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Literature Review on Factors Influencing Autonomy of Second Language Learners

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The concept of learner autonomy is gaining increased popularity within the contexts of the foreign language (FL) learning research and practice community, including at the Defense Language Institute Foreign Learning Center (DLIFLC). The benefits of fostering autonomy, such as an increase in learners' motivation and satisfaction, are well-documented and unambiguously appealing and desirable. However, several recent research studies indicate the problematic nature of the practical application of this concept in the FL learning and teaching arena (Ertürk, 2016; Luke, 2006). It is crucial for us as FL practitioners to stay abreast of any such research that depicts various aspects of the concepts and practices that are being promoted within our field. Doing so will ensure that we have a realistic and accurate understanding of the ideas we discuss and aim to apply in our daily teaching practice.

The multidimensional nature of the learning and teaching processes makes it incredibly complicated to describe all the aspects of such a broad concept as learner autonomy. Therefore, the purpose of this paper is to explore and summarize the most recent research findings on only two factors that influence the process of fostering learner's autonomy in FL learning—the previous learning experience and cultural background of FL learners. The definition of learner's autonomy will be explored, followed by the analysis of several studies investigating the aforementioned factors. The far-reaching goal of this literature review is to foster a more robust discussion of the feasibility and applicability of learner autonomy in the realm of FL learning and teaching within the context of the DLIFLC.

CONCEPT OF LEARNER'S AUTONOMY IN THE CONTEXT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING

It should come as no surprise that the literature review reveals the lack of consensus on the definition of language learner autonomy because of the various epistemological and ontological perspectives within the educational field. Depending on which theoretical framework

the authors rely upon, their definitions of learner autonomy include or exclude various factors. For instance, Hu and Zhang (2017) apply the self-determination theory of motivation, which equates learner autonomy with learner's volition and self-affirmation of their behavior. In contrast, Luke (2006) and Little (2007) use the constructivist philosophy, which stipulates an inborn human necessity for autonomy in the interpretation and acquisition of new knowledge. Nevertheless, several subtopics have emerged as underlying factors in the discussion on learner autonomy: independence versus autonomy, power dynamics, instructors' perceptions, and a strategy of self-regulation. A brief overview of these concepts will facilitate a deeper understanding of the overall construct of our discussion.

Independence Versus Autonomy

Several authors point out that learner autonomy is sometimes confused with the concept of self-instruction and independent learning (Ertürk, 2016; Little 2007; Yagcioglu, 2015). Little (2007) explains why the separation of these concepts is problematic in the context of language learning. He points out the inherent contradiction: a language is first and foremost a communicative tool used to interact with others, especially when it is used for speaking. Therefore, a learner needs interaction (interdependence) with other speakers of the language to become proficient (p. 18). However, autonomy, a part of human nature, is a critical prerequisite to any learning. Little (2007) proposes to view these phenomena as two sides of the same coin and equally important. Consequently, autonomy does not equal self-study or independent learning because interaction with other speakers/users of the language is critical. Rather, it encompasses a much broader term that denotes a leaner's desire and ability to make decisions and control learning (Csizer & Kormos, 2014).

Power Dynamics

Having established that language learning involves interaction with other speakers of the language, it is essential to know that learning happens within as well as outside of the classroom. An interaction may occur among peers, instructors, users of social media, etc. Depending upon a particular environment and participants, autonomy will be affected by the learner's perception of the power dynamics, which in this context refers to the process of exercising control over learning. As Luke (2006) has demonstrated, learners might forfeit their autonomy based on the understanding that an instructor or another authority figure bears the responsibility for their learning. This perception, which might contradict reality, is rooted in the previous learning experience, which was explored by Owusu-Agyeman and Fourie-Malherbe (2019).

Instructors' Perceptions

Some authors focus their research on exploring the power dynamics between instructors and their students and how teachers' perceptions of autonomy influence classroom practices (Amirian & Noughabi, 2017; Hu & Zhang, 2017). The review of the research on this topic reveals a fascinating dissonance between the instructors' core belief in the importance of fostering autonomy, especially in adult learners, and their peripheral belief that learners are incapable of

practicing autonomy, especially in the context of language learning (Amirian & Noughabi, 2017). Notably, Nguyen (2012) emphasizes the connection between instructors' perception of their own autonomy in the classroom with their perception and classroom practices regarding the autonomy of their students: the more flexible and in charge instructors feel about the teaching process, the more they support learners in taking responsibility for their learning.

Self-regulation Strategies

As previously mentioned, learner autonomy encompasses not only the desire and acceptance of one's responsibility for learning but also an ability to control one's learning (Csizer & Kormos, 2014; Seker, 2016). Various authors outline multiple skills that belong to this latter category, such as the ability to set measurable and realistic goals, identify and retrieve relevant information, and self-assess one's progress, to name a few. Most of these abilities would fall under the term of "self-regulation strategies." Seker (2016) reports that previously learned, self-regulated learning strategies increase students' performance and achievement in class. Consequently, learners' autonomy in language learning context is connected to any learning that incorporated the development of self-regulated strategies.

Previous Learning Experience

A brief review of the definition of language learner autonomy demonstrates its multifaceted nature and the impact that previous learning experience has on it. What follows is a synthesis of the reviewed recent research on this topic. Two subtopics have emerged in multiple studies: subject knowledge (in this case referring to the previous language learning experience) and motivation. The goal is to highlight the importance of exploring these factors together with our students within the context of the DLIFLC.

Subject Knowledge

We are all speakers of at least one language. Therefore, the experience of learning a language is somewhat familiar to all of us. Consequently, the task of learning a second language is inadvertently viewed by novice adult learners through the prism of their native language acquisition. Yagcioglu (2015) argues that the difference between the two processes becomes apparent to the learners and prompts adjustments in their approaches and perceptions. However, applying constructivist theory, Little (2007) argues that learners often lack awareness of the autonomous process of acquiring their native language. That leads to learners focusing their attention on the differences between the learning processes and overlooking the many similarities. They become reluctant to exercise their autonomy, especially if they have gone through traditional teacher-centered schooling (Hu & Zhang, 2017).

In addition, learners within a classroom learning environment realize that there is a difference between *knowing* the language and *knowing about* the language. Second language learning involves both. Csizer and Kormos (2014) relate that the more knowledge about the

language (including one's native language) a learner possesses, the easier it is for them to learn another language and exercise autonomous learning.

Another important consideration is the difference between the effect of the previous FL learning and native language learning. Luke (2006), in his work on nurturing learning autonomy, documents how previous FL learning experience may have negative ramifications on learner's acceptance of more responsibility and methods designed to foster independent learning. He assumes a dual role of both a teacher and a researcher in his study of 19 fourth-semester university Spanish class students. Data sources included various teacher and student-produced documentations such as observation notes, feedback forms, self-evaluations, and interview transcripts collected during a single semester-long Spanish course (37.5 instructional hours). Luke (2006) applied an inquiry-based and semi-autonomous approach through the use of instructional technology. The students had free time to choose and explore a topic of their interest. Although some of his students accepted this approach and reported being more motivated and engaged by the end of the course, several students found the class to be a waste of time and insisted on more direct instruction (Luke, 2006). Luke (2006) hypothesizes that the resistant students' act bases on the perceived lack of certainty and seeks a familiar learning environment that give them a sense of control. This particular research raises an important question of how to incorporate and facilitate a transition for the instructors and students from the traditional foreign language teaching classroom to semi-autonomous methods that we try to foster within the DLIFLC.

Although Owusu-Agyeman and Fourie-Malherbe's (2019) research does not focus on FL learning, their well-constructed and thorough investigation on adult learners' autonomy strongly supports the importance of strong subject matter knowledge in the development of learner autonomy. Using a mixed-method approach to research various factors that increase adult learners' active role in negotiating co-ownership of the process of learning in the institutions of higher education, they focus on the connections among the most significant factors identified: engagement, prior knowledge and skills, and relevance of the learning program. The data analysis reveals that the main factor correlating with a more robust negotiation of co-ownership and motivation is learners' core subject knowledge, in their case, theoretical knowledge and practical skills in engineering (Owusu-Agyeman & Fourie-Malherbe, 2019).

Based on the research reviewed, it is possible to conclude that the subject knowledge plays an important role in the acceptance and exercise of learner's autonomy within the FL learning context. The subject matter includes both formal and informal learning of either native language or FL. Language teaching practitioners within the DLIFLC should be aware of this impact when working with a diverse student population and may consider sectioning learners with a prior FL learning experience into a separate class. Such students might be more willing to participate and enjoy a more autonomous learning environment.

Motivation

Increased motivation is cited as one of the most significant gains of autonomous learning (Csizer & Kormos, 2014; Kasworm, 2008; Rothes, Lemos, & Goncalves, 2017). Current research supports the idea that previous learning experience has a direct effect on not only the degree of motivation but also the type of motivation that learners exhibit. In addition, it addresses the

question whether motivation and previous learning experience are sufficient to promote successful autonomous learning.

Rothes et al. (2017) employed mixed methods to research four types of adult learners' motivation using the typology outlined in the self-determination theory (SDT). They explored the concepts of self-efficacy, learner's autonomy, participation, gender, and educational background. SDT distinguishes intrinsic (autonomous) and extrinsic (controlled) motivations and suggests that autonomous motivation provides positive outcomes as opposed to controlled motivation. The results of Rothes et al.'s (2017) research only partially supported the theoretical framework of SDT—no negative effects of the controlled motivational reasons were documented. Surprisingly, women exhibited motivational profiles that fell into a "good-quality motivation" type based on the authors' terminology. The authors explained this finding with the cultural gender roles of women in Portugal, the country where their research took place. This finding is significant for the current literature review because, according to Rothes et al. (2017), gender roles dictate to a certain degree the type of learning experience women and men have within the same educational environment.

The study by Csizer and Kormos (2014) investigated the influence of motivational factors and self-regulatory strategies on autonomous learning behavior within the context of technology-assisted language learning. The researchers surveyed 638 Hungarian learners of foreign languages to determine which factors increase the possibility of the students seeking learning opportunities autonomously outside of the language classroom. The research results indicated that although positive motivation and clear learning goals were very important in promoting autonomous learning, they were not sufficient without strong self-regulation strategies. There was no significant difference in the results for the longtime learners or novice learners. The findings imply that many students, despite their previous learning experience, might need their instructors' guidance in selecting and developing self-regulation strategies. Csizer and Kormos (2014) suggest that this guidance is especially relevant within the technology-assisted language learning environment. As the DLIFLC continues to expand the application of e-learning technology within its courses, the findings of this research gain relevance and applicability for its faculty and student population.

CULTURAL BACKGROUND

The DLIFLC is a unique institution that hosts predominately American military students and foreign-born instructors from all parts of the world. It is essential to understand how the cultural differences between the instructors and students, as well as among instructors from different language departments, impact the understanding and application of the concept of learner autonomy.

Individualistic Versus Collective Cultures

A thorough review of the selected literature on how culture influences learner autonomy shows that certain societies that traditionally adhere to collective social values view the concept of learner autonomy as foreign and problematic (Hu & Zhang, 2017; Wichayathian & Reinders,

2018). Nguyen (2012) points out that the Eastern philosophy of inclusion and rigid social hierarchy is in contrast to Western philosophy, which has traditionally focused on the promotion of individualism. Therefore, in many Asian cultures learner autonomy is a foreign concept that does not translate straightforwardly. On the other hand, the cultures that embrace the so-called Western individualistic values view autonomy as essential and unquestionable (Bergmark & Westman, 2016). Therefore, such acceptance of the concept or the lack of it based on philosophical convictions has far-reaching implications for not only the autonomy of a single learner but for how this concept is incorporated within an entire educational system on various levels.

Whereas Ertürk (2016) outright questions a possibility of learner autonomy based on his experience of teaching FL in Turkey—a country that traditionally valued collective philosophy and teacher-centered classroom environment. Hu and Zhang (2017) demonstrate how the concept of learner autonomy could be adapted within such cultures. Their research shows that the incorporation of peer interaction and explicit teaching of self-regulation strategies bring a positive collective experience that promotes learner autonomy. This finding supports the previously discussed principle of the difference between autonomy and independence.

Bergmark and Westman's (2016) research demonstrates how the concept of autonomy is implemented within a western individualistic society. In their qualitative research, they explore the feasibility and sustainability of adult students' engagement through the curriculum co-creation within the Swedish system of higher education. While teaching a course on learning theory to 69 secondary school teachers at Lulea University of Technology in Sweden, one of the authors engaged students in the co-creation of the course curriculum. The second author conducted semi-structured interviews with the first author and the students. The additional sources of data were the course documents and an open-ended questionnaire administered to the students. The authors' goal was not only to document how to engage the students in curriculum co-creation but also to reflect on the challenges and benefits therein. Despite their finding that the co-creation of the curriculum is a demanding process that could be perceived as unpredictable and unstable by both instructors and students, even within a democratic society, the authors suggest that their case study supports the notion that participation of adult students' and their motivation increase with learner autonomy. They make a convincing argument for the necessity of the institutional support for the sustainability of the practice even within the countries with traditionally individualistic values.

Teacher-centered Versus Student-centered Educational Systems

Educational systems reflect traditions and cultural values that are not necessarily shared by society at large. Therefore, it is vital to consider them separately from other cultural phenomena (Bergmark & Westman, 2016; Ertürk, 2016; Hu & Zhang, 2017).

Several studies that originated in Western-minded societies, including the United States, highlight the still-existing challenges in redefining the traditional roles of instructors and students even though the idea of a student-centered classroom is widely accepted and promoted (Bergmark & Westman, 2016; Little, 2007). Luke (2006), describing the setback he personally experienced in his classroom in fostering learning autonomy, states that there are situations

where the teacher should be the expert and exercise sole authority in making certain decisions. Unfortunately, he does not provide any specifics on such situations or what decisions should be within instructors' exclusive purview.

Amirian and Noughabi (2017) demonstrate that the strong teacher-centered pedagogical tradition of Iranian FL educators renders the idea of learner autonomy undesirable and unfeasible, even though FL teachers understand the positive gains that can be had from fostering this concept. Ertürk (2016) echoes the same conclusion in his analysis of the feasibility of learner autonomy in Turkey. He notes that the teachers' comprehension of learner autonomy derives from their own learning experience, which was far from autonomous. He raises a valid question of the likelihood of instructors fostering learners' autonomy when these instructors have never experienced it themselves. In fact, an article by Ertürk's countryman Yagcioglu (2015) provides excellent examples of how engaging classroom activities could be easily misclassified as autonomous learning activities.

Summing up, the literature review has unveiled variations in acceptance and interpretation of learner autonomy among the researchers from different cultural backgrounds and educational systems. It has also identified a gap in research on the applicability and feasibility of this concept within a multicultural environment. Therefore, when the concept of learner autonomy is applied in a multicultural setting, like the DLIFLC, the cultural background of both learners and teachers needs to be considered, explored, and discussed to avoid misunderstanding and unrealistic expectations.

CONCLUSION

The goal of this literature review is to explore the two factors that influence the process of fostering learner's autonomy in FL learning: previous learning experience and cultural background of FL learners and instructors. First, the concept of learning autonomy within language learning has been reviewed with the focus on the difference between independence and autonomy, power dynamics in the learning process, instructors' perceptions, and self-regulating strategies. This process demonstrates the multifaceted nature of FL learning autonomy and how various factors are closely intertwined. Then, the current research on the effects of the previous learning experience and cultural background has been reviewed. Implications of the research reviewed on the theory and practice of FL learner autonomy within the DLIFLC context have been suggested.

Based on the current evidence, it is concluded that previous learning experience and cultural background of both learners and instructors are critical factors that impact the ability and willingness of FL learners to exercise their learning autonomy. More research is necessary on the intuitional support needed to increase learner autonomy and to promote it within the multicultural environment as the DLIFLC. Hopefully, this paper will spark a productive discussion on the best practices and difficulties that DLIFLC faculty often face when promoting learner autonomy.

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Changing Instructional Practices for Student Success: Semester-based Team Teaching

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In response to institutional goals to reach higher levels of proficiency, the Urdu language program implemented a "semester-based" team teaching system. In this system, a team teaches a single semester and students are taught by three different teaching teams throughout their course. This differs from the conventional course-based team teaching system at the DLIFLC in which students are taught by a single team for the entire course. Under the semester-based system, the program went through major changes in strengthening its instructional core (i.e., faculty, students, and curriculum). As a result, the program improved levels of foreign language proficiency significantly, as evidenced by the DLPT and OPI results, and reduced academic attrition rates. This paper captures changes made in curriculum development, assessment, faculty empowerment, and student learning. It also sheds light on the semester-based system for educators who may consider reforming their language programs.

