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Interpersonal Trust and Willingness to Communicate in the Adult Foreign Language Classroom

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This pilot study examines the relationship between interpersonal trust and L2 learner willingness to communicate (WTC) in the adult foreign language classroom. Employing a Vygotskian theoretical perspective of the classroom as a learning community and building on previous research on antecedents to L2 WTC, the study tests the hypothesis that interpersonal trust accounts for at least some portion of the variance in classroom L2 WTC. Data measuring individual student perceived interpersonal trust and classroom WTC were collected using two anonymous survey instruments administered on three occasions in two undergraduate classrooms taught by the same instructor. The data were analyzed using simple regression to determine if measures of interpersonal trust would predict classroom L2 WTC. Results from two of three data samples indicate that interpersonal trust may be an antecedent to situational (classroom) WTC. However, weak correlation between the two variables indicates that further research is needed to confirm the existence of a dependent relationship, as well as to understand the relationship of interpersonal trust to other variables that influence situational L2 WTC. Pedagogical implications include the potential for deliberate trust-building as a means of facilitating higher levels of productive interaction in the foreign language classroom.

Interaction is a critically important process in second language acquisition. SLA researchers have examined the phenomenon from both cognitive and sociocultural perspectives, and Ellis (2008) notes that the sociocultural approach "offers a refreshing alternative to the rather narrow, atomistic view of interaction projected by the input-output theories" (p. 274). The current study was designed with a focus on learner willingness to communicate (WTC) as a critically important element of a sociocultural understanding of L2 classroom interaction.

Johnson (2004) argues that, in a sociocultural model of SLA, "the development of second language ability is viewed as the process of becoming an active participant in the target language culture" (p. 179). Lantolf and Johnson (2007) extend this perspective into the classroom, proposing that "when L2 teachers embrace the notion of classroom activity as creating opportunities for development, their attention shifts to the norms that govern participation in an

activity and the extent to which L2 learners are able (or not) to participate in that activity" (p. 888). From this viewpoint, the influence of classroom social context (or norms) on the learner's willingness and ability to participate is seen to be of great significance. Using Garrison, Anderson and Archer's (2000) Community of Inquiry (COI) framework and MacIntyre, Dornyei, Clement and Noels's (1998) theoretical construct of willingness to communicate (WTC), the current study explores the proposition that a specific context-sensitive variable – interpersonal trust, or an individual's expectation that others will, under conditions of risk, behave toward him/her in a predictable and positive manner – influences learner willingness to communicate/participate in the adult L2 classroom.

This study was envisioned as a precursor to a more in-depth mixed-method study of interpersonal trust and WTC, and is therefore limited in scope and aimed solely at documenting the possible existence of a relationship between interpersonal trust and willingness to communicate in a formal adult foreign language learning environment. Thus, survey data measuring both interpersonal trust and WTC were analyzed to test the hypothesis that interpersonal trust accounts for at least some portion of the variance in classroom WTC among adult beginning foreign language students. Ultimately, if such a relationship were demonstrated to exist among the general population of foreign language learners, it may provide important insight into the process whereby learner participation can be maximized in the interactive L2 learning environment.

Literature Review

A sociocultural perspective on learner participation in the L2 classroom draws upon a number of different lines of inquiry, both within and outside the field of SLA. In particular, recent explorations of L2 learner-learner interaction have contributed important insights, as have theoretical frameworks focusing on social contextual variables that influence learner participation in the language classroom. SLA researchers are also beginning to develop a useful body of knowledge focusing on the specific influences of social context variables on L2 learner WTC. From outside the field, work on learning community frameworks and the social foundations of interpersonal trust informs the current study's exploration of the potential relationship of trust and learner WTC.

Interaction Theory and Research

Sociocultural theory provides the overarching conceptual framework for the current study. Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) and scaffolding concepts provide a theoretical lens through which the affective and social aspects of interaction may be examined. However, these concepts were originally focused exclusively on interactions between novices and experts, and as Anton (1999) notes, "the current view of the ZPD has been expanded beyond novice-expert interaction" (p. 305). This expanded perspective proposes that acquisition occurs not only during interaction between novice and expert speakers, but also between novice L2 learners. This approach situates the cognitive outcomes of L2 interaction within the social context of not only learner-instructor interaction, but also the learner-learner communicative activity that would be characteristic of an authentically cooperative/collaborative L2 classroom.

Many SLA interaction researchers have focused primarily on the individual cognitive outcomes of L2 interaction between non-native and native speakers. Much less attention has been given to the effects of interaction

between non-native peers and to the more general topic of the social context of interaction. However, a few researchers have expanded the interaction research agenda to address the outcomes of learner-learner interaction and the influence of social context-related variables.

Learner-Learner Interaction

Swain, Brooks and Tocalli-Beller (2003) reviewed 17 studies of peer-peer interaction across all modes of L2 communication (reading, writing, speaking, and listening). The authors note that the few researchers who have explored peer-peer interaction have suggested that such interaction may in fact foster L2 development. Their review leads to the conclusion that "the collaborative dialogue in which peers engage as they work together on writing, speaking, listening and reading activities mediates second language learning" (p. 181).

Social Context of Classroom Interaction

Oxford (1997) asserts that "the social-psychological aspects of interaction are no doubt related to the kind of L2 tasks employed and to the nature of the L2 learning environment" (p. 450). From a sociocultural perspective, the social context in which these social-psychological aspects of interaction develop is of primary importance in L2 learner classroom participation. In the traditional language classroom, opportunities for authentic learner participation are proscribed by the teacher-centered social context. Ellis (2008) notes that there has been relatively little investigation of "the learner's contribution to classroom discourse, probably for the obvious reason – learners typically contribute a lot less than teachers to the discourse and also do so in quite limited ways" (p. 807).

Dornyei and Murphey (2003) highlight Vygotsky's proposition that intermental learning precedes intramental learning (p. 86) and call for the application of principles of group dynamics in cooperative/collaborative L2 learning activities to facilitate the creation of as many intermental connections as possible between learners. The concept of intermental connections raises key questions about learner autonomy and responsibility in the authentically interactive L2 learning environment. What is the social basis of these intermental connections? How are these connections created? What are the roles of the teacher/facilitator and learners in creating these connections? Are cooperative/collaborative L2 learning activities alone sufficient for establishing intermental connections, or are other activities – possibly involving the L1 – required? A potentially useful approach to the exploration of these participation-related questions involves conceptualizing the cooperative/collaborative adult foreign language learning environment as a learning community.

Garrison, et al's (2000) Community of Inquiry model positions the higher education experience at the nexus of three distinct interactive elements – cognitive presence, social presence, and teaching presence. In a successful learning community, these instructor and learner presences converge to produce a collaborative process of meaning construction via sustained communicative interaction. The Community of Inquiry model was developed as a means of analyzing computer-mediated learning environments; however, the conceptual framework is useful for developing an understanding of cooperative/collaborative learning in both face-to-face and distance settings.

While much attention is given to the establishment of teacher presence and the facilitation of maximum learner cognitive presence in the traditional teacher-centered L2 classroom, social presence is arguably the key element

of the authentically participatory classroom. Garrison, et al (2000) define social presence as "the ability of participants in the Community of Inquiry to project their personal characteristics into the community, thereby presenting themselves to the other participants as 'real people'" (p. 89). The creation of Vygotskian intermental connections in productive cooperative/collaborative learning interaction requires that participants possess and exercise this ability to project themselves into the community. However, relatively little is known about the specific dimensions of learner autonomy and responsibility underlying this ability.

According to Reeve (2006), autonomy is "the experience of being the author and origin of one's behavior – the subjective experience that one's moment-to-moment activity authentically expresses the self and its needs, desires, and intentions" (p. 257). Autonomy plays a "fundamental role" in "people's volitional motivation and psychological, emotional, and physical wellness" (p. 257). Volitional motivation may be the most important individual psychological characteristic influencing social presence in a learning community. This volitional aspect of interaction is the focus of a relatively recent line of SLA inquiry in which willingness to communicate is positioned as "the primary goal of language instruction" (Macintyre, et al, 1998, p. 545).

Willingness to Communicate

Macintyre, et al's (1998) conceptual model of WTC is an explicit attempt to "integrate psychological, linguistic, and communicative approaches to L2 research that typically have been independent of each other" (p. 545). The model identifies individual (enduring trait-like) and situational influences on the act of choosing to communicate in the L2. The authors argue that this act is the result of the complex interrelations of these various influences.

Research on situational influences on L2 learner WTC demonstrates the significance of social context variables. MacIntyre, et al (2001) determined that social support from friends and family was a significant influence on self-reported L2 WTC of Canadian ninth-grade French immersion students. Clement, et al (2003) demonstrated the significance of social context normative pressures on the L2 WTC of Canadian university students. Kang (2005) identified situational variables (e.g., discussion topic, conversational context, and interlocutor) that influenced the WTC of four participants in a voluntary university ESL conversation partner program. Cao and Philp (2006) concluded that "group size, familiarity with interlocutor(s), and interlocutor participation were most commonly identified as factors contributing to or reducing WTC" by eight adult English language learners in a university-level course in New Zealand (p. 488). These studies confirm the existence of a wide variety of social context variables that shape the individual learner's volitional act of communicating in a foreign language, thus validating this aspect of MacIntyre, et al's (1998) model.

As previously noted, an understanding of interactive participation in a learning community requires consideration of the learner autonomy underlying the volitional aspect of social presence. From a WTC perspective, the learner is not a passive consumer of input and producer of output, but rather an autonomous agent whose volition is of utmost importance not only to the success, but also to the very existence, of L2 interaction. MacIntyre (2007) asserts that "the initiation of communication is a matter of choice, a decision to be made at a particular moment. Choosing to communicate in the L2 is an act of volition" (pp. 569). This perspective of the learner as autonomous agent is particularly relevant to any discussion of L2 learner classroom participation.

MacIntyre (2007) further proposes that "the volitional act of speaking requires the coordination of a set of driving and restraining forces that may operate with or without the speaker's explicit awareness" (p. 573) and notes that one of the key restraining forces is language anxiety, which directly influences L2 self-confidence. Macintyre, et al's (1998) WTC model and subsequent research have shown L2 self-confidence to be a critical determinant of WTC. Thus, without the traditional classroom driving force of coercion based on asymmetric teacher-learner power relations, L2 learner participation in cooperative/collaborative activities may depend to a significant degree on the situational reduction of restraining forces like language anxiety that influence the autonomous learner's WTC. The central proposition of this study is that interpersonal trust, a socially constructed "orientation between self and other whose object is the relationship" (Weber and Carter, 2003, p. 3), may be a context-sensitive variable that can mitigate such restraining forces and lead to maximum learner social presence and authentic participation.

Interpersonal Trust

Turner (1988) defines trust as "the implicit belief that the responses of others are predictable and reliable" (p. 60). Dirks and Ferrin (2001) propose that trust influences one's expectations about another's future actions and moderates interaction by influencing each party's interpretation of the other's actions. Rovai (2002) analyzes trust within the context of the postsecondary classroom community, asserting that it "consists of two dimensions: credibility and benevolence" (p. 42). Gubbin and MacCurtain's (2008) review of multidisciplinary research led them to propose that "trust is based on the expectation of an individual that others will behave positively toward him or her under conditions of risk" (p. 581).

The concept of social risk is essential to an understanding of L2 learner-learner interaction in the minimally coercive environment of the collaborative classroom. In the coercive traditional classroom, risk of negative interlocutor behavior is localized primarily to interactions between learner and instructor, and instructor behaviors are typically highly predictable. However, in the collaborative classroom, the risk of negative interlocutor behavior is multiplied by the number of potential peer interlocutors, and the behaviors of peers are typically less predictable than those of instructors. Under such high-risk conditions, individual perceptions of the reliability/credibility of benevolent interlocutor behaviors become a key determinant of learner-learner interaction.

Thus, a synthesis of the concepts of social risk, reliability/credibility in the anticipation and interpretation of actions, and interaction participant expectations of benevolent behavior yields a proposed operational definition of interpersonal trust as an individual's expectation that others will, under conditions of risk, behave toward him/her in a predictable and positive manner. This definition incorporates Rovai's (2002) dual dimensions of credibility and benevolence, upon which the trust subscale of the Sense of Classroom Community Index (SCCI) survey instrument used in this study is based.

As previously noted, driving and restraining forces interact as key determinants of learner WTC. The belief that others will behave predictably and positively under conditions of risk is a socially constructed orientation that potentially reduces the restraining forces shaping the volitional motivation underlying social presence in the learning community. Employing this conceptualization of trust as a social context variable that may influence WTC restraining forces, the current study explores the potential existence of a dependent relationship between interpersonal trust and willingness to communicate in the L2 in adult foreign language classrooms. Specifically,

survey data were analyzed to test the hypothesis that interpersonal trust accounts for at least some portion of the variance in classroom WTC among adult students in an undergraduate beginning foreign language course.

Method

Data measuring individual student perceived interpersonal trust and classroom willingness to communicate were collected via surveys administered in two undergraduate foreign language classrooms taught by a single instructor in the United States. The data from the two classrooms were consolidated into a single data set after each administration and analyzed using simple regression to determine if measures of interpersonal trust would predict classroom L2 WTC. The anonymous surveys were administered on three separate occasions (labeled "Time" in the following tables) during a semester course in order to maximize the rate of survey return.

Participants

Adult beginning Spanish language students at a private college in south-central Florida were convenience sampled on the basis of their assignment to two classes taught by the same instructor. Twenty-five students were enrolled in one class and 16 in the other for a total of 41 potential subjects. Table 1 shows self-reported demographic data for respondents providing complete survey responses during each of the three administrations.

Table 1 – Demographic Data

Time	Number of Respondents	Gender	Ethnicity
1	30	Female: 16 Male: 14	White: 25 Black: 1 Bi-racial: 3 No data: 1
2	29	Female: 12 Male: 13 No data: 4	White: 22 Black: 1 Asian: 1 No data: 5
3	28	Female: 11 Male: 10 No data: 7	White: 18 Black: 1 Bi-racial: 2 No data: 7

Materials

Two survey instruments were used to collect measures of the study variables. A 10-question subset (see Appendix A, Scoring Key) of the Sense of Classroom Community Index (SCCI) (Rovai, et al, 2001) provided data on subject perceptions of interpersonal trust, while a 6-question subset (Appendix B, highlighted) of a widely used WTC questionnaire provided self-reports of classroom willingness to communicate. The original WTC survey was modified by Cao and Philp (2006) to include questions targeting classroom-specific behaviors, and was further modified by the current researcher's addition of two questions targeting classroom behaviors associated with the inclusion stage of group development.

Inclusion (synonymous with belonging or membership in the research literature) has been identified in a substantial body of research as a key determinant of group member interaction. According to Turner (1988), "feelings about group inclusion influence the degree to which an actor has interpersonal trust or the implicit belief that the responses of others are predictable and

reliable" (p. 60). Gibbs (1995) proposes that "in order to have inclusion, three opportunities must be provided:

> 1. Each person needs to be able to introduce herself, not just by stating a name but offering a short description of her feelings, interests, resources, talents, or special qualities.
> 2. Each person needs to be able to express his hopes or expectations for what will happen during the group's time together.
> 3. Each person needs to be acknowledged by the group as having been heard, appreciated, and welcomed" (p. 79).

Drawing on this definition, questions 22 and 25 of the WTC questionnaire (Appendix 2) were developed to solicit data on the inclusion-specific aspects of classroom communication.

Both instruments are identified in previous research as having high validity. Rovai (2002) reported Cronbach's alpha = .96 for the overall SCCI instrument and .84 for the trust subscale based on a sample of 511 subjects enrolled in both face-to-face and distance learning environments (p. 47). Cao and Philp (2006) reported Cronbach's alpha = .917 (n = 10) for the overall WTC questionnaire; no question subset analysis was performed due to the researchers' use of all questions in developing individual WTC profiles. Data from the current study yield Cronbach's alpha for these instruments as shown at Table 2.

Table 2 – Cronbach's Alpha

Time	n	SCCI trust subscale	WTC questionnaire classroom subscale
1	30	.592	.855
2	29	.696	.911
3	28	.765	.920

The survey instruments were administered simultaneously and in their entirety without identification of specific question subsets to participants. Question subsets were isolated and scored manually, with mean interpersonal trust and classroom WTC scores computed for each subject. Interpersonal trust scores were reported via Likert scale responses (0-4), with higher scores indicating higher levels of interpersonal trust. WTC scores were reported on a 0-100 scale indicating the estimated percentage (0 = never, 100 = always) of time a subject would choose to communicate in the target language in a specific situation. These mean scores served as the inputs for data analysis using SAS Learning Edition 4.1 running on a Windows XP platform.

