**Dialog on Language Instruction**

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**Computer Roles in Language Teaching and Learning**
**Let the Dialog Expand_Robustly!**

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Exciting, innovative, and challenging times are upon us in the foreign language education and training community! "Today" in many ways and certainly "tomorrow" across the board we are on the threshold of opening more and much larger doors to exploiting the power of the computer. The result will, as a minimum, put another set of tools in the teacher's toolbox. More importantly, computers_used correctly_will free up time to better employ the most valuable, most powerful, and most creative teaching resource of all: people who serve as teachers.

Our challenges are to determine appropriate philosophical and operational roles for computers, then to develop and use those resources.

The very nature of this journal, Dialog on Language Learning, can help the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) and the foreign language education community in general meet these challenges. Many concepts for the use of computers are already being discussed and developed in several organizations within the Institute. In fact, computers to some extent are being used in many of our language programs and all of our end-of-program Final Learning Objective (FLO) testing and evaluation.

However, these projects too often appear to be developed on an ad hoc or personal initiative basis rather than as components to the incremental implementation of a philosophy or operational plan for the use of computers or computer-assisted language instruction (CALI). DLIFLC's Commandant, COL Daniel D. Devlin, is an eager participant in this process to explore and develop means by which computers can come to the aid of learners and teachers alike. Two of his visions for the use of computers, computerized homework and computerized training, have been discussed with various visitors to and members of the Institute since early 1996.

A conceptual summary of them is shown below, though perhaps not as accurately explained as is done by the Commandant himself. Please do note that any misrepresentations herein of his concepts are unintentional, but in themselves perhaps lend value to the dialog he is trying to stimulate.

Nevertheless, efforts of educators already on the leading edges of technology and language teaching may be reinforced by these ideas. Perhaps even more importantly, these concepts should spur on others who innovate as well as implement improvements to the language education process. The 1991 issue of Applied Language Learning (Volume 2, Number 2) had articles on the technological impact on language pedagogy (Nina Garrett and Sue K. Otto), implementation and management of instructional technology (Robert Ariew and Donald C. Holznagel), and software and hardware for language training (James C. Pusack and Michael D. Bush). Additionally the 1995 issue of Applied Language Learning (Volume 5, Number 2) includes Lydie E. Meunier's article on computers in cooperative learning. Past issues of Dialog on Language Learning have had articles addressing some of the innovations and successes (e.g., Kiril Boyadjieff and Steve Koppany, 1995, Volume 11). These are good beginnings, but we need to discuss these ideas much more.

The use of this DLIFLC forum is not to state what should be done. The intention is to jump-start our community into a robust discourse and aggressive plan of action: to think, to plan, to act_to do the right thing!

**Computerized Homework**

Proficiency-based global language programs such as those used by the DLIFLC should not focus on lengthy vocabulary list memorization, exhaustive grammar-rule development, or extensive dialog drills. However, these features of language learning, in moderation, have places in the language learner's proficiency development when done at the right time and in the right way. Certainly the teacher in the classroom has far better things to do with the limited time available than to teach vocabulary, present grammar, and lead drills. Classroom time itself is too precious to devote to these activities.

Yet how can the right amount of this somewhat mundane work be incorporated at the right time into the curriculum? Perhaps computers and CALI conducted at the time and place are the resources to exploit. If so, for what, when, and how?

What? Perhaps the very items that could be done by a teacher, but need not be done by a teacher, are the first candidates to shift to the CALI medium. Prime examples are those already mentioned: vocabulary, grammar, and dialogs.

When? Certainly not during time when teachers are available to work with the student! We must strive to increase the quality of student-teacher contact time, not reduce it. This means much of CALI normally should not be done during the part of the teacher work day at school. In fact, since the pace of most learning through CALI is controlled by the student, the time period to use CALI should also be controlled by the student. At 5 o'clock in the afternoon? At 5 o'clock in the morning? During lunch? On a school night or on the weekend? If done through a machine it doesn't matter when as long as the student has access to that machine (but that access is another matter entirely).

Some of the material would no doubt be self-learning with the computer presenting information and activities to the student, the student responding to that stimulus, the program assessing the response, and closing by the program giving feedback to the student. The role for the teacher, however, would not disappear regarding CALI homework. Rather, it would be improved by focusing on where the student needs help, then precisely prescribing or presenting the information or activities needed to correct the areas diagnosed as needing improvement. This approach would be a huge improvement over the way in which most homework is approached by many teachers in that the teacher must review all the material the student did to see where the teacher needs to give help. Too often this results in homework being assigned, but inadequately reviewed because it is just too much work.

Consider one scenario that could take place with the right homework done the right way. First, the student receives an assignment and a completion date (a day, a week_it doesn't matter). Then, working on the student's own schedule outside the classroom, the student does the homework with the results stored in the software. Next, on the morning the work is due, the teacher pulls up a by-exception report on areas in which the students need to improve. Finally, the teacher tailors coverage of that material or activities as part of the academic day. Now that's an effective way to use homework in class time!

How? Certainly all this could be done by pressing and issuing CD ROMs for every student, having students train using their own disks, and having the teacher aggregate the completed work for review and assessment. However, perhaps a better way exists: by students receiving and completing homework using servers accessed via fiber optic cable or use of modems installed in their quarters. Thus, not only would the cost of pressing CDs be eliminated, the time and effort needed to make changes to materials would do the same. Further, once the changes were made to the servers' programs, all users (around the world) would have instantaneous access to the new material, thereby avoiding the need, cost, and time to ship new CDs to users.

**Computerized Training**

Computers' roles can extend far beyond developing vocabulary, explaining and demonstrating grammar rules, and presenting a diversity of dialog scenarios. Within the nature of the work done using a computer (in or out of the classroom), would it be possible to develop a two-sided machine, not unlike the human brain itself? One side would be used for initial and continuing evaluation and development of the student's ability. That is, test, teach and test the learner.

What would the machine test, what would it teach, and how would it know what to do in either situation? The answers are found in the other side of the machine's brain. It would be used initially to present learning events, then adjust subsequent events to what and how the student responds to them. In essence, the other side would teach itself to adapt to the individual student with which it is working at any particular time. Thus, as students learn, so does the machine helping them to do so. Is this computer-adaptive teaching? Perhaps.

In both sides of the computer the process is the same: assess to determine the precise point at which to begin building up competency_then do the improvement. Only two real unknowns need to be determined. The first is at what level to begin the upward spiral of teaching. The second is how "fast" to move up through that spiral. This approach to teaching is not new. What is new, at least at DLIFLC, is to apply this approach to proficiency-based language learning using a computer. Can it teach real proficiency? Probably not, but the answer to that question must be made by the experts in what can be done (not the experts in what has been done). In any case, the time has come to use computers to some extent in developing proficiency in every language program within the Institute. Our teachers and students need this tool!

So far, only the side of the computer that interfaces with the student has been discussed. What about the other side, the side in which the computer interfaces with itself? It really gets interesting here, and, perhaps like the human brain itself, this side will evolve more slowly and independently than the first.

Here's how it may work. The program is initially set with predetermined information and activities determined by curriculum and evaluation developers. Then, based on an on-going interaction with the students, the program expands and adapts its original portfolio of information and activities. The computer learns to teach!

What resources would it use to learn without needing a curriculum- or evaluation-developer to reprogram it? It uses the same types of resources the linguist uses to learn: the worldwide pockets, nodes, systems, and linkages available through the Internet (to include information and activities developed by DLIFLC itself and which are available through the Internet). Thus, for the language learner (student or computer) the Internet is not just a seemingly endless set of sites that can be accessed, it is the means to access them as well.

This information and activity pool is inherently networked, it is multimedia in nature and it can be interactive though the learner's computer programming characteristics. This networked, multimedia, interactive learning environment is the same environment in which most DLIFLC graduate linguists will operate on the job as well. Thus, the Defense Department's linguist community will join its other operations communities (e.g., aircraft pilots, ship captains, and infantry, artillery, and armor commanders) in learning in the same environment in which they will operate.

**Summary**

Computers have valuable roles to play in teaching and evaluating linguists. We must seize the initiative to determine those roles. Implementation of computerized training will have multiple effects, all of which are good:

- Teachers will be free to exploit their unique roles in language teaching and evaluation.
- Students will have more state-of-the-art tools to learn languages.
- Precious time for teachers and students to interact profitably will increase considerably.
- Students will be learning in part in the way in which they will work in the future.

The DLIFLC in particular and the foreign language community in general must enter into a robust dialog to determine, develop, and implement the proper roles for computers in language teaching and learning. That is a charter we must accept. It is a challenge we must—and—can meet!

**The Role of Dictionaries in Language Learning**

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Language students can often be recognized by the books they carry: A textbook and a dictionary can evoke the image of the intermediate language learner. Unlike the textbook, itself often an object of discussion, the dictionary has provoked much less comment. Perhaps the dearth of comment on dictionaries in foreign language instruction is due to some assumptions tacitly made about the role of such a dictionary in the course of instruction.

There seem to be at least four types of dictionaries that learners might encounter:

1. The monolingual dictionary used by the speakers/readers of the target language.
2. The bilingual dictionary commonly used in language courses.
3. A monolingual dictionary complied for the language learner. Hornby's (1981) Oxford Advanced Learner's English Dictionary is one such example.
4. Electronic dictionaries used in conjunction with a computer.

The third and fourth types will not be discussed here. Although some languages have monolingual dictionaries compiled for the language student, as Masliyah (1995) has reviewed for Hebrew, this type of dictionary is not always available for study of all languages. Aust (1993) describes the use of an electronic dictionary. This type of dictionary is bound to be increasingly common; however currently they are not widespread. The purpose of this article is twofold: To examine some assumptions about dictionaries, especially the bilingual dictionary, and to suggest some ways of integrating the monolingual dictionary into the instructional process.

**Assumptions About Dictionaries**

In general, several assumptions seem to be made concerning the use of the language learner's dictionary. First, the language learner usually is presumed to require a bilingual dictionary for reading in the latter stages of the course. Secondly, the bilingual dictionary should be sufficient for a student throughout the course of instruction and beyond. Finally, monolingual reference works are assumed to be more the domain of the native speaker/reader and very advanced learners. Often these premises or their variations underlie student encounters with the dictionary. However, are these assumptions warranted?

The type of dictionary to use in the classroom is not a new concern. Almost a generation ago, the dictionary was also a point of discussion, as shown by Mielon (1979). At that time, as noted in the article, the role of bilingual and monolingual dictionaries was a running debate at least within the pages of TESOL Quarterly.

**The Use of Bilingual Dictionaries**

Although articles about the use of the dictionary are not plentiful, some advice seems to be available. Wilga Rivers notes that "when students need help in ascertaining meaning, they should be trained to consult a monolingual foreign-language dictionary." (p. 283) The reason for this training, she notes, is so that the student can find the meaning used by a native speaker rather than taking just a gloss for the word. Other researchers tend to confirm Rivers' assessment. Ducroquet (1994) finds in a study of two bilingual dictionaries that choice of words and their presentation appears arbitrary. Scott (1989) concludes that bilingual dictionaries can desystematize the learning processes for the foreign language students by focusing their attention on the dictionary and its usefulness in comparison.

