Dialog on Language Instruction

Editor
Jiaying Howard

Dialog on Language Instruction is an occasional internal publication of the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) and part of its professional development program. Its primary function is to promote the exchange of professional knowledge and information among DLIFLC faculty and staff and to encourage professional communication within the worldwide Defense Foreign Language Program.

This publication presents professional knowledge and information. The views expressed herein are those of the authors, not the Department of Defense or its elements. The content does not necessarily reflect the official US Army position and does not change or supersede any information in official US Army publications. Dialog on Language Instruction reserves the right to edit material.

Further reproduction is not advisable. Whenever copyrighted materials are reproduced in this publication, copyright release has ordinarily been obtained only for use in this specific issue. Requests for reprints should be directed to the individual authors.

To access the electronic version of Dialog on Language Instruction, go to: http://www.dliflc.edu/resources/publications/dialog-on-language-instruction/

Send correspondence to:

Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center
ATFL-AS-AJ
ATTN: Editor, Dialog on Language Instruction
Monterey, CA 93944-5006

Email
jiaying.howard@dliflc.edu

Copy Editors
Jeff Hansman & Michael Mcguire
R Murray Thomas
Tom Colin & Ricky Harris
Natela Cutter & Dusan Tatomirovic
Dialog on Language Instruction
Volume 28 • Number 2 • 2018

CONTENTS

Articles

1 Which Way to Go: Teaching L2 Reading in the Era of an Internet-enabled World
   Paulina De Santis

9 An Open Architecture Approach to Individualized Instruction
   Thomas Stovicek

23 Two Types of Vocabulary Knowledge in L2 Listening Comprehension: Visual and Auditory
   Sunghyun Song & Sang Young Jeong

Theme Section • Reaching Higher Levels: How We Do It

35 Applying Principles of Adult Learning to Advance Foreign Language Skills
   Aksana Mather

40 Implementing a Self-directed Research Project in Foreign Language Education
   Jae Sun Lee & Daesung Lee

   Jisook C. Kim

Reviews

   Reviewed by Jiaying Howard

   Reviewed by Su-Ling Hsueh & Xiaohui Wu
Meet a Team

63 Field Language and Culture Training for Operational Readiness
An Interview with Dr. Qasem, Dean of Field Support, & Ms. Mehmedali, Associate Dean of Field Support

News & Events

66 Conference Report: Language Learning and Teaching Conference, 3 July 2018
Galayna Wade & Ravinder S. Singh

Technology Resources

69 Edpuzzle
Maria Cubau

71 Empowering Teachers via Technology: Getting Help with Lynda.com
Ivanisa R Ferrer

74 Edmodo: The Digital Classroom in the Age of Facebook
Sonia Perchaud

82 Classtools.net: A Tool Box that Every Teacher Should Have
Yugang Zhou & Tatjana Mitrovic

General Information

87 Upcoming Events
89 Information for Contributors
94 Call for Papers

95 Thank You
Reading comprehension has become a more complex task in a media rich, multifaceted environment. As web-based reading has become an increasingly central aspect of life, the ability to read effectively online has turned into an especially important skill for everyone engaged in technologically mediated discourse. The pilot study reported in this paper aims to explore the extent to which foreign language instructors utilize online texts as compared to traditional texts in teaching L2 reading so that the students are better equipped to become life-long learners and to make informed decisions about the information available on the Internet.

INTRODUCTION

Our world is becoming increasingly digital; rapid changes in information and communication technology have reshaped the meaning of reading. The current definition of literacy, formulated by the Program for International Student Assessment (PISA), reflects these changes and is broadened to encompass new skills associated with online reading. It echoes the merging of traditional and online literacy and defines literacy as a constructive process that involves “understanding, using, reflecting on and engaging with written texts, in order to achieve one’s goals, to develop one’s knowledge and potential, and to participate in society” (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, 2016). In other words, in our Internet-enabled world, reading implies not only comprehension but also doing something with what we read. “Reflecting on” what we read emphasizes the notion that reading is interactive: readers draw on their own thoughts and experiences when engaging with “written texts” that include all those coherent texts in which language is used, including texts on websites.

According to the Pew Research Center Survey “Book Reading 2016,” American adults remain “hybrid consumers,” as they read both online and in print. About four in ten Americans read news online, whereas two in ten get their news from print newspapers. Research has also demonstrated that Americans are more likely to read for the purpose of researching a specific topic and that younger
adults are more likely than older adults to read for work or school, or research a topic of interest (Pew Research Center, 2016).

**LITERATURE REVIEW**

Reading comprehension is a complex and active process of constructing meaning: to foster, monitor, and maintain understanding—the reader responds to texts by using previous knowledge, various processes, skills, and strategies. These processes and strategies will likely vary with context and purpose as readers interact with multiple texts, both in print and when using digital technologies. While constructing meaning, the reader uses a range of text and situational cues that are often socially and culturally derived (Bernhardt, 1991; Koda, 2010; Rouet & Britt, 2014) and the spread of digital technology has further increased the complexity of reading skills (Coiro, 2003; Grabe & Stoller, 2002).

Studies concur that hypertexts are different from traditional texts in terms of linearity, organizational patterns, and modality (Sutherland-Smith, 2002; Tindale, 2005). In general, hypertexts are described as being non-linear, even though there are some that are organized similarly to print texts (you can move through the text both forward and backward). Readers of print texts can flip through some pages in a different order but most are designed to be read in a linear fashion and sequentially (from the first word in the book to the last). At the same time, the information in hypertexts can be accessed in different sequences using links and each reader’s paths may be different from the paths of the author or other readers—one word might lead to an entirely new piece of reading.

The visual element in web texts is another typical feature that adds to the complexity of online reading. Traditional texts typically include a combination of two types of media (print and two-dimensional graphics) whereas electronic texts can integrate a range of symbols and multiple-media formats including icons, animated symbols, photographs, cartoons, virtual reality environment, and new forms of information with nontraditional combinations of fonts and sizes; images and sounds are combined with written texts to create new ways of conveying meaning. Web-based text environments are, by their very nature, interactive as opposed to static words on a printed page and they can be updated regularly or frequently so the reader can encounter a different text each time it is accessed. Essentially, such texts have a varying, dynamic existence in which only a segment of the available text can be seen at any one time and often the extent of the available text is unknown. Table 1 illustrates the difference between the online and traditional reading environments.
Table 1

Summary of the Difference between Online and Offline Reading Environments*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Offline reading</th>
<th>Online reading</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Texts are mostly narrative</td>
<td>Texts are mostly informational</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whole-class or small groups</td>
<td>More individualized</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information typically consists only of text, sometimes with images</td>
<td>Multi-media format</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information typically flows sequentially</td>
<td>Information is not sequential</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Static and fixed format</td>
<td>Interactive and dynamic format</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Adopted from Sutherland-Smith, 2002; Tindale, 2005

Most researchers agree that the skills required to comprehend hypertexts are different from those of print texts, and that they need to be refined by learners and educators alike (Leu, Coiro, Castek, Hartman, Henry, & Reinking, 2008; Verezub, Grossi, Howard, & Watkins, 2008). Web-texts, embedded with many hyperlinks and media, make different demands on the reader. The background knowledge of the reader can partially determine the effect hypertexts have on comprehension. Web-based environments introduce a new set of cognitive barriers that can cause competent readers of conventional texts to be cognitively overloaded and emotionally frustrated. Interactive hypertexts may offer too many choices, too many animations may distract and disorient otherwise strong readers, and the Internet may have a negative impact on attention and reading comprehension. One study showed that encountering about five hyperlinks per page to about 11 per page reduced college students’ text comprehension as assessed by multiple-choice tests (Henry, 2006). Henry (2006) found that the major obstacle for students was that they were unable to successfully limit their search which resulted in much wasted time and frustration, as the volume of material was far too great for the learners to sift through. Deciding whether to click or not may not only be time-consuming but may also reduce reading comprehension, with poorly designed websites placing undue frustration or cognitive load on the students (Thurston, 2004). Some researchers even suggest that we have become superficial readers, as the speed at which information is presented prevents the deep reading required to fully comprehend what we read (Carr, 2008).

Researchers agree that reading web texts involves expanding critical skills and that hypertext reading requires associative thinking. One of the concepts of associative thinking is that everything is connected and networked; the hard part is believing that everything is linked because on the surface everything seems rather disjointed and chaotic; nonetheless, we know this is not the case (Sutherland-Smith, 2002). Understanding how information is interlinked and hyper-connected is a foundation skill and an essential part of reading in today's society (Ruth, 2009). Supported and meaningful use of hypertexts is both desirable and productive. Critical thinking, therefore, has become more important...
than ever in reading literacy (Halpern, 1998; Shetzer & Warschauer, 2000; Warschauer, 1999).

Recent qualitative studies demonstrate that technology enhances learning and the use of digital media supports traditional learning and facilitates new kinds of learning (Alvermann, 2010; Coiro, Knobel, Lankshear, & Leu, 2008; Parker, 2010). Although nearly all U.S. classrooms have access to the Internet, a limited number of teachers integrate the Internet and other digital media into their instruction (Purcell, Heaps, Buchanan, & Friedrich, 2013). Furthermore, no empirical study has been conducted to investigate the extent to which foreign language instructors respond to the new challenges that the information and communication technology brings into their classrooms, specifically in teaching reading comprehension.

Considering that both print and digital texts have become part of our everyday life, this study examines the ways L2 reading instruction at the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) is influenced by technology and provides pedagogical suggestions based on the findings. This study adds to current scholarship by focusing on teaching and learning in the technology-rich, immersion-like environment where digital tools and digital mindsets are woven into all aspects of the curriculum and where foreign language instructors support the students in becoming autonomous, life-long learners, able to reach higher levels of linguistic proficiency, and carry out a wide range of comprehension and interpretive tasks.

METHOD

The pilot study reported in this paper is both exploratory and methodologically oriented. It intends to explore evidence of both online and traditional text use in teaching reading in a second language (L2) classroom. Provided that foreign language learners read both print and online texts, the study aims to answer two research questions: (1) To what extent do instructors use online reading texts in teaching L2 reading comprehension? (2) To what extent do instructors use print texts in teaching L2 reading comprehension?

Data Collection

The findings for this pilot study are based on a review of authentic documentation from the Instructor Recertification Course at DLIFLC, Monterey, CA. According to the DLIFLC website, language instruction is provided in 17 languages (including several dialects). The intensive language programs vary in length from 36 to 64 weeks of instruction depending on the language. Because the core mission is language acquisition, DLIFLC students spend five days a week, seven hours per day in class learning the target language and two to three hours doing homework.

The Instructor Recertification Course (IRC) is a mandatory 40-hour course for all DLIFLC foreign language instructors who have been teaching at the
institute for more than five years. The IRC aims to ensure that all foreign language instructors adhere to the most recent foreign language teaching methodologies and make effective use of the state-of-the-art educational technology. To complete the course, each instructor must teach a lesson that demonstrates his/her adherence to the Institute’s foreign language teaching requirements. As a senior faculty development support specialist at the DLIFLC, the researcher conducted quality assurance by coordinating IRC certification observations with the assigned instructor and prepared a memorandum of the observed lesson. All classrooms (at DLIFLC in general, and those where the researcher observed for the purpose of the study) are equipped with interactive SMART Boards; all students (age 19-36) and instructors have laptops provided by the school.

Data Analysis

The method utilized in this pilot study was document data analysis, specifically IRC certification memoranda, to provide information on the actual practice of teaching reading. The aim of data collection was to build a data set of lesson plans that demonstrate the use of online and off-line texts in teaching reading. The researcher examined a total of 38 lesson plan memos, which she had written during 2014-2017, on Arabic, Chinese, Farsi, Korean, Russian, Spanish, and Pashto instructors as part of the recertification program. The first step in data analysis was to extract lesson plans that focused on teaching reading comprehension from the total of 48 memos, which left 38 memos for more detailed analysis. The discarded memos were those that did not use reading texts during the class hour and focused on listening comprehension or speaking practice. These 38 memos were then coded and a microanalysis of the texts used for reading comprehension was performed. The print texts used were hardcopies of textbook reading materials and authentic articles printed from the Internet whereas the online texts were softcopies of the reading materials accessed by students via computers using links provided by the instructors.

Table 2
Print and Online Reading Texts Used

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Print Texts</th>
<th>Online Texts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Authentic Articles</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Textbook</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
RESULTS

The results of the study demonstrated that instructors used both online and print texts when teaching reading. However, 89% of the instructors used hard copies of texts (textbooks and articles printed from the Internet) and only 10% of the instructors used online reading texts, whereas 13% of the instructors used both printed and online reading texts within the same class hour. The results of this study, similar to other research findings, indicate that online reading is under-used in teaching reading.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Previous studies have identified inadequate training as one of the main reasons why teachers are reluctant to use technology in their classes (Liu, 2012). However, in regards to the current pilot study, both instructors and students have the technical tools and skills needed to use technological resources in teaching and learning. Furthermore, as all instructors used technology for other activities during the observed lessons (e.g., for schemata activation), it would be important to explore the reasons why they did not use online reading texts.

Technology has initiated a paradigm shift in our ways of reading, learning, and teaching. Although many of the skills required for reading print and online texts are similar, electronic reading demands that new emphases and strategies be added to the repertoires of readers. Research suggests that proficient offline readers are not always proficient online readers and vice versa. The results of this pilot study confirm other research findings that hypertexts are ubiquitous (McNamara & Shapiro, 2005) and for teachers to be able to assist and guide the students, they need, first and foremost, to be informed and involved in Web-based teaching. It is also important for instructors to take advantage of the online reading comprehension strategies that students bring to the classroom and engage them in collaboration and discussion. Students may need help in understanding target language online texts, such as anticipating the structure and certain characteristics of the texts, which, in turn, may facilitate their reading and use of the Web.

This pilot study lays the foundation for further research on the extent to which DLIFLC instructors use online texts in teaching reading, their beliefs in terms of the benefits of using online texts in teaching reading comprehension, and new strategies for online reading that they introduce in class. Although the findings of this study relate specifically to the utilization of print or online texts in teaching reading comprehension at the DLIFLC, it may be relevant to other educational contexts, additional research on teachers’ beliefs and practices in academic reading instruction, and teacher professional development in general. Based on this pilot study, the researcher will further investigate the ways DLIFLC instructors use print and online texts in teaching reading in order to improve teaching practices that assist students in reaching higher proficiency levels.
REFERENCES


An Open Architecture Approach to Individualized Instruction

THOMAS STOVICEK
Field Support, Continuing Education

Individualized, self-paced foreign language instructional programs are not new. Many US colleges and universities have implemented or experimented with variations of this model since the 1970s. The general goals include providing access to and flexibility in foreign-language study in ways that the traditional classroom model typically has not permitted. In October 2016 the DLIFLC Language Training Detachment at the United States Southern Command began a pilot program known as the Tailored Instruction in Languages Program (TILP), which borrows from lessons learned from college and university individualized instruction programs in foreign languages, while incorporating the concept of open architecture syllabus design to enhance student-centeredness and foster learner autonomy. This means that learning tasks, designed around learner-defined objectives, are central to the design and organization of instruction for each participant. This article aims to place the TILP within the broader context of self-paced foreign language instructional programs, comparing and contrasting the nascent results, and observations from the pilot program with those drawn from case studies of college and university programs which embody similar aspirations. The author will also discuss the potential benefits and challenges associated with implementing and managing a program of this type as part of a military command language program.

INTRODUCTION

The acquisition and maintenance of foreign language skills represents a major investment, both at the individual level and at the level of the organizations which require these skills to conduct their business successfully. Language learners are rarely, if ever, afforded the privilege of focusing full time on their language study, as most will need to balance it with the competing requirements of job duties, family responsibilities, other academic coursework, health and wellness concerns, etc. Studying language as a job requirement can
be particularly challenging when language study is relegated to a secondary, part-time responsibility within a highly-dynamic and complex organization such as the United States Southern Command (USSOUTHCOM). Despite such complex challenges, Brecht and Rivers (2012) synthesize the importance of maintaining a language program at an organization of this nature in their essay on U.S. National Defense language policy.

As a constant required investment in this capacity, language sustainment and enhancement is and inevitably will be increasingly in demand across the military and government for more sophisticated job performance. On-the-job training has to be targeted to job performance with life-cycle language and culture education available across the workforce, through more effective and efficient programmes informed by research in cognitive neural research and supported by advances in technology. Life-cycle training means that language learning is an ever-present, career-long endeavor. Finally, in this system management must focus on employing these skills appropriately to keep them from atrophying (p. 269).

Although multiple languages are spoken throughout the region, the colonial history of the countries and territories within the USSOUTHCOM Area of Responsibility, which includes the land mass of Latin America south of Mexico, the waters adjacent to Central and South America, and the Caribbean sea, limits the high-volume non-English languages generally deemed appropriate for inter-government interactions to a relatively limited set: Spanish, Brazilian-Portuguese, and French. This allows a small team of professional language instructors to provide the expertise, but this factor does not eliminate the complexity of providing on-site language instruction or the heterogeneity of the language learners and their objectives. Foreign language skills and the accompanying regional expertise and cultural understanding are required or desired for a variety of job functions and career fields across the personnel assigned to USSOUTHCOM. Language learners assigned to the Language Training Detachment (LTD) at USSOUTHCOM come with a wide range of backgrounds in the language of study. Some learners of Spanish have had limited exposure to the language but many already have limited working proficiency or higher, having studied extensively in high-school or college, having lived or worked abroad, or as heritage language speakers. Learners of Portuguese often have a strong background in Spanish. Many learners of French also have had previous experience studying the language in school to varying degrees of proficiency. The learners’ objectives for language study are as diverse as their own backgrounds combined with the diversity of the jobs they perform and the careers they are pursuing. Meeting the needs of these learners in a group setting, on a fixed schedule, and with limited resources, presents a number of problems.
American colleges and universities have also faced challenges in meeting the diverse needs of the language learners whom they serve. Among these is funding instruction in low demand languages. Scheduling language courses to make them widely available is another. The development of self-paced, individualized programs in foreign languages has been one approach to addressing these problems. Twarog and Walters (1981) describe the inception of the Individualized Instruction (I.I.) program at the Ohio State University.