Procedure

Data were obtained via three separate in-class administrations of the survey instruments. In order to ensure maximum student participation and complete anonymity, all students present in class were given survey instruments,

informed that participation in the survey was voluntary and would not affect any aspect of their class grade, and instructed to elect not to participate by simply returning a blank survey. Both surveys were distributed simultaneously in a package (i.e, stapled together) in order to facilitate the association of interpersonal trust and WTC measures for individual subjects. This arrangement resulted in high survey return rates (initial – 73%, middle – 71%, final – 68%), but provided no means of correlating subject responses across multiple survey administrations. This construct precluded any repeated-measures analysis, resulting in the survey responses being analyzed as discrete data sets.

Results

Results of the initial data analysis are shown at Tables 3 and 4.

Table 3 – Descriptive Statistics

Time	n	Mean Trust Score (0-4)	SD	Mean WTC Score (0-100)	SD
1	30	2.32	.38	49.69	24.42
2	29	2.42	.42	53.79	25.63
3	28	2.55	.45	52.50	25.71

Table 4 – Regression Results

Time	n	r^2	df	p	Intercept	Slope
1	30	.0547	29	.2136	14.46	15.19
2	29	.0836	28	.1280	11.26	17.57
3	28	.1639	27	.0326	-6.90	23.29

Initial results indicated that interpersonal trust significantly ($p < .05$) accounted for a portion of the variance in classroom WTC only at Time 3 (r2 = .1639, df = 27, p = .0326). However, controlling for two outlying data points (studentized residual/Cooke's D = -2.214/.105 and 1.810/.180) at Time 1 yielded significance at n = 28, r2 = .1507, df = 27, p = .0412. Controlling for a single outlying data point (studentized residual/Cooke's D = -2.122/ .096) at Time 2 yielded results (n = 28, r2 = .1184, df = 27, p = .0729) that did not meet the threshold for significance.

Discussion

Results from the Time 3 raw dataset and the Time 1 dataset after controlling for outliers allow for rejection of the null hypothesis that interpersonal trust does not account for at least a portion of the variance in classroom WTC. However, low r2 values indicate that only a small portion of the variance in WTC is accounted for by interpersonal trust. In the strongest case – Time 3 – only approximately 16% of the variance in classroom WTC is attributable to variance in interpersonal trust. Thus, while the relationship hypothesized in this study may indeed exist, further research is needed to confirm its existence and to understand the relationship of interpersonal trust to other variables that influence situational WTC.

This simple regression analysis of interpersonal trust as a possible antecedent of situational WTC is subject to a number of limitations. As with all survey-based research, the reliability of self-reported data may be called into question. As previously noted, the current study was envisioned as a precursor to a more in-depth mixed-method study of interpersonal trust and WTC. This approach would enable researchers to obtain a more accurate picture of situational trust and WTC, facilitating the collection of observation and/or interview data that could be used to triangulate the self-reported data provided by the survey instruments. This would be especially useful for developing a clearer understanding of situational WTC. The questionnaire used in this study solicited only six self-reported measures of classroom WTC, and as shown in Table 3, there was significant variance in the self-reported scores (mean score ~ 50, SD ~ 25 for all three datasets). A more thorough analysis incorporating additional measures of both perceived and actual communication behavior would provide a deeper and more reliable understanding of learner willingness to communicate in the classroom environment.

Small sample size and demographic imbalance also constrain the implications of this study. While respondents were fairly evenly split between genders, they were overwhelmingly ethnically similar (white). While the effect of such demographic skewing on the study variables is unknown, the imbalance must be considered in any attempt to generalize the findings of this study. Also, while repeated sampling of a small pool of respondents may increase raw data availability, it may also give the impression of a more comprehensive analysis than is actually the case.

It should also be noted that the learning environment from which the samples were drawn would be considered a traditional foreign language classroom. As previously discussed, there are significant differences in the theorized levels of learner autonomy and responsibility in traditional classrooms and collaborative learning communities. WTC is conceptualized as a function of autonomy; therefore, the relationship between interpersonal trust and WTC in a traditional classroom may differ from the relationship between the two variables in an authentic collaborative learning community. The results of the current analysis only provide insight into the relationship between interpersonal trust and WTC in two traditional adult foreign language classrooms taught by the same instructor.

Finally, as previously noted, the simple regression analysis performed in this study does not take into account the variety of other individual and contextual variables identified by previous researchers as influencing WTC. A multi-dimensional inquiry would situate interpersonal trust in relationship to other antecedent WTC variables. This type of analysis would provide a more thorough understanding of the role of interpersonal trust in shaping learner willingness to communicate in the L2 classroom.

Conclusion

Data obtained during this pilot study indicate that interpersonal trust may be a social context-sensitive antecedent to L2 willingness to communicate among adult students in two university classes taught by the same instructor. These results suggest that further investigation of the relationship between interpersonal trust and classroom WTC is warranted. As previously noted, confirmation of the existence of this relationship in the general population of language learners could have significant pedagogical implications. If foreign language instructors can employ activities that increase the level of interpersonal trust among their students, individual classroom willingness to communicate in the target language will theoretically increase, resulting in enhanced social presence and higher levels of authentic and productive learner participation in the learning community.

In a discussion aimed at shifting the ontological basis of SLA interaction discourse from a cognitive perspective to a sociocultural one, Lantolf and Johnson (2007) offer the previously noted proposal that teacher attention in the Vygotskian learning community "shifts to the norms that govern participation in an activity" (p. 888). Any discussion of norms governing learner participation in L2 classroom activities must address the individual learner's ability to project him/herself into the learning community (social presence), of which WTC is a key component. Thus, research into the processes underlying this shift of instructor attention will entail a deliberate focus on social context-sensitive variables such as interpersonal trust that may be antecedents to learner L2 WTC. For the classroom instructor, implications of this shift suggest that moving from the teacher orientation of the traditional classroom to the learner orientation of the cooperative/collaborative classroom requires additional study of group dynamics and the key determinants of the rich learner interaction that characterizes authentic participation. The results of the current study suggest that interpersonal trust may be one of these key determinants.

As noted by Dornyei and Murphey (2003), the creation of intermental connections is a prerequisite to individual intramental learning in a Vygotskian learning community. In the cooperative/collaborative L2 learning community, learners exercise significantly greater autonomy and responsibility in creating these connections than in the traditional classroom. Put simply, the learner authentically chooses his/her level of participation, and the current study conceptualizes this choice as depending at least in part on interpersonal trust. Within this sociocultural classroom participation paradigm, the critical importance of learner social presence (and the variables that underlie it) validates MacIntyre et al's (1998) proposition that WTC should be "the primary goal of language instruction" (p. 545). Previous research has identified multiple variables that influence learner L2 WTC. The results of the current study indicate that interpersonal trust may be an important addition to the known antecedents to individual willingness to communicate in the L2. At minimum, the outcomes of this study suggest that interpersonal trust and its relationship to situational L2 WTC deserve the attention of both SLA researchers and foreign language instructors.

Appendix A

SCCI Test Booklet
Sense of Classroom Community Index

Developed by
Alfred P. Rovai, PhD, Robert A. Lucking, PhD, and Dean Cristol, PhD

Directions

Reproduce and distribute the two-page survey and then read aloud the following directions to your subjects:

The survey you have in front of you consists of two pages and should only take you a few minutes to complete. You may use either a pen or pencil. It pertains to: [Identify specific course, cohort, or school]

This survey is voluntary. Its purpose is to conduct research in order to help improve teaching and learning. Your honest responses to each item will help us achieve this purpose. It will not be used to evaluate your teacher. Taking or not taking this survey will have no affect on your course grade.

[If students are to provide an ID read the following paragraph]

The first page includes some information about yourself. Let me assure you that your responses will remain confidential should you choose to complete this survey. Under no circumstances will your responses be revealed to anyone. Results will be reported in group form only. Near the top of the survey you will see fill-in-the-blank items marked ID, A, B, C, and D. In the space next to ID write the last four digits of your student ID now. Leave the spaces next to A, B, C, and D empty. [or specify contents] **Also answer the three questions about yourself.** [Pause]

[If students are not to provide an ID read the following paragraph]

The first page includes some information about yourself. Let me assure you that your responses will remain anonymous should you choose to complete this survey. Near the top of the survey you will see fill-in-the-blank items marked ID, A, B, C, and D. Leave these spaces blank. [or specify contents for A, B, C, and/or D] **Answer the three questions about yourself now.** [Pause]

The survey also includes a number of statements with each statement followed by a scale. Examine one of the items on the first page of your survey.

[PAUSE for a moment or two]

You will note that each item consists of a statement followed by a scale represented by five pairs of parentheses. Carefully read each statement and place an "X" in the first pair of parentheses if you strongly agree with the statement, mark the second pair if you agree with the statement but to a lesser degree, mark the third pair if you neither agree nor disagree with the statement or are uncertain about how to respond, mark the fourth pair if you disagree with the statement, or mark the last pair of if you disagree strongly with the statement. Only mark one pair of parentheses for each statement. The letters between the parentheses are there to help you identify the scale.
As you complete this survey please make sure you place an "X" in the appropriate space for all items. Do not skip any items. You may now start.

SURVEY

Please complete the following based on verbal instructions you receive:

ID: _____ A: _____ B: _____ C: _____
D: _____

Next, please check the categories that apply to you:

1. Age: (1) 25 or less (2) 26 - 30 (3) 31 - 40 (4) 41 - 50 (5) over 50
2. Gender: (1) Male (2) Female
3. Race or ethnic group: (1) White (includes Arabian) (2) Black (3) Hispanic
(4) Asian (includes Pacific Islanders) (5) Native American (6) Bi-racial

DIRECTIONS: Below you will see a series of statements concerning a specific course or program you are presently taking or recently completed. Read each statement carefully and place an X in the parentheses to the right of the statement that comes closest to indicate how you feel about the course or program. You may use a pencil or pen. There are no correct or incorrect responses. If you neither agree nor disagree with a statement or are uncertain place an X in statement, but give the response that seems to describe how you feel. the neutral (N) area. Do not spend too much time on any one.

Please respond to all items.

1. I feel excited about this course ....
(SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD)

2. I feel that others in this course are concerned about my well-being ....
(SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD)

3. I feel that there is not much interaction with the teacher ....
(SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD)

4. I feel that this course is not learner-centered ....
(SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD)

5. I feel that there is no group identity ....
(SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD)

6. I trust other students ....
(SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD)

7. I feel that I am encouraged to ask questions ....
(SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD)

8. I feel that I learn useful skills in this course ....
(SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD)

9. I feel a sense of cohesion with other students ....
(SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD)

10. I feel that I receive insincere feedback ....
 (SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD)

11. I feel that I learn a lot from other students ....
(SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD)

12. I do not feel in control of my learning process ....
(SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD)

13. I do not feel connected to my teacher ....
(SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD)

14. I feel that I can rely on others in this course ....
(SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD)

15. I feel that the learning environment facilitates discussion ....
(SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD)

16. I feel that our discussions promote learning ....
(SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD)

17. I feel important in this course ....
(SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD)

18. I feel uneasy exposing gaps in my understanding ....
(SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD)

19. I feel that this course offers limited resources to work with ....
(SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD)

20. I feel that we build knowledge in this course ....
(SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD)

21. I do not feel a spirit of community ....
(SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD

22. I feel that members of this course are loyal to each other ....
(SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD)

23. I feel that a few students dominate this course ....
(SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD)

24. I feel that this course provides valuable skills ....
(SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD)

25. I feel close to others in this course ....
(SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD)

26. I feel reluctant to speak openly in this course ....
(SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD)

27. I do not feel comfortable speaking openly ....
(SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD)

28. I feel that there is no need to think critically in this course ....
(SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD)

29. I feel isolated in this course ....
(SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD)

30. I distrust my teacher ....
(SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD)

31. I feel that my teacher is responsive to me ....
(SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD)

32. I feel that this course does not meet my educational needs ....
(SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD)

33. I feel that I am recognized for my participation ....
(SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD)

34. I feel uncertain about others in this course ....
(SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD)

35. I feel that discussions are one-way ....
(SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD)

36. I feel that I learn a lot in this course ....
(SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD)

37. I feel out of place in this course ....
(SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD)

38. I feel secure in this course ....
(SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD)

39. I feel that discussions are high quality ....
(SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD)

40. I do not value all the material that the instructor covers ....
(SA) (A) (N) (D) (SD)

Scoring Key

Overall SCCI Raw Score

SCCI raw scores vary from a maximum of 160 to a minimum of zero. Interpret higher SCCI scores as a stronger sense of classroom community.

Score the test instrument as follows to obtain the overall SCCI score:

For items: 1, 2, 6, 7, 8, 9, 11, 14, 15, 16, 17, 20, 22, 24, 25, 31, 33, 36, 38, 39

Weights: Strongly Agree = 4, Agree = 3, Neutral = 2, Disagree = 1, Strongly Disagree = 0

For items: 3, 4, 5, 10, 12, 13, 18, 19, 21, 23, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 32, 34, 35, 37, 40

Weights: Strongly Agree = 0, Agree = 1, Neutral = 2, Disagree = 3, Strongly Disagree = 4

Add the weights of all forty items to obtain the overall SCCI score.

SCCI Subscale Raw Scores

SCCI subscale raw scores vary from a maximum of 40 to a mnimum of zero. Calculate SCCI subscale scores as follows:

Spirit: --------------Add the weights of items 1, 5, 9, 13, 17, 21, 25, 29, 33, 37

Trust: ---------------Add the weights of items 2, 6, 10, 14, 18, 22, 26, 30, 34, 38

Interaction: --------Add the weights of items 3, 7, 11, 15, 19, 23, 27, 31, 35, 39

Learning: ----------Add the weights of items 4, 8, 12, 16, 20, 24, 28, 32, 36, 40

Appendix B

Willingness to Communicate Questionnaire

DIRECTIONS: Below are 27 situations in which a person might choose to communicate or not to communicate in Spanish. Presume that you have completely free choice.

Please indicate the percentage of time you would choose to communicate in each type of situation. Indicate in the space at the left what percent of time you would choose to communicate – 0% = never, 100% = always.

____ 1 Talk with an acquaintance in an elevator.
____ 2 Talk with a stranger on the bus.
____ 3 Speak in public to a group (about 30 people) of strangers.
____ 4 Talk with an acquaintance while standing in line.
____ 5 Talk with a salesperson in a store.
_X_ 6 Volunteer an answer when the teacher asks a question in class.
____ 7 Talk in a large meeting (about 10 people) of friends.
____ 8 Talk to your teacher after class.
_X_ 9 Ask a question in class.
____ 10 Talk in a small group (about five people) of strangers.
____ 11 Talk with a friend while standing in line.
____ 12 Talk with a waiter/waitress in a restaurant.
____ 13 Talk in a large meeting (about 10 people) of acquaintances.
____ 14 Talk with a stranger while standing in line.
_X_ 15 Present your own opinions in class.
____ 16 Talk with a shop clerk.
____ 17 Speak in public to a group (about 30 people) of friends.
____ 18 Talk in a small group (about five people) of acquaintances.
_X_ 19 Participate in group discussion in class.
____ 20 Talk with a garbage collector.
____ 21 Talk in a large meeting (about 10 people) of strangers.
_X_ 22 State your needs or expectations in class.
____ 23 Talk with a librarian.
____ 24 Help others answer a question.
_X_ 25 Present personal information (about yourself) in class.
____ 26 Talk in a small group (about five people) of friends.
____ 27 Speak in public to a group (about 30 people) of acquaintances.

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Technology and Foreign Language Teachers' Professional Development

Hyunsoo Hur
Faculty Development

This research explores foreign language instructors' use of technology, and beliefs and attitudes toward technology-integrated foreign language instruction. The study further examines teachers' needs and expectations concerning technology training as part of their professional development. Surveys were administered to Korean, Arabic, and Russian teachers at the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC). Descriptive statistical analysis was made using SPSS 17. The study findings provide implications for designing a comprehensive and systematic training program for DLIFLC instructors.

In his article "Digital Natives, Digital Immigrants," Marc Prensky (2001) identified differences in brain structures and attitudes toward learning that people have developed according to their ages and the sociocultural environments in which they matured. He referred to K-12 and college students as "digital natives" who were raised with computers, video games and the Internet, and who are acclimated to receiving information rapidly and feel comfortable with multitasking. They may become easily distracted with long hours of reading textbooks. "Digital immigrants" are generations of people who were not born in the digital world but became fascinated by new features of technology and adopted them in their lives. Digital immigrants use technology but they feel more comfortable with the traditional avenues of learning. They regard learning as a serious commitment that requires students to be attentive and focused (Prensky, 2001; Thorne & Payne, 2005).

Consequently, challenges exist for digital immigrants in educating digital natives due to their different ways of conceptualizations and approaches to learning. Due to the advent of new software, teachers and students are encountering an influx of new technological applications. While students, as digital natives, are rather quick to accept and adopt this new trend, teachers who are digital immigrants are not as amenable and at times feel threatened by such an influx. Consequently, many of the teachers are not well-prepared to interact with students in a digitally competent manner. Furthermore, teachers do not always receive sufficient training to update themselves with new

technology. Therefore, expectation gaps occur between teachers' expected teaching practices and students' expected learning practices in the classroom. Nevertheless, Prensky called for changes that digital immigrants should pursue to educate digital natives.