The foregoing notwithstanding, the use of a gloss to indicate meaning of a vocabulary item in the student's native language is certainly not out of place. Even the use of bilingual dictionaries is not precluded: Rivers (1981, p. 466) suggests that bilingual dictionaries can be used along with monolingual ones. Lespescu and Day (1989) find that among Japanese speakers learning English, those who used a bilingual dictionary during reading practice performed significantly better on a vocabulary test than those who did not.

Thus, it would seem that the bilingual dictionary has a place in language learning, although somewhat limited. Although use of the bilingual dictionary can aid the language learning process, it is not always appropriate to the learning situation.

**The Bilingual Dictionary Assumption**

Although not a universal assumption, the idea that a bilingual dictionary is sufficient for a basic course of language instruction seems widespread. While a high school student or a student in a nonintensive college-level language course might well "survive" with only a bilingual dictionary, this assumption may be unwarranted for an intensive course student. As Rivers (1981) points out, the bilingual dictionary can lead the student to "inexact and misleading equivalents."

Why does this happen? Consideration of the "typical" bilingual dictionary shows what may happen when a student consults that type of work. Usually, though not always, the bilingual dictionary is a series of glosses for equivalent words. While some vocabulary may warrant two or even three different meanings in the target language or in the student's own language, the usual practice seems to be that each word has one gloss.

Without further explanation and examples, the student gets the impression that the semantic mapping of the target language has a one-to-one correspondence with the native language. Except for international scientific vocabulary, that mapping is rarely true, and such an assumption could impede learning.

**The Native Language Dictionary Assumption**

Often instructors may conclude that the monolingual dictionary is suitable for the native reader only. The complexity of the dictionary and the lack of aids for the language learner lead to this conclusion. Yet the native reader cannot be expected to know all the words in a dictionary, nor does the native necessarily understand the layout, the organization, and the type of information provided in the monolingual dictionary.

Can a language student use a monolingual dictionary? If introduced at the appropriate point in the course, the monolingual dictionary should be of some use to the student. A review of the Interagency Language Roundtable Language Skill Level Descriptions (1985) for reading indicates that a reader at Level 1 should be able to use the monolingual dictionary. At Level 1 the reader should be able to handle "highly predictable descriptions of persons, places, or things." (p. 8) Certainly the usual format of an entry in a dictionary is highly predictable."

Clearly some instruction and practice would be necessary for the Level 1 reader to use the dictionary. Also, vocabulary for the Level 1 reader would be restricted to very simple and concrete words. As the student's reading proficiency moves higher, more information could be gathered from the dictionary. At Level 2, the reader should be able to handle "simple technical material written for the general reader." (1985, p. 9) The monolingual dictionary lies within this description.

To sum up so far, the bilingual dictionary has a place in the language course, but use of the monolingual dictionary should be emphasized. Language learners should be encouraged to avoid single-word glosses for vocabulary items. Finally, learners at Levels 1 and 2 can start to use a monolingual dictionary.

**Integrating the Dictionary in the Course**

The use of a monolingual dictionary is divided into three phases: selection, presentation, and follow-up. Selection is the review and determination of a suitable dictionary for the student. Presentation is the actual design of classroom activities a student could carry out so as to gain facility in the use of the dictionary. Follow-up is required to maintain and increase skills with the dictionary.

The classroom instructor needs to decide on balancing the use of a bilingual dictionary - likely at the initial part of the course - with the monolingual dictionary which most likely would be integrated into the intermediate and final stages of instruction. As instruction proceeds, students would often use a glossary or a bilingual dictionary for looking up the meaning of vocabulary that is new or has been forgotten. Assuming a course of some duration and with a training objective of significant fluency for an intensive course, the goal would be for the instructor to ensure that students are weaned from sole dependence on the bilingual dictionary. This can be accomplished by introducing the monolingual dictionary through the latter part of the course as reading authentic material is practiced in greater magnitude.

**Selection**

Dictionaries range in size - the number of items - from very small to very large. An instructor may compile a one- or two-page vocabulary list for a class and have this list serve as a glossary for students. On the opposite end of the scale, one might have a work such as the multi-volume Oxford English Dictionary. For English, one can find paperback dictionaries that contain about 50,000 entries or the more common and perhaps useful hardbound works such as the Merriam Webster Collegiate series of dictionaries.

The publisher and the compiler of the dictionary have a lot to do with its quality. If items are selected and presented according to academic standards that reflect research about the language and its syntax, pronunciation, and usage; then the dictionary can be used with confidence. Such standards often can be determined by looking at the publisher, editor, and consultants listed in the dictionary. While paperback dictionaries may be convenient to carry around, their contents might not always contain the words and information a reader seeks.

The following checklist, by no means exhaustive, is intended purely as a guide for evaluating dictionaries:

1. Does the dictionary reflect the vocabulary in use by educated native speakers and writers? Do entries indicate regional variations, obsolete words, and social usage? If relevant, does the work show spoken and written distinctions? Is the vocabulary current?
2. Are the editors and the compilers known as authorities on the compilation of dictionaries? Are they associated with an appropriate higher educational institute such as a university or a research organization? If the compiler is not well known, does the publisher have a reputation for quality works?
3. How many entries are there in the dictionary? While 50,000 items may seem to be a large number, the 200,000 or more entries in a standard desk reference assure that vocabulary is adequately covered. Students may rapidly become dissatisfied with a dictionary that is missing some of the vocabulary they are seeking.
4. Is the dictionary organized according to the usual conventions expected by native speakers of the language? For example, English dictionaries available for American English usually contain highly predictable entries formatted to include grammatical information, pronunciation, hyphenation, and etymology. A Chinese or a Japanese dictionary should be organized according to the 214 radical system or, in the case of Japanese, it could be arranged according to the syllabary order. While other arrangements for these languages may have merit, one needs to consider that students would spend extra time learning additional means of classification for ideographs.
5. Is the dictionary generally regarded as a conventional reference tool for the general reader? Although some specialized dictionaries may have some general items within their pages, students would benefit from using a dictionary designed for the general reader.
6. Is the dictionary available to your students? Assuming that students are located within the United States, would the dictionary be available for purchase through some vendor?
7. Is the price reasonable? Due to constantly fluctuating exchange rates and pricing of the dictionary by the publisher, some works may be prohibitively expensive for classroom use. Should price be a factor, it may be necessary to choose a less costly work.
8. Is the printing legible? Will students complain about smudged words or indistinct characters? While this might be more of an issue for languages such as Chinese, Japanese, and Korean which use writing systems with more complex graphs; nonetheless, no student should have to initially endure printing complications in addition to learning to use a new language tool.

**Presentation**

Traditionally associated with vocabulary and reading, the dictionary has come to be considered as an adjunct to such exercises. Knight (1994), Luppescu and Day (1993), and Weatherford (1991), for example, focus on the twin concerns of vocabulary and word meaning for reading.

As with the suggestions for selection of a dictionary, the following should be viewed as suggestions for integrating the dictionary into classroom use.

1. Foreign language students will need to first know how entries in the dictionary are organized. While languages that use a Cyrillic alphabet, such as English, tend to organize entries according to the order of the particular alphabet, other languages such as those of East Asia, Chinese, Japanese, and Korean, must of necessity use a different means of entry organization to encompass their writing systems. Even languages that seemingly share the same alphabet may not always use the same system in "alphabetizing" the language. For example Spanish alphabetizes 'ch' after 'c,' and 'll' after 'l.'

As a part of a reading exercise, the order of entries in a monolingual dictionary can initially be provided to the student. Using vocabulary previously learned, students could be asked to locate these items in the monolingual dictionary. By the time reading or listening take up a larger part of instruction, students should be able to understand the alphabetic or syllabary order of the language. Assumption that students have a grasp of the dictionary order of entries after the first portion of a course may not be valid for Chinese as dictionaries in that language are traditionally organized according to a "stroke and radical" system that must be learned apart from the initial presentation of the language.

2. General format of a dictionary entry needs to be made clear to the students. The structure of the information contained in each entry, such as indications of the part of speech, pronunciation, hyphenation (if applicable) and the like needs to be presented to the students. For example, entries in Webster's Ninth New Collegiate Dictionary usually contain the follow information:

- pronunciation, including variations immediately after the entry, which is formatted to indicate hyphenation;
- an abbreviation for the part of speech, noun, verb, and so forth;
- etymological information given in brackets;
- the meaning or meanings of the word.

It is likely that such languages as Arabic, Korean, or Chinese will not have the same detail in their organization of the monolingual dictionary. Students should be made aware of differences as well as the general format of an entry in the dictionary.

3. If the language is inflected, students will need to know how the form of the word as listed in the dictionary. Citation forms of vocabulary need to be covered in the course. Knowing these forms can aid the student in looking up vocabulary items. For example, to locate an Arabic word in a dictionary, students need to know its triliteral root. This information needs to be provided in the course of instruction in Arabic.

4. Students need to know where to locate other details such as abbreviations often used for "parts of speech," or other information provided in the entry. If additional information is listed in the contents of the dictionary, such as glossaries of foreign phrases or place names, students should be informed about it. For foreign words, especially place and personal names, Chinese appears to employ either the use of "transliteration characters" or association of the name with a character that may have meaning.

5. Students need to practice looking up words in the dictionary. This skill might increase more readily if the words are very simple initially. For example, if one looks up the words "pen" and "pencil" in the dictionary, similar definitions are given: "an implement for writing or drawing..." (Webster's Ninth New Collegiate Dictionary, p. 869). In turn the word "implement" is defined as a tool. Since the vocabulary is so elemental, a student can focus more on the skill of looking up a word.

With a language such as Korean, students will need to be able to determine the citation form of the word. For those Korean words that have undergone sound changes due to the use of postposition particles, the citation form may not be evident. As the derivation of such citation forms is usually presented during the instruction in speaking or listening, students could reinforce their knowledge of the language while they practice the use of the dictionary.

6. Additional exercises can be designed to fit in with the usual vocabulary building a student will be likely to practice. Additional sources of suggested practice are contained in the introduction of Longman's Dictionary of American English (1983).

7. Various exercises should be conducted throughout the course to make certain that students can use the monolingual dictionary. Perhaps some of the vocabulary items could be selected for use in an exercise to determine word meanings using the monolingual dictionary. In the advanced stages of the course, reading brief articles from newspapers can involve the use of the dictionary as a resource for identifying unknown vocabulary item.

8. Use of the monolingual dictionary as an integrated part of the latter stages of the language class can provide students with the facility to use the monolingual dictionary and to move away from dependency on the bilingual glossary.

**Follow-Up or Maintenance**

Of all types of knowledge, that of another language seems to be the most perishable. Maintenance of skill is an essential prerequisite of effective language use. Encouraging students to use the monolingual dictionary not only in class, but also on their own should serve the interests of the language learners and have the potential to further their knowledge and ability in the language.

Former students' use of the monolingual dictionary may be dependent on several factors such as motivation, further use of the language, and exposure to situations where unfamiliar vocabulary occurs. If the use of the monolingual dictionary is well-established during the course of instruction, former students will be likely to continue using the monolingual dictionary. Learners are well-served if they have come to realize that use of the monolingual dictionary can supplant and ultimately replace the student's sole reliance on the bilingual dictionary.