INTRODUCTION

In response to the needs of the intelligence community for highly qualified military linguists, the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) has set higher foreign language proficiency goals for its students. The current graduation standard requires students to reach proficiency levels of 2 in Reading, 2 in Listening, and 1+ in Speaking (aka 2/2/1+) at the end of the Basic Course based on the Interagency Language Roundtable (ILR) standards. The new goal of increased proficiency requires reaching ILR Levels of 2+ in Reading and Listening, and 2 in Speaking by 2022 (aka 2+/2+/2; Cutter, 2017).

The institution has identified ways to improve student results through "(1) a trained and ready faculty; (2) prepared students; and (3) an improved and flexible curriculum" (Cutter, 2018, p. 14; Deppert, 2016). These areas are in line with the instructional core addressed by Elmore

(2008) who states "there are three ways to improve student learning at scale—Raise the level of learning content, increase the skills and knowledge of the teachers, and increase the level of students' active learning" (p.1). Strengthening the instructional core (i.e., teacher, learner, content) is thus key to successful student learning.

Charged with the institution's goal and directions, the Urdu language program implemented changes resulting in more successful student performance. The purpose of this paper is to (1) illustrate the unique "semester-based" team teaching system adopted by the Urdu language program; (2) document the changes made by this initiative in curriculum development, assessment, faculty development, and other areas leading to program success; (3) compare the results of student success between the conventional "course-based" team teaching system at the DLIFLC and a new "semester-based" team teaching system; and (4) share the paradigm used with teachers and managers so that educators in other language programs may make informed decisions should they implement this semester-based system or portions of it in their programs.

PARADIGM SHIFT TO "SEMESTER-BASED" TEAM TEACHING

In July 2016, the Urdu language program transitioned from the traditional DLIFLC "course-based" team teaching system to a "semester-based" system in response to institutional mandates to reach higher levels of proficiency. Under the course-based system, one teaching team conducts all instruction for the duration of the course (e.g., 47 weeks in the case of Urdu). By contrast, under the semester-based system, one teaching team teaches only a single semester, one-third of the course (e.g., approximately 16 weeks per semester in the case of Urdu). Therefore, students under this system are exposed to three different teaching teams.

The semester-based team teaching approach offers several benefits. First, the new system may provide the faculty an opportunity to adjust and improve each semester's curriculum in less time when compared to the course-based team teaching paradigm. Instead of waiting for approximately one year of instruction to end, teachers are now able to focus on their instructional reflections and curriculum updates based on student feedback after only four months. Second, teachers may also hone their skills and become master teachers at a particular semester level by focusing on teaching the same semester several times to different groups of students. Third, the students may benefit from working with more teachers, enjoying wider exposure to different intonations, dialects, and styles of speech and interacting with teachers from different regions and backgrounds of the target country.

IMPLEMENTATION OF THE "SEMESTER-BASED" TEAM TEACHING SYSTEM

Whereas the change to the semester-based system seemed a mere change of structure from the DLIFLC's conventional course-based team teaching system, it was more complex. It necessitated a paradigm shift in both instructional and operational practices requiring significant changes to the major instructional core: faculty, curriculum, and students. In addition, there were

also major logistical issues associated with the implementation of the new system. Below is an examination of these issues.

Logistical Concerns

The first challenges of implementation were logistical. The main concerns related to issues of student input entry time, class size, number of teachers per semester, and semester team composition.

Student Input Entry Time

Before the implementation of the "semester-based" teaching system, the intervals between classes were irregular and ranged from one to four months. Each teaching team was assigned to teach one section throughout the 47-week course. Student entry time or intervals between classes had never been an issue in the course-based system. It was, however, a major obstacle for the implementation of the semester-based team teaching approach. The new approach required three semester teams rather than only one in the traditional system. The projected student entry time posed a big challenge for manpower assignment. For example, four classes were scheduled to start on different dates during 2015–2016: September 2015, November 2015, January 2016, and February 2016. Within that six-month period from September to February, the number of sections fluctuated between one and six. This meant that faculty members had to be moved to different semester teams for up to three months, to support the instructional schedule. As this would obviate the underlying premise of the "semester-based" teaching system, it was essential to readjust student input entry time to avoid shifting faculty members from one team to another. As the Urdu language program lasted 47 weeks, approximately 16 weeks per semester, it was proposed that each new class should arrive approximately four months apart to permit stability within semester teams. The proposal was accepted and resolved a critical logistical obstacle to the implementation of semester-based teaching.

Class Size and Number of Teachers per Class

Another logistical concern was class size, which directly influenced the number of teachers required. Pursuant to DLIFLC 350-10 regulations, two instructors are normally assigned to each class section. The number of sections for each Urdu class usually ranged from one to six sections per class, thus requiring two to twelve teachers. Fluctuations in class size would work against the implementation of the semester-based team teaching intention to develop expert teachers for each semester. Additionally, it would create problems in teacher evaluation. If several teachers from other teams were to be reassigned temporarily, it would be problematic for supervisors to evaluate them fairly at the end of the semester. It was therefore suggested that class size be better regulated and controlled (e.g., two sections per semester) to minimize the change of team members and create steady teams. This proposal was also accepted.

Semester Team Composition

The existing Urdu program consisted of two departments, six teaching teams, and 25 faculty members. Under the new system, the program was reconfigured so that each department was composed of three semester teaching teams. This new configuration was designed to provide opportunities for cooperation while creating greater independence among the teams to achieve higher graduation rates.

Careful thought was put into the faculty composition of each semester team. Team member selection is a delicate matter. It needs to be justified to gain faculty buy-in. Five aspects were considered when selecting and arranging the members for each team, including faculty availability, strengths and weaknesses, subject-matter expertise, teacher effectiveness ranking, and personal interests and preferences. Faculty availability refers to the time a faculty member completed his/her last non-semester-based class and could be smoothly transitioned into the new system. Faculty strengths and weaknesses were examined in such areas as maintaining a low attrition rate, guiding students to 2+/2+/2, having high expectation for students, and keeping students motivated. Class attrition data, teacher effectiveness rankings based on student feedback through Interim Student Questionnaires (ISQs) and End-of-Course Student Questionnaires (ESQs), graduation results, and classroom observation notes were utilized to compare and assess faculty strengths and weaknesses. Subject-matter expertise included faculty knowledge and experience in teaching different skill modalities (i.e., listening, reading, speaking, grammar, and vocabulary), content and cultural knowledge, curriculum design, test development, and so on. Finally, faculty interests and preferences were considered as well. All these factors were communicated to the faculty members via various meetings. Teachers had opportunities to provide input and feedback. It was also made clear that if anyone wished to make a change, it would be considered.

Faculty Preparation

Beyond the infrastructural support provided through the logistical changes outlined above, faculty buy-in and readiness impact the success of the new system. To gain faculty buy-in, several information sessions were conducted, orienting the teachers to the content and implementation procedures of the semester-based teaching team approach. Faculty members in Semesters 1 and 2 teams were also involved in the core material selection for their assigned semesters. The Semester 3 team took part in the review, revision, and development of Semester 3 materials.

To increase faculty readiness for the new system and the tasks assigned to them, various faculty development opportunities were provided. For example, Semester 1 and 2 teams received training and norming on core material selection. The Semester 3 team received training on curriculum development, teaching to higher levels, and task-based instruction. On-the-job mentoring was provided to support the faculty members and ensure quality. At least one team building workshop was provided to each team to increase team solidarity, develop team vision and mission, create team communication methods, and tackle potential issues.

Faculty accountability and motivation were also important elements. To recognize highly effective teams, the Dean's award was established to be given at the end of each semester. The assessment of effectiveness for this award involved multiple data points beyond the results of student achievement-based tests including proficiency-based assessments. A threshold for outstanding performance was determined based on historic data of the program. Semester teams that exceeded the threshold received the Dean's Team Excellence Award. At the same time, all three semester teams were eligible for the Provost's Teaching Team Excellence Award at the end of the course if the students reached the goal established by the institute. Awarding the Provost's Teaching Team Excellence Award to all deserving semester teams helped keep teachers motivated and created camaraderie among teachers teaching the same students because this award was eligible only for teachers who taught at least 50 percent of the instructional weeks in the course-based team teaching system.

The provision of recognition through public rewards, the opportunity to review and revise the curriculum, and the expedited receipt of data and feedback on curriculum and instruction were essential in creating a faculty that was motivated to make the changes and adopt the new curriculum. These changes also allowed the curricular changes to be driven by "real" data in "real" time and made teachers feel they had a larger role to play in creating successful students. This is one of the major differences between the two systems in the Urdu program. Previously, the curriculum development and changes were made through specialists and often took over a year to create and implement. Under the new system, curriculum developments and adjustments were directly under the purview of the actual instructors and could be accomplished rapidly.

Curriculum Support and Revision

The course-based Urdu curriculum had been developed between 2011 and 2013 with the proficiency goals of 2/2/1+. It was developed under strict time constraints, and minimal revision had been made after the initial development. To identify the gaps between the existing curriculum and the needs of the 2+ goals, curriculum reviews were conducted in March 2016. Data from various sources were collected for gap analysis, including ISQs and ESQs, a faculty survey, interviews with students and teachers, input from department chairpersons, military language instructors and curriculum project managers, and class observations. After careful analysis of the data, five gap areas were identified as follows: 1) topic organization; 2) organization of daily lessons; 3) issues with grammar; 4) issues with vocabulary; and 5) issues with content (Dermanli, 2016). Recommendations were made to bridge the gaps in each area. The gaps found for each area and the measures taken to tackle the issues are presented below.

Topic Organization

The gaps in the topic organization of the Urdu curriculum involved abrupt transitions between semesters, outdated and missing content (e.g., weather was not introduced), misalignment of topics in a chapter, overemphasis on less important topics (e.g., country roads), and insufficient attention to major topics (e.g., politics).

To ensure that content and organization of lesson topics were pedagogically sound, the scope and sequence of the topics in all three semesters were thoroughly reviewed. Missing topics were added, redundant or irrelevant topics were removed, and lesson topics in each chapter were examined for relevancy and sequential logic.

Organization of Daily Lessons

The data revealed four main issues in the organization of daily lessons. First, vocabulary practice during the first hour was often repetitive and decontextualized. The activities did not sufficiently prepare students for the remaining instructional hours of the day. Second, there was no speaking practice incorporated until the last hour of each day's lesson. Third, the last hour was often used for other purposes (e.g., academic sensing sessions, test feedback sessions, counseling, etc.), depriving students of the opportunity to practice speaking. Finally, grammar was introduced in the fourth hour, which was thought to be too late to approach and consolidate learning.

To address the issues of lesson organization, two daily lesson outlines were proposed, one for Semesters 1 and 2, and the other for Semester 3. The outline for Semesters 1 and 2 included four core hours: vocabulary enabling (Hour 1), global reading/listening (Hour 2), contextualized grammar (Hour 3), and task-based instruction (Hour 4). Hour 1 in the original curriculum focused on passive vocabulary orientation. It was replaced by contextualized production activities. The purpose was to enable active vocabulary use and retention. Grammar instruction was moved from Hour 4 to Hour 3. Learner-centered and contextualized grammar activities were substituted for previous teacher-centered grammar explanation and drills. Production activities were added to each hour to increase learner language output. Additionally, at least two skill modalities were integrated into each hour.

The Semester 3 lesson outline adopted an open-architecture concept (Derderian, 2017; Campbell, in press), which supported a flexible curriculum promoting learner autonomy. Unlike Semesters 1 and 2, the Semester 3 daily lesson outline included one hour of student-led current events, three core hours, and two hours of teacher selected materials. Students researched and presented current events based on personal interests and areas for improvement during the first hour of instruction each day. The hour was led by the students. The teacher served as a guide on the sidelines. In the following three core hours, students explored, analyzed, and interpreted higher-level texts in the first two core hours. Discourse analysis, critical thinking skills, and intercultural awareness were emphasized. The purpose was to raise learner critical awareness and understanding of social and cultural issues in the target culture while strengthening language skills. Students then engaged in a real-life task during the third core hour. The final two instructional hours were flexible and tailored. Teachers selected materials and designed activities based on learner needs. Students were encouraged to take charge of their learning and communicate what they would like to learn with the teachers. The content was learner-centered and highly individualized.

Issues with Grammar

Issues regarding grammar were multifaceted. The gap analysis showed that some grammar rules were not well-aligned. For example, some rules that were supposed to be introduced earlier in the course were introduced later. There were also too many rules covered in one lesson. Grammar rules were not reviewed or recycled systematically. English explanations of some grammar rules were too academic, too wordy, or confusing. Some sample sentences were too complex, and some contained too many low-frequency words, not conducive to learning progression. Grammar activities were also not contextualized, many of which did not help learners comprehend and use the grammar rules.

To resolve these problems, the grammar scope and sequence were thoroughly reviewed. Input from team leaders and faculty members was collected. Crucial grammar rules that had been missing were added. The sequence of grammar rules was examined and rearranged to ensure they were in a logical order and pedagogically sound. English grammar explanations were reviewed and revised to ensure clarity. Military language instructors proficient in Urdu and English assisted with this tasking along with English editors. Sentence examples were reviewed and revised to match the topic of each lesson. Grammar activities were adjusted to focus on the meaning, use, and form (Larsen-Freeman, 2014), which was different from the previous focus on forms alone. A supplementary grammar workbook was also created for Semesters 1 and 2 to help learners further practice and acquire the grammar rules.

Issues with Vocabulary

Vocabulary-related issues were found in the curriculum for Semesters 1 and 2. On average, an excessive number (e.g., 40 to 70) of new words was introduced in each lesson. Students were overwhelmed by the large number of new words to memorize and use in each lesson. Additionally, many listening and reading passages contained too many new and low-frequency words. Core vocabulary was not recycled or reviewed systematically throughout the curriculum. Vocabulary activities were generally repetitive and lacked variety, not helping vocabulary reinforcement and retention.

To address these issues, several measures were taken. First, a maximum of 25 to 30 new vocabulary words was set for each lesson. Second, the developers were trained to carefully select passages that contained mainly the core vocabulary with a limited number of additional new words. Core vocabulary was included in the lesson glossary. Other new words were added to the table created for each activity. Contextualized vocabulary enabling activities were developed to replace decontextualized drills. Personalized production activities were also created to enhance active use of vocabulary and retention.

Issues with the Content

The data collected showed that the existing Semester 2 content did not sufficiently prepare students to handle Semester 3 materials. The amount of content included in each lesson was not consistent; some too much and some too little. Authentic materials had not been

included. Some passages were inappropriate to level, either too challenging or too easy. Most materials were news and dialogs, which did not represent a wide variety of genres. There was also a lack of personalized and real-life activities/tasks.

To resolve the content issues, the ILR levels for each chapter, lesson, and passage were examined. A plan for a gradual increase in level of difficulty was drafted. Passages that were not at the appropriate level or length were changed. Passages that did not support the lesson topic and objectives were removed or replaced. The amount of materials and activities in each lesson was also reviewed and standardized to ensure adequacy and consistency. When selecting replacement passages, genres that were underrepresented, such as editorials, short stories, or interviews, were deliberately explored and included. De-contextualized drills were minimized and replaced with learner-centered, scaffolding activities. Tasks were also developed for each lesson, ensuring real-life application of the lesson topic. Moreover, level-appropriate authentic materials were also selected and added to Semester 1 lessons.

As an example of appropriate distribution of content difficulty, Figure 1 demonstrates how the third semester curriculum was reconfigured in accordance with ILR levels. UR 301 indicates the first half of the third semester, and UR 302 the second half. Whereas ILR Level 2 and 2+ texts were dominant early in the third semester, nearly 50% of texts were at Level 3 toward the end of the third semester. Sharing such a chart with teachers and curriculum developers allowed them to have a clear picture of the curriculum, helping them adjust the goals for Semesters 1 and 2. That is, teachers acknowledged that they must help students reach ILR Level 1+ by the end of the first semester in Listening and Reading, and Level 2 by the end of the second semester.