Aligned with the current trend in education, technology-based learning is gaining more attention in the field of second and foreign language education. Creating communities of learners through computer-mediated instruction and telecollaboration are some of the practices that have been taking place. More and more institutions of higher education are pressing to integrate technology in foreign language education. The Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC), for example, has distributed laptops, Tablet PCs, and iPODs to students in the last few years. DLIFLC adopted Microsoft Sharepoint and has implemented on-line foreign language courses through the Blackboard course management system (CMS). The institution is moving in the direction of creating a more technology-equipped foreign language learning environment. Aligned with its orientation, DLIFLC needs to train its teachers in using the updated materials, methods, and techniques. Thus, to better assist foreign language teachers' professional development, identification of teachers' attitudes and beliefs, current levels of expertise in applying different technologies, and perceived needs for and expectations from training should be made. Citing Prensky, this study's premises argue that current foreign language teachers are "digital immigrants" who were not born in the digital world but have come to adopt technology in their lives.

In order to assess the relationships between teachers' levels of skill in using technology, attitudes and beliefs, and their use of technology, a non-experimental research design based on descriptive methods was adopted. The following research questions guided the study:

1. What are the DLIFLC teachers' experiences with using technology? Do they consider themselves as technologically savvy or not?
2. To what extent do teachers use technology in foreign language instruction?
3. What are digital immigrant teachers' attitudes and beliefs regarding use of technology in their instruction?
4. What are the DLIFLC teachers' needs and expectations in regard to technology training as part of their professional development?

Literature Review

The use of technology for language learning has been explored in many studies (e.g., Matthew, 1997; Sadik, 2008; Thorne & Payne, 2005; Oskoz, 2005; Zhao, 2003; Ene, Gőrtler, & McBride, 2005; Sykes, 2005; Chun, 2007; Hauck & Stickler, 2006; Hew & Brush, 2007). Matthew (1997), for example, demonstrated that interactive CD-ROM storybooks enhanced children's reading comprehension more than traditional print storybooks. Sykes (2006), in her study exploring the connection between synchronous Computer-Mediated Communication (CMC) and students' pragmatic development, came up with a finding that CMC assisted students' acquisition of the speech act [refusals

of an invitation] in the target language. Zhao (2003), in his meta-analysis of existing literature that delved into technology uses in language education, substantiated the fact that technology-supported language learning is at least as effective as having human teachers.

While some of the studies on the use of technology and language learning demonstrated contributions of technology in promoting effective learning, others illustrated mixed results (Chun, 2007; Chun & Wade, 2004; Thorne & Payne, 2005). For example, Chun and Wade's (2004) studied the enhancement of American students' intercultural communication skills through CMC (e.g., online forums, email exchanges, and online questionnaires), while communicating with native speakers of German in Germany. Through these exchanges, students gained intercultural competence. However, Chun and Wade indicated that students also made a number of erroneous generalizations and statements that had to be clarified through follow-up classroom discussions. Thorne and Payne (2005) also alluded to the fact that "technologies are not neutral mediators of human activity" (p. 389) but are cultural artifacts that are used by users with specific purposes.

Despite the advantages and disadvantages of technology-based language learning, many arguments in the technology-based language education field suggested that the use of technology can only be effective if teachers have expertise and are able to use technology meaningfully in the classroom. Furthermore, teachers' participation style in technology-based language learning also had influence on students' learning outcomes (Sadik, 2008; Hauck & Stickler, 2006; Hermans, Tondeur, Van Braak & Valcke, 2007; Ene et al., 2005). Accordingly, the necessity of providing faculty training and support has been constantly underscored to promote better learning outcomes (Lewis, 2006; Luke & Britten, 2007; Ernest & Hopkins, 2006; Arnold, Ducate, Lomicka & Lord, 2005; Hew & Hara, 2007; Kim & Bonk, 2006).

For example, Lewis (2006) conducted an autobiographical study through engaging in technology-mediated teaching. While participating in e-teaching, Lewis wrote a teaching journal and tracked his emotional state and on-going reflections. He also received feedback from a critical friend, an experienced colleague who observed his teaching and gave him constant feedback. As a result, Lewis found self-development through teacher autonomy and an awareness of e-teaching's potential as a means of professional teacher development. Luke and Britten (2007) studied a collegiate foreign language teacher education program that required its pre-service teachers to produce digital teaching portfolios. Upon completing the assignment, teacher candidates made positive evaluations of the task. Based on their findings, Luke and Britten claimed that successful integration of technology in teacher education program was a stepping stone to effective technology-based language instruction. Hew and Hara (2007) studied teachers' online knowledge sharing through examining an electronic mailing list (listserv) supporting a community of practice of literacy teachers. They examined the types of knowledge teachers shared as well as the motives behind them. Their findings denoted that listserv supported

teachers with their continuous professional development through assisting them to keep abreast with the changing knowledge base, as well as with solving problems.

Based on an understanding of the current trend in the use of technology in foreign language education, the current study is designed to identify foreign language teachers' experiences with technology in the classroom, their attitudes and beliefs regarding adoption and use of technology, as well as their needs and expectations regarding teachers' professional development.

Methodology

In order to better understand foreign language teachers' experiences with technology, the extent to which teachers integrate technology in their classrooms, and their needs and expectations for the training, a non-experimental research study based on descriptive statistics is of interest. Descriptive research attempts to understand events that are occurring and their relationships to other factors (Salkind, 2009). The purpose of descriptive research is "to describe the current state of affairs at the time of the study" (Salkind, 2009, p. 193). For the current study, survey data was collected. Measures of central tendency, such as mean and standard deviation, and percentages were explored (Dőrnyei, 2003; Fowler, 1993; Salkind, 2009).

The survey questionnaire consists of five sections. Section A requests demographic information. Section B focuses on teachers' technology skills, Section C on technology use, Section D on teachers' attitudes and beliefs, and Section E on professional development. Demographic information included teachers' age, gender, the foreign language they teach, years of teaching experience, and the teachers' levels of education. Section B identifies teachers' experiences with the technologies provided at the DLIFLC and whether or not digital immigrant teachers regard themselves as skillful with those technologies. Section C delves into teachers' actual use of different types of technology for language instruction, such as the Internet, Ulead, Moviemaker, Tablet PC, Blackboard, and laptops that the DLIFLC provides to teachers and/or students. Section D explores teachers' attitudes and beliefs toward technology-equipped language learning, and Section E deals with teachers' perceived needs and expectations for technological training as part of their professional development. In total, the questionnaire lists 50 questions. Ratings in Section, B, C, D, and E are by a Likert-type scale: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neutral, 4 = agree, and 5 = strongly agree. Section E on professional development includes open-ended question to capture teachers' personal voices regarding their concerns and expectations towards technology training.

The surveys were administered to foreign language teachers at the DLIFLC. For the current study, the surveys encompassed responses from participants in three language departments, Arabic, Korean, and Russian. The motivation for these specific choices is department sizes and their represented geographical locations. The Russian department is the largest in the European School. The Arabic and Korean programs are large enough to be independent

language schools. The paper questionnaires distributed and collected in April 2009 accompanied an attached human-subject informed consent form. Teachers' completion and returning of the survey indicated their agreement to voluntarily participate in the study.

The collected data from the questionnaire was entered into Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). Duplication of the electronic data was made once all the data have been recorded.

For analysis purposes, the demographic information was coded as numbers. Gender, 1 = male; 2 = female. Age codes had four groups: 21 through 30 age group = 1; 31 through 40 = 2; 41 through 50 = 3; and over 50 = 4. Years of teaching calculated according to total months provided four groups: Up to 10 years of teaching = 1, 11 through 20 years = 2, 21 through 30 years = 3, and 31 through 40 years = 4. Educational levels created three groups: Part of college and college education = 1, part of master's and having master's degree = 2, and part of doctorate and having doctorate degree = 3.

To seek answers to the research questions, the data analysis explored descriptive statistics of all foreign language teachers irrespective of school, and focused on mean, standard deviation, and frequency in teachers' skillfulness with technology, their technology use in foreign language instruction, teachers' responses regarding teacher beliefs and attitudes, and their needs and expectations concerning professional development.

Prior to data analysis, Cronbach Alpha reliability test calculated internal consistency of questionnaire items. A reliability rate of .90 was scored for overall items, which included close-ended question items from Sections B, C, D and E. Section A was not included for the reliability test as the questions required demographic information.

Findings

According to the data analysis, DLIFLC teachers have had a variety of experiences with technology. Some of the experiences were commonly shared among teachers and across schools. This paper reports a portion of the study findings:

Participants

In total, 116 teachers from the DLIFLC participated in the study [see Figure 1]. Participants include 36 Arabic teachers (22 males and 14 females), 38 Korean teachers (17 males and 21 females), and 42 Russian teachers (10 males, 29 females and 3 missing information). Including missing information, male teachers composed 42% of the data set and female teachers 55%.
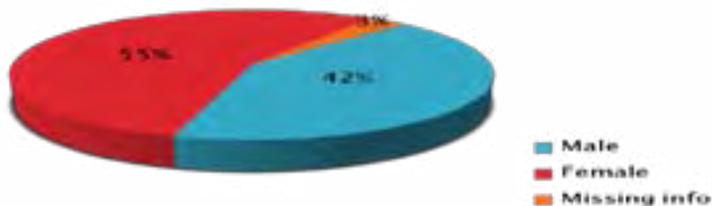
[Fig 1. Gender Composition]

Teachers' ages [see Figure 2] ranged from 20+ years to over 50 years. Despite 4% missing information, 6% of the data consisted of teachers between 21 years and 30 years, 26% between 31 years and 40 years, 31% between 41 years and 50 years, and 33% of the teachers were over 50.
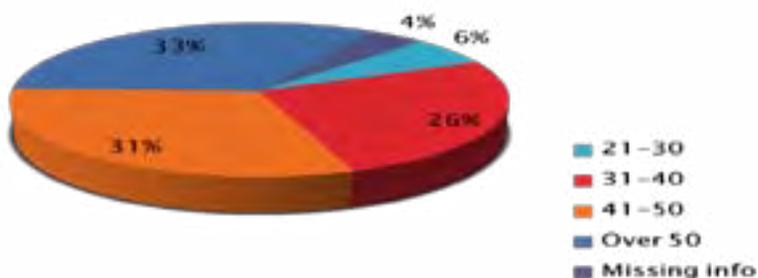
[Fig 2. Age Groups]

Teachers' educational backgrounds varied from having a bachelor's degree to doctorate [see Figure 3]. Twenty-six percent of teachers hold bachelor's degrees, 55% of teachers have master's degrees or took classes at the master's degree level, and 15% have doctorates or have enrolled in a doctorate program. Four percent of the participants did not include information of their educational backgrounds.
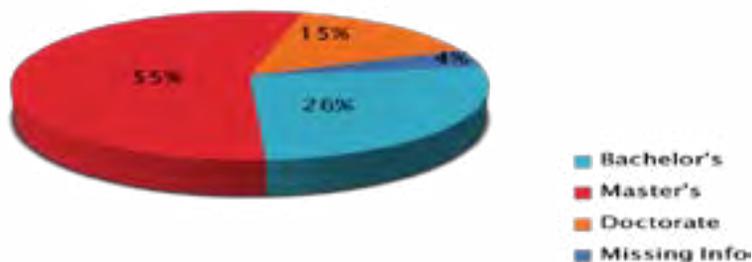
[Fig 3. Teachers' Educational Level]

In regard to teachers' post-baccalaureate education, the data showed that the Korean School had the highest teachers' education level (61% master's and 24% doctorate), followed by the Russian School (57% master's and 12% doctorate), and the Arabic School (47% master's and 11% doctorate).

Years of teaching experience included a minimum of 1.5 years to a maximum of 40 years, with the mean of approximately 14 years of teaching experience. The majority of teachers indicated that they had experience in teaching English or other foreign languages in addition to teaching the target languages at the DLIFLC.

Many foreign language teachers have humanities and language education backgrounds (e.g., literature, linguistics, TESOL, translation, and education). However, some teachers have science and business backgrounds (e.g., physics, engineering, biochemistry, and economics). The Arabic School tends to have more teachers from non-humanities and language education backgrounds than the Korean and Russian Schools.

Teachers' Experiences with Technology

The survey participants in general regarded themselves as adroit in using technology in the classroom. Not only do they feel comfortable using technology (Mean = 4.47, S.D. = .74), such as Microsoft Word, Powerpoint, and SmartBoard, but they also perceived themselves as skillful in using technology (Mean = 4.16, S.D.= .80). They believed that they could easily find solutions even though they encounter technical difficulties (Mean = 3.78, S.D.= .9). Not many teachers responded that they relied on other teachers and/or students when they encountered technical difficulties (Mean = 2.77, S.D.= 1.20).

With regard to the types of software and/or hardware that they use, teachers acknowledged that they felt comfortable using Microsoft Word (Mean = 4.46, S.D.= .75), Powerpoint (Mean = 4.13, S.D.=.96), SmartBoard (Mean = 4.35, S.D.= .88), and the Internet (Mean = 4.72, S.D.=.62), compared to Ulead/Windows Moviemaker (Mean = 3.08, S.D.= 1.16), Tablet PC (Mean = 2.67, S.D.= 1.22), course management system Blackboard (Mean = 3.14, S.D.= 1.30),

and Microsoft Sharepoint (Mean = 2.82, S.D.= 1.27). Some teachers added justification for their low score for the use of Tablet PC, Blackboard, and the Sharepoint, indicating that they had not received a product (e.g., Tablet PC) from the DLIFLC, or they were not familiar with the program due to its recent adoption in the institution (e.g., Blackboard & Sharepoint).

Teachers' levels of comfort aligned well with teachers' perceived skill for using technology. Many teachers indicated that they were competent with the technical features of Microsoft Word (Mean = 4.31, S.D. = .88), Powerpoint (Mean = 3.94, S.D. = 1.04), and SmartBoard (Mean = 4.07, S.D. = .92). They also mentioned that they could easily navigate and find information using the Internet (Mean = 4.59, S.D. = .70). However, relatively low-score responses emerged for Ulead/Moviemaker (Mean = 3.02, S.D. = 1.20), Tablet PC (Mean = 2.56, S.D. = 1.20), Sharepoint (Mean = 2.73, S.D. = 1.28) and Blackboard (Mean = 2.85, S.D. = 1.28).

According to the data, teachers felt comfortable using certain types of technology for which they had experience from their foreign language instructions (e.g., Microsoft Word, Powerpoint, SmartBoard and the Internet). They regarded themselves as skillful in dealing with these types of technology.

Items	Mean	Standard Deviation
Comfortable using technology	4.47	.74
Skillful in using technology	4.16	.80
Easily find solutions to problems when encountering technical difficulties	3.78	.90
Rely on other teachers and /or students with technical difficulties	2.77	1.20
Comfortable using MS Word	4.46	.75
Comfortable using MS Powerpoint	4.13	.96
Comfortable using SmartBoard	4.35	.88
Comfortable using Ulead/Windows Moviemaker	3.08	1.16
Comfortable using Tablet PC	2.67	1.22
Comfortable using the Internet	4.72	.62
Comfortable using Blackboard	3.14	1.30
Comfortable using MS Sharepoint	2.82	1.27
Good with MS Word technical features (e.g., editing)	4.31	.88
Good with Powerpoint technical features (e.g., making slides, adding effects)	3.94	1.04
Good with SmartBoard technical features	4.07	.92
Good with Ulead/Moviemaker	3.02	1.20
Good with Tablet PC's technical features	2.56	1.20
Easily navigate and find information using the Internet	4.59	.70
Good at using Blackboard's features	2.85	1.28
Good at using Sharepoint's features	2.73	1.28

Table 1. Teachers' Experience with Using Technology and Their Perceived Skillfulness

Extent of Teachers' Technology Use

As regards the extent to which teachers used technology for their instruction, 26 % stated they relied on technology for every class, 42 % said three-quarters of their instruction utilized technology, and 24 % indicated that half of their instruction was technology-based. SmartBoard ranked as the specific software most frequently used for teaching. Forty-seven % of the teachers stated they used SmartBoard for every class, whereas 33 % said they used it for almost every class. Regarding the use of Microsoft Office products, 15 % of the instructors indicated they used Word for every class, and 64 % said they relied on Word for 50-75 % of their instruction. Powerpoint was less frequently incorporated.   Only six % of the teachers used Powerpoint for every class, while 22 % indicated they used it for three-quarters of their instruction and 32 % noted that half of their instruction relied on Powerpoint. Ulead/Moviemaker, Tablet PC, Blackboard, and Sharepoint did not demonstrate frequent use [see Figure 4]. Thirty-nine % of the teachers indicated they used Ulead/Moviemaker for none (0 %) of the instruction. The same holds true for 74 % of the teachers in terms of Tablet PCs and 68 % with respect to Blackboard. Some added the comment that they had not been issued a Tablet PC. Instructors had significantly low or non-use of Sharepoint, as 61 % stated they had not used it at all and many mentioned they were not familiar with it.

