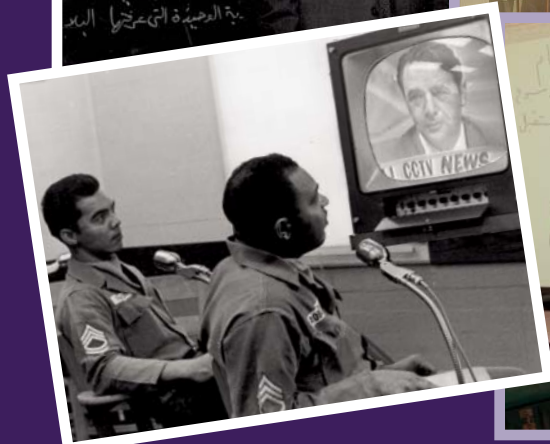


DLIFLC

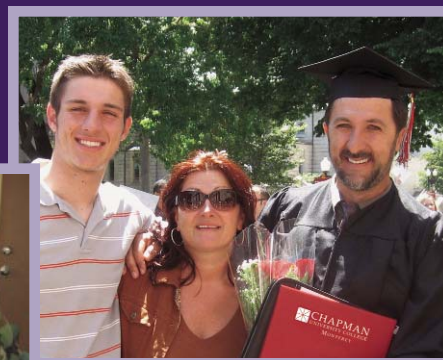
GLOBE

Serving the military and civilian communities of the
Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center and Presidio of Monterey
FALL 2006

65th Anniversary Celebration



Excellence in foreign
language education
since 1941





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Reel-to-reel tape recorders were introduced in the 1950s and weighed 40 pounds. This photograph was taken in 1971.

Front Cover

Snapshots of DLIFLC depict our history from World War II and the days of reel-to-reel language lessons, to modern-day interactive whiteboards. For 65 years, DLIFLC has taught language and culture to the finest students in the world, with the best faculty. In addition to successfully training some 3,500 students at any given time, DLIFLC takes pride in making the continuing education of its faculty and staff possible.


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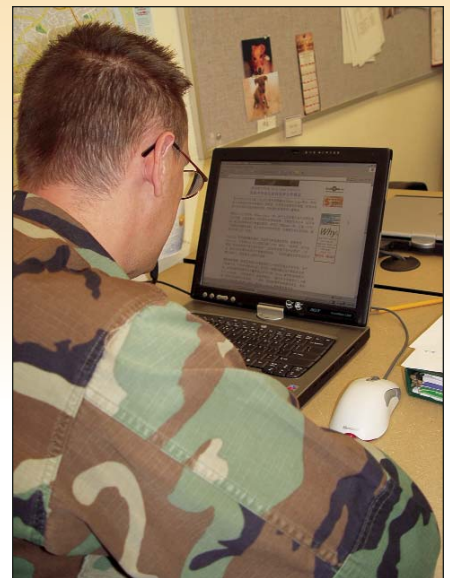
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A German professor uses a projector to show students a movie in 1965 to improve their listening skills in the target language.



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A Korean advanced language student works on his laptop during a break. Students regularly use their laptops for note taking, accessing the Internet, and working on audio or video files in class and at home.

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From the top...

By Col. Tucker B. Mansager

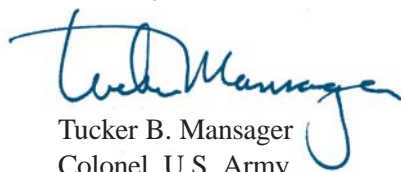
In this edition of the Globe, we celebrate 65 years of excellence in foreign language education by the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center and its predecessors. Additionally, we celebrate 60 years of our presence here at the Presidio of Monterey and our association with the surrounding communities. It is a great time to work at DLIFLC, a national treasure in support of our nation's defense.

Many things have changed in our efforts to teach foreign language since November 1, 1941. We started out teaching only Japanese and only to male Soldiers. Now we teach 23 languages in residence (still including Japanese) to Soldiers, Marines, Sailors and Airmen of both sexes. The Sixth Army Language School was initially a secret, hidden organization. DLIFLC is an open organization deeply involved, not only in our local community, but in the community of language instruction across the country and the globe. Our technology has evolved from record players to large reel-to-reel tape recorders, and from cassette recorders to MP3 players and iPods. Instructors used chalkboards in our infancy and adolescence, dry erase boards in our early adulthood and now computer-integrated interactive whiteboards in our maturity. Students took notes for years by pencil and paper, highlighting and underlining articles in newspapers and magazines. Today more and more students are issued laptop or tablet personal computers to not only take notes, but to access the most up-to-date information in their target language.

Much has changed, but the most important things have not. Our instructors remain the sine qua non of our mission. While technology has made progress, and can enhance the learning experience, it cannot replace the highly educated, professional, largely native-born faculty at DLIFLC. From our beginnings in San Francisco, to the present, our instructors have led the way in dedication, innovation and service to our nation. Our students remain our raison d'être; we must continue to educate and train the world's finest young men and women in the world's toughest languages so that they can stand on the wall that separates us from those who would do us harm. Finally, our commitment to excellence and innovation in all we do, remains undiminished from our birth in the shadows of World War II to the rapidly changing demands of the Global War on Terror.

It is a truly exciting time to be involved in foreign language education. Visibility and support for the teaching of foreign languages has never been higher. Take pride in the fact that what you are doing is making history, and be sure your efforts are worthy of those who have gone before us and those who will follow us.

Sincerely,



Tucker B. Mansager
Colonel, U.S. Army
Commandant



Col. Tucker B. Mansager
DLIFLC & POM Commander



Take pride in the fact that what you are doing is making history, and be sure your efforts are worthy of those who have gone before us and those who will follow us.





Historical overview of the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center

DLIFLC Historian Office

DLIFLC traces its roots to the eve of America's entry into World War II, when the U.S. Army established a secret school at the Presidio of San Francisco to teach the Japanese language. Classes began on November 1, 1941 with four instructors and 60 students in an abandoned airplane hangar at Crissy Field. The students were mostly second-generation Japanese-Americans (Nisei) from the West Coast. Nisei Hall at the Presidio of Monterey is named in honor of these earliest students, whose heroism is portrayed in the Institute's "Yankee Samurai" exhibit. The headquarters building and academic library bear respectively the names of the Institute's first commandant, Colonel Kai E. Rasmussen, and the first director of academic training, John F. Aiso.

During the war, Japanese language training increased dramatically. When Japanese-Americans on the West Coast were moved into internment camps in 1942, the school moved to Camp Savage, Minnesota, and was renamed the Military Intelligence Service Language School (MISLS). By 1944, with the arrival of non-heritage students, the school had outgrown these facilities and was relocated to nearby Fort Snelling. More than 6,000 graduates served throughout the Pacific Theater during the war and the subsequent occupation of Japan. Three academic buildings at the Presidio of Monterey are named for Nisei graduates who fell in action: George Nakamura, Frank Hachiya, and Y. "Terry" Mizutari.

In 1946, the MISLS moved to the historic Presidio of Monterey. The city of Monterey had grown since 1770 to become the capital of the Spanish (later Mexican) province of Alta California. Commodore John Drake Sloat, commander of the U.S. Navy's Pacific Squadron, captured the town in 1846 during the Mexican War. In 1902, following the Spanish-American War, the U.S. Army rebuilt the post. After World War I, the Presidio of Monterey became the home of the 11th Cavalry Regiment and the 2nd Battalion, 76th Field Artillery Regiment. Nobel laureate John Steinbeck captured the spirit of Monterey during this period in his novels *Tortilla Flat* (1935) and *Cannery Row* (1945).

In 1947, the MISLS was renamed the Army Language School (ALS). It expanded rapidly to meet the requirements of America's global commitments during the Cold War.

Instructors, including native speakers of more than 30 languages and dialects, were recruited from all over the world. Russian became the largest language program, followed by Chinese, Korean, and German. After the

Korean War (1950-1953), ALS gained a national reputation for excellence in foreign language education. ALS led the way with the audio-lingual method and the application of educational technology such as language laboratories.

The U.S. Air Force met most of its foreign language education requirements in the 1950s through contract programs at universities such as Yale, Cornell, Indiana, and Syracuse. The U.S. Navy taught foreign languages at the Naval Intelligence School in Washington, D.C. In 1963, to promote efficiency and economy, these programs were consolidated into the Defense Foreign Language Program. A new headquarters, the Defense Language Institute (DLI), was established in Washington, D.C., and the former Army Language School commandant, Colonel James L. Collins, Jr., became the Institute's first director. The Army Language School became the DLI West Coast Branch (DLI-WC) and the foreign language department at the Naval Intelligence School became the DLI East Coast Branch. The contract programs were gradually phased out. DLI also took over the English Language School at Lackland Air Force Base, Texas, which became the DLI English Language Center (DLIELC).

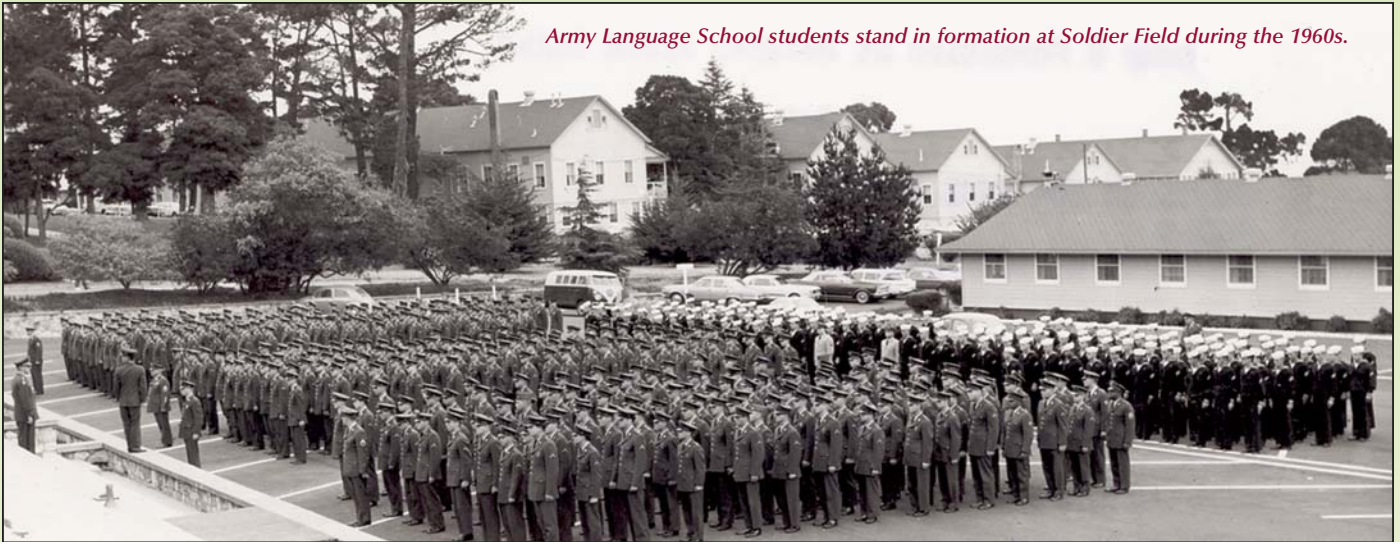


Arabic students using field telephones for a mock language exercise in the 1950s.

During the peak of American involvement in Vietnam (1965-1973), DLI-WC stepped up the pace of language education. While regular language education continued unabated, more than 20,000 service personnel studied Vietnamese through DLI programs, many taking a special eight-week military adviser "survival" course. From 1966 to 1973, the Institute also operated a Vietnamese branch (DLI Support Command, later renamed the DLI Southwest Texas). Two hundred ninety-five of DLI graduates gave their lives during the war. Four student dormitories today bear the names of graduates who died in that conflict: Chief Petty Officer Frank W. Bomar, Sergeant First Class Alfred H. Combs, Gunnery Sergeant George P. Kendall, Jr., and Staff Sgt. Herbert Smith, Jr.

In the 1970s, the Institute's headquarters and all resident

Army Language School students stand in formation at Soldier Field during the 1960s.



language education were consolidated at the West Coast Branch and renamed the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC). The Institute continues to operate a small contract foreign language education program in Washington, D.C. With the advent of the all-volunteer force and the opening of most specialties to women, the character of the student population gradually changed. In 1973, the newly formed U.S. Army Training and Doctrine Command (TRADOC) assumed administrative control, and in 1976, all English language-training operations were returned to the U.S. Air Force, which operates DLIELC to this day.

