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Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center

ATTN: ATFL-VC-AJ
Monterey, CA 93944-5006
Telephone: (831) 242-5638
DSN: 878-5638
Facsimile: (831) 242-5850

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Does Focus on Form Promote Production for Foreign Language Learners?

Matti Phillips
Defense Language Institute Foreign language Center

This is a quasi experiment in an intact environment of the School of Middle East Languages at the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC). The experiment tests the notion of focusing on forms (FonFs) as input enhancement for learning. The teacher, who is the researcher, taught three classes: A, B, and C.

In teaching his experimental group A, the researcher focused on the forms of the verb as subject-verb agreement. He used various techniques such as colored chalk, graphs, charts, slowing down pronunciation, textual saliency, and forcing practice as a style of input enhancement. He gave students a chance to ask or comment during his class explanations of person, gender, and number of the verbs as they popped up in their listening or reading texts. He tested all students twice: one time before the treatment as a pretest and another time after the treatment as a posttest, to assess the difference in their production of language. On the second test, students in the experimental group A did slightly better than the two control groups (B and C) by scoring higher grades in translating 20 sentences from English into Arabic. But the difference that they achieved was not significant when an ANCOVA was computed.

Literature Review

It is commonplace to think that learning a second language is hard to do. Therefore, some teachers, researchers, and learners believe that learning any second language requires some focal attention to its forms and structures as a whole. Schmidt (1995) stated that “a focus on form appears to be necessary and desirable, especially provided within a communicative context” (p. 3). Lightbown (1991) confirms that learners of a new language often need to focus on the form of certain features or items of the language because they (certain features, forms, and items) are beneficial for increasing their ability to develop their target language. Whether oral or written, if the feature or the item is noticed and turned into intake (comprehensible material processed into understanding) it can be automated or controlled (processed into acquisition or

learning for production) through the use of the target language as engagement or output for communication (Dekeyser, 1998; Hulstijn, 1990).

Schmidt (1995) argues that if the feature is not noticed, it is left unlearned. Noticing, therefore, is a necessary step of awareness before learning. Kim (1995) states that "noticing is a necessary and sufficient condition for converting input to intake" (p. 66). Sharwood Smith (1991) also considers noticing as "input enhancement" to focus on and to perceive knowledge implicitly for communication, whether it is spoken or written. For all those explicit or implicit knowledge or awareness reasons mentioned in literature, the present tense form of the Arabic language (as a complex structure) is put for study and is taught as a form to be focused on to be noticed or enhanced for language involvement of activities and drills as production inside and outside classrooms.

The length of the period from the time of introducing a new complex structure (present tense form) for acquisition to the time of proficiency for communication is not the concern of this study. Moreover, this study recognizes no difference in whether the process for proficiency of language requires automation (cognition) or control (as monitor). But it is important for this study to observe students' practice between the time of introducing a language feature to the class and the time they get language proficiency to use in the class activities for engagement or communication. Meeks (1999) supported his notion with what Cambourne (1997) argues that "students need many opportunities to approximate their learning before we hold them for mastery or 'grade' them (p. 4). The length of this time of practice for communication or mastery is determined by various factors such as the difficulty of the feature, item, grammar point, or structure, and the experience of the learner with learning other languages, as well as the goals and expectations set by the learners themselves (Shook, 1994; Meeks, 1999). For this reason, we cannot neglect the factor of practicing the features as a necessary part of the input enhancement for noticing and acquiring.

By practicing the forms of the language, students may realize their ability to produce the particular form or item with the same proficiency as the teacher or a native speaker does (Schmidt, 1995). This realization also helps learners notice their mistakes and to correct or avoid making them (Gass, 1998; Hulstijn, 1990; Hulstijn and Hulstijn, 1994; Schmidt and Forta 1986; Swain and Lapkin, 1995). It may also lead them to change their understanding of rules that they have mistakenly formed in their minds about the new language (VanPatten, 1991; Schmidt, 1995). For example, learners of the Arabic language in the very early days of learning do not distinguish the difference between the two phonemes /h/ and /H/ even when they are given in context with two different words and two different meanings. They use the soft /h/ for both /h/ and /H/, i.e., (had da da = threatened) and (Had da da= located). Though their Arabic written shapes are different, h versus H, they pronounce them the same over a long period of time until they realize that they are not producing the two sounds with the same proficiency as natives speakers do. For this reason students' notes and writings in class need to be rechecked by the teacher

every now and then and to be explained repeatedly to attract their attention for focus to learn and work on for practice. The reason for students' confusion might be that the concept of the hard /*h*/ does not exist in their first language, English. Thus, it may take learners a longer time to realize the fact that they are making linguistic mistakes.

This time between practicing and realizing the differences between their adeptness for the language and that of a native speaker differs from one learner to the next. Some students realize such a difference within a couple of days and produce it correctly. This may be due to the goals and expectations set by learners or given by teachers as tasks to practice the language. It may take some weeks, months, or even longer to realize the differences between the two phonemes, or the differences between what they produce, and that of native speakers. It is necessary to emphasize that time for practice is needed as part of the process. Students should make countless attempts to produce what they have learned for mastery with speed and no errors (Meeks, 1999; Dekeyser, 1998).

Sharwood Smith (1991) believes that if the focus is initiated by the learners, the process will certainly bring about (and perhaps increase) learning of extra metalinguistic knowledge (the overall knowledge about the target language and its mechanism concepts whether micro or macro) for proficiency. But, if the input enhancement is initiated by the teacher, it may or may not lead to understanding and learning as expected for proficiency (Jourdenais, Ota, Stauffer, Boyson and Doughty, 1995).

Schmidt (1993) suggests that the salient materials (unique colored affixes, boldface verbs, italicized words, careful pronunciation) initiated by teachers attract (or trigger) the attention of learners to focus on the form (FonF) as a step for noticing. When the FonF style of teaching is repeated over a long period of time, the amount of learning increases. "The more one attends, the more one learns" (Schmidt, 1995, p. 13) and "more noticing leads to more learning" (Jourdenais, Stauffer, Boyson and Doughty, 1995, p. 187). Likewise, Lightbown (1993) suggests that a pedagogical focus on advanced forms can have some long-term effects, even though results may not be immediately noticeable.

VanPatten (1991) adds the idea of having a relationship between form and meaning as a step for processing the input as an intake for learning (acquisition). It can be said that if the teacher provides the form and gives a chance for learners to negotiate the meaning, the chance for learning will be enhanced, if enough time is given for students to negotiate and find out the relationship between the form(s) and the meaning(s). This realization of the form in relation to its meaning brings about understanding and/or noticing for learning. I think in this study the attention to form and attention to meaning are inseparable since the forms are explicitly broken down to the smallest units for students to notice their meanings. The teacher, as a facilitator, can focus on form and at the same time find ways to allow students to work on their own and discover the relation between the form and the meaning using gestures, pictures, or other enhanced cues or clues for understanding, learning, and/or producing. "When

there is interaction of attention to form with attention to meaning, noticing is becoming critical for successful second language acquisition (SLA)" Tomlin and Villa, 1994, p. 185). Schmidt (1990), for his part, claimed that noticing requires comprehension and awareness of input. From the points of view of the learning process this attention to meaning and noticing (such as linking forms of verbs with meanings) is probably not yet ready for production, and needs practice to notice and recheck the individual's ability to produce them smoothly and with less effort and time (Shook, 1994; McLaughlin, 1978). Therefore, various activities, drills, exercises, and conversations are needed for class engagement, as production and communication.

In conclusion a teacher's salient material, whether written, oral, or integrated may bring about noticing for learning as a first step. Practicing the forms of verbs may bring about another noticing for being able or being unable to produce them for communication as a second step. The inability to produce the feature by learners will lead them back to notice (mentally realize) for learning and reconstruct the knowledge built in their mind as a recycled process in increments until the stable ability to produce the forms for communication occurs (see Figure 1). This process of recycling and reconstructing in the shape of countless attempts by learners to achieve mastery over something they have newly learned is accurately described by Meeks (1999) as "a substantial effort-even a struggle-on the part of the learner" (pp. 6-7). The newly acquired knowledge — as Dekeyser (1998) suggests — needs an amount of practice to be learned with speed and reduction of errors.

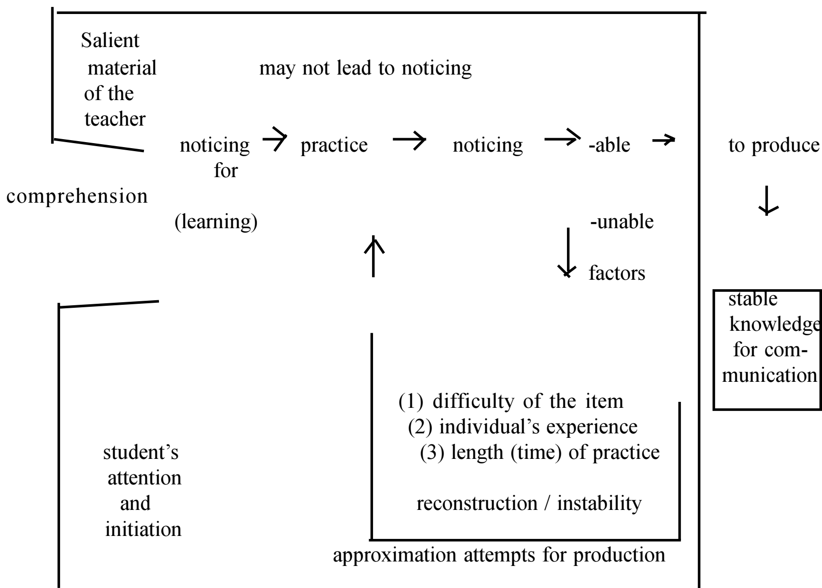


Figure 1. Noticing for learning and noticing for mastery (production) communication

The Focus on Form (FonF) Treatment Style

Focus on form (FonF) style is important for teaching linguistic forms and, in this study, our present tense form of the Arabic verb contains various (meaningful) parts together: gender, person, number, time, and the meaning of the verb from the combination of those parts all together. The present tense form of the verb in Arabic is considered difficult because it has person, gender, number, built-in as prefixes and suffixes known as discontinuous morphemes (see Figure 3). It may be necessary for the teacher to take clear steps to draw the learners' attention to focus, to notice, to learn, and to produce the forms.

The teacher of this study carefully presents the verbs as three letter roots on the blackboard, and then gives a chance for students in the experimental group (A) to add prefixes as shown in examples 1 and 2 (see Figure 2) or prefixes and suffixes of the discontinuous morphemes as in examples 5 and 6 (see Figure 3) for different meanings.

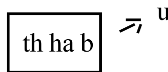
The main point of the presentation was to draw students' attention to the three letters of the root (see Figures 2 and 3) and to give them chance to add the bound morphemes needed for the conjugation by themselves rather than having it done by the teacher. In general, the additions to the three letters were written in colored chalk so that letters would, as enhanced material, draw students' attention and initiate noticing for learning.

Figure 2

1. *I* go (?a thhab- u)
2. *You* go (singular feminine) (*ta t*hhab- eena)
3. *She* goes (*ta* thhab- u)
4. *He* goes. (*ya* thhab- u)

a = (1) ?ath ha bu
ta= (you) M. singular tath ha bu

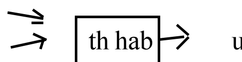
a →
ta →



u

confusion :

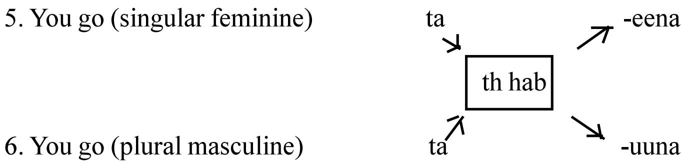
ta = (you)
masculine singular



u

ta = she
3rd person feminine singular

Figure 3



The discontinuous morpheme

Notice the two different long vowels:

(prefixes + suffixes) as discontinuous morphemes

ta ___ beena

ta ___ buuna

Another technique used to draw students' attention was slowing down in pronouncing the syllables of the verb form. In order to explain and relate the form to the meaning, the teacher looked at a female student, and asked her, *ila ay na tath-ha-beena gadan?"* (Where are you going tomorrow?) (female singular gender). The verb *tath-ha-beena* was pronounced and addressed in a way that made students access the smallest meaningful units already explained as suffixes or prefixes on the blackboard. This careful presentation of the verbs as examples, will give students a chance to notice the smallest units added to the root for meaning, a focus that boosts up the processing level (Kim, 1995).

The teacher also considered immediate practice of these forms as part of the input enhancement. First, he "forced" his students to construct short sentences of their own to manipulate these forms into their speaking as practice. Second, each student had to report the verbs that his or her classmates had said before him or her to enhance practicing the subject-verb agreement of different subjects. The memory game, for forcing his students to use the forms, was part of the FonF style for immediate practicing.

The three-letter root and the bound morphemes of the conjugation of all persons were given to the students in charts and a handout which the students could use for further study on their own (see Appendix C).

Salient textual material was also given to students. Passages given to the students had their verbs written in boldface letters to draw students' attention as salient input for enhancement. You can-in appendix D- compare an enhanced sample of a passage given to the experimental group in boldface letters and the un-enhanced passage that the other two groups (B and C) have in their books. The following chart (Figure 4) sums up all the attempts of the teacher to make his students notice the forms that he focuses on in his three-week teaching treatment.

Figure 4.
Salient material as input enhancement

1. Colored chalk and the board.
2. Opportunity for students to participate during the explanation to discover the additions for person, gender, and number. (relating meaning to form).
3. Slow down pronunciation for imitation and production.
4. Forcing practice through memory game (recalling information given by colleagues.
5. Salient textual material as short passages for reading.
6. Handout of diagrams and charts for further study at home or later in the course.