Should retraining or advanced study become possible for the student, then along with other aspects of the course, the use of the monolingual dictionary should be encouraged. If such an opportunity is available, then students may bring real-world experience in use of the language to the advanced classroom. Such experience can motivate students to use the dictionary.

**Conclusions**

Appropriately presented, the monolingual dictionary can become a useful tool for the language learner. Bilingual dictionaries can coexist within the course if their use is made clear to the student and if they are appropriately used as a transition aid to the monolingual dictionary. The monolingual dictionary can be of assistance to the student throughout the latter stages of the course and beyond.

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**Significance of Output in Language Acquisition**

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Some time ago I had an opportunity to attend a natural approach (NA) demonstration offered by a visiting professor who was an advocate of NA. He conducted a 60-minute Spanish lesson that was designed for the first day of instruction at his college.

He spoke the entire 60 minutes in Spanish. Participants who had some knowledge of Spanish seemed to enjoy the intense lesson. I, on the other hand, was frustrated and my anxiety was high. I did not understand what he was saying and I was insecure in guessing the meaning. That some of the participants seemed to understand made me feel left out of the activity.

I decided to stay in the room as an observer since the whole show seemed to take place between the professor and the ones who understood. At the end of the hour I was disappointed, mostly because I did not have a chance to speak and nobody told me how. This experience made me question NA views on speaking.

NA does not enforce speaking. It holds that students' language production emerges after a silent period of comprehension process. It also holds that demanding that students speak will raise the affective filter which prevents students from acquiring language.

I do not think that students' speaking emerges in the classroom as NA holds. People generally speak because they need to. In the real world, children learning a first language or adults who are living in a foreign country learn to speak because they have to request, clarify, or express themselves in everyday situations. Such needs do not exist in the classroom unless they are created.

Communicative language-teaching (CLT), which holds that language-learning is learning to communicate, encourages students to communicate from the very beginning. It tries to create communicative needs by implementing, for example, task-based activities in the classroom (Richard & Rogers, 1986). Nation (1989) further suggests adding some features such as roles and challenges to make classroom speaking activities successful.

How do we create communicative needs in a classroom? Communication occurs when there is a need to exchange information in order to fill a gap in someone's knowledge. If the listener already has the information the speaker can give, there is no need to communicate and the speaking becomes meaningless. If necessary, such an information gap among the speakers may be artificially created in the classroom.

I have appended three sample speaking activities. All of them focus on the exchange or gathering of biographical data. The activities are designed to fulfill learning objectives.

When students meet for the first time in the classroom they may not know each other well. Self-introductions can be a good beginning speaking activity. In Activity 1 in the Appendix, each student has the opportunity to introduce himself several times, each time with a different student. Students should become familiar with common greeting phrases such as "Hi" and "How do you do?" The students have different backgrounds so they have different language needs in order to introduce themselves.

Such needs should be satisfied during the Preactivity. The information gap in this activity is each student's personal background, which of course is different from everyone else's.

The information gap in Activity 2 is artificially created by giving each student a role with sets of data. Communication needs are created in order to accomplish the given task. The task in Activity 2 is to get information from students who are role-playing.

Activity 3 requires students to talk to each other, not only to share information but also to discuss the information and come to a conclusion about arranging a social date for a friend.

In any activity, it is important to prepare students before the main activity. During each preactivity, students are exposed to the language they may be using in the main activity. Students must be clear on the objective of the main activity so that they are aware of their language needs. In Activity 1 the objective of the activity is to be able to introduce one's self.

Each activity should be followed by the postactivity, in which students can review or expand the language used during the main activity.

I believe that speaking plays an important role in language acquisition. The ability to speak fluently does not emerge automatically in time after the comprehension of input. As Swain (1985) puts it, one learns to speak by speaking. The more one speaks, the better one gets at it. Both listening and speaking skills should be integrated from the beginning of instruction and continuously encouraged. Canale (1983) emphasizes that all the communicative skills should be practiced from the very beginning of the foreign language (FL) program.

That means teachers have to give students a chance to speak. Of course students cannot speak fluently from the very beginning. They are organizing their knowledge of the language in their subconscious minds. Allowing them to go through this process is necessary for improving their fluency. Teachers must be tolerant of their slow speed and erroneous expressions. Students cannot focus on every part of a sentence as they speak. Therefore, correcting every error is neither efficient nor effective. For example, when a student is focusing on a specific pattern in order to express himself, he may make another error, such as an error in pronunciation or in choice of words. The teacher should focus his attention on how students use the language needed for the activity. Less relevant errors that students commit can be corrected on another occasion.

I do not think that requiring students to speak will raise their affective filter as NA holds. I think it is a teacher's demand for complete accuracy that creates anxiety among students. Small children are not afraid to speak for the sake of speaking in front of their mothers. Rivers (1983) says that spontaneous communication can be done if there is a warm relationship between the teacher and students and among the students themselves. Challenge students, but do not demand complete accuracy and fluency.

It is important to encourage students to try out their language. Errors students make are important clues for finding out what is going on in the process of language learning. In initial counseling, one of the important questions we ask students is whether they are embarrassed when they make mistakes. We want to encourage them to overcome mistakes. Mistakes indicate students are trying out the target knowledge. It is through the natural process of shaping the language that they learn it. By making mistakes, students become aware of what works and what does not. The teacher also learns what the students' particular problems are. From this knowledge the teacher can often deduce how problems can be solved. Errors on the part of students indicate a natural process of language acquisition.

Swain (1985) argues that students have to speak and to test to see if their language can be understood.The students will know whether their spoken language is understood through the responses they receive in a meaningful interaction. This I call "experience" with language. Experience is the process of speaking meaningful language and receiving meaningful responses. Through the accumulation of individual experiences, students begin to understand the language and store the understood information in their memories. At the same time they begin processing the language toward acquisition. Rivers (1983) stated that "we interpret what we experience and then store the interpretation. It is this interpretation that is available to us for retrieval." (p. 70)

Krashen (1985, 1988), a strong advocate of NA, explains the necessity of intake (language input that is understood by students) for language acquisition and hypothesizes that intake is available via meaningful communicative activities. Basic elements of such activities do include speaking and negotiation work by every participant of the activities. As Swain (1985) hypothesizes, the role of output is equally as important as the role of input or intake. She suggests, based on her empirical studies on French immersion classes, that particularly in negotiation work students push their output in order to convey their intended meaning precisely. This, she argues, is a necessary mechanism of language acquisition.

Typically, FL students come to their classes with curiosity and high motivation for learning a new language. They also have some anxiety about the unknown. Such anxiety is nonthreatening and healthy. This is a good time to help them start speaking the language. If FL students learn to speak a few words on their first day of class they feel a sense of accomplishment. They also feel as if they are a part of the community where native speakers live and speak the language. They are in a world they had never belonged to until now and they will probably try to learn more about it to be accepted there. This leads to what Gardner and Lambert (cited in Rivers, 1983) call integrative motivation. A person with integrative motivation is interested in the other language community to the point of being willing to adopt distinctive characteristics of the behavior (linguistic and nonlinguistic). Gardner and Lambert suggest that students with such motivation learn language most effectively.

We should have speaking activities from the very beginning of the language lesson if speaking skill is to be developed. This will also keep the students' motivation high. If the Spanish class activity I attended had emphasized speaking and had taught me how to speak Spanish, I would have been more actively involved and would have felt more positive about learning the language. The professor would also have realized quickly whether I was involved in the activity or not. A speaking activity on the first day of class would build up a closer relationship between the teacher and the students. This output on the part of students also helps teachers estimate students' abilities. It is always a joy for me, as a teacher, to hear students try to speak the language I teach. I do not get quite the same feeling when students are only involved in listening.

**Appendix**

**Activity 1** - Exchanging Greetings and Introducing Yourself

**Objective**: Introduce yourself.

**Preactivity**: Students will practice introducing themselves. The teacher will help each student with the words and simple expressions that are necessary. Some students may want to say they are married and have children. Some may want to say they like running. Some may want to say more. Some may want to say less. Not only the information gap, but also the language gap is good for learning the language through communication because students will also learn the language from their peers.

**Activity**: Form inner and outer circles with the same number of students in each circle. Students in the outer and inner circles face each other. Each student introduces himself to the student with whom he is thus paired. Each pair of students will have about two minutes (one minute for each student) to do this. Then the students in the outer circle turn the circle, each of them facing another student of the inner circle. Each new pair will perform self-introductions again. The teacher may join the circle or may assist the students. Four-handed teaching will work well in this activity, as two teachers may show the sample introduction before the students start the activity. One teacher may join the circle and the other may assist the students.

**Sample Introduction**: "Hi, how do you do? I'm Captain John Smith. I am in the U.S. Army. I'm from California. I'm married and have two daughters . . ."

**Postactivity**: Review the expressions the students used.

**Benefit**: The repetition of introductions in the activity will help students reinforce their language use. They will also learn expressions besides the ones they themselves used since each student expresses his personal background (ranks, hobbies, family members, etc.) which is different from others'.

**Activity 2**

**Biographical Data Gathering**: Asking a Person's Name and Asking Him to Tell About Himself

**Objective**: Ask questions such as "Who are you?," "Where are you from?," "What do you do?," "How old is ....?"

**Materials**:

· Role cards with biographical data. (Students will play the roles of the persons described on the cards).

   Example of a role card:

      Name: David Clark

      Nationality: U.S.

      Date of birth: August 8, 1965

      Place of birth: Osaka, Japan

      Job: Pilot, US Navy

Family: wife (Mary), son (Jack, age two), daughter (Jenny, age four)

· Task cards with instructions to obtain certain pieces of information by asking questions. (Students will perform the tasks described on the cards.)

Example of a task card:

"Obtain the name and current address of the person who is the Honda Motors representative. He is not married."

**Preactivity**: Practice asking questions using "what," "when," etc.

**Activity**: Each student is given a role card and a task card. Each is given five minutes to become familiar with the role card. Each also studies his task card and practices asking questions. Students then interview other students one at a time to find a specified person (for example, the Honda Motors sales representative who is not married). When the person is found, the student who searched for him will obtain his name and address.

**Postactivity**: Each student introduces to the class the person he was instructed to find and reports on this person.

**Suggestion**: The cards may be exchanged so students can practice different roles and tasks.

**Activity 3**

**Dating Agency**: Describing a Friend and Arranging a Social Date for Him

**Objective**: Solve a problem through discussion.

**Materials**: Profiles of persons written on single sheets of paper. Each student will receive a profile of a different person. The person is described as an acquaintance. Half of the activity group receives profiles of men, the other half receives profiles of women.

Example of a profile (this can be written in the target language):

My friend's name is Jack. He was born in El Paso, Texas, on August 15, 1970. His father was in the Army. In college he studied history. At present he is in the Army. He was assigned to Germany for six months. He wants to continue studying history, especially Asian history, after he completes his language studies at DLI. But first he will go to Japan for three years. He likes outdoor activities such as biking and camping. He likes Mexican food, but cannot cook well.

**Preactivity**: Each student is given five minutes to familiarize himself with the profile of a person.

**Activity**: Divide the class into groups of four or six students. Make certain that half of each group has profiles of female acquaintances and that the other half has profiles of male acquaintances. The students' task is to find a date for their acquaintances. They will have 25 minutes for discussion. After the discussion each group will report to the class on who was matched with whom and on reasons why the matches were made.