Since the end of the Vietnam War, the Institute has experienced an exciting period of growth and change. DLIFLC received academic accreditation in 1979 and in 1981 the position of Academic Dean (later called Provost, and now Chancellor) was established. A joint-service General Officer Steering Committee was established in 1981 to advise on all aspects of the Defense Foreign Language Program. The Defense Language Steering Committee now performs this function. In the early 1980s a rise in student attendance forced the Institute to open two temporary branches: a branch for Air Force enlisted students of Russian at Lackland Air Force Base, Texas (1981-1987), and another for Army enlisted students of Russian, German, Korean, and Spanish at the Presidio of San Francisco (1982-1988). The increase in student population also resulted in an extensive facilities expansion program on the Presidio.

In recent years, the Institute has taken on challenging new missions, including support for Arms Control Treaty verification, the War on Drugs, Operation Desert Storm, Operation Restore Hope, Operation Enduring Freedom and Noble Eagle, and Operation Iraqi Freedom. In response to the terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001 DLIFLC created the Emerging Languages Task Force

which serves as the Institute's quick-response language team that provides rapid solutions to current and emerging mission needs for the Global War on Terrorism.

Numerous academic changes have been made as well. More instructors have been recruited, new instructional materials and tests have been written, and a comprehensive academic master plan has been developed. Teaching methodology has become more and more proficiency-oriented, team teaching has been implemented, and the average staffing ratio has been increased to two instructors per ten-student section, while new steps have been taken to further increase this ratio through the Proficiency Enhancement Program (PEP). In the more difficult languages, (Category 3 and 4), PEP decreases the student-faculty ratio from 10:2 to 6:2. In easier language categories, (Category 1 and 2), PEP decreases the student-faculty ratio from 10:2 to 8:2. The Institute is also developing a new series of the Defense Language Proficiency Test, the DLPT5, that will be delivered through the World Wide Web. Finally, DLIFLC stepped up to support deployed linguists establishing 10 Language Training Detachments located at sites with high concentrations of linguists in the continental United States and Hawaii.

In 1993, 1995, and again in 2005, the Base Realignment and Closure Commission rejected suggestions that the Institute be moved or closed and recommended that its mission be continued at its present location. An agreement with Monterey Peninsula College was signed in early 1994, allowing as many as 27 credit hours earned in any of the basic programs taught on the Presidio of Monterey to be counted toward an Associate of Arts degree. In October 2001, the U.S. Congress gave DLIFLC federal authority to grant an Associate of Arts in Foreign Language degree. Since DLIFLC first began awarding associate degrees in May 2002, the Institute has granted over 2,000 diplomas. ♦



DLIFLC dedicates Hall of Fame to outstanding individuals

By Warren Hoy

Chief of Mission Support

The Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) Hall of Fame Selection Board met on Aug. 28, 2006. The board considered 38 nominations, including linguists, instructors, military leaders, policy makers, and private citizens, and selected 10 to be inducted into the Hall of Fame at the dedication ceremony on Nov. 8th, 2006. Selections were based on each individual's lasting and significant contributions to language training or linguist employment in the Department of Defense (DoD).

Although nominations for next year's inductions may be submitted any time, the Institute will issue the next formal call for nominations in May 2007, for induction in November 2007. Those selected for 2006 are:

Colonel (USAF, Retired) William P. Fife

Col. William Fife graduated from the Army Language School Russian Basic Course in 1948. He is widely considered the "Father of Airborne Intercept" for the Air Force. In a career that spanned seven decades, he helped create the Air Force Communications Intelligence (COMINT) capability. He transformed Army Security Agency equipment and organizations into the Air Force's first Radio Squadron (Mobile), created the first airborne COMINT collection program, and established Air Force Security Service (USAFSS) intercept sites at Misawa, Ashiya and Wakkanai, Japan and in Korea. Fife planned and flew on the first USAFSS COMINT recon mission in 1949, paving the way for future BLUE SKY COMINT missions. He set the standard for employment of linguists in the Air Force that continues today.



Lieutenant Colonel (USAF, Retired) Rick Francona

Lt. Col. Rick Francona graduated from DLIFLC's Vietnamese Basic Course in 1971, the Arabic Basic Course in 1974, and the Arabic Intermediate Course in 1978. He distinguished himself during numerous assignments in the Middle East, including tours as an advisor to the Royal Jordanian Air Force, liaison officer to the Iraqi armed forces



during the Iran-Iraq War, and personal interpreter and advisor to Gen. Norman Schwarzkopf during the Persian Gulf War. He was the lead interpreter for the cease-fire talks with the Iraqi Army that ended Operation Desert Storm. After the Gulf War, Francona served as the first Air Attaché at the U.S. Embassy in Syria. He also served with the National Security Agency, the Defense Intelligence Agency and the Central Intelligence Agency in the region, and developed the Defense Department's counterterrorism intelligence branch. Since retiring from the Air Force, Francona has written numerous articles and a book (*Ally to Adversary – An Eyewitness Account of Iraq's Fall from Grace*), and is a military analyst for NBC News.

Mr. Shigeya Kihara

Mr. Shigeya Kihara was one of the four original instructors of the Japanese language for the Fourth Army Intelligence School, the precursor of DLIFLC, making him one of the "Founding Fathers" of the Institute. By the end of World War II, the school, then called the Military Intelligence Service Language School (MISLS), had graduated some 6,000 soldier-linguists. After the war, Kihara and his family moved with the school to the Presidio of Monterey, where he continued to teach Japanese. In 1960, he became Director of Research and Development and later, Director of Support Systems Development. He retired in 1974, after serving his country for 33 years and teaching thousands of military linguists. Upon retirement, Kihara remained active in the community. His interests in documenting the role of MISLS during World War II, and the role of Japanese-Americans during that period, led him to consult on several books, films and magazine articles documenting the contributions Japanese-American citizens made to the war effort despite being held in internment camps by the U.S. government. Kihara died on January 16, 2005 in Monterey.



Major General (USA, Retired) Roland Lajoie

Maj. Gen. Roland Lajoie graduated from the Army Language School Russian Basic Course in 1968. From 1973 to 1976 he served as Assistant Army Attaché to the Soviet Union, after which he commanded the U.S. Army Russian Institute in Garmisch, Germany. He later served as Deputy Director for International Negotiations, J-5, Joint Chiefs of



Staff; First Director, U.S. On-Site Inspection Agency; U.S. Defense Attaché in Paris and Moscow, and Chief, U.S. Military Liaison Mission, Potsdam, East Germany. His last military assignment was as the Associate Deputy Director for Operations/Military Affairs, Central Intelligence Agency. Lajoie served in a civilian capacity as the Deputy Assistant to the Secretary of Defense for Cooperative Threat Reduction until January 1998. In December 1998 President Clinton appointed Lajoie as the U.S. Chairman to the U.S.-Russia Joint Commission on POW/MIAs, where he led efforts to uncover the fates of military personnel of both sides missing since WWII. Lajoie is a stalwart example of a military linguist using his skills in service to this country.

Major General (USAF, Retired) Doyle Larson

Maj. Gen. Doyle Larson was instrumental in the development of a career linguist force within the Air Force. He founded RC-135 COMBAT SENT Airborne Reconnaissance Units at Eielson AFB, AK, and Offutt AFB, NE. He also established the RC-135 operation at Kadena, Japan, in support of U.S. military operations in Vietnam, which is credited with saving many downed pilots, as well as numerous assists for air-to-air kills during the war. Later, Larson commanded the Electronic Security Agency (now the Air Intelligence Agency), where he developed the “COMFY OLYMPICS” language competition. This competition continues today and was the precursor to DLIFLC’s Linguist of the Year competition. Larson is a fervent supporter of military crypto-linguists. Upon his retirement, he received the Order of the Sword from the Air Intelligence Agency enlisted community for his tireless dedication to bettering the lives of enlisted linguists – to include promotions, selective reenlistment bonuses, flight pay for enlisted aircrew linguists, and quality of life improvements. In retirement, Larson served as president of the Air Force Association.



Mr. Hugh McFarlane

Mr. Hugh McFarlane graduated from the Army Language School Russian Basic Course in 1966 and the Hebrew Basic Course in 1970. During nearly 23 years as a Navy linguist, he established and administered the first Naval Security Group language maintenance program, at Misawa Japan. He helped



manage and then redesign the National Security Agency/Central Security Service (NSA/CSS) military linguist program, which remains the longest-lived language intern program in the cryptologic community. After retiring from the Navy in 1988, McFarlane worked for seven years at DLIFLC, where he implemented the Feedforward/Feedback information exchange system between DLIFLC and follow-on technical schools, wrote a major portion of the Command Language Program manual, guided seven comprehensive curriculum reviews, and mentored more than 15,000 cryptologic students. He was the author and editor of several iterations of the cryptologic and defense training managers’ Final Learning Objectives for all basic, intermediate and advanced courses, affecting over 3,000 students every year. As NSA/CSS liaison to the Office of the Secretary of Defense and the Office of the Director of National Intelligence, McFarlane has been a participant and planner in the transformation of language policy and practice in cryptology, the DoD and the Intelligence Community.

Colonel (USA, Retired) David A. McNerney

Col. David McNerney was commandant of DLIFLC from 1981 to 1985. His tenure saw a wide range of significant improvements to the Institute during a period in which the student population doubled in four years, with associated faculty expansion. He developed, articulated, and implemented a construction program for 25 new buildings at the Presidio of Monterey. These included two large General Instruction Facilities, Price Fitness Center, thirteen modern barracks buildings, nine academic and administrative support buildings, and a massive utility upgrade. He completely reorganized the Troop Command structure, replacing all leadership positions with language-specific personnel and significantly reduced the company size by activating additional companies to better support the academic program. McNerney initiated a professional development program for all assigned military linguists, which included language proficiency development and the use of Military Language Instructors (MLIs). He also instituted a myriad of academic and testing initiatives, doubled the size of the permanent civilian faculty, instituted the Faculty Personnel System and created performance pay for instructors. Even more important to military linguists, McNerney developed the system of Foreign Language Proficiency Pay that was later enacted by Congress. McNerney’s accomplishments in just four years had a remarkable impact on language training and linguist retention for the DoD.



Mr. Glenn Nordin

Mr. Glenn Nordin graduated from the Army Language School Russian Basic Course and the Army Russian Institute in the 1950s, as well as from the Vietnamese Advisor Course in 1966. He served as a radio interceptor with tactical forces, Operations Officer with the Army Security Agency in Berlin, a Deputy Branch Chief at NSA, a translator for the Washington-Moscow Hotline, a ground intelligence officer in Vietnam, and as commandant of the Army Electronic Warfare School. As a defense contractor, Nordin led team development of the first all-digital workstations and on-line dictionaries for language specialists. His civil service career highlights include Executive Secretary of the Director of Central Intelligence Foreign Language Committee and as Assistant Director for Intelligence Policy (Language) with the Office of the Secretary of Defense. In these positions, he conceptualized and defended a wide variety of initiatives in foreign language education, training, processing and analysis, including a virtual language work-learning environment to facilitate workload sharing and continuing education of language specialists. His work with the Interagency Language Roundtable (ILR) brought him to national attention as an advocate for universal language education and employment. A senior DoD official dubbed Nordin the “conscience of language” in the Pentagon. He has had a tremendous impact on the day-to-day lives of linguists and greatly facilitated their work.



Mr. Leon Panetta

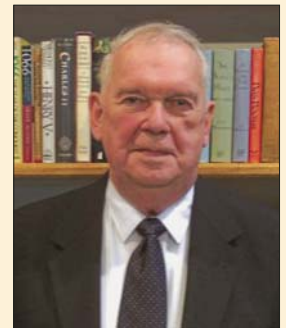
Mr. Leon Panetta has championed language education in the military and worked to improve DLIFLC’s home at the Presidio of Monterey for more than 30 years. As a member of the U.S. House of Representatives for California’s 16th/17th district from 1977 to 1993, Panetta was instrumental in providing funds for capital improvement projects on the Presidio in the late 80s and early 90s. Due to his advocacy for the Institute, Nicholson Hall, Munakata Hall, Aiso Library, Munzer Hall, Price Fitness Center and the newer troop billets were built at the Presidio. Panetta played an essential role in the Institute being regarded as an academic institution, through his efforts to secure teacher compensation based on educational background and performance. His support in Congress of better pay for DLIFLC faculty led to



the current Faculty Personnel System. Panetta has continually advocated for more and better language instruction in the United States and was a key participant in developing and gaining Congressional approval for the National Security Education Program. Linguists, diplomats, and strategists with language and cultural competencies are finally being produced by our higher education system at levels necessary to collaborate and compete on the world stage. Panetta served as chair of the House Budget Committee; Director, Office of Management and Budget; and White House Chief of Staff. He and his wife, Sylvia, founded and lead the Leon and Sylvia Panetta Institute for Public Policy.

