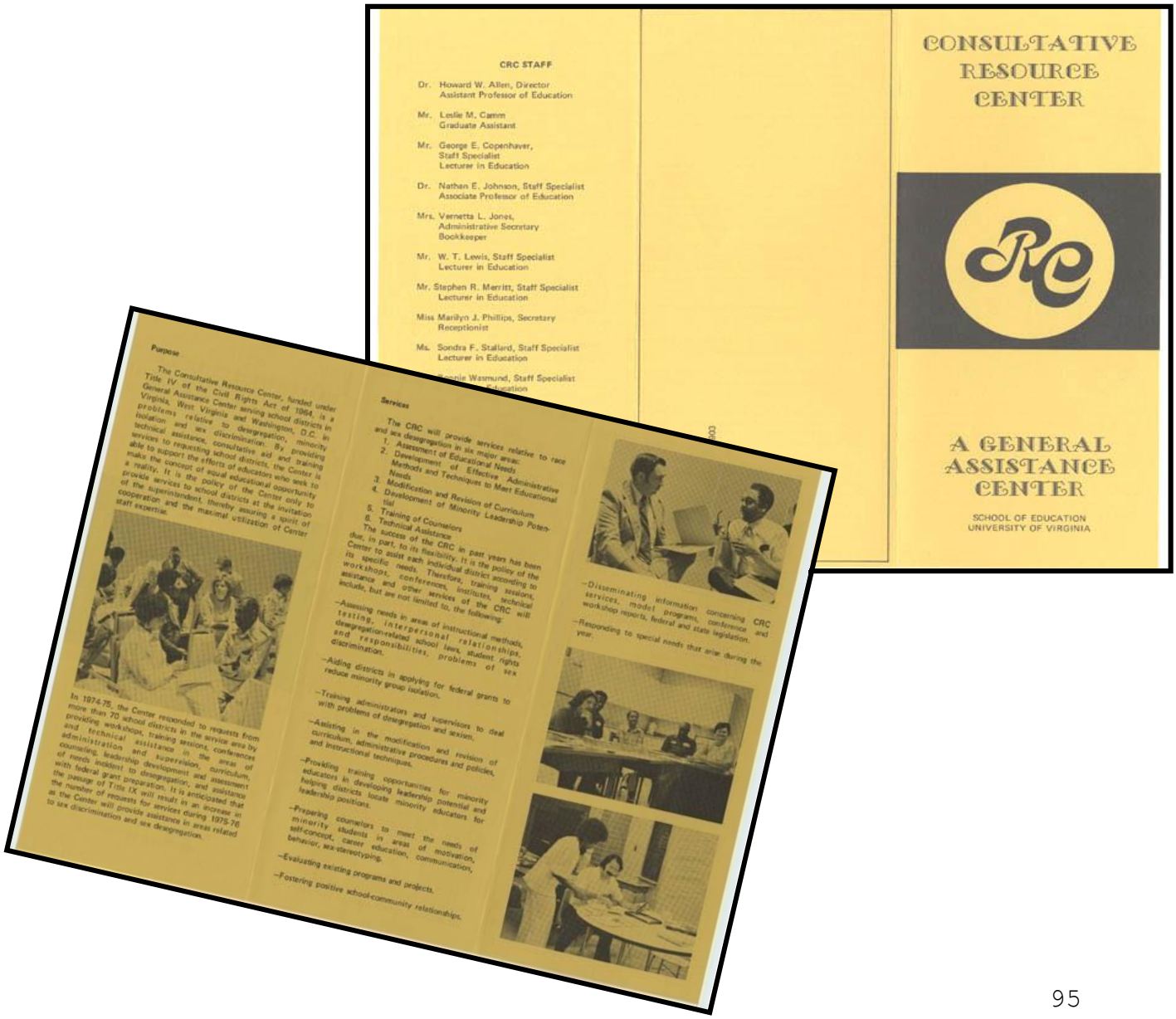
_____
Printed name of Participant/Date

_____
Signature of Participant/Date

Uncovering Stories Buried in Institutional History: The Consultative Resource Center at the Curry School of Education, The University of Virginia

Eleanor V. Wilson

Eleanor V. Wilson, Ph.D. is an Associate Professor of Curriculum, Instruction and Special Education in the Curry School of Education, University of Virginia, Charlottesville, VA 22904; E-mail evw2u@virginia.edu. She works with pre-service and graduate students who study effective clinical practices in schools and directs the Curry in Cambridge program.



"Our job was to get black and white people to talk": Uncovering stories buried in institutional histories

Eleanor Vernon Wilson, PhD
Associate Professor, Curry School of Education

Introduction

"You have to operate on the belief that black and white people have not communicated accurately but through a myriad of symbols without meaning. Once people eliminate symbols and establish an effective two-way communication process, then they can talk about almost anything." [1]

Center Founders
Nathan Johnson and James Bash
1967

Much of what has been written about local, state, and national approaches related to the desegregation of public schools focuses on administrative concerns, policy debates, and other issues faced by schools, yet there are still many stories of initiatives designed to facilitate school integration in the twentieth century to be told. The lives, the struggles, and the triumphs of people who did so much to transform the nature of public education are often lost in the mist of time; resurrecting their stories is often the challenge of the historian.

This paper evolved from research I began over ten years ago while writing the centennial history, *The Curry School of Education at the University of Virginia, 1905-2005: Preparing Men and Women for Leadership in Scientific Educational Work.* At that time I was contacted by several retired Education faculty members, urging me to explore the history of the Consultative Resource Center, or what came to be called informally the De-Seg Center, that was based in the Curry School of Education from 1967 through

1981.[2] Nathan Johnson and James Bash were founders of this Center and were eager to talk about the work of the Center and the outreach and long-term impact of the Center as Virginia struggled to address and reconcile issues related to integration.

I shared the research for this paper originally as part of a panel at the 2009 meeting of the American Educational Association focusing on mid-twentieth century initiatives for integration and was urged to develop it further for publication.[3] As this paper discusses, much of the materials related to the Center's work are now gone. The sadly limited documentation I have related to the Center combined with the oral history from Bash and Allen, form the basis of the following discussion. I have been cautioned by subsequent reviewers to justify the claims I make about the reasons for the loss of such a significant cache, yet I can only conclude that the absence of more documentation is a result of many factors, including the frequent moves of the Center and the lack of acknowledgement on the part of the University of the significance of the Center's contribution to the struggles for integration in Virginia.