Retrospective Protocols

In order to check if the students in group A had noticed these salient techniques used by the teacher, a retrospective protocol was conducted immediately after they took their posttest. The teacher asked students to comment in a sheet of paper on any of those six points of the enhanced material used (see Figure 4). The summary of what the students of group (A) had written on the six points of the enhanced material is in appendix E.

The Research Question

The goal of this study was to see if focusing on the agreement of the subject to the verbs in the present tense would bring about significant effects in promoting students' ability to produce the language in meaningful sentences, when compared to students' ability without this focusing on form (FonF) technique in teaching other groups of students. This technique involved various activities and forms as input enhancement (see Figure 4), and immediate practice was part of the treatment.

Participants

Twenty-eight students, randomly put in three classes (A, B, and C) - participated in this test. Students of the three groups were in their ninth week of an Arabic basic course, and they had not been acquainted systematically with the verbs in the present tense form except in a few dialogues where four or five verbs had been occasionally taught.

The tests

To measure the production of students as a result of the treatment (focusing on form as an agreement of the subject with its verb), these students took two tests: a pretest and a posttest.

The pretest was conducted before the treatment, when students were in their ninth week of learning Arabic.

After the third week of the treatment, a posttest was given to all of them. Though the sentences were not the same, the test assessed the same points (see Figure 5).

In both tests, the sentences contained a variety of verbs to be conjugated for different persons. There were two sentences for the first person singular (I), and one for (we) as plural to test neutral cases of the language. Three sentences tested the second person (you) as singular masculine and three as (you) singular feminine. Most sentences tested the third person. Ten sentences tested both (he) and (she). One sentence tested (they) as masculine plural (see Appendices A and B).

For grading both tests, each correct verb form received five points, and the total grades of the twenty sentences were calculated for the final result of the examinees.

Figure 5
The points of the test

Person	Number of sentences
1st	
I neutral	2
We neutral	1
2nd	
You singular masculine	3
You singular feminine	3
3rd	
he	5
she	5
they masculine	1

Rating Reliability

In order to check the reliability of both tests, eleven of the corrected sheets were randomly selected and given to another teacher to correct. The correlation between the raters in the pretest was r2=0.9885, and the posttest (r2=0.74715). One of the raters of the pretest was the researcher himself. For the posttest, two other raters corrected the answers. The second correlation of eleven randomly selected papers seems to be a bit lower than the first because

of different interpretations of the comprehensible messages of the sentences related to the verb conjugations. One of the raters considered comprehensible messages right answers regardless of some missing dots of the letters. He believed that not all dots make the word unreadable, and he said, for example, that (he sleeps- ya-naamu) would still be readable if the second letter's dot (for nuun) is missed, and the writer has missed it perhaps because of the speed and not because of his ignorance. Nevertheless, the reliability of the scoring was high.

Analysis of the Results

According to the results of the pretest, students scored approximately the same. The means of the three groups (A, B, and C) were respectively 65.55, 55.55, 65.5 . If we exclude two students, one in A and another in C who scored higher than the others, the average of the three sections would be more or less the same (see Figure 6).

Figure 6
Pretest Scores

Class	*N*	*Mean*	*Mode*	*Median*	*SD*
A	9	65.55	70	70	24.8048
B	9	55.55	60	50	27.07559
C	10	65.5	65	65	15.35525

The results of the posttest means were 72.222 for section (A), 58.75 for B, and 62.777 for (C). Group (A) scored 10 points higher than the average in group (C) and 14 points higher than group (B) (see Figure 7).

Figure 7
Posttest Scores

Class	*N*	*Means*	*Mode*	*Median*	*SD*
A	9	72.22	90	75	21.54098
B	8	58.75	55	70	18.46812
C	8	62.777	75	75	27.61336

The mean, median and mode of class A were higher than the other two groups B and C, and these students were able (as grades) to score higher as they had more ability to produce the right forms according to the person implied in the form of the verb. However, ANCOVA analysis was applied to measure the differences between the subjects, it resulted with a P value =.697 (see Figure 8). These results indicate that there are no significant differences

between the groups and between individuals of the groups in their language production as measured by the posttest (see Figure 8).

Univariate Analysis of Variance

The students' number in each group

Group	N
1.00	8
2.00	8
3.00	9

Figure 8

Tests of between subjects effects

Dependent variable : POS

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	means square	F	sig.
Corrected Model	6216.651a	4	1554.163	4.743	.007
Intercept	651.058	1	651.058	1.987	.173
PR	2903.910	1	2903.910	8.863	.007
Group	**475.692**	**2**	**158.564**	**.484**	**.697**
Error	6880.465	21	327.641	327.641	
Total	128875.000	25			
Corrected Total	13097.115	25			

Discussion

This study in reality showed that teaching through input enhancement by focusing on forms has no significant effect on students' production (see Figure 8). The result does not make the researcher ignore the effects of this style of teaching. In fact, there was a slight difference in the production of group (A) but, there was no statistical significance when analyzed by ANCOVA.

If we compare the production of the controlled groups B and C on both tests, pretest and posttest, we find out that group B did better on their posttest. This improvement in their production is an indication that learning occurs even though there was no intentional plan designed by the teacher to focus on forms of the verbs. Some linguists attribute this type of learning to what is known as "incidental learning" which might have taken place implicitly, cognitively, naturally or in any other term you could name (Sharwood Smith, 1991).

From my empirical experience as a teacher, I can say that the aforementioned learning that occurred in the controlled group might have taken

place because of students' initiations to link forms to meanings. Students of both groups B and C usually asked questions about the forms of the verbs and asked the teacher to write on the blackboard and to explain the additions to the roots. Concerned about their performance on the DLIFLC C3 test, their teacher wrote and explained explicitly for them the root of the verbs and the affixes. They had what they asked for explained on the blackboard. Once the controlled group experienced this self-initiated focusing on forms, they-like the students in the experimental group- received the salient material with its own effects. In their protocols students in group A highlighted this type of salient presentation material with "board and chalk." They described it as "very helpful and makes it easier to understand." "It really simplifies the structure," states one of the students in his protocol.

It might also be true that some students in groups B and C had photocopied the conjugation charts of the verbs to help them study, memorize or learn and practice them outside the classroom. Practice is necessary to be thought of in class activities. The teacher, therefore, put emphasis on practice to a point that he forced his learners to produce those verbs or similar ones immediately after their presentation in the classroom. He called it the memory game. But if students in the controlled groups B and C were able to get the salient material to practice on their own, the results will be very promising since they were practicing the forms of the language for production and were doing so willingly either alone or with a friend. "I have seen [skateboarders] willing to attempt this maneuver countless times because they have set a goal or expectation for themselves (Meeks, 1999, p. 3). One student, in his protocol, describes practice as "innovative and it turns learning into participation". Another one states that it is "a very useful tool. It is effective since it defines what the student is to think about."

As a teacher who taught English for 23 years overseas, I feel that learners of a foreign language have a lot of anxiety to understand the forms of the foreign language related to their meanings. Thus, learners often collect handouts, or vocabulary lists, or books to make the process of understanding for learning possible with less effort and time and, sometimes, independently and without any help from any teacher. This is why some people take the initiative and buy books on their own to help them learn a foreign language. Concerning this study, one student explained the use of the charts as the means that "reinforces the point being made in the class" and "shows what changes and what remains constant of the verb during conjugations." Perhaps students in groups B and C received these handouts or charts from their classmates in group A as salient material to be used for practice on their own outside the classroom.

I have also noticed that when students do not know how to link form to meaning, they whisper to each other to see if somebody else knows how to do it, or they rush to their dictionaries to look it up. Some directly ask the teacher to provide them with the meaning. They watch to see a solution for it. For example, when the verb (Yaq Di = he spends) was introduced, I noticed one of the students in group B murmur to the one next to him. Then after a few

seconds he raised his voice and asked me if he could use it for (spending money). I answered no and, at his request, I gave him the other verb (YaS rif - ul- maa la = he spends money). He took notes for both verbs. At the same time, other students listened carefully to the question, and they took notes too while nodding their heads at a new difficulty as the English verb has two new Arabic "splits" in their minds.

Dozens of similar questions are raised in the foreign language teaching classes every day. In fact, students want to know if they can use those expressions as they do in their first language (as English, for example, in the real world for communication), a collaborative interaction between the teacher and his students to solve their problems. This can be true when enough time is devoted for students to negotiate with the teacher or themselves, if they are trained from the very beginning to do so inside the classroom.

Pedagogically speaking, focusing on form (FonF) style gives learners a chance to negotiate with their teacher or peers about other linguistic features for learning and communication (Sharwood Smith, 1991). This type of atmosphere in groups B and C might have let students initiate focusing on their own by asking questions and turning teacher's materials into a salient one for learning the forms and set goals to go outside the classroom and practice them with others. In the protocols, one student in group A describes the atmosphere of the class as "extremely productive since you feel more relaxed and live conducive environment," and "it also makes correction set in my mind," said another.

Conclusion

The study found no significant difference between the students of the three groups A, B, and C. This result does not lead me to say that focusing on forms has no effect on students' language learning for production since the group which was taught by the FonF style, Group A, did slightly better than groups B and C within a short time of three weeks. The failure in showing the significant differences may be due to four factors:

One, the number of students involved in the study was very small. The study needs bigger groups to account for the individual differences. A larger group of students may measure more precisely the little progress the learners can achieve over a short period of time of three weeks of teaching.

Two, the time of the treatment (duration) was too short to decide the progress that occurred because of focusing on forms. Students might need more time to promote their ability and hold them accountable and more responsible for their production. The reason might also be that learning these forms is equal over a short period of time with or without focusing. To show significant differences between the individuals, the process needs more time of focusing and/or attempts to practice as main points of the treatment for production (communication).

Three, the teacher practiced little control over the methods in teaching controlled groups. He himself was forced to explain explicitly the forms of

the verbs to the students in the controlled group so that he could make them understand and pass their course examination (C3). He had also written forms of the verbs on the blackboard and explained them fully at the students' requests.

The other Arabic teachers of the team (including the researcher) might have also used techniques which function for noticing for production by, for example, correcting students' mistakes while using the target language as a practice for communication. This process of correcting students' mistakes functions as another method of input enhancement for focusing (a substitute for focusing) and then noticing for production (see Figure 1).

Although this study shows no significant differences between the individuals of the groups, a slight difference was noticed in terms of mean. Therefore, I recommend that a further investigation be conducted with a larger scale and in a larger population.

In conclusion, this study showed no significant difference among the individuals with regard to (producing meaningful sentences). Yet students, as we mentioned earlier, appreciated many points of the enhancement material to help them understand, learn, and practice language inside the classroom in a more "conducive environment."

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Appendix E

Retrospective Protocols

Quotes from the Students' comments:

1. Colored Chalk

Colored chalk helps to visualize spelling makes it much easier to understand charts. Pictures from magazines helped to put images of object in my mind provides some help, better focus on roots, reinforce point being made, make my own associations with the verb and its meaning, shows what changes and what remains constant during conjugation, identifies the root, helpful in the building of useful vocabulary in the early learning stages.

2. Forced Practice

Forced practice corrects pronunciation, usage demonstrated. Helps greatly for irregular verbs, little impact on me, a creative technique, turns learning into participation, a tremendous tool, very useful and effective, it should be used more, allows retainment, defines what the student is to think about, hands-on way to learn.

3 and 4:. Salient (Textual) Written Material

Has large impact, little impact, emphasize the important words, do not keep up, it is a quick reference for remembering, didn't notice, bring emphasis to handouts the words discussed, unnoticed, makes it easier to read, provided necessary emphasis.

5and 6: Intonation
Intonation is extremely productive, think about my mistakes, more relaxed and & slowing conducive environment, gives opportunity to correct myself, makes down correction set in my mind, having vowels enunciated in various non-verbal sentence structures, understand the proper grammatical results, cues for put me back to track, calls attention, not noticed and I thought correction it the teacher's way of teaching, no effect, helpful to be able to correct myself, I am impressed that that is intentional technique.

Appendix A

The first test for students' production of verbs.
Answer in a separate sheet. Write your name and your class.

Translate from English into Arabic
Time: 45 minutes

1. Layla, where do you live? (a' e sh)
2. Ahmed, where do you study ?
3. His mother travels to Europe.
4. Her father eats a lot.
5. usama, what are you doing? (Usama is aboy) (a' m l)
6. Samira, what are you watching?
7. His daughter Zainab speaks French?
8. Her son, Samir, plays football. (l a' b)
9. Huda, do you go to school or stay at home? (stay : b q e)
10. Munir, do you sleep there?
11. Does Suha visit you(f.)?
12. Your(f.)friend(f.)studies at the library?
13.They (m.)help me.
14.She will return home.
15. I eat meat. (Use a pronoun instead of 'meat' m.)

Make use of the three letters in brackets to construct your Arabic verb. Use the given preposition in your sentence.

16. He pays attention to his school. (h t m)
17. the dog attacks him. (h j m) + (a' la)
18. My sister cries. (b k a)
19. I give you (m.) my book. (a' T a)
20. We take a taxi to the hospital. (r k b)

The answers in Arabic language:

1. a y na tas ku nee na, ya lay la ?
2. ay na tad ru su ya a Hmad ?

3. tu saa firu um mu hu ila u rup pa .
4. ya ku lu abuu hu ka thee ran.
5. maa tha t a'mal ya us aa ma ?
6. maa tha tu sha hi deena , ya sa meera.
7. ta ta kal lamu ib na tu ha al fa ran siya .
8. yal a'a bu ibna ha sameer al ku ra ta.
9. hal tath ha bee na ila l madrasati am tab qeena fil bay ti?
10. hal tanaamu hunaaka ya muneer ?
11. hal ta zuu ruka suha?
12. tad rusu Sadeeqatuki fil madrasati.
13. yusaa a'iduu nanee.
14. sat ar jaa'u ilal bay ti.
15. aa ku la hu .
16. yah tam mu bi mad ra sa ti hi.
17. yah jimu a'a lay hi l kalbu.
18. tab kee ukh tee.
19. aa' T eeka kit aa bee.
20. nar kabu l taaksi il al mus tash fa.