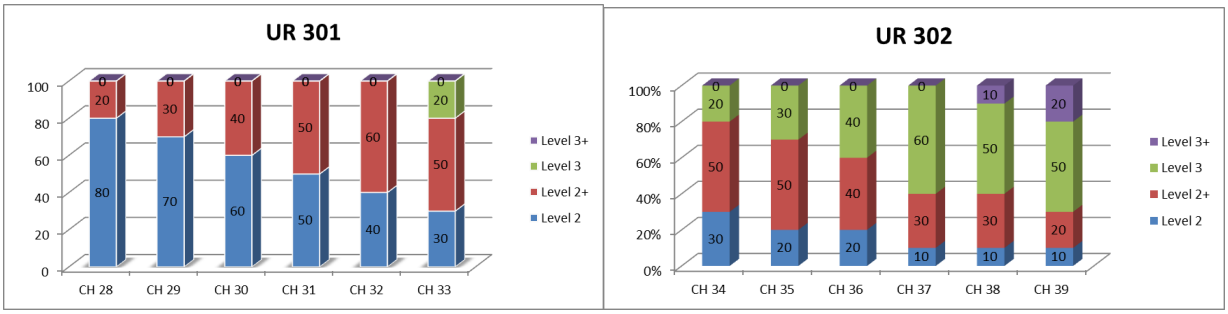

Figure 1
ILR Level Distribution in the Third Semester (Dermanli, 2016)

Student Readiness

To reach higher levels, students must develop appropriate language learning strategies and practice higher order thinking skills (Bloom, 1956) as early as possible during the course. To help with such preparations, the curriculum revamp focused on the following areas: a flipped classroom approach, building intercultural communicative competence, and implementing formative assessment.

Adapting a Flipped Classroom Approach

To address concerns related to student preparation for class activities, the flipped classroom concept was adopted for all three semesters. The flipped classroom approach helps increase student preparation for next day's lesson (Bassal, 2015), promotes learner participation and engagement in class (Gilboy, Heinerichs & Pazzaglia, 2015; Bassal, 2015), improves knowledge retention, critical thinking, and deep learning (Thloale, Hofman, Naidoo, & Winnips, 2013; Vliet, Winnips, & Brouwer, 2015), increases self-regulation (Elakovich, 2018), and raises metacognitive awareness (Limueco & Prudente, 2019). All the above-mentioned aspects are essential to successful language learning. In Semesters 1 and 2, flipped vocabulary and grammar homework were created respectively for each lesson using the Universal Curriculum and Assessment Tool (UCAT), an online platform for instructional material development. Learners were expected to complete the flipped homework before coming to class. Class time was primarily dedicated to active use, engagement, and interaction by means of the target language in meaningful, contextualized, and real-life contexts.

In Semester 3, the flipped classroom concept was utilized in building learner background knowledge. One major complaint from previous Semester 3 students was that they did not have sufficient background knowledge to comprehend critical, social, and cultural phenomenon/issues presented in higher-level texts. Flipped homework was, therefore, developed for each lesson to increase learner background knowledge. The goal was to help learners become ready for the next day's lesson, enabling them to gain a deeper insight into the lesson topic, form personal opinions, and participate in meaningful discussions. Major flipped homework activities in Semester 3 included a review of relevant lessons introduced in Semesters 1 and 2, reading or listening to relevant information in English or target language, and individual research on the next day's topic.

Building Intercultural Communicative Competence

The previous curriculum lacked a mechanism to assist students in improving critical thinking skills. Lessons helping students develop intercultural communicative competence were spotty; critical thinking skills practice was mainly found in the third semester. Hence, in the new curriculum, 40 modules were created to enhance Intercultural Communicative Competence and Critical Thinking (ICCCT) related to the target language and culture, helping students learn about the core values of the target country. Students read an editorial in each module, answered comprehension-based questions, and wrote a 250-word essay to demonstrate their understanding and personal viewpoints through a critical analysis of how the concept, sociocultural phenomenon, or practice mentioned in the article connected to their native country. For example, after reading an article on public transportation and women's issues in Pakistan, students were asked to address how they were related to the problem of public transportation and African Americans during the 1950s in the United States. They were also asked to write about what they thought would happen if a Pakistani woman, like Rosa Parks in the United States, failed to follow the seating regulations on a Pakistani bus. Building intercultural communicative competence increases awareness of their own culture and their understanding of the target

culture (Lim & Griffith, 2016; Lim, Lee, & Ghazarian, 2020). Students exchanged ideas and opinions with peers and developed critical thinking skills.

Each ICCCT module took approximately 30 minutes to complete. One important aspect of the modules was that students started practicing critical thinking skills from the first week of instruction. While completing the weekly or biweekly modules throughout the course, students read and threaded peers' messages/essays, engaged in class discussions, and developed ideas, reflections, and opinions. When language proficiency became high enough, they could easily and readily present their ideas and/or opinions, especially in the second and third semesters.

Implementing Formative Assessment

The course-based approach had depended solely on unit tests, approximately every two weeks, to gauge progress. Such an approach was limited as unit tests, mid-terms, and finals were achievement-based and did not provide information to guide students to higher proficiency levels. Thus, formative assessment tools geared to measure student proficiency were incorporated in the new curriculum, including Very Low Range Defense Language Proficiency Test (DLPT), Online Diagnostic Assessment, and end-of-semester proficiency assessment.

In addition, student ePortfolios were implemented, starting in Summer 2016. The primary objective was to create a platform for holistic evaluation where teachers could go beyond achievement-oriented assessment. EPortfolios also offered an opportunity for students to share reflections on language learning via student ePortfolio conferences conducted at the end of each semester. Through ePortfolios, students were able to track not only linguistic competence but also cultural and strategic competencies (Lim et al, 2020).

Students were expected to compile their best learning products from each semester into their ePortfolio folders on the online class Sakai site. Personal reflections on learning were also required. At the end of each semester, students showcased their learning outcomes/products and shared learning strategies and experiences in a conference format. Target language was encouraged in the ePortfolio conferences. The degree of using the target language increased as students moved on to the next semester. Interaction between the audience and the presenters was highly encouraged. In fact, junior students were invited so that they could ask questions and learn strategies suggested by the senior students. These practices helped set a professional tone among the students. In addition, student ePortfolio reviews at the end of the first and second semesters played a pivotal role for the new teachers to learn about individual student learning styles, experiences, and accomplishments.

RESULTS OF STUDENT PERFORMANCE

Data Collection and Methods

To examine the differences between the two teaching systems, student attrition rates, graduation rates, and proficiency levels were compared. Student success rates were measured based on the DLPT for Listening and Reading and the OPI for Speaking, which were conducted at

the end of the course. Six years of official DLPT and OPI data were retrieved from the Directorate of Academic Affairs for comparison—2014-2016 data—representing the course-based team teaching system vs. 2017-2019 data representing the semester-based team teaching system. To examine the group differences between these two teaching systems, a difference of proportions *z*-test with independent samples was used. All analyses using DLPT and OPI results used a one-tailed difference of proportions test because the direction of difference was specified for each.

All results were based on academic production rates, which were calculated by dividing the DLPT success rate by the number of graduating students enrolled in classes, excluding those disenrolled via administrative attrition. Administrative attrition happens for reasons beyond the control of the teaching team (e.g., medical, personal or military reasons), so the academic production rate would provide more accurate information about the impact of academic intervention, that is, the change from a course-based to a semester-based teaching system.

Academic Attrition Rate

Academic attrition refers to the dropout rate from the program due to academic reasons. Table 1 summarizes student attrition rates in each year. The academic attrition rate was 10.8% during the course-based system period and 2.5% during the semester-based team teaching period. The 8.3% reduction in academic attrition under the semester-based system was statistically significant (z=2.2892, p=.011, one-tailed). This difference was practically significant when considering the monetary cost to train each student. If the results are persistent, the semester-based team teaching system has the potential to realize significant savings.

Table 1
Student Attrition

			Administrative Attrition		***Academic Attrition***	
	Year	Number of Students Starting	Number of Students	Percent	Number of Students	Percent
Semester-based Team Teaching	2019	14	0	0%	1	7.10%
	2018	27	6	22.20%	0	0%
	2017	40	3	7.50%	1	2.50%
	3-year Total	**81**	**9**	**11.1%**	**2**	**2.50%**
Course-based Team Teaching	2016	63	6	9.50%	4	6.30%
	2015	58	5	8.60%	11	19.00%
	2014	82	4	4.90%	7	
	3-year Total	**203**	**15**	**7.04**	**22**	**10.8%**

Student Graduation Rate

Table 2 shows the overall academic production rates of the DLPT and OPI results for each year. The graduation rate (i.e., achieving an ILR Level 2 in Listening, 2 in Reading, and 1+ in Speaking) was higher for students in the semester-based system: 94.44% (*n*=72) vs. 82.98% (*n*=188). The difference of 11.46% was statistically significant (*z*=2.3956, *p*=.008, one-tailed).

Table 2
Student DLPT and OPI Results

	Year	*N**	*2/2/1+*	*L>=2+*	*R>=2+*	*S>=2*	*>=2+/2+*	*>=2+/2+/2*
Semester-based Team Teaching	2019	14	92.90%	78.60%	64.30%	28.60%	64.30%	28.60%
	2018	21	100%	61.90%	71.40%	19.00%	47.60%	19.00%
	2017	37	91.90%	40.50%	45.90%	13.50%	35.10%	10.80%
	Total	**72**	**94.44%**	**54.17%**	**56.94%**	**18.06%**	**44.44%**	**16.67%**
Course-based Team Teaching	2016	57	91.20%	33.30%	36.80%	26.30%	21.10%	8.80%
	2015	53	69.80%	22.60%	30.20%	13.20%	17.00%	5.70%
	2014	78	85.90%	41.00%	47.40%	17.90%	33.30%	12.80%
	Total	**188**	**82.98%**	**33.51%**	**39.36%**	**19.15%**	**25.00%**	**9.58%**

* Denotes the number of students excluding administrative attrition; L=Listening; R=Reading; S=Speaking

Reaching Higher Levels

As noted, the institution adopted a new goal of reaching higher levels: 2+ or a higher level in Listening and Reading and 2 in Speaking (aka 2+/2+/2). Table 2 summarizes the student DLPT and OPI scores for each year. The overall 2+/2+/2 rate, the same student who reached 2+/2+/2 or higher, was 9.58% (*n*=188) during the course-based team teaching system and 16.67 % (*n*=72) during the semester-based team teaching system. Although there was an increase of 7.09%, the difference did not reach conventional levels of significance (*z*=1.6036, *p*>.05).

Upon further inspection of Table 2, there were noticeable differences in the attainment level of 2+ in both listening and reading across the two teaching programs. Examination by modality shows that 33.51% of the students in the course-based system (*n*=188) and 54.17% of those in the semester-based system (*n*=72) received 2+ or higher in DLPT Listening. This 20.66% difference is statistically significant (*z*=3.053, *p*=.001, one-tailed).

The same pattern was found in the DLPT Reading scores, with 39.36% of course-based students (*n*=188) vs. 56.94% of semester-based students (*n*=72) receiving 2+ or higher in DLPT Reading. This 17.58% of difference is also statistically significant (*z*=2.554, *p*=.005, one-tailed).

Regarding the OPI results, there was no statistical difference in reaching ILR Level 2 in Speaking:19.15% of course-based students compared to 18.6% of semester-based students (*z*=-0.201, *p*>.05).

The academic production rate of 2+ or higher in DLPT Listening and Reading was 25% (*n*=188) for course-based instruction vs. 44.44% (*n*=72) for semester-based instruction. There was

a 19.44% of difference in reaching 2+ or higher in Listening and Reading between these two teaching systems, indicating statistical significance (z=3.0499, p<.001, one-tailed).

GPA

The Grade Point Average (GPA) was analyzed to examine if there were any differences in student progress throughout the semesters. As shown in Figure 2, students progressed with higher GPAs during the semester-based than the course-based team teaching system. GPAs came from the results of the tests that tended to be achievement-oriented, whereas the DLPT and OPI are proficiency-oriented tests. These findings suggest a convergence of achievement and proficiency under the semester-based system. That is, under the semester-based team teaching system, students were more likely to attain higher levels in both proficiency and achievement.

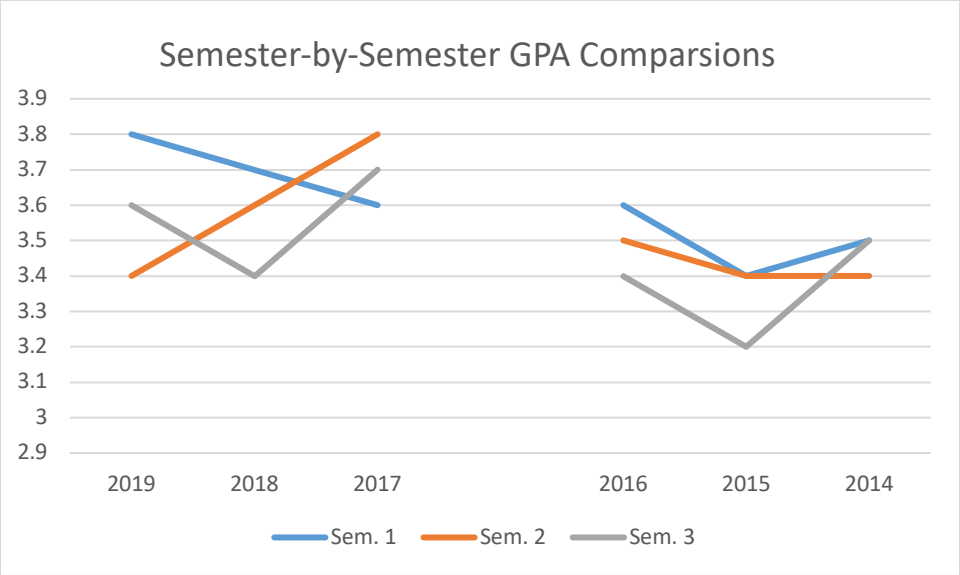

Figure 2

Semester-by-Semester GPA Comparison between Semester-based (2017-2019) and Course-based (2014-2016) Team Teaching Systems

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

In general, the results seem to indicate that student performance increased under the semester-based system while academic attrition decreased. The results are promising, offering opportunities for discussions of factors that contribute to program success. As noted by Leaver and Shekhtman (2002), we cannot do more of the same things and expect different results. To reach higher levels, there should be a paradigm change in our instructional practices. In this regard, the semester-based team teaching system provided teachers and school managers opportunities to strengthen the curriculum, enhance faculty accountability, and student learning. Some of the highlights are summarized below.

After implementing the semester-based system, the Urdu teachers received a record high number of Provost's Team Excellence Awards. The results were consistent with the rising pattern of student success in the DLPT, OPI, and GPAs and an impressively low rate of academic attrition (2.8%).

Instituting the Dean's award for semester awards created a chain effect in the program. Teachers started setting up short-term goals for student proficiency for the end of each semester, such as ILR Level 1+ for Semester 1, Level 2 for Semester 2, and Level 2+ for Semester 3. Teachers were initially concerned that it would be impossible to reach the targeted levels; however, by being proactive and adjusting daily material content in a more timely manner, curriculum updates were implemented sooner and faster than that in the conventional course-based team teaching system (Lim, Berndt, Dermanli, Christopher, Gill, & Kunz, 2017). That is, each semester became more distinct and self-contained so that teachers and students knew what their goal should be for each benchmark (i.e., at the end of each semester) and adjusted their teaching and learning strategies as early as possible during the course to reach the final goal.

The semester-based team teaching system illustrates the power of short-term goals, accountability, and flexibility in managing a challenging situation. One example was that when a Semester 2 team saw that students in a specific class from Semester 1 lacked a certain level of language skills, they felt a sense of urgency to act quickly. With the support and flexibility provided by the leadership, they created two weeks of supplementary grammar reinforcement materials to get students back up to speed so that they would be ready for the Semester 3 team at the desired level.

The semester-based teaching system's strategy for developing curricular materials led to positive results. As they had painstakingly reviewed, revised, and developed the materials, the semester teams had absolute buy-in. In addition, because of their in-depth understanding of the curriculum, they understood how to teach it properly. Previously, some teachers who were not able to teach at higher levels might have used lower level activities or skipped some activities because they did not have a full understanding of the materials. A second advantage of the strategy was that the teaching teams kept track of necessary changes on a spreadsheet after they taught a lesson. They were able to improve the materials that they had developed for the next class. Thus, revision of the curriculum took place quickly because of the buy-in of the teaching teams. Another benefit of developing their own materials was that the team could offer more help to newcomers about ways to use the materials as intended.