The Consultative Resource Center on School Integration, as it came be known, was established in the Curry School of Education at the University of Virginia in 1967 as part of Title IV legislation designed to address issues related to the desegregation of public schools. Prior to the years of the Center's existence, the state of Virginia, the city of Charlottesville, and the University of Virginia faced major challenges to school integration in the wake of massive resistance in the 1950s. The Center, while attached to the Curry School of Education, was funded with government grants; during the life of the Center it moved at least four times, and with each move much of the documentation related to the Center's activities was misplaced or lost.

THE EQUITY EDUCATOR

University of Virginia School of Education

Consultative Resource Center: A Race Desegregation Assistance Center Fall, 1980

WHAT WE ARE

The Consultative Resource Center, funded under Title IV of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, is a Race Desegregation Center serving school districts in Virginia, West Virginia, Maryland, and Washington, D.C. in problems relative to desegregation, minority isolation, and discrimination. By providing technical assistance, consultative aid, and training services to requesting school districts, the Center is able to support the efforts of educators who seek to make the concept of equal educational opportunity a reality. It is the policy of the Center to provide services to school districts only upon invitation, thereby assuring a spirit of cooperation and the maximal utilization of center staff expertise.

The CRC sponsors several workshops annually in Maryland, Virginia, Washington, D.C. and West Virginia for public school educators. Last year more than 800 educators participated in these training sessions which were designed to provide information, strategies, models and techniques for promoting equal educational opportunities. In addition to state-wide and regional workshops, the Center was involved in providing technical assistance to numerous requesting school districts and schools. Topics such as Classroom Management and Discipline, Invitational Education, Teacher Stress, Student Team Learning, Equalizing Employment Practices, School-Community Relations, Human Relations and Student Assignment were among those explored during workshops and technical assistance activities.

All of the services of the Center are available to requesting school divisions

Participants at an RDAC workshop for Administrators.

1980-81 ESAA GRANTEES

The Emergency School Aid Act (ESAA), Title IV of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, provides monetary awards on a competitive basis to State and Local Educational Agencies (SEAs and LEAs) and to other public or private non-profit organizations. These awards are intended to:

1. Meet the special needs incident to the elimination of minority group segregation and discrimination among students and faculty in elementary and secondary schools; and
2. Encourage the voluntary elimination, reduction or prevention of minority group isolation in elementary and secondary schools with substantial proportions of minority group students.

to promote educational equity:

Maryland and the District of Columbia
Anne Arundel
Dorchester
Montgomery
Prince George
Somerset
Washington, D.C.

Virginia
Albemarle
Amelia
Charlottesville
Chesapeake
Danville
Halifax
Henry

West Virginia
Jefferson

Ohio

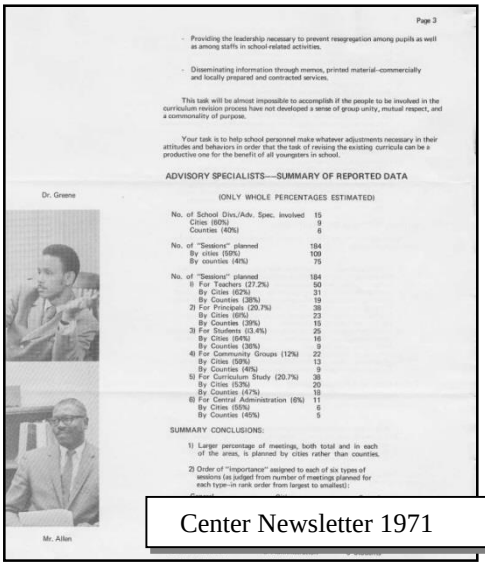
Center *Newsletter 1980*

The Center was one of at least ten such centers established nationally under the 1964 Civil Rights legislation, but I have been unable to trace activities of any similar centers in the South. [4] A reviewer of this paper mentioned a similar center at the

University of Massachusetts, and I found references to publications by the Center for Equal Education in Amherst. [5] I also found references to publications from a Desegregation Center at the University of Pittsburgh, but again, have not turned up any more descriptive information related to these centers. [6] Title IV legislation eventually turned to addressing issues of gender inequity in the 1980s and initiatives designed to address issues of desegregation were less supported by these funds after this time.

Background: The challenge of finding documents and related ephemera

"We were doing something that the state of Virginia did not support and the University of Virginia did not support…The School of Education was interested in the grant money and so came along with our activities." [7]


Page 3

- Providing the leadership necessary to prevent resegregation among pupils as well as among staffs in school-related activities.

- Disseminating information through memos, printed material--commercially and locally prepared and contracted services.

This task will be almost impossible to accomplish if the people to be involved in the curriculum revision process have not developed a sense of group unity, mutual respect, and a commonality of purpose.

Your task is to help school personnel make whatever adjustments necessary in their attitudes and behaviors in order that the task of revising the existing curricula can be a productive one for the benefit of all youngsters in school.

ADVISORY SPECIALISTS—SUMMARY OF REPORTED DATA

(ONLY WHOLE PERCENTAGES ESTIMATED)

Dr. Greene

Mr. Allen

SUMMARY CONCLUSIONS:

1) Larger percentage of meetings, both total and in each of the areas, is planned by cities rather than counties.

2) Order of "importance" assigned to each of six types of sessions (as judged from number of meetings planned for each type--in rank order from largest to smallest):

Center Newsletter 1971

The main source of information that gives life to the Center's activities comes from the Center's newsletters and interviews with faculty who were associated with the Center. Combing records held by the University of Virginia I found a few references to the Center scattered in different administrative files. A doctoral dissertation written in 1973 summarized the first five years of the Center's activities from 1967-1972 and provides tantalizing summaries of contacts made by Center personnel during this time, but summarizes little evaluative data related to Center activities. [8] At least one research study was carried out relating to the outcome of Center activities for participants, but beyond this, little evaluative information is to be found. [9]

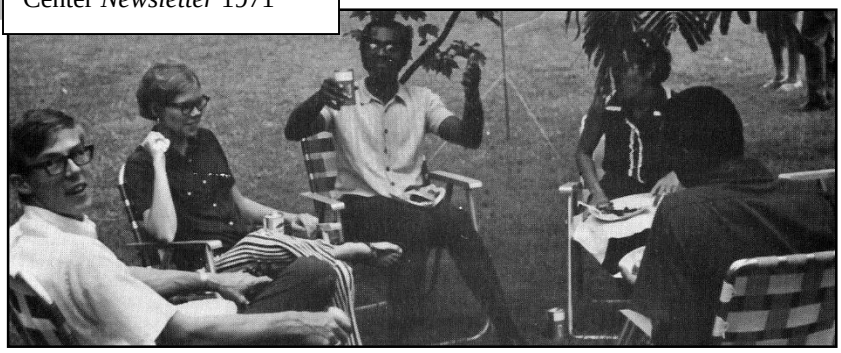
A doctoral dissertation describing the history massive resistance and of school desegregation in the city of Charlottesville between 1954 and 1969 makes no mention of the Center, although James Bash, one of the Center's founders, was a member of the dissertation committee. [10] Hank Allen, Center director for eight years, gave me two of the applications for federal funds to renew the Center, and these also provided a description

of Center activities. Professor Gregg Michel of the University of Texas at San Antonio was granted a postdoctoral fellowship at the University of Virginia in part to explore the history of the Center, and his report provided much of the background for this paper. Michel came to much the same conclusion that I have: the absence of the Center from the University of Virginia's civil rights narrative reflects the "deep ambivalence which at the time many had about school desegregation in general and the center in particular."[11]