Mr. Whitney E. Reed

Mr. Whitney E. Reed, who was commandant of the National Cryptologic School (NCS) from 1986 to 1993 and NSA/CSS Deputy Director for Education and Training, is a lifelong champion of the foreign language community, with a special concern for military linguists. He developed a system of language training and maintenance at sites outside of DLIFLC for the Navy, and adapted it for the Air Force. Today, that system lives on as the Air Force Exportable Language Training Program, which grew exponentially with Reed’s support. He also revised language training curricula to include current, authentic materials in the classroom, making classes much more relevant to military linguists. Moreover, Reed was instrumental in bringing computer technology to language teaching. He provided the first infusion of computers into both NCS and DLIFLC classrooms, and developed teaching guidelines to take advantage of their new capabilities. Perhaps most significantly, Reed impelled the Defense Language Committee to establish a realistic, measurable proficiency graduation standard of an ILR level 2 for listening, reading and speaking. To complement the new standard, he developed Final Learning Objectives for the basic course that integrate proficiency, performance, and work-focused content domains to provide the DoD with qualified and motivated linguists for the critical security challenges that face our nation. ♦



The Hall of Fame is located at Aiso Library, named for DLIFLC’s first director of academic training in the 1940s.



Remembering the beginning – an original Japanese instructor’s account

By *Shigeya Kihara*

Japanese language instructor, Military Intelligence Service



(Editor’s note: Shigeya Kihara started as a Japanese language instructor at the Fourth Army Intelligence School, Crissy Field, Presidio of San Francisco, when the first language class started on Nov. 1, 1941. Kihara subsequently had a long distinguished career teaching Japanese at the school, which became today’s

Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center. Kihara died in Monterey in January 2005.)

Prior to September 1941, I had taken some Japanese language courses at the University of California at Berkeley. Later that same month, I went to Headquarters, Fourth Army, Presidio of San Francisco, for an interview with then Lt. Col. John Weckerling about a position as a Japanese language instructor for the Army. At that time, Weckerling was Assistant Chief of Staff for Intelligence, Fourth Army.

Weckerling had just been transferred from the Panama Canal Department to the Presidio with special orders to organize a Japanese language intelligence school with Japanese-American Nisei soldiers as students. The Fourth Army’s budget didn’t include this new school, but Weckerling managed to get \$2,000 transferred from the Presidio Quartermaster to get things started.

It was the first time in my life I had met an Army officer. Seated behind his desk was a handsome, distinguished-looking gentleman, Lt. Col. Weckerling. There was authority, strength and integrity in his bearing and speech. Leadership was written all over him. My respect and regard for him increased during the hectic six months that I was to work for him at the Presidio.

I reported to the colonel to start my job Oct. 18, 1941. He led me down to an empty basement room in the Presidio headquarters building. There were no desks or chairs, just an empty wooden orange crate on which there was a set of Japanese-language books brought back from Tokyo by Capt. Kai Rasmussen, a former assistant attaché and Japanese language student in Tokyo.

Study material included Readers I to VIII, Nagunuma Series; Kanji Books, Kanji cards; English to Japanese and Japanese to English dictionaries; Ueda Kanji Dictionary; Creswell Japanese Military Dictionary; Sakusen Yomurei

(Military Operations); Oyo Senjutsu (Applied Tactics); and the United States Training Manual, Japanese Military Forces.

Here I met the other original Japanese-language instructors of John Aiso, chief instructor; Aki Oshida, and Pvt. Art Kaneko who declined to be an instructor, but wanted to be a student. He was replaced by Tetsu Imagawa as the fourth instructor.

The colonel said, “Let’s go down to the school building.” We left the headquarters building and drove through residential areas surrounded by manicured green lawns and trees. We crossed some railroad tracks into a different world: a flat, empty, desolate expanse on the shores of San Francisco Bay. We parked at an empty, old, corrugated-tin abandoned small-aircraft hangar. There were no other buildings or facilities in the area. This was it, our Crissy Field School on the Presidio, which had no desks or chairs but did have two old Army cots. Two carpenters were putting up partitions along the north wall of the hangar for an office, faculty room and three classrooms.

Weckerling issued oral instructions, “Sixty Nisei soldiers will report here in two weeks on Nov. 1, 1941. Be prepared to start training them.” Turning on his heels, he did an about face, left the hangar and went back to his well-furnished office.



Japanese American students work hard at Ft. Snelling, Minnesota during the 1940s.

There was no evidence of any planning to organize this historic undertaking. The War Department had not issued documents, written directives, a mission statement, or a statement of objectives. There were no outlines, guidelines, models or precedents regarding how to proceed. Nothing.

John Aiso took over and organized everything, such as getting some desks and chairs, office supplies, mimeograph stencils and a mimeograph machine. He sent the administrative sergeant, Sgt. Peterson, to see if he could get



\$500 from Weckerling or the Army so that Kihara could buy up Japanese dictionaries and grammar books from bookstores in Berkeley and Japantown, a section of San Francisco where Japanese families lived and had stores.

Aiso planned well and had the four instructors, including himself, prepare to teach three sections of students. Aiso also preplanned each day's lessons before students arrived for the first class. The other instructors translated the U.S. Army training manuals into Japanese before the students arrived and translated the Japanese Army, Navy and Air Force manuals after classes when the school started.

Weckerling came in every day to monitor our progress during the startup period before students arrived for the Fourth Army Intelligence School. He wanted to know if we were on the right track in our pre-class preparation and to review what we were doing. He made decisions, suggestions and approved or disapproved our preparation. He was always strong and positive and encouraged us in our hectic preparations.

Then Capt. Kai Rasmussen, the coast artillery commander at nearby Fort Winfield Scott (adjacent to the Presidio) also dropped in regularly to join our discussions regarding subjects, course of instruction and methodology.

On Nov. 1, 1941, Maj. Joseph Dickey, another graduate of the Tokyo embassy Japanese school, reported in as the school's executive officer. The original Japanese language class had 58 Nisei soldiers and Pvts. Victor Belousoff and Dempster Dirks. Based on individual interviews and evaluations of these men by Weckerling and Rasmussen during the summer of 1941, Sections A, B, and C were formed and instruction began at 8 a.m.

Lt. Gen. John DeWitt, Fourth Army commander at the time, inspected the school two weeks later. Weckerling and Dickey briefed him. The general walked through the sections asking questions and making comments. DeWitt was making public statements, "A Jap is a Jap." In 1942 he made recommendations that all Japanese in California, Oregon, Washington and Alaska be banished from the coast and interned in mountain and desert areas of the interior. Several students' and the instructors' families ended up in American concentration camps.

At 7 a.m., Sunday, Dec. 7, 1941 Japan attacked Pearl Harbor and plunged the world into a cataclysmic war. Fortunately, the concept of using Nisei soldiers for Japanese intelligence had also become a reality, just five weeks before the Japanese infamy. Mission accomplished, Col. Weckerling. Banzai. ♦



Japanese-American students being sworn into the U.S. Army just weeks before WW II.

during the startup period before students arrived for the Fourth Army Intelligence School. He wanted to know if we were on the right track

Walking down memory lane – landmark buildings at DLIFLC

By Natela Cutter

Strategic Communications Office

In the 65 years since its humble beginnings, many individuals have contributed greatly to what is today known as the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC), the premiere language provider to the Department of Defense (DoD) and the largest foreign language school in the world.

Recognizing that this Institute could not exist without the people who created and contributed to it, DLIFLC has dedicated many buildings to the memory of those contributors, or individuals who attended the school and lost their lives while on military duty.

Today DLIFLC teaches some 23 languages, the number depending on world politics and the needs of DoD. Back in 1941, when the Institute was founded and called the Fourth Army Intelligence School, the only language taught was Japanese. One of the individuals who helped create the first secret language school, located at the Presidio of San Francisco at Crissy Field, was **Capt. Kai Rasmussen**.



Having studied in Japan, Rasmussen had a good understanding that conflict was imminent in the Pacific. Along with Maj. John Weckerling, he pushed the idea of creating a military language school until the War Department, reluctantly, allotted them \$2,000 to start up a school, in an old run down hangar at the Presidio of San Francisco, just six weeks before Pearl Harbor.

When war broke, a decision was made to temporarily move the school to Minnesota to avoid discrimination toward the mainly second-generation Japanese-American students and instructors. Rasmussen, now a colonel, became the first commandant and moved the school to Camp Savage in 1942, where its name was changed to

Military Intelligence Service Language School (MISLS). The school moved once again to Fort Snelling in 1944, and then finally back to the Presidio of Monterey (POM) Calif. in 1946. Some 6,000 students graduated from MISLS and served throughout the Pacific Theater during the war, and in the occupation of Japan that followed.

On Oct. 28, 1988 DLIFLC and POM dedicated its headquarters to the man whose ideas and perseverance brought about the beginning of the finest language school in the nation.

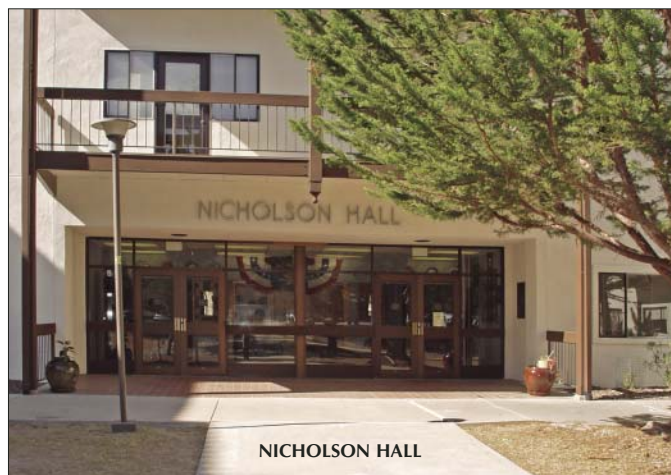


The first students, second-generation Japanese-Americans, were also commonly known as **Nisei**. Graduates of the language school were assigned to combat battalions to translate captured documents and interrogate prisoners. The data they gathered provided vital information concerning tactical plans, locations of heavy artillery and units as well as movement of the Japanese naval, air and ground forces. Their service in the Pacific theater of World War II was so successful that it prompted Maj. Gen. Charles Willoughby, General Douglas MacArthur's Chief of Staff for Military Intelligence, to say, "*The Nisei shortened the Pacific War by two years and saved possibly a million American lives and saved probably billions of dollars.*"

On March 7, 1969 DLIFLC, then known as the DLI West Coast Branch, dedicated Nisei Hall to those Japanese Americans who fought and died in defense of the United States in Europe and the Pacific during WW II.

One of the largest instructional buildings at DLIFLC, which today houses languages such as the Afghan dialects of Dari and Pashto, was named for **Maj. Arthur Donald Nicholson, Jr.**, who graduated from the Russian Basic Program in 1980. While assigned as Ground Liaison/Production Officer, U.S. Military Liaison Mission, Potsdam, East Germany, Nicholson was gunned down by a Soviet sentry on March 24, 1985 near the town of Ludswigslust, East Germany.

On March 26, 1987, DLIFLC dedicated Nicholson Hall



to the memory of **Nicholson**. The building today stands as a monument to a soldier who sacrificed his life while helping to maintain freedom for the United States and its allies. Nicholson was posthumously promoted to the rank of Lieutenant Colonel.



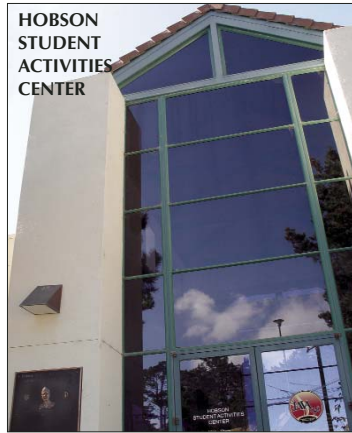
DLIFLC's largest dining facility is named for **Sgt. Lee Arthur Belas**, who graduated from the Russian Basic Course in 1989. With war looming in the Persian Gulf in the fall of 1990, Belas received basic Arabic language training via video tele-training. While deployed in South East Asia, Belas worked on his Arabic language skills with Kuwaiti crewmembers to attain fluency. On Feb. 27, 1991 Belas was flying in a UH-60 Blackhawk with eight other soldiers. His helicopter was shot down by Iraqi Republican Guard ground fire while flying over enemy territory, at Ash Shamiyah, Iraq. All of the crewmembers were killed in the resulting crash.

The former Russian Dining Hall was renamed Belas Hall Dining Facility after a dedication ceremony Feb. 27, 1996.