Appendix B

Posttest
As a proficient translator, read these English sentences and translate them into Arabic language.

1. Layal, where do you go for the weekend?
2. Ahmed, what do you eat for lunch?
3. His mother returns from Europe.
4. Her father drinks a lot.
5. Yousif, what do you read?
6. Samira, what do you usually play? (usually : a'aadatan)
7.His daughter Sanna knows Arabic.
8. Her son, Samir, likes soccer (football).
9. Huda, do you live in an apartment?
10. Matti, do you sleep?
11. Does your (f.) friend (f.) visit you (f.)?
12. Your(f.) friend (m.) studies at the university.
13. They (m.) help her.
14. She will leave now.
15. I drink milk. (Use pronoun (m.) for milk)
16. She pays attention to her students (m.).
17. the man attacks them (m.).
18. He cries.
19. We go by car to our school.
20. I give you my book.

The Answers in Arabic language:

1.ila ay na at th ha beena fi uT la ti l us buua' i ya layla ?
2.maa tha taa kul fil ga da, ya aHmad ?
3.tar jaa' um mu hu min uu rup pa.
4. ya shr abu abuu ha ka thee ran.
5. Maatha at q ra u ya you suf ?
6.matha tal a'a bee na a'aa da tan ya sameera?
7. taa' ri fu ib na tahu, sanna, al a'a ra bi ya.
8. yuHibu ib nu ha sameer ku ratal qadami.
9.hal t aa' ee shee na (at sku nee na) fi shiq qati huda.
10. hal tan naa m ya mati **?**
11. hal Sa dee qa tu ki at zuu ruki?
12. hal Sa dee qu ki ya zuu ru ki?
13. yu saa a'iduu na ha.
14. sa tat ruku al aa na.
15. ash ra bu hu.
16. at h tammu bi Tullaa bi ha.
17. yah jimu a'a lay him al ra ju lu.
18. yab kee.
19. nath ha bu bil say yaa ra ti ila madra sa ti na.
20. ua' Tee ka ki taa bi.

Appendix C

Conjugation of the verb (to watch) :

(to watch)	present **yu** + _ _ _ add prefixes	past _ _ _ **+ tu** add suffixes
1st person:		
I watch	u shaa hi du	shaa had tu
We watch	nu shaa hi du	shaa had na
2nd person:		
He watches	yu shaa hi du	shaa hada
She watches	tu shaa hi du	shaa hadat
They watch (m.)	yu shaa hi duunaa	shaa hadu
3rd person:		
You M .singular. watch	tu shaa hi du	shaa had ta
you F. singular. watch	tu shaa hi deena	shaa had *ti*
You (M.) plural watch	tu shaa hi duuna	shaa had tum

Appendix D

A: Written Material:

yaSilu isma'el ilal bayti a'adatan qabla ukhtihi Zainab. yatanaawalu Ta'aama l a'shaai. thumma yaqraau fi kitabil taareekhi waba'daha al kutubi l ukhra. wa yaktubu aHyaanan rasaail li aSdiqaaihi. Yas alu isma'el waalidatahu wa jaddatahu in kaanat ta biHajaatin ila ayati musaa'adatin. thum ma yajli su bijanabi jad da tihi liyu shaahida l tilivizyuna.

B: Enhanced Written Material:

yaSilu isma'el *ilal* bayti a'adatan qabla ukhtihi Zainab. *yatanaawalu* Ta'aama l a'shaai. thumma *yaqraau* fi kitabil tareekhi waba'daha al kutubi l ukhra. wa *yaktubu* aHyaanan rasa?il li aSdiqaaihi. *Yas alu* isma'el walidatahu wa jadatahu in kaanat ta biHaajatin ila ayati musaa'adatin. thum ma *yajli su* bijanabi jad da tihi *liyu shaahida* l tilivizyuna.

Author

MATTI PHILLIPS, Assistant Professor, Middle East School Two, Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center, Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006. Specializations: foreign language teaching and testing.

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Changes in the Russian Language in the Post-Soviet Period

Marina Cobb
Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center

The fact that modern languages are in a state of continuous change is both a challenging and an exciting aspect of foreign language as the object of study, or rather, as the domain in which we seek to help learners develop communicative competence. It is well known that economic and technological progress or major political developments are usually accompanied by changes in lexicon. Even a significant single event may result in the birth of new lexical items or in the existing ones entering the domain of common use (e.g., after the September 11th tragedy, *ground zero* became a commonly known word). However, it is probably safe to say that nowhere has the language recently undergone such profound and multifold changes (which go far beyond additions of new lexical items), as in the former socialist countries in the state of transition to democracy and free-market economy.

The DLI Russian Basic Course contains large amounts of materials for developing listening and reading proficiency that were adopted from the Russian press years ago. The sociolinguistic inaccuracy of these materials from the point of view of the present day situation in Russia presents a problem. The scope of the problem may be much greater than the outdated references to the nonexisting government bodies. It appears that the style and syntax of the Russian language of today's media has changed considerably within the past 10-15 years.

If we move even further back in history for a moment and look at how the years of Soviet power affected the pre-1917 Russian language, we will notice significant changes. Not only was the literary language of the upper class abolished after 1917, but, in an attempt to create a true language of the workers and peasants, an entirely new political jargon was born that pervaded all areas of life. Effectively, the October revolution of 1917 resulted in the formation of a totalitarian regime where linguistic policy was subordinate to the political and socioeconomic system (Krouglov, 1999). The language itself became an instrument of ideological propaganda. Not surprisingly, a heavy bureaucratic style of writing developed, which was to be followed by politicians, journalists, scholars, as well as literary writers and students. The rigid "Soviet" Russian abounded in bureaucratic clichés and lengthy acronyms, and favored sentences with multiple subordinate clauses. These were the times when the famous amusement park in Moscow was known as *Central'nyi park kul'tury i otdykha* ("The Central Park of Culture and Rest"). Even in books about love, the characters talked as if they were making speeches at a public meeting (Visson, 1996). In certain periods, the language was kept as free as possible of foreign loan words; the computer was first known in Russia as the

electronno-vychislitel'naya mashina ("electronic calculating machine").

The state exercised strict political control over literature and the press, and the ruling Communist Party played the leading role in shaping these two spheres. In addition to official censorship, writers and ordinary people engaged in self-censorship (Visson, 1996) to ensure adherence to the officially recognized style. The "Soviet" version of the Russian language remained in existence until the late eighties.

Current De-Sovietization of Society and Language

The demise of communist ideals in the Soviet Union and Eastern Europe has caused significant changes in nearly every aspect of the lives of the people. Changes in the political system went side by side with changes in the way the people of these nations lead their everyday lives. The fall of Soviet power and the transition to a free market economy have altered the way the people in the former Soviet Union work, shop, rest, and, most importantly, the way they think and perceive their roles in the world. These changes have been reflected in the twofold development of the Russian language: the de-sovietization, i.e. removal of linguistic features brought about by the Soviet way of life and thinking, and gradual westernization of Russian (Dunn, 1999).

De-sovietization of the Russian language is a gradual process. Few individuals in the former Soviet Union seem to unambiguously and wholeheartedly support the transition to a free-market economy. Many "seem to support the idea of economic reform – albeit at a slower pace – but also prefer state-controlled prices, state-owned industries in many sectors, and state-enforced economic equality." (Bahry, 1999). This inevitably results in the preservation of linguistic forms for certain pre-perestroika social notions. Besides, even though more and more people are reluctant to use old bureaucratic clichés, suitable alternatives sometimes simply do not exist and need time to be coined. The outcome is a coexistence of the old politicized talk and the new westernized and liberated forms of Russian.

The most visible forms of westernization of the Russian language are an influx of new vocabulary, borrowed primarily from English, and, in the absence of linguistic control, the appearance of all the previously prohibited styles to a point of extreme stylistic liberation.

Changes in the Lexicon

A number of lexical items that describe certain concepts from the Soviet era are rapidly becoming obsolete, such as *agitpunkt* ("propaganda station") and *pyatiletka* ("a five-year plan"), etc. (Krouglov, 1999). The politically marked *tovarishch* ("comrade") as a form of address, has become restricted to the context of communist party meetings, and, possibly, the military sphere, and is being replaced by *gospodin/gospozha* ("Mr./Ms.") in many other contexts.

At the same time, the number of new lexical items (neologisms) in Russian is so great, that the past decade can be characterized as a "derivational boom". The "boom" manifests itself, first and foremost, in the unsurpassed number of direct borrowings. The strengthening of ties with the industrialized world and the newly found freedom of travel have resulted in the intensification of the process of borrowing from other languages, primarily from English. It would be wrong to assume that everyone welcomes the presence of foreign business. In the eyes of many, foreign firms represent unequal competition in the domestic market (Bahry, 1999). There is, therefore, a certain resistance to these powerful rivals and everything they bring with them. These two conflicting tendencies have caused a widening gap between the language of the younger business-oriented metropolitan residents and the rest of the population. By and large, the public may still not know the meanings of *rieltor* ("realtor"), *lizing* ("leasing") and *venchurnyi kapital* ("venture capital"), although words like *diler* ("dealer") and *distrib'yutor* ("distributor"), also borrowed within the past 10-15 years, are probably understood by most Russians.

The larger cities of Russia are now amply supplied with American-style businesses, American-style entertainment and American-style advertising (Nash, 2000). Street "kiosks" (vendors' booths) have long posted prices for *legginsy* ("leggings") and *slaksy* ("slacks"), formed along the pattern of *dzhinsy* ("jeans"), where the Russian plural inflection *–y* ("-?" in Cyrrilic) has been added to the already pluralized English noun. Similarly, names for certain everyday commodities, such as *parking* ("parking") and *khotdog* ("hot dog"), are now familiar to most Russians in urban areas, while *kondominium* ("condominium") or *dzhakuzzi* ("Jacuzzi") have probably so far only entered the language of the newly rich, known as the "New Russians."

Following the changes in private lifestyles and, specifically, in those of young Russians, an unprecedented number of borrowed words have entered the slang of Russian youth, e.g. *boifrend* ("boyfriend") and *gerlfrend* ("girlfriend") have conveniently filled the niche for "significant other" in Russian.

It is not uncommon for borrowed words to undergo a semantic shift (extension of referential meaning or taking on a new meaning), e.g. *killer* is almost exclusively used in the meaning of "hired assassin", and *delat' shoping* ("to do shopping") is only used in reference to shopping in very expensive stores.

Having been borrowed into Russian, many formerly foreign words are further used to form new words by means of affixation, as seen in the following noun derived from a borrowed stem: *tolerantnost'* ("tolerance", formed from "tolerant" + Russian suffix *–ost'*), adjectives derived from borrowed nouns: *brokerskii* ("related to broker or brokerage"), *rielterskii* ("related to realtor or real estate), and verbs: *prolongirovat'* ("to prolong"), *mailanut'* ("to send via e-mail"), *hacknut'* ("to hack"), (New words in Russian Lexicon). According to "The Economist" (1990), Mikhail Gorbachev himself has added extraordinary neologisms – *extrapolirovat'* ("to extrapolate") and *torpedirovat'* ("to torpedo").

The Western influence is not limited to loan words. It manifests itself in a large number of calques of individual words or phrases: *zapadnizaciya* ("westernization", from *zapad* ("West") + *-nizaciya*), *paketnye sdelki* ("package deals"), *policeiskoe gosudarstvo* ("police state"), *myl'naya opera* ("soap opera"), etc. (Dunn, 1999).

A very peculiar example of a semantic shift occurs when an existing Russian word takes on the meaning of a similarly sounding foreign word, although the original referential meaning of the Russian word has nothing to do with that of the foreign word. For example, *hom'ak* ("hamster") has now entered Russian Internet slang to denote "homepage". Similarly, *sharovara* ("leg of wide pants") is known among Russian computer enthusiasts to denote "shareware".

Another feature of post-Soviet Russian is sporadic use of Latin alphabet with some foreign brand names, such as JVC, that would look odd in Russian transcription, as well as certain western concepts, such as "prime-time" (said about television). Words like "shopping" and "on-line" appear both in their original (Latin) form and in the Russian transliteration (Dunn, 1999).

Although English loan words abound in modern Russian, it would be a mistake to assume that the expansion of the Russian vocabulary in the post-Soviet period manifests itself solely in borrowing from western languages. In fact, many recently coined terms that reflect internal socio-political changes seem to owe nothing to western influence semantically, e.g. *dal'nee/blizhnee zarubezh'e* ("near/far abroad" for the territories of the former Soviet Union and other foreign states respectively), (Dunn, 1999).

Lots of new words are formed from original Russian roots using native morphological processes to denote new concepts and notions that have appeared after the perestroika: *tenevik* ("entrepreneur in the shadow economy" formed from *ten'* ("shadow"), (Krouglov, 1996) and *obnalichivat'* (to convert into cash), (Dunn, 1999).

Also noteworthy is the revival of words and phrases characteristic of the pre-revolutionary use (prior to 1917). Among those are words formerly associated with the lifestyles of Russian nobility (*sudar'/sudarynya* ("Sir/ Madame"), *institut blagorodnyx devic* ("institute for noble-born maidens") and religious terms and biblical quotations that disappeared from popular use after the Communist Party proclaimed atheism as its official doctrine (Mokienko, 1999).

Stylistic Liberation

The pre-perestroika Russian language modeled after the literary works of Russian classics and the authors of the "socialist realism" is gradually giving way to the spontaneous living language of the streets. Although the processes of de-sovietization of the Russian language are generally viewed as positive, many are concerned with the fact that the newly found stylistic freedom allows substandard elements and various forms of slang, jargon and

argot, leading to a certain degree of vulgarization of the present-day literary norm (Mokienko, 1999). Criminalization of many spheres of life in the former Soviet Union has inevitably led to a certain degree of criminalization of the Russian language. Just as the old communist values "have vanished and created a vacuum yet to be filled in many Russian souls by the universal values of morality, the removal of official censorship and self-censorship has now resulted in a virtual free-for-all." (Visson, 1996).