Goals of the Center

"Getting Across a Sense of Mutual Respect"[12]

Center *Newsletter* 1971



The Center's primary objective was to help local educational and community leaders solve problems involving displaced teachers, compliance plans, teacher pupil relations, curriculum changes, extra-curricular activities, and other situations that would arise in connection with school desegregation. The directors believed that through participation in "open and engaging workshops" participants could come to understand the varied challenges they faced while addressing school integration.[13] The activities of the Center were widespread and multifaceted, always aimed at bringing together diverse groups to examine their feelings and to plan for successful integration of schools for administrators, teachers, and students.

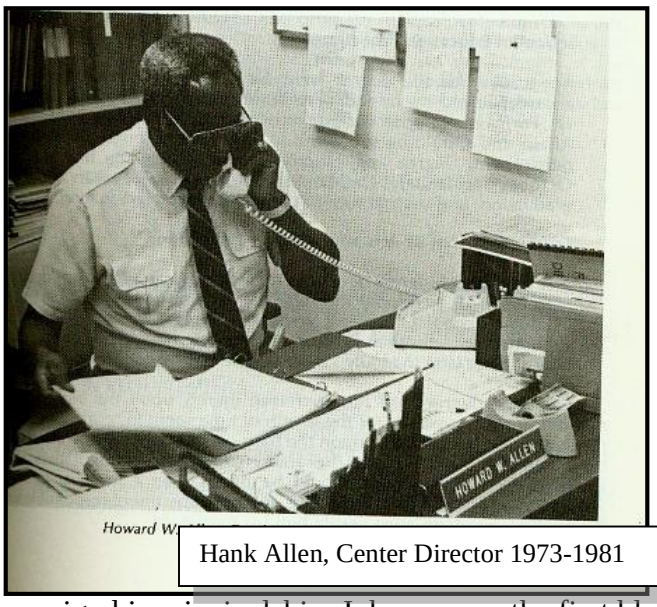
The work of the Center was voluntary: its programs were designed to help school systems "develop their own solutions to their own problems so that the tensions resulting from these problems will not disrupt the educational function of the schools." The Center intended to make available "specialists from sociology, law, and psychology in addition to education as needed".[14]

Placed in the larger story of state and national responses to Civil Rights legislation, the Center was an initiative based in a school of Education at a state University. It was designed to provide resources for aiding public school personnel in identifying effective instructional strategies associated with integration.[15] The Center could contact school districts to publicize its services, but could not require them to work with Center personnel. The Center existed for fourteen years, ultimately providing resources to Maryland, West Virginia and the District of Columbia as well as Virginia.

Founding the Center

"*The political climate was incredibly tense...and it was a difficult job…It was known that we should not publicize our efforts [in the early years of the Center]"*[16]

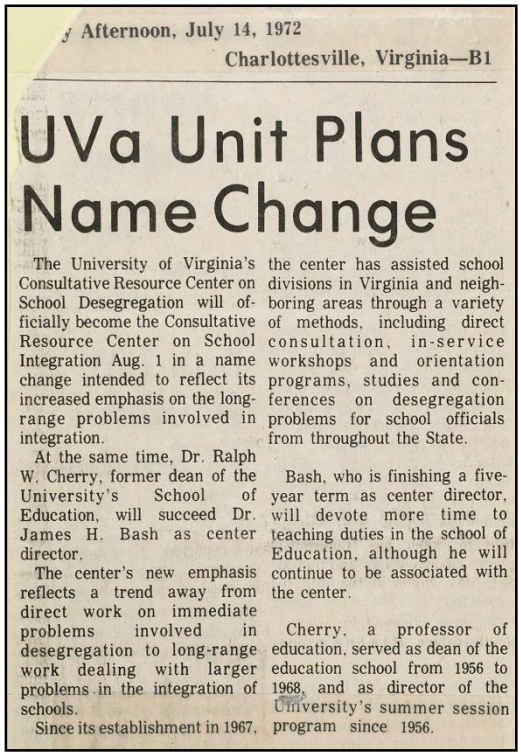
The Center was established through the efforts of Curry School professor James Bash who wrote the first proposal, hired the first staffers, and served as director until 1972. Both Bash and the associate director of the center, Nathan Johnson, had public school backgrounds that were key to creating successful links with the schools. Prior to coming to the Curry School, Bash was a principal of a white high school in Farmville, Virginia. He was an outspoken critic of private white academies created during the school desegregation crisis there, a position that alienated him from other whites in the community and eventually led him to resign his principalship. Johnson was the first black professor in the Education School and in the University of Virginia. [17]



Hank Allen, Center Director 1973-1981

Johnson, a former principal of George Washington Carver High School in Fieldale, Virginia, served as associate director for the entire time the Center existed. Curry School Dean Ralph Cherry directed the Center for a year and was followed by

Professor Howard Allen who led the center until 1981. Allen was the primary author for at least two applications for renewing federal funds for the Center. Writing in 1978 he summarized Center activities for the first nine years, citing the need for schools to avail themselves of the Center's resources and advice in handling discriminatory discipline problems that arose related to integration of the schools.[18] He also included provisions for evaluating the services of the Center, data that has been lost over time.



y Afternoon, July 14, 1972
Charlottesville, Virginia—B1

UVa Unit Plans Name Change

The University of Virginia's Consultative Resource Center on School Desegregation will officially become the Consultative Resource Center on School Integration Aug. 1 in a name change intended to reflect its increased emphasis on the long-range problems involved in integration.

At the same time, Dr. Ralph W. Cherry, former dean of the University's School of Education, will succeed Dr. James H. Bash as center director.