The late sixties saw the beginning of the erosion of foreign language enrollments throughout the United States...In 1971 the Dean of the College of Humanities appointed a special committee to review instruction in foreign languages, and to make suggestions about possible changes in the curriculum. The major recommendations of the committee may be summarized as follows. Foreign language programs should be revised: 1) to address the problems that the lock step approach creates for many students; 2) to reduce attrition, 3) to make the study of foreign languages appealing; 4) to increase enrollments; 5) to marshal and apportion resources of the University in a new way, by restructuring the teaching/learning process. In this context a major effort in individualized instruction had its origin (p. 1).

In 2016, the USSOUTHCOM approached the Language Training Detachment team from the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center, Directorate of Continuing Education, Division of Field Support with the task of piloting a flexible, tailored program for teaching foreign languages as an alternative to part-time, group classes on a fixed schedule. The agreed-upon objectives included reducing course attrition rates, and making the instruction flexible, personalized, immediately relevant, fully engaging, challenging and, of course, effective. The objective was to facilitate the development of learner autonomy, to enable learners to pursue language proficiency throughout their careers. The Tailored Instruction in Languages Program (TILP) pilot was launched in October 2016. After more than one year of implementation, it is convenient to provide here a description of the TILP model within the larger context of individualized instruction foreign language programs in US higher education, and to compare the lessons learned from these diverse contexts.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Harlow (1987) conducted the most recent published survey of individualized instruction foreign language programs at American colleges. The nationwide survey of foreign language departments in four-year colleges and universities focused on the number of Individualized Instruction Programs (IIPs), the characteristics of the programs and the respondents’ perceptions of the problems faced in teaching foreign language in an individualized track.
According to Harlow (1987), the ACTFL Annual Bibliography from 1971-79 lists over 150 articles and books on individualized foreign language instruction. In the 1980s fewer than 15 publications had surfaced when the nationwide survey was conducted, and the majority dated to 1982 and earlier. The survey results indicated:

At least 111 foreign language departments representing ninety-seven four-year colleges and universities throughout the nation (fifteen percent of the respondents) continue[d] to offer language instruction in an individualized track. An additional 194 departments (twenty-five percent) expressed interest in developing new IIPs, and 333 departments (forty-three percent) indicated interest in attending a future national conference on the topic. (p. 387)

The language taught most in these programs was Spanish, followed by French and German, tied for second place. Russian, Italian and Latin were also found among the top six. Within the survey results all levels of language instruction were described from beginning through advanced in addition to reading, culture and literature-focused courses.

Frequently cited reasons for adding IIPs included an interest in serving the needs of the individual learner, a desire to provide an alternate mode for learning, and student demand. Departmental needs including curriculum expansion, offering upper division courses and courses out of sequence. The phasing in of new languages also seems to have been widely facilitated by the implementation of IIPs (Harlow 1987).

Challenges associated with the implementation and management of IIPs included record keeping, low enrollments, the perceived inability of students to learn on their own, the cost of providing high quality individualized instruction, disagreement with the philosophy of individualized instruction, and institutional budget cuts. Staffing presented a challenge, particularly at institutions without graduate students. The rate of attrition (students who enroll in a course but do not successfully complete it) was also cited by respondents as a problem. The survey results revealed that 108 departments (fourteen percent of the respondents) had dropped individualized instruction language courses from the curriculum due to reasons such as those cited here (Harlow 1987).

Harlow’s paper discusses the factors contributing to the success and failure of IIPs. “[T]he type of student typically attending classes in a particular institution may also play a role in whether such a program succeeds, particularly regarding such problems as procrastination and student motivation” (1987, p.392). Challenges related to perceived student inability or unwillingness to learn on their own and procrastination were addressed in several ways. One institution screened students prior to enrollment for factors considered to be indicative of success such as previous study of foreign languages. Other programs have implemented different schemes of deadlines and sometimes penalty points to help keep students on track with respect to program objectives. Some program leaders asserted that this kind of structure was beneficial and
even desired by most students. Recognizing that the level of instructor demand varies throughout the academic calendar, some institutions introduced flexible scheduling for instructors in which one might “sign out” if few appointments were scheduled and then “sign in” during a busy deadline week (Harlow 1987).

IIPs are seen as a means to accommodate the “faux débutants who arrive each fall and do not easily fit into traditional standardized courses, as well as the increasing number of older, non-traditional students seeking foreign language instruction geared toward their special needs and interests. In addition, [individualized instruction] is viewed as a practical means of offering instruction in the ‘critical’, or less-commonly-taught, languages for both undergraduate and graduate students” (Harlow, 1987, p. 392).

Having reviewed frequent motivations for creating IIPs and common challenges faced by those overseeing them, let us now examine several specific programs in closer detail to reveal the similarities and differences among them. Benmaman, Moore, Morgan and Rowe (1982) describe in detail the individualized language program in Spanish at the College of Charleston in South Carolina. This is a state-supported institution of 5,000 students with a two-year language requirement for all students. The Individualized Learning Program (ILP) incorporated many of the elements of program design which have been discussed in the professional literature from the 1970s-80s: mastery-based learning, variable pacing, flexible scheduling, learning activity packets, small group conversation sessions and peer tutoring.

Benmaman et. al. (1982) discuss the funding, facilities, and staffing challenges faced by the College of Charleston. Additional funding was required to cover the initial cost of equipping the center with tape recorders, slide projectors, tapes, and other supplies. Two program directors also received a summer stipend to develop the curricular materials based on the textbook used in classroom-track Spanish classes. The facilities consisted of a large classroom dedicated permanently to the ILP, with divisions to separate the space into small activity centers for conversation, listening, and independent study. The program also used a separate language laboratory. Staffing needs were met by giving the two program directors a one-course reduction from the normal faculty teaching load in order to supervise the ILP. Undergraduate students majoring in Spanish, native speakers, and other qualified upperclassmen were effectively employed as aides. These students, working as tutors, were paid with Work-study monies. Experience in the ILP determined that three part-time student assistants in addition to the two faculty program directors per hundred students was an effective ratio.

In their evaluation of the program, Benmaman et. al. (1982) noted that attrition was slightly higher in the ILP (35%) than in the classroom track (30%). However, only 37% of the regular classroom-track students received grades of “A” or “B” whereas 64% of the ILP students received grades of “A” or “B”. To address concerns about whether grading was less stringent in the ILP, the standardized MLA Cooperative Foreign Language Test (Spanish Listening and Spanish Writing) was administered as a point of comparison. The ILP students
generally scored significantly higher than those in regular sections. Overall, attrition is not seen as a major problem for the ILP at the College of Charleston given that, although the withdrawal rate in the ILP was higher than in the regular sections, far fewer ILP students failed the course. Thus the overall percentage of students who successfully completed the two types of courses was comparable.

The College of Humanities at the Ohio State University (OSU) was awarded a grant from the National Endowment for the Humanities (NEH) to develop and implement a system of individualized instruction at the elementary level in Arabic, French, German, Latin, Russian, and Spanish (Twarog & Walters, 1981). The I.I. program in languages at the OSU, also referred to as the TAMBSPI (Teacher-Assisted, Mastery-Based, Self-Paced Instruction), included a distance-learning mode of instruction conducted by telephone, known as TELE-TAMBSPI, and targeted to non-traditional language students (Twarog & Pereszlenyi-Pinter, 1988). This program continues today in the AT&T Individualized Language Learning Center (IILC) at the OSU, where eight languages are taught: Chinese, French, German, Japanese, Korean, Portuguese, Russian, and Spanish. The OSU claims that this is the longest running individualized program in the country (The Ohio State University, 2017).

The TAMBSPI courses are defined as being teacher-assisted because although students work primarily with self-instructional materials, a trained teacher is available “at all times” in the learning center to answer questions, organize conversation groups, administer tests, and assist in other ways. Twarog & Walters (1981) emphasize that the TAMBSPI differs from other self-instructional programs which use native informants rather than trained teachers. The courses are mastery-based with respect to how course credits are awarded. Students earn one credit hour at a time, and must pass a unit test at 80% or above to proceed to the next unit. Therefore a “B-” is the minimum grade possible. The courses are also self-paced—students determine the pace at which they move through the course units and how many credits (from two to twenty) they will work toward during the academic quarter.

The TELE-TAMBSPI courses follow essentially the same model as the TAMBSI courses with the main difference being that the students communicate with instructors by telephone for assistance and oral tests. This objective of extending program participation via telephone was to allow students to access the program without travelling to the Columbus Campus of the OSU, even from anywhere in the nation (Twarog & Pereszlenyi-Pinter 1988).

The cost of TAMBSPI at the OSU was a concern from the beginning. From the time of the submission of the NEH grant proposal, the college insisted that the unit cost of instruction not exceed that of the classroom track, not counting the developmental costs which were covered primarily by the grant money. This goal was met by reducing the teacher-to-student ratio, by enrolling additional non-traditional students who otherwise would not undertake language instruction at the OSU, and by absorbing small upper level courses that have a very low student-to-teacher ratio (Twarog & Walters, 1981).
The effectiveness of both the TAMBSPI and TELE-TAMBSBI has been evaluated positively. Twarog & Walters (1981) observed that the TAMBSPI programs were cost effective, students did learn and the programs attracted a new clientele. TELE-TAMBSPI, according to Twarog & Pereszlenyi-Pinter (1988), could be used effectively to learn foreign languages and was an effective and time-saving method for review. Busy, time-conscious professionals found the program especially rewarding. The over forty-year lifespan of the I.I. program in foreign languages at the OSU attests to the effectiveness, attractiveness and cost-effectiveness of this model (The Ohio State University, 2017).

TAILORED INSTRUCTION IN LANGUAGES PROGRAM (TILP) AT USSOUTHCOM

The Tailored Instruction in Languages Program (TILP) implemented at USSOUTHCOM by the Language Training Detachment (LTD) differs from the above-mentioned college and university programs in some crucial ways. First, there is no requirement for the courses to result in college credit. Second, there are no letter grades or pre-defined learning outcomes. The learning objectives are defined by the learners themselves in cooperation with the TILP instructors. Third, the language program at USSOUTHCOM does not operate on an academic calendar—in semesters or quarters. This means that the course enrollment and completion cycle occurs on an ongoing basis with no pre-determined enrollment period. Finally, the fact that language is being taught in a professional setting as a practical tool for the learners’ current and future job responsibilities drives the objective of facilitating the development of the learners’ autonomy in foreign language learning so that they can effectively continue to pursue proficiency enhancement throughout their careers. These factors require that the TILP be designed and operated in some ways that critically differ from the college-level programs described above.

The conditions described here warrant a focus on learner-centered teaching in the design and facilitation of instruction in the TILP. Altman (1979) describes three basic tenets which characterize approaches to learner-centered language teaching:

Learner-centered language teaching implies a process of education in which the needs, abilities, and interests of each learner determine, as much as possible, the nature and shape of the foreign language curriculum (syllabus). Learner-centered language teaching can be viewed from four perspectives: goals, means, rate, and expectations. The teacher can personalize 1) the goals of instruction, allowing learners to pursue different curricular goals in the same course; 2) the means of obtaining the goal(s), whereby learners pursue the goal(s) in different ways; 3) the rate of instruction, so that the pace of learning becomes unique to each learner; and 4) the expectations as a result of instruction, whereby learners are held accountable for meeting different quantitative or qualitative criteria.
Learner-centered language teaching implies tailoring teaching to the needs of learners, regardless of whether they work individually or collectively. The critical qualification is that ideally teaching is given to learners only when they require and/or request it, and in the form most facilitative of their learning, for it is only under such conditions that they can derive the greatest benefit from it (Altman, 1979, pp. 4-5).

The concept of learner-centered teaching with personalized, adaptable curricula and syllabi has recently been referred to within the DLIFLC and the foreign language teaching community as open architecture. Derderian (2017) defines Task-based Open Architecture Language Teaching (TBOALT) as follows: “(1) task as a reflection of real world activity; (2) task as the syllabus unit; (3) task as a learner-centered base; (4) task as an ideal for second language acquisition condition; (5) task as an instrument to specify the parts to be concentrated in the next activities” (p. 64).

The linguistic background of the TILP students, as described above, is another factor in the design of the program. The fact that the learners’ language backgrounds are highly heterogeneous means that their learning needs differ as much as their knowledge and experience. The presence of native, heritage-language, and second-language speakers of Spanish in the Portuguese program necessitates a high level of learner-centeredness has been argued by Stovicek (2017). Kelm (2004) makes the case that a learner-centered approach is also the most appropriate when the students’ interests and motivations for learning the language vary significantly.

When assigned to the TILP, learners are enrolled in a 40-hour course. The course length (in instructional hours) was determined primarily for administrative reasons to make it compatible with existing codes and systems for tracking language course delivery at the DLIFLC. As a requirement for entry into the TILP, the learners complete the Online Diagnostic Assessment (ODA) for listening and reading comprehension, as well as a short questionnaire about their language background, interests, learning objectives, and scheduling needs. Armed with this information, the instructors meet with the learners individually to develop a learning plan, akin to a student contract or learning contract (Altman, 1979; Ismael & Yusof, 2012; Kelm, 2004). The 40 hours of instruction are divided into four (although this quantity can also be modified when justifiable) learning tasks or projects which the student will complete under the instructor’s guidance. The tasks, defined through a cooperative effort by the learner and instructor, is the basis for the learning plan, much in the way that a task might form a syllabus unit in a group instruction TBOALT course.

The content and objectives of each learning task are based on the learner’s immediate needs for the language in the workplace, but may also be based on other professional or personal interests of the learner’s choosing. Whenever appropriate, the learners are encouraged to develop products, as the culmination of the learning task, which contribute concretely to their job at USSOUTHCOM. The goal is to integrate the language learning process into the learners’ work activities as much as possible. In other words, the task should be...
a reflection of real world activity. The instructor and student collaborate to ensure that the effort involved in each learning task is equal to approximately 10 hours. The learners are encouraged to meet with their instructors for approximately three hours per week, but are given up to 24 calendar weeks to complete all 40 hours of work before they are asked to leave the program.

Within the framework described by Altman (1979) for learner-centered language teaching, the TILP provides the learner with options in all four “perspectives”: time, goals, mode, and expectations. This degree of flexibility was unprecedented among educational institutions, at least at the time when Altman’s essay was published in 1979. The present author is also unaware of any institution elsewhere that incorporates flexibility into the four “perspectives” in their foreign language program, and which could be studied as a model.

DISCUSSION

The data and observations drawn from the first year of the TILP pilot allow us make some generalizations about the benefits and challenges of implementing a self-paced, student-centered foreign language program within a military command language program (CLP). Following Benmaman et. al. (1982), I will address the considerations of funding, facilities, and staffing before proceeding to more general observations about the military context and open-architecture approach of the TILP.

Funding was not a major concern in the implementation of the TILP. Given that the language teaching effort shifted almost entirely from a fixed-schedule model to the TILP model, making use of the same team of three DLIFLC faculty members (one Site Director, one Spanish Instructor, and one Portuguese/French Instructor), no significant additional expenses were incurred. In a more general analysis of cost it should be mentioned that although the number of individuals granted access to language training was reduced, the goal of implementing the TILP was not to increase enrollment, but rather to enhance the availability and quality of the learning experience for the learners deemed most critical by the organization.

Additional facilities were not required for the implementation of the TILP. In fact, the existing language classrooms used by the LTD (with seating for up to 16 or up to 8 respectively) are no longer used to their capacity on a regular basis. Smaller classrooms or meeting rooms equipped with multi-media support would potentially meet the need for learners to meet with their instructors individually or in small groups. A TILP-like model could allow for a smaller footprint for a command language lab, depending on how the office and teaching spaces are configured. A comfortable meeting space configuration that promotes instructional dialog (as opposed to a forward-facing, teacher-centered configuration) is recommended.

Staffing for the TILP did not present a significant challenge for the LTD at USSOUTHCOM. More learners have been assigned to the LTD for
Spanish instruction than for Portuguese and French combined. It is, therefore, fortunate that one of the instructors assigned to the LTD is qualified to teach both of these lower-volume languages. Determining the right balance of instructional staff to training requirements could be more difficult in other organizations where the variety of languages is different and where it can be difficult to find an instructor who is highly proficient and qualified to teach more than one of the required languages. The challenge of determining the right number of TILP students to assign to an instructor at any given time is ongoing.

Given that the TILP does not use pre-prepared learning activity packets, the preparation required for each TILP participant is more time intensive than in the college-level I.I. programs described above. In the open architecture approach the task plays a role in determining the way forward (Derderian 2017). That is, the performance-feedback cycle in which the learner and instructor engage as the task is carried out should play a critical role in planning for what is to follow. This implies that textbooks and learning packets cannot be followed sequentially, and that the experience level, and level of learner autonomy, of the student will play a role in determining the type and level of involvement required of the instructor in order for the student to be successful. The variable pacing and scheduling also make it difficult to predict how many hours an instructor will spend in meetings with learners in a given week. Some learners are consistent in maintaining a schedule whereas others travel frequently, have different professional obligations that complicate the meeting schedule, and have different relationships with key factors such as motivation and procrastination. Thus far, a consistent load of six to seven active students per instructor at any given time seems feasible and effective. More experience is needed to evaluate this ratio adequately.