**Postactivity**: Review the language used during the discussion activity.

**Suggestion**: The teacher can assist the activity by supplying language, if needed by the students.

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**The Applicability of Digital Video**
**to Computerized Language Learning**

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Technology Integration Division

This study investigated the capabilities of the Intel's latest video capture board, the Intel Smart Video Recorder Pro. It also provided information about the capabilities of various CD-ROM drives in handling AVI files. The final outcome of this study was an objective assessment of the applicability of today's digital video for the purpose of computer-assisted language learning.

One of the most attractive prospects of the modern computer-learning environment is the potential for integration of a broad range of authentic materials into various courseware programs. Appropriate combinations of text, sound, color, pictures, and animation contribute significantly to a more effective and motivating exposure of the learner to communications. One important element however, has been traditionally underrepresented in our courseware development: full-motion video.

The preceding statement should not be construed to mean that the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) has underestimated the importance of video as a learning tool. In the past, we have invested significant resources in developing video-related computerized materials. Our most important current effort in the field of full-motion video is the work of Jorge Salazar on the Spanish Video Courseware.

However, despite our many successes in this area, one significant problem remains unresolved: All of our past and current projects are hardware dependent. Each of the user's individual workstations has to be supported by an expensive laser disc player with cumbersome connections and custom setups. This hardware-bound approach prevents the DLIFLC from providing computerized video materials to outside users.

The growth in microprocessor technology in the last several years offers an effective remedy to the problems outlined above. The price of a mid-range video capture board can be as low as $500. In addition, the data transfer rates and data storage capacity of today's multimedia PCs have improved to the point at which the concept of digital video becomes not only technically achievable but also one of the least expensive ways to integrate this important medium into our courseware development.

The purpose of this study is to provide a better understanding of the specifics of digital video: capture, editing, sound integration, ToolBook 3.0 handling of AVI files, data transfer rates, and related topics. In addition, the authors have captured over 100 MB of digital video and placed the respective AVI files on a single CD for the specific purpose of testing the transfer rate of various CD-ROM drives. The following outlines our findings to date:

1. Digital video provides an acceptable level of quality and excellent portability for full-motion video. The most useful combination might be an image size of 240 x 180, 15 frames per second (f/s), and mono, 8 bit, 11 kHz sound. When the Intel R3.2 video compressor is used (this compressor is an integral part of the Intel Smart Video Recorder Pro card) one minute of such files occupies from 15 to 20 MB of memory.

These numbers are very promising. For example, the current Czech Proficiency Improvement Course (PIC) requires only 130 MB, including all sound files. A single CD offers over 650 MB of memory space. Thus a course such as the Czech PIC can be supplemented with at least 20 minutes of acceptable quality video-supported exercises, resulting in a more comprehensive learning program.

Very appealing is the fact that the end-user of digital video does not require any additional hardware. The user need not worry about expensive laser disc players, VCRs, complicated cable links, ultra-sensitive drivers, or other peripherals. A standard multimedia workstation (minimum 486/33) loaded with DOS 5.0, Windows 3.1, runtime ToolBook 3.0, MS Video for Windows runtime, and the respective AVI files is all it takes to display full motion video.

Digital video also provides the opportunity to circumvent our current copyright problems. It takes just a standard camcorder and a little imagination to produce whatever video is needed for any courseware development project. With our current experience, we can train any computer-literate employee to handle the digitizing of analog video in matter of five to eight

hours. This approach offers short turn-around time, a high level of flexibility, and minimal waiver complications. Additionally, once the copyright issues are resolved with SCOLA and laser disc publishers, in-house digital video capture allows us to create, use, and store the ultimate in authentic video materials.

2. The respective workstations require the following minimum capabilities:

Developer station

· Video card with display resolution covering the entire range of today's standards, such as 640 x 480, 800 x 600, 1024 x 768, and 1280 x 1024. Also, the video card must offer the entire range of color display options 16, 256, 65K, and 16 millions. Pricefrom $150 to $250.

· Video dedicated RAM (DRAM or VRAM)2 MB minimum (comes with the video card)

· Video-capture board such as the Intel Smart Video Recorder Pro$499.

· Data transfer rate of the CPU should be no less than 512 KB/Sec. The ata transfer rate of our current SCSI 486/33 is slightly over 1024 KB/sec.

· SVGA monitor, 640 x 480, 256 colors.

· PCI local bus

· Quad speed (4x) CD-ROM drive

User station

· Video card with display resolution of 640 x 480 and 256 colors. The ASL Lightning II, currently available at TI, is adequate. The original VGA cards installed in our current 486/33s cannot be used for the purpose of an AVI display.

· Video dedicated RAM (DRAM or VRAM)1 MB minimum. The ASL Lightning II offers the minimum in this respect.

· Preferably, a PCI local bus; ISA or EISA will perform acceptably when supplemented by an appropriate video bus.

· Any of our current 486/33s should be capable of handling the CPU-related tasks here at a minimum acceptable level.

· At least a double speed (2x) CD-ROM drive.

3. During our tests, all AVI files that we ran directly from the hard drive displayed acceptable playback quality. Also, ToolBook 3.0 handles AVI files very well under both MM and MCI control command structures. Double-speed CD-ROM drives have the potential of providing minimally suitable viewing quality, given a properly configured system. Most probably the next generation of workstations (such as the Pentium/75 with 4x CD-ROM drives) will be the best option; they are capable of providing superior results as far as the CD-ROM transfer rate is concerned. Single-speed CD-ROM drives, on the other hand, are totally unsuitable for running acceptable quality digital video. Users of such equipment must upgrade to at least double-speed drives.

Our current work on digital video has provided us with volumes of information about all major aspects of this promising area of modern technology. We believe that the knowledge and skills collected during the past several weeks will benefit many future courseware development projects. Most of all, the current work will diminish significantly the probability of committing costly errors in the procurement of hardware and software as well as in the design, resource allocation, and quality control of courseware development.

In conclusion, we would like to express our support for further integration of digital video into our courseware development efforts. Digital video is an attractive alternative to other existing approaches in the field of full-motion video. For more information regarding the subject of this report, call the Technology Integration Division at (408) 242-5323.

**The DLPT as a Learning Objective**

Ilsoon Shin
Asian Two School

The learning process is complex. As an instructor, I have been studying and observing it for about 30 years. In designing a program of instruction, one must define the program's objectives. Then one must have a way to gauge students' progress in attaining them. However, the gauge should not become the objective. Certain steps can be taken to prevent this from happening.

An example of a learning objective may read like this: "By the end of this course, the student, using an English-Korean dictionary, will translate from English into Korean a half-page article from Time magazine in one hour with no more than five mistakes."

Every course has different learning objectives. A course's objectives depend upon the subject matter, the proficiency level of the student, and other factors.

A multiple-choice test is one way to check student progress. In some fields, these tests can be constructed so that they are very valid and reliable. The scores of students can be ranked and compared. Multiple-choice tests, when well-constructed and appropriately utilized, are useful.

However, when students study mainly for multiple-choice tests, the objective for the course can become, in the view of some students, "passing the multiple-choice test."

This should not be a course objective.

Why?

To answer this question, another question must first be answered: What have students learned when they have learned to pass a multiple-choice test?

The answer is simple. They have learned to pass a multiple-choice test. That does not mean that they understand the topic, nor that they will use their new knowledge in new situations. They most likely do not know how to analyze to the appropriate standards. When rain is forecast, people take umbrellas to work. They do not have to think about it. Studying only to pass tests usurps the point of the objectives and thus distorts the learning process. Learning becomes only a race to pass a test. Meaningful exploration and the joy of discovery give way to the grind of memorization. Confucius would be proud of the students who succeed in such a situation, but testing that is so predictable that it dominates learning is poor testing.

What then is the remedy? I offer the following observations:

1. When students know the type of test that is to come, they study for that type of test. Measuring of broad and varied subject matter requires broad and varied tests. Some educators have developed a number of types of tests and randomly select a particular type for a given time. Therefore students cannot anticipate the type of test that will be given. They then direct their efforts more profitably toward studying the subject matter rather than the previous tests.
2. Most questions that arise in life are not framed with multiple-choice answers. For example, when something goes wrong on a job, a supervisor will probably ask: "What can be done about this?" Employees are not given choices, just situations to analyze and resolve. Some educators have placed more emphasis on the thinking process rather than on memorization. Their students are required to reason things out for themselves. They are forced to learn the process to know the answers to test questions.
3. Some educators assign extensive written projects. They are so specific that students cannot copy from others. Students must then think and organize their thoughts. Therefore, they learn. The quality learning process is not like following a cookbook. In order to be highly effective, instruction must be carefully designed for each level and situation.

Educators must be able to certify that graduates are really prepared in their fields of study. Testing should be designed to validate the ability of students to meet learning objectives. If tests do not do that, they often become screening devices that help eliminate those who have not memorized previous tests or testing patterns. The Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center needs graduates who can apply what they have learned. Some students learn well, no matter what testing system is in place. It is likely that many students do in fact study only to pass tests. But that is not enough. That must change.

**How Arab Émigré Writers in America
Kept Their Cultural Roots**

Foazi El-Barouki
Middle East One School

This article attempts to present a study of some words of wisdom and sayings of Arab intellectual émigrés in America, focusing on the contemplative characteristics featured in the personalities of Lebanese writer Mikhail N'aima and some members of the "Pen Society," which was formed in New York, Boston, and Cincinnati earlier this century. The Pen Society included Gibran Khalil Gibran, Mikhail N'aima, Abdul Messih Haddad, Nassib Aredha, Elia Abu Madhi, and William Katsfield. These writers showed common characteristics of bewilderment and skepticism marked by tender sufism and strong nostalgia for the motherland. They all had strong attachment to Arabic language, literature, and culture. The members of this group expressed a romantic philosophy in their outlook to life and professed their attitude toward moral and social values in numerous writings, books, and essays.

Their nostalgia for their homelands was illustrated expressly by Nassib Aredha, who once said: "I, the immigrant, have two souls: One follows in my footsteps, but the other is hostage to my homeland." To Abdul Messih Haddad, New York was "a city of gloom." Gibran said: "Here (in New York), life is as cold as ice, as bleak as ash, and as mute as the Sphinx."

Haddad wrote about the "misery and Western social values created by the feverish race for financial gain." His experience had a great emotional impact on him and he wrote about home (Syria) with so much passion and tenderness, mingled with bitterness, longing, nostalgia, separation, and isolation, as an "orphan rebelling against intellectual stagnation." "Riding a donkey up to the stream, walking to the vineyard in the midst of dust, on muddy roads, and sleeping in the meadow at noontime are sweeter to the heart of the old son of Syria than standing on Broadway, where cars and carriages are crammed together," Haddad wrote. "It is more beautiful to sleep in a cabin built from orchard trees than on a bed which does not see the sun for a single minute in the year. Sitting by the window in the old Syrian house, where your eyes can see for miles and miles, is more beautiful than the 58-story Woolworth building." He continued: "The robe which one wears, in which one feels comfortable sitting the way one likes, to squat or to lie down, lean (against a wall) or just lie flat, with nothing on one's legs or knees, is much more beautiful and a lot nicer than the shackles of pants."