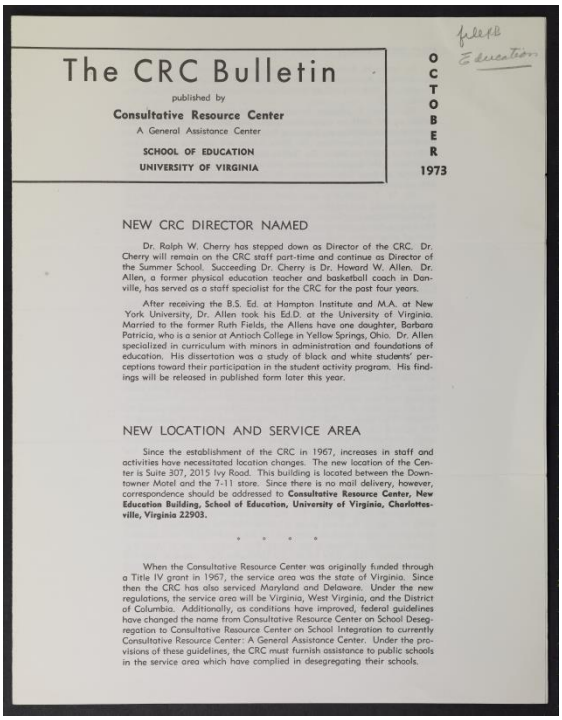
The center's new emphasis reflects a trend away from direct work on immediate problems involved in desegregation to long-range work dealing with larger problems in the integration of schools.

Since its establishment in 1967, the center has assisted school divisions in Virginia and neighboring areas through a variety of methods, including direct consultation, in-service workshops and orientation programs, studies and conferences on desegregation problems for school officials from throughout the State.

Bash, who is finishing a five-year term as center director, will devote more time to teaching duties in the school of Education, although he will continue to be associated with the center.

Cherry, a professor of education, served as dean of the education school from 1956 to 1968, and as director of the University's summer session program since 1956.

In 1972, the name of the Center was changed to the Consultative Resource Center on School Integration to reflect a "new emphasis" and a trend away from "direct work on immediate problems involved in desegregation to long-range work dealing with larger problems in the integration of schools although it continued to be known over time as the "De-Seg center" as a way of summarizing its overall goals. [19] At this time, Ralph Cherry, former dean of the School of Education, took over leadership of the Center for a year; Hank Allen then directed the Center for the remaining eight years.



The CRC Bulletin

published by
Consultative Resource Center
A General Assistance Center
SCHOOL OF EDUCATION
UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA

OCTOBER 1973

NEW CRC DIRECTOR NAMED

Dr. Ralph W. Cherry has stepped down as Director of the CRC. Dr. Cherry will remain on the CRC staff part-time and continue as Director of the Summer School. Succeeding Dr. Cherry is Dr. Howard W. Allen. Dr. Allen, a former physical education teacher and basketball coach in Danville, has served as a staff specialist for the CRC for the past four years.

After receiving the B.S. Ed. at Hampton Institute and M.A. at New York University, Dr. Allen took his Ed.D. at the University of Virginia. Married to the former Ruth Fields, the Allens have one daughter, Barbara Patricia, who is a senior at Antioch College in Yellow Springs, Ohio. Dr. Allen specialized in curriculum with minors in administration and foundations of education. His dissertation was a study of black and white students' perceptions toward their participation in the student activity program. His findings will be released in published form later this year.

NEW LOCATION AND SERVICE AREA

Since the establishment of the CRC in 1967, increases in staff and activities have necessitated location changes. The new location of the Center is Suite 307, 2015 Ivy Road. This building is located between the Downtowner Motel and the 7-11 store. Since there is no mail delivery, however, correspondence should be addressed to **Consultative Resource Center, New Education Building, School of Education, University of Virginia, Charlottesville, Virginia 22903.**

* * * *

When the Consultative Resource Center was originally funded through a Title IV grant in 1967, the service area was the state of Virginia. Since then the CRC has also serviced Maryland and Delaware. Under the new regulations, the service area will be Virginia, West Virginia, and the District of Columbia. Additionally, as conditions have improved, federal guidelines have changed the name from Consultative Resource Center on School Desegregation to Consultative Resource Center on School Integration to currently Consultative Resource Center: A General Assistance Center. Under the provisions of these guidelines, the CRC must furnish assistance to public schools in the service area which have complied in desegregating their schools.

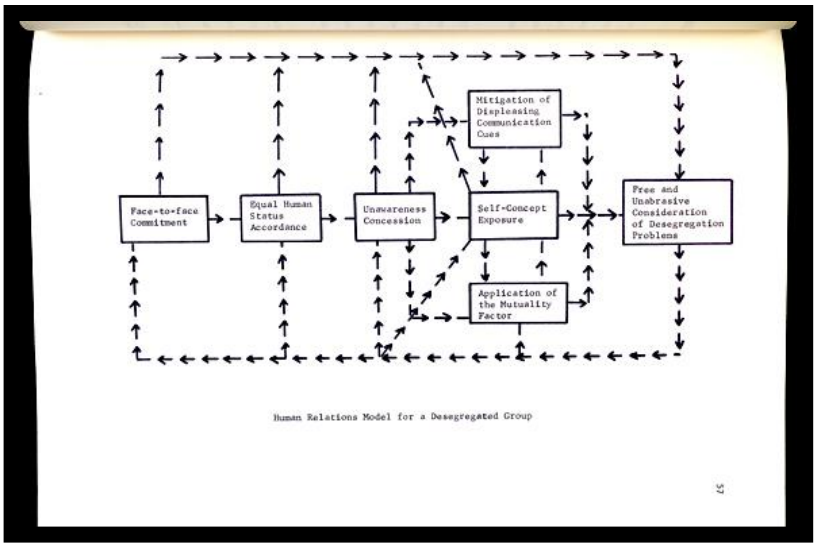
During the first eight years the Center employed a full time director, five full time 'staff specialists', one staff member part-time, one graduate assistant, and two secretaries: four Blacks and four whites, one black secretary and one white secretary.[20] The Center's five programs included providing technical assistance to school personnel, training administrators

and supervisors to "deal with problems of desegregation and sexism," assisting in the selection, modification, and revision of curriculum and instructional techniques and materials, preparing counselors to meet the needs of minority students, and providing training opportunities for minority and majority educators (male and female) in developing leadership potential.[21] In addition to these services, staff members of the Center conducted human relations sessions for administrative personnel, university police, dormitory counselors, and individual classes in the Education School.