Staff Sgt. Kenneth Hobson is considered the first DLIFLC graduate to be killed in an act of terrorism. Hobson, an Arabic Basic Course student from June 1993 to August 1994, died in the terrorist attack at the



American Embassy, Nairobi, Kenya, on Aug. 7, 1998. Terrorists detonated a truck bomb behind the embassy



building, killing more than 250 people, 12 of whom were Americans. Embassy guards turned away the vehicle when it approached the front of the embassy, but it managed to gain access to an adjacent parking area behind the building where it detonated. Islamic fundamentalists under the leadership of Osama bin Laden are suspected in this terrorist attack. DLIFLC memorialized its recreation center as the Hobson Student Activities Center Aug. 5, 1999.

Staff Sgt. Gene Arden Vance Jr., enlisted in the West Virginia National Guard in 1992 and graduated from DLIFLC's Persian-Farsi language course in 1998. He was immediately called to active duty following the terrorist attacks of 9/11, and in Feb. 2002 he deployed to eastern Afghanistan with the 2nd Battalion, 19th Special Forces Group (Airborne). In Afghanistan, Vance played a critical role in developing his detachment's communications capabilities, and his Persian-Farsi skills were vital to operations against the Taliban and Al-Qaeda terrorists who were using the area to infiltrate soldiers and equipment against Coalition forces.

On May 19, 2002, Vance's patrol was ambushed by Taliban fighters in the province of Paktika, Afghanistan. Although critically wounded in the initial ambush, Vance continued to translate battlefield intelligence, directing fellow soldiers out of the kill zone, saving two American soldiers and 18 Afghan soldiers.



DLIFLC performed a ribbon cutting ceremony Aug. 25, 2006 of Vance Barracks. ♦

The McNerney Years (1981-1985) – a time to build at DLIFLC

By Ben De La Selva, President, DLI Alumni Association with input from Col. (USA, ret) David A. McNerney

Col. David A. McNerney was commandant of the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) from 1981 to 1985. He came to DLIFLC from the Training and Doctrine Command Operation Center (TRADOC) headquarters and was acutely aware of a number of major issues affecting DLIFLC. He also had a solid background in military construction, budget, manpower and civilian personnel management. He was specifically aware that DLIFLC was projected to double its student population within the coming five years. Recognizing that DLIFLC possessed an abundance of dedicated talent in the staff and faculty who only needed leadership and guidance, McNerney embarked on an ambitious and comprehensive program to enhance DLIFLC. McNerney retired 21 years ago, but every area described below had such a tremendous impact on language training and linguist management that the legacy still permeates the very fabric of DLIFLC's organization.



Munakata Hall's construction was planned and initiated by Col. McNerney during his tenure.

The construction program initiated and carried out by McNerney produced a wave of new construction activity that changed the face of the Presidio as no other building program has achieved before or since. His construction plan made a reality the Russian Village Complex at the southwestern tip of the Presidio; Munakata and Nicholson General Instruction Facilities; the Taylor Hall Personnel Processing Center; Collins Hall; Aiso Library; Belas Dining Facility; Hobson Student Activity Center; the Logistics Building; the Post Exchange; Price Fitness Center, and thirteen new dormitory buildings housing

1,350 students in two person rooms with private baths. This flurry of construction represented the largest building effort in Monterey County in the preceding 20 years. With sheer determination and an uncanny ability to get things done, McNerney was able to get \$100 million of Title IV Department of Defense (DoD) construction money and receive approval for an expedited construction program.

Troop command reorganization

McNerney realized immediately that Troop Command was not organized in accordance with the U.S. Army training policy nor was it supportive of the language learning process at DLIFLC. It consisted of three 700 person companies (Headquarters, A and C) and was staffed with non-linguist leaders. He had the Adjutant General Branch commander replaced with a Military Intelligence officer and proceeded to replace all Platoon Sergeant and 1st Sergeant positions with language specific leaders so they could mentor their students throughout the learning process. He then reduced the company size to approximately 200 to 300 students and tied them closely to the school organization, activating Companies B, D and F. He also placed all officer and senior non-commissioned officer students in Company E, for better management, since they would have different processing and physical fitness standards than incoming soldiers with minimal military service.

The San Francisco Annex

A DLIFLC annex was established in the old Merchant Marine hospital on the grounds of the Presidio of San Francisco to handle the student population increase until the new classrooms were built in Monterey. The Presidio Annex, as it became known, consisted of approximately 600 Army students in German, Korean, and Spanish, organized as Companies G and H.

Military professional development

McNerney worked closely with DLIFLC's civilian union leadership to clear the way for military linguists to work side-by-side with civilian faculty in DLIFLC classrooms and converted all the previous Foreign Language Training Non Commissioned Officer/Petty Officer (NCO/PO) positions into a new position called Military Language Instructor (MLI), to give these personnel active teaching experience. This program created a very strong demand for assignment to DLIFLC by linguist NCOs/POs since they recognized the significant career enhancement opportunity afforded by this assignment. It also ensured that DLIFLC would have the highest quality linguists

returning to the Presidio of Monterey. McNerney insisted on establishing a comprehensive development program for all NCOs and POs assigned to the language school staff and faculty. All incoming linguists were immediately assigned as students to an accelerated or advanced language program to refresh and enhance their language skills. Over the course of their DLIFLC tour, they were rotated into Platoon Sergeant positions, in the companies, MLI positions in the language schools, and/or Subject Matter Expert (SME) duties on course development projects. This ensured that they were well-rounded professionally in both the military and linguistic skill components of their military occupational specialty.

Military linguist pay

McNerney had his staff prepare a proposed plan for military linguist pay. The final proposal consisted of a matrix showing language proficiency on one axis and the language difficulty categories on the other. This proposal was later enacted into law by Congress for all DoD military personnel.

Academic initiatives

Finding DLIFLC's instructional staff lumped into three unwieldy language groups, each headed by a "Group Chief," McNerney was able to get approval to reorganize into seven smaller language "schools" each under a "Director," which later on became "Dean." He was also able to get TRADOC approval to change the manpower staffing level from 1.52 instructors per student section to 1.85 instructors per student section. He revitalized the faculty development program for newer instructors and entered into an agreement with the Monterey Institute of International Studies for a Masters Degree in the Teaching of Foreign Languages for faculty members, using staff and faculty training funds for tuition. He proposed and got approval to increase the length of Arabic courses to 63 weeks overcoming strong objections from the Air Force and Navy. He also proposed that the other Category IV languages (Chinese, Japanese and Korean) be extended to 63 weeks on a number of occasions, but did not receive approval during his tenure. In an effort to update language training materials both at DLIFLC and around the globe, he secured funding for more modern technology and equipment, including: large antennae to receive live foreign language broadcasts via satellite; video cassette recorders that could play the European speed of PAL I, PAL II and SECAM in addition to the U.S. NTSC standard to give students the capability to view recent video tapes from a wide range of countries

He was totally, completely and personally in touch with everyone and everything that was going on at DLIFLC.

(including those behind the Iron Curtain); and video teleconferencing equipment to conduct refresher training throughout the world using DLIFLC instructors. He also insisted on a high level of cultural awareness in the language learning process and procured a wide range of ethnic musical instruments, a number of pianos and even a Chinese Dragon for use during cultural events.

Language course development

Responsibility for the development of major language courses and non-resident instructional material was vested in a single directorate and was a disaster in terms of organization and efficiency. McNerney stripped out some of the support functions and created a separate Instructional Media Center supporting the entire DLIFLC. He also created a Language Technology office to explore the latest technology for the delivery of foreign language instruction.

The major obstacle to efficiency was that there was not a single word processor at DLIFLC and the ability to type English and foreign language material on the same machine was extremely limited before the advent and availability of personal computers. Chinese was typed on a single vintage machine (probably early 1900's) on which the operator would have to be able to identify 7,000 ideograms arranged upside down and backwards, and then move a handle over it and a piece of cold type would come out of the tray and bang against the ribbon and paper. Japanese was written with a brush, reduced on a copier and then cut and pasted in place. McNerney had his staff assemble four separate proposals for word processors and was able to get a reluctant TRADOC to approve them although they wanted a single standard. The procurement of a Japanese-English machine serves as an example of some of the difficulties of this endeavor. After the head of the Japanese Department found a suitable machine in Japan, there were a myriad of procurement problems. The machine was a Fujitsu, but it was a model not sold in the United States. Fujitsu agreed to sell two machines and provide special arrangements for maintenance – probably as a matter of national honor. When the machines finally arrived all the instructions and even the bill of landing were in Japanese. The first non-Roman alphabet machine to arrive was an Arabic word processor with dual print wheels for Arabic and English that had been developed for the Saudis. The TRADOC Word Processing Officer later admitted to never having seen such a machine. Cyrillic alphabet machines also significantly improved the pace of course development work in Russian, Serbian/Croatian and other East European languages. Initial Chinese and Korean word processors did not have an English capability and for a while Chinese and Korean clerks had to cut and paste the material, but even this was a significant improvement.



Col. David McNerney at the dedication ceremony of Nicholson Hall in 1987 cuts cake with Karen Nicholson, the wife of Lt. Col. Arthur Nicholson, who was killed by a Soviet sentry in East Germany in 1985.

In addition to basic course development, progress was made in developing new Headstart programs and for some existing programs, a video track was developed under contract with UCLA using their studios with technical direction by a DLIFLC department head. There was tremendous progress made in non-resident training materials including Forces Command Language Maintenance Refresher and Improvement Course (FLAMRIC) and various other language refresher and maintenance programs.

Testing

When McNerney arrived at DLIFLC testing was also an unmitigated disaster with poorly written Defense Language Proficiency Tests (DLPT) I and II, and proficiency levels that did not track with other language agencies or academic standards. Most DLPTs were published in only one version, so linguists could virtually memorize the test items over the years. Since the tests did not evaluate speaking ability, the results provided no real index of a linguist's fluency in the foreign language. With the expertise of Dr. Ray Clifford (DLIFLC provost, then chancellor), McNerney instituted a completely new generation of DLPTs. A General Officers Steering Committee (GOSC) mandated DLPT III was created in multiple versions using the Interagency Roundtable Language (ILR) proficiency standards. DLPT III first had a taped speaking test; then it was changed to an Oral Proficiency Interview. At that time cryptologic linguists did not have to take the DLPT. Course grades determined graduation status. McNerney persuaded the National Security Agency to support giving all students the DLPT to ensure that the test was taken seriously, in line with GOSC emphasis. As a stopgap measure, they supported recalibrating the older DLPTs so that scores lined up with other agencies. McNerney gave great visibility to testing. He had every visitor briefed on the new test and emphasized the importance of standards. As DLPT III was

being developed, a DLPT IV was being planned. All of this required a tremendous long-term effort.

Civilian Personnel

McNerney found himself with a civilian workforce, one third of which were on temporary status, some for very extended periods of time. Since temporary hires did not get step pay increases, this was a serious morale issue. Over time he was able to double the size of the faculty and reduce the temporary hires to less than five percent. He also insisted on a robust use of performance pay which had been previously neglected. A major issue was that the faculty was divided into General Service and Excepted Service categories severely hindering personnel reassignments. He was able to get Department of the Army approval to reclassify all academic positions into Excepted Service. Then, with the assistance of Ms. Virginia Lamb, a GS-13 personnel management specialist, he started working on a concept which eventually would award faculty pay based on academic education, experience and performance rather than tenure. Officially initiated by the next Commandant, Col. Monte Bullard, this concept became the Faculty Personnel System and was finally approved by Congress some fifteen years later.

Union

When McNerney arrived at DLIFLC the federal employee Union had had a long standing adversarial relationship with the Command Group. This was resolved over time with the removal of a series of minor disagreements and a new Union contract that was perceived as fair by both sides. The relationship significantly improved with the election of Mr. Alfie Khalil as Union President after McNerney's tenure, leading to a very productive long-term relationship.

Administrative support

Major improvements were made in logistic support with the conversion to an automated Property Book and inventory system. Additionally, construction of the new Logistics Center with a concrete floor permitted workers to use a fork lift to handle pallets of books rather than the hand cart. Word processors were introduced to expedite secretarial work and paper shredders were introduced to destroy old student tests. A major long-term effort to replace DLIFLC's mainframe Harris computer, which required an inordinate programming effort, with an IBM computer, was also accomplished.

Staff meetings and quarterly award presentations

To keep communications constantly flowing, McNerney had a staff meeting every Tuesday, including his headquar-

ters staff, the school directors (later deans), staff offices, military units, and the garrison support personnel. Additionally, his quarterly awards presentations ensured anyone receiving any award at any level during the quarter, received it from the commandant. This included major cash awards like Sustained Superior Performance or Special Acts, but also length of service awards and even flag presentations for new citizens. The individuals, their friends, and the supervisors were invited, ensuring a large audience for all the honorees.