Another prominent factor that has brought about significant stylistic changes is the new goal of modern day Russian media: the purpose now is not only to inform and educate the audience, but also to entertain it. Apart from the lessened control over the media, desire to entertain and to create sellable material is most likely the single main reason for deviating from the standards of the sophisticated and elegant language, which is only suitable for entertaining the educated elite.

Below is an incomplete list of substandard and novelty elements that abound in Russian literature and the media of the past decade adopted from Mokienko's "The Russian Language on the Brink" (1999):

1. "Extreme colloqualisms", previously unacceptable for literary use, are now frequently used by journalists and literary authors: *telek* (for "TV") *vidak* (for "VCR") *, zabugornyi* (for "abroad, foreign").

2. Colloquial sayings or quasi-proverbial expressions (many reflect street wisdom or are borrowed from well-known anecdotes): *proletet' kak fanera nad Parizhem* ("to fly through like a piece of cardboard over Paris" in the meaning of "to fail"), *veshat' lapshu na ushi* ("to hang noodles on someone's ears" in the meaning of "to fool, deceive").

3. Words formerly used exclusively by criminals, such as *raskrutit'* ("to make someone pay").

4. Obscenities and euphemisms thereof, previously absolutely prohibited in any printed text.

5. Miscellaneous puns and broken collocations: *obrechen na pobedu* ("doomed to victory" instead of "doomed to failure").

6. Former occasionalisms, metaphorical or metonymic in character: *kapusta* ("cabbage" for "money"), *chernila* ("ink" for "cheap wine"), periphrastic *devushka iz gruppy riska* ("girl from the risk group" for "prostitute").

7. Artificial hybrids: *katastroika* (from *katastrofa* ("catastrophe") and *perestroika*).

8. Deliberate morphological and phonetic distortions: *bratan* or *bratel'nik* instead of *brat* ("brother"), *bamazhka* instead of the correct *bumazhka* ("a piece of paper"), *dyudyuktiv* instead of the correct *detectiv* ("detective"), etc. The effect thus achieved can be multifold: the connotations vary from the highest degree of informality to expressing strong derogatory or sarcastic attitudes.

9. Deliberate violations of grammatical rules, such as nouns attributed to the wrong gender, or comparative forms formed from nouns, numerals or relative adjectives (which do not denote a quality that can be represented in a greater or lesser degree): *"Rubli stali escho derev'annee."* ("The rubles

have become even more wooden.") in reference to the fact that it has become even harder to exchange rubles into desirable currency of industrialized western countries.

10. Vacant syntactic positions: *Kostyum ostavlyaet zhelat'* ("The suit leaves much." - *missing part* – "to be desired").

These and other linguistic means create today's often described as "frivolous" Russian style of writing and today's emotionally loaded, often sarcastic, poignant style of Russian media.

Implications

The implications of the changes that have occurred in the Russian language over the past decade for teaching Russian as a foreign language are far-reaching. The big question is whether to teach these new linguistic trends or discard most of them as substandard and aberrant. If we choose to teach the new Russian language of the post-Soviet era, we may need updated texts and new resources to accomplish this goal. If we choose to completely disregard the changes, we will not be preparing the students to deal with the dynamic, constantly evolving live language of today. In any case, it has become imperative for teachers of Russian to maintain close ties with the target culture.

The Russian language teachers who do not believe that current linguistic trends are part of a natural and lasting process are likely to prefer teaching their students entirely out of an outdated textbook rather than exposing them to modern Russian press. For them, the "standard" Russian language has not changed, and they do not see any need in teaching their students anything other than the "standard."

However, even those teachers who accept the reality of rapid language change under current conditions, while better equipped to teach their students the language of today, should exercise a good measure of common sense and provide guidance to the learners as to which audience specific publications target. Freedom of press comes with a price tag – not everything fits all any more. Teachers of Russian, and of other languages, as the case may be, should be well versed in the current publications. Further, rather than bringing into the classroom just any random materials that he or she may come across, the teacher of Russian should carefully choose authentic materials. Knowledge of the current available publications, the purpose, authors, and intended audience, and not necessarily which political views they express, can be very beneficial to any teacher in selecting relevant teaching materials that support learning objectives.

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Author

MARINA COBB, Department Chair, European School One. Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center, Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006. Specializations: Program Administration, Teaching Grammar in a Communicative Classroom, Computer-Assisted Language Learning.

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Language Education and the War on Terrorism

Major Richard S. Dabrowski
Indiana University
United States Air Force

U.S. Marines review Farsi phrases on the USS Peleliu
[CNN - 26 Nov 01]

This article considers how to speed up the process of learning a foreign language in response to a crisis. In particular, this paper reviews recent research on how bilinguals are generally better able to acquire a third language than monolinguals studying a foreign language. The purpose of this review is to determine what skills the bilingual might possess that the monolingual might not have with the aim of teaching those skills to the monolingual in order to speed their language learning. The article concludes with a proposal that reflective learning practices should be incorporated into second language instruction to help the students become bilingual and prepare them to become trilingual should the need arise in response to a crisis or changing language requirements.

Language Education and the War on Terrorism

Following the September 11th attacks, the Department of Defense faced new language requirements for its war on terrorism. Speakers of the languages and dialects of Afghanistan and Central Asia were few or nonexistent within the military and the federal government as a whole. The National Foreign Language Center estimated it would take a person up to a year to be a minimally proficient speaker of one of these languages with full-time study. Given the immediate need for linguists, this paper considers how to speed up the process of learning a foreign language. In particular, this paper reviews recent research on how bilinguals are generally better able to acquire a third language than monolinguals studying a foreign language. The purpose of this review is to determine what skills the bilingual might possess that the monolingual might not have with the aim of teaching those skills to the monolingual in order to speed their language learning. The paper concludes with a proposal that reflective learning practices should be incorporated into second language instruction to help the students become bilingual and prepare them to become trilingual should the need arise in response to a crisis or changing language requirements.

Bilingual students learning a third language outperform monolingual students learning a second. Research has shown that there is a strong correlation between bilingualism and success in learning a third language. Sanz (2000) presented a study of Catalan/Spanish bilingual high school students that showed they outperformed Spanish monolinguals at studying English. One important note from this study is that the bilingual students were also biliterate; that is, they had formally studied both their native languages. Thomas (1988) also found that English-Spanish bilinguals had an advantage over English monolinguals in studying French, though again only when the knowledge of Spanish was accompanied by formal study—heritage-only Spanish-English bilinguals were not found to have this advantage. Hoffman (2001) reviewed several studies of bilingual children who studied English at school and found that to the degree the children were biliterate, they were more likely to be successful at studying English.

The Defense Language Institute (DLI) Foreign Language Center (1996) directed a study to provide a variety of information related to foreign language cross-training, defined as "foreign language training in a new language for students previously successful in learning an earlier and different language" (p. 1). While cross-training generally refers to training in a language similar to one the learner already knows, it can also refer to training in a dissimilar one. According to this study, experienced linguists have three advantages over monolinguals:

1. There can be a direct transfer of knowledge between a previously mastered language and the language that is being acquired, especially if they are similar.

2. Experienced learners have greater metalinguistic awareness, meaning they have a greater linguistic framework into which they can insert new information about the target language.
3. Experienced learners have developed language learning skills and know what works well for them and what does not (p. 3-2).

The greatest time savings occurs in cases where the cross-training occurs between similar languages and the instruction in the target language is customized to exploit the similarities. Corin (1997) reported on a 10-week course at the Defense Language Institute to convert proficiency in Czech to proficiency in Serbian and Croatian that was developed in two weeks in response to linguistic requirement for deployment to the former Yugoslavia. This 10-week course replaced the regular 47-week course for forty US Army enlisted personnel; none of the students failed to meet the proficiency goals set for the course (p. 87). The DLI study (1996) reported that other courses have been organized to convert French to Haitian Creole, Russian to various Central Asian languages, and German or Slavic language proficiency to Arabic, completed at 27% to 59% of the original course length and with comparable proficiency results (p. 2-4).

For dissimilar languages, the most effective training would exploit the second and third advantages listed above. In an in-depth look at the Russian to Central Asian conversion courses, Rivers (2001) found that the students exhibited similar behaviors in three general areas: self-assessment, learner autonomy and self-directed language learning. All of the students were employed as interpreters or translators and had clear ideas of how they learned best and insisted that they be taught in a manner that best suited their preferences. What is missing from this in-depth look is any explanation of how the experienced students came to possess their self-awareness as languages learners, although the implication is that this is the result of their experiences as language students. The DLI study includes suggested intervention strategies for student learning behavior modification that if implemented could lead beginning language students to the behaviors exhibited by the experienced language learners; unfortunately, there is no indication that these intervention strategies were ever tested or implemented.

Knowledge of an Experienced Language Student

The Czech to Serbian and Croatian study clearly shows that knowledge of genetically similar languages makes it possible to compress training time. Whether this is also true of genetically dissimilar languages is harder to prove. The DLI study mentioned an analysis of foreign language immersion programs to show that knowing even a linguistically dissimilar language is a predictor of successful language learning. Brecht et al. (1993) collected demographic data on 658 American university students studying Russian in Russia as well as conducted pre- and post-program proficiency tests. Data analysis showed that in-country students had higher post-program proficiency scores

if they had another foreign language in addition to Russian in high school or college (p. 20). The analysis does not show what the advantage was in knowing another foreign language; just that it was statistically significant.

Many experienced language teachers have attempted to list the skills that their best students have possessed which the teachers thought made them good language learners. For example, Tchizmarova (2001) stated that there are two categories of metacognitive skills that need to be mastered by students of foreign languages: language learning strategies (such as the use of reference materials) and communicative strategies (such as how to initiate a conversation). Rubin (1975) lists nine strategies that a good language learner is likely to have, and other educators have elaborated differing lists of optimal language learning strategies. These lists are the distillations of classroom observations made by experienced language teachers and as such are worthy of attention, though they lack empirical rigor.

William Rivers, one of the authors of the DLI study and author of the in-depth look at the Russian to Central Asian cross-trainees, presented a paper at the 1996 ACTFL conference in which the research strategy for the DLI study was detailed. Experienced language learners were asked to give self-assessments of their learning strategy preferences and the accuracy of these self-assessments were correlated to classroom observations and teacher assessments. The following results were reported:

1. The third-language learner is an autonomous learner.
2. The third-language learner is a self-aware learner.
3. The third-language learner is a confident learner.
4. The third-language learner is a self-directed learner. (p. 5)

Demands for autonomy were noted in requests that instructors change the organization and pacing of the lessons. Self-awareness was noted in students consciously applying grammar structures and vocabulary from one language into another. Confidence was seen when students seemed unperturbed by differences between the target language and the languages the students already knew. Self-directed learning behaviors were seen in student use of the Internet for target language practice. Experienced language learners demonstrated all of these behaviors to varying degrees, though again Rivers did not explain how these learners came to possess these skills. Further research is needed to distinguish how the skills possessed by third-language learners is different from those employed by second-language learners.

According to Oxford and Ehrman (1995), strategy training can be very useful in improving the use of language learning strategies. They found that the strategy training that works best is one that is integrated into foreign language courses rather than presented as a separate mini-course or workshop (p. 362). The remainder of this paper describes the author's proposal for using a reflective journal as a method of training language students in developing good language learning strategies.

Reflective Language Learning Practices

In my readings for this paper, I couldn't find any research that explained how the experienced language learners came to have the behaviors described above and how these behaviors could be taught to speed the process of foreign language acquisition. There did, however, seem to be a similarity between the descriptions of reflective learning as aiding the learning of any sort of lesson and the metacognitive processing that is seen as aiding the learning of a foreign language. In both instances, there is a "stepping back" from the subject matter to an examination of the subject's underlying premises or structures.

Reflective learning is a type of training intended to make students aware of their own thinking. First elaborated by John Dewey (1933), reflective learning is the training of thought to separate facts from ideas in order to make conscious the reasons for classifying one from the other. As applied to education, it is a means of encouraging the learners to manage themselves and their learning more effectively. In a study conducted by Thorpe (2000) of a college-level telecommunications course with a reflective learning component, students found it "unproblematic" to carry out some forms of reflection provided the reflective assignments were an integral part of the course and not just added on. What made the assignments integral was the quality of the feedback the students received from the instructor concerning these assignments, with clear references to criteria established for the course.

The monolingual student attempting a foreign language for the first time needs to be taught how to learn a foreign language at the same time as being taught the target language. Chamot and O'Malley (1996) have developed an insightful instructional model that details the types of learning strategies a second-language learner could employ and how the teacher could encourage their use in the classroom. Their Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA) does not, however, depend on the students being conscious of the learning strategies that they are using. This paper argues that student mastery of these strategies may depend on a reflective learning process integrated into the instructional program for the target language. By making reflective practices part of the instruction, learning can be more effective for all students. The learning strategies that the good language students may unconsciously apply in the foreign language classroom might be more effective if done consciously. Poorer students may develop mental habits that improve their progression through the course of study. What is difficult about mental habits is that they can't just be taught once; they have to be developed over time. A continuous process of reflection, such as might be organized as a journal that is periodically reviewed by the instructor, may help students learn how to learn a foreign language while they are learning a language.