Because involvement with the services provided by the Center was voluntary, it was important that the representatives of the Center be persuasive in order to have their staff invited into the schools. Bash employed George Copenhaver, a former superintendent of schools from Clifton Forge, to work with him, reasoning that superintendents would be more open to working with the center if the invitation to do so came from one of their peers. Once a request from a superintendent was received, the staff began planning workshops and seminars for the school district. Some of the issues covered in workshops and activities sponsored by the Center included curricular reform, minority student counseling, discipline in the integrated classroom, and analysis of the treatment of minorities in textbooks. The workshops and seminars focused on encouraging black and white school personnel to communicate honestly and openly with one another within the format provided by the Center.

Center Activities

"We went in and had a general discussion about issues related to integration and then moved into small groups. We were getting black and white people to talk to each other for the first time and this took time…We then began to discuss particular problems."[22]



Describing the Center's programs in an interview in 2002, Professors Allen and Bash said "We were bringing blacks and whites together

for the first time---our job was to get black and white people to talk."[23] The Center's philosophy was based in the belief that workshops to encourage dialogue across racial lines were a way to ensure the desegregation process went smoothly in school districts. [24] In addition to inservice workshops and seminars, the De-Seg Center sponsored two or three-day regional meetings and statewide conferences and retreats covering topics such as curriculum revision and strategies for increasing the number of black teachers and administrators in the district. The Center also held two-week institutes at the University during the summer session. Faculty members wrote several texts used to facilitate their work including one authored by Bash, Effective Teaching in the Desegregated School: A Guidebook, and Effective Administration in Desegregated Schools, published by Phi Delta Kappa Commission on Education, Human Rights and Responsibilities in 1966 and 1968.[25]

Between 1967 and 1972 the Center made over 900 visits in Virginia and the District of Columbia, involving at least 2000 teachers, principals, counselors, superintendents and community leaders on one or more occasions.26 Further indication of the large numbers of persons served by the Center's activities was reported in the June, 1974 bulletin of the CRC: during the 1973-1974 school year, the Center worked with 85 school division in Virginia, West Virginia and Washington, D.C. Based on requests from superintendents in these school districts, the staff provided assistance with curriculum revision, counseling minority students, assistance to administrators and supervisors, educational leadership development institutes, and other related services. Seventeen two-day workshops and 13 one-day workshops were held over this period in addition to an Educational Leadership Institute, which met for nearly six hours over a period of seven weekends at the School of Education; over 350 personnel participated in all the workshops. The Educational Leadership Institute was designed to increase the pool of black administrators and supervisors in integrated schools as well as to provide an understanding of issues and skills needed to work in multi-ethnic settings; thirty- five people participated in this institute with 25 of these stating they

Consultative Resource Center

NEWSLETTER

FALL, 1976

A General Assistance Center
School of Education
University of Virginia

DIRECTOR'S CORNER

Howard W. Allen, Director

During 1975-76, the Consultative Resource Center enjoyed one of its most productive years. The CRC staff conducted twenty-nine workshops for school personnel in Virginia, West Virginia and Washington, D.C. Specifically, five workshops were conducted for Administrators and Supervisors; three in Virginia and West Virginia; one two-week workshop in Washington, D.C. and one three-day meeting in West Virginia.

Six Curriculum conferences were held in Virginia and West Virginia; four in Virginia and two in West Virginia.

Ten workshops for school counselors were conducted during 1975-76; four in Virginia and West Virginia and six in Washington, D.C.

The Leadership Development Program included eight two-day sessions during the year. Participants from Virginia, West Virginia and Washington, D.C. attended these sessions which were held at the School of Education, University of Virginia.

In addition to the above programs, the Center gave technical assistance, upon request, to twenty-seven school districts in Virginia, West Virginia and Washington, D.C.

The combined CRC programs provided service to sixty (60) school divisions in Virginia, twenty (20) in West Virginia, and six (6) in the Washington, D.C. school system.

The outlook for the 1976-77 school year projects more involvement with school divisions. One of the goals is to provide technical assistance to more school divisions than in previous years. A concerted effort will be made in this direction. Additionally, efforts will be made to get information concerning Title IX to as many school divisions as possible. This will be done through regular CRC regional conferences and individual school requests.

Planning for conferences and workshop this year by the CRC staff has begun. Superintendent in Virginia, West Virginia and Washington, D.C., have been contacted concerning the availability of services being offered. They have also received a tentative calendar of events for the new year. An increase in participants and school divisions is anticipated for 1976-77. We are looking forward to a very challenging and productive year.

Tentative Calendar of Events*

Date	Activity	Location
Sept. 30 & Oct. 1	Administrative Conf.	Roanoke, Va.
Oct. 14 & 15	Counselor Conf.	Harrisonburg, Va.
Oct. 21 & 22	Counselor Conf.	Fredericksburg, Va.
Oct. 21 & 22	Administrative Conf.	Cedar Lake, W.Va.
Oct. 28 & 29	Curriculum Conf.	Charlottesville, Va.
Nov. 4 & 5	Administrative Conf.	Williamsburg, Va.
Nov. 11 & 12	Curriculum Conf.	Roanoke, Va.
Nov. 18 & 19	Counselor Conf.	Fredericksburg, Va.
Feb. 3 & 4	Counselor Conf.	Charlottesville, Va.
Feb. 10 & 11	Curriculum Conf.	Richmond, Va.
Feb. 24 & 25	Curriculum Conf.	Lexington, Va.
April 14 & 15	Administrative Conf.	Charlottesville, Va.
April 21 & 22	Curriculum Conf.	Williamsburg, Va.
April 28 & 29	Administrative Conf.	Richmond, Va.
May 5 & 6	Counselor Conf.	Virginia Beach, Va.
May 12 & 13	Counselor Conf.	Virginia Beach, Va.

* NOTE: This tentative calendar does not reflect the following activities:

1. Leadership Development Program. Participants in this activity will meet nine times during the school year at the University of Virginia.
2. Counseling Program for Washington, D.C. Six two-day workshops will be followed by six one-day sessions. Arrangements for these activities are incomplete at this time.
3. Administration and Supervision for Washington, D.C. Fifteen two-day workshops will be conducted for principals and supervisors. Arrangements for these activities are incomplete at this time.
4. Technical Assistance. Assistance is provided upon request by division superintendents.

ESAA Funded ETV Programs Available. See page 3.