It should also be noted that because the USSOUTHCOM language program does not maintain a fixed enrollment period for the TILP courses, a new learner may be enrolled as soon as one learner completes a course or drops from the program, allowing for a relatively consistent student-to-teacher ratio throughout the year. This should mitigate the negative impact of student attrition.

Attrition has been a point of interest in the analyses of I.I. language programs. For the ILP at the College of Charleston, attrition was found to be slightly higher than it was in the regular sections at 35% versus 30% (Benmaman et. al., 1982). An analysis of attrition made by a comparison of the total course enrollments versus the total course completions in the TILP versus the fixed-schedule group classes at USSOUTHCOM reveals that the rate of attrition has not changed significantly during the first year of the pilot.

Literature on individualized instruction in foreign languages has discussed motivation as a valid predictor of success. For the TELE-TAMBSPI program, Twarog and Pereszlenyi-Pinter (1988) affirm that motivation is “by far the single most important predictor of success” (p. 433). Student procrastination and a lack of self-discipline are cited as factors resulting in “precipitous attrition” in the TAMBSPI program (Twarog & Walters, 1981, p. 20). Harlow’s
(1987) survey of IIPs also concludes that “the type of student typically attending classes in a particular institution may also play a role in whether a program succeeds, particularly regarding such problems as procrastination and student motivation” (p. 392). The Ohio State University (2017) reports that in over 40 years of experience with individualized instruction in foreign languages, the most successful students are independent and well-organized, know how to manage their time, have experienced success in their foreign language study, are motivated to learn the language, like one-on-one learning, need or want a flexible schedule, and are good at making and keeping deadlines. Our observation is that learners in the TILP who have completed one or more courses also share many of these qualities.

As has been described for other college-level individualized instruction programs, the question of learner motivation is relevant to the analysis of course attrition in the TILP. Currently, although documented language proficiency requirements are the impetus behind the language program at USSOUTHCOM, and play a role in prioritizing enrollment in the TILP, learners are largely self-nominated. The lack of an explicit policy mandating or encouraging participation in language training for specific individuals among the USSOUTHCOM personnel means that by default, the success of learners as well as the success of the CLP is largely dependent on the intrinsic motivation of learners. As Spolsky (2009) points out in his analysis of military language management, “the military is a hierarchical system and its commanders can be expected to pass on orders from the government, but when they do not see the relevance of these orders to their assigned tasks, it is not surprising to find them resisting” (p. 136). This reliance on intrinsic motivation for the acquisition and enhancement of foreign language skills with the Department of Defense (DoD) has been identified elsewhere as an impediment to the success of CLPs. The Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (1995) affirms that, “[w]here a CLP does not have visibility or the attention of the Commander, and language skill maintenance is relegated to a matter of ‘personal initiative,’ language skills are lost, unit readiness suffers and years of training time and dollars are wasted. Personal initiative is necessary but it is almost never sufficient for maintenance of such a complex skill as foreign language proficiency. On a unit level, language proficiency cannot be maintained without the support of the Commander” (p. 2).

Another consideration for CLP Managers who may be interested in a TILP-like model is the question of staffing. Because there is no documented best practice with respect to establishing a student-to-teacher ratio in a program of this type within the DoD, the metrics used elsewhere to determine the cost-effectiveness of hiring a full-time language instructor will be challenging to apply. Piloting the TILP at USSOUTHCOM was feasible because full-time instructors had already been assigned to the LTD prior to the request for the tailored instruction pilot, and because the languages included in the TILP pilot correspond with the qualifications of the same instructors.
CONCLUSION

The Tailored Instruction in Languages Program is not a re-invention of the wheel, as should be evident when the program is examined within the context of individualized instruction programs in foreign languages across the domain of higher education in the United States. The innovations represented by the TILP are those of simultaneously providing options to the learner in each of the domains of time, goals, mode, and expectations, and the hosting of an individualized foreign language program within a joint inter-agency military command language program.

The overall success of the TILP pilot is difficult to quantify. Although, where available, ODA profiles taken before and after a learner undertook a TILP course categorically indicate measurable improvement in general listening and reading comprehension proficiency, not all learners completed the ODA upon meeting the other course requirements, as was requested of them. This leaves a substantial gap in the desired data for assessing proficiency gains. Furthermore, a gain in general comprehension proficiency is not a universal objective for all TILP participants. Each learner establishes their own goals, which may entail domain-specific proficiency in speaking or writing. The TILP uses a type of Dynamic Assessment (Antón, 2012) to assess gains of this variety. Thus far, these assessments may be described as positive, but due to the uniqueness of each learning plan and the integration of learner self-assessment, it is not possible to compare such results to those of traditional fixed-schedule group classes.

Regarding the application of an open architecture approach in an individualized instruction program, the TILP as an experiment seems to demonstrate that there is at least real promise in combining the learner-centered aspects of individualized instruction programs with the principles inherent in TBOALT. The TILP model not only addresses the concerns of schedule and resource management that have driven the development of college-level individualized language programs, but its flexibility also facilitates maintaining the task at the center of organization and the ability of both teacher and student to adjust and change direction mid-stream as the learning progresses.

Harlow’s 1987 survey of college-level I.I. foreign language programs demonstrates that individualized instruction models do not solve all the challenges inherent in establishing and managing language instruction programs. The reader will recall that at that time 108 departments (14% of respondents) had dropped their I.I. courses from the curriculum, whereas 111 departments (15% of respondents) continued to offer I.I. language courses. Such will presumably be the case among DoD command language programs. The TILP model will not meet the needs of every unit that requires language training. Indeed some of the challenges inherent in managing such a program have been highlighted above. Nonetheless, the TILP pilot has shown some promising results so far and has received positive feedback from its participants. It is my
hope that this analysis will encourage further experimentation with open architecture course design in a variety of language instruction contexts.

REFERENCES


Online Diagnostic Assessment. Retrieved on 14 December 2017 from http://oda.dliflc.edu


The Ohio State University (2017). AT&T Individualized Instruction, Center for Languages, Literatures and Cultures. Retrieved from: https://cllc.osu.edu/undergraduate/individualized


Two Types of Vocabulary Knowledge in L2 Listening Comprehension: Visual and Auditory

SUNGHYUN SONG & SANG YOUNG JEONG
Asian School II, Undergraduate Education

Many researchers state that L2 vocabulary knowledge is a significant contributor to L2 listening comprehension. Most research on the relationship between L2 vocabulary knowledge and listening comprehension has, however, focused on visual vocabulary knowledge. This study distinguished two types of learners’ vocabulary knowledge (i.e., auditory vocabulary knowledge and visual vocabulary knowledge) and investigated their relative contribution to L2 listening comprehension. Ten (N=10) students at the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) in the beginning stage of learning Korean as a Foreign Language (KFL) participated in the study. Correlational analyses indicate that L2 learners’ auditory vocabulary knowledge has a significant positive correlation with L2 listening, whereas learners’ visual vocabulary knowledge has a low/non-significant correlation with L2 listening. The results of this study have pedagogical implications for teaching vocabulary in a foreign language classroom.

Key words: auditory vocabulary knowledge; visual vocabulary knowledge; L2 listening comprehension

INTRODUCTION

Language learning is a complex process that involves the interplay of various factors. Among the language skills in second (L2) or foreign language (FL) learning, listening is considered a key component (Vandergrift & Baker, 2015). The skill of listening is the fundamental foundation (Vandergrift, 2007), in that if a person does not understand what is said in a language-mediated conversation, communication cannot proceed. Listening, however, may be the most difficult skill
for L2 learners to acquire (Bang & Hiver 2016) and little is known about the listener characteristics that contribute to successful L2 listening comprehension (Vandergrift & Baker 2015). Rost (2013) suggests that listening contributes more to second language academic success than does reading.

In this respect, listening seems to be the most important language skill in an everyday conversation or in an academic learning situation. Learners must develop listening skills for L2 success. For this reason, many L2 teachers and learners are interested in how to improve listening skills; L2 researchers have studied the factors that may have a great effect on listening ability. Recently, some researchers, drawing implications from studies on reading, have started to explore the importance of vocabulary knowledge in listening; they have provided empirical evidence that vocabulary knowledge is a strong indicator of, and a critical contributor to listening comprehension.

There are many studies on the effects of vocabulary knowledge on L2 reading comprehension but fewer on its effect on L2 listening. There is a need to fill the knowledge gap in this area. The limited research on the relationship between vocabulary knowledge and listening prompts the current study, which focuses on the listening rather than the reading ability with regards to vocabulary knowledge.

In most studies of the effect of vocabulary knowledge, the term vocabulary knowledge was referred to as the knowledge of the words as an input in a written form, excluding the knowledge of the words as an input in a spoken form. When assessing learners’ vocabulary knowledge, most studies use a vocabulary levels test, in which learners identify a stimulus word through reading and select the synonyms or correct definitions. In contrast to previous studies, this study introduces two types of vocabulary knowledge—visual vocabulary knowledge and auditory vocabulary knowledge—these are newly coined terms for this study. By distinguishing the two types of vocabulary knowledge, this study investigates each type’s relative relationship to L2 listening comprehension.

Auditory vocabulary knowledge is defined as the learners’ knowledge of a word when they hear the word, whereas the visual vocabulary knowledge refers to the learners’ knowledge of a word when they see the word in written form. In other words, some learners may know the meaning of a word when they see it but not necessarily know it when they hear it. In this case, the learner can be said to have visual vocabulary knowledge, but not auditory vocabulary knowledge of the word.

As will be explained in more details later in the paper, this study measures 1) the two types of vocabulary knowledge with written and listening tests, and 2) listening comprehension with a listening recall protocol. After test scores are collected, a correlational analysis is conducted between the two types of vocabulary knowledge and listening comprehension test scores.
LITERATURE REVIEW

Vocabulary Knowledge and L2 Listening

Many L2 researchers, having investigated the importance of vocabulary knowledge in L2 listening comprehension, find learners’ vocabulary knowledge significantly correlated with their listening comprehension; thus concluding that vocabulary knowledge has a strong predictive power for listening scores (Mecartty, 2000; Nation, 2006; Vandergrift, 2006; Kim, 2008; Staehr, 2008, 2009; Mehrpour & Rahimi, 2010; van Zeeland & Schmitt, 2013; Wang, Z., 2014; Teng, 2014; Wen, 2014; Wang, S. 2015; Vandergrift & Baker, 2015; Teng, 2016; Wang & Treffers-Daller, 2017; Cheng & Matthews, 2018).

Using 154 university students learning Spanish, Mecartty (2000) researched the relative contribution of subjects’ vocabulary knowledge and grammar knowledge to L2 listening and reading comprehension. Hierarchical multiple regression analysis showed that vocabulary and grammatical knowledge had a significant correlation with L2 reading. In a further analysis of their effect on L2 listening, Mecartty (2000) found that grammatical knowledge was not an important predictor. Only vocabulary knowledge was a significant predictor for listening, explaining 14% of variance in listening comprehension.

Nation (2006) demonstrated that linguistic knowledge is a significant factor in listening success. Vandergrift (2006) confirmed the importance of lexical knowledge in listening skill in an investigation of how much L2 vocabulary knowledge contributes to listening proficiency. Kim (2008) showed that vocabulary knowledge accounted for 52% of variance in Korean language learners’ listening ability.

Staehr (2008) investigated the relationship between the learners’ vocabulary size and their listening, reading, and writing skills in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) with a sample of 88 EFL learners from lower secondary education. The results showed that learners’ receptive vocabulary size was strongly associated with reading and writing and moderately associated with listening. Vocabulary size, however, explained a considerable portion of the variance in learners’ listening scores.

Staehr (2009) conducted another correlational analysis of the listening test scores and vocabulary knowledge of Danish learners of English. The depth and breadth of vocabulary knowledge strongly correlated with listening comprehension. Further analysis indicated that 51% of variance in listening was explained by vocabulary knowledge and 49% by vocabulary size (breadth of vocabulary knowledge). The depth of vocabulary knowledge (quality of knowledge related to different aspects of a word and other words associated with it) accounted for the remaining 2%.

Mehrpour and Rahimi (2010) investigated the impact of general and specific vocabulary knowledge on reading and listening comprehension of 58 Iranian EFL learners. The students in the treatment group were given reading and listening comprehension tests accompanied by a glossary of the difficult words and
their meanings in the tests, whereas the students in the control group were not provided with the glossary. The results showed that the students in the treatment group significantly outperformed those in the control group, which suggests that EFL learners’ vocabulary knowledge or their familiarity with the vocabulary content impacted their listening comprehension scores. Van Zeeland & Schmitt (2013) found that L2 lexical knowledge contributes to both L1 and L2 listening, but L2 listeners’ vocabulary knowledge had a larger effect.

Some researchers (Wang, 2014; Wang, 2015; Teng, 2014; Teng, 2016) investigated the effect of two dimensions (depth and breadth) of vocabulary knowledge on EFL learners’ listening comprehension. They found that both the depth and breadth of EFL learners’ vocabulary knowledge correlated significantly with their listening comprehension. Further multiple regression analysis indicated that the depth of vocabulary knowledge was a stronger indicator and predictor, contributing more to listening comprehension scores than the breadth of vocabulary knowledge. However, Wen’s (2014) study of the breadth and depth of vocabulary knowledge produced different results: breadth contributed more than depth to the EFL learners’ listening comprehension.

Wang and Treffers-Daller (2017) examined the contribution of general language proficiency, vocabulary knowledge, and metacognitive awareness to listening comprehension with 151 non-English major students at a university in China. They examined how the degree of the variance in listening comprehension was explained by the three variables mentioned above. The results indicated that vocabulary size was the strongest predictor of listening comprehension, general language proficiency the next strongest, and metacognitive awareness a less important predictor.

Most recently, Cheng and Matthews (2018) investigated the relationship between three measures of vocabulary knowledge (receptive/orthographic, productive/orthographic, and productive/phonological) and listening and reading of 250 tertiary-level Chinese EFL learners. The study showed that productive/phonological vocabulary knowledge had the strongest correlation with listening ($r=.71$). In a further analysis, regression modeling revealed that 51% of the variance was explained by productive/phonological vocabulary knowledge in listening comprehension.

Without directly investigating the relationship between learners’ vocabulary knowledge and listening comprehension, Taylor and Geranpayeh (2011) observed that language learners who lack vocabulary knowledge experience major difficulties in listening. Kelly (1991) analyzed listening errors made by advanced EFL learners and concluded that a lack of vocabulary knowledge was the main obstacle to their successful listening comprehension. Kelly’s conclusion, however, was questionable because 100 out of 148 listening errors were produced by a single participant. In sum, although it is not conclusive that learners’ vocabulary knowledge is a decisive indicator for successful L2 listening, studies have nonetheless shown that L2 learners would not be successful in listening if they lack vocabulary knowledge.
METHOD

Participants

All participants (n=10) in this study were U.S. military students learning Korean as a Foreign Language (KFL) in a classroom setting at the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) in Monterey, CA. None of the students had learned Korean before coming to the DLIFLC. All began their foreign language study at the same time in the Korean Basic Program, a three-semester, 64-week long course. The age of students varied from late teens to thirties, with six male and four female students; some had graduated from high school and others had completed two or four years of college. When data were collected for this study, students had completed 16 weeks of their Korean studies.

Instruments

L2 Visual Vocabulary Knowledge

To measure L2 visual vocabulary knowledge, the researchers first removed seven key words from a listening passage in a listening comprehension test. The researchers then listed the removed Korean words on a vocabulary test and had the students write the meanings of the words in English, their native language.

L2 Auditory Vocabulary Knowledge

The same seven key words used for the aforementioned visual vocabulary knowledge test were used in the auditory vocabulary knowledge test. Native Korean speakers (one male and one female) recorded the words before the test. Unlike the visual vocabulary knowledge test, a piece of blank paper was used for the auditory vocabulary knowledge test. Numbers were used to indicate the order in which the words were presented. The students listened to the recorded words, one by one, and wrote the meaning of each word in English beside its corresponding number.

L2 Listening Comprehension

A listening recall protocol was used to measure students’ listening comprehension. A 20-second listening passage, developed for this study, was recorded in advance by native Korean speakers with one male and one female voice. After listening to the passage twice, students wrote everything they heard on a piece of blank paper.
Procedure

The teaching team conducted a recall protocol session in the 5th class hour (1:00-1:50 pm) two or three times a week, when students from two classes were combined into a larger group. One of the recall protocol sessions was used for this study. Three tests were conducted in the following order: 1) the auditory vocabulary knowledge test, 2) the visual vocabulary knowledge test, and 3) the listening comprehension (recall) test. The auditory knowledge test preceded the visual knowledge test because the researchers wanted to ensure that students’ auditory knowledge was not a result of first seeing the words in the visual knowledge test, so auditory knowledge test scores were not affected by the visual knowledge test.

In the auditory vocabulary knowledge test, students were asked to write their name and the testing date on a piece of blank paper. After being briefed on the testing process, students listened to each of the seven Korean words twice at a 3-second interval and wrote the English meanings of the words. The answer sheets were collected immediately after the test.

In the visual vocabulary knowledge test, students were given a list of seven Korean words. They were instructed to write the English meanings of the words next to the Korean words, and answer sheets were collected immediately after the test.

In the listening comprehension test, students were given a recall protocol sheet (a piece of blank paper) and a brief explanation of the recall protocol procedure. The students were not allowed to take notes while listening. After listening to the passage twice with a 5-second pause, they wrote down everything they had heard in English. Before the test, students were instructed to write meaningful sentences, not merely words or phrases. The protocol sheets were collected immediately after the test.

Data Analysis

The two (visual and auditory) vocabulary knowledge tests were scored based on the number of correct answers, whereas the recall protocols were graded holistically based on how well students remembered the passage. The scores for the three tests were entered into the statistical program SPSS. A correlational analysis was conducted to study the relationship between learners’ visual vocabulary knowledge and listening comprehension and between learners’ auditory vocabulary knowledge and listening comprehension. The following two tests were performed to verify the reliability of the listening comprehension scores.