Monolingual students attempting a second language would approach a reflective journal assignment differently than bilingual students attempting a third. The monolingual students would need more structure and feedback from the instructor if the journal assignment were to be effective. A possible

structure for the journal assignment is suggested by Cantrell (1997), who used a "K-W-L" structure as a way to encourage reflection. K referred to what the students already knew about a topic; W referred to what the students wanted to learn about a topic; and L referred to what the students learned about a topic. This simple format could be modified in a foreign language classroom so that students would record in their journals for K what the students already knew about that day's topics; W for how the students would go about studying that day's topics and more importantly, why that strategy; and L for what the students learned from the experience of studying for that day's topics. Even monolingual students might be able to bring some prior knowledge to bear on the day's topics, say from a similarity to English grammar, and these connections should be encouraged. Monolingual students might be unaware of what strategies they could employ in studying the day's topics and might need many suggestions from the instructor of how they could study. After finishing their studies for the day, the students would be asked to comment on what they thought went well and what would need improvement. A reflective learning journal of this sort would be directly connected to the syllabus for the course and provide a means for helping the students succeed in meeting the course's objectives.

Bilingual students attempting a third language could also benefit from reflective learning practices. Experienced students might be able to make explicit links between the grammar and vocabulary they are studying and languages they already know—languages, however, that the target language instructor may not know. They may also be more aware of language learning strategies that they prefer to use and may need less guidance from an instructor in this regard. Consequently, peer feedback may be more important for the more experienced students than instructor feedback, as fellow students might be the better resource in some situations. Reflection on how well the language learning strategies attempted that day worked out would still lead to further improvement and confidence in their target language study.

A More Easily Retrainable Linguist

The ultimate goal of introducing reflective practices into foreign language instruction is to make better language students who know how to maintain and improve their language skills and, perhaps more importantly, to make linguists who are ready to quickly become trilingual or multilingual should the need arise.

None of the students in the DLI conversion courses had any special preparation to become trilingual; future research might focus on whether the introduction of reflective practices into the target language instructional program would bring about any improvements in terms of proficiency or time savings. Preparedness for trilingualism or multilingualism may be the best way for the Department of Defense to maintain readiness to respond to changed language requirements in a time of crisis.

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Author

RICHARD S. DABROWSKI, USAF Major, a Ph.D. Student, Indiana University's School of Education, Department of Instructional Systems Technology with a minor in Language Education. 1821 Ruby Lane, Bloomington, Indiana 47401. E-mail: *rsdabrow@indiana.edu.*

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Integrating Video and the Internet into the Classroom

Deanna Tovar
and
Cecilia Barbudo
Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center

This article addresses the issue of the integration of video and Internet into the foreign language classroom to develop listening and reading comprehension. It will first present a rationale for the use of video and the Internet in the classroom. Then, it will examine the relevant literature. Next, it will provide tips for merging video and the Internet in the classroom. Guidelines will be offered for selecting video clips, creating task-based activities and linking the video themes to Internet sites. Finally, it will provide sample activities.

Rationale for Using Video and the Internet in Today's L2 Classroom

The impetus for this article began as the result of a presentation we gave at the 2001 ACTFL (American Council on Teaching Foreign Languages) conference in Washington, DC. The rationale for our project was the fact that as firm believers and users of video in the classroom, we realized that by integrating video and the Internet, based on related topics, we were able to give the students the most up-to-date information that the Internet provides. The linkage of video and the Internet created the concept of tasking students with independent research which would allow them to further explore the video topic via reading comprehension. Our understanding of what technology offers today can aid us in the teaching of a foreign language.

Literature Review

Our initial research, which focused on the practical aspects of using video in the classroom, yielded numerous references, and offered the rationale for using video. Interestingly though, we found little empirical data and research to support the notion that video enhances the learning of foreign languages. Canning-Wilson (2000, p. 2), references a survey she conducted and indicates that, "…the students like learning language through the use of videos." She further presents information related to the practical implications of using video in the classroom. Among the numerous items she mentions are the fact that video activates background schemata, provides visual stimuli which can lead to generating prediction, provides authentic or natural language, offers contextual clues, allows the learner to see both body and speech rhythm in the discourse, and most importantly stimulates and motivates student interest.

Additional support for the effectiveness of video-based teaching came from Altman (1999, p. 2) who offers video guidelines for teachers. He presents the perspective regarding why language learners benefit from video. He posits that they need video to, "…hear the language in a visible context, see the culture, acquire new knowledge, prepare for travel, and expand on knowledge gained via reading and travel." He also explains that teachers need to help their students build their listening skills and move naturally from listening to speaking or reading. Altman also provides teachers with tips for getting started when working with video and elaborates on the preparation required. A significant point mentioned by Altman is the fact that when viewing video, the learner is able to alternate between viewing and listening. This allows the learner to feel a sense of relief, which lowers anxiety levels and predisposes the learner to a more effective learning environment, especially for those learners with weak listening skills. An important aspect in terms of confidence building for the learner is the fact that a high redundancy between image and text allows students to guess and verify meaning. Additional guidance which Altman discusses in his article includes ideas regarding how much video to use at one time, how to assist students in not translating word for word when working with video, incorporating culture into the activities, and specific tips for working with news broadcasts. Because our program has established student learning outcomes related to comprehension and production of current news reports, we decided to focus our video-Internet activities on this area. News reports serve as one of the Interagency Language Roundtable's Level 2 proficiency tasks. Learners at the Defense Language Institute are asked to demonstrate the ability to comprehend printed and aural news reports as well as the ability to talk about these. Reporting on current news is required of all Level 2 performers. We provided our students with video and printed reports that covered local, national, and international news. Additional research we conducted helped us tie the use of video to the Internet.

As most teachers know, we are in the heart of what has been described as "… a monumental technological paradigm shift, one that will eventually change the way that all instructors teach and the way that students learn…" (Jensen, 1993, p. 8). This is the age of technology, the age of the Internet. In today's language programs, we are as comfortable with the computer as we are with the tape recorder, the projector, or the video in the classroom. As Garret (1991, p. 75) has observed, "… the computer is rather a medium or an environment in which a wide variety of methods, approaches, or pedagogical philosophies may be implemented." Language teachers can ill afford to miss out on the opportunities to enhance language learning presented by technology. The difficulties teachers have, according to Conacher and Royall (1998, pp. 37-41) are in "…adapting their methods and teaching strategies to the advances in technology, and integrating new learner strategies into the classroom to introduce and encourage the use of new technologies." The authors conclude that "…success can only be measured in terms of the benefits students gained and the impact of new technologies on the process of language learning."

The Internet is a valuable instructional resource. It provides students with easy access to current information from countries around the world. Students are able to explore a vast array of information such as current events, cultural, geographical, and historical, among other topics of information from countries in which the target language is spoken. Access to the resources on the Internet means that we no longer have to rely on three week-old-newspapers; we can discuss events as they unfold. These materials provide language experience as well as valuable content and cultural information. Searching the Web gives students more autonomy as learners, and helps them develop critical thinking and decision-making skills. As we developed our project, we realized the time had come to immerse ourselves in the Internet, link it to authentic video, and make use of all these media have to offer.

All of the above information regarding the use of video and the Internet seemed compatible with what we knew about today's language learner at the DLIFLC. We administered the Style Analysis Survey (SAS), a learning styles inventory developed by Oxford (1993) and found that the majority of our learners were visually oriented. An example of the survey analysis feedback provided to visual learners offers the following, "You rely on the sense of sight and you learn best through visual means (books, video, graphics)." We also discovered that most of our learners were very interested in the Internet and adept at surfing the Web. We quickly saw the marriage of video and the Internet as one which would lead the learner from viewing and listening to reading and speaking about real-world issues.

Tips for Merging Video and Internet

This section of the article details the more practical and specific aspects of how this video-Internet project was structured. The following guidelines are offered to assist those interested in merging the use of video and the Internet into the language classroom. The first thing to consider is the selection of video segments, followed by the creation of task-based activities for the classroom environment. Next, the teacher must find an Internet site which supplements the video segment and which can be integrated into the activity. This critical last segment is the one that will lead the student to conducting the independent search. The Internet site is chosen either to reinforce what has been learned in the classroom, compare different points of view on a given topic, or to prepare for a topic to be discussed in the classroom.

A very important factor that must be considered when working with authentic material is teacher preparation time. How many times have we heard teachers say "I am spending too much time preparing materials that I will only use once?" Preparing video classes is very time consuming. Selecting video segments plus creating activities takes a considerable amount of time, therefore when preparing a class it is good to keep in mind that the most valuable classes to prepare are those that can be used over time and will not become outdated too quickly. Our approach is to choose topics with lasting significance, be they social, cultural, or human interest stories. But that does not

mean that we must refrain from using current events, simply because they are current today, and will be outdated tomorrow. We can still use current video news reports. Using a video news report that took place months or years ago offers a historical point of view. Stoops (1995) refers to two concepts related to the use of authentic news material: "timeless vs. timely." News events, such as crimes, natural disasters, reports on science, technology, or human interest stories are "timeless," and by using them at the right moment we make them "timely." For example, teachers can use a video segment about a flood at a moment when there is a flood in the area. We believe that video segments of news that happened some time ago are made "timely" by relating the theme's topic to a current event. We have successfully presented a video clip on a terrorist attack that happened in Peru in 1997 relating it to the September 11th 2001 terrorist attack that has impacted the world today. In this way, yesterday's news is made "timely."

Another important issue to consider when preparing a video class is that it must contain interesting content. Teachers know that one of the keys to learning is motivation. If we get the attention of our students we will have a greater advantage in the process of transmitting knowledge. When teaching a foreign language it is sometimes difficult to find topics that are of interest to all students. Personal backgrounds, hobbies, basic needs, travel plans, etc. are some of the topics that are used daily in the language classroom, but there comes a time when it is difficult to surprise students with new themes. At that juncture, it is time to turn to current events. There is much going on every day in the world and we can use this information in the classroom as a content trampoline to achieve our goal of teaching a foreign language. It is a challenge for teachers to bring the most interesting topics, based on the student population, to the classroom. The material should be relevant to the specific student group.

Much has been written regarding the length of video segments to be used in class. The general trend is "keep them short." According to Stempleski and Tomalin (1990, p. 9) "With a few exceptions, your video sequences must be suitable for exploitation in a single one-hour class period. They are, therefore likely to be no more than five minutes in length (and may be as short as thirty seconds) for most classroom activities." Altman (1989, p. 4) writes, "Create a ten-minute class activity that uses one minute of video." We have often worked with 2 to 4 minute segments and obtained great results. One has to consider the level of the students and the purpose for listening. The length of the segment will vary if the task is a global listening task or a specific purpose task. It is also beneficial to consider the attention span of learners, which can decrease enormously when listening to a foreign language.

Once the video clip has been selected, the teacher must determine how to organize the learning activities. Nunan (1998, p. 130) writes about task-chain activities. "Activities in the unit build on those which go before. The language is progressively restructured as learners move from global, comprehension-based activities to those involving language production and analysis." Activities should exploit the image as well as the text. The image helps

comprehension, offers a setting and provides body language. Learners need activities that encourage them to become active listeners, guessers, predictors, and risk-takers. Learners will benefit from activities that call for higher order thinking skills, defined in Bloom's Taxonomy (Bloom, 1956) as those activities that go beyond comprehension and application and involve analyzing, synthesizing and evaluating. And last but not least, it is important to choreograph optimal movement between the video listening task, the speaking task, and the Internet reading task.

Most people know that the Internet has a wealth of information available, but sometimes they are intimidated by the flood of information they face once they arrive online, especially when dealing with a foreign language. While there are many possibilities for exploiting the Internet in the foreign language classroom, we focus here on helping the students to become independent learners and critical thinkers by tasking them to conduct independent research activities related to the video topic. Students may do these activities in the classroom, working in groups or on their own as a homework assignment.

Two possible approaches to integrating the Web into video classroom activities are described here. The first is the topic search approach. This involves giving the students the freedom to look for anything related to the topic given, which requires time to search the Web and has the potential danger of taking students off track (we all know how easy it is to allow links to take us away from our original purpose for searching). There is, however an advantage to this approach, which is that the student can spend unstructured time within various aspects of the foreign culture exploring dynamic routes through the Web. The second approach deals with more concrete research, providing the student with specific addresses on the topic and having them spend their research time on target sites. This requires more preparation and effort on the part of the teacher. This approach requires finding the appropriate addresses and keeping them up to date for future classes because Internet addresses can change. In addition to the benefit of bringing the culture to the student, students enjoy learning via the Internet. According to Green (1997, p. 258), "…the interaction of students with the Internet, which many students find very attractive and enjoyable, expands their exposure to the language and culture to outside the classroom, an imperative step in fostering lasting knowledge." But we have to remind ourselves as teachers that the Internet is another tool and everything depends upon utilizing it in ways that make a positive difference for our students. It is very important to maintain some perspective on the Internet and its potential role in the language classroom.

Sample Activities

The objectives of the video-Internet activities were two-fold. Because the activities were developed for the military learner at the DLIFLC, the objectives included proficiency and performance-type tasks. Many of the tasks required students to summarize information and answer content questions in both listening and reading. They were also asked to transcribe and

translate. Discussions required factual and evaluative analysis. The long-term goal of the language programs at DLIFLC is to produce autonomous learners who will continue their development in the foreign language. The Internet component of the activities seemed to lead learners toward that goal.

We presented six different templates at the ACTFL 2001 Conference with the goal of making the audience think of various ways to integrate the use of video and Internet into the classroom.

We will describe here two templates as examples. In the first (see Appendix A) the topic of the class was "Natural Disasters," and it was designed for a one hour Spanish class for level 1/1+ (ILR) students. The class started with a discussion of the kind of information that is usually associated with a news broadcast about a natural disaster. Words such as casualties, damage and present danger were generated in the students' brainstorming. The topic was expanded with the personal experiences of the learners. Next we planned the viewing of a two-minute video clip about the Mexican volcano Popocatepetl. The class was divided into groups of three. Each of the students in the groups had a task to accomplish. The first student took notes on the seismic activity of the volcano, the second student took notes on the reaction of the people and the third student took notes on the attitude of the authorities. After watching the video, students discussed in their groups the information that they obtained and put together the pieces of the news item. After a second viewing, a summary was required of the students. Then the group of three students gathered in front of a computer and went online to the site: www.geocities.com/escobosa/POPOCATEPETL.html. Their task was to obtain information about the exact location and the most recent seismic activity on this volcano.