Teamwork and cooperation

McNerney was able to achieve an unprecedented level of teamwork, cohesiveness and camaraderie among the faculty and staff. He jump-started this evolution towards better communication by use of a weekly social gathering that he dubbed "Commandant's Call." On Wednesdays after class was over, the faculty and staff would gather at the Officers Club at 3:45 p.m. and spend the rest of the duty day socializing with supervisors, peers and subordinates. People who did not see each other for weeks or even months because of busy schedules had a chance to talk business or pleasure for an hour or so. Anyone could approach McNerney, the provost or the senior staff and engage them in conversations that encompassed a wide range of topics. They would talk about the budget, academic matters, course development, testing, the non-resident program, the Union, and all sorts of problems, issues and challenges. McNerney, particularly, listened carefully – even took notes and made sure follow-up action was taken where appropriate. These sessions generated an enormous amount of good will and cohesiveness not seen before or after the McNerney era. He also sent an individual personalized note to each staff and faculty member on their birthdays thanking them for their hard work at DLIFLC. Both he and Mrs. McNerney made a point of knowing each and every faculty member by name (along with pertinent family information). The resulting atmosphere was upbeat, collegial, almost resembling the interpersonal relations of a huge extended family and fostered a "can-do" attitude. McNerney did not ensconce himself in the headquarters building, but was constantly on the move dropping in on classes, faculty, and staff in their work environment. He was totally, completely and personally in touch with everyone and everything that was going on at DLIFLC.

In sum, McNerney's tenure brought about a wide range of significant improvements to DLIFLC during a period of major increase in the student population and associated faculty expansion. His accomplishments in the areas described above are forever impressed in the minds of many DLIFLC faculty and staff, who will always remember with nostalgia "*The McNerney Years.*" ♦



Evolution of technology in the classroom – from the 1940s to present

By Ben De La Selva

President, DLI Alumni Association

There was nothing high-tech about the early days at the Army Language School, as the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) was known back in the late 1940s, and students and teachers alike used orange crates for desks.

Obtaining blackboards was a major step forward at the time, and teachers had to make do with simple textbooks and the projection of their own voices to teach students language. During the 1950s, teachers produced textbooks with manual typewriters and in some languages the characters had to be manually written down with a pen or brushes. Audio-visual aids were exploited to a great extent. Apart from a wealth of pictorial aids, a wide range of three-dimensional objects were utilized, as well as mock-ups of battle sites known as military terrain (or sand) tables.

A push to introduce 78 RPM records in the late 40's and early 50's did not last long, as these could only be played in class and were not durable enough to be shuffled from classroom to classroom. In very few classes, students were issued record players and records for homework practice, but only during the initial pronunciation phase of the program. As for 78 RPM record labs, there is no written record available, and only scanty recollection from either students or teachers of that era.

It was not until the 1950s that the reel-to-reel tape recorder was introduced. This large 40-pound monster was used by the teacher in the classroom, where the same dialogues and mechanical drills contained in the textbooks were played over and over while the students repeated, substituted, modified, transformed, and expanded the models provided on the tapes. In some buildings a contraption between a classroom and a lab (called CLAB) was assembled. This contrivance consisted of a strip built around the classroom walls where a tape recorder and 10 student headsets could be plugged in. This setup was mainly used to administer tests to groups of students without going to a lab.

The reel-to-reel system was later converted into 36-position labs, where now three sections of students could be made to perform more of the same drills in unison, with only one teacher at the console. Obviously, the ratio of teachers needed for each section of 10 students was reduced to a minimum of 1:33. Later on, students could take the bulky tape recorder to their barracks or home, and perform the same drills in a more individualized fashion. They could memorize the daily dialogue, which had been

dissected into segments so as to provide a progressive lengthening of words into phrases, then into sentences, and finally into full dialogue lines. As dialogues were normally between two individuals, the student, with the help of the recordings, would memorize both dialogue parts and the following day pair up with another student to recite the lines in front of the teacher in class. As Voice of America recordings were received, they were duplicated and the tapes issued to students. Authentic reading materials consisted of newspapers and magazines that the language departments obtained several months after their publication. In the 1950s, some of the labs, auditoriums, and the bigger classrooms were used to show 16mm films that contained training materials and sometimes old movies.



Army Language School media center transfers audio lessons from 78 RPM records to more durable reel-to-reel tapes.

In the late 1960s, the overhead projector was introduced. The teacher was now able to use a piece of acetate and draw verb and other charts that he or she could project onto a screen. Later on these teacher-made charts could be duplicated and used by other teachers. Eventually, each teacher was issued a set of transparencies that were developed with each new course.

In the early 1970s, some teachers made use of circular carousels attached to a projector containing 35mm slides that projected onto a screen. The same principle was used with filmstrip kits, which advanced the slides in synchronization with a cassette tape player.

The cassette player was the big technological leap in the early and mid-1970s. The use of cassettes allowed students for the first time to carry their players from the classroom to the barracks and do some of the listening exercises on an individual basis. The first cassette players were about the size of a cereal box, and weighed several pounds. They were capable of recording, which some instructors took advantage of by assigning speaking tasks as homework, or recorded mock oral proficiency tests for the students.

In the 1970s and 1980s, the cassette lab replaced the

reel-to-reel lab, with a recorder installed in each student station. At this time, being able to play tapes at their own pace, students could do transcription and gisting (summarizing) exercises in the lab. During these two decades, the videocassette recorder (VCR) was introduced. Not only were teachers able to play cultural programs that the language departments purchased for the program, but also movies were eventually available. The ability to make their own videos at the Institute studios set off the creative juices of the faculty, who produced and modernized lots of adjunct materials to supplement old and new language courses.

For a short time in the late 1980s, the Institute experimented with wireless labs. In each building, certain classrooms were equipped with thin wire-antennas attached to the walls near the ceiling. Each classroom was also equipped with a rolling big box containing a cassette player with listening materials. The box sent signals to the wires, which in turn send the same signals to the students' headsets. Accordingly, students could move around the classroom with their wireless headsets on. Reception problems plagued these devices, with resultant failure.

The stand-alone PC computer, without a hard disk, appeared on the scene in the late 1980s. These were first used in conjunction with laser-disc players. For example, in 1988 DLIFLC obtained permission to convert the Arabic commercial program "From the Gulf to the Ocean" from film strip/cassette to laser disc technology. In this program, a laser disc player hooked up to a computer was used to deliver the introduction of Arabic lessons in 1990. The Arabic program was thus the first program at DLIFLC to have a stand-alone computer in every classroom.

In the early 1990s, there was an attempt to introduce the use of Apple computers at the Institute level. Accordingly, a short training course was mandatory for all instructors. As there was a dearth of software programs in the Apple platform, the IBM PC was the preferred option. Because Arabic course developers had been working on computer-based exercises for a couple of years, in 1990 the first stand alone computer lab was established in the Middle East School, then only one school. These stand-alone computer labs were established in all DLIFLC schools and most used commercial software and DLIFLC-developed programs. Unfortunately, many of these programs contained countless fill-in, multiple choice, and mechanical exercises. At the beginning these labs were not networked, providing only materials contained in each computer's hard drive, on diskettes, or CDs, many of them

developed in house. However, throughout the late 1990s, several schools were able to establish networked computer labs. For example, in 1997 two computer labs were networked in Middle East Schools I and II. Other DLIFLC schools subsequently networked their labs, using commercial software and DLIFLC-developed programs, and included Internet access.

By this time, the Educational Technology Division was producing language materials on CDs, and the language departments were able to have CD libraries available for students in the lab and to loan for home use, as more and more students were purchasing desktop computers for their own use. In the meantime, students were still carrying cassette players back and forth to the barracks, but these players were now made the size of a Walkman, and besides recording capabilities, some of them could adjust the speed of recording without altering the pitch.

In 1998, in a trial attempt to supplement the then recently developed Spanish course, every student in one Spanish class was issued a laptop computer. Laptops were principally used for assigning homework, which consisted of a CD that included some of the same workbook exercises in the textbooks. The program was discontinued mainly because the laptops were damaged beyond repair after just 24 weeks. Several laptops needed hard-drives and floppy drives replaced or repaired, latches were broken, buttons not working, etc. Unfortunately, the warranties had expired, and, alas, repairs could not be made.

In 2000-2001, after many DLIFLC buildings had been networked, a program dubbed TEC-1 began in the European and Latin American School (ELA). It consisted of a rolling cart equipped with a computer and 32-inch monitor, a VCR, and DVD player. This was the first Institute-level attempt to network a classroom computer to other computers in the building and to the Internet.

In 2001, an Institute initiative made ELA the recipient of two multi-media labs (MML), installed on the third floor of Munakata Hall (Bldg 610), which were connected to the DLIFLC-wide network. These labs brought colorful text, audio, and video from the teacher's console to individual student computer stations. In these 33-station labs, instructors had the ability to launch individual text, audio, and video files and send them to students for self-paced work. Instructors were able to give students lots of practice with Performance Final Learning Objectives (FLOs). At this time, instructors began developing materials in their offices and delivered these materials through a central clearing office to the MMLs. Two other labs were constructed in the



Army Language School students listen to lessons using reel-to-reel tapes.

Korean and Russian schools. These labs contained some new features, such as down under monitors, an Elmo Camera, and a wireless microphone that allowed the teacher to talk to all the students through their earphones from any place in the room. The second generation of MMLs installed in the rest of the schools was of the Linguatronics/Genesis type, replacing the initial hardware and software assembled by the Tandberg (now Sanako) Language Lab Company. As with any modernization, the old and the new labs co-existed. Due to budgetary and other constraints, some of the schools could not install new labs and found it necessary to leave the old cassette labs in place.

When the MMLs were first installed, there were no course materials ready for them, and the training offered by the lab company was not adequate for developing language materials. Accordingly, the schools felt under pressure to immediately digitize all the audio and video materials contained in the old courses. Fortunately, the new labs could combine text, audio, and colorful video on the same screen and in fact increased students' motivation greatly. Digitizing course materials using PCs made it easy to go to the next step, which was the creation of CDs containing documents (Doc), audio (MP3), and video (AVI) files. This technological advance made it possible to compress files in ways not imagined before. As a result, for example, the Spanish course homework numbering some 30 audiocassettes could all fit on one CD. Accordingly, each school started issuing MP3 players capable of playing CDs with text and audio files. Additionally, some departments purchased MP3 players with an internal storage capacity of 512 megabytes. With the introduction of MP3 players, some schools flatly discontinued using audio-cassette players and tapes in all their programs. But as with the labs, audiocassette and MP3 players were allowed to coexist.

As early as 2002, with the creation of the Emerging Languages Task Force (ELTF), the use of tablet PCs and Smart Boards, or interactive white boards, was initiated. Accordingly, students were issued portable tablets for classroom and homework use. As most ELTF courses were being developed as they were taught, the course contents were immediately digitized and loaded onto a server. Students would then select the appropriate tasks assigned by the teachers and would download them to their PCs. The success of the interactive white boards in ELTF was so great that the Institute leadership decided to install them DLIFLC-wide. Through such a device all text, audio, and video materials could be delivered. The inter-activeness of

the Smart Board has literally transformed the classroom into an interactive working and learning environment, with the combined power of a projector, computer and whiteboard. Teachers can do everything they do on their computer – and more, by simply using their index finger as a mouse, to touch the whiteboard and highlight key points, access applications and websites, and write notes in electronic ink. Instructors are then able to save their work to files that can be reused later, printed, e-mailed or posted to a website. At the end of 2004, there was a Smart Board in every DLIFLC classroom.

In 2004, the Institute saw an opportunity to introduce in large scale the use of laptops. The ELTF programs had already switched the previous year from tablet PCs to laptops. In 2005, the other DLIFLC schools followed suit and started issuing laptops to every student. One of the assignments was to have students record speaking tasks that were sent to the teacher by e-mail. The teacher in turn would listen/review the file and gave feedback to the student in class. In 2005-06, iPods began making their way into DLIFLC classrooms. With a bigger display and much bigger storage capacity than MP3 players, students were better able to navigate through the myriad of exercises stored on the devices. The latest iPods could store 20 and more gigabytes of audio files, making it possible for students to carry a whole language course in a gadget the size of a pack of cigarettes. As advertised, these tiny giants could carry an entire library of music – up to 20,000 songs. Presently, some of the schools (e.g., the Middle East Schools) have set up websites on DLIFLC's intranet and have made available hundreds of hours of video programs and movies from the multi-language channel SCOLA, Aljazeera, and other sources. These files can in turn be converted to iPod-ready files for students to download into their pocket-size prodigies. As new generations of iPods are being purchased, the imagination of the teachers is finding other ways to utilize them to enhance language teaching and learning. True to the advertising slogan: “*Movies, TV shows and music are now playing on an iPod near you.*”

Since the 1950s, advances in technology have been systematically applied to language teaching and learning at DLIFLC. Appropriately, DLIFLC has gradually moved from chalkboards and overhead projectors to Smart boards, from reel-to-reel labs to multi-media labs, and from analog tape recorders to digital iPods. Without doubt, one can say with confidence that the application of technology at DLIFLC has indeed come a long way. ♦

DLIFLC has gradually moved from chalkboards and overhead projectors to smart boards, from reel-to-reel labs to multi-media labs, and from analog tape recorders to digital iPods.