The semester-based teaching system was a resounding success, but the success did not happen by chance. It required carefully planning each step and considering all contingencies. The semester-based teaching system was not built for an experiment, but for it to work and last. It is organic and can be tweaked and adjusted when necessary.

Some may suggest that the differences in attrition and the improved success rates are more likely due to an enhanced curriculum. After all, much effort was spent on strengthening materials, filling gaps, and improving the organization of the curriculum. Such cautions have merit, but therein lies an important takeaway from the semester-based team teaching system. The best practices described in this paper may be applied in any new teaching system, such as establishing

specific goals, protocols, and strategies while involving all stakeholders. For the Urdu program, the switch to a semester-based system made it easier to modify the teaching structure and the curriculum, to build greater teacher involvement and motivation, and to create a more effective work environment. Although each program faces its unique trials, the various aspects addressed in this paper may lead to more effective teaching and positive learning results in other language programs.

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Digital Gamification in Language Teaching

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INTRODUCTION

Foreign-language teaching at the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) has a unique teaching context when compared with teaching at other schools. As foreign languages are job-related skills assigned to students, students may not be enthusiastic about learning them, especially difficult ones. Student motivation is therefore a daily challenge for teachers. Additionally, most teachers at the DLIFLC must go through the textbook from cover to cover to ensure that the information contained in the section assigned to them is completely delivered, leaving teachers little room to modify activities in the classroom. The challenges of teaching at the DLIFLC are multiplied by the circumstances of virtual learning—including screen fatigue, a sense of isolation, and connection difficulties. All this calls for teaching practices that connect students and provide a sense of belonging and achievement (Swisher & Archambault, 2020). As such, it is necessary to introduce teaching practices, such as digital gamification, that may improve motivation.

Games have existed for essentially the entire history of mankind (McGonigal, 2011), but with new technologies over the past 20 years the notion of gaming has become associated largely with digital media (Seaborn & Fels, 2015). Digital game design is a complex multidisciplinary process involving the fields of psychology, design, computer programming, and many others (Rigby & Ryan, 2016). Nonetheless, the enjoyment of digital games by children, adolescents, and adults points to the value of adopting such games in education. This is known as game-based learning (GBL), and the idea of gamification is derived from GBL.

This study discusses the application of gamification to the DLIFLC's foreign-language classrooms. To make the discussion meaningful, the study first surveys foreign-language teachers' perspectives regarding gamification and its effectiveness, as the findings may determine the value of adopting digital gamification. The study also evaluates the suitability of an empirically proven gamification design model—goal, access, feedback, challenge, and collaboration (GAFCC)—in the DLIFLC context by aligning teachers' beliefs with GAFCC's theoretical foundations.

The GAFCC model claims that gamification positively influences students' motivation and language-learning outcomes. Given the unique teaching context at the DLIFLC, teachers' beliefs must be taken into consideration before a decision is made on whether to introduce the model. If the theoretical foundations disagree with teachers' perspectives in language-teaching, the model may not be suitable for the DLIFLC.

The research questions for this study are therefore as follows:

1) What are DLI teachers' perspectives on the effectiveness of gamification in promoting students' motivation and improving learning outcomes? How does the length of their teaching career influence the perspectives?
2) To what extent are the theoretical foundations of GAFCC aligned with DLIFLC language teachers' beliefs? How does length of teaching career influence the beliefs?

LITERATURE REVIEW

The Definition of *Gamification*

To understand gamification, it is necessary to differentiate game-based learning from gamification. Game-based learning is to use a real game to enhance learning while entertaining, where the game involves problem-solving, challenge, and achievement (Kingsley & Grabner-Hagen, 2015). There are three types of GBL: "edutainment," training simulators, and serious games (Tang, Hanneghan, & El Rhalibi, 2009).

Gamification, on the other hand, means inserting game mechanics into activities or teaching to increase student motivation without developing a full-fledged game (Bunchball, 2010). This addition consists of game elements such as rules, rewards, uncertain outcomes, conflict, and achievements (Kingsley & Grabner-Hagen, 2015). As such, gamification does not occur in a game context (Deterding, Dixon, Khaled, & Nacke, 2011) and the primary goal is education not entertainment (Seaborn & Fels, 2015). This study focuses on digital gamification.

Reasons to Apply Digital Gamification in Teaching

Many studies have evaluated the effectiveness of gamification for learning outcomes via student test scores. Some show positive results (for example, Goehle, 2013; Snyder & Hartig, 2013), whereas others have more mixed findings (Dominguez et al., 2013; Gasland, 2011). However, learning outcome should not be limited to test score—overall competency is also an important part of learning (Kingsley & Grabner-Hagen, 2015). An example of such a competency is students' new literacies in the 21st century, which refers to "literacies enabled by digital or Internet technologies" (Kingsley & Grabner-Hagen, 2015, p. 52).

Utilizing technology in learning is no longer a preference, but a requirement. The "old" skills were the three Rs: reading, writing, and arithmetic. The new skills are the four Cs: critical thinking, communication, collaboration, and creativity (Partnership for 21st Century Skills, 2009). Digital gamification applies the skills promoted by the framework of 21st century learning, which are required for students to be successful in today's global economy. In digital games and digital gamified activities, learners need to communicate and collaborate with teammates and apply critical thinking to solve a problem or create a product, which applies the four Cs (Apperley & Walsh, 2012).

In addition, digital gamification motivates learners. Huang and Hew (2018) summarize five key motivation theories underlying the digital gamification approach: 1) flow, 2) goal setting, 3)

social comparison, 4) self-determination, and 5) behavior reinforcement (pp. 256-257). Thus, digital gamification not only promotes literacy with the "four Cs," but also motivates learning.

Gamification in Foreign-Language Learning

Gamification has been increasingly used in foreign-language learning worldwide. However, research on adult language learners using gamification is limited. Most research in this area concluds that gamification immensely improves learning efficiency across various languages and educational settings.

According to Danowska-Florczyk and Mostowski's (2012) study, gamification motivates Polish language learners, changes the class setting, and gives teachers an innovative way to assess students. As anonymity is easier to maintain with gamification's formula compared with orthodox pedagogy, it helps teachers provide unbiased feedback. Moreover, gamification motivates students to successfully achieve their academic goals while accomplishing the game tasks. Rawendy, Ying, Arifin, & Rosalin (2017) conclude in their study that gamification motivates learners by providing a new learning environment and experience to avoid boredom during the learning process. Collecting data from 39,729 registered users of language-learning gamification technology, Osipov, Nikulchev, Volinsky, & Prasikova (2015) discover that more students improve their language proficiency after the use of gamification than learning in a traditional way. Similarly, Udjaja (2018) reports that the Gamification Assisted Language Learning (GALL) method may have increased student performance up to 80%.

Gamify Activities and Teaching

Scholars and practitioners report adopting digital gamification in their research or practice (Goehle, 2013; Li, Ma, & Ma, 2012; Snyder & Hartig, 2013). Many factors contribute to difficulties in applying gamification (Morschheuser, Hassan, Werder, & Hamari, 2018). One issue that appears frequently in the literature is the lack of a practical and valid gamification design model (Huang & Hew, 2018). Pedreira, García, Brisaboa, and Piattini (2015) argue that some practitioners superficially adapt gamification to activities and teaching, without systematic examination and evaluation. Subsequently, gamification models have been developed to improve the effectiveness of gamification. Some researchers (Rodrigues, Costa, & Oliveira, 2016; Klevers, Sailer, & Günthner, 2016) have designed models that are most applicable in business and information technology (IT). Simões, Redondo, and Vilas (2013) have developed a social gamification design model for education, but it lacks empirical data to support its validity, making its effectiveness questionable.

Morschheuser et al. (2018) state that in certain circumstances there is no value in gamifying an activity and it is more efficient to teach in the traditional way. For example, it is much easier to teach students how to pronounce a difficult word by demonstration than designing a game. Practitioners may not achieve significant results by applying gamification in these situations.

Hassan (2017) points out that limited psychological consideration or insufficient motivation theory has also led to unsatisfactory research results. To address such criticism,

Huang and Hew (2018) developed the GAFCC gamification design model (Figure 1), a theory-driven, empirically validated model applicable in educational settings. This study will describe this gamification design model and examine DLIFLC teachers' perspectives of the model.

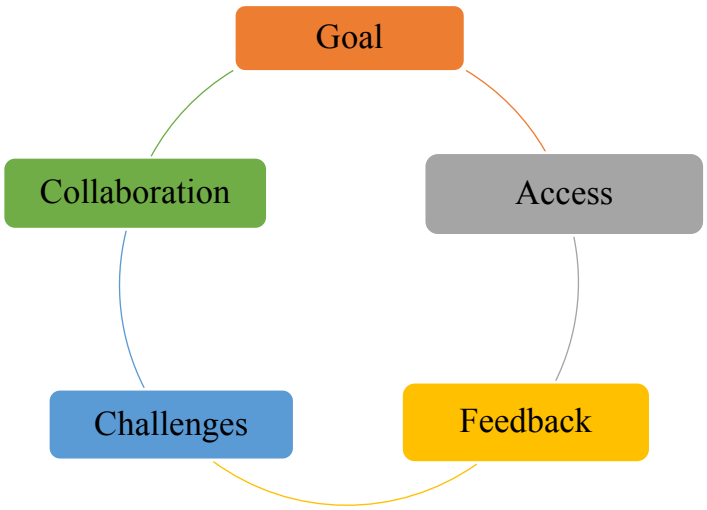

Figure 1
The GAFCC Gamification Design Model

GAFCC and Its Motivational Foundations

GAFCC contains five elements: goal, access, feedback, challenge, and collaboration. They are based on five foundational motivation theories: flow theory, goal-setting theory, social comparison theory, self-determination theory, and behavior reinforcement theory.

According to Moneta and Csikszentmihalyi (1996), when an activity has a clear goal, provides immediate feedback, offers a proper challenge, and builds specific skills, participants may achieve a flow state that brings intrinsic enjoyment in performing the activity. This is flow theory. In a gamified activity, learners see a clear goal for the activity and receive immediate feedback from the system (pass or fail). Some activities may be challenging at the beginning, but after several tries at a specific level or a project, learners improve their skills.

Goal-setting theory maintains that specific goals lead to better performance (Locke, 1968). Therefore, teachers should set both long-term and short-term goals for students and provide not only feedback but also assistance in evaluating student progress toward the goals. Anderson, Huttenlocher, Kleinberg, and Leskovec (2013) and Landers (2017) suggest that game elements like badges and leaderboards are useful tools in setting goals to motivate students.

Social comparison theory proposes that people have a need for self-evaluation (Festinger, 1954). Moreover, people tend to define themselves and evaluate their abilities through comparison with others when objectives and non-social methods are unavailable (Festinger, 1954). The ranking and level system in a game gives a learner the desire and motivation to participate in an activity (Hamari & Keronen, 2017).

Self-determination theory, an evolution of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation theories, emphasizes the impact of intrinsic motives on human behavior (Lepper, Greene, & Nisbett, 1973). Three essential elements enhance intrinsic motives: autonomy, competence, and relatedness (Deci & Ryan, 1985). In a gamified activity, learners have the autonomy to choose what to learn and how to learn it, and competence improves at a pace the learner controls. Because some gamified activities require teamwork, learners feel a sense of being related to others and belonging to a group. All of this gives the learner intrinsic motivation to participate and gain expertise in the gamified activity.

Behavior reinforcement theory suggests that rewarding a behavior reinforces the behavior and helps it become a habit; similarly, punishing undesired behavior prevents learners from repeating this behavior in the future (Williams, 1938). In a gamified activity, the designer normally rewards behaviors that are desired, which increases the learner's motivation to produce the correct answer. Badges and point systems serve this purpose, for example (Kumar & Herger, 2013).

From these theories, Huang and Hew (2018) conclude that the five essential elements of the gamification design process are goal, access, feedback, challenge, and collaboration, on which the GAFCC model is based.

METHODOLOGY

Context

The new organizational goal is to help students reach higher language proficiency (at levels 2+/2+/2). Two leading indicators for reaching the goal are motivated learners and learners with new literacy competencies in critical thinking, communication, collaboration, and creativity. The literature review suggests that gamification may positively impact learner motivation and new literacy competencies. This study therefore focuses on soliciting teachers' feedback on the value of gamification, particularly on one model.

Data Collection

The study collected data through a survey created with Microsoft Forms. The questionnaire (Appendix) was sent via email to 71 foreign-language teachers who were attending faculty training, workshops, or presentations unrelated to gamification. Thirty six (n=36) responded anonymously.

The questionnaire has four parts. The first is a nominal question asking for the number of years of experience in adult foreign-language teaching. The intention of this question is to identify any correlation between years of experiences and perspectives in gamification. The second part of the survey features interval scale questions asking about agreement strength regarding perspectives on gamification effectiveness. The third part asks interval scale questions regarding the five elements forming the theoretical foundation of the GAFCC model. These questions focus on perspectives about games in the five areas. The fourth part is an open-ended

question for teachers to add additional comments on the topic or offer explanations regarding responses.

Technology has developed tremendously in the past 20 years (Seaborn & Fels, 2015), and the application of technology in education has advanced even more quickly with the rise of mobile applications during the past ten years (Keser & Semerci, 2019). As such, the available technology at the time when a teacher starts teaching may impact the teacher's teaching habit and perspectives on technological use in education.

Therefore, years of teaching experience are divided into four groups. Group 4 has adult foreign-language teaching experience of more than 20 years. This group started language teaching when technology in education was less prominent, which means that the teachers learned about technology's application to education mostly on the job and might feel less comfortable with technology in general. Group 3 has 11-20 years of experience. This group had encountered technology before they started teaching languages. They might be familiar with technology in daily life but not necessarily with educational technology, as they were exposed to the latter after they started teaching. These teachers have advanced their skills of teaching and using educational technology simultaneously. Group 2 has 6-10 years of experience. They started teaching when educational technology was well-developed. These teachers may be comfortable with technology in education and they have also had sufficient years to develop their teaching skills. Group 1 has 0-5 years of experience. Like teachers in Group 2, they may be familiar with the application of technology in education, but they do not have as much language-teaching experiences.

DATA ANALYSIS

Teaching Experience

According to the data analysis (Figure 2), 17% of the participants has experience of more than 20 years and 35%, 11-20 years. Based on generational differences (The strengths and weaknesses of every generation in your workforce, 2020), these two groups are most likely to be uncomfortable with more recent educational technology. The remaining 48% of respondents has 0-10 years of experience, almost evenly split between 0-5 and 6-10. Although their technology savviness is not the concern, their views on digital gamification may be affected by their fewer years of teaching experiences (From the baby boomer to the post-millennial generations, 2020).

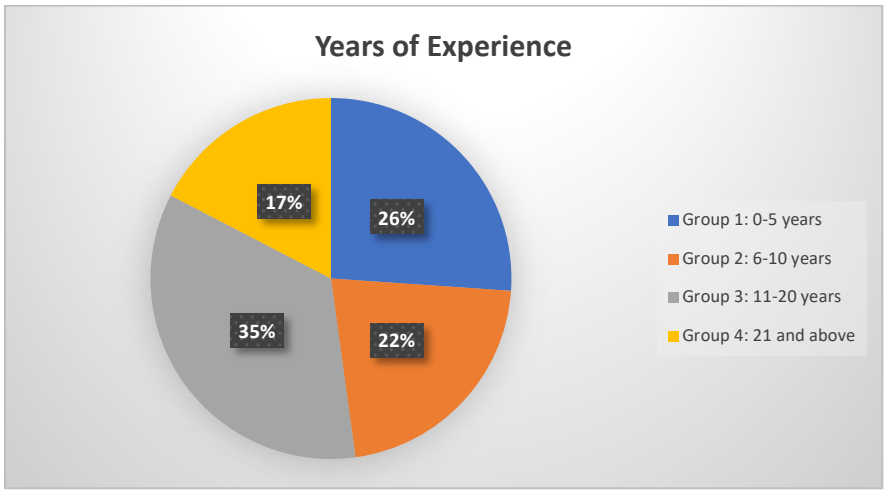

Figure 2
Years of Experience Teaching Foreign Languages to Adults

The Effectiveness of Digital Gamification

The second question checks teachers' agreement with the statement "Integrating gamified activities into language teaching will improve learning outcomes." Data analysis shows that 100% teachers in Groups 1 and 3, 75% in Group 4, and 60% in Group 2 agree with the statement (see Figure 3). The finding aligns with the literature in the language-teaching field. Teachers with substantial experience in both language teaching and technology understand the advantages and disadvantages of educational technologies and therefore tend to exhibit more complicated considerations than other groups (Hew, Huang, Chu, & Chiu,2016). Some respondents are concerned about the quality of the games and the content of knowledge to be taught. They commented, "A lot of these questions are dependent on how the game is designed and utilized in the classroom"; "It depends on what type of games are played, the week and content." One suggested the following:

> I think games is a good additional tool to engage and entertain students, especially when they are tired and have hard time concentrating. But it cannot become the predominant teaching method. Digital games might be good at a low level to help remember words, grammar forms, etc. but their impact should not be overestimated. Learning a foreign language is hard work for an adult.