In the second template (see Appendix B), the topic of the class was "Drug Trafficking." This lesson was also designed for a one hour Spanish class for level 1/1+ (ILR) students. The class started watching a 30-second video clip with no sound. The clip contained images of police confiscating drugs in the jungle. Students were asked to predict what they might expect to hear. Then we watched the 1 minute video clip with sound and students were tasked to listen for essential elements of information. They were encouraged to take notes and then share them with their learning partner in order to put together the news report. We then asked the students to look for more information about the topic. They were asked to read an article that appeared in the Peruvian newspaper *El Comercio* the same day that the previous TV broadcast was presented to students. Then, we watched a second video clip. This time a spokesman posed the question: Who is to blame for drug trafficking, the countries that produce the drugs, the countries that traffic it or the countries that demand it? The students were asked to listen for the question and give their opinion about the topic. We then asked students to apply their learning and go online to one of the following Colombian newspapers: www.elespectador.com or www.eltiempo.com and find a news item about drug trafficking. The students were asked to work on their own as a homework assignment, looking for any similarities or differences with the news item we

had worked on in class. This assignment would be discussed the following day in class.

Conclusion

Our video-Internet activities provided both learners and teachers with rich sources of news-oriented topics which were discussed and debated. Learners were challenged to go beyond their level of competence to listen to video broadcasts for main ideas as well as detailed information, and to read related Internet articles and then express and support their opinions. The richness of the material and the diversity of the topics encouraged learners and teachers to explore interaction at its best. The use of video and the Internet seemed to lend itself well to discussions that allowed students the opportunity to compare news broadcasts and to discuss the differences and similarities they found. We also saw the benefit of having students compare video segments to printed reports on similar topics.

An important element of the video and Internet connection was the speaking component. Learners seemed to thrive as they were given opportunities to interact. They seemed eager to relate what they knew about a topic or to share what they had found on the Internet. The speaking activities that were based on the video and Internet classes provided learners with opportunities to negotiate for meaning. As the students viewed and then commented on what they had seen and elaborated on the video topics, they experienced two features necessary for acquisition, input and output. Many of the video tasks were based on pair or group work following the viewing. The interaction focus of the tasks forced the learners to modify, negotiate, and clarify their meanings and intentions. We based the speaking activities on the principle that, " Interaction is the collaborative exchange of thoughts, feelings, or ideas between two or more people resulting in a reciprocal effect on each other" (Brown, 1994, p. 159).

An additional benefit we saw of using video and Internet was the cultural richness these sources brought to the classroom. Altman (1989, pp. 3-4) also states: "Video challenges us to base our linguistic model on oral language and the target culture. …Video never allows us to forget that full understanding depends on our ability to perceive the reciprocal relationship between the language and the systems of culture that it defines and by which it is simultaneously defined."

The greatest learning for us as teachers was the fact that no matter how detailed or complicated the broadcasts and the related printed matter, learners succeeded much more often than not in comprehending the facts and subtleties of the topics. We found that Altman's words (1999) were true once we trusted our learners and ourselves, "Have faith in your students and in the extraordinary leaps they will make in comprehending authentic foreign video, once they have become familiar with the medium."

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Appendix A

Natural Disasters

Activity 1

Discuss the kind of information that is usually associated with a news broadcast about a natural disaster.

Activity 2

Divide the class in groups of three. Watch a two-minute video clip about the Mexican volcano Popocatepetl. Each of the students in a group will take notes on what is said about a different topic:

Estudiante 1: Actividad sísmica del volcán
Estudiante 2: Reacción de la gente
Estudiante 3: Actitud de las autoridades

Activity 3

Work with your group and share the information you obtained. Then prepare a written summary of the news item.

Activity 4

Go online to *www.geocities.com/escobosa/POPOCATEPETL.html* and get more information about the exact location and the most recent seismic activity on this volcano.

Appendix B

News about Drug Trafficking

Activity 1

Watch a 30-second video clip with no sound and predict what you might expect to hear.

Activity 2

Listen to a one-minute video clip about a news item and take notes on the most important information. Then work with your learning partner and put together the news report with the different pieces of information that you both got.

What?
When?
Where?
Who?
Why?

Activity 3

Read the following article that appeared in the Peruvian newspaper *El Comercio* the same day as the previous TV broadcast and find more information about the topic.

Activity 4

Listen to a question that a spokesman poses and give your opinion about the topic. Work in small groups.

Destruyen en selva colombiana el laboratorio de droga más grande del mundo

Producía diariamente tonelada y media de cocaína

BOGOTA, 30 (Reuter).- La policía de Colombia destruyó hoy el laboratorio para la producción de cocaína más grande en la historia de la lucha contra el narcotráfico a nivel mundial, en una operación en la que confiscó ocho toneladas y media de droga.

El complejo cocainero fue localizado en una zona selvática entre los municipios de Calamar y Miraflores, en el departamento de Guaviare, unos 300 kilómetros al sudoeste de Bogotá.

El informe oficial precisó que el complejo para la producción de cocaína estaba construido en un área de cuatro kilómetros cuadrados y oculto en medio de la selva.

La policía informó que el laboratorio producía al menos 1.5 toneladas de cocaína pura al día y que contaba con 60 campamentos construidos en madera y con una pista de aterrizaje.

La operación, denominada 'Jungla', se inició ayer y concluyó hoy con la participación de cien policías expertos en operaciones antidrogas y de contraguerrilla que fueron apoyados por seis helicópteros, un avión y tres lanchas rápidas.

El laboratorio destruido y la droga confiscada pertenecían, según la policía, a una naciente organización de narcotraficantes denominada 'Cártel de los Llanos', que contaba con el apoyo de un frente de las Fuerzas Armadas Revolucionarias de Colombia.

En la operación la policía confiscó insumos químicos, líquidos, repuestos para aviones y helicópteros.

Según un informe de inteligencia, la organización de narcotraficantes que se descubrió es dirigida por una mujer que sustituyó en el mando a su esposo luego de que éste fuera muerto en un aparente enfrentamiento con la guerrilla.

Activity 5

Go online to either of the following Colombian newspapers *www.elespectador.com* or *www.eltiempo.com* and find a news item about drug trafficking. Find any similarities or differences with the news item we have worked with in class.

Authors

DEANNA TOVAR, Professor, Dean, European School I, Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center, Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006. Interests: Curriculum design and development, second language acquisition, the role of motivation in learning languages.

CECILIA BARBUDO, Associate Professor, Curriculum Development Division, Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center, Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006. Interests: Foreign language instruction, second language acquisition and curriculum design.

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Exploring the Essential Ingredients of Effective Leadership

Christine M. Campbell
and
Deanna Tovar
Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center

The success of any team, be it in the academic or corporate milieu, is highly dependent on the quality of its leader(s). Although some may think that leaders are "born," i.e., that the apparent ease with which they apply their skills comes naturally, others (Covey, 1999) believe it is a learned skill. Leaders typically evolve over time through a process in which they acquire knowledge and skills, either through formal professional development opportunities and/or experience. Sheer hard work is a key element.

In this article we will examine some essential ingredients of effective leadership. First, we will overview the traditionally respected traits of successful leaders. Then, we will examine the profile of the transformational manager as one example of an effective leader. Finally, we will review the seven habits of highly effective people, be they leaders or not. We will refer to the discussed traits, profiles, and habits as they apply to the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) work environment.

This article is an outgrowth of a professional development workshop that we gave at the Defense Language Institute in May 2001 as part of the Academic Advisory Council's Annual Professional Development Day. We were motivated to conduct the workshop and present our ideas in this article because we had seen a need for additional leadership seminars at DLIFLC.

In recent years, the Institute has moved from a traditional civil service personnel system to a merit-based rank system. The former did not provide faculty many opportunities to work in administration; the latter does. As faculty have taken on new assignments in administration, it has become apparent that most would have benefitted from more training in the areas of leadership models or approaches, work styles, or personality types.

Traditionally Respected Traits of Successful Leaders

When we choose or find ourselves in a leadership position, we must examine ourselves critically. We must hold ourselves to the behavior that society recognizes as typical of effective leaders. We must examine our performance against that behavior.

According to Covey, good managers have *integrity*. They keep their word once they give it. When they have to revise a previously stated plan, they explain why the change of plan was required. We know we can depend on

them. Their statements are considered to be true. Although they make mistakes, they do not overlook their mistakes or allow them to go uncorrected.

They are *knowledgeable*, i.e., they know their field. They have experience and education in the field of foreign language education and are well informed about the fields of human relations, supervision, management, and leadership. They have secure egos: When they do not know something, they are not afraid to admit it. They then go find out what they need to know.

Effective leaders are *decisive*. They gather information available to them, weigh the facts, and issue clear and confident decisions.

They are *fair*, i.e., they do not play favorites. They monitor their emotions so as to maximize objectivity when making decisions. They also collect data from several sources before making a decision, providing every side a chance to present its case. As a result, subordinates feel decisions are fair. Colleagues respect their practice of giving credit where credit is due. They let people know they are appreciated and valued for their hard work and good ideas.

They are *enthusiastic*. This trait is one of the authors' personal favorites. As Ralph Waldo Emerson wrote, "Nothing great was ever achieved without enthusiasm." Enthusiasm can be contagious. Great leaders put all their energy into achieving organizational objectives and encourage others to follow.

Successful leaders have the *ability to communicate*. While we recognize good communication is key to the success of the mission, effective communication is even more challenging and harder to master.

Transformational Managers

In the Information Age, managers continue to search for better ways to improve performance and create positive work environments. One group of experts in the field of management purport that today's manager should be capable of moving employees to act, not out of fear of punishment, as with the classic, traditional manager, but out of commitment. This new type of manager, the "transformational manager" (TM) (Hackman & Johnson, 1991), transforms employees into managers themselves, motivating employees to work harder, to become more sensitive to moral and ethical issues, in sum, to think and act like managers.

Research on this type of managers has yielded information on their characteristics. The five most salient characteristics of the TM follow.

TMs are *creative*. They display their creativity by not being satisfied with the status quo, i.e., they want to set precedents. They are a problem "finder," (Hackman & Johnson, 1991 p. 305). Sears Department Store chain and Apple Computer started having problems in part because their managers were resting on their laurels and not incessantly searching for better and different products and services. 3M, one of most innovative companies in the world, fosters creativity by rewarding creative success but <u>not</u> punishing creative failure, i.e., mistakes made when trying to create a new product or service.

More than 60 percent of new product ideas fail. 3M recognizes that nothing inhibits creativity like the fear of punishment for failure. As 3M Executive Allen Jacobson confirms, "Outsiders say we are very lenient in rewarding failure."

Most teachers recognize the value of creativity in the teaching and learning process. In fact, many either chose teaching or remain in teaching because it affords them the opportunity to be creative as they craft their daily lesson plans. In the DLIFLC environment, the Interim Student Questionnaires (ISQs) and End-of-Course Questionnaires (ESQs). The latter contain one statement that refers to creativity: "The teacher uses a variety of activities in the classroom." (Although the statement does not specifically refer to creativity, as a teacher might merely use a variety of activities that are currently a part of the curriculum without actually creating any him/herself, it implies it.) Ironically, many teachers at DLIFLC complain they cannot be as creative as they would like to be because of the many materials in the curriculum they feel obliged to cover if students are to be adequately prepared for tests. These teachers say that if they skip certain materials in the books, they are questioned by some students who insist they cover all the materials. Subsequently, some of these students allege that their test scores were affected by the fact that some materials were skipped.

While the dilemma described above is a very real one that exists at DLIFLC, it is critical that teachers recognize they have the academic freedom, i.e., the power, to select certain materials and ignore others, as long as they inform the other members of the team about their selection. It is also imperative for the team to inform the students that the team is comprised of professionals who know what materials to select for a teaching session.

The TM is *interactive*, i.e., s/he habitually interacts with the workforce. Hackman and Johnson found that "Transformational managers spend much of their time talking with followers" (p. 306). Talking can take place at formal meetings, at sensing sessions, or in private conversations. Shockley-Zalabek (1999), author of the textbook *Fundamentals of Organizational Communication*, asserts that "studies of corporate America have described intense informal communication as the key to excellence [in performance/production] in the 21st century" (p. xi).

At DLIFLC, just as in the corporate world, communications skills are a requirement for the managers functioning as Deans, Chairpersons, Division Chiefs, or Team Leaders. Good command of English is a first step towards developing the communication skills that will allow the manager to be interactive. In the environment of the Institute, such command becomes especially important during the hiring, promotion, and tenure processes as candidates are typically interviewed. Candidates who have a wealth of knowledge and experience in language learning but who cannot convey them during the interview because of low proficiency in English would most likely be rated lower than colleagues who perform better partly because of their higher proficiency in English. DLIFLC employees who aspire to leadership positions should consider taking advantage of the different options that DLIFLC provides, e.g., courses focusing on the development of English proficiency offered by the

Faculty and Staff Development Division and/or institutions such as Monterey Peninsula College and California State University, Monterey Bay, paid tuition for completion of a B.A. program, which requires courses in English, etc.

The TM is a *visionary*. Visionary managers are responsible for communicating a vision to employees. John F. Kennedy, the classic example of a visionary, defined NASA's vision in 1962 through his statement, "Landing a man on the moon and returning him safely to earth before this decade is out." Disney's vision statement is: "To make people happy." Apple Computer articulates its vision like so: "To make a contribution to the world by making tools for the mind that advance humankind." DLIFLC's vision is to search continually for better ways to fulfill the mission, which is to educate linguists, assess their language ability, and sustain their language ability.

The individual with sights on leadership positions at DLIFLC should fully understand the role of the Final Learning Objectives (FLOs) in the overall mission of DLIFLC. This understanding will allow the individual to think about better ways to achieve the mission. The continual, systematic drive to improve upon the status quo and the penchant to be a "problem finder," in addition to being a problem solver, are behaviors typical of the visionary manager. The aspiring manager at DLIFLC can observe managers to see what kinds of strategies they use to set and attain goals and how they communicate their vision to the workforce.