An overview of the history of the ILR language proficiency skill level descriptions and scale

By Dr. Martha Herzog, DLIFLC Vice Chancellor for Evaluation and Standardization, retired

Many have often asked how the language proficiency scale got started at the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC), which today sets the standard for foreign language testing in the Department of Defense (DoD).

The foreign language competence of U. S. Government employees was not examined during the first 175 years of our history. However, in the 1950s, as the war with Japan was followed by the war in Korea, the United States' lack of preparation in foreign languages was recognized as a serious problem. In 1952 the Civil Service Commission was directed to inventory the language ability of Government employees and develop a register of these employees' language skills, background, and experience.

Unfortunately, the Commission had no system for conducting an inventory, no proficiency test, and no criteria for test construction. Available, instead, were employees' grades in language courses and self-reports on job applications. Self-reports were likely to state something like "fluent in French" or "excellent in German," as there had never been standardized grading across academic institutions in this country. The Commission concluded that the United States Government needed a system that was objective, applicable to all languages and all civil service positions, and unrelated to any particular language curriculum. Because the academic community did not have such a system, the Government had to develop its own.

Initially the concept met resistance. Some Government agencies feared loss of autonomy, and everyone understood that test results could embarrass many employees who claimed to be "fluent" or "excellent."

Nevertheless, the Foreign Service Institute (FSI) began to work on solving the problem under the leadership of their dean, Dr. Henry Lee Smith. He headed an interagency committee that devised a single scale ranging from 1 to 6; that is, the first scale did not distinguish among the four skills but simply rated "language." Although other government agencies lost interest for a time, FSI continued to refine the scale.

In 1955, a survey of all Foreign Service officers based on the new scale showed that fewer than half reported a level of language "useful to the service." The extent of the problem was further highlighted in 1956, when only 25 percent of entering Foreign Service Officers were tested at a "useful" level of proficiency in any foreign language. In November of

1956, the Secretary of State announced a new language policy, including the requirement that language ability "will be verified by tests." In 1958, language proficiency tests became "mandatory" for all Foreign Service Officers.

FSI's first efforts to test according to the scale were not reliable. The faculty found it difficult to apply the scale consistently, so results varied from tester to tester. Tests were considered subjective and thought to be much easier in some languages than others. However, many valuable lessons were learned from initial tests. FSI built upon this experience to revise the scale. One extremely important decision involved changing the single scale for "language" to separate scales for each skill. The scale was eventually standardized to six base levels, ranging from 0 (= no functional ability) to 5 (= equivalent to an educated native speaker).



Dean of Proficiency Standards Division, Sabine Atwell, conducts Oral Proficiency Interview tester-training with French instructors.

Equally important was the creation in 1958 of an independent testing office at FSI headed by Frank Rice and Claudia Wilds, who had studied with Professor John B. Carroll. Carroll, then at Harvard, served as a consultant as the test was designed. The FSI Testing Unit developed a structured interview in direct support of the 6-point scale. Standardized factors were developed for scoring, and the interview format ensured that all factors were tested. The interaction of test format and rating factors was crucial to the success of the test. Emphasis on a well-structured interview reduced the problems associated with the earlier tests. The development of standardized rating factors reduced subjectivity. The factors provided a basis for testers' agreement on important aspects of test performance and helped to focus their attention during testing and rating. This innovation created the framework for checking inter-rater reliability, and a high degree of consistency in scoring resulted.

The interview soon became the standard method of testing at FSI. For many years it was known world-wide as the

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ILR HOMEPAGE

<http://govtilr.org>

FSI interview, or just “the FSI.” The interview and the scale gained wide recognition, and many other Government agencies adopted the system, including the Peace Corps for the testing of all its overseas volunteers. In 1968 several agencies cooperatively wrote formal descriptions of the base levels in four skills—speaking, listening, reading, and writing. The resulting scale became part of the United States Government Personnel Manual. The original challenge to inventory Government employees’ language ability could finally be met.

New developments continued. In 1976 NATO adopted a language proficiency scale related to the 1968 document. By 1985, the U. S. document had been revised under the auspices of the Interagency Language Roundtable (ILR) to include full descriptions of the “plus” levels that had gradually been incorporated into the scoring system. Since this time, the official Government Language Skill Level Descriptions have been known as the “ILR Scale” or the “ILR Definitions.” Although specific testing tasks and procedures now differ somewhat from one agency to another for operational reasons, all U.S. Government agencies adhere to the ILR Definitions as the standard measuring stick of language proficiency.

Also in the 1980s, the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) developed and published for academic use Proficiency Guidelines based on the ILR definitions. Like the ILR scale, the ACTFL guidelines have undergone refinement. ACTFL also developed an Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI) similar to the Government test and began training educators to test according to their scale. ACTFL and the Government have worked together closely for almost twenty years to ensure that the two proficiency testing systems are complementary.

The ILR Scale at DLIFLC

DLIFLC did not test according to the ILR language proficiency scale until 1981, but since that time the 11-point scale has become the foundation of every facet of the language program.

Earlier tests such as the DLPT I and II were intended to be norm-referenced. They were not statistically related to the criteria of the scale. Nevertheless, to meet reporting requirements, the scale was lightly grafted onto the scoring system without regard to the content of the 1968 descriptors.

Examinees and user agencies noted that it was far easier to obtain a given level in one language than another, although the resulting scores did not appear to be related to perceived language competence. By August 1981, user dissatisfaction led the General Officers Steering Committee to task DLIFLC with developing an accurate proficiency testing system in line with Government standards.

Thanks to an initiative by Charles Middaugh, the Civilian Personnel Officer, the Government standards and the OPI were already in place in DLIFLC’s faculty recruitment system. The Civilian Personnel Office had organized the training and certification of testers in Arabic, English, German, Korean, and Russian.

These testers provided the foundation for a large-scale effort to recalibrate the existing DLPTs and to develop a new battery of DLPT IIIs with specifications based on the scale. In 1982, new conversion tables reflecting recalibration were introduced world-wide. By 1983, DLPT IIIs gradually began to replace the earlier tests.

DLIFLC also played a major role on the ILR committee that revised the level descriptions and took the lead in demonstrating to the Services the advantages of incorporating “plus levels” into their data systems.

As part of the DLPT III battery, speaking was officially tested for the first time. Initially, a taped speaking test was tried. However, examinee and rater frustration with this method of testing led to the implementation of the OPI or all graduating students in the mid-1980s.

The training of testers in every language led to Institute-wide familiarity with the scale. The ILR scale is used to construct specifications for the DLPTs. Multiple-choice items cover the topics and tasks associated with each pertinent level. Separate face-to-face criterion tests are conducted for the purpose of validating the machine-scorable DLPTs. Cut-off scores for each level are based on the relationship of examinees’ scores on the two types of ILR level testing.

The scale also provides the basis of Language Needs Assessments, used to determine learning objectives for specific categories of learners. The scale creates a framework for curricular design, and it is essential for faculty training.

The ILR scale ensures comparability of scores across the many languages taught at the Institute; and, finally, it ensures comparability with the objectives and assessments across Government agencies. ♦



Continuously striving for excellence – a personal perspective of the Arabic Schools

By Maj. John Hofmenschen*

Associate Dean of Middle East III School

In the late 1980s the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) was a different place than it is now. Arabic was just a sideshow with Russian being the language “du jour.” So many linguists were learning Russian that an entire series of buildings were constructed and called “Russian Village.” Even the street signs were in Russian. We were envious. We were Arabic students.

The Arabic program was located in Pomerene Hall in the center of the campus with only a few hundred students. The curriculum had been developed in the 1970s and was known as the Abdulmalek course. The memories of the first few days are still vivid in my mind. “*Hal hatha finjanoon am mendeelun?*” (Is this a cup or a napkin?) This was the first phrase we learned. Most of us wondered, “What type of moron would have to ask a question like that?” There was no explanation that the intent of this sentence was to introduce the grammatical usage of the word “or” in the form of a question. The course was grammar intensive, but not all teachers knew grammar well enough to explain it. There were some who understood grammar very well, but could only explain it in Arabic.

Here is an example of a typical student-teacher dialogue:

Instructor: “*It is an idhafa.*”

Student: “*But what is an idhafa?*”

Instructor: “*The idhafa is... the idhafa!*”

Since our graduation requirement was only a 1+ in reading, 1+ in listening, and 1 in speaking in 1987, and there was no introduction to the Interagency Language Roundtable (ILR) testing scale, few students worried about attaining high scores, as they knew they would continue with further training in their units, regardless of their scores. Additionally, there was no Internet or international TV program available such as SCOLA today, from which to draw authentic materials. Thus, the Middle East and Arabic remained somewhat of a mystery to us, even though we were diligently studying what we thought was a language we would never use.

Little did we know of the changes going on in Washington, D.C.! The General Officer Steering Committee in 1989 decided the course would be lengthened from the 47 weeks of Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) and a dialect (Egyptian, Syrian or Gulf), to 63 weeks, during which MSA would be taught for 47, and a dialect for 16 more weeks. The standards were changed to

the current 2, 2, 1+ to graduate and were more strictly enforced. The Middle East School had already started changing while we were still trying to think of a unit, any unit, stationed in the field, which used Arabic linguists.

In 1988, we were all envious when classes started using the ‘Gulf to Ocean’ program with its more global approach to learning. We used to strain our ears to listen in on conversations in the room next door as stories of Layla, Khalil and Lulu were played out. It sounded like a lot more fun than what we were doing. It even had music and pictures! This was part of a pilot in 1988 to bring in the latest developments in teaching theory and methodology. The new program would be part of the reason the school, even during the 47-week program, would see a 31 percent increase in the number of graduates who achieved a level 2 in reading and 2 in listening.



DLIFLC Arabic students work in class in 2006.

When I returned as an officer student in 2000, I thought the Army had made a mistake by placing me in a basic course again. After all, I had been to Desert Storm as a linguist and done liaison, interrogation, counter-intelligence and voice intercept missions. When I told my assignment officer that I was placed in the wrong class and that I had studied Arabic before, she replied, “That was when you were enlisted. You are an officer now, and officers go through the basic course.” I tried to fight it, but eventually submitted to the will of the Army, which in retrospect was an excellent idea.

At first the classes were boring, but before long there was material introduced that I had not studied. The old Abdulmalek course was nowhere to be found, which was a good thing. The Institute had retired it in 1993. The “Gulf to Ocean” program, while a bit schmaltzy, was fun and a break from everyday drills and vocabulary memorization and we had SCOLA – which was a direct pipeline into the world of Arabic TV for us.

The teaching team included one of my best instructors from the 80s, but many others were new and had backgrounds in education and second language acquisition. The intensity of the course was much higher than I had remembered. While I still didn’t have to study much, I did have to

study. As we were graduating, the schools were installing a new technology called the Smart Board, which is an interactive whiteboard that allows students to view direct video feeds from Arabic news channels and provides access to other interactive computer-based activities. Again, like in the 80s, I walked by the doors of the classrooms with Smart Boards and wondered how great it would have been to have had this type of technology to learn from.

The students also had a greater knowledge of the mechanics of the course. The school was attentive in letting students know what was expected of them. One of the officers in class had the scales for each test, letting us know exactly how many questions we could miss to obtain a certain grade. Immediately after a test, students would try to calculate what they thought they had scored. We critiqued the tests in grueling sessions where students would haggle over every point they could get. The school also laid out what exact tasks had to be accomplished to earn the required 2, 2, 1+ on our Defense Language Proficiency Test (DLPT). We knew that our future careers were riding on our ability to attain those scores, thus most of the students diligently studied at home and took their studies seriously. Of course, there were the few who still didn't care and didn't apply themselves, but they were eliminated early.

Then there was the other type – the sponge. The sponge is a person who does not study outside of class because they do not have to. They have the unique gift of being able to hear a word or phrase once and absorb it in their memory forever. The “sponge” in my class one day made a point of comparing her grades with mine. “So, you say you studied this before? I didn't and I scored a 99 while you only got what? A 98? How did that happen?” Since she was young enough to be my daughter, I accepted the ribbing gracefully. “I missed that one purposely so you could feel better about yourself,” I retorted.