Moreover, some teachers are concerned about students' preferences and familiarity with technology. For example, one teacher mentioned that "students' interest and familiarity with games should be put into consideration."

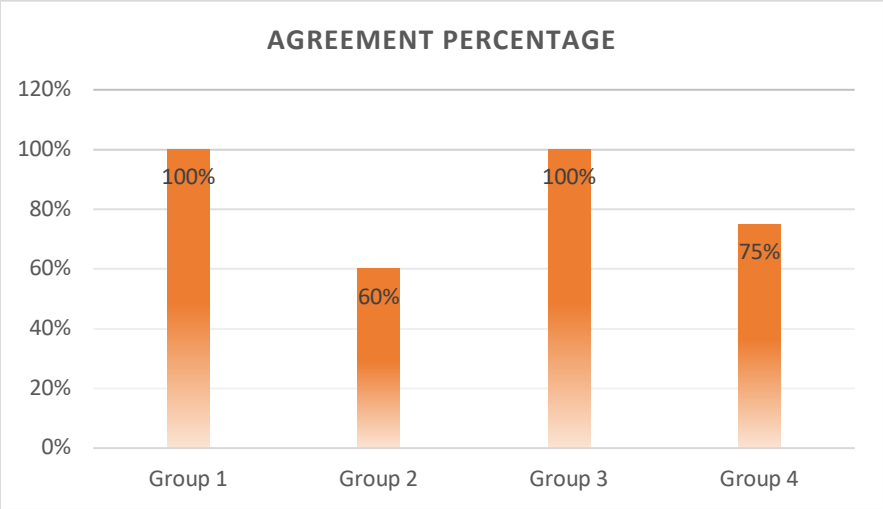

Figure 3
Teachers' Perspectives on the Effectiveness of Digital Gamification

Effectiveness in Motivating Students

The third question asks respondents to indicate agreement strength with the statement, "Integrating gamified activities in language teaching will motivate students." All respondents agree that gamified activities in language teaching will motivate students (Figure 4). There is a slight difference of the degree of agreement among groups: 63% in Group 3 and 50% in Group 1 strongly agree that gamified activities will motivate students, whereas no one in Groups 2 and 4 shows a strong support to the statement.

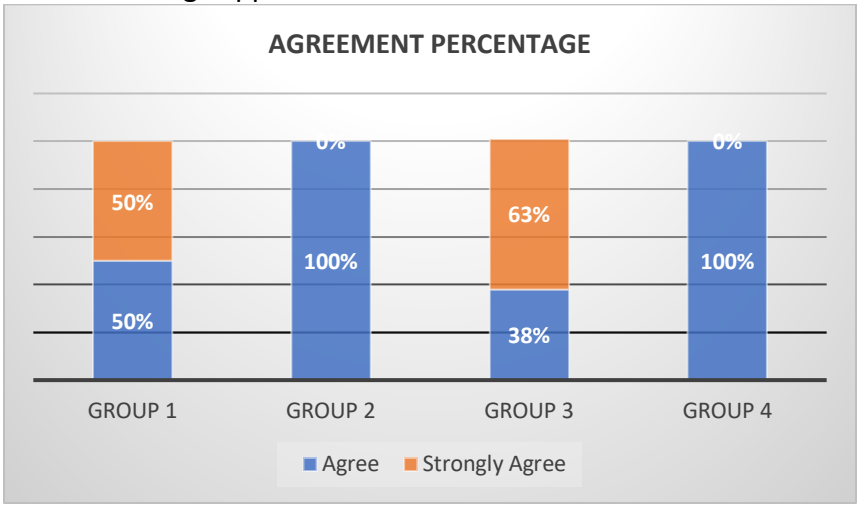

Figure 4
Teachers' Perspectives on the Motivational Attributes of Digital Gamification

The GAFCC model theorizes that a digital gamified activity is motivating because it has five elements: goal, access, feedback, challenge, and collaboration. As such, the survey solicits opinions on these five elements, thereby to identify whether there are discrepancies between teachers' beliefs and the GAFCC's theoretical foundations.

Over 70% of respondents believe that gamified activities are motivating because of at least one of the following reasons (Figure 5): 1) Students have a clear goal to achieve, for example to reach a higher level or accomplish a task; 2) Students have control of how and when to proceed in language-learning games; 3) Students receive feedback of their performance—getting rewards when they do well and punishment when they make a mistake; 4) Students are continuously challenged at appropriate levels; and 5) Students can collaborate when participating in language-learning games.

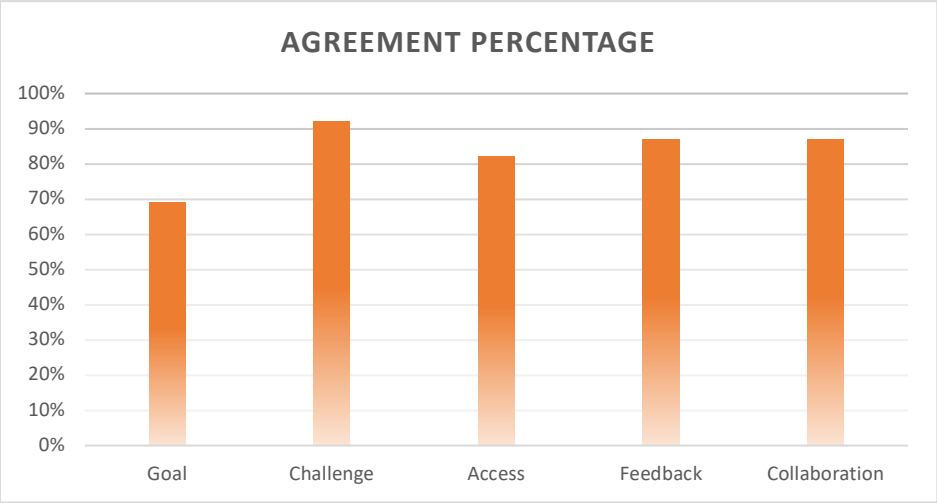

Figure 5
Teachers' Perspectives on the GAFCC's Theoretical Foundations

However, there are disagreements regarding individual elements (Figure 6). The element with the least consensus is goal. Thirty percent of the teachers disagree with the statement "Gamified activities in the classroom are motivating because they give students a clear goal." The connection between gamified activities and a clear goal is not evident to them. Those who disagree are almost evenly distributed among Groups 1, 2 and 3.

The element of challenge is supported by 91% of the respondents. Only 9% are not in agreement with the GAFCC challenge theory.

Group 2 has the most diverse opinions about all five elements—almost half of teachers in Group 2 do not agree with the elements of goal and access. Group 3 leans in this direction as well. Nonetheless, overall a clear majority of teachers agree with the theoretical foundations of the GAFCC.

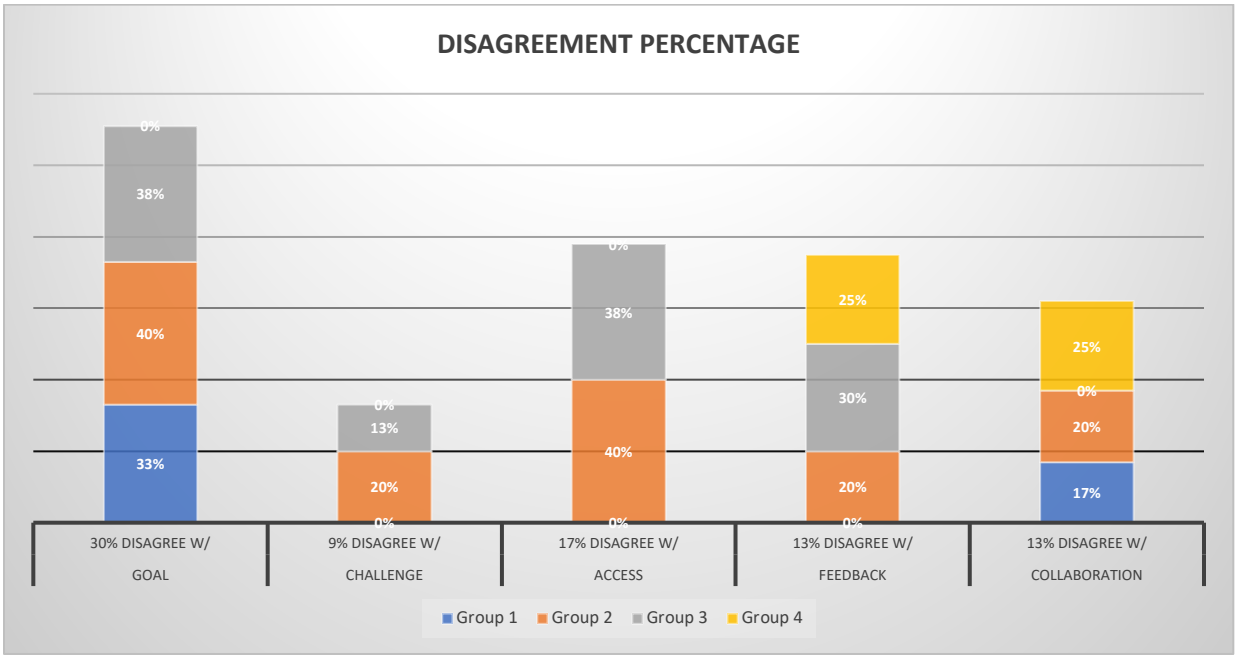

Figure 6

Different Groups' Perspectives on the GAFCC's Theoretical Foundations

Findings

The goal of this study is to identify an efficient and practical teaching approach suitable for the unique DLIFLC language-teaching context. Although gamification is a promising teaching practice for motivating students, applying gamified activities in a language classroom is not simple. Teachers at the DLIFLC have a considerable workload and limited time to develop or adjust activities. Therefore, finding a practical and relatively easy-to-follow gamification model is helpful. Huang and Hew (2018) suggest the GAFCC gamification design model, which has been empirically validated in general education. However, to ensure its effectiveness in the DLIFLC teaching context, it is necessary to conduct further evaluation. The evaluation centers around two research questions.

Research Question 1: What are DLI teachers' perspectives on the effectiveness of gamification in promoting students' motivation and improving learning outcomes? How does the length of their teaching career influence the perspectives?

This question explores the value of digital gamification teaching practice, determining the validity of adopting it. According to the data analysis, most teachers in this study believe that 1) gamified activities will improve students' learning outcome, and 2) these activities will motivate students. Therefore, teachers accept the notion that digital gamification has its value in the DLIFLC teaching context. Investigation also finds that the length of teachers' teaching career impacts their perspectives on the effectiveness of digital gamification. Teachers with substantial experience in both language teaching and technology have more questions about the connection between digital gamification and learning outcome, as they have a more in-depth understanding of the intricate interactions among various factors in classroom teaching. This finding aligns with data in the literature.

Research Question 2: To what extent are the theoretical foundations of GAFCC aligned with DLIFLC language teachers' beliefs? How does length of teaching career influence the beliefs?

When the answer to the first research question is affirmative, the second question provides the groundwork for implementing digital gamification by quantifying the degree of alignment between teachers' beliefs and the theoretical foundations of the GAFCC. If the teachers have confidence in the GAFCC model, there is a greater chance that the GAFCC gamification design model would be accepted and implemented.

According to the data, most teachers agree that goal, access, feedback, challenge, and collaboration are essential elements to motivate students. However, some teachers with 6-10 years of adult language teaching experiences disagree with the model. Researchers explain that because of substantial experiences in both language teaching and technology, these teachers tend to take more things into consideration (Hew, Huang, Chu, & Chiu, 2016). In general, the DLIFLC teachers agree with the GAFCC model regarding how to motivate students through gamification, indicating that the relevance and acceptance of adapting the GAFCC model in the DLIFLC.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

As discussed, implementing gamification may improve students' motivation and cultivate students' literacy in the four Cs. Moreover, the GAFCC gamification design model is based on a theoretical foundation that is generally accepted by teachers at the DLIFLC who participated in the survey. The following section offers some preliminary suggestions regarding applying the GAFCC model.

Applying the GAFCC Gamification Design Model

The GAFCC model entails that when language teachers utilize a technology to gamify activities, they must evaluate the gamified activities by benchmarking them with the five elements: goal, access, feedback, challenge, and collaboration.

Per the flow theory and the goal-setting theory, the designer must set clear short-term and long-term goals (Huang & Hew, 2018). Therefore, in gamified activities the teacher must provide ultimate goals and design periodic progress indicators leading to that goal. Students will thus be motivated by both short-term and long-term goals.

According to the self-determination theory, the designer should give the learner freedom to choose different methods to achieve goals, so the learner should have access to different approaches to learning the same knowledge (Csíkszentmihályi, 1996). Moreover, the learning pace should be flexible and adjustable. Therefore, the language teachers should design a variety of gamified activities aiming for the same goal. Students can choose different materials, modalities, processes, or assignments to reach the same goal of learning.

As the flow, goal setting, and behavior reinforcement theories suggest, the gamified activity should provide immediate feedback with badges or a leaderboard (Hew, Huang, Chu, & Chiu, 2016). Thus, the language teachers should utilize the game element of incentives in the

activities. An example of such an incentive is fewer rote memorization drills if students successfully demonstrate mastery of certain knowledge and skills. Students will then focus more on the quality rather than the quantity of their language learning.

Both the flow and self-determination theories advocate that the tasks in gamified activities should offer manageable challenges (Huang & Hew, 2018). This principle can be applied with the access principle. Challenge should exist, but the degree of challenge should be controlled. All students have their own areas of greater challenge, and language teachers should design multiple ways to access the same goal, some of which might feature more scaffolding. For example, some may focus on summarization skills whereas others focus on discourse analysis, thus giving students the opportunity to select the right challenges to address their needs.

According to the social comparison, self-determination, and behavior reinforcement theories (Sailer, Hense, Mayr, & Mandl, 2017), collaboration is another element that motivates students. Collaboration here means more than simply dividing the workload to accomplish a task. It also means that students must express their thoughts and opinions, share information and experiences, analyze tasks and assignments, negotiate with one another, and reach a consensus or find a solution for tasks and assignments. During this process, students activate their higher-order thinking skills and utilize languages in a meaningful context. Therefore, teachers need to design gamified activities that promote collaboration.

Abundant available software may be used to design gamified activities. One example of the GAFCC is using the software *Quizlet* as a digital gamified tool in a language-learning class. *Quizlet* can be used for memorizing, learning, and reviewing vocabulary. *Quizlet* comes in the form of various games such as Flashcards, Learn, Write, Spell, Test, Match, and Gravity. This provides multiple approaches for students to choose their preferred mode to learn and review vocabulary. Each mode has its own objectives contributing to the overall goal of learning new vocabulary. Students get immediate feedback, such as the accuracy rate and how long it took them to finish a game. Different modes features challenges in various areas. For example, the Match Words game and Words Quiz are timed games, challenging learners to finish a task quickly and accurately. Some activities can be used as supplementary tools for assisting group or pair work. In concert with the interactive modes, *Quizlet*'s competitive background music, quirky sounds, and different design with colorful icons stimulate the learners' auditory and visual senses. Overall, *Quizlet* is an effective tool for incorporating gamification into foreign-language learning.

It takes considerable preparation and effort to gamify an activity. However, with the guideline of the GAFCC gamification design model, gamification is no longer an abstract ideal. Language teachers may feel more confident and comfortable adopting gamification in their classrooms when they know what constitutes a substantial and effective gamified activity.

Limitations and Future Research

This study has several limitations. First, the number of teachers who took the survey was small, approximately 2% of the 2000 faculty at the DLIFLC. The finding of this study cannot be generalized to the entire DLIFLC community. A larger data pool would be necessary to further validate the research results. Second, although most respondents agree with the theoretical foundations of the GAFCC gamification design model, some do not. It would be best to explore

the reasons behind the disagreement. There might be some factors that need to be considered before the implementation of gamified activities. Finally, the GAFCC design model is only one of many gamification models. It would be worthwhile to investigate other models so a most suitable model could be identified.