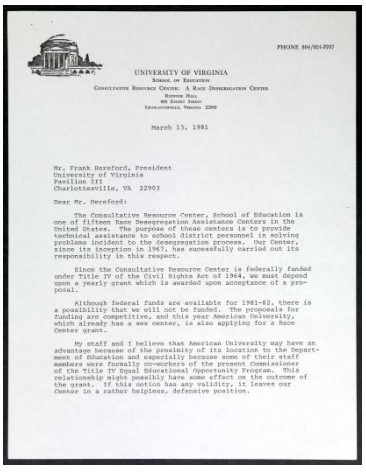
Center *Newsletter* 1976

intended to do further work at the University. Evaluative responses for the Institute showed that participants had a "78% grasp of ideas presented by the consultants."[27]

John Mesinger, a Curry School faculty member who was active in the life of the Center, provided the following description of a 'typical' Center activity:

> Bob Greene, EdD in Administration and one of the earlier black doctoral students at Curry and later vice president of Virginia Union University and I did a one day workshop, I think in Front Royal, VA. We started with a typical counter rotation of the people in two circles while music played. I pulled the plug when a white male building principal was opposite a middle aged black woman teacher from his school [I found all this out later]. The task was for the pairs to go off for ten minutes, interview each other, come back to the group and introduce their partners to the group. All came back except these two. The rest of the day they were absent until the wind up "what have we learned" portion. These two came back then and what they had learned about each other was so similar they could have been brother and sister! They had worked in the same school for at least ten years and knew nothing about each other until that day. There was not a dry eye in the group, including Bob and me. [28]

The Center consistently sought feedback from participants and educational leaders around the state about directions they could take. Participants regularly were asked to evaluate the content of workshops both in writing and verbally and to provide suggestions for succeeding programs; the "resulting evaluations were 95% positive in all cases."29 During this time, Curry professor Herbert C. Richards designed a study to develop and validate an instrument to measure racial attitudes and attitudes to change. This study concluded that individuals with less dogmatic personalities, or less strong attitudes toward racial issues, were more amenable to softening racial attitudes than those participating in programs with stronger, dogmatic racial attitudes.[30]



PHONE 804/924-3707

UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA
SCHOOL OF EDUCATION
CONSULTATIVE RESOURCE CENTER: A RACE DESEGREGATION CENTER
BYRNE HALL
405 EMMET STREET
CHARLOTTESVILLE, VIRGINIA 22903

March 13, 1981

Mr. Frank Hereford, President
University of Virginia
Pavilion III
Charlottesville, VA 22903

Dear Mr. Hereford:

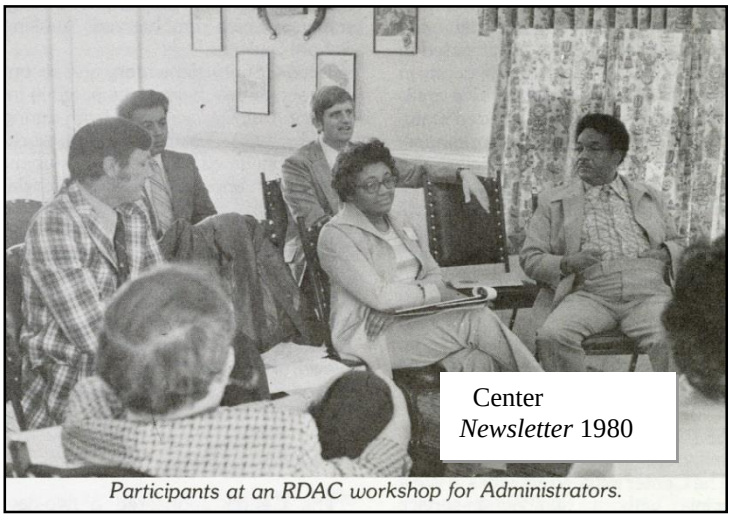
The Consultative Resource Center, School of Education is one of fifteen Race Desegregation Assistance Centers in the United States. The purpose of these centers is to provide technical assistance to school district personnel in solving problems incident to the desegregation process. Our Center, since its inception in 1967, has successfully carried out its responsibility in this respect.

Since the Consultative Resource Center is federally funded under Title IV of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, we must depend upon a yearly grant which is awarded upon acceptance of a proposal.

Although federal funds are available for 1981-82, there is a possibility that we will not be funded. The proposals for funding are competitive, and this year American University, which already has a sex center, is also applying for a Race Center grant.

My staff and I believe that American University may have an advantage because of the proximity of its location to the Department of Education and especially because some of their staff members were formally co-workers of the present Commissioner of the Title IV Equal Educational Opportunity Program. This relationship might possibly have some affect on the outcome of the grant. If this notion has any validity, it leaves our Center in a rather helpless, defensive position.

"Warm Workshops"


Center *Newsletter* 1980

Participants at an RDAC workshop for Administrators.

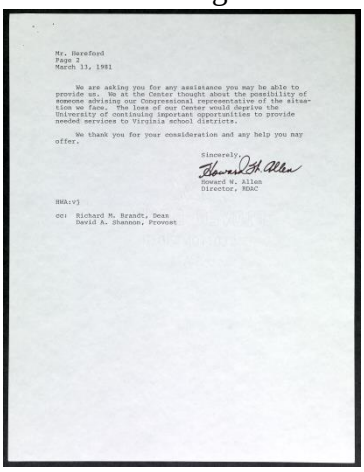
A participant in a 1976 session led by Center members highlighted the passion of those involved: "In all my fifteen years of teaching, never before have I attended such an informative, highly stimulating and valuable learning and training experience as this one!"[31] The 1976 *Newsletter* of the CRC provides a description of activities carried out, in citing feedback and requests from several hundred participants in workshops for school counselors:

> More skills training in group work' was a frequent request that we hope to again provide this year…Self-concept, values clarification and assertiveness training, particularly in conjunction with minority and sex role stereotyping, are subjects which repeatedly were mentioned.[32]

The Center began addressing issues related to gender equity as well as racial equity in response to Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 prohibiting gender discrimination in educational institutions Writing for a continuation of funding 1980, Allen emphasized the central mission for the Race Desegregation Assistance Center staff was to continue to provide leadership and assistance in the implementation and improvement of desegregation efforts and to maintain an advocacy role in relationship to the concept of equal education opportunity.[33]

Racial equity continued to be the central issue and passion of the

Center. Allen wrote of the Center's commitment to the principle that any effort to promote equal educational opportunity and to "foster the development of a healthy learning environment for both black and white youngsters cannot be satisfactorily undertaken without an emphasis upon improving human relations to facilitate racial harmony."[34] However, gender equity issues were increasingly the focus of attention for federal monies and the Center lost its funding in 1981 when the sex equity center at the American University in Washington, D.C. won the federal grant for the area previously covered by the CRC.



Mr. Hereford
Page 2
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We are asking you for any assistance you may be able to provide us. We at the Center thought about the possibility of someone advising our Congressional representative of the situation we face. The loss of our Center would deprive the University of continuing important opportunities to provide needed services to Virginia school districts.

We thank you for your consideration and any help you may offer.