Based on the survey report, teachers' frequent use of particular technology could associate with accessibility to particular products as well as raised awareness of availability of different technological products.
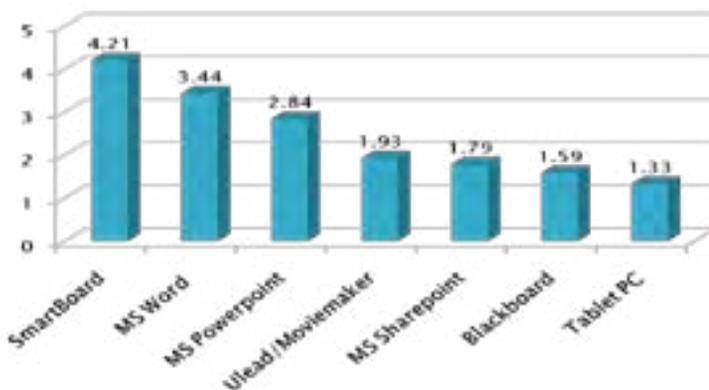
Fig 4. Technology Frequently Used in the Classroom

Teachers' Beliefs and Attitudes

Overall, teachers were positive about the integration of technology in foreign language instruction. Not only did they think that using technology is important in foreign language instruction (Mean = 4.14, S.D. = .88) but also they believe that technology in the classroom could help students learn the material better (Mean = 4.13, S.D. = .86). Furthermore, they believed that computer technology improves their daily lives (Mean = 4.1, S.D. = 1.02), and are willing to find solutions when they encounter technical difficulties (Mean = 4.3, S.D. = .84). Teachers are also relatively positive that the use of technology item should be included in their performance standards at the DLIFLC (Mean = 3.97, S.D. = .95). However, teachers do not rank very highly teaching a lesson with technology (Mean = 3.31, S.D. = 1.35). In fact, in the open-ended question, some teachers demonstrated doubts about the use of technology. While they agree to the fact that technology could assist language learning, they also have concerns for technology's contribution to students' foreign language acquisition. Namely, technology could, in fact, distract students from learning.

Items	Mean	Standard Deviation
Using technology is important in foreign language instruction	4.14	.88
Technology in the classroom helps students learn the material better	4.13	.86
Using computer technology improved my daily life	4.10	1.02
Willing to find solutions when encountering technical difficulties	4.3	.84
It is appropriate that use of technology is in my performance standards	3.97	.95
Happy to teach a lesson with technology	3.31	1.35

Table 2. Teachers' Beliefs and Attitudes

Based on the given information, teachers may believe in the importance of using technology in foreign language instruction but they may not always feel comfortable teaching a lesson with technology. Considering the fact that the mean for the item, "It is appropriate that use of technology is in my

performance standards" (Mean = 3.97) is relatively lower than teachers beliefs for items "Using technology is important in foreign language instruction" (Mean = 4.14) and "Technology in the classroom helps students learn the material better" (Mean = 4.13), teachers may have mixed thoughts between their notions of good classes and feelings of comfort with actual teaching practices.

Teachers' Needs and Expectations and Professional Development

According to the responses to the items on professional development, teachers are in favor of technology training for their professional development. They showed desire to attend technology training as often as possible (Mean = 4.12, S.D. = 1.01), and believed that taking technology training has a positive influence on professional development (Mean = 4.32, S.D. = .86). Furthermore, teachers indicate that they need step-by-step explanations during technology training (Mean = 4.04, S.D. = 1.08). They are also positive about more technology training offered through the Faculty Development Division (Mean = 3.9, S.D. = 1.12).

Nevertheless, despite foreign language teachers' expectations, technology training offered through the DLIFLC did not seem to satisfy the respondents sufficiently. Compared to their expectations concerning training, teachers gave relatively low points for the technology training they received from the DLIFLC (Mean = 3.36, S.D. = 1.05). In the open-ended question, one of the emerging themes is a desire for more hands-on practical training, in-depth and customized for individual teachers' needs. Inconsistency between training received and the technology available at work was also reported. In other words, teachers did not feel much support when they received training for a particular product (e.g., Tablet PC) if they did not have the product for actual use. Teachers also indicated insufficient training received and a lack of time for professional development. In the survey, teachers also referred to the fact that their work schedules do not allow them to attend technology training (Mean = 3.7, S.D. = 1.09). Thus, a discrepancy exists between teachers' needs and expectations and their actual teaching circumstances at work.

Items	Mean	Standard Deviation
Like to attend technology training as often as possible	4.12	1.01
Technology training is good for my professional development	4.32	.86
Need step-by-step explanations during technology training	4.04	1.08
Want Faculty Development Division to offer more technology training	3.9	1.12
Satisfied with technology training receiving from DLIFLC	3.36	1.05
Work schedule would not allow attending technology training	3.7	1.09

Table 3. Teachers' Needs and Expectations and Professional Development

For technology training that teachers would like to attend in the future, teachers listed various topics [see Figure 5]. Teachers especially want to receive training for the types of technology with which they do not feel comfortable or skilled enough [compare Fig. 1 data]. Seventy-one percent of the teachers want to receive training for Sharepoint, 59% for Tablet PC, 55% and 53% for Moviemaker and Ulead respectively, 47% for Blackboard, 28% for iPOD, 21% for Microsoft Office (e.g., Word, Powerpoint, Excel, Publisher), 14% for SmartBoard, 13% for the Internet, another 13% for computer/laptop, and 6% for others, such as Flash video or html.
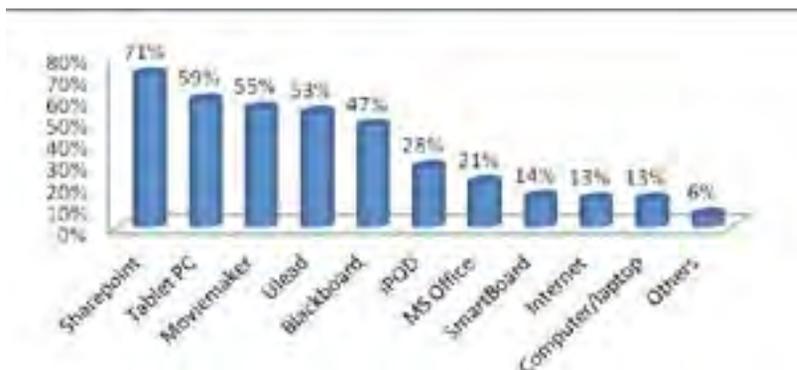
Fig. 5. Technology Training Teachers Wanted to Attend in the Future

Discussion

The DLIFLC, as the premier foreign language teaching institution of the United States government, intends to create technologically rich learning environment that is conducive to foreign language acquisition. As such, DLIFLC teachers have opportunities to work with different types of technology and integrate them into their teaching practices. Nevertheless, the integration of technology by foreign language instructors is influenced by a variety of factors. These factors are related to the foreign language teachers themselves and/or the given conditions in the work environment.

According to the data, DLIFLC teachers as digital immigrants feel comfortable and skilled in using the technology such as SmartBoard, Microsoft Word and Powerpoint that is easily accessible at work. As such, teachers frequently use these products for their instructions. However, teachers' lack of awareness of particular technology applications (e.g., Sharepoint) or their lack of familiarity with products (e.g., Ulead) influence a lower use of technology, and consequently affect their comfort and skill levels, as well as their actual use of these technologies for classroom instructions. In regard to teachers' beliefs and attitudes concerning technology-integrated instruction, the majority of the teachers, regardless of age, years of teaching, educational level, gender and language school, are favorable toward technology use in foreign language teaching and learning. However, as the mean difference between the questionnaire items "Technology is important in foreign language instruction" (Mean = 4.14) and "Happy to teach a lesson with technology" (Mean = 3.31) demonstrates, discrepancy seems to exist between teachers' notion of a good lesson and their actual teaching practices.

With reference to teachers' professional development needs and expectations, teachers believe that taking technology training is good for professional development (Mean = 4.32). For the workshops that teachers would be interested in attending in the future, many teachers indicated a desire to attend

workshops that provide instruction for technological products with which they are unfamiliar, such as Blackboard, Ulead, and Sharepoint. Considering the fact that teachers are not as satisfied with the training they received from DLIFLC (Mean = 3.36), teachers' learning desires are not always well accommodated in the work environment.

DLIFLC teachers, as digital immigrants, are aware of their expected performance related to technology required by the institution. Thus, they show positive beliefs and attitudes toward technology integrated foreign language instruction and have an understanding of the types of instruction they should pursue.

Implications

The study began with the intent to better assist foreign language teachers' professional development through providing guiding information that could help establish a comprehensive and systematic technology training program that will address teachers' needs in a multifaceted manner. As such, the study explores DLIFLC teachers' beliefs and attitudes, their current levels of comfort, as well as perceived skill in using different technological applications available in the institution. The study also delved into teachers' needs and expectations in regard to training for professional development.

Given the intent of the study, several implications emerged in relation to foreign language teachers' professional development. First, more support for training should be provided throughout the DLIFLC, not only from the headquarters office but also at the school's and department's levels. Given the conflicts with work schedules is one of the reasons teachers could not attend training, more considerations should be given by the administrators to accommodate teachers' work schedule as well as make allowance for teachers' professional development. Second, the training itself should be diversified. Not only should it emphasize hands-on practical instruction but it should also be offered as more than one workshop in order to accommodate different levels of expertise teachers bring into training. Third, coordination should be made between training and the technology applications available. If teachers receive training for technological products to which they do not have access, they may not recognize any evidence of help and support. Finally, raising teachers' awareness of available technological products would help teachers to include more technology in their instruction. This includes introduction of new products as well as constantly reminding teachers of available software and hardware.

While pinpointing the possible challenges that digital immigrant teachers face in educating digital native students, Prensky (2001) called for changes that digital immigrant teachers should pursue to educate digital native students. Namely, digital immigrant teachers should be more knowledgeable of technology for better communication with their students. From this aspect, foreign language teachers should be constantly supported and updated with technological applications through on-going professional development training.

This study has not delved into aspects of technology-integrated instruction that explore possible teachers' performance and attitudes in response to technology malfunctions. A future study related to the topic will be worth pursuing.

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Recent Trends in Foreign Language Education in Europe

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This article, which will be published in installments, will examine the major recent trends in foreign language education by taking communicative, student-centered language learning as a starting point. The geographical focus is Europe, predominantly the United Kingdom, Germany, Austria, France, Spain, Switzerland and Poland – the countries which demonstrated considerable changes in their approach to foreign language education at the new millennium.

At the end of the 20th century, communicative language teaching in real-life context became the prevailing approach in Europe. Another significant and related trend marking this period was the creation and application of universal standards for foreign language education, both in foreign language teaching and testing. In reference to these standards, in 2001, the Council of Europe published its "Common Framework Reference for Language: Learning, Teaching, and Assessment," which emphasized the importance of sociocultural contexts, attitudes, values, ideas, and patterns of social interaction.

In the 21st century, these trends continued and superceded the so-called "Standards Project," progressing beyond task-level instruction and genre-based curriculum. They were later modified to fit the post-methodology atmosphere and promote the further development of "learner autonomy" and "constructivist" formulas within extremely flexible curricula or post-curricula.

At the same time, numerous other changes in foreign language education took place with the appearance of new or modified online resources, research tools, strategies, and multimedia technologies that enhance cross-cultural communication, motivation and collaboration. Developments also continued in Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL). New technology-based requirements have fostered a different era of development for foreign language education programs.

The final section of the paper will discuss what the future trends may be for foreign language teaching in Europe.

In the past 20 years, there was a significant development of various approaches and methods in foreign language education. Some educators (Richards and Rodgers, 2001; Kumaravadivelu, 2003; Shaw, 2007) refer to these as post-methodology and post-curricula areas. While some post methods were short-lived, others grew steadily and had an impact on contemporary trends of foreign language education. What ultimately resulted from this diversity was

a variety of communicative language teaching methodologies. These further developed in new directions, in some part due to criticisms regarding the overall lack of basic linguistic foundations.

The Council of Europe has strived to standardize the learning of languages across Europe since the 1990s to find a common basis for methodological diversity in the field of foreign language education. At the time of the new millennium, standardization attempts in the education policy of the European Union were evident in the documents of the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe as well as the Parliamentary Assembly of the Council of Europe, presented in J.C. Beacco and M. Byram (2002). The European Union's main collection of language teaching guidelines, *Modern Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment. A Common European Framework of Reference* (Council of Europe, 1996) – later revised as *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching,* Assessment (Council of Europe, 2001) – has had significant impact on European language policies, especially in view of the fact that Central and Eastern European countries have joined the European Union and are adjusting their education systems to meet the Council of Europe's standards.

The European Union education policy also incorporated ideas from projects by the Council for Cultural Cooperation, the European Commission, and the Graz Center. These projects produced documents such as: *Waystage* (van Ek and Trim, 1990) and *Threshold Level* (van Ek and Trim, 1991), which described level-based objectives for European languages; *Transparency and Coherence in Language Learning in Europe: Objectives, Evaluation, Certification.* Report on the Rüschlikon Symposium (Council of Europe, 1992); *Education for Democratic Citizenship: A Lifelong Learning Perspective* (Birzea, 2000); *Approaches to Materials Design in European Textbooks* (Fenner and Newby, 2000); and *SOCRATES Compendium 1998 – Lingua Action D – Development of Language Teaching and Assessment Instruments* (European Commission, 1998, ongoing projects).

Many of the above language teaching policies have been included in the official document, *The Importance of Teaching: The School's White Paper* (Council of Europe, 2010). The "White Paper" proposes reforming education and outlines the steps necessary to introduce a general reform in England. It emphasizes substantial structural change and strict adherence to standards. It also outlines a new direction for curriculum and teacher development.

Standardization of Language Education across Europe

The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment (hereafter abbreviated as CEFR or simply the *Framework),* according to its introduction, is a planning instrument that establishes "a common basis for the explicit description of objectives, content and methods" (p. 1). Its aim is to provide "the means for educational administrators, course designers, teachers, teacher trainers, examining bodies, etc. to reflect on their current practice, with a view to situating and coordinating their efforts and to ensuring that they meet the real needs of learners" (p. 1). The *CEFR* plays an important role in foreign language education in Europe by promoting new skills, practices, assessments and methodological innovations in communicative language teaching as well as modern approaches to designing teaching programs. It has prompted educational reforms in many European countries.

The *CEFR* creates the categories needed for the description of language use and covers the domains and situations that provide the context for its use. The latter include: the themes, tasks and purposes of communication;

communicative activities, strategies and processes; and, above all, the objectives of learning foreign languages. The *CEFR* is also used for "the elaboration of curriculum guidelines, syllabuses, examinations [and] textbooks across Europe" (p. 1). In many respects, in its views on language learning and assessment, it shares numerous similarities with the ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines and ILR scale developed by the United States.

According to the *CEFR,* one of its goals is to describe the levels of proficiency in accordance with existing standards, tests and examinations in order to facilitate comparisons and conformity within different educational systems. The *Framework* divides students into three broad categories, which are subdivided into six levels:

A   BASIC SPEAKER
A1 Breakthrough or beginner
A2 Waystage or elementary

B   INDEPENDENT SPEAKER
B1 Threshold or pre-intermediate
B2 Vantage or intermediate

C   PROFICIENT SPEAKER
C1 Effective Operational Proficiency or upper intermediate
C2 Mastery or advanced corresponding to the top examination objectives adopted by ALTE (Association of Language Testers in Europe)

There is a definite link between these levels and the ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines, the ILR scale, as well as the ALTE Framework five-level system, which may be represented as follows:

ILR	ACTFL	Council of Europe	ALTE
0/0+/1	Novice (Low/Mid/High)	A1	Breakthrough Level
1+	Intermediate (Low/Mid/High)	A2	1
2	Advanced Low	B1	2
2+	Advanced Mid	B2	3
3/3+	Advanced High	C1	4
4	Superior	C2	5

There is also correspondence between the difficulty of test items under the CEFR and ILR standards (the subject of a study by G. Buck, S. Papageorgiou and F. Platzek, 2008).

In Europe, according to the Council of Europe publication, *Reference Level Descriptors for National and Regional Languages* (2007), the new strategy for the development of reference language descriptors (RLDs) was initially implemented for the German language by a tri-national author team on the initiative of the Goethe Institute in *Profile Deutsch* (2005). This document identifies the German linguistic elements corresponding to the competence descriptors of the six CEFR levels (A1, A2, B1, B2, and C1, C2). The complete RLDs for Spanish (A1-A2, B1-B2, C1-C2) have been developed by the Instituto Cervantes. A French and international team established the first reference descriptions for French in *Le Niveau B2* (2004) and *Le Niveau A1* (2006). The French project is being conducted in cooperation with the Centre International d'Études Pédagogiques (CIEP) [International Educational Research Centre] and the Organisation Internationale de la Francophonie (AIF) [Intergovernmental Agency of the French-Speaking World].