Three avenues in particular call for future research: 1) applying the GAFCC model in a language classroom and evaluating its effectiveness; 2) comparing other effective gamification design models with the GAFCC; and 3) determining why some teachers do not agree with some of the GAFCC theoretical foundations, and how we could improve the GAFCC model based on the findings.

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APPENDIX

Games in Language Teaching Questionnaire

Part One	1. How long have you been teaching a foreign language to adults?	0-5 years	6-10 years	11-20 years	21 years and above
		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Part Two	2. Gamified activities in language teaching will improve learning outcomes.				
	3. Gamified activities in language teaching will motivate students.				
Part Three	4. Gamified activities in the classroom are motivating because they give students a clear goal.				
	5. Gamified activities in the classroom are motivating because they continuously challenge students.				
	6. Gamified activities in the classroom are motivating because students have control of how and when to proceed in language learning.				
	7. Gamified activities in the classroom are motivating because students get feedback; for example, receiving rewards when they do well and punishment when they do poorly.				
	8. Gamified activities in the classroom are motivating because students are collaborating.				
Part Four	9. Is there anything you want to add to this topic?				

FACULTY FORUM

The Power of the Growth Mindset in the Classroom

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In her most famous work, *Mindset: The New Psychology of Success*, Stanford University psychologist and researcher Carol Dweck (2006) argues that one of the most basic beliefs people carry about themselves has to do with how they view and inhabit what they trust to be their personality. Supporting the beliefs that people have about themselves, the author places people into two categories: people with a fixed mindset and people with a growth mindset.

Dweck (2006) argues that people with a fixed mindset believe that intelligence cannot be changed. This results in a desire to seem smart and avoid challenges. In the face of obstacles, they give up easily; they see effort as worthless and ignore constructive criticism. Moreover, they feel threatened by the success of others. According to Dweck (2006), those with a fixed mindset believe that their basic abilities, intelligence, and talents are fixed traits; i.e., you are simply born with a set number of characteristics and that is all you will ever have. As a result, students with a fixed mindset achieve much less than of which they are capable.

Alternatively, students with a growth mindset believe that intelligence can be developed, which in turn leads to a desire to learn. Instead of avoiding challenges, they embrace them. They persevere in the face of obstacles and see effort as a path to mastery. They accept constructive criticism and use it to their advantage. Lastly, these students feel inspired by and learn from the success of others (Dweck, 2006).

Upon first learning about the growth mindset, some might think that this means believing success can be achieved if one tries hard enough. However, there is more to it than that. For students to have a growth mindset, it is important to understand that trying harder means also trying new strategies. In this respect, students with a growth mindset believe that they can grow and learn, thereby they employ deliberate strategies in achieving success. Students with a fixed mindset maintain that nothing they do can affect the outcome of success, so they do not approach learning strategically (Dweck, 2006; Oxford, 2017).

Scharff (2020) emphasizes that it is important to remember that mindset influences both instructors and students. For instance, if a teacher says, “As soon as I meet my new students, I can tell which one can learn the language and which cannot. I feel really frustrated trying to help

those who will not do well," it shows that this teacher has a fixed mindset. Similarly, according to Scharff (2020), if a student says, "I believe that I have a natural talent for learning languages," it indicates that this student may have a fixed mindset. On the other hand, if a teacher says, "I know that all students struggle with some aspects of learning a new language. It is part of the process of learning," it is clear that this teacher has a growth mindset (Scharff, 2020). Likewise, a student who has tried hard but cannot pass a quiz says: "After I talked with my teacher, I made sure I practiced new vocab strategies and I did better on the quiz yesterday." This student demonstrates a growth mindset.

When it comes to maximizing student potential and catapulting them toward greater success and performance, it can be concluded that one of the most important foundations comes from the individual's mindset. It is the growth mindset that allows them to understand that talent and potential are not traits that one is born with, but rather are attributes that can be grown and developed over time. Teachers can play an important role in helping students succeed in a language course by encouraging a growth mindset in the following ways:

- Praise/Reward the effort and action, not intelligence and talent.
- Explain to the students that the brain is malleable or plastic, meaning it changes and grows according to how it is used. Show students how to think of learning as "brain training."
- Help students view challenges as opportunities to grow and improve. The need for improvement does not mean failure. Provide them with new strategies and follow up to see how well these work.
- Focus on the process instead of the end result.
- Help students learn how to give and receive constructive criticism.
- Encourage students to reflect on their learning every day.
- Encourage students to learn from the mistakes of others.
- Ask students to watch "The Growth Mindset" by Carol Dweck on Talks at Google, YouTube, or TED Talks and develop activities to engage them in the topic using the target language. This can be done as a flipped classroom.

At the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC), there are many young adults who seem to be resourceful but can be paralyzed by setbacks, because of a fixed mindset. When things go wrong, they feel powerless and incapable. Teaching students how to attain a growth mindset—with a focus on development—can help them not only complete the course, but also improve, grow, and develop in all areas of their lives.

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Growth Mindset and Managing the Impact of COVID-19

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Introduction

Coping with the stress of COVID-19 has proven to be very daunting for the academic community. In addition to the fear and anxiety associated with contracting the virus as well as social distancing, the overall coronavirus situation is posing serious challenges in the education field to both students and teachers. These challenges are evident in various aspects of the educational process including learning, motivating students, achieving goals, getting results, and creating a proper work-home environment for the students (Horesh & Brown, 2020). Teachers must manage and deal with demotivated, apprehensive, and stressed students. Dealing with the uncertainty associated with the COVID virus accentuates students' fear, stress, anxiety, and burnout. Nevertheless, teachers can help mitigate and alleviate some of the stress and anxiety mentioned above using mindsets. The purpose of this article is to introduce both the fixed and the growth mindsets and how to utilize the growth mindset in the classroom to help students manage challenges and setbacks. Learning how to use the growth mindset to build resilience and manage emotional reactions caused by social distancing and the demanding virtual environment can improve health, overall wellbeing, and academic achievement (Dweck, 2016; Viner, Russell, Croker, Packer, Ward, Stansfield, & Booy, 2020).

What is Mindset?

Mindset can be defined as the beliefs an individual has about their abilities and intelligences (Dweck, 2016). According to Dweck (2016), there are two types of mindset, a fixed mindset and a growth mindset. An individual with a fixed mindset believes that the individual qualities and intelligences are predetermined and unchangeable, whereas someone with a growth mindset believes that abilities and intelligences can be developed and modified (Haimovitz & Dweck, 2017).

In a fixed mindset, individuals are born with talents and skills. For example, they either know or do not know math; they are either athletically talented or not. As educators, we recognize students with a fixed mindset because they frequently repeat statements indicating that they will never be able to learn or grow, and they give up quickly when faced with adversity. Another trait of the fixed mindset is the lack of resilience and skills needed to deal with challenges (Hochanadel & Finamore, 2015). For example, some students feel helpless when they face a difficult exam because the fear of failure overtakes and triggers the fixed mindset.

Success and failure reflect identity in the fixed mindset, making mistakes and errors intolerable. When they face success, students with a fixed mindset believe that their intelligences

set them apart from others who have average or no innate abilities. Similarly, they feel that failure is a measure of who they are. If they fail, they often resort to anger, aggression, or sarcasm to express their frustrations. Admitting a mistake means admitting that they are average—there is nothing unique about their talents, as they make mistakes just like individuals without innate talents.

In contrast, a growth mindset emphasizes learning as an ongoing process that involves effort, feedback, and strategic change (Dweck, 2016; Klein, Delany, Fischer, Smallwood, & Trumble, 2017). Individuals with a growth mindset believe that intrinsic qualities are developed, and skills and abilities can be learned, modified, and changed. They usually have plans and objectives and are willing to change or modify them based on feedback. When they fail, they feel disappointed; however, they can see mistakes as opportunities to grow, learn, and improve in subsequent tries (Dweck, 2016; Haimovitz & Dweck, 2017). Failures and setbacks are part of the educational process, and challenges are the norm.

The growth mindset has been linked to motivation, academic achievement, and success (Dweck, 2016; Haimovitz & Dweck, 2017). Researchers agree that cognitive skills can be developed and improved with practice (Dweck, 2016; Haimovitz & Dweck, 2017). Likewise, research in neuroscience shows that the brain grows with experience and practice (Hochanadel & Finamore, 2015). Our actions create new networks and reinforce old ones (Klein, Delany, Fischer, Smallwood, & Trumble, 2017). Thus, the plasticity of our brains is prominently malleable, meaning that intelligences are not predetermined and may be modified, and skills can be acquired and enhanced (Broda, Yun, Schneider, Yeager, Walton, & Diemer, 2018; Dweck & Yeager, 2019).

The Growth Mindset in the Classroom

There are some simple yet efficient tips to foster a growth mindset in the classroom. First, teaching should help students understand the differences between the two mindsets. Teachers may point out the benefits of the growth mindset and the direct impact it has on the development of learning skills and the improvement of academic achievement (Yeager & Dweck, 2012).

One way to introduce mindsets is asking students to talk about their challenges and how they plan to deal with them the next time (Broda, Yun, Schneider, Yeager, Walton, & Diemer, 2018; Robinson, 2017). This discussion can be a five-minute activity of sharing experiences and information before or after a test. During the discussion, students have an opportunity to learn new approaches from one another to tackle setbacks. This method is simple yet transformative because it can introduce students to both mindsets as they discuss strategies and reflect on practices; it subsequently eliminates those that are deemed ineffective and students eventually adopt new ones. Both synchronous and asynchronous tools in MS Teams can be used to brainstorm and exchange information.

A second strategy to introduce the growth mindset is to take advantage of mistakes and failures. One effective way is to incorporate videos about the journeys of famous inventors, athletes, entrepreneurs, and philanthropists sharing how they dealt with failures and managed

challenges before reaching their goals and becoming successful role models (Dweck &Yeager, 2019; Robinson, 2017). After viewing, teachers can ask students to discuss and share their impressions in small groups. A variation of this activity is to ask students to write a short journal on strategies that they intend to adopt when managing their own challenges to become successful linguists. The Sway application in Office 365 can be used for this purpose.

Understanding the triggers of a fixed mindset can provide insights in how to handle them. Triggers may include taking a test, continuously failing at a task, struggling to catch up with the class, having negative feelings toward others who might be more advanced or seem to have it easy, feeling powerless when dealing with dominating personalities, and failing to live up to expectations (Dweck &Yeager, 2019; Robinson, 2017). One possible method to tackle triggers is to paraphrase the reactions and address the related emotions and thoughts in a practical approach. For example, the teacher can help students identify challenges, recognize negative feelings, and paraphrase personal thoughts (Yeager & Dweck, 2012). When students say that they are giving up on learning, the teachers may seize this opportunity to redirect the conversation toward the growth mindset by paraphrasing the statement into something factual. The teacher can ask what approaches may be used to learn this subject more effectively, what needs to change to make this topic less challenging, what strategies can be modified or adapted, and what kind of support is needed. This strategy helps reframe the classroom culture while taking advantage of challenges positively to introduce the growth mindset (Robinson, 2017; Yeager & Dweck, 2012); it also helps students focus on the learning approach they usually use, which may be a solution to the challenges. This helps students not to focus on the negative emotional reactions, which prevent them from achieving their objectives. What students view as failure is yet another opportunity for growth, learning, and development.

Another engaging activity is to have students list negative reactions that they have during setbacks and then work in groups to write process-based responses to address them (Broda et al., 2018). Students can draw posters or interactive diagrams using Class Notebook or Wiki features in Office and share them with peers, thus informing others how to cultivate a growth mindset.

A third strategy to foster a growth mindset is providing meaningful constructive and honest feedback that focuses on the learning process rather than the end result. Telling students that they did a good job or simply giving them a grade of “A” on a test does not provide specific feedback that students can use to improve their learning approach (Dweck, 2016). Telling students to try harder or listen more also fails to provide an informative step-by-step learning process. Instead, explaining to students what part of their homework was done correctly, what part they missed, and how they can work on it is educational (Robinson, 2017; Stetson, 2019). An example of constructive feedback could be: “You recognized the gist of the reading passage, but you need to pay attention to time during the test.”

Feedback can be as specific as instructing students to learn to read faster by setting a timer or making a log of the time it takes to finish a reading passage. Students can compare their progress and determine areas that need to be improved. This type of feedback informs students what they have captured correctly, what needs improvement, and what learning approach they can adopt to advance (Stetson, 2019). This process-based feedback provides facts that the students can use to improve their learning or change their future strategies.

Conclusion

Teachers may influence students in various ways. Research shows that students' beliefs about themselves are positively correlated with the teacher's beliefs in their abilities to learn (Robinson, 2017). Therefore, creating a classroom culture that fosters a growth mindset can improve motivation, resilience, and academic achievement. The trick is to find ways that accurately and meaningfully introduce the growth mindset, because merely telling students that they have a fixed mindset may backfire. Teachers may introduce the concepts through classroom activities, project-based learning, and research projects, allowing students to explore what the growth mindset is about, the benefits of the growth mindset, and how to cultivate it. As COVID-19 continues to make classroom instruction challenging, it is more important now than ever to help students develop the necessary mindset to improve their academic abilities, helping them overcome the current difficulties.

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MEET A TEAM

The Immersion Language Office

A Look behind the Curtain—A Closer Look of the Inner Workings of the "Greater" Immersion Language Office Team

An Interview with **Mr. Van Ipson**, Director of the Immersion Language Office, Directorate of Academic Support[1]

Editor: *Mr. Ipson, would you tell the readers about the Immersion Language Office's mission, structure, and scope of work?*

Mr. Ipson: The Immersion Language Office's (ILO) mission is quite simple: to support the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) in providing the highest quality culturally based foreign language education, training, and evaluation to enhance the country's national security needs. The ILO's contribution is carried out through our Overseas, Continental United States (O/CONUS), and Iso (Isolation) immersion programs. The ILO goal is for students to maximize learning opportunities in order to achieve the highest linguistic and cultural proficiency levels.

The second language acquisition (SLA) literature is replete with the merits of exposing learners to an immersive event while learning and acquiring a second language. For longer term immersions, the growth in language proficiency may be measured in the modalities of listening, reading, and speaking. For example, in 2008 the DLIFLC conducted a comparative study of learning results between students of similar academic standing with or without overseas immersion. Students were randomly assigned to two groups: immersion and non-immersion. The immersion group attended a four-week overseas immersion and outperformed the non-immersion group on the Defense Language Proficiency Test (DLPT). For shorter immersions such as CONUS and Iso, the growth is best seen in areas such as confidence, motivation, and a deeper understanding of the target language cultural.

I would take it a step further and state that maybe the most important aspect of the immersion experience is learning how much one has learned in acquiring a new language, and how much more effort and study it will take to get to the required proficiency. With this comes the realization of the importance of taking risks while learning a language levels—there are

benefits in making mistakes. By using it, students also learn the intricacies of a language—the language in books is not necessarily the one spoken in the streets. Street language is spoken a little faster, not clearly enunciated, and differs from one geographic area to another.

Editor: *You made a great point. Students learn bits and pieces of the language in the classroom. Immersion, whether it is in the target language country or in a simulated real world, challenges the students to put all the pieces together when using language for communication.*

Mr. Ipson**:** Exactly. The DLIFLC initiated immersion programs to shrink the gap between classroom instruction and real-world communication. The initial immersion structure is what we now call the Iso immersion. The goal is for students to participate in a two-day Iso event in both the second and third semesters. Day One of Iso training focuses on cultural aspects of the target language. Day Two provides students with a window into the future— "military tasks and duties," in which they apply their language/cultural skills.

Since 2005, the DLIFLC immersion platform has shifted from a local isolated event to a broader one that reaches the four corners of the globe through O/CONUS 2/4-week immersion programs. Currently, we have overseas partners in Korea (four), Taiwan (three), Latvia, Oman, France, Ecuador, Chile, and Japan. Our domestic partners are in Bemidji, Minnesota (the Concordia Language Village), San Diego State University (SDSU), and nine additional Defense Language and National Security Education Office (DLENSO) contracted universities and language institutions. The CONUS sites are designed for languages spoken in countries where we are unable to assign personnel (Farsi, Levantine, Iraqi, and Pashto). Moreover, they offer us an alternate site for large language programs such as Russian since our single site in Latvia cannot meet our immersion needs.