The nostalgia for the East was reflected by a psychological inclination which members of the Pen Society shared and depicted through their passion for freedom. It was also reflected by their support for the unity of Greater Syria (Syria, Lebanon, Jordan, and Palestine) and their appreciation of the Arabic language and their loyalty to the notion of Arab identity. Despite the fact that all these writers were Christians, they respected Islamic culture and wrote about it. Gibran, who described himself as a Christian, a Lebanese, a Syrian, and a man from the East, had an affection for the Arab prophet Mohammed of whom he spoke highly. He expressed admiration for the glory of Islam and voiced his fear for its decline.

Gibran drew upon the Arab-Islamic heritage in some of his artistic portrayals. For instance, he named a character after the Prophet's mother Amina in order to reflect what he thought in the dramatic scene Iram, dhat el-Imad (The City of Pillars, mentioned in the Qur'an as an ancient capital) in his book Al-Bada'ie wal Tara'if (Marvels and Anecdotes). He wrote many essays about Avicenna, Al-Ghazzali, and Ibn Al-Faridh. He was influenced by the sayings of the renowned cousin and son-in-law of the Prophet, Ali Ibn Abi Talib, and his wisdom in Nahj-ul-Balagha (Manner of Eloquence).

Like Gibran, Mikhail N'aima was influenced by the words of some Muslim Sufis. In his saying, "One, sole prayer could mar (many) prayers," N'aima was clearly inspired by the old Sufi poetess Rabi'a al-Adawiya, who said: "Our plea (to God) for forgiveness is in need of forgiveness."

The psychological orientation of the Pen Society members was unambiguously portrayed by Gibran and Mikhail N'aima in their reflections on love, truth, knowledge, imagination, art, and human civilization. On the image of melancholy, Gibran wrote: "The melancholy of love chants, the melancholy of knowledge talks, the melancholy of desire whispers, and the melancholy of poverty wails. However, there is another (sense) of melancholy that is more profound than love, more noble than knowledge, more powerful than desire, and more bitter than poverty. Yet, it is mute and has no voice. But, it has eyes that glitter like the stars."

On civilization, he said: "When a savage gets hungry, he picks fruit from a tree and eats it. When a civilized person feels hungry, he buys the fruit from a person who bought it from (another) person who bought it from the person who picked it from the tree." He expressed his attitude towards art, esthetics, love, and truth in a philosophical tone. "Love is happiness that quivers," he said. He also said, "Enthusiasm is a volcano where the bushes of hesitation do not grow."

N'aima was influenced by Gibran's style that evoked philosophical wisdom, especially the kind of wisdom inspired by fables, which appeared in Gibran's book Sand and Foam (1926). N'aima wrote a similar book which he named Grapevine on a Passageway. In this book he compiled 454 sayings and proverbs which reflected his own views on life. His thoughts were close to Gibran's in certain aspects. For instance, where Gibran said, "Without guests, home would be a graveyard," N'aima said, "A house that knows no guests is a graveyard for its owners."

Gibran said: "Trees are but poems written by earth on the skies." N'aima wrote: "The poetry of earth is (in) its trees."

When N'aima spoke about truth, he pointed out that original truth lies in the soul. "He who has no guidance from his soul is lost," he said. He viewed love as the law of existence. He wrote: "The elements of the universe are four: 'L. O. V. E.' and they are combined by the individual's component of 'I.'"

His philosophy eliminated distances. "Your neighbor is the one that is close to you in heart," he once wrote. "Whenever I put my hand in a hand I had not touched before, I would say, 'Praise be to God,' for a new start that might cleanse his heart, at least one time."

His philosophy promoted forgiveness, for "there is no defense of love other than forgiveness." He stressed: "Love that does not forgive masquerades under a false name."

According to N'aima, love is protected by peace. "There will be no peace on earth until peace overcomes the last armed soldier." He believed that life is an everlasting cycle that is also indivisible. "Give me a drop of water and I will give you a sea."

About happiness, N'aima said: "The roots of pleasure lie in agony and the roots of agony are in pleasure, but happiness has no roots." However, man's endeavor to obtain happiness can be fruitful only in knowledge, because knowledge alone is the key to existence, he argued. "I knew; I wanted, and so I conquered fate," but, "I was ignorant; I rebelled, and I was crushed."

N'aima believed that man learns when he errs and that erring leads to pain. As for knowledge, it is the faith that rests in the heart. The mind is imperfect, according to N'aima. In fact, it is "your most ignorant (part)," he proclaimed. The senses, too, can belie the truth. "How many sounds have passed through my ears, sounds I did not hear? How many voices have I heard, but never with my ears?"

N'aima also wrote: "It is through faith that we reach eternity." To him, faith represented life. "For atheists, cradles are graves, but the graves of believers are cradles." He did not concern himself with an analysis of faith. He once wrote: "I have broken my pen twice: once when I tried to analyze my belief in God, and the other time when I tried to analyze my faith in myself. But, today I have put the pieces of my pen back in place, and now it is more powerful than ever, concerned not with analysis but rather with writing."

Imagination, in N'aima's view, is an infinite power that helps humans to attain knowledge. He said: "Between my eyebrows, I have a third eye without which I would be blind." In order to get to this knowledge and to achieve freedom, man has to overcome certain obstacles, according to N'aima. These obstacles include:

- A sharp tongue. "Better to be bitten by teeth than by a tongue."
- A desire to harm. (Addressing smokers), N'aima said, "If you have to smoke, then use incense smoke."
- Anger. "Anger is the spume of the fire of ignorance," he said. "I was angry for the sake of righteousness, but righteousness became angry with me."
- Love of money. "He who hoards money is an empty safe."

N'aima saw the image of God in the universe. He said: "Space is a giant egg and time is its crux." He added: "(It is) an egg within an egg, within an egg, all the way down to infinity. But, the pollen of everything is God, and that is the Universe." He believed that man is the image of God. "I wonder how a believer in God can curse His image and His example."

He believed that man owed his greatness to this image of God. "I have known ignorant people who claim to be knowledgeable, fools who claim to be wise, lowly people who claim to be superior, and poor people who claim to be wealthy. Yet, I have not seen a human being who claims to be a human."

The Bible had an obvious influence on N'aima. "It is an act of courage for a person who has a right to remain silent," N'aima said. According to N'aima, Jesus Christ has preached self-denial and

conquest of desire. In N'aima's words: "Freedom is a unique tree which grows upon a unique tree called understanding." This is very similar to the Biblical "Know the truth, and the truth will set you free."

N'aima was also influenced by traditional proverbs and old words of wisdom. For instance, he said: "A lesson would not be lost if it were a lesson to the person who took it." This is similar to an old Arab saying: "Malik (a man's name) has not forsaken the advice he gave you."

N'aima used other well-known sayings from his folk heritage to make a point, such as: "A moment of pain is an hour, and an hour of pleasure is a moment," and, "Sleep does not ride eyelids that are afflicted by worry."

Mikhail N'aima drew upon Arabic literature and was especially influenced by the old poet Abul Ala'a al-Ma'arri. N'aima wrote: "I saw a funeral procession pass by my window, and I said 'May God bless his or her soul.' Then a wedding procession passed by and I said, 'May God bless him and her." This was inspired by Al-Ma'arri's poem in which he said:

> I have no gain in my creed and faith;
>
> The lament of a wailer, or the chant of a singer.
>
> For the voice of mourning is similar, if compared,
>
> To that of the messenger of good tidings in every
>
> corner.

Then, N'aima said: "The dead are but the soil of the living," which was clearly inspired by Al-Ma'ari's line in the same poem:

> Tread gently with your steps, for I believe
>
> The face of earth is none but these bodies (of the dead).

The members of the Pen Society, particularly N'aima and Gibran, were proponents of romanticism in calling for self-expression of spiritual experience, affection for nature, and love for the motherland. They all seemed to share a sense of melancholy and rebellion and they believed in the oneness of life and unity of mankind. A certain similarity could be discerned between the intellectual make-up of the ideology of those émigrés and their attitudes after they left their homes, for one reason or another. It seemed inevitable that they would experience a severe cultural shock and alienation in the face of the complex traditions of big cities. No doubt some of them did experience this kind of feeling, and so they kept their own traditions and devotion to the Arabic language and culture. Some of them refused to abandon the fez, or the waterpipe, or the large mustache. They stuck to their original customs and culture and practiced their own traditions on all occasions, whether celebrating or mourning.

**Chinese Teachers' Workshop**

Meei-Jin Hurtt
Asian One School

The two chairpersons and four team coordinators of the Chinese Department participated in the interagency Chinese Teachers' Workshop, August 7-11, 1995, sponsored by the Center for the Advancement of Language Learning (CALL). There were twenty-five participants from five different agencies. This was the first time that the two department chairs and four team coordinators worked together outside of their regular work environment, giving them a chance to get to know each other better in a relaxed learning atmosphere. Aside from the benefit of the academic training and the opportunities for sharing ideas, they developed friendships with colleagues from other schools, such as the National Cryptologic School, the Foreign Service Institute, the Office of Training and Education, and the 17th Training wing, Goodfellow Air Force Base.

The facilitators of the workshop were Edward Stoops, former government linguist, and Kuan-Yi Rose Chang, West Virginia University. Scott McGinnis, University of Maryland, and Xiaobin Jian, College of William and Mary. They also made presentations and otherwise participated in parts of the workshop.

"Nuts and bolts of putting a lesson together: Five stages" was the title of Edward Stoops's presentation. The nuts and bolts represent the important elements of a sound lesson. Before a lesson is put together, the teacher should take these elements into consideration. Some of the nuts and bolts are: authentic texts, timely and timeless texts, subject matter, context, top-down procession, June Phillips's Five Stages, calibrating text and task with students, and exercises. After reviewing Five Stages, we formed groups of five or six.

Using authentic materials and the overview of Five Stages and exercises, the groups designed and presented a reading lesson that would be usable in our own classes. The first stage is preparation, which includes topic introduction and key vocabularies to predict the text. The second stage is skimming, scanning, and reading for textual cohesion. Selecting titles and topics of sentences, providing specific information and reorganizing scrambled paragraphs or sentences are some of the recommended activities. The third stage is intensive reading/decoding. Activities for this stage include organization of information, dictionary exercises, and filling in the blanks. The forth stage is comprehension check. Some activities proposed for this stage are gisting, filling in a chart, comprehension questions, transcribing, and translation. The final stage is skills integration. Teachers evaluate students' success and problems. Some activities suggested here are reports, vocabulary buildup, dictionary practice, and grammar reinforcement.