About 75 percent of the students in my class received passing grades on their DLPT test. Their success was due to the joint effort made by both the teaching teams and students. The key this time was the devotion of the teachers to student success. I don't know if it made a difference that five of the 20 students were officers, but even the lowest ranking person in the sections was trying their hardest.

There were many things the students in class thought should be changed at the time. In the 80s we were just cogs in the wheel, but in 2000, many wanted to change things that seemed far out of reach. Now that I have returned to DLIFLC for the third time, and serve as an associate dean, I am in a position to point out the strengths and weaknesses of our programs, help implement ideas, and witness progress.

In conjunction with a 2003 study of the Defense Language Program, the Department of Defense decided the ultimate goal for all linguists should be 3 in reading, 3

in listening, and 2+ in speaking, according to the ILR scale. In an attempt to reach this goal gradually, DLIFLC has first set out to increase the requirements for DLPT scores from 2, 2, 1+ to 2+, 2+, 2 by 2010. Though this may not sound like a big change, a half of a grade higher at this Institute actually represents a 75 percent higher grade.

With these new requirements in mind, the Institute decided that several elements could contribute to the raising of the bar: smaller class sizes, better curriculum, better teaching skills, and higher Defense Language Aptitude Battery (DLAB) test scores, (an entry level test which determines the student's aptitude to learn a foreign language.) After much debate, the Institute leadership decided to implement the Proficiency Enhancement Program (PEP), which reduces the class size from 10 students to six, thus allowing more teacher-student contact hours. The curriculum was carefully reworked and fine-tuned so that the first two semesters would contain grammar and concentrate on vocabulary building, while the third semester contained more authentic materials, designed to bring the students to a higher level of proficiency. The logic behind this strategy was that students needed to be exposed to more complicated materials found at a level 3, dealing with more elusive concepts, in order to even bring them to the 2+ level. Because of the increased demand of proficiency upon the graduates, new students are now arriving with DLAB scores 10 points higher than in previous years.



Arabic students conduct a mock language training exercise at “Impossible City”, Ft. Ord, with their instructors.

Over the course of 19 years of my on-and-off involvement with DLIFLC I have learned that the only constant is change. The Arabic contingent at DLIFLC has gone from being one school with a slow-paced curriculum of moderate importance, to three large schools, with over 300 faculty and staff and some 1,000 students. Today Arabic is considered one of the most important languages to learn in order to win the War on Terror, in the defense of our nation. The Middle East Schools have never lost site of this goal and continually strive for excellence. ♦

**The name of the author has been changed for security reasons.*



One day in the life of John Smith – a brief account of the Russian program since the 1970s

By Luba Grant, Dean of Asian School I*



Dean of Asian School I, Luba Grant.

“Ne strelyajte! Eto ya, a ne utka!” (Don’t shoot! It’s me... not a duck!) – this was my introduction to teaching the Russian Basic Course in the early 1970s. Upon arrival at the Defense Language Institute Foreign language Center (DLIFLC) I was struck by the scope, rapid pace, and detailed organization of the program.

Having come straight from Indiana University, Bloomington, where students learned Russian at a leisurely pace from selected commercial textbooks by practicing myriads of declensions and conjugations and diligently translating Pushkin’s Eugene Onegin into English, I was quite impressed by the “instant immersion” strategy of the teachers, who immediately launched into the language with their students who did not understand a word of Russian.

The daily learning activities of a student studying Russian in those days were quite predictable. Every single lesson of the Russian course (and other language courses, as a matter of fact) had been developed around a lengthy dialog (up to five pages long) that the students had to memorize and recite from start to finish every third day. So, in those days, if you had gone from one student section to another at eight o’clock in the morning, you would have heard the same questions and the same responses from the pairs of students whose turn it was to recite the dialog.

Was that the most exciting part of the day? From the teacher’s point of view, you can bet it wasn’t! I don’t think most of the students found this lesson to be very exciting either. As the two students were taking their turn reciting the dialog, the rest were probably peacefully dozing off as often as they could.

The dialog was always followed by numerous pattern, transformation, and substitution drills, as well as dialog recombination practiced either in class or in the language lab. “Listen and repeat,” was probably the most frequent command given in the classroom and in the lab at that time. And the translations! Don’t forget those! The students translated long unrelated sentences into Russian as part of their homework, and new sentences, often made up by the teacher to illustrate intricate grammatical points, would be translated in class, where one student would write the

translation on the board, while others wrote in their notebooks. The class would carefully analyze the mistakes prior to proceeding to a new sentence. The entire cycle of the lesson – dialog preparation, dialog recitation, pattern drills, translation – would be repeated, and repeated... and so on, and so forth, for 47 weeks! Sounds boring? Maybe. But the course also had many reading and conversation hours that were often enjoyed by the students.

In the 1960s, prior to my coming to DLIFLC, reading and the follow-up discussions were already important parts of the course. *Dva Kapitana* (Two Captains) and *A Hero of Our Time* were read by the students with great interest and pleasure. Conversations were carried out in class on various topics, and many former students fondly recall the stories their teachers told them about their interesting lives prior to their arrival to the United States. Students were expected to speak only Russian all the time. Emphasis on proper pronunciation and intonation was very strong. Because of everyone’s commitment, the faculty and students were able to create an immersion environment that was very conducive to language learning and helped students to acquire knowledge about the culture and customs of the country through many out-of-class activities, such as picnics, trips to San Francisco, and participation in the famous Russian choir led by a talented teacher, Mr. Nikolai Vorobiov.

The Russian Basic Course used in the early 1970s was based on the materials developed about a decade earlier by DLIFLC teachers under the guidance of Dr. Anatoly Flaume. It consisted of some 150 lessons, but by the 1970s only about 120 lessons were taught during the 47 weeks of instruction. The course was divided into two tracks. One was the Army track, which was the original version of the course, “textbooks with gray covers” as fondly referred to by Russian faculty, with which all students would begin their studies. The other was the Russian Basic Aural Comprehension Course, which was a new version, “with blue covers,” developed later by a different team. This track was used by Air Force, Navy, and Marine students in the second half of the course.

The original course, in addition to teaching the language, introduced students to the geography of the Soviet Union and a detailed version of the origins and history of Russia, covering, rather extensively for a basic course, significant Russian tsars and major events in pre-revolutionary Russia, ending with the October Revolution and a brief overview of post-revolutionary Russia. *“Govorite tol’ko po-russki!”* (Speak Russian only!) was a phrase frequently heard by the students in and outside their classrooms.

The Russian Basic Aural Comprehension Course greatly reduced the area-studies component of the original Russian Basic Course and put more emphasis on job-specific objectives: transcription, number dictation, and numbers in

context. Students taking this portion of the course could be observed in the lab listening to “real” communication between two or more military personnel. “Hawk, Hawk! This is Eagle. Over!” sounded quite realistic, even though the scenarios were written and recorded by DLIFLC faculty.

In the last part of the course, all students would be divided into groups in order to give them a strong dose of service-specific military terminology before sending them off to their next assignment. Thus, Army students would be taught, often by civilian faculty, the Russian words for trajectories, munitions, tracked vehicles, and many other military terms that remained mysterious to the faculty and the students alike. Air Force students could translate perfectly from one language to another radio communications during aircraft take-offs and landings, and many of the students told me later how, during commercial flights in the U.S., they would listen to the pilot’s transmissions in English and translate it silently into Russian while waiting for a take-off or landing. Navy and Marine students, likewise, built an extensive vocabulary of the different types of ships and underwater munitions while learning Russian.

In 1974-1975 the two aforementioned programs were replaced by a course that was based on a different approach to language teaching, the delayed-speech approach. This course was developed under the leadership of Dr. Valerian Postovsky. The students taking this course were not required to practice speaking at the beginning of the program. Instead, they were exposed to a series of different picture frames while listening to Russian and when prompted, would mark the correct responses on their answer sheets.

Speaking would be introduced later in the course with the belief, that, due to their earlier exposure to the language, the students would be able to pick up this skill faster.

By the early 1980s a new Russian Basic Course was written by DLIFLC’s Course Development Division Russian branch, headed by Dr. Alex Vorobiov. This course eliminated the memorization of long dialogs, substantially modernized the area-studies component of the program, and stressed practice in job-related skills.

Beginning in the late 1980s and continuing into the 1990s, foreign-language teaching took a turn towards the communicative, proficiency-oriented approach. For this purpose, yet another Russian Basic Course was written in Russian School I, where I was dean. This time, an in-house approach was taken. The new course was developed by a

group of Russian teachers with Dr. George Rubinstein as a project officer. The course was thematically organized and presented grammar and vocabulary in context. Each lesson had a discourse portion based on the then-current situation in the former Soviet Union, around which numerous activities, integrating all three skills – listening, reading, and speaking – were built. Like the previous course of the early ‘80s, this course eliminated dialog memorization and encouraged real-life communication. The sudden collapse of the Soviet Union made the area studies component of this course prematurely obsolete, but the core of the program continues to be used by the Russian faculty until this day.

Thanks to the latest technology, e.g., Internet access and interactive whiteboards known as Smart Boards, instructors can now supplement the course with current authentic materials, without waiting for back issues of Russian newspapers to arrive by mail. With instruction reinforced by clearly defined Final Learning Objectives (proficiency and job-related objectives), if visitors go from classroom to classroom today, instead of the meticulous repetition of prescribed materials, they will often see the students working in small groups on real-life tasks that address student learning needs. Since the outcome of the interaction often depends on student input, these days it is very difficult to guess what the consequences of such conversation will be. Indeed, a day in the life of student John Smith, aka Ivan Denisovich Kuznetsov (literal translation of the first and last names), based on Alexander Solzhenitsyn’s famous book *One Day in the Life of Ivan Denisovich*, is no longer as predictable as it was in the ‘60s and ‘70s.

There were other, less widely used Russian courses or portions of courses at DLIFLC, e.g., the Basic Course Enrichment Program (BCEP). This course mainly emphasized job-related skills for students enroute to Goodfellow Air Force Base. “Suggestopedia,” also called the Lozanov method, was tried in the late 1970s. In spite of the prescribed techniques of a relaxed atmosphere in the course, soft lights, rocking armchairs, baroque music, and no homework, the experimental approach did not prove itself, and after just one iteration, all students returned to studying Russian the old-fashioned way. The Russian saying, *Povtoreniye – mat’ ucheniya* (Repetition/Review is the mother of learning) ruled once again. And instead of baroque music, Presidio of Monterey audiences would hear students enthusiastically singing popular Russian songs,

At its peak, DLIFLC’s Russian program consisted of two-and-a-half schools devoted to Russian language and area studies, with more than 200 Russian teachers and nearly 2,000 Russian students.

such as *Katyusha*, *Podmoskovnye Vechera* (Moscow Nights), and *Dorogoy Dlinnoyu* (Those Were the Days, My Friends).



Russian department participates in the "Parade of Nations" at Soldier Field in mid 80s.

Experimentation, a positive trend, continued and sometime in the 1980s, the Air Force tried to send its students to study Russian at DLIFLC for only 37 weeks, instead of the programmed 47 weeks. This proved to be too short, and the course length to this day lasts the full 47 weeks.

One major change that can be seen in the Russian program, and all programs at DLIFLC, is the way students are now tested. Needless to say, all students in the past were diligently graded by their teachers for just about every activity in and outside the classroom: dialog recitation, class participation, homework, lab performance, effort, etc. And then there were endless tests... at the beginning, middle and end of the program. In addition to frequent vocabulary quizzes, larger tests were given every second week. The latter consisted mostly of translation from English into Russian and answering (yes, in Russian) questions on area studies and history. Later times saw an increased use of many true/false and multiple-choice tests. Then, of course, there was a grade for one's speaking ability. Finally, all these grades were averaged together and that would be student's grade for the program that would allow them to graduate.

Today DLIFLC is accredited by the Accrediting Commission for Community and Junior Colleges of the Western Association of Schools and Colleges (WASC). Language programs are divided into semesters, with various course numbers following university patterns. All students earn college credits for their coursework at DLIFLC. Each course is graded separately. But even more important is that as a requirement to graduate from DLIFLC, students are tested in Listening and Reading skills by taking the Defense Language Proficiency Test (DLPT) and have their speaking skills evaluated by certified testers (not their own teachers)

trained by the Testing and Evaluation Division of DLIFLC. Therefore, in addition to their program course grades, all students receive language proficiency levels in these three skills, which are based on the Interagency Skill Levels (Interagency Language Roundtable – ILR) standards.