Inter-rater Reliability

To determine the reliability of students’ listening comprehension scores, the recall protocols were independently graded by two researchers who were native Korean speakers, and the two scores underwent reliability analysis. The grading was highly reliable between raters (R=0.899, significant at p<.01).
Intra-rater Reliability

For intra-rater reliability, the listening recall protocols were graded twice with a 7-day interval by each researcher. The two scores underwent reliability analysis, demonstrating a high reliability within a rater (R=0.959, significant at p<.01).

RESULTS

This study aimed to distinguish between visual and auditory vocabulary knowledge and to investigate their relationship to listening comprehension as measured by a listening recall test. As shown in Tables 1-4, the two types of vocabulary knowledge have different correlations with listening comprehension: auditory vocabulary knowledge has a significant positive correlation with listening (R=.642, p<.05), whereas visual vocabulary knowledge has a low non-significant correlation (R=.074). More than 41% of the variance in listening is accounted for by auditory vocabulary knowledge, but less than 1% of the variance is explained by the visual vocabulary knowledge.

Auditory Vocabulary Knowledge and L2 Listening Comprehension

The mean scores for L2 auditory vocabulary knowledge and listening comprehension are 5.30 and 4.20, respectively (Table 1). The Pearson correlation analysis shows a significant positive correlation between auditory vocabulary knowledge and listening comprehension (Table 2). It is difficult to confirm that auditory vocabulary knowledge has a causal effect on listening, but a significant amount of listening variance is explained by auditory vocabulary knowledge (R-squared=.41).

Table 1
Means and Standard Deviations of Auditory Vocabulary Knowledge and L2 Listening

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Auditory Vocabulary Knowledge</strong></td>
<td>5.30</td>
<td>1.160</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>L2 Listening Comprehension</strong></td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>2.150</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2
Relationship between Auditory Vocabulary Knowledge and L2 Listening

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Auditory Vocabulary Knowledge</th>
<th>Pearson Correlation</th>
<th>L2 Listening Comprehension</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Auditory Vocabulary Knowledge</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>L2 Listening Comprehension</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Auditory Vocabulary Knowledge</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.642</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Auditory Vocabulary Knowledge</td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.045*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Visual Vocabulary Knowledge and L2 Listening Comprehension

The mean scores for L2 listening comprehension and visual vocabulary knowledge were 4.20 and 6.40, respectively (Table 3). The Pearson correlation analysis showed that there is no significant correlation between visual vocabulary knowledge and L2 listening comprehension (Table 4). Less than 1% of the variance in L2 listening comprehension was accounted for by visual vocabulary knowledge.

Table 3
Means and Standard Deviations of Visual Vocabulary Knowledge and L2 Listening

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>L2 Listening Comprehension</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>2.150</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visual Vocabulary Knowledge</td>
<td>6.40</td>
<td>.843</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4
Relationship between Visual Vocabulary Knowledge and L2 Listening

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>L2 Listening Comprehension</th>
<th>Visual Vocabulary Knowledge</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.074</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.840*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*P<.05
DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

As mentioned in the literature review, Mecartty (2000) found that L2 learners’ linguistic (vocabulary) knowledge had a greater influence on their listening comprehension than their syntactic (grammar) knowledge. The higher percentage of variance in listening comprehension was explained by vocabulary knowledge than by grammatical knowledge. Other L2 studies also indicate that vocabulary knowledge has a high correlation with L2 listening and is a strong contributor to, and a predictor of L2 listening comprehension.

Based on these findings, many second/foreign language teachers emphasize the importance of vocabulary knowledge to students. Consequently, students spend enormous time and effort in learning target language words, but then only in improving their visual (rather than auditory) vocabulary knowledge.

As most researchers focus on the impact of visual vocabulary knowledge on listening, this study asserts the necessity of differentiating between auditory and visual vocabulary knowledge. The study finds that, for DLIFLC students at the beginning stage (1st semester) of learning Korean as a foreign language, auditory vocabulary knowledge plays a more important role in listening comprehension than does visual vocabulary knowledge. More than 41 percent of the variance in L2 listening comprehension is accounted for by the learners’ auditory vocabulary knowledge.

The findings have some implications for vocabulary learning and teaching in relation to L2 listening comprehension as well. First, many students spend time studying words, but the time and effort spent do not result in improvement in their listening ability. Their study, limited to words in the written form, may not help them recognize the words when they hear them. Teachers need to be aware of the various ways information is received. That is to say, teachers need to see the importance of auditory knowledge of words and help students pay attention to developing and acquiring vocabulary knowledge through listening.

Similarly, L2 researchers, when studying the relationship between L2 vocabulary knowledge and listening, must also consider learners’ auditory vocabulary knowledge. To gain a deeper and more comprehensive understanding of learners’ vocabulary knowledge, we need to delve more deeply into the domain of auditory knowledge by analyzing it from diverse angles. As scholars define vocabulary knowledge differently, it is also necessary to blend various definitions into an integrated and coherent framework, which will benefit future studies of vocabulary knowledge.

CONCLUSION

There have been many studies on the effect of L2 learners’ vocabulary knowledge on reading comprehension but few on listening comprehension until 2000 when Mecartty studied the effect of foreign language learners’ lexical and grammatical knowledge on their reading and listening comprehension. Most L2 research uses a written test format, such as the vocabulary levels test (VLT), to
measure learners’ vocabulary knowledge. The tests were used mainly to find synonyms or antonyms. To address the neglect of auditory vocabulary knowledge, this study proposes that there are two types of vocabulary knowledge, visual and auditory, and that these types should be assessed differently. More specifically, this study measured visual vocabulary knowledge by having students examine the written form of the words and auditory vocabulary knowledge by having students listen to the sound of the words. L2 listening comprehension was measured using the listening recall protocol method.

As we have seen in this study, the effect of visual vocabulary knowledge on L2 listening is relatively small when compared to auditory vocabulary knowledge. This study is significant in that it introduces the concept of, and proves the effect of learner’s auditory vocabulary knowledge, which has not been studied in other research but seems to be a very important factor in L2 listening. By providing a new viewpoint on L2 vocabulary knowledge, this study has valuable implications for teaching and learning, as L2 learners must pay more attention to auditory vocabulary knowledge in order to improve their listening skills.

Despite its valuable findings, this study has some limitations. As the sample size is small, the results cannot be generalized and the significance of the findings should be interpreted with caution. It is obvious that more research of auditory vocabulary knowledge is needed. With a larger sample and L2 learners at different (i.e., early, mid, later) stages of learning, more meaningful results may be obtained about the effect of auditory vocabulary knowledge on listening comprehension. Extending the target language of the study to other languages may provide more diverse and interesting results.

NOTES

1. Vocabulary size refers to the number of words known.
2. Receptive vocabulary knowledge refers to the ability to recall and recognize multiple aspects of word knowledge in reading and listening.
3. The depth of vocabulary knowledge refers to the level of understanding of the various aspects of a given word.
4. The breadth of vocabulary knowledge is equivalent to vocabulary size.
5. Orthographic vocabulary knowledge entails knowing the general alphabetic regularities of the writing system, including grapheme-phoneme correspondence and morpheme spelling patterns. In addition, it includes knowing the conventional spellings of individual words.
6. Productive vocabulary knowledge refers to one’s ability to use multiple aspects of word knowledge in writing and speaking.
7. Phonological knowledge/awareness is a broad skill that includes identifying and manipulating units of oral language, such as words, syllables, onsets and rhymes.
REFERENCES


Applying Principles of Adult Learning to Advance Foreign Language Skills

AKSANA MATHER
Elmendorf LTD, Extension Programs, Continuing Education

A critical part of instructors’ daily work is employing teaching practices that advance foreign language proficiency. Teaching adults is challenging as it requires ensuring relevance of learning and tailoring instruction to the diverse needs of mature individuals. This paper will share practices that instructors at the Elmendorf Language Training Detachment (LTD) have found useful.

ADDRESSING THE NEEDS OF ADULT LEARNERS

One of the most conspicuous theories of adult learning is Knowles’ theory of andragogy, which posits the notion that adults learn differently from children (Knowles, Holton, & Swanson, 2015). Andragogical principles describe adult learners as individuals with a developed self-concept who are mostly self-directed in their studies. Adults are aware of who they are and know what, how, and why they need to learn something. Moreover, according to Knowles et al. (2015), as they mature, people become more internally motivated, ready to learn, and anticipate immediate practical applications of their learning. Also, adults rely on personal experiences during studies and learn better when they know how to apply new skills in practice. Consideration of adult learning principles can be beneficial for ensuring teaching practices that promote student success.

Recent academic publications demonstrate attention to teaching strategies that focus on adult learners’ needs. Lindeman (2013), Merriam, Caffarella, and Baumgartner (2012), and Wlodkowski (2008) emphasize that adult learners generally prefer teaching styles that address problem-solving and decision-making.
Vella (2016) notes that adults learn best through dialogue and with an instructor who understands cultural and personal differences. Some scholars argue that instructional approaches grounded in andragogy may promote learner success. Honcharova-Ilina (2017), MacKenzie (2015), and Pawlak (2016) state that adult learners are persistent, motivated, and self-directed in their learning, which may contribute to successful foreign language acquisition. Therefore, it is critical to apply adult learning principles to foreign language learning and teaching.

ADULT LEARNING PRINCIPLES IN PRACTICE

Faculty in the Elmendorf LTD utilizes a variety of strategies to address the needs of adult learners in language enhancement courses. For example, application of adult learning principles to advance foreign language skills may start with a concept that learners need to know why and what they study, as well as how learning content and instruction may enable them to reach educational goals and objectives.

During professional discussions, LTD instructors have observed that attention to adult learning principles increases students’ engagement in classroom activities, a contributing factor to student success. End of course evaluations and sensing sessions also demonstrate student support for strategies implemented at the LTD.

One strategy that LTD faculty members find effective is to provide enrolled students with orientation documents including, but not limited to, the following: the language course overview; rules; objectives; rubrics for learning assignments and assessments; forms for individual midpoint and final feedback sessions with instructors; the individual learning plan form; and a copy of the Interagency Language Roundtable (ILR) proficiency levels.

Another strategy uses supporting documents to address specific learner concerns during the course. For example, the instructor and students may use learning assignments as references for learning progress and assessment. When learning tasks are clearly outlined, students gain confidence and a sense of success when they complete the tasks.

Bringing student attention to the course overview and objectives helps eliminate the gap between student anticipation and what the course offers. For example, if in the end of course feedback students mention that they expected more grammar or speaking lessons, this shows that the course objectives are not clearly understood or individual learning objectives are not met. We should not wait until the end of the course to find out what students expect from learning, from the course, or from the instructors. Open and ongoing communication between instructors and students helps to consolidate the efforts for advancing learners’ language proficiency.

As practice shows, simply including forms in the enrollment package is insufficient because, without seeing the benefits, students are reluctant to use them. Efforts are made to show the relevance of the information to their learning. A copy of the Interagency Language Roundtable (ILR) proficiency level descriptions, with
highlighted skills related to students’ current levels and target levels, may be beneficial for addressing adult learners’ need to know where they are and where they are going. On the first day of class, students at ILR levels 2+ and above are given a task to discuss, write, and present their learning objectives in the target language in small groups. These learning objectives are used by instructors throughout the course to facilitate student reflection and self-assessment of the learning process. Setting achievable yet challenging goals and objectives helps learners not only project the final results of their learning but also understand how the combination of learning content and course activities leads to knowledge and skills acquisition.

MAKING LEARNING RELEVANT AND ENGAGING

Regular reflection and feedback are necessary for adult learners to know why, what, and how they are studying, while allowing them to assess whether the lesson content and activities are effective for them to achieve the desired objectives. Instructors can facilitate student reflection and feedback at the end of a session, a lesson, a thematic unit, or the completion of a significant learning task. Using the target language, students reflect on and evaluate the learning process and progress, making suggestions on how to improve individual learning, the learning content and activities, teachers’ roles, and peer involvement. For example, at the end of a lesson, the instructor may ask students to reflect by providing verbal feedback with questions (in the target language): What is your overall perception of the lesson (or the task)? What was most useful? What was least useful? What could have been done differently to promote your learning? Name one idea that you learned and will take with you from this lesson. The content of the prompts can be altered to fit student language levels and the educational setting. Reflection and feedback not only allow adult learners to analyze and summarize learning, but also provide useful information for the instructor to tailor lessons to student needs. Moreover, opportunity for feedback promotes student involvement in adjusting the educational process, thus increasing individual accountability in classroom planning and decision-making.

To facilitate systematic learners’ reflection and feedback and foster communication between instructors and students about classroom practices, a new format of feedback has been implemented. Several months ago, the LTD faculty developed a learner-instructor feedback form. It allows the instructor to conduct one-on-one conversation with student at the midpoint and the end of the course. The document includes rubrics for the instructor and student to assess student learning. These include four attributes: attitude and engagement, linguistic performance, class participation, and class/homework assignments, all of which are evaluated based on criteria at four levels—exceeding, meeting, approaching, and not meeting expectations. During the interview, the instructor asks the student to assess his or her own learning, based on the rubrics. At the midpoint, students’ critical reflection using these specific criteria gives instructors essential information about student classroom experiences, which allows them to tailor future lessons to student needs.
When instructors assess and provide feedback about student learning, students may adjust study habits and styles for better performance. The form may be modified to fit the needs of particular instructors and students. The purpose of individual instructor-student conversation is to facilitate reflection and elicit feedback for identifying the gaps in learning. Once the challenges are known, the instructor may schedule another meeting to help the student develop an individual learning plan or provide additional assistance, such as referring the student to the most appropriate resources, assigning a mentor, or arranging individual consultations with academic advisors.

Foreign language is a perishable skill; as such, raising awareness of the necessity of language maintenance not only promotes language learning, but also reinforces independent and self-directed learning. The LTD instructors regularly involve students in the decision-making of class content and activities. Based on classroom observations and data gathered from sensing sessions, instructors noted that student engagement in planning, implementing, and evaluating their own learning promote the development of skills critical for independent and self-directed learning.

Through engagement in their own learning, students realize that the acquired language skills are not only critical for military linguists but beneficial in daily life. Instructors have noticed that students prefer activities related to real-life tasks, such as writing a resume, composing a public service announcement, or creating an advertisement to sell a product or an idea. Students are also engaged in solving conflicts, creating a motivational or persuasive speech, dealing with children or co-workers, preparing a report for a supervisor, and developing work-related proposals. The LTD instructors who regularly facilitate students’ reflective feedback have found that student engagement increases when they see a correlation between acquired knowledge and real world tasks.

CONCLUSION

Tailoring pedagogy to adult learner classrooms remains at the center of professional discussions at the LTD. Focusing adult students’ needs in lesson planning is critical for providing a conducive learning environment. Instructors’ considerations of core andragogical principles may provide additional venues for promoting student foreign language proficiency. Reflecting on best teaching practices and identifying effective instructional approaches are ongoing processes. Implementing adult teaching principles grounded in the theory expands instructors’ expertise and allows them to tailor teaching practices to effective learning.
REFERENCES


How do you help students reach higher levels?

Send your best practices to

*Dialog on Language Instruction*
Implementing a Self-directed Research Project in Foreign Language Education

JAE SUN LEE & DAESUNG LEE
Hawaii LTD, Extension Programs, Continuing Education

INTRODUCTION

Project work in foreign language education generally denotes a short- or long-term activity involving various tasks such as research, analysis, and reporting data in an oral presentation or through individual or cooperative writing (Beckett, 2002). A project has learner-centered, content-based, and task-based authenticity—communicating in the target language in authentic tasks, which is a key contributor to second language acquisition. Although the project presented in this paper has some elements of the above, it is not about project-based instruction, which typically involves real-world scenarios and teamwork. Rather, it presents a student-directed research project (henceforth, “the project”), in a second language (L2) course focusing on area studies. The project has been implemented in various post-basic courses in the Directorate of Continuing Education (CE) at the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC). The project consists of three parts: 1) individual research of a social issue related to the target region; 2) a formal oral presentation in class in which the student presents research findings and compares aspects of the issue with those in the student’s native society; and 3) a formal written assignment about the same social issue that encompasses further research. In addition to describing the project, the paper reports student feedback to the project, which demonstrates its positive aspects. The paper concludes with a discussion of the project’s implications.

IMPLEMENTING THE PROJECT

This project provided L2 students the opportunity to gain knowledge of the target society and to produce comprehensible output. Comprehensible output derives from the output hypothesis—students acquire productive skills when encouraged to express meaning just beyond their current level of competence (Hadley, 2001). In project work, students can develop L2 skills while communicating authentically with fellow students, teachers, or native speakers (Beckett, 2002). When a student discusses a project plan with a teacher, leads class activities, researches information, or writes an essay, not for listening, reading, speaking, and writing practice, he or she does so for authentic purposes of obtaining information or expressing opinions (Stoller, 2006).
The Korean Basic Enhancement Course, part of the continuing education program at the Language Training Detachment (LTD)-Hawaii, helps students at Level 2 (limited working proficiency in the Interagency Language Roundtable [ILR] scale) to achieve higher level (2+ and beyond) in reading, listening, writing, and speaking. It is a six-week hybrid course, consisting of four hours each of classwork and homework. It is content-based and covers the final learning objective (FLO) topics of geography, environment, science, culture, society, economy, politics, and military. Instructors serve as advisors while students work individually. The target language is spoken throughout.

The integration of the project into the Korean language course was as follows:

**Day 1.** The teaching team introduced the project’s timelines, purposes, content requirements, and evaluation rubrics.

**Week 1.** Teachers met students in one-on-one sessions to discuss the project in detail. During these sessions, students chose research projects based on individual needs and interests.