Editor: *How does the Immersion Language Office operate?*

Mr. Ipson: Many people believe that the immersion team has seven members, identified by the immersion TDA. In fact, the immersion team is much larger. In order for the O/CONUS and Iso immersions to function efficiently, it requires help from the entire DLIFLC community and beyond.

The O/CONUS program starts with the ILO analyzing annual student input numbers from the scheduling division. The results are presented to the commandant, aiding him in determining the number of immersions and the allocation of resources in a given year. For FY21, the commandant has stated that 80% of immersion events are for Tier 1 languages (Chinese, Korean, Russian, Farsi, and MSA), 15% for Tier 2 (Egyptian, Levantine, and Iraqi), and 5% for Tier 3 (Spanish, French, Pashto, and Japanese). The number of immersion trips are then allocated to UGE schools in accordance with the commandant's guidance.

Once the schools nominate classes for the immersion events, the ILO leadership coordinates with host/partner schools to synchronize the DLIFLC requests with their annual calendars. Meanwhile, other DLIFLC team members in UGE (Associate/Assistant Provosts, School Deans, Associate Deans, Immersion Specialists, MLIs, Chairs, Team Leaders, and Diagnostic Specialists) are involved with immersions through administrative oversight, selection of immersion participants, and "prepping" the students for the immersion event.

Military service unit commanders approve the student immersion lists. The Medical Clinic team provides country specific briefs, vaccinations, and travel medication packets. The Installation Security Manger processes country clearance documents via the theater commanders and in-county embassies. The passport agent, located at the Naval Postgraduate school, processes both official passport and visas for the students. The 902d Detachment/Air Force Office of Special Investigation (AFOSI) brief students before and after the immersion on security matters. The Transportation and Schedule Air Transportation Office (SATO) safely transports the students to and from the deployed sites. The host schools have been incredible in instructing our students and broadening their understanding of both the target language and culture. None of this happens without the Resource Management Directorate providing the funding for the immersion program and approving travel orders.

Lastly, and certainly not least, the ILO specialists are operating efficiently behind the scenes—melding the larger DLIFLC team and others, and providing timely key services to ensure that timelines are met. At the center of everyone's focus and actions are the students.

The Iso program includes many of the players listed above in making sure it operates glitch-free, starting with Iso specialists, UGE school leaders, transportation and dining facility personnel, and employees of Pride, the contractor that performs essential housekeeping tasks. The UGE schools reserve Iso dates for their schools six months in advance. That is to say, the success of immersion programs defines teamwork.

Editor: *What are the ILO's major achievements?*

Mr. Ipson: Major achievements are reflected in the students' faces as they return from an O/CONUS or Iso immersion event. Their attitude, motivation, and newly found knowledge on the target culture is our biggest reward.

Other recent accomplishments of which we are proud is the professional partnership we have established with the Concordia Language Village (Bemidji, Minnesota) and our new Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) site in Muscat, Oman. Both sites have received praise from our students. As proof of the new partners' effectiveness, several students have even elected to attend an immersion in frigid Minnesota. Oman has performed so well that we send more students there than to other well-established sites.

On the Iso side, obtaining Bldg. 212 to conduct military Situational Training Exercises (STX) has increased the local immersion opportunities for our students. Presently, all STX activities are to be conducted on the Presidio of Monterey (POM). The Fort Ord Iso facility is dedicated to cultural activities.

Another achievement is the cooperation between ILO and the medical clinic in establishing medical processing procedures. This ensures that immersion students receive medical care and attention prior to departure.

Editor: *On the flip side of the ILO's major achievements, what are your biggest challenges?*

Mr. Ipson: The biggest challenge is the safety and security of our students as they are deployed around the world. Due to the nature of their future jobs, the security aspect is magnified. The ILO specialists are identified for "on-call" weekend duties to oversee students' movements.

Another challenge is the adage "to whom much is given, much is expected." Immersions are expensive, so people expect a return on investment. Since there are countless institutions willing to become our partners, the challenge is to find those that may meet high standards at a reasonable cost. Many institutions may either meet our requirements at a high price or meet our reasonable price requirements without high quality. We are always searching for partners to meet our ever-changing language demands. Some near-term options may be expanded via the DLNSEO Indefinite Delivery, Indefinite Quantity (IDIQ) contract, and adding the University of Maryland to meet our Persian Farsi, Arabic MSA, and other dialect requirements and standards.

Editor*: In your opinion, what are the lessons learned, and what is the outlook for the ILO?*

Mr. Ipson: The DLIFLC's overall goal is to expose the students to as many language and cultural experiences as possible. It is through constant exposure that learning takes place. The Iso and O/CONUS programs are two resources that students may use in learning a second language.

Army travel bans due to the world-wide epidemic make predictions problematic. The longer I am here, the more I realize that immersions may polarize participants—they either love it or hate it. This love/hate relationship is analogous to preferences for musical instruments—one loves the piano, guitar, and saxophone; one dislikes drums, violin, and tuba. The reasons for this love/hate may or may not reflect science and logic. One might say that the instrument which best represents the immersion office's operations is the accordion. When the budget is healthy, we can expand the immersions/"bellows." However, when faced with a tight budget, travel restrictions, a pandemic or other crises, we must condense the immersions/"bellows." The ILO must maintain flexibility in affording leadership the ability to utilize resources that best suit the DLIFLC's unique language and culture mission.

On a personal note, I would like to thank the ILO specialists for maintaining their professionalism and positivity when the programs experienced "highs and lows" in the past two years. Although there were many immersion cancellations, they remained steadfast devotion to the mission and the most important resource—our students. I have often witnessed the immersion's positive impact on the language mission. Immersion is a small but important tool by which leadership motivates the students in acquiring higher levels of language proficiency and cultural understanding.

NOTE

1. Mr. Ipson has since left the ILO and become the Assistant Dean at the Persian Farsi School.

REVIEW

The Fearless Organization: Creating Psychological Safety in the Workplace for Learning, Innovation, and Growth. *By Amy C. Edmondson. (2019). Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons. Pp. 233. ISBN 9781119477266.*

Reviewed by **Jawad Khan**
Faculty Development Support, Educational Technology and Development

Overview of the Book

The Fearless Organization is about creating a work environment in which people feel safe to share their concerns and ideas. Harvard University professor Amy Edmondson calls this sense "psychological safety." She came upon this concept when she was a first-year doctoral student. The idea became the subject of her doctoral dissertation and an area in which she has invested twenty years of study. In her book, Edmondson references numerous examples to show that non-psychologically safe environments exist across industries and organizations in private, public, and government sectors, highlighting workers' preference for the status quo, the failure of leadership in making changes, and the serious consequences of working in such an organization. She also discusses how companies and organizations have benefitted from developing a psychologically safe workplace, especially in a diverse environment.

The book starts with a quote from Edmund Burke (1756): "No passion so effectively robs the mind of all its powers of acting and reasoning as fear." This encapsulates the author's research on workplaces where people are afraid to share ideas or speak out, which leads to serious consequences. The consequences of instilling fear among workers can vary from loss of life, reputation, and financial gain. Edmondson emphasizes that these losses have grown wider and deeper with time because over the last two decades the modern workers' level of collaboration has increased by 50%. Therefore, the need to communicate within an organization and to work within teams has become essential. Under these conditions, psychological safety may determine the success or failure of an organization in achieving its mission.

The book clarifies that employee psychological safety does not eliminate the possibility of receiving a poor review or even losing one's job. What psychological safety offers is the confidence to overcome interpersonal fears that limit our actions and suppress our voices. In a

fearless organization, an employee should fear more *not* voicing one's concerns, as the reprisal of speaking out is insignificant when compared to the consequences of remaining quiet.

Edmondson accepts that the organizational culture is formed principally by the leadership; therefore, psychological safety remains the prime responsibility of the leaders. However, all of us may exercise psychological safety, even in a limited way. Every employee has a circle of influence among colleagues, friends, and peers. More importantly, we can decide whether to share our knowledge and voice our thoughts or stay quiet. By our actions, we may start creating psychological safety. This can induce the leadership to change the organizational culture and make the environment more conducive to psychological safety. Consequently, the organization may benefit from improved productivity and less employee turnover.

Structure of the Book

The above is a general overview of the book. Now we will examine its content in detail. The book is divided into three parts.

In "Part I, The Power of Psychological Safety," the author describes how she came up with the concept of *psychological safety*, defining it as the belief that *the work environment is safe for interpersonal risk taking*, and specifies the scope of psychological safety. Psychological safety is about creating an environment in which people trust and respect each other to be candid but not about being likable or lowering performance standards. The author shares a graph showing references to the concept and its variants in the media between 1990 and 2017 that indicate an increasing interest in the concept, especially after 2009. Edmondson cautions that psychological safety is not a cure all, but instead candid communication is of vital importance in the 21st century work environment, characterized by volatility, uncertainty, complexity, and ambiguity or VUCA— an acronym coined by the U.S. Army War College.

Edmondson also describes her dissertation research, which focuses on measuring psychological safety. This research is foundational in underscoring the presence and importance of psychological safety in the workplace. She gathered data through surveys and analyzed them statistically. The survey items were also translated into German, Russian, Spanish, Japanese, Chinese, and Korean, and administered in the workplaces of other countries. The statistical analysis yielded robust research findings that showed that the concept of psychological safety existed across countries and cultures.

Part I ends with a discussion of the advantages of having psychological safety, and that it is no longer a "perk" but a need in the VUCA world.

"Part II, Psychological Safety at Work" focuses on the repercussions when psychological safety is absent from the workplace. It starts with examples of how Volkswagen, Nokia, and Wells Fargo faced major scandals or losses because their work environments did not offer this type of safety. These three industrial leaders could have easily avoided their disasters if their employees had the confidence to voice concerns that the leaders had the patience to listen to. The author discusses how managers and leaders confuse setting high standards with good management. Both should be regarded as independent facets leading to a common goal. With good

management and psychological safety in the workplace, companies should be able to achieve high standards.

Part II shows more serious implications of the lack of psychological safety, such as the loss of human life. The author presents cases of NASA, Royal Dutch Airlines (KLM), Dana-Farber Cancer Institute, and Tokyo Electric Power Company (TEPCO). In all these companies, employees' silence led to fatal consequences. For example, in 2003, NASA faced the tragedy of losing seven astronauts in the Space Shuttle *Columbia* when one of the engineers did not voice his concerns about safety. KLM experienced an even bigger disaster in 1977 when one of its Boeing 747s collided with a Pan Am Boeing 747 resulting in the loss of 583 lives; the First Officer and Flight Engineer hesitated to question the judgment of a senior Captain. Through these case studies, Edmondson demonstrates that any organization, large or small, private or public, may face serious consequences if employees feel a lack of psychological safety. The silence of the workers is, therefore, analogous to creating a "Cassandra culture in which speaking up is belittled and warnings go unheeded" (Edmondson, 2019, p. 86).

Part II also describes companies that have benefitted from creating a psychologically safe workplace, among which are Bridgewater, one of the world's largest hedge funds founded by Ray Dalio, Eileen Fisher (a clothing brand), and Google X (Google's invention and innovation lab). Leaders in diverse industries have created and benefitted when employees feel they have psychological safety. These examples demonstrate that creating this environment does not depend on a leader's work style, gender, or nationality. Women working in countries and domains dominated by men have successfully led their companies in of creation of psychological safety.

Part II concludes that a workplace that encourages candor, direct communication, and respect is more important in the present environment because psychological safety is mission critical when knowledge is a crucial source of value.

"Part III, Creating a Fearless Organization" uses Children's Hospital and Clinics in Minneapolis, Minnesota, as an example of creating psychological safety. This organization provides three-step guidance for its leaders.

Step One (Setting the Stage) is about changing the frame of thought. By taking small steps, such as using the word "study" instead of "investigation" to understand an error, leaders may change the assumptions and beliefs through which people view such events. *Reframing failure*, *clarifying the need for voice*, and *motivating effort* all help in setting the stage.

Step Two (Inviting Participation) is about inviting employees to participate by asking thought-provoking questions. This guides employees to focus on topics that may seem mundane but are critical to the organization. Proactive inquiry is essential in inviting employee participation. For example, hospital workers were asked, "Was everything as safe as you would like it to be with your patients this week?" Another way to seek employees' input is through various processes or structures that allow people to converse and share information, such as committees or cross-functional teams. Edmondson explains that the environment should encourage all to have a learning mindset—employees, especially the leaders, must acknowledge errors and demonstrate humility.

Step Three (Responding Productively) is about the leader's responses to employee input. This is a crucial step that demonstrates the leadership's sincerity in encouraging psychological safety, consequently determining whether the workplace inculcates it. Expressing appreciation and destigmatizing failure are important ways for leaders to exhibit a positive response. As failures are integral to innovation, leaders need to leverage failures to convey their support for creativity and initiative. Regarding failures resulting from rules violation, Edmondson argues that leaders should sanction violations even if it includes firing workers. Justified sanctions are also productive responses as they convey transparency and implementation of the rules. Part III also includes a self-assessment for leaders to check how they did with the three-step process.

Edmondson ends the book by underscoring that maintaining a workplace that offers psychological safety is a never-ending process. The leaders have the main role in creating and maintaining a psychologically safe environment. They may need all the tools explained in the book and much more. Edmondson also shares some frequently asked questions (FAQ) related to psychology safety.

Evaluation of the Book

The Fearless Organization is an interesting and meaningful read for teachers. Although the examples cited in the book are not from academic institutions, readers in the educational field can discern the advantages of having a psychologically safe working and learning environment, particularly in a diverse workforce.

One area that the book falls short is the author's argument for leadership's sanction of violations. She explains how leaders should react to violation of rules and risky shortcuts. Most of the examples she uses are clear cut. But how about situations that are not clear cut, such as an honest effort leading to an unwarranted violation? For example, the author describes that in 2017, Google fired an employee for leaking an internal memo to the media. The memo highlighted gender inequality at Google. The way the company treated the employee is still under discussion on various forums, but Edmondson categorizes it as a "productive response," without any additional evidence or in-depth discussion to support her argument, which seems simplistic for complex situations.

Overall, readers will find many takeaways that can improve the work environment. The author clearly articulates the need for a psychologically safe workplace and demonstrates that lack of psychological safety may lead to calamitous consequences. Moreover, the book offers viable steps for creating a beneficial workplace that allows employees to feel confident and self-assured that they can share their concerns, apprehensions, and ideas.

TECHNOLOGY

Language Learning Apps for Student Engagement

Olga V Kalmykova and **Aksana Mather**
Ft. Meade LTD, Extension Programs, Continuing Education

The recent shift to the remote online learning due to the pandemic has forced educators to reassess perceptions of meaningful incorporation of technology in the classroom. The need has risen to thoroughly evaluate the strengths and weaknesses of online learning in promoting students' success and to adapt various technological tools to best advantage. In this regard, several foreign language learning software programs, apps, and various internet resources provide excellent opportunities to enrich the learning process and maximize results.

A review of over 50 popular apps adapted for language learning worldwide resulted in our selection of the top 12 most relevant ones for the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) courses. The following is a summary of the internet apps for teacher consideration, given in alphabetical order.

The basic versions in the mentioned resources are free of charge but require registration on the instructor's part. Typically, registered teachers invite students to participate by sharing a joining code or a weblink. These programs allow teachers to select the content and construct various learning activities from words and phrases to larger pieces of authentic content for practice, production, presentation, and assessment. The apps are suitable for students' projects and discussions as well individual or group work. They also help facilitate and administer various activities that target writing, speaking, and discourse analysis of written and audio texts. Their versatility makes them suitable for both synchronous and asynchronous learning as well face-to-face format.

1. ***Flipgrid* (https://flipgrid.com).** *Flipgrid* is a useful tool for video presentations and other productive work with audiovisual material. Specifically, it has excellent potential for homework and task- or project-based lessons. Teachers can create activities in the form of video assignments. After the teacher posts discussion prompts, students can respond with short videos delivered in a grid layout. Students record responses, post videos, and comment on one another's answers. The teacher can set a language, edit the closed captions for individual videos, or turn off closed captions. *Flipgrid* offers 11 different languages for

transcribing video responses with an option for teachers to edit closed captions. Students also have a few other options for including text in their work.