The TM is *empowering*. As Hackman and Johnson emphasize, "Transformational managers help followers believe in their own abilities." As employees believe more and more in their own abilities, they become empowered. Psychologist A. Bandura created the term "efficacy expectation," (Hackman & Johnson, 1991, p. 307) i.e., belief in your own abilities. This belief or confidence will help you be more efficient or productive. TMs build employees' efficacy expectations by being supportive of new initiatives and encouraging on a daily basis.

How many DLIFLC employees currently feel empowered by their managers? Some of us have had supportive supervisors who have welcomed our initiatives to experiment with innovative ideas; others of us have felt stymied by supervisors who try to suppress such efforts. It appears that there are three main reasons for supervisors' negativity: (a) conservatism that translates to an unwillingness to set precedents, to deviate from the status quo; (b) ignorance as to the value of the new idea; (c) jealousy of faculty attempts to do the new and different. Whatever the reason, this type of supervisor has no place in today's DLIFLC. Under the merit-based Faculty Personnel System (FPS), a supervisor who is not open to change, who is unaware of the latest trends in foreign language methodology and their application to DLIFLC, and who is pettily jealous of subordinates who excel is doomed to fail. The FPS, which requires faculty to compete with other faculty annually for merit points, is especially designed to ensure that the better, if not the best, candidates for managerial positions are selected.

Finally, the TMs are *passionate* about their work. Thoroughly committed, they energetically go about communicating with the workforce and

solving problems. Most DLIFLC employees would recognize that our Chancellor, Dr. Clifford, is passionate about all aspects of DLIFLC. As he recently stated in an ACTFL newsletter, although he has worked at DLIFLC almost 20 years, he is genuinely and thoroughly excited to come to work every day. How many of us can say the same? How many of us project the excitement that is an intrinsic part of passion? Granted, some are passionate about the work itself, specifically L2 learning, but aggravated by aspects of the work environment such as problems with interpersonal relations, complications associated with dealing with a bureaucracy, etc. However, as the management literature points out, the leader who allows him/herself to get bogged down and even demoralized by these things is not a TM. The true TM consistently projects a can-do, dynamic attitude.

In reviewing the leaders at DLIFLC, both authors agree the best ones displayed these traits. Individuals currently in or aspiring to leadership positions at DLIFLC might consider further examining these characteristics. If the management literature is correct, the leader or manager who demonstrates these characteristics is more likely to transform a mediocre institution or company into a stellar one.

The Seven Habits of Highly Effective People

In 1999, our first year serving as Deans, we discovered Stephen Covey's (1989, 1990, 1999) "seven habits." The habits are designed to help guide individuals as they move towards "achieving unity or oneness" with themselves, loved ones, friends, and co-workers. Covey's book provides powerful lessons for personal change. We found the habits, which he views as the intersection between knowledge, skills, and desires, particularly relevant because our work as Deans has forced us to look at changing ourselves to meet the challenges before us.

Habits 1-3 deal with *self-mastery*. They focus on personal effectiveness and help individuals move from dependence to independence. Covey explains that once an individual becomes independent, s/he has the foundation for effective interdependence. Habit 1 urges us to "*Be proactive*," i.e., to have a personal vision and be responsible for our actions. We agreed that as Deans and previously as project managers/supervisors, we needed to be clear about what we valued, what we believed, and what we were able to influence. This knowledge helped us focus our attention on those things we could change rather than on those over which we had no control. Team Leaders, Chairpersons, Division Chiefs, and Deans at DLIFLC would do well to be proactive versus reactive.

Habit 2 tells us to pay attention to the things we want to accomplish, i.e., to "*Begin with the end in mind*." This habit deals with identifying the criteria that guide decision-making. Covey suggests the individual cannot know where s/he is going without having a personal mission and fully understanding the organization mission statement. As Deans, we are asked to make

decisions and solve problems that affect others. Knowing the ultimate goal and communicating that goal to subordinates is critical when managing change.

Habit 3, "*Put first things first,*" reinforces what we already believe about the importance of relationships in leadership. This habit addresses self–development areas such as self management, doing what needs to be done, whether one likes doing certain tasks or not, and being aware of effective time management techniques such as organizing and executing around priorities. We are pleased to note that, according to Covey, the most recent approaches to time management focus on relationships and the accomplishment of results.

Covey's habits 4-6 reflect *paradigms of interdependence*. Since DLIFLC's academic work is organized around teaching teams, the concept of interdependence is critical to the success of the Institute's mission. Cooperation and communication among the students, faculty, and the administration are examples of interdependent behaviors that are required for successful teaching and learning.

Habit 4 is known as "*Think win-win*" and involves coming to agreements that provide mutual benefits in interactions. In order to achieve "Win-Win," Covey recommends individuals first make an effort to see the problem from the others' point of view. Then, identify the key issues and concerns involved. Next, decide what kind of results will help the parties reach a solution. Finally, delineate new options that might help achieve the results. While the win-win approach requires much more dialogue, mediation, and negotiation, in the end it is more productive and yields more positive, longer-lasting results than most win-lose scenarios. By engaging in the win-win paradigm, parties agree to reach a solution that is mutually beneficial. The paradigm is especially applicable to problem solving within DLIFLC's teaching teams.

Habit 5, "*Seek first to understand, then to be understood*," refers to listening with the intent to understand. Covey calls this type of listening "empathic listening," i.e., listening with the eyes and heart for feeling and meaning. He suggests that this type of listening will assist with the understanding process. Covey also reminds us that much is communicated through body language. This particular habit is especially important to us. We find taking the time to listen is critical to building stronger relationships that facilitate goal-getting.

Habit 6 compels us to "*Synergize*." He explains that the whole is greater than the sum of its parts and emphasizes creative cooperation and teamwork. In the circles of teamwork, whether in student-teacher, teacher-teacher, or teacher-administration, synergy is achievable if all are focused on achieving the same objective and are willing to collaborate and cooperate.

Finally, Covey, reminds leaders to renew themselves. He exhorts us to "*Sharpen the saw*," i.e., to be aware of the four dimensions of human nature and to engage in activities that involve the four elements—physical, spiritual, mental, and social/emotional. Our personal experience in leadership and management has shown us that balancing these four dimensions enhances a leader's performance.

The seven habits move us along a maturity continuum that provides

an "incremental, sequential, highly-integrated approach to the development of personal and interpersonal effectiveness" (p. 48). We believe Covey's seven habits can be seen as principles by which to lead at DLIFLC.

Conclusion

According to Herman DuPree, CEO of BeMiller Furniture Company who is nationally known for his expertise in management, the first duty of the leader is to define reality for his/her employees. The second duty is to thank them for doing their job. May all current and aspiring leaders who read the reflections on leadership in this article especially remember to do the latter.

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CHRISTINE M. CAMPBELL, Dean, School of Middle East Languages, Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center, Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006. Specializations: Language program management, language testing, and language anxiety.

DEANNA TOVAR, Dean, School of European Languages, Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center, Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006. Specializations: Leadership development, second language acquisition, the role of motivation in learning languages.

Conference Report

Culture as the Core in the Second Language Classroom

Erna Susic
Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center

The Center for Advanced Research on Language Acquisition (CARLA) conference was held at the University of Minnesota at Minneapolis from August 12 to August 16, 2002. There were 27 participants from all over the United States and 4 (including myself) from DLI.

The conference covered the following study areas:

Theoretical frameworks for the study of culture
Moving from theory to practice
Developing intercultural competence
Towards an intercultural pedagogy
Assessment of culture learning

The main presenter was Francine Klein, a Ph.D. candidate in the Second Language and Cultures Education program at the University of Minnesota. She also teaches French and German languages. Other presenters included Nuria Vidal, an Education Advisor at the Education Office of the Embassy of Spain; Barbara Kappler, an Assistant Director of Programming and Training at the International Student Scholar Services at the University of Minnesota; and guest speaker Blair Bateman, a PhD student with concentration in the ethnographic interviews.

For me, the most interesting part of the conference was discussing what culture is, sharing our experience and encounters with foreign cultures. This discussion was part of the "Sharing our experience as culture teachers" and "Research on foreign/second language teachers' beliefs about culture" sessions. Another very educational part was discussing lesson plans for the class and how to incorporate culture into every day instruction. This was part of the "Creating classroom activities and class discussion" and "Writing a 'What is culture?' mini-lesson for your classroom" sessions. Unfortunately, many educators think that culture is separate from the language and when they teach culture they teach it separately from the language. This conference thought us how to incorporate culture into the language.

Presenters at the conference also talked about theory and different models of culture learning. This was also very helpful, but for me (who likes more practice than theory) it was a little bit dry. I wish I had seen more practical examples at the conference, because that is how I learn the most. But I was lucky to be chosen among other candidates to choose a free gift (book) from the CARLA institute. I chose a *Proficiency-Oriented Language Instruction and Assessment: A Curriculum Handbook for Teachers* edited by Diane J.

Tedicks. The book is very helpful, and provides many lesson plan examples for proficiency-oriented instructions. I will share many of these lessons with other European I teachers when I present to them ideas I learned on how to teach culture through language.

I met many educators from all over the United States. Most of them teach in high schools or elementary schools, but they share the same concerns and issues as we who teach adults. Some of these issues are:

> How to incorporate culture when curriculums are set to teach language only?
>
> How to motivate students to learn about other people, their values, and beliefs when they seem uninterested?
>
> How to overcome students' ethnocentric views about their own culture?
>
> How to convince administrators and teachers (and students) that teaching (learning) culture will help them teach (learn) the language?

These are some issues that we discussed but cannot be solved without shared goals and ideas from both teachers and administrators.

At the conference, I realized that the Serbian/Croatian Department (I am not familiar with the Russian Department teaching techniques so I cannot say anything about them) does teach some culture through the language but I believe that it is not stressed enough. I hope to see more culture incorporated into the language. The benefit for students of learning a culture is not only to learn about the people of the Former Yugoslavia. Learning about someone else gives them more knowledge about themselves. When students finish a 47-week course, they should not only graduate with the knowledge of the Serbian/Croatian language; they should graduate with more open-mindedness, and with more understanding about themselves and others.

Review

Ahlan Wa Sahlan, Functional Modern Standard Arabic for Beginners. (2000). By Mahdi Alosh. New Haven and London: Yale University Press.

Reviewed by FOAZI EL-BAROUKI
Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center

In the midst of search for alternatives to our Basic Arabic Course at DLI, I would like to offer the following review of a book dealing with communicative approach to serve as a helping tool for this search. The current principal textbook titled From the Gulf to the Ocean (GO, published in 1981 and introduced to DLI in 1986, is outdated and contains controversial topics.

Ahlan wa Sahlah is designed according to a functional, proficiency-oriented approach with a concomitant attention to accuracy. It is primarily focused on elementary instruction in Modern Standard Arabic. Accompanied by an Instructor's Handbook, an Audio Program, and a CD-ROM, this textbook unveils an engaging story that involves a Syrian studying in the U.S. and an American studying in Cairo. In diaries, letters and postcards the two students describe their thoughts and activities, revealing how a non-American views American culture and how an American student experiences Arabic culture.

This book contains 30 lessons designed to cover the first year of Arabic at the university level, both in regular and intensive courses. All activities of comprehension, vocabulary, grammar and writing attend to both form and meaning and develop functional abilities and knowledge about the Arabic sound, writing and structural systems. The Audio program, which serve as a model of aural input and a source of listening comprehension, consists of 10 CDs. They contain:

> Reading passages, guided speaking practice, new vocabulary, listening comprehension passages and oral drills recorded by native speakers of Arabic at near-normal speed.
>
> Word-by-word and phrase-by-phrase interactive instruction on recognition and production of language forms and oral communication.
>
> Listening exercises designed to develop sound discrimination, word recognition and listening comprehension.

The teacher's handbook, a comprehensive resource manual for instructors, includes an introduction to language teaching methods as well as step-by-step lesson plans and a bibliography. It contains background information and practical suggestions on teaching the different lessons and assessing learning.

According to Dr. Roger Allen, the head of Middle Eastern Studies at the University of Pennsylvania, *Ahlan wa Sahlan* is "A major advance in the way Arabic is taught and an outstanding new addition to the available materials on the subject." At the present time, *Ahlan wa Sahlan* textbook can be used as a supplement to Semester One of the intensive Arabic program at DLI which consists of 30 lessons of functional proficiency-based activities. Our students can greatly benefit from its CD-ROM features and our teachers may use the teacher's handbook, which presents an explicit theoretical background in English and practical suggestions on teaching the program. According to the author, volume two of this series is coming up soon. Maybe then, we might be able to reassess its suitability for our Semester One intensive program.