**Week 2.** Students began research of chosen topics using sources such as YouTube and target-language search engines. They submitted at least three texts about the topics, met with advisors to discuss them, and selected one text from the three.

**Week 3.** Students submitted a list of core vocabulary and grammar patterns of the text for class activities.

**Week 4.** Students submitted class activities, including at least three lower-order thinking (LOT) skills questions for comprehension of the material and three higher-order thinking (HOT) skills questions for critical thinking in accordance with Bloom’s Taxonomy (the teaching team had previously provided explanations and sample questions for LOT and HOT skills).

**Week 4.** Students created PowerPoint slides. This material featured core vocabulary, related grammar patterns, and class activities. On the last day of Week 4, students gave a formal oral presentation, after which fellow students discussed the social issues presented and provided feedback.

**Week 5.** After the presentation, based on feedback from classmates and teachers, students researched the same topic and prepared a writing assignment. On the first day of Week 5, students submitted and discussed outlines with the advisor.

**Week 5.** At the end of Week 5, students submitted the first draft of the writing assignment consisting of an introduction, main body of text, and conclusion, with a core vocabulary glossary and reference list. The advisor gave feedback to the first draft.

**Week 6.** After at least one revision students submitted the final writing assignment.
STUDENT FEEDBACK

At the end of the two iterations of the project, the teaching team sought student feedback to evaluate its effectiveness. They elicited student opinion via open-ended survey questions. Eight of thirteen students responded to the following.

1. What did you learn the most from the project?
2. What was the most helpful aspect of the project in terms of learning the Korean language?
3. What would you like to change in the format/content/procedure of the project?
4. Is there anything else you would like to mention about the presentation?

All responded positively. Regarding what they learned most through the project, six students identified knowledge of the target society. This was an important aspect of the project, as having the background knowledge of the target society was critical for military missions. One student elaborated on the benefit of having the background knowledge:

The content knowledge is very useful. With that background knowledge, you can usually accurately guess what something means even if there is a lot of unfamiliar vocabulary. … I also notice that when I search for news on topics we have gone over in class I can skim an article in about two minutes and get the general idea without resorting to a dictionary. (Anonymous student feedback, June 24, 2015)

Students appreciated opportunities to gain not only general knowledge of the target society, but also in-depth understanding via native speaker perspectives. As one student stated, “The presentation gave me an opportunity to learn more about the Korean culture and their societal way of thinking” (anonymous student feedback, June 25, 2015). The process of comparing similar issues in the target society with the students’ native society helped increase their intercultural competence.

Additionally, this project improved students’ self-confidence in using the target language as they reflected on their progress demonstrated by the final learning products (Stoller, 2006). As one student pointed out, “This is the first class where I’ve felt that each student was comfortable presenting the topic. I think it’s because most of the students were prepared and felt confident in their presentation skills” (anonymous student feedback, June 24, 2015).

In terms of improving target language skills, all students responded positively, reflecting on the gains in vocabulary and word choices, grammar, listening, speaking, and writing skills from the projects. Furthermore, two students mentioned that target-language discussions they had with the teachers enhanced their sociolinguistic competence. They found teacher feedback one of the most helpful aspects of the project. The weekly feedback from teachers and discussions with fellow students and teachers throughout the project pushed them to meaningful, authentic communication in the target language.
Two students also mentioned that the project demanded critical thinking. One remarked that the process of devising questions for class activities was very useful in enhancing his critical thinking skills. Another commented how he appreciated the opportunity that the project allowed him to think out of the box. Astleitner (2002) states that critical thinking, a higher-order thinking skill consisting mainly of analytic and logical reasoning, is highly correlated with student achievement. The task of evaluating and selecting information demands that students employ analytical skills critical to professional linguists (Coalition of Distinguished Language Centers, 2015).

**IMPLICATIONS**

Based on student feedback, we have found that what worked best in the project was having students acquire knowledge of the target regions through their own research, presentation, and writing in a learner-centered environment. In implementing the project, it is important to allow students to choose their own topic and content, and to focus on improving certain language skills based on individual needs and interests in consultation with the advisors. Allowing students to research, present, and lead class activities fosters an effective learner-centered approach. Additionally, when learners become researchers, it creates the highest level of autonomous learning (Chitashvili, 2007).

Key elements in the project’s success also include clear guidelines and advisors’ feedback. As one student wrote, “the guidelines in place were helpful. Being assigned a teacher to work with directly was most important to my success” (Anonymous student feedback, September 4, 2015). Teachers’ feedback to student work increased the authenticity of the project, as the communication in the target language simulated real-life communication.

Regarding areas for improvement, the project designated one day for all students to give presentations. It might be unrealistic to expect students to learn many different topics, plus related vocabulary and grammar points in one day. An alternative is to spread the student presentations throughout the course. As for assessment of the project, it may be improved by encouraging more student participation. The presentations were evaluated by the teaching team based on organization, content, subject knowledge, grammar, vocabulary, and use of the target language. Teachers and students also provided immediate verbal feedback following the presentations. If written peer evaluation is implemented, student participation in the assessment may increase.

Despite the few areas that need improvement, the self-directed research project may help improve L2 learners’ sociocultural, intercultural, and sociolinguistic competence. The project enabled learners to manage and make decisions for their learning, use critical thinking skills, and practice various language skills, all of which may help them to reach higher language proficiency.
REFERENCES


Inquiry-based Learning: Promoting Autonomy and Critical Thinking Skills in Language Learning

JISOOK C. KIM
Hawaii LTD, Extension Programs, Continuing Education

As educators, we constantly ask ourselves what we must do to support students in cultivating lifelong learning habits. One possible answer is to use an instructional technique popular in the science and math disciplines: inquiry-based learning, or IBL. IBL gives students an opportunity to ask questions, investigate, select materials, and analyze information to draw conclusions. This involves the application of several problem-solving skills used in science and math curricula (Pedaste & Sarapuu, 2006). IBL uses questions, interests, and curiosities to discover meaning and relevance in information through a series of steps leading to a better understanding of the content knowledge and the learning process. Recent technological developments have proven that web-guided, inquiry-based learning can improve inquiry skills such as identifying problems, formulating questions and hypotheses, planning and carrying out experiments, collecting and analyzing data, presenting research results, and constructing knowledge (Mäeots, Pedaste, & Sarapuu, 2008).

The Korean Program at the Language Training Detachments in Hawaii (LTD-Hawaii) offers a directed study course to customize post-basic education. Under the guidance of an instructor, this two- or four-week course allows individuals or small groups (two or three students) to develop language skills or knowledge according to need. By incorporating IBL into the course, students take the lead role—architecting the learning paths and thinking creatively to get new perspectives on learning.

IBL is organized into inquiry phases that form an inquiry cycle. Scholarly literature describes a variety of inquiry phases and cycles based on the approach desired—inductive or deductive reasoning. This paper will introduce Bruce and Davidson’s (1996) inquiry phases and cycle and its application in the post-basic Korean course.

INQUIRY-BASED LEARNING: THE CYCLE AND BENEFITS

IBL is a research-based strategy that encourages students to explore content issues by posing, investigating, and answering questions (Collins & Stevens, 1983; Collins, 1987).
The Cycle of Inquiry

A key idea of IBL is that inquiry phases form a cycle of inquiry, meaning that a learner solves a real-world problem by asking, investigating, creating, discussing, and reflecting (Bruce & Davidson, 1996). IBL learning starts with an orientation and an open-ended question, given by a teacher, students, or both. The teacher then encourages students to discuss the questions and search for answers. Students gather resources, conduct research, synthesize information, and share findings. In the final stage, students have an opportunity to reflect on learning. Throughout the process, students get new perspectives of the content issues and build on their knowledge. IBL is not merely a model for learning, but an attitude toward solving problems—searching for realistic and strategic solutions.

Figure 1 shows the phases in a cycle of inquiry-based learning: (1) Ask; (2) Investigate; (3) Create; (4) Discuss; and (5) Reflect (Bruce & Davidson, 1996). During the Ask phase, students compose questions about concepts, content, cultural aspects, linguistic aspects, and so on. In the Investigate phase, they investigate and gather information related to the questions, with help from the teacher, peers, and technology. With the Create phase, students give a presentation or write a paper by analyzing, connecting, organizing, categorizing, and combining newly acquired and existing knowledge. During the Discuss phase, students share and discuss the findings and their implications. Finally, in the Reflect phase, students consider what has been learned. In this phase, the students are encouraged to relate what they have learned to their initial inquiry and retrace the learning process that leads to the conclusion.

Figure 1
Cycle of Inquiry
(Reprinted from Bruce & Davidson, 2002, p. 710)
Benefits of IBL

Although IBL is primarily applied to science and math education, its concepts and question-and-answer mechanism are suitable for second language (L2) classrooms. In L2 teaching and learning, it is beneficial for acquiring vocabulary, explaining grammatical structures, negotiating for meaning, and discovering essential cultural information (Lee, 2014). In a foreign-language classroom, IBL allows learners to discover, reflect, and create, and encourages cognitive and metacognitive skills that lead to self-regulated learners and lifelong learners (Rejeki, 2017). Ajit, Ramesh, and Arun (2016) note that IBL provides greater opportunity for students to develop communication, collaboration, and interrogation skills via research. Given the opportunity to develop and explore questions and solutions, students may improve content and language knowledge, skills in problem solving, writing, retention, and independent and autonomous learning.

The Teacher’s Role

In IBL, a teacher’s role includes questioning, cueing, prompting, coaching, modeling ideal performance, mentoring, and discussing (McLeod, 2012). The teacher presents the problems to stimulate thought-provoking questions from the students and involve them in comparing and analyzing problems and problem-solving techniques.

In the IBL learning environment, the teacher helps students build skills in posing questions, particularly open-ended ones to elicit complex answers. Questions stimulate students’ curiosity, initiate deeper learning of the subject matter, nurture the desire to investigate and research to acquire knowledge, and foster the habit of lifelong learning. A good open-ended question leads to more questions, which is the goal of IBL. Prompts may include the following:

- What are the pros and cons of...?
- How would you handle...?
- What if...?
- What are the alternatives to...?

Appropriate scaffolding and advice may result in greater success and satisfaction in learning.

APPLICATION OF THE IBL IN THE POST-BASIC CLASSROOM

To illustrate the learning stages of IBL, an example from a four-week Korean Advanced Directed Study course is provided. The course is delivered in a blended format that includes four hours of in-class instruction and four hours of out-of-class assignments with Blackboard Discussion Board postings.
Students’ Needs and Learning Contracts

The course had two non-native students, who achieved 3/3 and 3+/3 in reading and listening on the Defense Language Proficiency Test (DLPT). Both wanted to study Korean history and literature during the four-week course. With instructional guidance, students endorsed a learning contract, which specified the learning goals, course objectives, and assessment plan (see the sample below).

Sample Learning Contract

Goals

Improve students’

• critical thinking skills;
• understanding of the history of the target regions and its implications; and
• understanding of implied/implicit meaning in written texts.

Course Objectives

• Synthesize information, messages, implications, and significance identified in texts;
• Develop opinions and criticisms;
• Analyze aural and written texts and evaluate contextual and implied meaning of texts for relevance to the FLOs (Final Learning Objectives) topical areas, including history and literature; and
• Engage in meaningful discourse, using critical thinking skills.

Assessment Plan

• Write a weekly critique; and
• Present/teach research findings.

Course Materials

• Online resources;
• Movies; and
• Works of literature.

Phase 1: Ask

On the first day of class, the teacher checked students’ prior knowledge of the Japanese Colonial Period in Korea, using video, photos, and open-ended questions. As the first day of the course was the National Liberation Day of Korea, the topic was relevant, stimulating students’ interest and curiosity. After students shared what they knew about the topic, the teacher presented editorials about what had happened in that historical period and critiques of pro-Japanese collaborators. The class studied and discussed the writers’ attitudes and intentions by reading between the lines. At the end of the class, the teacher asked students what they wanted to investigate further.
Students composed two questions for further research, which were assigned as homework in preparation for the next class.

1. 일제의 통치 방식은 어떻게 했습니까? 각 시기에 어떠한 저항운동이 있었고, 그리고 그것의 의미는 무엇이었습니까?
   [Research on the 1st, 2nd, and 3rd Japanese Colonial Period. What were the characteristics of each period and the meaning of Korean resistance?]

2. 일제의 식민지가 된 배경은 무엇입니까? 식민지가 되지 않았다면 지금의 대한민국은 어떤 모습이겠습니까?, 그리고 그러한 일이 발생하지 않도록 어떻게 해야할 것 같습니까?
   [Analyze the circumstances and reasons why Korea was colonized by Japan. Write down your idea on how things might have been different if Japan had not occupied Korea. In what ways can we prevent this from happening again?]

Phase 2: Investigate

As a homework assignment, students conducted research to find answers to the two questions. They gathered information on the topic from various sources and found primary concepts and principles necessary to answer the questions, and posted summary, critique, and views/assumptions of the topic on the Blackboard. Students were required to read, comment, and respond to their classmates’ posts before the next class. During the process, the teacher advised, guided, and encouraged students to work on the questions, while monitoring their understanding of the content and culture. The followings are examples of the feedback provided by the teacher to a student’s post, pushing the student to do further research.

1. 일제가 통치 방식을 바꾸지 않았다면 어떻게 되었을까요?
   [What might have happened if Japan hadn’t changed their colonial style?]

2. 그 시대 우리 국민들은 각 시기에 어떻게 저항을 했습니까? 어떠한 항일 독립운동들이 있었습니까?
   [How did Koreans resist Japanese control? Was there a significant independence movement?]

3. 그 시대 일제가 주장하는 한일합방의 정당성에 대해 어떻게 생각하십니까?
   [What is your opinion of the Japanese justification for the annexation of Korea?]

Phases 3 & 4: Create and Discuss

Students collected detailed information and created PowerPoint slides for the presentation, which featured a presentation that included important concepts,
Students were able to present, elaborate, and defend their views. They also generated complex questions and challenged classmates’ stances. Examples of the class discussion questions were as follows:

1. 한국과 일본은 현재 어떤 관계인가요? 그리고 앞으로 어떻게 전개될까요?
   
   [What is the state of relations between Japan and South Korea? How might these relations manifest themselves in the future?]

2. 일본 수상의 신사참배는 왜 문제가 됐나요?
   
   [Why was the shrine visit so controversial?]

Phase 5: Reflect

Following discussion, the teacher and students reflected on the learning and teaching experiences and elicited peer feedback. The following were the prompts for the peer feedback and self-reflection:

1. I like what you did with your presentation/teaching because…
2. Have you considered looking at… from… perspective?
3. When you said… did you mean…?
4. You might want to include… because….
5. Perhaps you can expand this in… to further address….

Students reflected on the content that they had learned, the premise of what they had thought before, the learning process and received peer- and teacher-feedback. The feedback and reflection encouraged the development of metacognitive skills, as students self-evaluated what they knew, what they needed to know, and how they would increase understanding.

At the end of the class, a student asked, “Why are South Korea and North Korea two separate nations, and how did the divide occur?” This became the topic of next day’s class—Separation of South and North Korea.

Students and teacher chose the new study topics every day after a topic had been studied. The new topics were based on the previous topics or on students’ interests. For each research topic, students and the teacher formed the research questions together. The class schedule was updated regularly throughout the course. During the four weeks of the course, increased/enhanced students’ participation and interaction were observed—they initiated discussions, discussed selected topics in depth, and used critical thinking skills during research.
CONCLUSION

Inquiry-based learning is a strategy used to engage students in rich and diverse learning experiences and to trigger pertinent questions. In language education, while analyzing and discovering information that leads to problem solving or reflecting on the learning process, students develop culturally appropriate language abilities. By creating an engaging learning environment and providing scaffolding to learning, teachers help students develop independent learning skills and the confidence in, and passion for, their own learning.

REFERENCES


Reviewed by JIAYING HOWARD
Academic Journals, Academic Support

Major Research Issues in SLA, the inaugural volume of Brill’s Research Perspectives in Multilingualism and Second Language Acquisition (RPMS), is edited by Michael H. Long of University of Maryland. Its intended readers are graduate students, researchers, and professionals in second language acquisition (SLA) and other SLA-related disciplines. In their examination of SLA, the writers of this book “review work on a selection of these [SLA] issues and note implications of some of the work for language teaching, educational language planning, human migration, and other important matters of social concern” (p.1). The book consists of two major parts. Part One, contributed by Gisele Granena of the Universitat Obiert de Catalunya (Spain), surveys research of age differences, maturational constraints, and implicit and explicit L2 learning. Part Two, written by Yucel Yilmaz of Indiana University, examines the linguistic environment, with a concentration on interaction and negative feedback (NF).

The book starts with an introduction by Long, which is an overview of the research issues in SLA and its research progression over the last 50 years. SLA research has focused on three main areas: (1) the language(s); (2) the learner; and (3) the environment (linguistic and social). For more than 50 years, empirical research findings have contributed to our understanding of various constructs in SLA, but many major research issues remain the same; among these are following: cross-linguistic influence; processes and sequence in interlanguage development (e.g., variation, stabilization, fossilization); language processing; domain-specific and domain-general learning mechanisms; incidental and intentional learning; implicit and explicit knowledge; age differences and maturational constraints; individual differences in cognitive and affect variables; the role of linguistic environment to include opportunities for input, interaction, and output; and socio-linguistic context.