2. ***Flippity*** **(https://flippity.net).** *Flippity* is used to create flashcards, spelling quizzes, memory games, word searches, presentations, or other productions, and assessing students' work. The site utilizes *Google Sheets* and features dozens of templates for activities and games. For example, Flashcards, Quiz Show, Scavenger Hunt, Fun With Words, Spelling Words, Word Search, Crossword Puzzle, Word Scramble, Bingo, Jeopardy, Matching Game, MadLibs (a story for users to fill in with various parts of speech), Mix and Match, and others. The users can download templates, enter content, and play online individually or in groups. The activities are applicable for vocabulary review, grammar practice, area studies, and trivia games, suitable for various foreign language levels.

3. ***Google Poly*** **(https://poly.google.com).** This app from *Google* utilizes augmented reality elements and offers an opportunity to explore 3D images in detail. The vast library of images allows teachers to select those most appropriate for various speaking activities; e.g., detailed descriptions of cultural artifacts, storytelling, and summarizing. "A picture is worth a thousand words." This colorful and interactive app sparks creativity and engages conversations in a classroom.

4. ***Google Virtual Tours*** **(https://arvr.google.com/tourcreator).** Another augmented reality, web-based app from *Google* provides a wide variety of virtual tours at both museums and private residences, as well as larger areas and cities. The 3D images, created by native speakers, are impressive, fascinating, and intriguing. The virtual tours may be used for practicing speaking skills by composing a tour of a museum, expanding cultural proficiency by comparing various real estate virtual tours, and enhancing regional expertise by exploring a specific landscape in a target language area. Students may also create tours of dream vacation destinations, "bucket list" destinations, or various climate zones and places. These, however, require student registration.

5. ***iBook widgets*** **(https://www.bookwidgets.com).** This app offers multiple options to create activities to tailor the course content to certain lesson objectives or individual student needs. An instructor can compose worksheets, tests, and other activities utilizing the course reading and audio-visual material. The questions range from multiple-choice, open-ended, matching, to fill-in-a-blank. Widely used for summative and formative assessment, the infographic and visualization capabilities of this app are often overlooked. In fact, they may be effectively implemented in the classroom. Activities, such as drawing a mind map, creating a timeline, annotating a picture, grouping items, or recording an audio answer, require higher-order thinking skills and promote higher-level language proficiency.

6. ***Kahoot*** **(https://kahoot.com).** *Kahoot* is a formative assessment and learning tool based on user-generated multiple-choice quizzes in a gamified environment. Students can evaluate their knowledge, practice new vocabulary, check comprehension of course material, play trivia games, etc. The app is PDF supported and allows importing of existing *PowerPoint*,

Keynote, or *Google Slides*. Users may include questions their presentations to reinforce content, interact with the audience, and engage participants. Slides may be enhanced with polls, word clouds, and other question types to facilitate feedback and communication.

7. ***Mentimeter*** **(https://www.mentimeter.com)** or ***Poll Everywhere*** **(https://www.pollevery where.com).** These poll-based resources create live interaction during a lesson. Various questions and survey templates may be used as ice breakers, a quick poll between the lesson activities, brainstorming, dynamic check-for-understanding activities, class surveys, student reflection, and course evaluation or feedback. Types of questions vary from multiple-choice and open-ended to creation of a word cloud, rating, and clickable image. Both software features may also be embedded into a *PowerPoint* slide for engaging an audience during a presentation or seminar. Student registration is not required, and participation may be set to anonymous. Answers produced are displayed in a colorful graphic, thereby adding an element of user-friendly visual appeal.

8. ***Padlet*** **(https://padlet.com).** *Padlet* is a digital canvas app for creating, sharing, and collaborating. It supports numerous file types and allows the uploading of videos, self-made recordings, and pictures. *Padlet* makes it easy to write and edit texts and images, and upload/ post documents or other scholarly works. The posts are updated in real time and presented in a chronological scroll view or as a grid. Students can use the app for brainstorming, post notes, essays, and infographics. They can develop and deliver presentations, discuss material, provide feedback, and analyze assignments. *Padlet* makes it easy to see all users' production in one place and study together.

9. ***Peardeck*** **(https://www.peardeck.com).** *Peardeck* is a presentation software that works as a *Google Drive* application. The app allows teachers to design lessons with interactive questions, polls, quizzes, and formative assessments. Users can make and deliver live interactive presentations in *PowerPoint Online* or *Google Slides*. Students can respond to questions or prompts on their screens. Teachers can add prompts, questions, images, etc. for students to see, using the editing tools to customize the slides. The app offers slide templates and an option to customize interactive slides. The synchronous presentation mode lets users navigate through the slides in real time. The asynchronous mode enables students to navigate the slides and record responses to interactive questions posed by other learners.

10. ***Quizizz*** **(https://quizizz.com).** *Quizizz* conducts student-paced formative assessments synchronously or asynchronously. Users can create quizzes by plucking questions from any quiz, adding images, auto saving progress, and utilizing other features. Teachers may customize quizzes by controlling the level of competition, speed, and other factors. It allows downloading of reports as *Excel* spreadsheets for record-keeping. Students may study and assess knowledge by using five different types of questions: multiple-choice, checkbox, fill-in-the-blank, poll, and open-ended.

11. ***Quizlet* (https://quizlet.com).** *Quizlet* is a learning tool for practicing, memorizing, and mastering essential terms, definitions, course vocabulary, conjugations, and grammar rules. Students may select various available templates or learn the language by studying custom-made sets designed by the teacher. The app offers seven different modes and games for language learners. Students can test their knowledge by answering the questions generated, practicing spelling and writing, and taking practice tests associated with specific sets. Learners may choose flashcards, matching, and gravity games to master language skills.

12. ***Scribble Maps* (https://www.scribblemaps.com).** This map-creating application helps students enhance regional expertise by acquiring spatial geographical awareness and incorporating area studies information. It can be effectively used for inquiry-based learning, class travel blogs, and other projects. Students can add images, land markings, and landmark descriptions onto the maps. Maps created may be saved in PDF or PNG format and uploaded to a Learning Management System (LMS) or a blog. Such an illustrative representation of information eases eye strain and contributes to more effective retention of information.

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Choosing the core LMS such as Blackboard, MS Teams, or Zoom for foreign language courses is often outside of teachers' decision-making, but teachers have the power to define, select, and employ appropriate online programs and apps. These tools enhance student learning and increase engagement. It is worth mentioning that implementing an excessive amount of new technological programs in a classroom may be overwhelming for students and teachers. It involves a certain learning curve, as students and instructors master the technological features of each tool before utilizing them efficiently. At times, accessing and employing a new app can be time-consuming and entail complex logistics. Moreover, technology-centered teaching may also negatively affect learning outcomes when a teacher develops a lesson based on the app and its features rather than on students' needs or lesson objectives.

When optimizing foreign language instruction for online learning, teachers might find it useful to choose only one or two applications most suitable for a specific group. Overall, the portioned and relevant application of the apps mentioned above adds an element of gamification, ignites discussions and collaboration among students, adjusts to individual learner styles, and promotes student engagement.

GENERAL INFORMATION

EVENTS 2020-2021

Distribution and/or publication of events, or listings of links to foreign language professional organizations are for informational purposes only and does not constitute endorsement by the US Government, the Department of Defense, the Department of the Army, or the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center.

2020

NOVEMBER

November 20-22	*American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages Annual Convention (ACTFL)*, San Antonio, TX Information: www.actfl.org
November 20-22	*American Association of Teachers of Japanese (AATJ)* Fall Conference, San Antonio, TX Information: www.aatj.org
November 20-22	*Chinese Language Teachers Association (CLTA)* Annual Conference, Washington, DC Information: clta-us.org

2021

JANUARY

January 7-10	*Modern Language Association (MLA)* Convention, Toronto, Canada Information: www.mla.org/convention
January 7-10	*Linguistic Society of American (LSA)* Annual Meeting, San Francisco, CA Information: www.linguisticsociety.orgFEBRUARY

FEBRUARY

February 25-28	*American Association of Teachers of Slavic and East European Languages (AATSEEL)*, Philadelphia, PA Information: www.aatseel.org

February 24-28 *California Language Teachers' Association (CLTA)* annual conference, San Diego, CA
Information: cita.net

MARCH

March 20-23 *American Association for Applied Linguistics (AAAL)* Annual Conference, Houston, TX
Information: www.aaal.org

Mar 23-26 *Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL)* International Convention, Houston, TX
Information: www.tesol.org

MAY-JUNE

May 30-June 4 *NAFSA: Association of International Educators* Annual Conference and Expo, Orlando, FL
Information: www.nafsa.org

OCTOBER

October 28-31 *Middle East Studies Association (MESA)* Annual Meeting, Montreal, Canada
Information: mesana.org/annual-meeting/future-meetings

NOVEMBER

November 19-21 *American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages Annual Convention (ACTFL)*, San Diego, CA
Information: www.actfl.org

November 19-21 *American Association of Teachers of Japanese (AATJ)* Fall Conference, San Diego, CA
Information: www.aatj.org

November 20-22 *American Association of Teachers of German (AATG)* Session, San Diego, CA
Information: www.aatg.org

VENUES FOR ACADEMIC PUBLICATION

Distribution and/or publication of events, or listings of links to foreign language professional organizations are for informational purposes only and does not constitute endorsement by the US Government, the Department of Defense, the Department of the Army, or the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center.

Academic Journals on Language Education & Language Studies: Guidelines for Authors

ADFL Bulletin

(Published by the Association of Departments of Foreign Languages, a subsidiary of the Modern Language Association of America) http://www.adfl.mla.org/ADFL-Bulletin

Al-'Arabiyya

(Published by the Georgetown University Press on behalf of the American Association of Teachers of Arabic)
http://press.georgetown.edu/languages/our-authors/guidelines

American Journal of Evaluation

(Published by Sage Publishing on behalf of the American Evaluation Association)
http://us.sagepub.com/en-us/nam/american-journal-of-evaluation/journal 201729#submission-guidelines

Applied Linguistics

(Published by the Oxford Academic)
http://academic.oup.com/applij/pages/General_Instructions

Assessment in Education: Principles, Policy & Practice

(Published by Routledge)
http://authorservices.taylorandfrancis.com/

Brain and Language

(Published by Elsevier)
http://www.journals.elsevier.com/brain-and-language

CALICO Journal

(Published by the Computer Assisted Language Instruction Consortium)
http://journals.equinoxpub.com/CALICO/about/submissions

Canadian Modern Language Review

(Published by the University of Toronto Press)
http://utorontopress.com/ca/canadian-modern-language-review

Chinese as a Second Language

(Published by the Chinese Language Teachers Association, USA)
http://clta-us.org/publications/

Cognitive Linguistic Studies

(Published by John Benjamins Publishing Co.)
http://benjamins.com/content/authors/journalsubmissions

Computer Assisted Language Learning

(Published by Routledge)
http://authorservices.taylorandfrancis.com/

Educational and Psychological Measurement

(Published by Sage Publishing)
http://us.sagepub.com/en-us/nam/journal/educational-and-psychological-measurement#submission-guidelines

Educational Assessment

(Published by Routledge)
http://authorservices.taylorandfrancis.com/

Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis

(Published by Sage Publishing)
http://us.sagepub.com/en-us/nam/journal/educational-evaluation-and-policy-analysis#submission-guidelines

Educational Technology Research and Development

(Published by Springer)
http://www.springer.com/education+%26+language/learning+%26+instruction/journal/11423?detailsPage=pltci_2543550

Foreign Language Annals

(Published by Wiley-Blackwell on behalf of the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages) http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/page/journal/19449720/homepage/forauthors.html

Hispania

(Published by the American Association of Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese)
http://www.aatsp.org/page/hispaniasubmissions

International Journal of Applied Linguistics

(Published by John Wiley & Sons)
http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/page/journal/14734192/homepage/forauthors.html

International Journal of Testing

(Published by Routledge)
http://authorservices.taylorandfrancis.com/

Japanese Language and Literature

(Published by the American Association of Teachers of Japanese) http://www.aatj.org/journal

Journal of Immersion and Content-Based Language Education

(Published by John Benjamins Publishing Company)
http://benjamins.com/content/authors/journalsubmissions

Language

(Published by the Linguistic Society of America) http://www.linguisticsociety.org/lsa-publications/language

Language & Communication

(Published by Elsevier)
http://www.journals.elsevier.com/language-and-communication

Language Learning

(Published by Wiley-Blackwell on behalf of the University of Michigan)
http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/page/journal/14679922/homepage/forauthors.html

Language Sciences

(Published by Elsevier)
http://www.journals.elsevier.com/language-sciences

Language Teaching: Surveys and Studies

(Published by Cambridge University)
http://www.cambridge.org/core/journals/language-teaching/information/ instructions-contributors

Language Testing

(Published by Sage Publishing)
http://us.sagepub.com/en-us/nam/journal/language-testing#submission-guidelines

Linguistics and Education

(Published by Elsevier)
http://www.journals.elsevier.com/linguistics-and-education

PMLA

(Published by the Modern Language Association of America)
http://www.mla.org/Publications/Journals/PMLA/Submitting-Manuscripts-to-PMLA

Profession

(Published by the Modern Language Association of America) http://profession.mla.org/

RELC Journal

(Published by Sage Publications on behalf of the Regional Language Center of the Southeast Asian Ministers of Education Organization) http://journals.sagepub.com/home/rel

Review of Cognitive Linguistics

(Published by John Benjamins Publishing Company)
http://benjamins.com/content/authors/journalsubmissions

Russian Language Journal

(Published by the American Council of Teachers of Russian) http://rlj.americancouncils.org/

Second Language Research

(Published by Sage Publishing)
http://us.sagepub.com/en-us/nam/journal/second-language-research# submission-guidelines

Slavic and East European Journal

(Published by the Ohio State University on behalf of the American Association of Teachers of Slavic and East European Languages)
http://u.osu.edu/seej/

Spanish Journal of Applied Linguistics

(Published by John Benjamins Publishing Company)
http://benjamins.com/content/authors/journalsubmissions

Studies in Second Language Acquisition

(Published by the Cambridge University Press)
http://www.cambridge.org/core/journals/studies-in-second-language-acquisition/information/instructions-contributors

System

(Published by Elsevier)
http://www.journals.elsevier.com/system

The American Journal of Distance Learning

(Published by Routledge)
http://authorservices.taylorandfrancis.com/

The French Review

(Published by the American Association of Teachers of French)
http://frenchreview.frenchteachers.org/GuideForAuthors.html

The International Journal of Listening

(Published by Routledge)
http://authorservices.taylorandfrancis.com/

The Korean Language in America

(Published by the American Association of Teachers of Korea) http://www.aatk.org/

The Language Educator

(Published by the American Council on the Teaching Foreign Languages)
http://www.actfl.org/publications/all/the-language-educator/author-guidelines

The Modern Language Journal

(Published by Wiley-Blackwell on behalf of the National Federation of Modern Language Association)
http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/page/journal/15404781/homepage/forauthors.html

TESOL Quarterly

(Published by Wiley-Blackwell on behalf of the TESOL International Association)
http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/page/journal/15457249/homepage/forauthors.html

INFORMATION FOR CONTRIBUTORS

SUBMISSION INFORMATION

1. Submission

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.

2. 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.

3. 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.

4. Correspondence

Contact the Editor.

GUIDELINES FOR MANUSCRIPT PREPARATION

PLANNING:
DECIDE ON THE TYPE OF PAPER

First, decide for which column you would 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.

1. 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:

Cover Page	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: Foster Learner Autonomy in Project-based Learning JANE, DOE Assistant Professor Persian-Farsi School, UGE jane.doe@dliflc.edu 831-242-3333
Abstract	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.
Introduction	State the objectives, hypothesis, and research design. Provide adequate background information, but avoid a detailed literature survey or a summary of the results.
Literature Review	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.
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.

2. 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.

3. 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.

4. 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.

5. Fresh Ideas

Reports, summaries, and reviews of new and innovative ideas and practices in language education. Fresh Ideas articles should not exceed 2,000 words.

6. 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.

7. 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.

8. 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.

WRITING:
FOLLOW THE SPECIFICATIONS FOR MANUSCRIPTS

Prepare the manuscripts in accordance with the following requirements:

- Follow the 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.); for other types of paper, see the section above for instructions;
- Use double spacing, with margins of one inch on four sides;
- Use Times New Roman font, size 12;
- Number pages consecutively;
- Text in black and white only;
- Create graphics and tables in a Microsoft Office application (Word, PowerPoint, Excel);
- Provide graphics and tables no more than 6.5” 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.

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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—*Information for Contributors*.

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