The CEFR appendices deal with detailed aspects of scaling. Appendix A presents an extensive discussion on developing proficiency descriptors. Appendix B provides information regarding the Swiss project that developed the scaling descriptors for the Framework. It contains detailed illustrative scales of the descriptors with characteristic examples of communicative activities, strategies, "working with text," communicative language competence, and "language proficiency used as sources." Appendices C and D display scales developed by other agencies. Appendix C contains a useful DIALANG language assessment system with a focus on self-assessment. In addition to examples of self-assessment, the system includes language tests and feedback in 14 European languages. Appendix D contains the ALTE "CAN DO" framework of proficiency levels. The scales are precise and include numerous detailed examples. Self-assessment statements, in particular, may help students determine their proficiency level and shed light on how they may improve it.

According to the authors of the *Framework*, its aim is not to prescribe a particular method of teaching a given language but, rather, to consider the processes of language learning and teaching and to present methodological options. As a result, most of the existing methodological approaches have been accommodated within the *CEFR*. The main concept of the *CEFR* is a combination of learner-centered, action-oriented and task-based approaches built on communicative language competences.

The *CEFR* emphasizes competences comprising linguistic, sociolinguistic and pragmatic components. It outlines general competences, such as declarative knowledge, sociocultural knowledge, intercultural awareness, and "existential" competence. The latter is characterized by values, beliefs, attitudes, motivations, learning styles, and personality aspects. The *CEFR* also presents strategies and skills. Social and intercultural skills include "cultural sensitivity and the ability to identify and use a variety of strategies for contact with those from other culture" and "the capacity to fulfill the role of cultural intermediary… and to deal effectively with cultural misunderstanding and conflict situations." (p.104). Meanwhile, study skills comprise heuristic skills, such as the ability of the learner to come to terms with new experiences and new ways of behaving, observe, grasp the significance of what is being observed, and make inferences (p.108).

The *Framework* presents intercultural communicative competence not only as a tool necessary for those who want to communicate with people from another culture or country in a foreign language but also as an expression of emotions and attitudes. It stresses the central role of the affective elements in foreign and second language education. The *CEFR* samples of sociolinguistic, pragmatic and functional competences are particularly noteworthy for stressing cultural behaviors, such as "positive" and "negative" politeness, impoliteness, flexibility to circumstances, turn-taking, and interaction schemata.

To a certain degree, the *Framework* reflects what J.C. Beacco, and M. Byram (2002) consider to be the three main objectives of the European language policy: a pragmatic objective emphasizing exchange of ideas; an intercultural objective focusing on awareness of regional and social differences within cultures; and a socio-political objective supporting linguistic diversity.

Communication and Culture

The idea underlying the *CEFR* as well as most European language education publications is that communication and culture are essentially blended together. The concept of intermingling language and culture in foreign language teaching has been called "teaching-and-learning language-and-culture" by Michael Byram, professor emeritus of the University of Durham

(1998). Culture provides context not only for all aspects of communication but also for the interpretation of explicit and implicit ideas. These links between context and culture as well as the concept of intercultural communication have been extensively discussed by Byram in numerous books and papers, most recently in *From Foreign Language Education to Education for Intercultural Citizenship* (2011) and also *Intercomprehension: Intercultural Competence and Foreign Language Teaching* (2010). The Council of Europe's *European Language Portfolio* (1997), also known as the ELP, has provided a format in which, according to the *CEFR*, "learning and intercultural experiences of the most diverse kinds can be recorded and formally recognized" (p. 5).

In chapter six of his book *Defining Issues in English Language Teaching* (2003), devoted to teaching English for Special Purposes, Henry Widdowson, the international authority in the field of language teaching and learning, and the Oxford University Press applied linguistics adviser whose lectures and classes I have once had the pleasure of attending, analyzes close relationships between language, communication and culture. He demonstrates the impact of shared values, knowledge and different contextualizations of reality on language teaching and learning. According to Widdowson, students require broader general knowledge that is not limited to specific language domains. In fact, some educators speculate that the intercultural approach to foreign language methodology may replace traditional communicative competence (Alptekin, 2002).

I agree that there is nothing more distracting and detrimental to an original language than literal interpretation without attention to broader cultural and sociolinguistic meaning. Interpretation of hidden meanings, which is an important component of advanced language education, often varies depending on cultural background. In real-life communication, the listener or interlocutor uses his knowledge of culture and sociolinguistics to make implications with regard to the hidden intended meaning. In her books on semantics and pragmatics (1999, 2002, 2005), K. Jaszczolt, professor of linguistics and philosophy of language at the Department of Linguistics, University of Cambridge, and director of Studies in Linguistics at Newham College, Cambridge, proposes "merger representations" of speakers' implied meaning. Such representations combine the output of various sources, thereby shifting interpretation from the level of syntax to the level of sociolinguistics. In her interview for J. Ciesla of the Polish magazine *Polityka* (2012), Jaszczolt gives examples of possible interpretations of hidden but intended meaning. For example, if in a café environment, a person says he has 18 Polish zloties, it does not mean he only has that amount of money on him. It implies that he has money for two coffees – for himself and his companion as well. On the other hand, if somebody says he loves Leonardo, it likely implies he likes Leonardo da Vinci, although in certain circumstances it may suggest admiration for Leonardo DiCaprio.

Jaszczolt stresses that the concept of time and, subsequently, tenses also differ between languages and cultures. For example, in both Polish and English, the present tense is used to denote the future in statements such as "I am arriving in Lodz at 15 hours" (*Polityka*, 2012, p. 89), if a person is convinced that an occurrence will really happen. Some languages do not represent a concept of time at all, leaving it to be inferred from the context. For example, the Thai expression "rain to fall" is translated as "it is raining" (*Polityka,* 2012, p. 89). According to Jaszczolt (2009), there is no real flow of time; everything is relative. Our temporal concepts of past, present and future possible occurrences depend on various degrees of certainty and commitment to the truth (2012, p. 9). In her opinion, grammar, lexicon and pragmatic inferences interact differently in different languages and cultures.

In their in-depth study *Foreign Language Teaching in 19 Countries* (2000), I. Pufahl, N.C. Rhodes and D. Christian emphasize the importance of intercultural communicative learning. They note, "In Denmark, Germany, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Peru, and Spain, a focus on communicative and intercultural learning has not only stimulated a productive discussion of teaching objectives, methods, and underlying rationales that are now reflected in curricula and textbooks but has also resulted in increased oral and written proficiency for [their] students" (p. 40). This intercultural context is further emphasized in curriculum and textbook projects not only in Western Europe but also in a number of countries in Central and Eastern Europe, such as Bulgaria, Romania, the Czech Republic, Poland, Latvia and Lithuania.

Culture and language are also dominant themes of various popular contemporary journals and materials on language and education. These include: *Humanising Language Teaching; Language Learning Journal; Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development; Journal of International and Intercultural Communication; Journal of Pragmatics; Intercultural Pragmatics; English Teaching Professional; Modern English Teacher; and the European Commission Socrates Lingua LOKI* (Integration through Language and Culture project for the four Central European countries of Poland, Rumania, Czech Republic and Hungary).

Plurilingualism and Pluriculturalism
English as a "Lingua Franca"

According to the *CEFR*, "A given individual does not have a collection of distant or separate competences to communicate depending on the languages he/she knows but rather a plurilingual and pluricultural competence encompassing the full range of languages available to him/her" (p. 168).

The plurilingual approach stresses the fact that an individual's experience of language and its cultural background stretches from his/her native language to the languages of people from other cultures or with different norms of social behavior. This approach creates a communicative component in which languages of speakers of different cultures may interact.

The *CEFR* devotes considerable attention to plurilingualism and emphasizes that, in recent years, this concept has grown in importance in the Council of Europe's approach to language learning. According to *The Guide for the Development of Language Education Policies in Europe* (Council of Europe, 2007), "Policies for language education should therefore promote the learning of several languages for all individuals in the course of their lives, so that Europeans actually become plurilingual and intercultural citizens, able to interact with other Europeans in all aspects of their lives" (p. 51).

This approach is significant because, since the beginning of the 21st century, the role of foreign languages has grown steadily throughout Europe. Moreover, English has become the "lingua franca," the international language. In reference to this new global role of English and its implications for English instruction, Widdowson states in the final chapter of *A History of English Language Teaching* (Howatt with Widdowson, 2004), titled *Perspectives on Recent Trends*: "Recent years… have seen the signs of an increasing recognition that the nature of English as an international language calls for a reconsideration of the assumption that learner objectives must necessarily be predicated as native speaker norms… The aim in view is some kind of reduction of the language in the interests of pedagogic efficiency and more effective communicative use" (p. 361).

Beyond Standardization
Building on the Knowledge of Previous or Concurrent Foreign Languages

Educators in many European countries believe that not only the first language should be considered as a foundation to build second language proficiency but also knowledge of the second language can enhance development of the third or subsequent languages. The idea of building on the first or subsequent languages was considered to be a successful approach by respondents of the already mentioned study by Pufahl, Rhodes and Christian (2001). It has also been widely discussed in Major Richard S. Dabrowski's article, *Language Education and the War on Terrorism* (2002), which reviews recent research claims that bilinguals are generally better able to acquire a third language than monolinguals. According to Dabrowski, "Preparedness for trilingualism or multilingualism may be the best way for the Department of Defense to maintain readiness to respond to changed language requirements in a time of crisis" (p. 32). The study, *Teaching English as a Third Language* (2007), by Ulrike Jessner from the University of Innsbruck, Austria, and Jasone Cenoz from the University of the Basque Country, Spain, also discusses the effect of bilingualism on third language acquisition.

The above subjects were recently covered at the Seventh International Conference on Third Language Acquisition and Multilingualism (University of Warsaw, September 15-17, 2011). The conference program included the following key presentations: *The Past, the Present and the Future of Mono-, Pluri- and Multilingualism in Poland* (Hanna Komorowska, Warsaw School of Social Sciences and Humanities); *Report on Two New Projects: L3-Text Competencies and Whole School Policy* (Britta Hufeisen, Technical University of Darmstadt, Germany); *European Centre for Modern Languages in Graz: Promoting Inclusive, Plurilingual and Intercultural Education* (Waldemar Martyniuk, Council of Europe, European Centre for Modern Languages, Graz, Austria); and *Reconciling Group Tendencies and Individual Variation in the Acquisition of L2 and L3* (Terence Odlin, Ohio State University, USA).

According to the *CEFR*, the objectives and their progression in each of the foreign languages do not have to be identical since multilingual and multicultural competence is generally uneven. Moreover, the *CEFR* states, "All knowledge of a language is partial, however much of a 'mother tongue' or 'native language' it seems to be. It is always incomplete" (p. 169). The notion of partial knowledge or competence is important to the Framework approach. As the *CEFR* puts it, "The aim of language education… is no longer seen as to achieve 'mastery' of one or two, or even three languages, each taken in isolation with the 'ideal native speaker' as the ultimate model" (p. 5). This means that the methodology of teaching the third language on the basis of the second may be different from that employed to teach the second language on the basis of the first. The *Framework* advises that, when two or more languages are taught, they do not have to follow similar methods or curricula.

To summarize, the plurilingualism principles listed by the Council of Europe in the *CEFR* show that standardization need not apply to as great a degree if more than one foreign language is taught.

This concludes the introductory sections of the review of recent European trends in foreign language education. In the next issue of *The Dialog on Language Instruction,* examples of activities proposed by the European educators will be shown.

On behalf of the Academic Journals' editor-in-chief, I would like to invite our readers to share their ideas on the subject of foreign language

education. Let us know what are the peculiarities, successes or pitfalls of foreign language education in your country of origin. What innovative factors are related to success in foreign language education there? Is there a common education policy or framework that provides guidance to foreign language educators, or are there instead tertiary institutions that determine the scope and nature of foreign language learning? In your opinion, should there be a planning instrument that provides a common basis for describing objectives, approaches or assessments at all? Do you think it would have a positive or negative impact on foreign language education? Do educators in your country believe that one should use students' knowledge of other foreign languages as the basis to develop competencies to learn a new foreign language – in other words, does it make sense to build on knowledge of previous languages? Do you think communicative and intercultural learning contributes to the success of foreign language education? What can we learn from your country's experience with foreign language education? We welcome you to weigh in and answer any or all of these questions or even pose some of your own. We would very much appreciate your input in our foreign language forum.

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Foreign Area Officer in Action
Interview with Colonel Danial D. Pick

Lidia Woytak
Academic Journals

Colonel Danial D. Pick, US Army, currently serves as Commandant/ Commander of Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) at the Presidio of Monterey. COL Pick graduated from the University of Washington in 1987. He entered active duty as a military intelligence officer and served as a scout platoon leader and battalion S2 in 3rd Battalion, 66th Armor Regiment in Garlstedt, Germany, deploying to Operations Desert Shield/ Storm in January 1991 as S2 3/66 Armor Battalion.

Following graduation from the Military Intelligence Officer Advance Course, COL Pick served with 1st Special Forces Group (Airborne) as Commander, Military Intelligence Detachment and Group S2.

COL Pick became a Middle East Foreign Area Officer (FAO) in 1996. His FAO assignments include: Kuwaiti Land Forces Advisor, OMC-Kuwait; FAO Assignment Officer, Army Human Resources Command, WA D.C.; Executive Officer, Human Intelligence Team, 2nd Battalion, 10th Special Forces Group (Airborne), Northern Iraq; Army Attaché, U.S. Embassy, Amman, Jordan; Policy Officer, Office of the Secretary of Defense; and FAO Program Director, Defense Language Institute.

COL Pick holds a Bachelor of Arts degree in Near Eastern Languages and Civilization from the University of Washington, a Master of Military Studies from Marine Corps University, Quantico, and a Master of Arts degree in Near Eastern Studies from Princeton University. He speaks Arabic, Persian-Farsi, Persian-Dari, and Assyrian. He is a graduate of Marine Corps Command and Staff College, Defense Language Institute Basic Arabic Course, Jumpmaster Course, Military Intelligence Officer Basic and Advance Courses, Ranger School and Airborne School.

His decorations include the Combat Action Badge, Bronze Star Medal with oak leaf cluster, and Iraq Campaign Medal with arrowhead device.

COL Pick is a student of the Middle East and enjoys running, skiing, and climbing.

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Dr. Woytak: As a career FAO, could you tell us, especially younger readers aspiring to such a position, about this specialty in the military?

Colonel Pick: An FAO is an officer trained in the language, culture, geography, history and economics of a particular part of the world. In my opinion, there is no better specialty anywhere if a person enjoys speaking foreign languages and working in foreign environments.

Dr. Woytak: Could you tell us about your activities in Kuwait, Iraq, and Jordan from linguistic and cultural perspective?

Colonel Pick: My assignment in Kuwait was the first one for me in the Middle East after I graduated from the Arabic Basic Course at DLI. There, I really

cemented my language ability and worked closely with the Kuwaiti Military, as well as learned about the functioning of a U.S. Embassy. During that time, I also traveled around the region. In Iraq, of course, in 2003, in a combat environment, I used not only my Arabic, which I learned in the DLI, but also my Persian-Farsi, which I studied at the University of Washington, and my Aramaic which I learned at home growing up. I used all these languages in a fairly complex, unconventional warfare environment in Northern Iraq. It was a remarkable opportunity for a FAO.

In Jordan, my role again was to work with a host-nation military from the U.S. Embassy in Amman. I relied on my Arabic and my understanding of Middle Eastern cultures, which I had received in no small part here at the DLI.

Dr. Woytak: How come you were speaking Aramaic at home?

Colonel Pick: I spoke Aramaic at home because my mother is Assyrian, and that was her native tongue.

Dr. Woytak: Did speaking a second language at home make it easier for you to acquire other foreign languages?

Colonel Pick: It definitely helped. It tuned my ear to some of the sounds that Semitic languages make. I also believe that growing up bilingual aided me with language learning in general.

Dr. Woytak: I am glad you are pointing out that growing up bilingual had a positive impact on your career. Such belief provides additional support to research indicating that bilingual children have a linguistic and an intellectual advantage over the monolingual ones. Let's hope that bilingual parents who are reluctant to use their native languages at home, take to heart your comment.

Has your understanding of Middle Eastern cultures evolved through daily encounters with the local population or from academia?

Colonel Pick: It has evolved from both. It did from a practical sense, as I lived and worked in the Middle East, through interaction with militaries and societies in the Arabic-speaking world. The foundation was really here at DLI and in my graduate studies, where I learned the Arabic language and learned about the religions, ethnicities and history of the region, as well as learning the language.

Dr. Woytak: Did you go through a "culture shock" when you arrived in Iraq, Jordan or Kuwait, or was everything occurring as expected?