The participants found the guidelines of Five Stages and the suggested exercises for each stage to be useful and convenient tools for instructors to use in designing reading and listening lessons. Stoops also left us some interesting research topics to ponder for example,

- How do American Students Learn Chinese Reading Texts?
- Classic Characters versus Simplified Characters: Is It Necessary to Teach Students Classic Characters?
- When Is the Best Time to Send Students Overseas to Learn Chinese?
- Learning Strategies for Chinese Characters

At the workshop Xiaobin Jian presented his newly completed project, Kaleidoscope Spoken Cantonese: Context and Performance. The project contains three volumes of teaching materials and three hours of authentic video materials (six episodes of a Cantonese soap opera). Why authentic video materials? Jian listed three reasons. First, they provide real language (completed versus broken, articulate versus vague, verbal versus nonverbal, etc.) in action in real time (in a social and cultural context). Second, they show that verbal expressions work with other communicative devices. Third, they show not just the speaker's intention and attitude, but also the relationship between the speaker and the listener. Jian said that understanding what is going on, describing what is going on, using what was just learned in similar situations, and using what was just learned in different situations were his main objectives in developing authentic video materials for teaching. He divided the procedures of using authentic video materials into three stages: (1) familiarization, including previewing activities, introduction to the material, and intensive listening activities; (2) performance, including introduction to performance, performance exercises, and expansion exercises; (3) rehearsal and review of role playing and improvisations.

Scott McGinnis focused on communicative approaches in teaching Chinese grammar and student-centered activities. He maintained that grammar is the basic element of any language. Aside from

pronunciation, vocabulary, and written characters, learners must have a good understanding of Chinese grammar before they can master word usage and sentence construction. McGinnis emphasized that we should not teach grammar simply for the sake of teaching grammatical terms. Communication is the final objective of learning grammar. Using pictures from magazines and our own drawings, he directed us in designing grammar lessons. According to McGinnis, each lesson should consist of three parts: The first part identifies the grammar point, its functions (communicative and linguistic), context area, and content area. The second part presents examples and asks students to reach their own conclusions based on the information provided in the first part. The third part contains drills and activities to reinforce the learning experience.

"Integrating Technology into the Curriculum" was the agenda for the last day's workshop. Kuan-Yi Rose Chang, Pat Yang of LTD, and the Resource Center Staff of CALL demonstrated Chinese software and discussed its pedagogical value with us. All participants had ample opportunities for hands-on exploration of the software. The participants found OLEADA (Spanish for WAVE) to be the most impressive software program. OLEADA is an interagency project integrating language technology into three phases of training: development, presentation, and independent study. Developers identify relevant authentic texts, provide examples of words and expressions in context, discover the frequency of words in texts, and analyze the grammar of sentences. In presentation, teachers use OLEADA to identify relevant authentic texts, provide examples of words and expressions in context, segment target language text, identify the part of speech for each word in a text, and retrieve parallel English renditions of words and expressions across sets of texts. During independent study, learners use OLEADA to identify relevant authentic texts, look up unfamiliar words, analyze words in context for the part of speech, segment target language text, retrieve a parallel English rendition of the text, and identify key facts, such as people, organizations, and places. The functions of this project were gathering on-line multilingual text collections from sources such as newspapers, journals, and transcribed speech, then retrieving texts of interest for analyzing language in the texts. Sources included Agency France Press (for English, Peninsular Spanish, French, Arabic, German, and Peninsular Portuguese), Xinhua Press (for Mandarin, English, Spanish, French, German, and Arabic) and Yonhap (for Korean and English). This project helps instructors develop language learning materials, and it is most valuable for less commonly-taught languages. It will help learners to improve proficiency through self-study. It will aid analysts in maintaining and improving language performance.

The workshop was intensive and well organized; it provided a forum for exchanging ideas, sharing materials and resources, and strengthening ties with language professionals of other government agencies. DLI participants were pleased with all the presentations and discussions, and have shared the workshop information with their colleagues. Anyone interested in viewing the material may contact the Chinese Departments.

### Reference

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**Peer Observation**
**Concepts and Practices**

Alaa Elghannam
Middle East One School

A workshop on peer observation sponsored by the Center for the Advancement of Language Learning (CALL) was held in Washington, DC, from July 22nd to 26th 1996, with participants from three federal language-training schools in attendance.

The participants included eleven instructors and supervisors from the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC), seven from the National Cryptological School (NCS), and eight from the Foreign Service Institute (FSI).

The languages represented were Arabic, French, Russian, Spanish, Polish, German, Portuguese, Japanese, Chinese, and Albanian.

The workshop was moderated by Kathleen Bailey, of the Monterey Institute of International Studies, and Donald Freeman, of the School of International Training in Vermont.

**Workshop Objectives**

The main goal of the workshop was to "explore and develop concepts and practices in the use of effective peer observation for professional development." To pursue this goal, the leaders used a variety of techniques and procedures including brief lectures, groupwork, short reading assignments, and varied experiential activities.

Such activities not only made the seminar lively and interesting, but also created a positive atmosphere in which participants shared ideas, experiences, and opinions, all of which contributed significantly to the success of the workshop and to the professional development of the participants.

The seminar leaders established some micro-goals to guide presentations and activities throughout the workshop. The first of these was to "develop a personal and professional understanding of peer observation." Other objectives were to examine affective and power issues which influence peer observation, to learn objective procedures for collecting data in the classroom, to develop conceptually sound vocabulary for discussing peer observation practices, and to identify and clarify the issues involved in successful peer observation in a particular setting. To facilitate reviewing the concepts presented in this workshop, I will use these objectives to guide the discussion in this report.

**Peer Observation: Toward a Definition**

In order to develop an understanding of peer observation and eventually define the concept, an experiential learning model was first presented. This model suggests that learning occurs through a cycle of four sequential steps. This cycle begins with a certain experience and goes through reflection, generalization, and finally application.

In other words, learning and/or development occurs when an individual engages in a new experience or activity and thoughtfully reflects upon this experience by weighing it against his/her prior knowledge and expectations in order to arrive at a logical conclusion, make sound decisions, or generate new concepts or ideas regarding this particular learning experience, and to eventually apply the learned conclusion, idea, or concept successfully in a new situation.

Naturally, for such a cycle to be successful, an individual would sometimes need reinforcing feedback in order to be able to evaluate his/her new experience and to continue this learning and developmental process.

By proposing such a model in the beginning of the workshop, the stage was set to define peer observation as a developmental process rather than an evaluative one. It was also recognized that an element of evaluation might necessarily exist in this process and that an effort should be made to avoid being judgmental in the process of observation.

It is worth mentioning also that peer observation is occasionally used as a validation criterion in teacher evaluation research. The issue of evaluation was not particularly dealt with in this workshop, however.

In order to arrive at an acceptable definition for peer observation, it was necessary to introduce other concepts that are involved in this process. For example, it was important to define who a peer is, what the focus of observation would be and why, and whether there would be a follow-up or feedback and, if so, what form it would take. Within this framework, it was necessary to introduce another model that explains the components of teaching in order to identify what needs to be observed.

In this respect, one of the presenters introduced a model that describes teaching in terms of four essential components, which he referred to as the KASA model. According to the presenter, any teaching comprises knowledge, skills, attitude, and awareness.

The "knowledge" indicates the "what" of teaching; that is, the nature of the content, the teacher's familiarity with it, and knowledge of the student's sociocultural background and of the institutional context.

The "attitude" refers to the affective stance towards self, activity, and others, which links the internal dynamics of teaching and external performance of the teacher. The "skills" define the "how" of teaching in terms of methods, techniques, activities, and the tools and materials used. "Awareness," according to the presenter, triggers attention to the other three components.

Some participants, including this writer, have raised questions about the inclusion of "awareness" in particular as a component of teaching. Nevertheless, the model itself has been useful in identifying an important element in the observation process_that is what the observer needs to look for in the classroom. How to conduct this process in the classroom was another essential element that was discussed in detail in this workshop.

With regard to classroom observation, an important distinction has been made between three concepts: observation, inference, and opinion. Observation, it was pointed out, is the act of noting and recording facts. Inferences, on the other hand, are decisions or conclusions that are based on facts or evidence collected. Opinions are beliefs, evaluations, or impressions that are not necessarily based upon positive knowledge, but on what seems to be true, probable, or valid to one's own mind. The distinction among these three concepts has been very helpful in clarifying issues involved in peer observation and in raising awareness and sensitivity when conducting this process.

To further an understanding of peer observation and related issues, another distinction has been made between teacher training and teacher development. In effect, it was pointed out that teacher training is a process of external intervention through a specific course of action with a view to improving knowledge and skills of a teacher. On the other hand, teacher development was recognized as a more personal and internal process of maturity that occurs within the teacher as a result of being involved in teaching, in observing other teachers, in reading about teaching, or in other similar transactions.

Other practical matters of peer observation were then discussed and practiced afterwards. These matters include contracts with peers to observe their classes, techniques of note-taking during the observation process, and other issues regarding institutional culture. In order to systematize the observation process, the presenters suggested what they called "the contract-observation." It is essentially an agreement between the observer and the observed in which the focus of observation, its timing and duration, and its resolution or expected conclusion are set forth. In other words, what the observer would be looking for or at in the classroom, the length of observation, as well as whether there would be feedback afterwards and the nature of this feedback are predetermined in agreement between the two parties.

Some participants thought that such a contract might organize the process itself, but it would also formalize a process that should be kept informal. Nevertheless, participants were asked to role-play the entire observation process, including the contract part, and to record their reactions for further discussion.

The role-play was successful as it allowed participants to fully absorb the process and refine their understanding of its elements and related issues. The discussions that followed, notwithstanding, have revolved around the definition of peer observation and its applicability in a particular institution or situation.

Based on the information gathered in such discussions, a number of definitions were generated, fortunately emphasizing the same theme and elements. The following definition, nevertheless, captures most of the elements discussed and presented by the majority of participants: "Peer observation is a process in which an equal (e.g., a teacher) observes another equal in the process of teaching for the purpose of either learning, professional development, evaluation, or other similar objectives." Although evaluation was not particularly emphasized in this seminar as one of peer observation functions, it was generally recognized as one of the possible outcomes of this process. Therefore it was included in the definition.

**Conclusion**

The seminar succeeded in achieving its immediate objectives and in bringing the issue of peer observation to the forefront as a powerful tool in teacher training and development. There was almost unanimous agreement among participants that peer observation as discussed in this seminar can further teacher training and development efforts in foreign language training programs in general. Nevertheless, there was also a widespread recognition of the obstacles and challenges that might hinder the implementation of this innovation in such programs.

Some of the matters that were raised and discussed included time and administrative constraints, instructors' attitudes and expectations, and cultural idiosyncrasies that might exist in some institutions.

It was apparent from the discussion that having workshops, seminars, or conferences is perhaps much easier than introducing and implementing a systematic process of peer observation in a particular institution. Nevertheless, participants were left with the challenge of presenting this idea to their respective institutions. The challenge, in my opinion, is not in presenting the idea itself, but in convincing teachers that peer observation is an integral part of their professional development, and hence gaining their support and acceptance for the entire process. Perhaps a bigger challenge lies in getting administrators and supervisors to recognize the immense role that peer observation can play in teachers' professional development and to convince them to create the incentives and the atmosphere to encourage teachers to participate in this process of self-development.

**Language for a Lifetime**
**1997 Command Language Program Manager Seminar**

Lidia Woytak
Academic Journals

From May 12th through the 17th the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) hosted the Third Annual Command Language Program (CLP) Manager Seminar, with the theme of *Language for a Lifetime.* The seminar that started only a few years ago with a handful of people has grown very quickly into a gathering of over 200 participants.