General Information

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General Information

Calendar of Events*

2003

Practical Applications in Language Corpora, 4–6 April, international conference, Lodz, Poland. Contact: Email: corpora@krysia.uni.lodz.pl

Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (NECTFL), 10–13 April, Washington, DC. Contact: Northeast Conference, Dickinson College, PO Box 1773, Carlisle, PA 17013-2896; (717) 245-1977, Fax (717) 245-1976, Email: nectfl@dickinson.edu Web: www.dickinson.edu/nectfl

American Educational Research Association (AERA), 21–25 April, Chicago. Contact: AERA, 1230 17th St., NW, Washington, DC 20036-3078; (202) 223-9485, Fax: (202) 775-1824. Web: www.aera.net

International Society for Language Studies (ISLS), 30 April–2 May, first conference, St. Thomas, U.S. Virgin Islands. Contact: Email: isls@uconn.edu Web: home.earthlink.net/~isls/conf.htm

Fourth International Symposium on Bilingualism, 30 April–3 May, Tempe, AZ. Contact: ISB4, Arizona State University, PO Box 870211, Tempe, AZ 85287-0211; (480) 727-6877, Fax (480) 727-6875, Email: isb4@asu.edu Web: isb4.asu.edu

WorldCALL 2003, 7–10 May, Banff, Alberta, Canada. Contact: www.worldcall.org

National Association of Professors of Hebrew (NAPH), 18–21 May, Conference on Hebrew Language and Literature, University of South Florida, Tampa, FL. Contact: Gilead Morahg, Department of Hebrew Studies, University of Wisconsin, 1346 Van Hise Hall, 1220 Linden Dr., Madison, WI, 53706; (608) 262-3204, Email: gmorahg@wisc.edu Web: polyglot.lss.wisc.edu/naph/

CALICO 2003, 20–24 May, University of Ottawa, Canada. Contact: info@calico.org Web: calico.org.h/CALICO03/index.html

NAFSA: Association of International Educators, 25–30, May, annual conference, Salt Lake City, UT. Contact: Conference@nafsa.org Web: www.nafsa.org

ADFL Summer Seminar East, 12–14 June, New Haven, CT. Contact: Elizabeth Welles, Director, or David Goldberg, Associate Director, ADFL, 26 Broadway, Third Floor, New York, NY 10004-1789; (646) 576-5133, Email: adfl@mla.org Web: www.adfl.org

International Association for Language Learning Technology (IALLT), 19–21 June, Ann Arbor, MI. Contact: www.lsa.umich.edu/lrc/iallt/

ADFL Summer Seminar West, 26–28 June, Snowbird, UT. Contact: Elizabeth Welles, Director, or David Goldberg, Associate Director, ADFL, 26 Broadway, Third Floor, New York, NY 10004-1789; (646) 576-5133, Email: adfl@mla.org Web: www.adfl.org

* Courtesy of The *Modern Language Journal* (University of Wisconsin)

Fédération des Professeurs de Langues Vivantes / World Federation of Modern Language Associations (FIPLV), 2–6 July, 21st world congress, Rand Afrikaans University, Johannesburg, South Africa. Contact: Anna Coetzee, Department of Afrikaans, Rand Afrikaans University, PO Box 524, Auckland Park 2006, Republic of South Africa; (+27) (11) 489-2698, Email: aec@lw.rau.ac.za Web: www.fiplv.org

American Association of Teachers of French (AATF), 4–7 July, annual convention, La Pointe du Bout, Martinique. Contact: Jane Abrate, AATF, Mailcode 4510, Southern Illinois University, Carbondale, IL 62901-4510; (618) 453-5731, Fax (618) 453-5733, Email: abrate@siu.edu Web: www.frenchteachers.org

Australian Federation of Modern Language Teachers Associations (AFMLTA), 10–12 July, annual conference, Brisbane, Australia. Contact: Angela Scarino, President AFMLTA, 9 Stanley Street, North Adelaide SA 5006, Australia; (+61) (08) 8302-4775, Fax (+61) (08) 8302-4774, Email: conference2003@afmlta.asn.au Web: www.afmlta.asn.au/conf2003.htm

Eighth International Pragmatics Conference, 13–18 July, Toronto, Canada. Contact: Jef Verschueren, IPrA Research Center, University of Antwerp, Universiteitsplein 1, B-2610 Wilrijk, Belgium; (+32) (3) 820 27 73, Fax (+32) (3) 230 55 74, Email: jef.verschueren@ua.ac.be Web: ipra-www.uia.ac.be/ipra/8th_conference.html

Fourteenth European Symposium on Language for Special Purposes, 18–22 August, Guildford, UK. Contact: LSP 2003, Department of Computing, School of Electronics, Computing and Mathematics, University of Surrey, Guildford, Surrey, UK; Email: lsp2003@surrey.ac.uk Web: www.computing.surrey.ac.uk/lsp2003

EUROCALL 2003, 3–6 September, University of Limerick, Ireland. Contact: June Thompson, EUROCALL Office, The Language Institute, University of Hull, Hull HU6 7RX, UK; Fax (+44) (0) 1482 466180, Email: eurocall@hull.ac.uk Web: www.eurocall.org/confs/cfp/euro2003cfp.htm

Third International Conference on Third Language Acquisition and Trilingualism, 4–6 September, Tralee, Ireland. Contact: Muiris O'Laoire, Dept. of Languages and Communication, School of Business and Social Studies, Institute of Technology, Tralee, Ireland; Email: molaoire@tinet.ie Web: www.spz.tu-darmstadt.de/projekt_L3

European Second Language Association (EUROSLA), 19–21 September, 13th annual conference, Edinburgh, UK. Contact: www.hw.ac.uk/langWWW/eurosla/eurosla03.htm

American Translators Association (ATA), 5–8 November, Phoenix, AZ. Contact: ATA, (703) 683-6100, Fax (703) 683-6122, Email: conference@atanet.org Web: www.atanet.org

American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL), 20–23 November, Philadelphia. Contact: ACTFL, 6 Executive Plaza, Yonkers, NY 10701-6801; (914) 963-8830, Fax (914) 963-1275, Email:

headquarters@actfl.org Web: www.actfl.org

American Association of Teachers of Arabic (AATA), 20–23 November, Philadelphia. Contact: John Eisele, Executive Director, AATA, Department of Modern Languages and Literatures, College of William and Mary, PO Box 8795, Williamsburg, VA 23187; (757) 221-7412, Fax (757) 221-3637, Email: aata@wm.edu Web: www.wm.edu/aata/

American Association of Teachers of German (AATG), 20–23 November, Philadelphia. Contact: AATG, 112 Haddontowne Court #104, Cherry Hill, NJ 08034; (856) 795-5553, Fax (856) 795-9398, Email: headquarters@aatg.org Web: www.aatg.org

Chinese Language Teachers Association (CLTA), 20–23 November, Philadelphia. Contact: CLTA Headquarters, Cynthia Ning, Center for Chinese Studies, Moore Hall #416, University of Hawai‘i, Honolulu, HI 96822; (808) 956-2692, Fax (808) 956-2682, Email: cyndy@hawaii.edu Web: clta.deall.ohio-state.edu

Modern Language Association of America (MLA), 27–30 December, location to be announced. Contact: MLA, 10 Astor Place, New York, NY 10003-6981; Fax (212) 477-9863, Email: convention@mla.org Web: www.mla.org

American Association of Teachers of Slavic and Eastern European Languages (AATSEEL) and American Council of Teachers of Russian, 27–30 December, location to be announced. Contact: AATSEEL, Kathleen E. Dillon, Executive Director, PO Box 7039, Berkeley CA 94707-2306, Email: aatseel@earthlink.net Web: clover.slavic.pitt.edu/~aatseel

International Association of Teachers of Czech (IATC–NAATC) (formerly: North American Association of Teachers of Czech), 27–30 December, location to be announced. Contact: Neil Bermel, Department of Russian and Slavonic Studies, University of Sheffield, Sheffield S10 2TN, UK; (+44) (0) 114 222 7405, Fax (+44) (0) 114 222 7416, Email: n.bermel@sheffield.ac.uk Web: www.language.brown.edu/NAATC/index.html

2004

Southern Conference on Language Teaching (SCOLT), 18–20 March, Mobile, AL. Contact: Lynne McClendon, SCOLT, 165 Lazy Laurel Chase, Roswell, GA 30076; (770) 992-1256, Fax (770) 992-3464, Email: lynnemcc@mindspring.com Web: www.valdosta.edu/scolt

Southwest Conference on Language Teaching (SWCOLT), 25–27 March, Albuquerque, NM. Contact: Audrey Cournia, SWOLT, (775) 358-6943, Fax (775) 358-1605, Email: CourniaAudrey@cs.com Web: www.learnalanguage.org/swcolt

Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL), 29 March–3 April, Long Beach, CA. Contact: TESOL, 700 South Washington Street, Suite 200, Alexandria, VA 22314; (703) 836-0774, Fax (703) 836-7864, Email: conventions@tesol.org Web: www.tesol.org

Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, 1–3 April, Dearborn, MI. Contact: Patrick T. Raven, Executive Director, PO Box 251, Milwaukee, WI 53201-0251; (414) 405-4645, Fax (414) 276-4650, Email: CSCTFL@aol.com Web: www.centralstates.cc/

American Educational Research Association (AERA), 5–9 April, San Francisco. Contact: AERA, 1230 17th St., NW, Washington, DC 20036-3078; (202) 223-9485, Fax: (202) 775-1824. Web: www.aera.net

Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (NECTFL), 15–18 April, New York. Contact: Northeast Conference, Dickinson College, PO Box 1773, Carlisle, PA 17013-2896; (717) 245-1977, Fax (717) 245-1976, Email: nectfl@dickinson.edu Web: www.dickinson.edu/nectfl

International Reading Association (IRA), 9–14 May, annual convention, Toronto, Canada: Contact: International Reading Association, Headquarters Office, 800 Barksdale Rd., PO Box 8139, Newark, DE 19714-8139, (302) 731-1600, Fax: (302) 731-1057, Web: www.ira.org

American Association of Teachers of French (AATF), 18–23 July, Atlanta, GA. Contact: Jane Abrate, AATF, Mailcode 4510, Southern Illinois University, Carbondale, IL 62901-4510; (618) 453-5731, Fax (618) 453-5733, Email: abrate@siu.edu Web: www.frenchteachers.org

International Conference on Immersion and CLIC Education, September (dates to be announced), Kokkola, Finland. Contact: Jaana Laitinen, Email: janna.laitinen@kokkola.fi Web: www.kokkola.fi/sivistystoimi/virasto/index.htm

American Translators Association (ATA), 13–16 October, Toronto, Canada. Contact: ATA, (703) 683-6100, Fax (703) 683-6122; Email: conference@atanet.org Web: www.atanet.org

American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL), 18–21November, Chicago. Contact: ACTFL, 6 Executive Plaza, Yonkers, NY 10701-6801; (914) 963-8830, Fax (914) 963-1275, Email: headquarters@actfl.org Web: www.actfl.org

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Chinese Language Teachers Association (CLTA), 18–21 November, ChicagoContact: CLTA Headquarters, Cynthia Ning, Center for Chinese Studies, Moore Hall #416, University of Hawai‘i, Honolulu, HI 96822; (808) 956-2692, Fax (808) 956-2682, Email: cyndy@hawaii.edu Web: clta.deall.ohio-state.edu

Information for Contributors

Purpose

The purpose of this internal publication is to increase and share professional knowledge among DLIFLC faculty and staff, as well as to promote professional communication within the Defense Foreign Language Program.

Submission of Manuscripts

The success of *Dialog on Language Instruction* depends on your cooperation and support. *Dialog on Language Instruction* accepts only original manuscripts with the understanding that they have not been submitted for publication elsewhere. All materials submitted for publication should conform to the *Publications Manual of the American Psychological Association* (4th Ed., 1994), available from the American Psychological Association, P. O. Box 2710, Hyattsville, MD 20784.

We encourage you to submit a previously unpublished manuscript, a review, a description of innovative classroom activities, a news item, or even a comment on language instruction. Express your ideas on all aspects of language instruction including teaching, learning, and research. Present your findings on language teaching, learning, classroom strategies and techniques, and applied research.

Articles

Manuscripts should not exceed 20 double-spaced pages. Divide your manuscript into the following sections:

- Abstract
- Introduction
- Organizing Construct
  - Point 1
  - Point 2
  - Point 3
- Discussion
- Conclusion
- Appendices
- Notes
- References
- Acknowledgments
- Author

Abstract

Provide a brief overview of your manuscript in 75 to 100 words. First, identify the topic of your manuscript in one sentence. Next state the purpose and the scope of your manuscript in a couple of sentences. Next name the sources used, for example personal observation, published books and articles. Finally, state your conclusion in the last sentence of the abstract.

Introduction

Describe the purpose of the manuscript. Relate it to the content of the recently, within the last two to three years, published literature. Describe work that had a direct impact on your study. Avoid general references. Cite only pertinent research findings and relevant methodological issues. Provide the logical continuity between previous and present work. Identify the main issues of your study. Point out the implications of your study.

Organizing Construct

Divide this part into subsections. Focus each subsection on a specific issue identified in the introduction. In each subsection, identify the issue, describe it, and present your finding.

Discussion

Respond to the following questions guide: (1) What I have contributed here? (2) How has my study helped to resolve the original problem? (3) What conclusions and theoretical implications can I draw from my study?

Conclusion

Summarize your findings.

References

The list of references should be submitted on a separate page of the manuscript with the centered heading: *References.* The entries should be arranged alphabetically by surnames of authors. The sample list of references below illustrates format for bibliographic entries:

Dulay, H., & Burt, M. (1974). Errors and strategies in child second language acquisition. *TESOL Quarterly,* 16(1), 93-95.

Harris, D. P. (1969). *Testing English as a second language.* New York: McGraw-Hill.

Reference citations in the text of the manuscript should include the name of the author of the work cited, the date of the work, and when quoting, the page numbers on which the material that is being quoted originally appeared, e.g.,

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Faculty Exchange

This section provides an opportunity for faculty to share ideas through brief articles up to two double-spaced pages on innovative classroom practices, such as suggestions on communicative activities, team teaching, use of media and realia, and adaptation of authentic materials. Each sample of a model classroom activity should state the purpose, provide instructions and, if applicable, give supporting texts or illustrations.

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Manuscripts should be typed on 8.5 x 11 in. paper, double-spaced, with margins of about 1.25 in. on all four sides. All pages should be numbered consecutively. Each manuscript should be submitted in three copies. The first page should include only the title and the text. It is recommended that passages or

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Author

JANE C. DOE, Assistant Professor, Foreign Language Education, University of America, 226 N. Madison St., Madison, WI 55306. Specializations: foreign language acquisition, curriculum studies.

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Where feasible, manuscripts are preferred on 3.5" disk. Manuscript produced on DOS or Macintosh systems should be formatted as MS-DOS file on a double density disk, if possible. MS Word files are preferred.

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lack of organization
poor quality of writing
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