Sincerely,

Howard W. Allen
Director, RDAC

HWA:vj

cc: Richard M. Brandt, Dean
David A. Shannon, Provost

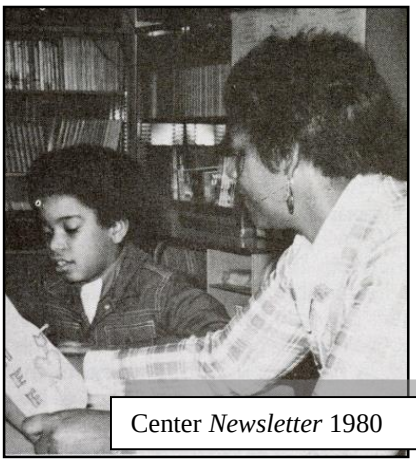
Concluding Thoughts

"We believe we reached enough systems to believe we accomplished what we were meant to do...A stepping stone to our goals."[35]

At an incredibly turbulent time in the history of school integration, the Center directors remained steadfast in their conviction that the depth of issues that arose were not merely addressed through legal rulings but would require years of working with educational professionals to achieve equality of education for students. The interviews with Bash and Allen, along with others, give life to the story of the Center's activities, and the legacy of their work is, I hope, illustrated in this paper. As they told me,

> The most difficult thing we had to do was to get across a sense of mutual respect, of mutual support and relationship…We learned not to force issues but to be patient and let people think about what they want to say…just be quiet because people are thinking…We learned from body language…we learned to get people to be honest with each other…Deal with yourself first, discover how you feel, and then you can work with others. [36]

The story of the De-Seg Center illustrates an aspect of Title IV legislation in the mid-1960s through the early 1980s. The part of the story that remains unanswered is the loss of the majority of documentation related to the Center's activities. Many faculty members were intermittently associated with the Center's activities, but it was staffed primarily by graduate students who traveled the state and region in response to requests for their services. What material exists, combined with the oral histories of those involved with the Center's activities, provides a picture of a complex operation and outreach to virtually all areas of the state as well as in surrounding states. The other aspect of this study is potentially more negative: speculating about why so much has been lost to history certainly reflects something about institutional values of record-keeping. Looking back, without a doubt it can be said that the Center's outreach program provided an important ingredient to the integration of the public schools in the state, one whose impact is now, sadly, difficult to measure.[37]



Center *Newsletter* 1980

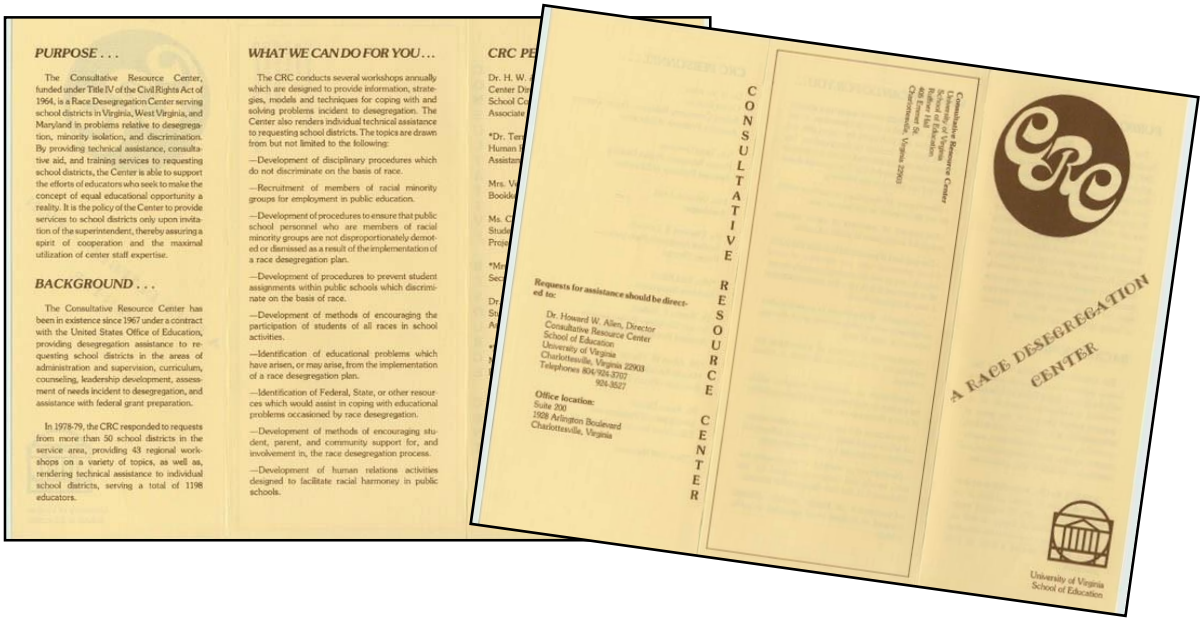
The memory of the Center's activities continues to elicit impassioned stories from those who worked to bring about changes for the schools of Virginia and the surrounding states.[38] The De-Seg Center is part of the overall history of relationships between schools and universities as they worked together to address the calls for educational reform resulting from Civil Rights legislation. And the process, if not the content, of the Center's operations, provides an early and interactive model of school/university collaborations.

In February 2012, Professor Patrice Grimes of the Curry School of Education invited Professors Bash and Allen to lead a lively discussion of the Center's activities at a Curry School symposium. The room was filled with students and faculty who were eager to hear about their experiences. Bash and Allen, along with several other faculty members who had been associated with the Center, were warmly received as they talked about the Center's contributions, sharing their visions and scope of their work with a 21st century audience.[39]

Recognizing the significance of this initiative begun over forty years ago adds an important dimension to the story of desegregation in central Virginia and the contiguous states. While a final accounting of the influence of the work of the Center is elusive to document and evaluate, undoubtedly the Center reflects a commitment to university-school partnerships in order to facilitate the integration of the public schools which has been overlooked in the history of the Curry School and of the University of Virginia.

As I said initially, when I began the research for the Curry School of Education's centennial in 2002, I had no knowledge of the Center and its existence, and it was through interviewing one of Curry's former deans, Richard Brandt, that I met Professors Bash and Allen and began the search for documentation of the Center's work. I then had several lengthy interviews with Bash and Allen and their contributions have given life to the framework of this paper. Many historians have found when tracing documentation for a specific initiative, following paper and oral trails while re-creating events is challenging: had it not been for the determination of these faculty members to keep their story alive, I would not have been able to portray the Center's activities to the extent that I have.