The Third Annual Seminar was opened up by Colonel Daniel D. Devlin, DLIFLC and Presidio of Monterey (POM) Commander and DLIFLC Commandant. In the welcoming remarks, Colonel Devlin stated that the theme of *Language for a Lifetime* is essential in mapping careers of military linguists for professional and economic reasons. Addressing these linguists, Colonel Devlin asked:

- Are we serving your needs?
- What can we do better?
- How can we improve our programs?

Colonel Devlin explained to the audience at large that the DLIFLC graduates, the future military linguists, are turned over to CLP managers for maintenance, sustainment, and enhancement of language skills. He expressed hope that all commanders understand that importance of the CLP mission and assist managers in the difficult task of building language maintenance into linguists' schedules. Further, he informed the audience that due to a shortage of linguists in all services, DLIFLC now is training more students in its basic programs. He added that in these times of shrinking resources, the Institute does it, regrettably, at the expense of enrollments in intermediate and advanced courses.

Colonel Devlin stated that he is trying to change the sequencing of the training pipeline for DLIFLC students. He said, "It makes no sense that we spend a lot of time training basic linguists here and then just as they reach the peak of their language capability, we drop them in a hole for about three to six months where they get very little or no language instruction and by the time they get to you in the field, they've degraded at least a plus or maybe even a number."

Focusing on the concept of *Language for a Lifetime,* Colonel Devlin stated that DLIFLC is building a more ambitious program to support linguists worldwide. He stated, "We are putting together a much wider capability, a much larger capability and, within a year, a much deeper capability in language instruction on the Internet." Colonel Devlin announced that already this summer DLIFLC will come up with its first language training modules on the Internet. He promised maintenance and even enhancement support not only by computer-assisted materials, but also by providing on-line assistance from teachers at DLIFLC.

Concluding his address succinctly, "My goal in life is to put better linguists in the field," Colonel Devlin turned to introduce the guest speaker, Colonel James H. Hilliard, Commander of the Medina Regional Signals Operations Center (RSOC) in Texas. Colonel Hilliard, one of the major users of DLIFLC linguists, stated that he would like to spend less time doing things that could be done at the Institute. He pointed out that the world has changed dramatically since 1989 and that today's military linguists need to be more linguistically smart in a language because they are involved in treaty monitoring, the war on drugs, and other sophisticated assignments.

Thus, if Colonel Hilliard *were a king for a day*, he would change three things. First, he would raise the level of the basic training at DLI to 3/3/3. Second, echoing Colonel Devlin's remarks, Colonel Hilliard pointed out that he would change the training pipeline for military linguists. He explained that currently DLIFLC graduates are sent to a training school for six to eight months before he gets them. Thus he has to spend about 90 days trying to bring them up to where they were around graduation time. Therefore he recommended that they should go first to a military training, second to DLIFLC, and then directly to him, the user. Third, he would increase the information flow between DLIFLC and the field. He recommended more reliance on e-mail, virtual collocation, and the Internet as means of communication. Colonel Hilliard, who has been working with linguists for years, stated that only since Colonel Devlin has taken command has anyone from DLIFLC asked him how his linguists were performing in the field.

As the next order of business, Command Language Program of the Year Awards were presented to representatives of the Air Force, Army, Marine Corps, and Navy. Medina ROSC representing the Air Force won the Command Language Program of the Year Award followed by Army, Marine Corps, and Navy runner-ups who also vied for the honor.

On behalf of Medina ROSC, Colonel Hilliard accepted the CLP of the Year Award. He was followed by Mr. Frank Buschgans, the CLP Manager at Medina. Mr. Buschgans informed the audience that the Medina program consists of approximately 600 linguists, mostly Spanish and Russian. He stated that modular training and seminars are keys to their success. Further, he pointed out that he built a language center, structured a mandatory proficiency-based training of 12 hours per month, and put in a diagnostic test following which all military linguists had to document their progress. Next Mr. Buschgans stated that in addition to the diagnostic testing, their evaluation program contains DLPTs, questionnaires, and after-action reports. He stated that the latter aims to answer, "Are we providing quality linguists that are able to conform to any type of worldwide situation?"

Further, expressing concerns over training funds, Mr. Buschgans appealed for improved coordination and closer cooperation for effective use of resources. He indicated that due to lack of resources, their center—currently open 24 hours and 7 days a week—will have to cut its hours and days of operation. Consequently, he stated he would like DLIFLC to automate the Medina diagnostic tests by putting them on CD-ROM database or LingNet.

The 201st Military Intelligence (MI) Brigade at Fort Lewis was distinguished as the Army CLP of the Year. Accepting the Army CLP of the Year Award on behalf of the 201st MI Brigade, Staff Sergeant Rocke Mullen described language program at the Brigade. He stated that the linguists there have a foreign language center consisting of a language and a computer labs with access to SCOLA and two classrooms. He praised Ms. Ivonne Pavelek, a language coordinator, for her assistance and guidance. He stated that Fort Lewis linguists enhance their motivation by publishing a newsletter, participating in the Linguist of the Year Program, and in local recruiting programs. He further informed the audience that their linguists are evaluated by a global and special skills test, a human competency test, foreign language Olympics, and by performing in such areas of operation as Japan, Australia, and Korea. He stated that each area posed different challenges. In Somalia, for example, due to a lack of military linguists, they had to overcome a linkage problem between civilian linguists and military commanders. In Haiti, he continued, exemplary performance of his Fort Lewis linguists helped to save lives.

The Second Radio Battalion at Camp LeJeune, North Carolina, won the CLP Award for the Marine Corps. The award was accepted by Sergeant Bianca Toscano who stated that 77 percent of their linguists—mostly Arabic, Korean, Spanish, and Russian—are 2/2/2 or better on Defense Language Proficiency Test (DLPT). She added that almost half of their linguists are deployed in South America.

Naval Security Group from Rota, Spain, won the Navy Award for the CLP of the Year. The award was accepted by Senior Chief Petty Officer Ron Harris.

Award presentations were followed by a number of speakers who described testing, evaluation, technology integration, foreign language objectives, distance learning, Lingnet, Internet training, and various specific language programs at DLI. Subsequently, on Wednesday, the seminar participants were invited to visit the technology exposition at the Community Center on the POM Annex. They also could tour the POM facilities and take Internet orientation workshops.

Roundtable discussions on linguist lifecycle, distance learning, budget, materials, motivation, reserve forces, contracts, immersion training, program content, evaluation, and language training detachments took place on Thursday morning. These discussions gave the opportunity to the users to express their needs and concerns. Walking from table to table, one could hear comments regarding the quality of proficiency tests, the relationship between instruction and testing, and requests for more emphasis on teaching speaking and writing skills. Following two-hour discussions in groups of ten people, a speaker from each group provided a summary for the entire audience.

*Lifecycle.* Such issues as language retention, motivation, space imbalance, attrition at DLIFLC, and crosstraining were thoroughly discussed at the roundtable on linguist lifecycle. Since the discussants agreed that it is impossible to describe a generic model of a linguist lifecycle without entering service, unit, and language distinctions, they formulated five recommendations that would lead to an improved lifecycle for a linguist: (1) identify language by position and code; (2) identify how the linguist is used; (3) identify what a linguist should be doing in an ideal world; (4) teach the commanders to manage a linguist unit; (5) identify the resources that would bring the linguists up to the required proficiency level.

***Budget.*** The roundtable discussion group came up with several recommendations: (1) Fence the training money exclusively for that purpose by creating two separate funds, one for training and the other one for contingency operations. Postpone the April-May pullout of the unused training funds to higher headquarters till later. (2) Improve communication and coordination among linguists by placing a database (read-only file) for allocation of languages to units on Lingnet, hot tips and requests for help, and information about new DLIFLC training courses and materials. (3) Fund video tele-training (VTT) directly instead of allocating separate funds locally.

***Materials.*** The roundtable discussed locating and accessing materials, reproduction and distribution, and hardware-software variances. The group stated that Lingnet should be used as a central depository of materials. Linguists should know whom to contact by checking quarterly CLP listings. Further, major commands and other organizations should be encouraged to use Lingnet because the materials, in many cases, are available but not shared. He added that currently DLIFLC is filing the materials by language and by level. The use of LingNet as a source of materials for all units will reduce the cost through sharing. The group also appealed for inclusion of copyright information and release forms on LingNet so that linguists would know how to request a copyright release. Discussing hardware-software variances, the roundtable stated that there is a need for a common ground so that all units can utilize DLIFLC products and that DLIFLC will periodically upgrade system configurations. Software users should check the reading text file because it contains essential information. The group recommended all CLP managers reserve a quarter of the computer budget funds on maintenance and upgrade and buy standard hardware because it reduces the need for peripheral hardware and thus reduces the procurement costs.

***Motivation.*** Commander support is the most critical element in motivation. Therefore, it is essential to tie-in language proficiency to readiness and to commander's dispositions. Higher headquarters should authorize more language education for the commanders and offer more intermediate and advanced training for the linguists in the field. The group indicated that motivation is strengthened by offering continual, not occasional, training.

In the area of linguist recognition, the group recommended noticeable salary increases for linguists proficient in two languages. Also, the group suggested contacting local businesses to create awards.

***Contracting.*** The roundtable referred listeners to a model of a contract in the binder. It is important to document every contract and be aware that one contract affects another. To avoid perils of contracting, CLP managers may find it helpful to improve their current contract forms.

***Immersion***. Despite a variety of backgrounds and a variety of definitions of immersion, everybody in the group representing MACOMs, CLP, and reserves spoke in favor of immersion. Participants indicated that they would like to share lessons learned from the immersion programs and they would like to put this information into a DLIFLC "how-to" pamphlet. Such a pamphlet would be user-friendly and would also contain information on setting up an immersion program, getting funding for it, evaluating it, and justifying it. Commanders need to appreciate the linguistic and cultural benefits of an immersion program and consequently let them participate in it.

***Content.*** There is a lack of refresher and maintenance materials targeting levels 1+ and 2. According to the group, DLIFLC could support language maintenance if diagnostic tests were used. Such tests would identify linguists' needs in a language. CD-ROMs could be useful in administration of such tests and, following a proper diagnosis, DLIFLC could provide guidance on designing a language program. In reference to low density languages, for example Urdu, the group recommended sharing materials to reduce cost.

***Evaluation.*** The group tackled the issues of a CLP manager's self evaluation, global versus technical skills evaluation, and testing needs. DLIFLC Regulations 350-9 and 350-16 containing the Model Program as well as the DLI's Language Training Needs Assessment may be used for CLP evaluation. Proficiency Qualification Exams (PQEs) from NSA, TASS (The Total Army School System), and Fort Lewis forms for evaluation of technical skills may be useful for many other organizations too. Further, the regional refresher courses taken by reserve linguists should also be evaluated. Although the DLIFLC staff could provide training by offering such courses as instructor qualification course, frequently they are not even notified. Criticizing overuse of DLPTs, the group called for DLIFLC's assistance in development of the mission-related diagnostic tests that would identify strong and weak areas of CLP linguists.

***Distance Learning.*** Connectivity between the computerized linguists in the field was the major topic discussed. CLP linguists need more skill-specific training modules so they could perform better. Finally, the entire community must be involved in the exchange of information.