Colonel Pick: No, I certainly would say it was not as I expected. Despite tremendous training at the DLI, living in Middle Eastern culture exposed me to a variety of customs and traditions that were very different from my own. Some of them were easier than others to adapt to and to live with, frankly, but I learned through those experiences in the Middle East and grew from them intellectually.

Dr. Woytak: What in particular left a lasting impression of your stay in the Middle East?

Colonel Pick: I would say the remarkable warmth of the cultures and the common elements of humanity, such as dignity and respect and the desire to live safely and see one's children prosper. There were commonalities that I saw

on a human level and a warmth of culture and history that I find remarkable to this day.

Dr. Woytak: Could you give us an example from your experience in witnessing a common elements of humanity?

Colonel Pick: When I lived in Jordan, for example, some dear friends (who became dear friends while I was there) invited us to their home. My wife did not speak Arabic, and she was taken into a room with the ladies, none of whom spoke English. I was taken to another part of the house with the men. I enjoyed my stay very much. We met during the dinner meal. And then when we left, I was struck by my wife saying, "It didn't matter that I didn't speak Arabic and they didn't speak English. We were able to communicate about our children, about our families in a way that made the language barrier much less formidable. "

Dr. Woytak: In your opinion, did the Iraqi, Kuwaiti, or Jordanian people have a basic understanding of U.S. culture?

Colonel Pick: I think that many nationalities, including the Kuwaiti, Jordanian and Iraqi, learn about U.S. culture through the media, through our film, through the Internet, and through television. Thus they perceive a skewed image of our culture, as we do of theirs. Such reality makes the work of the DLI graduates and, in   particular, the Foreign Area Officers all the more important. The bottom line is that we serve as ambassadors of our culture as well as our nation.

Dr. Woytak: You speak Arabic, Persian-Farsi, Persian-Dari and Aramaic. How did you learn these languages, and what language skills seem to be the most difficult to master?

Colonel Pick: As I mentioned, I learned Arabic here at DLI, Persian-Farsi at the University of Washington, and Dari during deployment – which is very much like Farsi and Aramaic growing up. I will say this: The intensity of the language study at DLI was unlike anything I had experienced before, even though I was a four-year university language major in Persian-Farsi. The depth and the intensity of the course of study at the DLI in Arabic was the most rigorous I ever experienced. I found this intensity the most challenging, but it also took me to the highest level of proficiency.

Dr. Woytak: What in particular enhanced your communication in these languages? And what kind of difficulties have you encountered in communicating with native speakers?

Colonel Pick: Living in the Middle East was the best thing for my language ability. Of course, the challenge of living in the Middle East is that Arabs speak their own dialects of Arabic These dialects are usually very different from Modern Standard Arabic. So one of the challenges that I had was learning the local dialect, whether it was Kuwaiti, Iraqi, or Jordanian.

Dr. Woytak: What linguistic skills helped you the most to function in these countries using host languages?

Colonel Pick: The DLI curriculum prepared me to speak Modern Standard Arabic throughout the Arabic-speaking world. The challenge I had was adapting to the local dialects. The curriculum here, however, especially in speaking and

listening, prepared me well to communicate efficiently anywhere I was posted in the Middle East.

Dr. Woytak: Were you tasked in those countries to translate or to interpret?

Colonel Pick: When I was in Kuwait after graduating from the DLI, I had the occasion to interpret for a U.S. general during a conference – simultaneous with an Arabic speaker – and I found it enormously challenging.

Dr. Woytak: How would you compare the difficulty of performance in these skills versus the ones in speaking, reading, and writing?

Colonel Pick: I believe that translation and interpretation are much more difficult than simply speaking, listening, or reading a language. I think of translation and interpretation as skill sets – in addition to fluency in speaking, reading and listening – that have to be learned and practiced.

Dr. Woytak: Do you practice any foreign languages with your wife and children over the dinner table?

Colonel Pick: No. We spoke a little bit of Arabic when we were in Jordan, but for the most part, no.

Dr. Woytak: Actually my daughter asked me to pose that question..

Colonel Pick: Well to give you a bit of expansion for your daughter's sake, my son is studying Japanese, and my daughter will study French beginning next year. So we've all chosen our own paths that are different.

Dr. Woytak: What impact has your proficiency in these languages had on your performance as a commandant? How has your background as a linguist helped you be a better commandant?

Colonel Pick: My experience as a student and graduate of the Defense Language Institute has helped me enormously in being a commandant. Fifteen months of Modern Standard Arabic convinced me that good teaching is the most important thing there is at the DLI. And a motivated and able student is the next most important thing here at the DLI. Everything else we do in terms of curriculum, technology and good tests and that sort of thing is important – [these are] important enablers – but because I experienced the quality of teachers that I experienced here at the DLI, I came to appreciate the irreplaceability of quality instructors.

Dr. Woytak: How would you prioritize DLI goals?

Colonel Pick: Similar to what I just said. The production of Basic Course Professional Linguists. In other words, graduates from our basic course that are professional linguists are the top priority of the Defense Language Institute. And doing that well to a standard Proficiency Level of *2, 2, 1+* and pushing to a goal of *2+, 2+, 2,* with a career goal of *3, 3, 3.*

Dr. Woytak: Achieving Proficiency Levels *3, 3, 3* in Listening, Speaking, and Reading is extremely hard.

Colonel Pick: It's very difficult to do. It is our top goal, whether through our basic courses or through our intermediate and advanced courses and Defense Threat Reduction Agency (DTRA) courses. The next goal is the instruction, enhancement and the sustainment that we do at our language training detachments and the instruction we provide to General Purpose Forces and Special Operations Forces. Then below that instruction is all of the support that is critical to enabling the basic course, intermediate and advanced courses and LTD training, such as technology, curriculum development, faculty development, and all of the online materials that we've produced that allow the sustainment and enhancement to occur.

Dr. Woytak: Over the years, a number of leadership styles have evolved in our society, and some of them had an impact on the military concept of leadership. How do you view the concept of leadership? Is it a constant, or does it change depending on a position?

Colonel Pick: Leadership has certain constants, such as clearly defining mission, priorities and organizing around those priorities to best accomplish them. But it also has intangibles that are extraordinarily important – motivation, morale, esprit, cohesion, trust, loyalty. All of these intangibles contribute to an organization's ability to perform as well as DLI has performed over the years.

Dr. Woytak: You seem to be at home at the Institute and have an ease in delegating authority to the people in various areas of specialty. Under your leadership, the Institute was able to provide Japanese Language Survival Kits within 72 hours of the earthquake and tsunami disasters. It's a big accomplishment. Do you believe that the Institute or any other entity needs to be prepared for the unexpected? What is an effective way for us to prepare?

Colonel Pick: We absolutely have to be prepared for the unexpected. With an organization with the size and scope of the Defense Language Institute, with 30 permanent locations around the world and a significant presence in the virtual realm, the DLI has to be adaptable. In fact, the Institute needs to be fluid. The way we maintain that kind of adaptability is, first and foremost, through our own psychology of understanding that change is inevitable and adapting with change in a way that meets the new mission effectively and also by setting in place mechanisms to help us be agile. We've established the curriculum working group and the test working group that meet with all stake holders every other month to try to ensure that we have clear and open communications and to be forward-looking so that we can anticipate change and thereby be as adaptable and flexible as we can be.

Dr. Woytak: You seem to have confidence and trust in people who work for you. In this issue of *Dialog on Language Instruction*, we have an article on "Interpersonal Trust and Willingness to Communicate" by Colonel Rocky Tyler. Could you share your opinion on personal trust with regard to language training and work environment? How important is willingness to communicate in a language acquisition setting?

Colonel Pick: Trust and communication are essential in any organization. They're certainly essential here at DLI. The group of professionals that we have gathered here are second to none. Their ability to adapt to changing DOD (Department of Defense) requirements, especially given our current fiscal environment, is really a demonstration of their ability to have trust and confidence in the leadership. And certainly that's a two-way street. We are

faced with unique challenges given the budget climate, and I think it speaks well for this institution's ability to communicate and to have trust that we are adapting as well as we are to those realities.

Dr. Woytak: Do you think that our students have adequate technological means to learn languages? Could there be room for improvement?

Colonel Pick: Of course. There can always be room for improvement in technology, in classroom and outside the classroom, in terms of sustenance material. But I will say that what our students have today is a far better set of technological tools than certainly I had when I was studying here. And we continue to make tremendous progress on migrating the Institute to an ".edu network", which will further enable the academic mission and strip away the constraints that we suffer under a military network.

Dr. Woytak: True, because sometimes it's hard to gain access to certain authentic programs.

Colonel Pick: Absolutely. We shouldn't have those constraints placed unnecessarily on this mission.

Dr. Woytak: So ".*edu*" will partially solve that problem?

Colonel Pick: We think so. And then continuing to adapt technology to a student- centered environment, and training not only our students but especially our faculty on how best to use that technology, will continue to be a very important aspect.

Dr. Woytak: How important, in your opinion, is using current, relevant, authentic materials in the DLI curricula?

Colonel Pick: Critical, I would say, particularly at the higher levels of proficiency. But as you probably know, we start with authentic material very early on in the basic course. Our ability to take authentic materials – whether they are from SCOLA (Satellite Communications for Learning) or other means – and infuse them into the curriculum in a measured productive way is a vital part of producing a fully qualified linguist.

Dr. Woytak: Sometimes textbooks seem to be a little bit bland. Whenever you have authentic material, however, you always find an extra content in it, like almost another dimension.

Colonel Pick: It's true. Now the difficulty with authentic material – again it goes back to a good teacher – there has to be a text-typology applied to it. It has to be appropriate not only for the level but also the content and nature of the subject matter relative to the various students. Thus good teachers could take terrific authentic material and really enhance their students' performance.

Dr. Woytak: According to your experience, how helpful are "virtual" or "blended" language programs in the classroom and online?

Colonel Pick: I'm a big fan of blended delivery of language learning. I've used Broadband Language Training System (BLTS) to sustain my Arabic Language outside of DLI – having an instructor at the DOD Center – and I've found that the virtual environment gives me the ability to interact with a real

DLI instructor but also to do my homework on my own and to have access to quality online materials that are so much better than what I remember in the past. Thus DLI has really come a long way in this regard.

Dr. Woytak: What have been your most significant achievements during your leadership at the Institute?

Colonel Pick: I would say that our success in moving the Institute to an academic network certainly ranks among our top achievements. I think it will enable and touch all aspects of DLI's mission, and it's a significant move to improve our ability to deliver top notch foreign language education here and anywhere in the world. The establishment of the Defense Curriculum Working Group, building on my predecessor's Testing Working Group, I think has also allowed us a venue to communicate with all stakeholders and try to be proactive and agile. So we take great pride in that as well.

Dr. Woytak: That's great. Consorting with people who are actually going to rely on our graduates.

Colonel Pick: Exactly.

Dr. Woytak: What steps are you taking to make our entering students aware of the road ahead towards graduation and beyond?

Colonel Pick: I personally speak to every student that arrives at DLI before they start class. I do so at the Weckerling Center at the joint in-processing briefings. I talk about the honor to have been selected as a student at the Defense Language Institute and some of the challenges that they may face – that I certainly faced as a student – as they embark on their journey. And I try to set the conditions optimistically but realistically to give them the best chance of success. The Student Learning Center is another vital piece in preparing our students before they start language study by helping them learn how they learn – learning about their learning styles and setting a baseline for various grammatical terms. I never knew what a gerund was when I arrived here as an Arabic student, but I think it helps to provide these basic grammatical terms to our students because many of them don't learn them in public school.

Dr. Woytak: What is the Institute doing to achieve high proficiency levels?

Colonel Pick: We are working on a range of issues: from continuing to recruit and retain and train the best faculty possible; to ensuring the students who arrive here are the best they can be and their duty day is structured in such a way that it maximizes their chance for success; to providing the best curriculum through curriculum reviews and periodic curriculum updates (Persian-Farsi is underway now); to increasing the quality of the technology in the classroom, such as the ".edu network" we discussed.

Dr. Woytak: How frequently is each of the languages being reviewed?

Colonel Pick: It's a constant process from one to the other.

Dr. Woytak: What is your view on rewarding students for language skills?

Colonel Pick: I think it's very important to adequately reward proficiency, whether that be foreign language proficiency pay-based on a DLPT (Defense

Language Proficiency Test) score, promotion points for some of our GPF, or any other kind of recognition. It's a vital skill for national security. It takes a tremendous amount of time to learn it. Providing an incentive for having that language skill is an important way of retaining it in the force.

Dr. Woytak: How can the Institute help more its graduates retain languages they acquired?

Colonel Pick: I think what we do in terms of GLOSS – the Global Online Support System – and the language training detachments and all of the other sustenance quality and sustenance material with training events – all of those sustenance and enhancement products and mechanisms are a vital way that DLI contributes to professional linguists in maintaining and even improving their language ability.

Dr. Woytak: How is the Institute helping to minimize stress placed on the students?

Colonel Pick: By ensuring that the classroom time is effectively used. By ensuring that there is good communication between the school and the service units. And by providing the students with opportunities to relax – whether that be inter-mural sports, quality gymnasium facilities, morale welfare and recreation opportunities to see concerts or visit the Monterey area at decent prices, having our Chapel Services available and ready to work with our students when they are having challenges, as well as taking care of their families. Everything we do to take care of our married service members' families helps alleviate some stress from what is really a rigorous course of study. I can attest to that as being an Arabic basic course graduate.

Dr. Woytak: You enjoy running, climbing and skiing. Do you find the Monterey Peninsula conducive to your hobbies? How important are sports for the overall well-being of our students and faculty?

Colonel Pick: Monterey is paradise. I find Monterey to offer a wide variety of ways to relax that I enjoy and many others enjoy. I think that sports and physical activity are a vital part of managing stress. I tell every group and every student before they start, when I talk to them, to take full advantage of the beauty of this environment – whether it's hiking in the hills, running on the waterfront, surfing, roller blading or whatever it is that they choose to do.

Dr. Woytak: Let us now change the topic to some academic issues. There are several on-going collaborative research projects at the Institute. I believe you participated in the one on memory tasking sponsored by the Provost Office.
      In what way does the training at the Institute benefit from such endeavors? Which areas of language research would you like to target in the future?

Colonel Pick: We benefit enormously from our research programs. What is being done in the areas of cognitive neuroscience and brain fitness is ground breaking, and DLI is an important part of that research. It has been enabled fairly recently in breakthroughs in technology such as the MRI (Magnetic Resonance Imaging), and so the field is still fairly nascent. But the potential for significant payoff from this kind of research, not only in the area of language acquisition at DLI but more broadly in other areas of life – whether its K-12 education, or business–is enormous. It's a very promising field, and we're

excited to be a part of it. I frankly find the research that we are doing with improving the Defense Language Aptitude Battery – which we call the DLAB II – to be incredibly important research, and it is approaching an area where we will actually develop and field this test.

Dr. Woytak: The DLAB II?

Colonel Pick: The DLAB II. So that we can drive down attrition and increase our proficiency outcomes by assessing the right students and thereby bringing less students to the DLI than we currently have to train to get the same or better outputs.

Dr. Woytak: So you can pre-judge who will become a successful student.

Colonel Pick: Exactly. The DLAB currently assesses language aptitude. But it doesn't assess motivation, personality traits and biographical background data. All of those are vital components to student's success.

Dr. Woytak: Especially motivation.

Colonel Pick: Absolutely.

Dr. Woytak: Our institute has been undergoing a transformation from a military school to an academic institution. For over a decade, the Institute has been granting credit for language courses as well as an Associate of Arts degree for completion of courses at the Institute. What impact is this transformation having on our military students and their careers?

Colonel Pick: DLI remains a military school with a robust academic capability. The academic ability to award a two-year Associate of Arts degree in foreign language study, for example, enables our students to get a running start on their higher education. Whereas in the past they would study hard, learn the language and then go to the field, now they study the language with a few additional courses that they can take through our relationships with local colleges and universities, or they can take a test to meet the standard or requirement. They can leave here with an associate degree. It's the only Associates of Arts degree of its kind which is awarded by U.S. Congress, and it speaks volumes for the academic capability and reputation of the institution.

Dr. Woytak: Afterwards they can move on and get a bachelor's degree.

Colonel Pick: Absolutely.

Dr. Woytak: The Institute is growing at a rapid rate. Do you think its development has a consistent and sustainable organic growth rate?

Colonel Pick: The Institute has grown tremendously over the past decade. We've received large amounts of funding and many requirements. As we enter this era of austerity in budgets and governmental spending, the critical evolution for the Defense Language Institute will be to adapt to these new fiscal requirements while not losing critical capability. I'm convinced that we can do that through a hard look at the way that we are structured and the way we produce outcomes. I'm convinced that DLI can maintain its superb academic and professional reputation while adapting to new fiscal realities.

Dr. Woytak: How important, in your opinion, is the role of the academic journals, such as *Applied Language Learning* and *Dialog on Language Instruction*, in providing academic direction and forums for exploring academic issues?