It is interesting to speculate about the reasons for the loss of the Center's records and the lack of awareness of the Center's activities on the part of present-day Education faculty: is the loss attributable to understandable errors made in maintaining the records, or did the University simply choose not to recognize the efforts of the Center? In a state that was especially affected by the desegregation controversies, did university administrators consciously choose to minimize the efforts of faculty members to work with public schools on issues related to school integration, or was there a general lack of awareness of the impact of the Center's work? As I have had a chance to focus more closely on the Center's activities, I continue to find it disappointing that few traces of the impact of its educational outreach in such a critical way at a critical time in the history of school integration are available.



Center *Newsletter* 1979

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[1] James Bash cited in Vallie Wendell Hylton. " A Historical Review of the Technical Assistance and Services of the Consultative Resource Center on School Integration (Title IV Civil Rights Act 1964 Public Law 88-52, Sections 403and 404, School of Education, University of Virginia, from March 1967 to February 1972." Unpublished dissertation. Charlottesville: University of Virginia, 1973. Hylton describes the goals of the Center to provide activities that will make a difference in the "affective area, not necessarily the cognitive, to help a community meet its needs in solving desegregation problems." p. 174

[2] Eleanor Vernon Wilson. *The Curry School of Education at the University of Virginia, 1905-2005.* Charlottesville, VA. 2005.

[3] Wilson, Eleanor Vernon "Desegregation, Transformation, and Self- Determination in the Twentieth Century" American Educational Association. April, 2009

[4] Hylton. opcit. p.37. Hylton states that the Center was one of 20 such centers established in the South at this time. It seems to me that many of these may have been associated with local school districts, making records even harder to trace than if they were linked to universities.

[5] Janet Ward Schofield. "University of Massachusetts Amherst School of Education, 1967-2007. Cited in *Review of research in Education*, Vol. 17, (1991), pp. 335-409

[6] Ogle B Duff. Report on the future of school desegregation in the United States. University of Pittsburgh Consultative Resource Center on School Desegregation and Conflict, 1982.

[7] Howard Allen. Interview. May 2002.

[8] Hylton. opcit.

[9] Herbert C. Richards, Nathan Johnson, and James Bash. *The Evaluation of Racial Attitudes and Attitude Change.* Monograph 3, Charlottesville, Virginia: ED Publications, Curry School of Education, June, 1972.

[10] Dallas Randall Crowe. The Desegregation of Charlottesville, Virginia Public Schools, 1954-1969. A Case Study. Unpublished dissertation, Charlottesville: University of Virginia., 1971.

[11] Gregg Michel. "Fellowship Report." Unpublished document prepared for the Carter C. Woodson Center, University of Virginia. Charlottesville, Virginia. 2000

[12] Howard Allen and James Bash. Interview May 2002

[13] Ibid

[14] p. 2 "School Desegregation Resource Center Established" Curry School of Education Newsletter. May 10, 1967

[15] The dean of the Curry School of Education, Ralph Cherry, served for a year as director of the Center in 1972.
[16] Howard Allen and James Bash. Interview. May 2002.
[17] When Johnson retired in 1979, then University president Hereford wrote him saying, "The history of the University will record you as the first black faculty member at the University and as a substantial contributor to many aspects of both secondary and higher education." RG 2/1/2.761 Box 13
[18] p. 46. "A Proposal in Application for Section 403 Award to a Race Desegregation Assistance Center." August 24, 1978,
[19] July 14, 1972. "UVa Unit Plans Name Change" *Charlottesville Daily Progress* RG 2/1/2.761 Box 13 Folder Consultative Resource Center
[20] "Consultative Resource Center School of Education University of Virginia" Annual report of the Dean of the Curry School of Education. 1976 RG 3/1/2.802
[21] Ibid. The 'technical assistance to school personnel' as part of the Center's activities was described as assisting schools "in dealing with problems which evolve suddenly. Such problems include student disruptions, conflicts and confrontations."
[22] Allen and Bash. Interview. May 2002.
[23] Ibid
[24]Hylton, opcit. Bash Is quoted describing the format of the workshops based on a "systems approach to the development of friendship and mutual trust in a desegregated group." p. 57
[25] James Bash. Effective Teaching in the Desegregated School: A Guidebook. Phi Delta Kappa. Bloomington Indiana. 1966. James Bash and Roger Long. Effective Administration in Desegregated Schools. Phi Delta Kappa. Bloomington, Indiana. n.d.
[26] Hylton, opcit. Table of visits made between 1967 and 1972.
[27] p.1 "The CRC Bulletin" June, 1974 Consultative Resource Center, School of Education, University of Virginia RG 2/1/2.761. The CRC personnel made personal contact with "almost all" of the 134 district superintendents during the workshops on School Law and the implications of implementing the Civil Rights Act of 1971.
[28] John Mesinger. Personal communication. 2005.
[29]p.1 "CRC Bulletin" 1974. opcit.
[30] pp. 25-26. 1972. Richards etal. opcit.
[31] Newsletter Fall 1976
[32] Ibid
[33] p.1 "A Proposal in Application for Section 403 Award to a Race Desegregation Assistance Center. August 1980
[34] Ibid. p. 26
[35] Interview with Allen and Bash .opcit.
[36] Ibid.
[37] Michel, 2000. Michel argues that that CRC's history had been a "forgotten part" of the University's history and as such, its absence from the University's civil rights narrative "reflects the deep ambivalence which, at the time, many within the university community had about school desegregation, in general, and the center, in particular."
[38] Sondra Stallard, dean of the School of Continuing and Professional Studies, is one of many faculty members who urged me to be sure to include the story of the activities of the CRC in the history of the Curry School of Education. Some of her earliest associations with the University were traveling the state as part of the Center's programs. John Mesinger, a retired Curry School faculty member who I have previously quoted, reminisced about the Center's activities, shaking his head and reflecting on the many "stories we could tell." Interviews, 2005.
[39] February, 2012. Curry School of Education, University of Virginia. Forum on the history of the Consultative Resource Center on School Integration. Additionally, a plaque honoring the contributions of the Center is now placed in Bavaro Hall, the main building of the Curry School.

Selected References

Unless otherwise specified, the documents related to the Center came from archives at the University of Virginia's Small Special Collections Library. The illustrations used in the text were taken from these documents.

The interviews and personal correspondences cited in the paper were conducted between May 2002 and May 2005.

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Michel, Gregg L. "Fellowship Report." Unpublished document prepared for the Carter C. Woodson Center, University of Virginia. Charlottesville, Virginia. 2000

Richards, Herbert C., Nathan Johnson, and James Bash. *The Evaluation of Racial Attitudes and Attitude Change.* Monograph 3, Charlottesville, Virginia: ED Publications, Curry School of Education, June, 1972.

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