Long contends that the early research, influenced by neo-behaviorist learning theory and structural linguistics, viewed L2 acquisition as “a process of
replacement of L1 by L2 habits” (p. 3). Earlier work often compared the differences between L1 and L2. Empirical studies in the 1970s extended from analyzing surface phenomena to typological differences of languages, searching for “the roles of markedness and universals in determining what is and is not transferred” (p.3). L1 was gradually perceived not as a source of interference but a way of transfer to L2; that is, the transfer is both positive and negative. Learner’s mediating role between L1 and L2 continues to be the focus of current research. A major area of this research is cross-linguistic influences (CLI; Kellerman & Sharwood-Smith, 1986), which includes topics of interference, transfer, borrowing of L1 and L2, L1 attrition, L2 loss, etc. Recent attention to CLI research has expanded to the acquisition of L3 in multilingual settings and the effects of psychotypological constraints rooted both in heredity and experience.

Following Long’s general introduction, the book reviews in depth scholarly works in two specific SLA domains: Age Differences and Negative Feedback (NF). In Part One, Granena provides a comprehensive review of “the main conceptual and methodological issues in research on age differences and maturational constrains, with an emphasis on recent findings and methodological developments” (p. 37). Granena approaches the large volume of literature by dividing the review into four sections: 1) existence of age differences in language acquisition; 2) scope; 3) timing; and 4) future research directions.

Much research has examined the effect of age on language acquisition, and it is generally agreed that earlier exposure to L2 leads to more nativelike attainment. Many studies center on the Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH; Lenneberg, 1967), which recognizes that biological changes in the brain during puberty signify the closure of CP, or sensitive period (SP), a term later preferred over CP (Long, 1990). One widely researched topic of age differences is the relationship between the age of onset (AO) and the ultimate attainment (Penfield & Roberts, 1959).

Another topic, which is a seeming contrast to the CPH, is nativelike adult L2 learners. Studies of high achieving adult L2 learners, now characterized as near-native, actually confirm the Critical Period Hypothesis and the importance of earlier exposure to L2. Cautioning that methodological standards are crucial to the validity of studies of nativelike adult L2 learners, Granena proposes several standards for consideration, such as having a control group of native speakers (NS) with the same profile as the L2 learners to avoid comparing apples to oranges.

Studies of age difference also examine learner variances other than the maturational factors; among these are motivation, aptitude, instruction, and input. Rather than relying solely on biological explanations for age effects, researchers examine non-biological ones. That is to say, socio-educational, motivational, and input factors correlated with age have an impact on the learning situation but not necessarily on learning capacity.

After reviewing the content of dozens of studies, Granena addresses the scope and timing of age differences research, focusing on the sensitive period (SP). The scope concerns whether SP affects language domains and aspects differently
(i.e., phonology, morphology, syntax, lexicon, collocation, etc.). Many previous studies focused on phonology, pronunciation, and accents, substantiating the role of SP in L2 development. Recent studies have delved to other domains, discovering that the SP effects are not the same for all grammatical structures. Researchers continue to seek answers that explain the age effects on language acquisition. For example, one relates salience with language attainment—the most perceptually salient structures are associated with the lowest age effects. As for timing, most research focuses on the beginning and the ending of the SP. Whereas the ending of SP makes it increasingly unlikely to achieve nativelike pronunciation and grammar, individual aptitude, motivation, and input are more reliable indicators of L2 acquisition.

In the conclusion of Part One, Granena has identified several directions for future research, including cognitive aptitude, age, explicit/implicit language learning, early childhood L2 learners, interactions between learning outcome and treatments among various populations (early vs. late learners), and the assessment of language attainment—a necessity for claiming that an adult L2 learner has achieved nativelike performance.

In Part Two, Yilmaz provides an overview of the role of the linguistic environment and interaction in L2 acquisition, focusing on “recent theoretical and empirical literature on the role of NF” (p. 45). It consists of five sections: 1) the linguistic environment and conversational interaction; 2) the role of negative feedback in L2 acquisition; 3) factors moderating the effectiveness of negative feedback; 4) methodological issues; and 5) future directions and conclusion.

SLA research on the linguistic environment encompasses topics of input and comprehension, conversational interaction, the Interaction Hypothesis (IH; Long, 1981), foreigner talk, interactions between native speakers (NS) and non-native speakers (NNS) and among NNS, negotiations between NS and NNS, the Noticing Hypothesis (Schmidt, 1990), and feedback to draw learners’ attention to problematic linguistic forms. Learner responses to negative feedback—the reactions L2 learners receive from interlocutors when language production is not nativelike—is prominent in current SLA research. Researchers disagree about the role of NF in L2 acquisition. Some claim that although NF may prompt learners to produce a superficial form of L2 knowledge, it does not affect learners’ competence. Others deem NF a worthy subject for research, as NF is a frequent occurrence in NS-NNS interactions.

Research finds that “learners use a substantial proportion of NF to modify their initial non-target-like productions in the turn following feedback” (p. 54). Whether learner modified output or repair is an indication of L2 development must be shown to correlate with performance on other measures of L2 development. Treatment-control and Pretest-posttest experimental studies, comparing with and without feedback, are used to assess whether NF is necessary for achieving specific linguistic goals. Feedback takes many forms, among which are recasts, explicit correction, clarification request, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation and repetition. Some studies center on feedback types, characteristics,
and effectiveness, primarily on the relative effectiveness of prompts and reformulations. It is found that the effectiveness is influenced by linguistic target salience, feedback timing, feedback frequency, communication mode, task features, and learner factors such as L2 developmental readiness, general proficiency, language analytical ability, attention control, and so on.

Considering that shortcomings in research methodology have affected the reliability and validity of the findings of some previous studies, Yilmaz asserts that methodological details need serious scrutiny. For example, experimental research should control opportunities for modified output, to show that feedback alone produces possible changes in learners’ linguistic behavior. Otherwise, the generalization of findings is incredible.

Addressing future research directions, some contend that comparative NF studies may be fruitless due to methodological problems. An alternative is to design new studies of feedback types. Further research is also required on other factors affecting the effectiveness of NF, such as feedback frequency, consistency of NF across learners’ errors, feedback intervals, intervals of form-focused L2 instruction, and cognitive individual differences.

**Major Research Issues in SLA** has many strengths. It is concise, at only 86 pages, but offers a thorough review of the research issues in two major areas of SLA. Its impressive list of references is proof of its thoroughness. Long, in the Introduction alone, has cited 61 sources, while Granena posts 117 in Part One and Yilmaz 153 in Part Two. This list alone makes *Major Research Issues in SLA* a valuable reference book. Most importantly, it provides a comprehensive picture of the range, significance, progression, and context of SLA research, demonstrating the breadth and complexity of issues pertaining to L2 development and acquisition. Long’s introduction, clear and concise, is a primer for the study of SLA and second/foreign language education. The subsequent reviews, Part One by Granena and Part Two by Yilmaz, summarize the significant discoveries and challenging questions in age differences/maturational constraints, and negative feedback/interactions. The reviews by Granena and Yilmaz are logically organized in a clearly-defined conceptual framework, supplemented with details and examples sufficient for readers to understand the intricate connections of a wide range of concepts in SLA. The compactness of certain sections, however, may result in an intensive and demanding experience for some readers. As a gesture to such readers, the authors may consider breaking long paragraphs into shorter ones, so it would be easier for readers to absorb the ideas.

All said, *Major Research Issues in SLA* is a valuable addition to the literature of second language development and acquisition. Readers should benefit from its clear outline of the historical development, comprehensive overview of major research issues, precise summary of significant findings, and credible suggestions for future research directions in SLA. Apart from its direct relevance to researchers, it may also greatly benefit language educators who delve into the complexities of L2 development at the practical and the theoretical levels. An in-depth understanding of SLA theories and practices broadens teacher
perspectives, making them better informed when planning, developing, performing, and evaluating teaching activities. Last, but not least, the book facilitates access to SLA research most relevant to teaching, among which are feedback, learners’ awareness of problematic language behavior, implicit and explicit instruction, and focus on form, all of which may influence how teachers promote L2 development and acquisition.

References


When investigating effective methods to help students achieve best learning results, educators have examined perceptions, behaviors, cognition, affection, metacognition, and various strategies, but they have often overlooked high performance habits. Burchard, who has spent years observing, coaching, and researching high performance habits, shares his findings in his New York Times best-seller—*High Performance Habits: How Extraordinary People Become That Way*. High performance is defined as “succeeding beyond standard norms, consistently over the long term” (Burchard, 2017, p. 14). The primary reason to research high performance habits is to understand how to sustain success. The author, who has successfully applied the high performance habits in the personal and social categories to his career, gives many examples of using these habits in various situations.

*High Performance Habits* is organized into three sections: personal habits, social habits, and sustaining success.

**Section I: Personal Habits**

Seeking clarity, generating energy, and raising necessity are categorized as personal habits for internal growth. After the discussion of each habit, three practices are provided for readers to apply the habit.

**Habit #1: Seeking Clarity**

To seek clarity, successful people ask fundamental questions (e.g., What are my goals? What’s my plan?). They also envision the *future four* (self, social, skills, and service), determine the feeling they are after, and define what is meaningful. Burchard states that clear and challenging goals “energize us and lead to greater enjoyment, productivity, profitability, and satisfaction” (p. 60). He encourages readers like us to “look to the future, identify key skills, and obsessively develop those skills” (p. 73). In all circumstances, we should have vision of and, intention to develop 1) what we want to be; 2) how we like to interact with others; 3) what skills we must develop; and 4) how to serve with excellence. Understanding what makes us satisfied and what is meaningful to us is crucial for performance. Burchard lists two simple equations (pp. 86-87), as shown below, when seeking clarity of purpose:
a. Passion + Growth + Contribution = Personal Satisfaction
b. Enthusiasm + Connection + Satisfaction + Coherence = Meaning

Habit #2: Generating Energy

In order to generate energy, Burchard finds that high performers release tension, set intention, bring the joy, and optimize health. Between activities, he suggests that we close eyes, practice deep breathing, and release tension and thoughts. “Energy is critical to high performance” (p. 125). If we take our sleep, exercise, and nutrition seriously, we may learn quickly, remember important things easily, and keep a positive mood. Burchard himself employs a gratitude practice to keep his joy, as “gratitude is the golden frame through which we see the meaning of life” (p. 112). He recommends set personal triggers to remind us to be positive and grateful for things and people around us. With constant reminders (e.g., desk triggers), we take actions to bring joy to those around us and to ourselves.

Habit #3: Raising Necessity

High performers associate a deep sense of identity with excellent performance. They must perform with excellence. Performance necessity is a powerful drive. The four factors of performance necessity—identity, obsession, duty, and urgency—keep high performers focused and committed. Obsession may sound negative, but Burchard notices that high performers, obsessed with what they enjoy doing, can handle internal pressure. He stresses the importance of bringing our “A game” to someone/something worth fighting for, thus achieving a spirit of service with greater commitment. When we sense the necessity to excel, we are motivated to fulfill commitments. Burchard believes that emotions and excellence are contagious. We can transfer positive emotions and excellence to inspire and empower others. Consequently, standards are raised and positive peer groups are built.

Section II: Social Habits

Increasing productivity, developing influence, and demonstrating courage are categorized as social habits. High performers strive not only for their own excellence, but also interact with and serve those around them.

Habit #4: Increasing Productivity

High performers increase outputs that matter, plan moves to achieve goals, and hone key skills (progressive mastery). They prioritize their efforts and produce more Prolific Quality Output (PQO). One strategy Burchard suggests is “spending 60% more of the workweek oriented to PQO” (p. 192). With regard to
planning, Buchard finds that “to become a high performer requires thinking more before acting” (p. 196). He emphasizes competence (mastery of key skills) for increased productivity. Buchard believes that “everything is trainable” (p. 206). We may develop skills through repetition. Progressive mastery makes us more disciplined to unearth greater insights and capabilities, leading us to high performance.

**Habit #5: Developing Influence**

Buchard uses the *Ultimate Influence Model* (p. 229) to describe three crucial actions to develop influence: 1) Teach people how to think about themselves, others, and the world; 2) Challenge people to develop character, connections, and contributions; and 3) Role model the values you wish to see others acquire.

To teach people how to think, it is important to ask for their ideas and challenge them to develop skills and serve with excellence. Buchard indicates that high performers not only push people to excel, but also serve as role models for their family, teams, and communities. The four approaches to improve social behaviors (relationships) are: “set expectations, ask questions, give examples, or directly ask them to improve how they treat and add value to other people” (p. 240). High performers do not let inappropriate social behaviors slide and explicitly express how to treat others well. Buchard also asserts that high performers listen, create dialogues, inspire others, and improve as leaders.

**Habit #6: Demonstrating Courage**

High performers honor the struggle, share truth and ambitions, and find something/someone to fight for. Buchard views courage as contagious and struggle as a necessary and positive opportunity (or part of the process) for self-improvement. He advises one to take determined and fearless action to achieve goals. By honoring the struggle, we should not complain about the effort involved when we serve. According to Buchard, expressing our true selves (e.g., thoughts, feelings, dreams and ambitions) not only makes us free, but also motivates us. While doing more for those for whom we care and giving more to others, we discover the source for courage and excellence.

**Section III: Sustaining Success**

Buchard notes that high performers may face calamity if they get *so good* and forget what made them successful. The risk of separating from others, believing that one is better than others, more capable than others, and more important than others may destroy performance. He identifies three internal traps: superiority, dissatisfaction, and neglect impede high performers’ success.
Trap#1: Superiority. Because high achievers outperform others, they may fall into the trap of superiority and think they are at the top. It is a feeling of separation from others. The remedies are humility, effectiveness, and respect.

Trap#2: Dissatisfaction. Dissatisfaction eliminates passion. Instead of finding faults and detecting errors, we should celebrate small wins, acknowledge progress, praise the team, encourage reflection, and champion others’ ideas. Burchard suggests writing down three things that went well every day and meet with team members once a week to discuss what has worked and what is working.

Trap#3: Neglect. Neglect reduces high performers’ discernment of growing problems or concentration on strategic planning. Losing balance or obsessing over one area over others due to obliviousness or overreaching may hinder success and performance.

Burchard concludes the book with the following formula:

\[
\text{Curiosity} \times (\text{Competence} + \text{Congruence} + \text{Connection}) = \text{Confidence}
\]

Curiosity drives the development for high performers; competence, congruence, and connection are confidence builders. He contends that salient goal for high performers is self-efficacy. High performers are confident that they can achieve their goals despite challenges or resistance.

Strengths and Weaknesses of the Book

Burchard, a high performer himself, has travelled around the world teaching, consulting, and coaching. He is recognized as the world leading high performance coach by Success Magazine and Oprah.com. He is also a popular personal development trainer and one of the most followed figures on Facebook. His videos have been viewed more than 100 million times. More than two million students have completed his online courses.

Although Burchard has written and published substantially, many of his previous books are anecdotal, containing many statements not based on evidence or research. This book, however, is substantiated with evidence, research findings, and references that he has collected from his personal development, his coaching to CEOs, celebrities, high-level entrepreneurs, entertainers, and professionals in dozens of industries, and the pre- and post- survey results from 1,600,000 workshop attendees from 195 countries. The book is further supported by his structured interviews with hundreds of people at the top of their fields, insights gleaned from academic literature reviews, and hundreds of thousands of comments from his students and viewers of his training videos. The book is fascinating and persuasive, but the author does not reveal the identity of individuals. A large portion of the book is about Burchard’s own habits, beliefs, personal development, and self-experimentation. Since the book’s subtitle is “How Extraordinary People Become That Way,” readers might expect to read about some extraordinary individuals known to the public rather than just the author or the anonymous.
Nevertheless, the book is unique because Burchard does not explain high performers’ success in a conventional way. People may assume that high performers are successful because of their strength, personality, and creativity, yet Burchard argues that strengths and personality are innate, within their comfort zone. What matters the most is to know what is meaningful to them—the drive behind what they do, and why service to the world satisfy them. Burchard maintains that high performers equate meaning with four factors:

\[
\text{Enthusiasm + connection + satisfaction + coherence = meaning}
\]

High performers ask themselves “what can I get excited or enthusiastic about today?” They link enthusiasm with meaning; value the relationship and connections they have in life and work; and love to be around inspiring people who push them to grow. In addition, they relate satisfaction with meaning. They are more satisfied when their efforts synchronize with their primary passion, generate personal and professional growth, and make a positive contribution to the world. To high performers, coherence means “their life makes sense.” They know that their efforts are important, their lives creating a legacy and feeding a larger purpose.

Another important and practical concept proposed by Burchard is the Prolific Quality Output (PQO), which means to prioritize creation, quality, and frequency of one’s output. The uniqueness of the PQO is that high performers are not just pushing themselves to produce more—a pitfall for many low performers. Low performers spend time and energy doing busy work, unnecessary work that leaves them unfulfilled. In contrast, high performers who are satisfied with what they have accomplished take these steps: 1) identify their primary field of interest; 2) identify the PQO in their primary field of interest (the outputs that matter, get recognized, and get rewarded); and 3) spend 60% or more of the time engaging in and focusing on the PQO, and 40% or less time doing things that support the productivity of the PQO. Burchard’s advice is not to focus on getting things done, but getting things done with quality. However, he does not provide guidance for those who have not yet discovered their primary field of interest, or those who cannot afford to spend more time on their primary interest—those who have to extend their capabilities or do things they do not enjoy to provide the necessities of life (e.g., paying bills and supporting families). If specific directions were provided, the PQO formula might be more useful to real-life situations.

Another important point Burchard has made is how to influence people, teaching them how to think. The author should have taken the time to define the personality traits and characteristics warranted.

The book commences with a lengthy 50-page introduction, consisting mostly of stories, before the high performance habits are introduced. It takes readers time to get to the core of the book. Interested readers may be eager to improve their performance. The lengthy introduction, however, results in an inefficient organization of the book.

Another weakness is the book is its commercial advertisements. The free online survey at HighPerformanceIndicator.com advertised in the book promotes
the author’s other products such as online classes, online assessment tools, seminars, and LIVE training. There is an advertisement in every section, which may turn some readers away.