Colonel Pick: Well, I think that's why they are important. I think they're important as venues for professional communication in the field. And certainly as DLI's academic journals, they carry a lot of professional weight in the area of foreign language acquisition, both within the United State's academic community and internationally.

Dr. Woytak: What is your vision for the Institute?

Colonel Pick: My vision for DLI – that it continue to develop and produce the best professional linguists for the least amount of resources possible for the Department of Defense and that it continue to develop the capability to deliver that education anywhere in the world.

Dr. Woytak: Are there any changes you would still like to bring to the Institute and why?

Colonel Pick: I think the change that we will see in the Institute in the coming several years is an adaptation to a fiscally constrained environment, which will cause us to be even more agile and even leaner than we are now while delivering the same high caliber education.

Dr. Woytak: What do you think you can achieve in the coming years?

Colonel Pick: I think that I am halfway through my command tenure, and I think that what I hope to leave my successor two years from now is an institute that is organized in such a way as to be sustainable, affordable, and able to produce the world-class linguist and research and test materials and sustenance and enhancement products that it is known for.

Faculty Exchange

Exploring Teaching the Right Blend of Arabic

Youssef B. Carpenter
Continuing Education

This editorial will make a case for using the kind of blended approach to teaching Arabic that has been successfully implemented at institutions such as Middlebury, where coursework is in Modern Standard and colloquial Arabic in order to develop language proficiency and appropriate usage in both language registers, and the Foreign Service Institute (FSI), where MSA is used for reading and Educated Speaking Arabic (ESA) is the vehicle for speaking. First, it will distinguish between conversational language and broadcast language. Then, it will describe a way of dealing with Arabic registers, specifically colloquial Arabic versus MSA. Next, it will highlight some of the shortfalls students experience with regard to listening and speaking proficiencies.

Final Learning Objectives (FLOs) at the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) play a major part in our basic, intermediate and advanced course curricula. They also provide learners - here, aspiring military linguists - with insight into their future profession. Furthermore, FLOs enable teachers to evaluate student progress in the areas of proficiency, performance, regional studies and ancillaries. In order for learners to be successful in their military occupations, they must be exposed to certain tasks, objectives and content areas related to their target language.

The *FLO Booklet* (2004) articulates the guidance, needs and requirements of DLIFLC's stakeholders, the service branches. The information contained in the *Booklet* is relevant and current in terms of the skills students need to fulfill the demands of future operational commitments. In reference to the Arabic-language training conducted at DLIFLC, the intent of the *FLO Booklet* is to provide guidance regarding the type of language registers that are taught. These registers consist of language usage in formal and informal situations. The term *Arabic* is used in the *Booklet* to refer to both colloquial forms of Arabic and the formal register, Modern Standard Arabic (MSA).

The aim of this editorial is to discuss the key areas of concern that relate to DLIFLC's current approach to teaching Arabic and the FLOs. This analysis is based on my considerable experience and insight. My expertise stems from the following qualifications: teacher at DLIFLC for the last 10 years; former DLIFLC student who graduated with honors 14 years ago; practitioner who

has used Arabic in several target countries; graduate of the Monterey Institute of International Studies (MIIS) holding a Master's Degree in the Teaching of Foreign Languages; and, more importantly, Marine supervising military linguists deployed to key areas in the Middle East.

Conversational Language versus Broadcast Language

After comparing the basic Arabic course curriculums to the FLO guidance, several discrepancies emerge that should not be ignored. According to the *FLO Booklet*, "Students must, with lexical aids and repetition, be able to transcribe: to comprehend and record in writing verbatim renditions in the original language of authentic and naturally delivered conversations or narrations conducted in person or via electronic media" (p. 18 or 21, A.2). The key terms used in the above quotation – *authentic and naturally delivered conversations* – are carefully selected words that relate to real spoken language in everyday discourse in the Arab world. This implies colloquial Arabic, not MSA. It is unfortunate that students are exposed primarily to the formal register, MSA, and not the genuine conversational language. As a result, during real-world encounters with native speakers, our learners experience difficulty and challenges in comprehending their target speakers.

If we examine the FLOs reference, we can see the contrast between *conversational language and broadcast language* (p.21). Conversational is described as "routine conversations between two or more people" normally carried out in an informal register, while broadcast is defined as "a contemporary news broadcast with several news items" that would be done in a formal register. Recently, however, our new curriculum and assessments have taken a very sharp turn towards implementing more media Arabic – in other words, MSA.

Registers in Arabic: Colloquial Arabic versus Modern Standard Arabic

From an educational standpoint, in most cases, students learn a second language so that they can function and interact with target-language speakers. From an operational standpoint, our service members learn a second language, on the macro scale, so that they can contribute to the overall strategic effort that can shape certain areas of our foreign policy. On the micro scale, language knowledge provides key information that benefits deployed service members as well as aids operational planning in various situations.

If students are not exposed to *real, authentic conversational Arabic language* – meaning *colloquial Arabic* – they cannot meet the demanding requirements placed on them in the operational field, whether strategic or tactical. MSA and colloquial Arabic have their respective morphological and phonological constraints; they each have their own grammatical patterns. In other words, the formal register, MSA, is almost its own language within the Arabic language family. Colloquial Arabic is not necessarily a specific dialect of Arabic but, rather, a conversational form of Arabic that is widely used by many Arabs throughout the North African and Middle Eastern regions. There also exists Educated Spoken Arabic (Ryding, 1991), which some refer to as ESA, a very popular and relaxed conversational register that is not too vernacular but widely used and understood by all Arabs. One could view it as Lingua Franca Arabic. Colloquial Arabic is the medium of communication in the Arab world and is the medium of communication for our Arabic teachers here at DLIFLC.

Student Shortfalls

It has been noted that some Arabic students at DLIFLC who are in their third semester of language training in the basic course are unable to comprehend their own teachers interacting with each other. Many of our Arabic teachers come to the United States from various Arab countries. While communicating with their colleagues, they use colloquial Arabic, not MSA. It would make sense to incorporate colloquial Arabic for speaking and listening in our current curricula, especially in the second and third semesters.

Students in the 63-week basic course and likely the intermediate/advanced course are exposed to heavy doses of MSA. This is perfectly suited for teaching reading and writing, especially in the first semester, while our students are developing a language foundation. However, when we move into the speaking and listening skills in the second and third semesters, MSA should no longer be the key component. Colloquial Arabic should become the appropriate and real conversational language. By continuing to expose our learners to the formal register (MSA) in speaking and listening, we further widen the operational linguistic proficiency gap. According to the *FLO Booklet:*

> Accuracy is very important. The student must not only be able to derive the essential meaning of spoken and written texts, but will often have to provide transcripts of spoken texts to others for translation or analysis. The transcriber must be capable of writing a version of the spoken language that is semantically accurate. He or she must know the language well enough to determine word boundaries and to supply elided, dropped or garbled forms which are understood by native speakers and listeners to be present, even though they may not be overtly or clearly articulated. The graduate must recognize and annotate other communicative features (e.g. significant pauses, changes in tone) which may not be readily apparent from a simple verbatim written record of spoken communication (p. 28).

The above excerpt highlights very important aspects of spoken language. Native speakers of Arabic converse in colloquial or conversational Arabic, not MSA. Generally, MSA is used in writing but not in speaking. The question that arises is: why do we expose our learners to conversations and dialogues in MSA when true conversations are conducted in colloquial Arabic?

I had the opportunity to travel to several Arab countries while serving with the United States Marine Corps. These countries included Bahrain, Egypt, Morocco, Saudi Arabia and the United Arab Emirates. In all situations involving speaking and interacting, the medium used was colloquial Arabic. Modern Standard Arabic is widely used in the media/newspaper fields, and, of course, correspondents and certain government officials do indeed converse in the register during formal occasions. However, the *FLO Booklet* has clearly defined the difference between conversational Arabic and media broadcasts. There should be no misunderstanding on what the FLO reference directs.

Currently, our students have been heavily inundated with Arabic media broadcasts but have not been receiving appropriate doses of colloquial Arabic in the speaking and listening tasks. To compound the problem, current assessments such as the Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI) are done in the formal

register. In most cases, the results of the Interagency Language Roundtable (ILR) scores awarded to students do not provide a good predictor of how our students will perform in the *real* Arab world of spoken Arabic.

Speaking in MSA is very closely related to Arabic formal text. It is important to keep in mind that people do not speak in the same formal fashion as they write (formal). Speech acts are normally carried out in short utterances, as opposed to long complete sentences (MSA). Not one of the world's 22 Arab countries utilizes MSA in its everyday communication or interaction. Some linguists and researchers go so far as to classify MSA as a second language for Arabs. The *FLO Booklet* provides ample clarification: "Spoken texts often do not have the elaborate internal coherence typical of written material. Missed or inaccurate communication can have serious consequences in the situations in which cryptologic linguists work" (p. 21).

In order to meet the ever-changing, Arabic-language requirements of the Department of Defense, a balanced approach of MSA and ESA should be adopted in the basic, intermediate and advanced course curricula. In this approach, MSA would be used in reading and writing skills, whereas ESA would be used for speaking and listening. ESA is the answer to the question:"which Arabic dialect should we teach?" This hybrid model can better prepare our graduates to meet operational demands regardless of Arab region or country. Furthermore, this plan does not place a logistical burden on our current infrastructure in the areas of administration, day-to-day school operations and supplies such as books and equipment.

Conclusion

The discrepancies noted above can be corrected. DLI has the faculty, the facilities, and, more importantly, the high-aptitude learners who can achieve high Arabic proficiency and eventually go forth and meet today's challenging operational commitments. Some may argue that the current method of teaching heavy doses of MSA in the speaking and listening skills to our basic course students provides them with a solid language base. However, those who actually have operational experience in the field and understand the Arabic language would simply respond that, while such a short-sighted approach may have been acceptable prior to September 11th; it is no longer a sensible stance.

Our historical guidance from about 10 years ago shows the significance of implementing colloquial, conversational language in the language training programs. However, not much action was taken to incorporate these key items in order to strengthen our students' speaking and listening skills. Let's enlist the assistance of an important document, the National Security Agency letter (pg 12, par 3) of the FLOs reference dated July 7, 1997.

> Specifically, basic course objectives that should receive special attention are: free-flow conversational language, transcription of such material, translation of those tran- scripts, summarizing conversations, reading handwritten, understanding the language conventions of contemporary modes of communication such as email and fax; and, basic understanding of issues in a variety of topic areas, including military, politics, internal stability, trade, international rela- tions, and trans-national issues such as narcotics trafficking and organized crime, particularly as they affect relations between the culture or nations being studied and the United States.

Let's also revisit one the most important sources included in the FLO description: a memorandum signed by Lieutenant General Hayden, the former director of the National Security Agency. He writes:

> Reflecting on the world situation, it is certainly no surprise that Level 2, which implies comprehension of factual, straightforward language, is no longer sufficient to prosecute our targets, who communicate in free-flow **colloquial** speech through a variety of 21st century technologies. Level 3, which implies understanding "between the lines," represents our 21st century challenge (p. 10, par 3).

This memorandum was dated April 3, 2002, shortly after the terrorist attacks on 9/11. Subsequently, DLI began planning and implementing the Proficiency Enhancement Program (PEP) with the aim of improving our students' proficiency and reaching the 2+/2+/2 levels in listening, reading and speaking. At that time, unfortunately, colloquial Arabic did not take center stage nor was it assigned a robust role in the curriculum. Not much has changed since then. On the contrary, more MSA and media broadcasts have been incorporated in the curriculum. Why continue to utilize an Arabic register (MSA) that truly does not meet operational needs? Why continue to teach speaking in MSA when no Arab country utilizes it in its everyday discourse? Why wait to incorporate the right blend of MSA/ESA?

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News and Views

Eleventh Annual Faculty Professional Development Conference

Martine Danan
Persian Farsi School

Dr. Mary Ann Lyman-Hager, "Trans-Cultural, Trans-Lingual Competency: Achievable in Our Time?"

In her keynote speech, Dr. Mary Ann Lyman-Hager presented a spirited and often humorous analysis of the challenges that educational leaders must meet if meaningful foreign language proficiency is to be achieved in the 21st century. Dr. Lyman-Hager embraced Claire Kramsch's plea to teach translingual *and* transcultural competence to adapt language learning to our changed world.[1] To meet the global challenge and ideally create transcultural citizenry, language and culture must be taught as a continuum in a profoundly transformed interdisciplinary curriculum.

Such an ambitious goal remains a daunting task, even with the growing role of computer-assisted language learning and the realization by many of the importance of foreign languages. For example, it is encouraging to note that a number of professional schools in fields as diverse as engineering and medicine are acknowledging the benefits of study-abroad programs. In addition, the Department of Defense has started to focus on language proficiency in grades 7 to 12. But ultimately, significant progress in language learning will depend on the true commitment of leaders. To follow Malcolm Gladwell's influential theory of social change,[2] this means "mavens" bringing out new ideas, "connectors" making the message heard, and "salesmen" convincing others of its importance.

Dr. Lyman-Hager finally reminded her audience that the Language Acquisition Resource Center (under her direction at San Diego State University) offers resources on which the DLI can draw – for instance, in the area of teacher training and credentialing. She concluded with the warning that American students will be left behind unless they realize the significance of transcultural education.

After the plenary session, the choice was difficult among which of the 21 morning and 25 afternoon parallel presentations and workshops to attend. The ones I selected covered a range of interesting subjects, from learning and listening strategies to document design, use of technology, and approaches to grammar instruction.

Judy Zhu, "Learning Strategies in Second Language Acquisition"

Judy Zhu started out by reminding her audience that language learning strategies, according to Rebecca Oxford's definition, apply to any actions students can take to enhance learning, from acquisition and storage to retrieval and use of information.[3] She continued with a brief review of the literature inventorying strategies, which are most useful when they are consciously associated with students' learning styles. Ms. Zhu also showed how she applied learning strategy theories to her work as a Diagnostic Assessment Specialist, whereby she makes students aware of their learning preferences. She finally discussed a student case

study that illustrated how to work with a student who is afraid to guess and gets stuck on information.

It is important for all teachers to expand on the work done by diagnostic assessment specialists and also to teach their students learning strategies, help students develop techniques enabling them to compensate for their weaknesses, and provide tailored instruction to support every type of learner.

Amel Farghaly, Sonia Alexander, Monica LaVelle, "'OK, class, now listen and …'do what?"

How can teachers go beyond the rote instructions, "listen, then transcribe or translate," or "listen, then answer the comprehension questions," typically heard all too often in listening comprehension classes? Or rather, how can instructors turn listening, an elusive and often frustrating activity, into a task as varied and meaningful as possible? Three panelists led a lively, interactive workshop in which they encouraged the audience to think of alternative listening activities before presenting ideas they themselves had implemented. After listening to a passage, for example, students can modify or extend it with a new ending, paraphrase it while changing the register, complete a cloze exercise, or guess vocabulary definitions based on the context. Another type of follow-up activity can involve non-linguistic tasks, such as performing physical actions, drawing pictures or charts, or selecting responses from a list of statements or images.

Turning to listening strategies, the presenters urged the audience to help their students focus on aspects of speech that are most appropriate for their level. As Nunan and Brown have pointed out, beginners can learn to discriminate between phonemes, identify morphological endings, and recognize basic stress patterns, while advanced learners should listen between the lines to make inferences, distinguish differences in registers, or identify the intent of the speaker.[4] Finally, the panelists proposed a number of strategies to deal with issues ranging from learner fatigue to the need to hear a passage too many times. They concluded with the reminder that creative listening activities, including some with more student input, are well-suited to these recent initiatives encouraged by the DLI senior leadership: 4+2 (four hours of structured instruction + two hours of more individualized or elective classes) and LIFT (Leaders in Front Teaching).

Majed Tantish, "Online Collaborative Learning and Web Researching: A Focus on the 'Student Researcher' Project"

Majed Tantish, who is the ME I (Middle East School I) Language Technology Specialist, discussed how his students use Blackboard to share authentic video excerpts with their classmates, an approach which can also facilitate the implementation of the 4+2 and LIFT initiatives. With their teachers' guidance regarding the topics and possibly the ILR level, students become researchers combing the Web for relevant authentic reading or listening passages. Then they must use Blackboard at home to post a link for their classmates to access the material and their own summary. Other students can add responses to the passage and the posts as well as questions and vocabulary lists.

This innovative use of student-selected material with activities generated by the students themselves can open up many possibilities for

all DLI Blackboard users, both at home and in class. Thus, Blackboard (currently changed to SAKAI) can become a truly student-centered, collaborative platform that encourages students to use technology creatively as they strive for higher language proficiency.