The size of the Russian program closely reflected the nature of the Cold War between the United States and the Soviet Union. At one time, the Russian program was so large that it required the creation of two off-site campuses, one at Lackland Air Force Base, and another at the Presidio of San Francisco. At its peak, DLIFLC's Russian program consisted of two-and-a-half schools devoted to Russian language and area studies, with more than 200 Russian teachers and nearly 2,000 Russian students. Today, subsequent to the fall of the Soviet Union, the program is significantly smaller and is combined into one school together with the Spanish language and several other smaller programs. In spite of its size, the Russian program retains its status and reputation for trying innovative approaches, and was the first program at DLIFLC to make the full transition to the Proficiency Enhancement Program (PEP). The PEP program at DLIFLC will attempt to bring 80 percent of the students to higher proficiency levels (2+/2+/2) by reducing the section size from ten to six students for category III and IV languages and by modernizing the curricula. In addition, the Defense Language Aptitude Battery test, used to determine a student's aptitude in language acquisition, will require higher entry scores by 10 points in each language.

Much has changed since the early 1970s when I first began teaching at DLIFLC, but throughout its history there have always been two constants. The first has been all the fine young men and women who have studied here in the past, are here now, and will be arriving here in the future. They are the Institute's reason for being. The second constant has been the teachers, whose dedication to their work and their commitment to the students has been present since the very beginning. Whether they were former immigrants who escaped the Soviet Union during World War II, or arrived much later from the post-war Soviet Union, or are coming from today's Russian Federation and former Soviet republics – the majority of the teachers are devoted to their profession and take pride in the accomplishments of their students. They and their students form a strong bond and together, faculty and students are the source of all the memories and so many accomplishments. ♦

**Luba Grant was the Dean of Russian Schools I and II from 1987 to 1993; Dean of Middle East School II (Arabic) from 1993 to 2002. Currently she is the Dean of Asian School I (Chinese, Japanese, Thai, and Tagalog).*



Defense Language Proficiency Tests I, II, III, IV, and 5. Which one did you take?

By Dr. Martha Herzog, DLIFLC Vice Chancellor for Evaluation and Standardization, retired



Dr. Martha Herzog receives gifts at her retirement party in 2005.

Lacking historical documentation, it is assumed that between 1948-1958 tests generated at the school were probably called Army Language Tests. Jointly developed by the Army Language School and TAGO (Adjutant General's Office) in 25 languages, no copies seem to have survived. We only know that in 1954 the Army Assistant Chief of Staff for Intelligence reported that these tests did not discriminate between high and low proficiency linguists and had been overexposed. That report explained diplomatically, "Due to pressures at the time, these tests were developed without resorting to many of the usual research checks."

In the period between 1958 and 1974 the Assistant Chief of Staff for Intelligence tasked the Army Language School and TAGO to revise the 25 existing tests and develop new ones in 15 languages. This version, introduced around 1958, was called the Army Language Proficiency Test; the name was changed to Defense Language Proficiency Test when the name of the language school itself was changed to Defense Language Institute in 1963.

These tests contained 60 listening comprehension items and 60 reading comprehension items. In both skills the first 20 items tested a single word or phrase in context; items 21-40 required the examinee to recognize the correct translation of a single sentence; items 41-60 each consisted of a short paragraph, with one question testing over-all comprehension of the text.

Today's test developers would find many shortcomings in the testing construct and procedures used to develop these tests. Developers produced original tests in Russian

and Chinese. The official policy was to use the Russian test as a prototype for all alphabet-based languages and the Mandarin Chinese as a prototype for all "picture-based languages." Except for Russian and Chinese, the test content was not sensitive to either the language or the culture. The other thirty-eight language tests were simply translations. Although the two prototypes were extensively validated, the others were not. If an item seemed unsuitable for cultural or linguistic reasons, the developers simply substituted a new item, without revalidating the test or adjusting the cut-off scores.

However, the tests represented many good testing ideas prevalent during that period. A needs analysis was conducted. A large validation population was used; 132 Russian linguists and 196 Chinese linguists participated. A three-part scale was used for setting cut-offs during the period before the current scale was developed: Very successful, Satisfactory, and Limited Capacity (for use in emergency only).

Some of these DLPTs are still in use today. Examples include Bulgarian, Lithuanian, and Slovenian. However, the designation "DLPT I" did not appear on the test and was never used until the DLPT II came along.

During the early 1970s, the now renamed Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) was funded to replace many of the existing tests. From 1974 to 1983 most of this work was done jointly by DLIFLC and the Educational Testing Service. Many language school instructors served as item writers or reviewers.

The test design for the DLPT II was identical to the DLPT I. However, in this iteration, all tests were language specific and culturally unique. Most of the DLPT IIs were introduced around 1974; however, development continued sporadically through the early 1980s. During the later years, alternate forms were developed for high enrollment languages such as Russian, Czech, and German. Two DLPT IIs, Dutch/Flemish and Swedish, that were introduced in 1978, are still in use today. Still older tests that remain in the system include Burmese, Hungarian, and Lao.

Also during the 1970s, it was decided to test only the reading skill in a few languages. These tests were known as the Defense Language Reading Proficiency Test (DLRPT). The rationale for this decision seems to have had more to do with the availability of resources than the number of linguists requiring only the reading skill. At one time, a formula was used to estimate the listening skill based on the reading score; however, this practice was soon eliminated from the system. Test design was similar to the reading portion of the DLPT I and II. Among the languages still tested with the DLRPT are Amharic and Hausa.

Until the 1980s, test items were written, reviewed, and

revised by native speakers using their own ideas of typical language in the culture. Beginning in 1982, and with the advent of the DLPT III, an effort was made to capitalize on increased availability of print and broadcast material from around the world. Texts came from authentic sources in the target culture. Some were adapted or edited; many reflected the exact text read or heard by native readers or listeners. There were a variety of item types. Most frequently discussed was a “modified cloze” format in which several words or phrases were omitted from an authentic paragraph. The test was sometimes called “lucky charms” because symbols, such as stars and triangles, were used to categorize longer lists of options that might fit into the omitted portions and successfully complete the thought with grammatical accuracy. Perhaps this test was ahead of

ally introduced in 2001, and is called the DLPT5, with the intent to be electronically delivered.

In the high enrollment languages with large linguist populations who can participate in traditional test validation, the tests will continue to be multiple-choice. In low enrollment languages with very restricted validation populations, the format will be constructed response; that is, the linguist will be required to produce the correct answers, rather than simply recognize them.

After the events of September 11, 2001 it became necessary to test in some additional languages, such as Dari and Pashto, very rapidly. To meet this need, DLIFLC produced a version of the DLPT called the Guided Proficiency Test. These reading and/or listening tests were administered face-to-face or by telephone and FAX by a



This version of the test is the first to be specifically designed for delivery on the World Wide Web and represents a milestone in foreign language testing by the U.S. Government.

its time. Today, interactive computer delivery would facilitate a format made clumsy by the requirement to use a paper answer sheet. The listening comprehension portion of the DLPT III included a true/false/not addressed format. These tests contained 100 items in each skill. The only DLPT III still in use is Romanian.

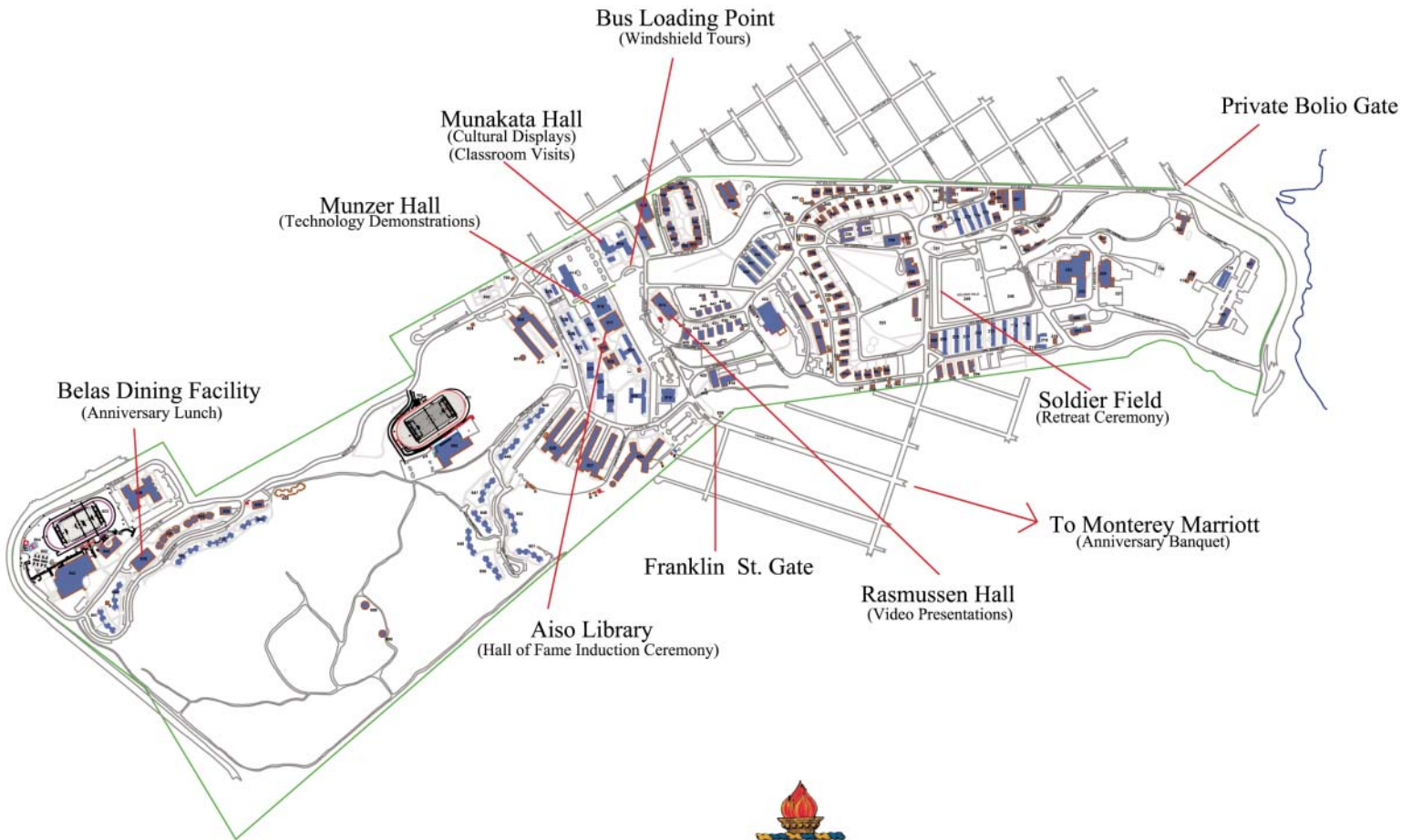
The DLPT IV came along in 1989. That test continued the innovation of using authentic texts; as availability of the Internet increased at DLIFLC, the use of a wide variety of authentic sources grew. However, the DLPT IV was restricted to a single item type. Each text, whether a Level 0+ street sign or a Level 3 editorial, was tested with a single comprehension question. Each skill was tested with 65 items. All tests released between 1990 and 2004 are in DLPT IV format. Many were developed in alternate forms.

The newest generation of the DLPT test was conceptu-

ally introduced in 2001, and is called the DLPT5, with the intent to be electronically delivered. The Guided test was a transitional measure that would be converted to a constructed response test and become known as the Institute’s latest generation of test.

The DLPT5 test is characterized by longer passages, more robust statistical algorithms and a large variety of topical domains. These attributes make it a better assessment of true linguist proficiency, at a time when the nation’s security is heavily dependent on accurate measurement of linguist capabilities. This version of the test is the first to be specifically designed for delivery on the World Wide Web and represents a milestone in foreign language testing by the U.S. Government.

Much more information about the DLPT5 format, delivery system, and implementation timetable is provided at DLIFLC’s website at www.dliflc.edu ♦



65th Anniversary Celebration Schedule of Events



November 8, 2006

TIME	EVENT	LOCATION
0900-1300	Open House Classroom Visits Cultural Displays Technology Demonstrations Library Tours Post Tours Barracks Tour Video Presentations Special Anniversary Lunch	Post-wide Munakata Hall, Bldg 610 Munakata Hall, Bldg 610 Munzer Hall, Bldg 618 Aiso Library, Bldg 617 Depart from Munakata Hall driveway Navy Barracks, Bldg 629 Rasmussen Hall, Bldg 614 Belas Dining Facility, Bldg 838
1400	Hall of Fame Dedication and Induction Ceremony	Aiso Library, Bldg 617
1600	Retreat Ceremony	Soldier Field (in case of inclement weather, location will be Price Fitness Center)
1900	Anniversary Banquet <i>Cocktails begin at 1830</i>	Monterey Marriott Hotel