As for the high performance survey, readers may compare their performance against the high performance indicators. The survey, however, is based solely on personal perceptions. Moreover, the survey does not address cultural differences, and values may vary among cultures.

In conclusion, despite the shortcomings, the life-coaching handbook, in an energetic and encouraging tone, is inspirational, with clear explanations of high performance habits. High Performance Habits is pragmatic and prescriptive. When giving advice for cultivating habits, Burchard offers steps for specific action, performance prompts, core practices, and activities, so readers may follow his advice easily. It is, therefore, a hands-on and practical guide for those who are motivated to be high performers.

The book may be helpful in creating a highly productive environment and developing high performing leaders among faculty, staff, and students. To accomplish the mission of the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC)—to deliver the best culturally based foreign language education and training, we need prepared students and faculty who perform at a high level. Being “prepared,” in the general sense, is to be competent and motivated. As Burchard discovered, “people can rise above their cultural programming and influence if they have the right beliefs and strategy” (p. 164). It is, therefore, worthwhile to explore ways to increase our self-efficacy and curiosity. The high performance habits may help us have better self-understanding, stay focused on goals, surpass current performance levels, eliminate distractions, and improve quality of life.
Field Language and Culture Training for Operational Readiness

An interview with Dr. Ra’ed Qasem, Dean of Field Support (SF), and Ms. Eileen Mehmedali, Associate Dean of Field Support in the Directorate of Continuing Education (CE)

Editor: Dr. Qasem, could you tell the readers about Field Support (FS)? What is its mission and work scope?

Dr. Qasem: Field Support is one of the four divisions comprising the Directorate of Continuing Education. Our mission is to provide global adaptive language and culture training in support of warfighters and their operational demands at the point of need. FS primarily supports the Special Operations Forces (SOF) community. Other components that fall under FS’s training sphere are the General Purpose Forces (GPF), The Afghanistan-Pakistan (AFPAK) Hands Program, Professional Military Education (PME) programs, and most recently the Security Forces Assistance Brigade (SFAB).

Editor: The different forces and programs must have distinct and specific training needs. What types of training does FS offer?

Ms. Mehmedali: Field Support’s focus falls primarily on initial acquisition and sustainment classes; course length varies from one-week familiarization to 24-week sustainment/enhancement courses.

Editor: Where and how are these courses conducted?

Ms. Mehmedali: Field Support has 15 Language Training Detachments (LTD) sites in the United States and Europe (Germany and Italy). The FS LTDs vary in size: the largest LTD hosts a team of 30 faculty, and the smallest three faculty.
For the most part, host site unit requirements determine the size of the LTD and number of faculty on site. On a larger scale, what determines the type of languages and dialects taught is the mission of the host; no two LTDs are alike. For example, the LTDs at Ft. Leavenworth and Maxwell Air Force Base teach semester-length, elective courses. The Miami LTD, in order to mitigate conflicting priorities between language training and military duties, utilizes Tailored Instruction Language Training designed by our very own Site Director.

**Editor:** Can you elaborate on how FS meets the challenge of serving a diverse clientele?

**Dr. Qasem:** Field Support has a distinct organizational culture, which is determined by the uniqueness of the mission we support: agility, flexibility and adaptability are three words that come to mind. We support a mission that is demanding in nature and fluid in terms of requirements, where timelines and deadlines constantly change. Providing the best support possible to our clients, primarily the SOF community, depends on teamwork, quick reaction time, responsiveness, and commitment. These are the defining mainstays of our organizational culture. Furthermore, transparency in decision making is detrimental. More often than not, our tasks are multi-dimensional, requiring collaboration among at least three organizations just within the Directorate of CE. Without transparency, be it in daily communications or in decision making, Field Support simply cannot operate efficiently and effectively.

**Editor:** What are the key factors that contribute to your success in constantly modifying training content and format, satisfying various training requirements, and meeting persistent deadlines?

**Ms. Mehmedali:** Dedicated faculty are Field Support’s most important assets. We encourage faculty professional growth and strive to celebrate all accomplishments, big or small. Last year, 14 Field Support faculty were advanced to the rank of Associate Professor. Several faculty are taking advantage of the Education Assistance Program and continue their professional growth. Faculty preparedness and commitment directly impact students’ learning experience and outcomes. While we primarily teach initial acquisition courses, and host requirements for sustainment/enhancement programs do not exceed 1+ in the Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI), our faculty have been graduating students with OPI scores of 2+ and 3’s in Arabic, French, and Indonesian.

**Editor:** Your faculty spread all over the U.S. and overseas; how do you ensure that everyone stays focused on FS’s mission?

**Ms. Mehmedali:** Organizationally, the Dean, Associate Dean, and Administrative staff are located in Monterey. Each LTD has a Site Director. In some LTDs, based on mission requirements, Site Directors wear two hats—in addition to
management and supervisory duties, they also teach periodically, and in some locations, consistently. Although our LTDs are located across the United States and overseas, we take pride in bringing our team more closely together by means of technology. Adobe Connect is our go-to application for presentations, symposiums, and other fora.

Editor: What are the main challenges in your daily operation?

Ms. Mehmedali: We are faced with challenges on a daily basis. The most glaring in our case is managing operations successfully in different time zones. Additionally, the fact that our LTDs are in satellite locations contributes to the notion of being away from the mother ship. While location is not by any means a show stopper, at times professional development opportunities are not readily available to our team members. Fortunately, technology comes handy in shrinking that gap. Changing language requirements is another challenge. Our programs need to adapt to the mission. Personally speaking, every day is an adventure. Coming in to work with a set plan almost never works. That plan will invariably change with the first click that opens an e-mail.

Editor: What is your perspective of Field Support’s future directions?

Dr. Qasem: Our organization is unique in structure, composition, and mission. Every day we strive to be more agile, adaptive, and flexible. Geopolitics will most certainly dictate the future direction of the Field Support mission. However, we continue to work toward building a ready and trained team that can tackle any challenge and support the warfighter to the best of our ability.
Tuesday, July 3rd was a rare break for the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) faculty and staff from the day-to-day responsibilities of teaching military linguists. They gathered at the Language Learning and Teaching Conference (LLTC) and shared research findings, ideas, and resources for building a better Defense Language Institute (DLI). The annual conference, hosted by the Academic Senate, began twenty years ago. This year’s theme was “DLI: 2022 and Beyond.” In his opening remarks, Mr. Aziz Popal, Academic Senate President, acknowledged that the teachers attending the conference were “taking responsibility for the future of DLI” by continuing to improve not only their own but their colleagues’ teaching.

Colonel Barnes, the Assistant Commandant, defined the theme of this year’s conference by examining the Pillars of Learning. He mentioned that the Parthenon structure has been working well and providing good results at the 2/2/1+ level. However, the structure is incomplete. Col. Barnes’ definition of creating a better DLI, 2022 is to “complete the Parthenon to graduate at 2+/2+/2.” Dr. Savukinas, the Provost, echoed this sentiment, explaining how the Provost’s office is constantly working to improve teaching and learning at the DLI. He mentioned developing new curricula, examining outstanding student results, and cooperating with other agencies to improve student learning.

Many presenters explored innovative technology use in classroom teaching. For example, Peiju Chang and Jheng-Yi Lin of the Asian School 1’s Chinese program presented their research on “gamification.” They examined the components of a game and how elements of games may “reboot” a student’s learning. By understanding and utilizing these elements, a teacher can design
games that motivate students to study or target a specific skill that is problematic. Yali Dai, also from the Chinese program, walked the audience through Anki software to improve vocabulary retention. Ms. Dai demonstrated how making Anki a regular part of a study schedule improves long-term retention and understanding. Anki works on an evolving algorithm based on the study of the Ebbinghaus Forgetting Curve. While explaining the principles of Anki and its benefits for language learning, the presenter also provided suggestions for how implementing and personalizing Anki-supported study in language instruction. Other presentations of technological topics included video creation, Kahoot!, and interactive lessons on webpages. These continue to guide the DLI as it strives for more effective teaching and learning.

Other presentations evaluated how language is currently taught at the DLI and what can be improved. Ms. Yan Wang of the Asian School 1 discussed Larsen-Freeman’s model of form/meaning/use as a tool for teachers to decide which aspect to focus on when teaching grammar. Ms. Wang focused on the Chinese construction, “bā”, which is problematic for American learners. Nonetheless, the principle she presented may apply to any grammar feature of any language for any learner—the teacher may focus on the form (the grammatical structure, structural changes based on the context, such as tense or declension, or the phonological and phonetic differences in different contexts in spoken passages), the meaning (how the meaning changes in different contexts), or the use (how the same form has different functions in different contexts).

Meltem Dermanli and Natalia Barley, of the Curriculum Support Division, conducted a well-researched presentation about effective, brief classroom interventions to start and end a class—initiate and consolidate learning. Their topic, “Five Minutes of Class: Small Changes-Big Impact”, introduced 3P: Prediction, Polling, and Pre-testing—simple activities to inculcate higher order thinking skills, ensure student engagement, and create opportunities for assessment and instant feedback. This concept of “small changes” resonated with the presenters due to an observation during the Instructor Certification Course (ICC). One of the presenters was to check off elements on the “Proficiency” mnemonic while observing a class. The lesson was about phone call procedures and etiquette. During the first 45 minutes, the observer checked off few, if any, of the elements of proficiency as the teacher simply followed the textbook. But when the teacher found there were five minutes left (to kill?), she had the students call one another on their cell phones and covered most of the proficiency elements. The students applied what they had learned during class and the teacher was able to observe, assess, and provide instant feedback about student performance. This real-life example of the type of activities discussed by the presenters was well conceived and well received by the audience.

Jan Mohammad and Roshana Safi presented suggestions of team teaching to success without reliance on weekly schedules. They pointed out the paradox between the DLI policy of diagnostic, differentiated, and tailored instruction and the common practice of the weekly teaching schedule. Issues
included continuity between teacher and student, focus on developing specific skills, delay in providing timely assessment and feedback on areas of need, provision of conflicting or confusing feedback when team members were not on the same page, and dilution of ownership by team members. They recommended that teachers specialize in one or two skills to target particular needs. With specialties (listening, reading, grammar, speaking, etc.) assigned, teachers would save time in developing materials and activities. Furthermore, the quality of instruction might improve. Accountability would be more identifiable and based on student results. If a class achieves excellent results in reading, it has something to do with the reading teacher’s instruction. The presenters brought their experience of both teaching and teaching supervision to address the topic. The audience participated in a lively discussion, providing fuel for further debate.

On behalf of Dr. Charles Mills, who was unavailable to deliver his presentation, Ms. Regina Kuzmenkova delivered an informative presentation on the “Fallacy Identification as a Way to Reach Higher Levels.” This was relevant for teachers of higher-level students—third semester of the basic course, intermediate, advanced, and Defense Threat Reduction Agency (DTRA). The presentation outlined the rhetorical strategies of ad hominem, straw man, and slippery slope, among others. These are common to Russian, English, and other languages. Students need to be exposed to rhetorical devices designed to sway the native reader. Deciphering a writer’s intent is not only necessary for the DLI students to reach higher levels, but also for web-based readers in an era of “fake news.” The presenter defined several fallacious rhetorical strategies, provided a hands-on activity for the audience, and then led a discussion about implementing the strategies in class.

By the end of the conference, attendees and presenters had the chance to share information about the current state of language teaching and express opinions for reaching the DLI goal of 2+/2+/2. The Academic Senate continues to provide the DLI faculty with a venue to share innovative ideas, teacher-driven research, and classroom activities that can help us reach the goals of “2022 and Beyond”.
TECHNOLOGY RESOURCES

Technology Resources welcomes readers’ contributions. We are interested in brief write-ups on resources related to the foreign language education field, including hardware and software, websites, computer and mobile apps, online training, etc.

Edpuzzle

MARIA CUBAU
Miami-LTD, Field Support, Continuing Education

As the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) continues to reach higher proficiency goals, the debate about helping students become autonomous, self-guided, and active intensifies. One approach is blended learning, which typically involves replacing aspects of face-to-face learning with appropriate online experiences such as labs, tutorials, and assessments consistent with program goals. The popularity of the flipped, blended or hybrid classroom has grown rapidly, due in part to the understanding that traditional methods of instruction are not always the most successful.

A study at the University of Delaware examined whether there was a difference in learning for students who received content online in preparation for interactive activities in class from students receiving instruction in traditional classrooms. The study found that students were no more or less proficient after attending classes than they were with a combination of online instruction and class work. This is reassuring because if we choose to flip the classroom to free up valuable classroom time to do what we never have enough time to do, these hybrid courses appear to be as effective as face-to-face ones.

Edpuzzle, a free, content-based app, allows teachers to flip the class with active content, creating a learning environment that helps students take ownership of learning. Edpuzzle is a site that allows you to upload your own video or select a video from YouTube, TED Talks, and other sites, and customize it. With Edpuzzle, you do not have to move back and forth from one browser tab to the other to find the exact video, copy the link, and jump through several cumbersome hoops to produce an instructional resource and deliver it to the students. Edpuzzle houses the search for videos within its own site so working with videos is easy.

Once the video is uploaded, you can crop it to the appropriate length for the lesson. You may insert verbal notes to provide explanations, instructions, a
warm welcome, you name it. When the video hits a recorded note, the video pauses, plays the note, and then resumes. Teachers may also record entire tracks, allowing new content to be added or an existing audio replaced with more appropriate or current content.

*Edpuzzle* also allows for written comments and open-ended and multiple-choice questions, a great feature for focusing attention on key aspects of the material at one’s own pace (see Figure 1). However, if you do not want students to have control over the video, this feature may be disabled and the video played from beginning to end without pauses.

![Screenshot of Edpuzzle](image)

Figure 1
*Screenshot of Edpuzzle*

Once an activity is developed, you may assign it to a class created within *Edpuzzle*. Adding students to a class is as easy as sharing an access code or a link. As *Edpuzzle* is browser based, no additional software is required for download. One may access it in class or on any web browser.

To summarize, *Edpuzzle* shows significant potential for the DLIFLC classroom as a tool to flip the class or to provide instructional materials. Students may work individually or collaboratively in an environment that increases responsibility and ownership of the learning.
Empowering Teachers via Technology: Getting help with Lynda.com

IVANISA RUBLESCKI FERRER
Europe & Latin America School, Undergraduate Education

Teachers at the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) are always looking for ways to learn various computer applications. In addition to training offered by the Institute, they now have a new tool to learn and explore technology resources: Lynda.com, a company with more than 20 years of training experience, and now part of LinkedIn. For some years, the DLIFLC faculty relied on AtomicLearning.com to improve technology skills. Several months ago, the Institute adopted Lynda.com, replacing AtomicLearning.com, as its technology learning tool.

The DLIFLC purchased Lynda.com licenses for all interested employees. New users must enter their professional email address at https://www.lynda.com/email-signup to register, a process that takes only a few minutes. Once one’s email address has been entered on the registration page, the site generates a message with instructions for setting up the user profile.

Expert Teachers and Quality Courses

Lynda.com offers video courses taught by experts in different fields to help professionals cope with rapidly evolving technology. New courses with a variety of topics are added weekly. Most instructors, very knowledgeable of the topic, present the content in an informal manner. The quality of courses is high. Some courses feature expert opinions from specialists in the field. Courses follow a sound instructional methodology, evolving in a systematic way to include realistic examples that promote learning.

Usability

Lynda.com is user friendly. One may access courses via mobile sites or with free apps on iPad, iPhone, or Android devices. There is a transcript tab with full text of the video. While watching the videos, one may read along with captioned transcripts or search the text to find information quickly. The transcript highlights some words synchronized with the presenter’s speech.

It is easy to find the subjects available at Lynda.com upon accessing the site. All courses are conveniently organized into short segments. Some topics may last only five minutes, others longer. You decide how to use the site: to learn a procedure or to follow a course. The screenshot below is an overview of popular learning paths trending in January, 2018 (Figure 1).
Popular Learning Paths

If the topics shown are not what you look for, the search bar can help. In addition, navigating the site is very simple. Clicking the Library tab in the left-hand corner presents several options that allow you to choose what you want to see. If you know the name of your topic, the screenshot below (Figure 2) shows that it can be located by clicking the corresponding letter next to all subjects.

Certificates of Completion and Playlists

There is something for everyone. For instance, you may choose to learn how to add audios and videos in PowerPoint. Just type PowerPoint on the search bar and select the course that best fits your needs. You may choose to follow entire courses and even decide to obtain a certification upon completion. The screenshot below (Figure 3) shows the topics included in the PowerPoint course, the skill level intended, number of hours to achieve certification, and number of views. All content is available for downloading. For user convenience, topics can be viewed online or offline: there is no need to worry about a WiFi connection. Moreover, practice exercises are available to support learning. They can be found by clicking the tab Exercise Files.
If you decide to achieve certification, you just need to add the item to your playlist. Click the + sign on courses or videos anywhere in the site to build your playlist, as shown on the screenshot below (Figure 4). Lynda.com provides a course history and issues certificates when users complete a course successfully.

**Conclusion**

Lynda.com continues to expand its offerings. There are tutorials for a variety of eLearning courses, including PowerPoint, Photoshop, Captivate, Storyline, and several others. If you want to expand your knowledge of technology, you can try Lynda.com. Meanwhile, share your experience with your colleagues and tell us about the features you find most useful.

**Note**

All images are taken from Lynda.com.
Edmodo:
The Digital Classroom in the Age of Facebook

SONIA PERCHAUD
Europe & Latin America School, Undergraduate Education

Edmodo, a free Facebook look-alike, web-based educational platform, is a secured learning management tool combining asynchronous communication, content, and assessment. Its discussion forum and messaging feature facilitate collaboration among users. Through its library, learning content is quickly stored and managed. It also helps one easily create polls and quizzes, formative and summative assessments.