Anisa Zahir, "Applying Universal Usability to Online Educational Content"

Anita Zahir presented a useful topic of special interest to not only online curriculum developers but also to any teacher developing class material. She first defined the concept of "universal usability," which is based on "universal design" and intends for the design of products and environments to be usable by all people, even those with a disability. In education, this concept has led to the publication of the "Universal Design for Learning Guidelines," which aims at providing a curriculum containing "alternatives to make it accessible and applicable to students with different backgrounds, learning styles, and disabilities in widely varied learning contexts."[5]

The usability principle entails seeking the clearest possible online style, including page design, choice of background, and use of color. The clarity principle also applies to multimedia material enhanced with captions, transcripts, or descriptions and to the choice of easy-to-find links and images. Finally, file and directory structure should be consistent and logical. Keeping these guiding principles in mind is important not only for educators generating online material but also for instructors preparing and storing files on a share folder for students and colleagues to access, as is commonly done at the DLI.

Ali Bolgun, "Systemic Functional Grammar, Corpus Linguistics, and DLI"

As Dr. Ali Bolgun noted, discussion of grammar is often missing from presentations at the DLI. However, he pointed out the "return of grammar" and accuracy in recent second-language acquisition scholarship. Explicit grammar instruction and language-focused learning should be the "fourth strand" of any language course, a strand as important as the three others: meaning-focus input, meaning-focus output, and fluency.[6] However, Dr. Bolgun did not advocate for theoretical or intuition-based grammar but rather for grammar based on corpus linguistics drawing on authentic language. This approach is inspired by Hallidayan systemic-functional linguistics, which focuses on language as social semiotics, i.e. a systemic, functional approach to actual, situated language.[7] Corpus linguistics, which collects, annotates and tags large samples of written and, to some extent, spoken texts from a variety of carefully selected sources, can provide researchers with a wealth of information on not only grammar but also on "lexicogrammar," vocabulary usage, and registers.

By using or even building their own corpora, a practice not sufficiently used at the DLI in Dr. Bolgun's opinion, teachers and students can find clearer grammar explanations, understand the true connotations of a phrase, and potentially better ascertain the difficulty of a text and its ILR level thanks to word frequency information. The many questions and long animated discussion which followed this presentation attest to the audience's interest in the potential role of linguistic corpora at the DLI, especially with the current emphasis on authentic material.

By all accounts, the Faculty Professional Development Day was a successful, well-attended event that provided food for thought to the DLI faculty. This annual training is a valuable tool in the continuing education of our instructors.

Notes

[1] For example, see Kramsch, Claire. (2006–2007). Forum on Language Policy and the Policy of Language, *ADFL Bulletin*, *38*, *1-2,* 56-58.

[2] Gladwell, Malcolm. (2000). *The Tipping Point: How Little Things Can Make a Big Difference*, Boston: Little, Brown and Company.

[3] Oxford, Rebecca L. (1990). *Language Learning Strategies: What Every Teacher Should Know,* New York: Newbury House.

[4] Nunan, David. (1989). *Designing Tasks for the Communicative Classroom,* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press; H. Douglas Brown, (2007). *Teaching by Principles: An Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy* (3rd ed.), New York: Addition Wesley.

[5] As defined by CAST (Center for Applied Special Technology), http://www.cast.org/publications/UDLguidelines/version1.html

[6] Nation, Paul. (2007). *The Four Strands, Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching 1.1,* 2-13.
http://languagelinks2006.wikispaces.com/file/view/nation,+four+strands.PDF

[7] Halliday, M.A.K. (1994). *Introduction to Functional Grammar,* (2nd ed.), London: Edward Arnold. The Hallidayan theory was first developed in the 1960s.

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General Information

Calendar of Events

2012

Japan Second Language Association, 2–3 June, Tokyo, Japan. Contact: Shigenori Wakabayashi, Email: swkbys37@tamacc.chuo-u.ac.jp Web: www.j-sla.org

ADFL Summer Seminar West, 7–10 June, Eugene, OR. Contact: David Goldberg, Associate Director, ADFL, 26 Broadway, 3rd Floor, New York, NY 10004-1789; (646) 576-5134; Email: dgoldberg@mla.org Web: www.adfl.org

Joint ADE-ADFL Summer Seminar East, 18–21 June, Nashville, TN. Contact: David Goldberg, Associate Director, ADFL, 26 Broadway, 3rd Floor, New York, NY 10004-1789; (646) 576-5134; Email: dgoldberg@mla.org Web: www.adfl.org

British Association for Applied Linguistics (BAAL), 6–8 September, Southampton, UK. Contact: Web: www.llas.ac.uk/baal2012

Learner Language, Learner Corpora, 5–6 October, Oulu, Finland. Contact: Email: lllc2012@oulu.fi Web: www.oulu.fi/hutk/sutvi/oppijankieli/LLLC/en/index.html

Immersion 2012: Bridging Contexts for a Multilingual World, 18–19 October, St. Paul, MN. Contact: CARLA, Web: www.carla.umn.edu/conferences/index.html

GLoCALL 2012, 18–20 October, Bejing, China. Contact: Web: glocall.org/course/category.php?id=14

Second Language Research Forum (SLRF), 18–21, October, Pittsburgh, PA: Contact: SLRF 2012, Email: slrf-2012@andrew.cmu.edu Web: www.cmu.edu/slrf2012

Results 2012, 26 October, New York, NY. Contact: The Language Flagship, Web: www.thelanguageflagship.org

American Association of Teachers of German (AATG), 16–18 November, Philadelphia, PA. Contact: AATG, 112 Haddontowne Court #104, Cherry Hill, NJ 08034; (856) 795-5553, Fax (856) 795-9398; Email: headquarters@aatg.org Web: www.aatg.org

American Association of Teachers of Italian (AATI), 16–18 November, Philadelphia, PA. Contact: Salvatore Bancheri, Department of Language Studies, University of Toronto-Mississauga, Mississauga, Ontario, L5L IC6, Canada; (905) 858-5997; Email: aati@utoronto.ca Web: www.aati-online.org/

American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL), 16–18 November, Philadelphia, PA. Contact: ACTFL, 1001 N. Fairfax St., Suite 200, Alexandria, VA 22314; (703) 894-2900, Fax (703) 894-2905; Email: headquarters@actfl.org Web: www.actfl.org

Chinese Language Teachers Association (CLTA), 16–18 November, Philadelphia, PA. Contact: CLTA, Yea-Fen Chen, Executive Director, Curtin 892, 3243 N. Downer Ave., University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee, Milwaukee, WI 53211; (414) 229-2492; Email: yeafen.uwm@gmail.com Web: clta-us.org

National Network for Early Language Learning (NNELL), 16–18 November, Philadelphia, PA. Contact: NNELL, PO Box 7266, B 201 Tribble Hall, Wake Forest University, Winston-Salem, NC 27109; Email: nnell@wfu.edu Web: www.nnell.org

African Studies Association (ASA), 29 November – 2 December, Philadelphia, PA. Contact: ASA, Rutgers University, 54 Joyce Kilmer Avenue, Piscataway, NJ 08854; (732) 445-8173, Fax (732) 445-1366; Email: annualmeeting@africanstudies.org Web: www.africanstudies.org

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American Association of Teachers of Slavic and East European Languages (AATSEEL), 3–6 January, Boston, MA. Contact: Elizabeth Durst, Executive Director, AATSEEL, University of Southern California, 3501 Trousdale Parkway, THH 255L, Los Angeles, CA 90089-4353; (213) 740-2734, Fax (213) 740-8550; Email:aatseel@usc.edu Web: www.aatseel.org

Linguistic Society of America (LSA), 3–6 January, Boston, MA. Contact: LSA, 1325 18th St., NW, # 211, Washington, DC 20036-6501; (202) 835-1714, Fax (202) 835-1717; Email: lsa@lsadc.org Web: www.lsadc.org

Modern Language Association (MLA), 3–6 January, Boston, MA. Contact: MLA, 26 Broadway, 3rd floor, New York, NY 10004-1789; (646) 576-5000, Fax (646) 458-0030; Web: www.mla.org

Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (CSCTFL), 14–16 March, Columbus, OH. Contact: Patrick T. Raven, Executive Director, CSCTFL, PO Box 251, Milwaukee, WI 53201-0251; (414) 405-4645, Fax (414) 276-4650; Email: CSCTFL@aol.com Web: www.csctfl.org

American Association for Applied Linguistics (AAAL), 16–19 March, Dallas, TX. Contact: AAAL, PMB 321, 2900 Delk Road, Suite 700, Marietta, GA 30067; (678) 229-2892, Fax (678) 229-2777; Email: info@aaal.org Web: www.aaal.org

Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) International, 20–23 March, Dallas, TX. Contact: TESOL, 1925 Ballenger Avenue, Suite 550, Alexandria, VA 22314; (703) 836-0774, Fax (703) 836-7864; Email: info@tesol.org Web: www.tesol.org

American Educational Research Association (AERA), 11–15 April, Atlanta, GA. Contact: AERA, 1430 K Street, NW, Washington, DC 20005; (202) 238-3200, Fax (202) 238-3250; Web: www.aera.net

NAFSA: Association of International Educators, 26–31 May, St. Louis, MO. Contact: NAFSA, 1307 New York Avenue, NW, 8th Floor, Washington, DC 20005-4701; (202) 737-3699, Fax (202) 737-3657; Web: www.nafsa.org

9th Annual Symposium on Bilingualism, 18–21 June, Singapore. Contact: Web: linguistics.hss.ntu.edu.sg/ISB9/main.html

Linguistic Society of America 2013 Institute, 22 June – 20 July, Ann Arbor, MI. Contact: Email: lsa2013@umich.edu Web: ww.umich.edu/~aalsa/lsa2013/Home.html

British Association for Applied Linguistics (BAAL), 5–7 September, Edinburgh, UK. Contact: Web: www.baal.org.uk

African Studies Association (ASA), 21–24 November, Baltimore, MD. Contact: ASA, Rutgers University, 54 Joyce Kilmer Avenue, Piscataway, NJ 08854; (732) 445-8173, Fax (732) 445-1366; Email: annualmeeting@africanstudies.org Web: www.africanstudies.org

American Association of Teachers of German (AATG), 22–24 November, Orlando, FL. Contact: AATG, 112 Haddontowne Court #104, Cherry Hill, NJ 08034; (856) 795-5553, Fax (856) 795-9398; Email: headquarters@aatg.org Web: www.aatg.org

American Association of Teachers of Italian (AATI), 22–24 November, Orlando, FL. Contact: Salvatore Bancheri, Department of Language Studies, University of Toronto-Mississauga, Mississauga, Ontario, L5L IC6, Canada; (905) 858-5997; Email: aati@utoronto.ca Web: www.aati-online.org/

American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL), 22–24 November, Orlando, FL. Contact: ACTFL, 1001 N. Fairfax St., Suite 200, Alexandria, VA 22314; (703) 894-2900, Fax (703) 894-2905; Email: headquarters@actfl.org Web: www.actfl.org

Chinese Language Teachers Association (CLTA), 22–24 November, Orlando, FL. Contact: CLTA, Yea-Fen Chen, Executive Director, Curtin 892, 3243 N. Downer Ave., University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee, Milwaukee, WI 53211; (414) 229-2492, Email: yeafen.uwm@gmail.com Web: clta-us.org

National Network for Early Language Learning (NNELL), 22–24 November, Orlando, FL. Contact: NNELL, PO Box 7266, B 201 Tribble Hall, Wake Forest University, Winston-Salem, NC 27109; Email: nnell@wfu.edu Web: www.nnell.org

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Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (CSCT-FL), 20–22 March, St. Louis, MO. Contact: Patrick T. Raven, Executive Director, CSCTFL, PO Box 251, Milwaukee, WI 53201-0251; (414) 405-4645, Fax (414) 276-4650; Email: CSCTFL@aol.com Web: www.csctfl.org

American Association for Applied Linguistics (AAAL), 22–25 March, Portland, OR. Contact: AAAL, PMN 321, 2900 Delk Road, Suite 700, Marietta, GA 30067; (678) 229-2892, Fax: (678) 229-2777; Email: info@aaal.org Web: www.aaal.org

Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) International, 26–29 March, Portland, OR. Contact: TESOL, 1925 Ballenger Avenue, Suite 550, Alexandria, VA 22314; (703) 836-0774, Fax (703) 836-7864; Email: info@tesol.org Web: www.tesol.org

NAFSA: Association of International Educators, 25–30 May, San Diego, CA. Contact: NAFSA, 1307 New York Avenue, NW, 8th Floor, Washington, DC 20005-4701; (202) 737-3699, Fax (202) 737-3657; Web: www.nafsa.org

American Association of Teachers of German (AATG), 21–23 November, San Antonio, TX. Contact: AATG, 112 Haddontowne Court #104, Cherry Hill, NJ 08034; (856) 795-5553, Fax (856) 795-9398; Email: headquarters@aatg.org Web: www.aatg.org

American Association of Teachers of Italian (AATI), 21–23 November, San Antonio, TX. Contact: Salvatore Bancheri, Department of Language Studies, University of Toronto-Mississauga, Mississauga, Ontario, L5L IC6, Canada: (905) 858-5997; E-mail: aati@utoronto.ca Web: www.aati-online.org/

American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL), 21–23 November, San Antonio, TX. Contact: ACTFL, 1001 N. Fairfax St., Suite 200, Alexandria, VA 22314; (703) 894-2900, Fax (703) 894-2905; Email: headquarters@actfl.org Web: www.actfl.org

Chinese Language Teachers Association (CLTA), 21–23 November, San Antonio, TX. Contact: CLTA, Yea-Fen Chen, Executive Director, Curtin 892, 3243 N. Downer Ave., University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee, Milwaukee, WI 53211; (414) 229-2492, Email: yeafen.uwm@gmail.com Web: clta-us.org

National Network for Early Language Learning (NNELL), 21–23 November, San Antonio, TX. Contact: NNELL, PO Box 7266, B 201 Tribble Hall, Wake Forest University, Winston-Salem, NC 27109; Email: nnell@wfu.edu Web: www.nnell.org

Information for Contributors

Purpose

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

The success of *Dialog on Language Instruction* depends on your cooperation and support.

Submission of Manuscripts

All materials submitted for publication should conform to the guidance in this section. For additional guidance, refer to *Publications Manual of the American Psychological Association* (4th Ed., 1994), available from the American Psychological Association, P. O. Box 2710, Hyattsville, MD 20784.

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

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Articles

Divide your manuscript into the following sections:

- Abstract
    - Introduction
        - Method or Organizing Construct
            - Discussion
                - Conclusion
                    - Appendices
                        - Notes
                            - References
                                - Acknowledgments
                                    - Author

Abstract

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

Introduction

Describe the purpose of the manuscript. Relate it to the content of the recently, within the last two to three years, published literature. Describe work that had a direct impact on your study. Avoid general references. Cite only pertinent research findings and relevant methodological issues. Provide the logical continuity between previous and present work. Identify the main issues of your study. Point out the implications of your study. Introduction should not exceed 20 percent of the body of your manuscript.

Method or Organizing Construct

Method

Describe how you conducted the study. Give a brief synopsis of the method. Next develop the subsections pertaining to the *participants*, the *materials* and the *procedure*.

Participants. Identify the number and types of participants. Specify how they were selected and how many participated in each experiment. Provide major demographic characteristics such as age, sex, geographic location, and institutional affiliation. Identify the number of experiment dropouts and the reasons they did not continue.

Materials. Describe briefly the materials used and their function in the experiment.

Procedure. Describe each step in the conduct of the research. Include the instructions to the participants, the formation of the groups, and the specific experimental manipulations.

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

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

Conclusion

Summarize your findings.

References

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

Doe, H., & Burt, M. (2008). Errors and strategies in child second language
        acquisition. *TESOL Quarterly, 16*(1), 93-95.
Long, D. P. (2007). *Testing English as a second language.* New York:
        Putnam.

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 Notes

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Faculty Exchange

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

Reviews

Reviews of textbooks, scholarly works related to foreign language education, dictionaries, tests, computer software, video tapes, and other non-print materials will be considered for publication. Both positive and negative aspects of the work(s) being considered should be pointed out. The review should give a clear but brief statement of the works contents and a critical assessment of contribution to the profession. Quotations should be kept short. Do not use footnotes. Reviews that are merely descriptive will not be accepted for publication.

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Items related to language instruction such as reports on conferences, official trips, official visitors, special events, new instructional techniques, training aids or materials, research findings, news items, etc., will be considered for publication.

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Manuscripts should be double-spaced, with margins of about one-inch on all four sides. The text should be written in Times New Roman 10-point size font, and pages should be numbered consecutively. Only black and white should be used throughout the manuscript, including for graphics and tables. To create the latter, use Microsoft Word rather than other applications. Do not repeat or duplicate material in text and tables. Graphics and tables should not exceed dimensions of 6' x 9' and should be used only when they substantially aid the reader. Each manuscript should be submitted in three copies. The first page should include only the title and the text. It is recommended that passages or quotations in foreign languages be glossed or summarized. Authors are advised to prepare a note pertaining to their professional status. An author's name, position, department, school, address (if outside of DLIFLC), and interests would be identified in the note. An example of such a note is presented below:

Author

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

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The editor duly informs the author that the manuscript is unacceptable for publication. Normally this finding ends the revision process.

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