Sign up on Edmodo and Create/Join a Class

Signing up on Edmodo requires the teacher’s email address and a password. Afterwards, a class is automatically created and a class code is generated. To invite students, teachers can give students the code, an instruction handout, or email directions (see Figure 1).
From their homepage, teachers can create several classes by clicking *create a class*. (Figure 2); complete the *create a class* window; and click *create* (Figure 3)
Create a Class

To sign up, students need a username or an email address and a password. To join a class, they click *join a class* on their homepage and enter the code.

**Teaching with Edmodo Features**

*Asynchronous Communication and Document Sharing*

a. Post in the Discussion Forum

The *post* option is a useful tool to engage students inside and outside the classroom at any level of learning. With the *post* option, teachers can post messages and attachments (Figure 4), which will display on the students’ homepage. Similarly, students can use the *post* option to interact and share content with peers. For instance, they can work on tasks like asking one another biographical questions, talking about vacations, or discussing societal issues. In a flipped classroom, students can discuss and gain insight into the new materials when preparing for class. Moreover, by communicating in writing, students may hone writing and reading skills in the target language.
b. Messaging

_Messaging_ allows private communications between users. To write a message, click _message_ at the top of the homepage, select a user’s name, and write a message in the writing box. The recipient will be notified with a red dot on _messages_. To view the message, the recipient clicks _messages_.

c. Creating Folders and Uploading Content into Folders

To create folders, click _folders_, _manage folders_ (Figures 5). After the folder is named and created, it appears in the folder section. _Word_, _Excel_, _PowerPoint_ documents, folders, Internet links, videos, audio files, quizzes and tests can be uploaded into them. To add content, click the folder you want the content to be uploaded to and then click _new_. The folder with updated content is then visible to students.
Creating Formative and Summative Assessments

a. Creating Polls

Teachers can use polls for formative assessments. To create a poll, click poll, write a question and possible answers in the writing box (Figure 6), then click send. Once sent, the poll will appear on the teacher’s and students’ homepage. As students vote, vote tallies appear on their homepage. Teachers can use poll questions to identify and address students’ needs. Poll questions can also be a good conversation starter in the classroom.
b. Creating Quizzes

With the quiz feature, teachers can create summative assessments in the format of true and false statements, multiple choice, filling in the blanks, and matching. To create a quiz, click quiz (Figure 7), select a format, write the quiz, and set a due date. Once posted, the quiz will appear on the teacher’s (Figure 8) and students’ homepage.

After submitting a quiz, students can view their errors. If they have questions, teachers will be notified and can give feedback in the comments box.

Figure 7
Create a Quiz

Figure 8
A Quiz Shown on a Teacher’s Homepage
c. Assignments

To post assignments, click assignment, provide a name and instructions, set a due date, and attach documents. Teachers can control how attachments are viewed. In view only mode, students can only view and download documents, whereas in make copies mode, students can create a new copy for editing (Figure 9). Moreover, teachers can use the progress feature to track students’ quizzes and assignments.

![Figure 9: Give an Assignment](image)

To view the due assignments, students can click notifications or what's due, select the calendar, or check the assignment center (Figure 10).
Summary

*Edmodo* is a user-friendly educational management platform that fosters peer learning and facilitates students’ participation through asynchronous discussions and document sharing. It is perfectly suited for use in the flipped classroom. It allows teachers to monitor student progress. Finally, with its IOS and Android applications, *Edmodo* is accessible anywhere.
Classtools.net:
The Toolbox that Every Teacher Should Have

YUGANG ZHOU & TATJANA MITROVIC
Hawaii LTD, Extension Programs, Continuing Education

Every teacher has educational tools that improve teaching and learning. The variety of available educational tools, however can be so overwhelming that teachers may have difficulty finding what they need. The website www.classtool.net offers 45 templates to create educational games, activities, and quizzes in seconds. Although the templates are not designed for language teaching, each of them, if properly utilized, may engage language learners and enhance classroom performance.

Access to the website is free, and no passwords or signup are needed. Figure 1 shows the home page. In this paper we shall cover five out of the 45 templates available and explain how one may use them in a language class.

http://www.classtools.net/newsfeed/create.php
This template’s simple interface allows teachers to create an interactive classroom newsfeed. They can create several newsfeeds to highlight key news events of the week for students to keep up with the target culture and society, with each newsfeed appearing for a limited time period. Students must read the newsfeed and take notes as the clock counts down. Meanwhile, students may carry out research, make newsfeeds that interest them, and share the news with the class, thus providing more choices for news reports taking place in many language classes.

2. The “Living Graph” Gallery

http://www.classtools.net/education-games-php/livingGraph
This template creates a timeline with individual comments and is useful for reading and listening activities such as writing key information in chorological order and comparing notes with peers after listening to the news. After reading an article, students can work individually or in pairs to identify the key points and make short comments about why these points are significant. They may also trace the development of a work of literature by dragging “events” to the graph, thereby indicating the way they relate to one another. The colorful graphs and interactive blocks make the activity enjoyable.

3. The Audience Soundboard for Classroom Debates/Quizzes

http://www.classtools.net/soundboard/
This provides 15 assorted sound effects such as clapping, laughing, clock ticking, and cheering that can be used during classroom activities to engage the students and add dramatic audio into the classroom.

4. **Lights Out**

http://www.classtools.net/education-games-php/lights_out

![Figure 5](Lights Out)

This template allows one to upload an image, “turn the lights off”, and use a torch to view only a small section of the image at a time. Instead of showing the whole picture, the moving torch attracts viewers’ attention to more details of various parts of the picture. For language teaching, teachers can upload an image related to the target language culture or society, move the torch across the image and ask students to describe what they see. Since the image reveals itself gradually, it piques student curiosity. Another variation is for teachers to upload a text as the background of the canvas. When the moving torch lights up a certain part of the text, students are asked to guess the topic of the text. The teacher may randomly reveal parts of the text for students to make connections among them. This activity is a great tool to hone analytical and predictive skills.

5. **Brainy Box**

http://www.classtools.net/brainybox/
This template resembles a 3D, animated, multimedia cube that is perfect for presenting ideas. It can accommodate text, images, videos, online links and emojis on a six-sided cube that rotates to display content. Language classes at all levels can use this interactive template. Students can summarize the various aspects of an article by creating an image slide, a main idea slide, two “Aha” moment slides, a “muddy” moment slide, and a comment slide on the cube, and present the summary to class. The possibilities are endless. They may also conduct research of an historical figure and categorize the findings in six different aspects. Written texts, pictures, and videos can be incorporated to generate an interesting presentation.

In conclusion, classroomtools.net offers language teachers interesting, interactive, and innovative templates. Creativity and imagination, aided by the tools, will undoubtedly boost the language teaching and learning experience.
UPCOMING EVENTS

2018

NOVEMBER

November 15-18  Middle East Studies Association (MESA) Annual Meeting, San Antonio, TX
  Information: mesana.org/annual-meeting/upcoming.html

November 16-18  American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages Annual Convention (ACTFL), New Orleans, LA
  Information: www.actfl.org

November 16-18  American Association of Teachers of German (AATG) Annual Conference, New Orleans, LA
  Information: www.aatg.org

November 16-18  American Association of Teachers of Japanese (AATJ) Fall Conference, New Orleans, LA
  Information: www.aatj.org

2019

JANUARY

January 3-6  Modern Language Association (MLA) Convention, Chicago, IL
  Information: www.mla.org/convention

January 3-6  American Association of Teachers of German (AATG) Session, Chicago, IL
  Information: www.aatg.org

January 3-7  Linguistic Society of American (LSA) Annual Meeting, New York, NY
  Information: www.linguisticsociety.org

FEBRUARY

February 7-10  American Association of Teachers of Slavic and East European Languages (AATSEEL), New Orleans, LA
  Information: www.aatseel.org
General Information

February 28- California Language Teachers’ Association (CLTA) annual conference, San Jose, CA
March 3 Information: cita.net

MARCH

March 9-12 American Association for Applied Linguistics (AAAL), Atlanta, GA
Information: www.aaal.org
March 12-15 Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) International Convention, Atlanta, GA
Information: www.tesol.org
March 21-23 Southern Conference on Language Teaching (SCOLT) Annual Conference, Myrtle Beach, SC
Information: www.scolt.org

MAY

May 26-31 NAFSA: Association of International Educators Annual Conference and Expo, Washington, DC
Information: www.nafsa.org

NOVEMBER

November 14-17 Middle East Studies Association (MESA) Annual Meeting, Atlanta, GA
Information: mesana.org/annual-meeting/upcoming.html
November 22-24 American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages Annual Convention (ACTFL), Washington, DC
Information: www.actfl.org
November 22-24 American Association of Teachers of Japanese (AATJ) Fall Conference, New Orleans, LA
Information: www.aatj.org
November 22-24 Chinese Language Teachers Association (CLTA) Annual Conference, Washington, DC
Information: clta-us.org
INFORMATION FOR CONTRIBUTORS

Submission Information

Aims and Scope

The publication of this internal academic journal is to increase and share professional knowledge and information among Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) faculty and staff, as well as to promote professional communication within the Defense Language Program.

*Dialog on Language Instruction* is a refereed journal devoted to applied research into all aspects of innovation in language learning and teaching. It publishes research articles, review articles, and book/materials reviews. The community-oriented columns – Faculty Forum, News and Views, Quick Tips, and Resources – provide a platform for faculty and staff to exchange professional information, ideas, and views. *Dialog on Language Instruction* prefers its contributors to provide articles that have a sound theoretical base with a visible practical application which can be generalized.

Submission Requirement

*Dialog on Language Instruction* publishes only original works that have not been previously published elsewhere and that are not under consideration by other publications. Reprints may be considered, under special circumstances, with the consent of the author(s) and/or publisher.

Send all submissions electronically to the Editor: jiaying.howard@dliflc.edu.

Review Process

Manuscripts will be acknowledged by the editor upon receipt and subsequently screened and sent out for peer review. Authors will be informed about the status of the article once the peer reviews have been received and processed. Reviewer comments will be shared with the authors.

*Accepted Manuscripts:* Once an article has been accepted for publication, the author will receive further instructions regarding the submission of the final copy.
Rejected Manuscripts: Manuscripts may be rejected for the following reasons:

- Inappropriate/unsuitable topic for DLIFLC;
- Lack of purpose or significance;
- Lack of originality and novelty;
- Flaws in study/research design/methods;
- Irrelevance to contemporary research/dialogs in the foreign language education profession;
- Poor organization of material;
- Deficiencies in writing; and
- Inadequate manuscript preparation.

Once the editor notifies the author that the manuscript is unacceptable, that ends the review process.

In some cases, an author whose manuscript has been rejected may decide to revise it and resubmit. However, as the quality of the revision is unpredictable, no promise may be made by this publication pursuant to reconsideration.

Specifications for Manuscripts

Prepare the manuscripts in accordance with the following requirements:

- Follow APA style (the 6th Edition) – the style set by the American Psychological Association;
- Do not exceed 6,000 words for research articles (not including reference, appendix, etc.);
- Use double spacing, with margins of one inch on four sides;
- Use Times New Roman font, size 12;
- Number pages consecutively;
- In black and white only, including tables and graphics;
- Create graphics and tables in a Microsoft Office application (Word, PowerPoint, Excel);
- Provide graphics and tables no more than 4.5” in width;
- Do not use the footnotes and endnotes function in MS Word. Insert a number formatted in superscript following a punctuation mark. Type notes on a separate page. Center the word “Notes” at the top of the page. Indent five spaces on the first line of each sequentially-numbered note; and
- Keep the layout of the text as simple as possible.

Correspondence

Contact the Editor: jiating.howard@dliflc.edu
Guidelines for Manuscript Preparation

First, decide for which column you would like to write: Research Articles, Review Articles, Reviews, Faculty Forum, News and Reports, Quick Tips, or Resources. Refer to the following pages for the specific requirement of each type of article.

Research Articles

Divide your manuscript into the following sections, and in this order:
   1. Title and Author Information
   2. Abstract
   3. Body of the text, including:
      • Acknowledgements (optional)
      • Notes (optional)
      • References
      • Tables and figures (optional)
      • Appendixes (optional)

Ensure that your article has the following structure:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cover Page</th>
<th>Type the title of the article and the author’s name, position, school/department/office, contact information on a separate page to ensure anonymity in the review process. See the example below:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Foster Learner Autonomy in Project-based Learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>JANE, DOE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Assistant Professor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Persian-Farsi School, UGE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><a href="mailto:jane.doe@dliflc.edu">jane.doe@dliflc.edu</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>831-242-3333</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abstract</td>
<td>Briefly state the purpose of the study, the principal results, and major conclusions in a concise and factual abstract of no more than 300 words.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>State the objectives, hypothesis, and research design. Provide adequate background information, but avoid a detailed literature survey or a summary of the results.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literature Review</td>
<td>Discuss the work that has had a direct impact on your study. Cite only research pertinent to a specific issue and avoid references with only tangential or general significance. Emphasize pertinent findings and relevant methodological issues. Provide the logical continuity between previous and present work.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Method**
State the hypothesis of your study. Describe how you conducted the study. Give a brief synopsis of the methodology. Provide sufficient detail to allow the work to be replicated. You may develop the subsections pertaining to the participants, the materials, and the procedure.

**Participants.** Identify the number and type of participants. Indicate how they were selected. Provide major demographic characteristics.

**Materials.** Briefly describe the materials used and their function in the experiment.

**Procedure.** Describe each step in conducting the research, including the instructions to the participants, the formation of the groups, and the specific experimental manipulations.

**Results**
State the results and describe them to justify the findings. Mention all relevant results, including those that run counter to the hypothesis.

**Discussion**
Explore the significance of the results of the work, but do not repeat them. A combined Results and Discussion section is often appropriate. Avoid extensive citations and discussion of published literature.

**Conclusion**
Describe the contribution of the study to the field. Identify conclusions and theoretical implications that can be drawn from your study. Do not simply repeat earlier sections.

**Acknowledgments**
Identify those colleagues who may have contributed to the study and assisted you in preparing the manuscript.

**Notes**
Use sparingly. Number them consecutively throughout the article. They should be listed on a separate page, which is to be entitled *Notes*.

**References**
Submit on a separate page with the heading: References. References should be arranged first alphabetically, and then sorted chronologically if necessary. More than one reference from the same author(s) in the same year must be identified by the letter ‘a’, ‘b’, ‘c’, etc., placed after the year of publication.

**Appendix**
Place detailed information (such as a sample of a questionnaire, a table, or a list) that would be distracting to read in the main body of the article.
Review Articles

It should describe, discuss, and evaluate several publications that fall into a topical category in foreign language education. The relative significance of the publications in the context of teaching realms should be pointed out. A review article should not exceed 6,000 words.

Reviews

Reviews of books, textbooks, scholarly works, dictionaries, tests, computer software, audio-visual materials, and other print or non-print materials on foreign language education will be considered for publication. Give a clear but brief statement of the work’s content and a critical assessment of its contribution to the profession. State both positive and negative aspects of the work(s). Keep quotations short. Do not send reviews that are merely descriptive. Reviews should not exceed 2,000 words.

Faculty Forum

This section provides an opportunity for faculty, through brief articles, to share ideas and exchange views on innovative foreign language education practices, or to comment on articles in previous issues or on matters of general academic interest. Forum articles should not exceed 2,000 words.

News and Events

Reports on conferences, official trips, official visitors, special events, new instructional techniques, training opportunities, news items, etc. Reports should not exceed 1,000 words.

Quick Tips

Previously unpublished, original or innovative, easy to follow ideas for use in the language classroom or in any aspect of foreign language learning and teaching, such as technology tips, useful classroom activities, learner training tips, etc. (Examples include: Five strategies for a positive learning environment; Using iPad to develop instructional video; Four effective strategies for improving listening – tips that your colleagues can easily adapt to their classrooms). Tips should not exceed 800 words.

Resources

Brief write-ups on resources related to the foreign language education field, such as books, audio/video materials, tests, research reports, websites, computer and mobile apps, etc. Write-ups should not exceed 800 words.
CALL FOR PAPERS

*Dialog on Language Instruction* is an occasional, internal publication of the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) and part of its professional development program. It provides a forum for faculty and staff at DLIFLC to exchange professional information. *Dialog* encourages submission of articles, reviews, forum articles, articles on best teaching practices, brief news items, quick tips, and resources.

**Deadline:** Submissions are welcome at any point. Manuscripts received by *31 January* will be considered for the fall issue and by *31 July* for the spring issue.

For guidelines in the preparation of your manuscript, please refer to the previous section (pp. 89-93): *Information for Contributors.*
THANK YOU

*Dialog on Language Instruction* relies on peer review for quality and suitability to the journal’s aims and scope. Special thanks go to the colleagues listed below, who volunteered their time and expertise to serve as reviewers and consultants for this issue. The publication of *Dialog on Language Instruction* was made possible with their generous support.

Natalia Barley  
Leila Bernardo  
Reem Dababneh  
Vera Dumancic  
Sonia Estima  
Rubee Fuller  
Michael Gelbman  
Dian Huang  
Hanan Khaled  
Yue Li  
Ruiqi Ma  
Atousa Mirzael  
Edgar Roca  
Ravinder Singh  
Daniel Wang  
Heping Xu  
Jihua Zhou  

Gorge Bebawi  
Claudia Bey  
Paulina De Santis  
Mehran Esfandiari  
Ivanisa Ferrer  
Liwei Gao  
Jamal Hosseini  
Gamal Kalini  
Jisook Kim  
Yanmei Liu  
Tatiana McCaw  
Hazem Osman  
Sarita Silverman  
Hanwei Tan  
Xiaoqi Wu  
George Yousef