*Reserves.* This group attempted to address the problem of the reserve commanders who are given a mission impossible. They are getting soldiers with no language capabilities for billets requiring language skills. To solve this problem, the group recommended a change at the DA level that would establish a DLAB score requirement for entering soldiers. As a minimum, their DLAB would have to correspond to the DLAB score of the language they would need on the job. Subsequently, these soldiers would have to be offered training in the language in which they are supposed to perform. Additionally, echoing other groups, there was a call for placing training opportunities on Lingnet.

**Language Training Detachments** (LTD). The roundtable focused on the issues of requirements, diversity, and funding. Such factors as type and status (active or reserve) of a unit, location, and type of a language generate a variety of LTD requirements. Diversity is created by multi-language units and differing number of people within a language. Enhancement of language skills rather than just maintenance is a common need of all linguists. Elaborating on sources of funding, the group indicated that if the primary focus is on the requirements, "resources will come."

In the afternoon, Major Stephen M. Novak of Reserve Intelligence Oversight from the Office of the Secretary of Defense presented a proposal for virtual utilization and increased interconnectivity of linguists in the Armed Forces. He stated that in response to internal, political, and technological changes representatives of all services of the Department of Defense have been working for the past two years on a new congressional proposal.

Major Novak pointed out that the current situation is in need of improvement. From 1990 to 1996, at the expense of a quarter of a billion dollars, only 18% of the linguists have been 2/2/2 or better. Furthermore, he stated that many valuable linguists are leaving active components of the Armed Forces because their skills are not optimally utilized and thus their internal satisfaction is not strong enough to carry them through. He stated bluntly, "Linguists want to maximize their skills. They want to feel good about what they are doing." He emphasized that in response to a questionnaire probing their motivation, they listed monetary rewards only as a third incentive.

Major Novak stated that virtual utilization and interconnectivity are embedded in his proposal. According to his proposal, lifetime utilization of linguists is crucial. Such utilization would include senior NCOs (beyond E-7), warrant, and officer levels.

Further, Major Novak identified three pools of linguists: active component, reserves, and native enclaves. He stated that linguists no longer have to go to a central location, now, through the use of e-mail and Internet, the location goes to the linguists. He further elaborated that through virtual location every reservist, every unit will be hubbed into one huge national cluster. This cluster will be overseen by the board consisting of Army, the Navy, and Air Force representatives. Additionally, the board will be assisted by the Defense Language Working Group, and the Program Management Office. Program Management Office will be involved in assessing linguists, unit assignments, and providing language enhancement opportunities to the linguists.

Next, Major Novak described a database that would include information about language requirements and linguistic levels of reservists. This database would allow linguists to update their data continually. It would track all linguists and thus it would provide a basis for an electronic employment. Further the database would interconnect linguists for resourcing and mission accomplishment.

Major Novak explained that the implementation of the new policy will be supported from funds gained through reduction of redundant programs, such as financing representatives of the Armed Forces in every state. Finally, he expressed hope that utilization will increase the number of 2/2/2 linguists from 18 to 60 percent.

The proposal unveiled by Major Novak drew a lot of interest. Many language managers asked questions throughout the presentation and afterwards a group of linguists surrounded him to discuss the matter further.

On Friday, Colonel Eugene F. Beauvais, the DLIFLC Assistant Commandant, stated that the 1997 Command Language Program Manager Seminar had been a great success. The Colonel observed that the seminar provided a forum for sharing ideas, experiences, and suggestions that otherwise would not be vocalized.

Moreover, Colonel Beauvais pointed out that the seminar demonstrated a need for a tightened cooperation between the CLP managers, the Institute, and the higher headquarters. Specifically, Colonel Beauvais expressed concern over contractors' performance for CLPs. He stated that the issue of contract deliveries needs to be scheduled for examination and action. Further he stated that the Command Language Program Manager Seminar plays a leading role in maintaining instructional quality at DLIFLC.

In his closing remarks, Colonel Beauvais thanked the guests for their active participation and the organizers for making the Seminar a reality. He extended special kudos to the staff of the Operations, Plans, and Programs Directorate, especially Chief Warrant Officer 3 Fred Runo, Captain Ken Lasure, Senior Master Sergeant Michael Scalia, Master Sergeant Martin Dooley, and Mrs. Mary Hague.

In summary, the *Language for a Lifetime* seminar generated numerous ideas aiming at establishing and supporting a lifecycle career for a military linguist. The most frequently repeated ones were: use Lingnet, share training materials, improve information flow, provide steady training opportunities, develop more diagnostic tests, go digital with instruction and testing materials, educate commanders, and create CLP databases.

Through such actions as the CLPM Seminar, DLIFLC is defining the role of education in society. The Institute is sending a message to the community that education and performance are not separate phenomena but two complementary processes. In time, the educational community at large, universities and colleges worldwide, will understand that the goal of education is not just handing out a diploma but enabling a person to function effectively in a world of need.

**Ha-'Ilton Ke-emtsa'i Lehora'at Safah Shniyah.**
**"The Newspaper as a Means of Second Language Instruction."**
**(1991). By Ester Bahat. University of Tel-Aviv. Pp. 59.**

Reviewed by Sadok Masliyah
Middle East One School

Newspapers offer interesting and authentic materials that second language learners can use to improve their reading skills. Since a newspaper deals with real events and issues, it invites the reader to react and express himself. A newspaper can also be an effective tool for building vocabulary.

The stated purpose of Bahat's book is to give instructors ideas for using newspapers in teaching. The author's approach and the methods and exercises she suggests result from her many years of using newspapers to teach Hebrew to immigrants who came to Israel from diverse backgrounds and with varying levels of education.

The author advises instructors to scan newspapers to find passages that students would find interesting and that would elicit reaction. She says the level of difficulty of the passages should be a little higher than the class level so that the student is challenged. Short passages are usually preferable for beginning students, but long passages can also be chosen because they can furnish beginners with material for more than one lesson. Long passages can also be shortened by deleting some parts.

The author cautions that even advanced students can be apprehensive about reading newspapers because of widespread belief that understanding a newspaper requires an extensive vocabulary and a thorough knowledge of the target language. To help overcome this apprehension, the author suggests that instructors select passages on well-known topics.

At the beginning of instruction, the author says, a student can read a passage aloud with the instructor listening to assist with pronunciation. Then the instructor can ask questions about the passage. The questions can be about virtually anything in the passage. Students can then demonstrate that they understand the passage by reading it again.

A lesson might include four or five short passages on different topics. The instructor can ask the student to point out names of people, places, institutions, special terminology, or countable objects that are numbered in the passage.

The author says it is usually preferable for the student to have an opportunity to guess the meaning of unfamiliar words from context rather than having the words explained immediately. She says the learner should be made to realize that often he can understand the general meaning of a passage without knowing all the words. Knowing 60 percent of the words in a passage is sometimes sufficient for understanding it.

To help the student read a long passage, the author suggests that the instructor prepare a list of new words for the student. Such a list might deal only with specific lexical items, such as time-related words for "recently," "yesterday," "last night," "two weeks ago," etc. Another way to use a newspaper passage in an exercise is to ask the student to underline the essential elements or the main ideas in the passage.

The author also recommends an exercise in which the student is asked to find certain pieces of information on a given page in the newspaper. This exercise aims at increasing the learner's speed in finding information while improving his reading skills. The author says she has found this to be an especially good exercise for the last ten minutes of an instructional hour.

**Calendar of Events**
**1997**

20 July-1 August, Taos Institute for Language Teachers (French, German, Russian, Spanish), East Lansing. Information George F. Peters, CLEAR, A-126 Wells Hall, Michigan State University, East Lansing, MI 48824-1027; (517) 432-2286, Fax (517) 432-0473, Email clear@pilot.msu.edu

5-7 August, Problems of Teaching Modern Hebrew, Jerusalem. Informa- tion Ben-Zion Fischler, Council on the Teaching of Hebrew, P.O.B. 7413, Jerusalem 91073, Israel.

12-16 August, IALL/Language Laboratory Association of Japan, Victoria, BC, Canada. Information (604) 721-8294, Fax (604) 721-8778, Email [fleatIII@call.uvic.ca], URL http://web.uvic.ca/hrd/fleat3

20-22 August, OPI Training Workshop (French, German, Spanish), Lisle, IL. Information ACTFL, 6 Executive Plaza, Yonkers, NY 10701- 6801; (914) 963-8830, Fax (914) 963-1275, URL  http://www.infi.net/~actfl

4 September, Association of Literary Semantics, Freiburg. Information Monika Fludernik, English Department, University of Freiburg, D-79085, Germany.

24-27 September, OPI Training Workshop (English-LCT, French, German, Japanese, Russian, Spanish), Madison, WI. Information ACTFL, 6 Executive Plaza, Yonkers, NY 10701-6801; (914) 963-8830, Fax (914) 963-1275, URL http://www.infi.net/~actfl

25-28 September, German Studies Association, Washington, D.C. Information German Studies Association, Arizona State University, Tempe, AZ 85287-3204.

4-5 October, Carolinas Symposium on British Studies, Augusta. Information William S. Brockington, Department of History, University of South Carolina at Aiken, Aiken, SC 29801.

7-11 October, Foreign Language Association of North Carolina, location to be announced. Information Mary Lynn Redmond, 6 Sun Oak Court, Greensboro, NC 27410; Fax (910) 759-4591, Email  redmond@wfu.edu

17-20 November, OPI Training Workshop (Chinese, French, German, Italian, Japanese, Russian, Spanish), Nashville. Information ACTFL, 6 Executive Plaza, Yonkers, NY 10701-6801; (914) 963- 8830, Fax (914) 963-1275, URL http://www.infi.net/~actfl

18-20 November, Educational Exchange, Barcelona. Information CIEE, 205 East 42nd St., New York, NY 10017-5706; (212) 822- 2699, Email conference@ciee.org

19-20 November, National Association of District Supervisors of Foreign Languages, Nashville. Information Sharon M. Watts, 607 S. 123 St., Omaha, NE 68154; (402) 557-2440, Email  swatts@ops.esu19.k12.ne.us

20-22 November, European Association for International Education, Barcelona. Information Conference Director, EAIE, Van Diemenstraat 344, 1013 CR Amsterdam, The Netherlands; Fax (31) (20) 620-9406; Email eaie@eaie.nl

21-23 November, American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Lan guages, Nashville. Information ACTFL, 6 Executive Plaza, Yonkers, NY 10701-6801; (914) 963-8830, Fax (914) 963-1275, URL  http://www.infi.net/~actfl

21-23 November, American Association of Teachers of French, Nashville. Information AATF,57 E.Armory Dr., Champaign, IL 61820; (217) 333-2842, Fax (217) 333-5850, Email  fmajatf@vmd.cso.uiuc.edu

21-23 November, American Association of Teachers of Spanish & Portu- guese, Nashville. Information AATSP, Frasier Hall #8, University of Northern Colorado, Greeley, CO 80639; (970) 351-1090, Fax (970) 351-1095, Email seelsandste@bentley.univnorthco.edu

21-23 November, American Association of Teachers of German, Nashville. Information AATG, 112 Haddontowne Court #104, Cherry Hill, NJ 08034; (609) 795-5553, Fax (609) 795-9398, Email 73740.3231@compuserve.com

27-30 December, Modern Language Association of America, Toronto. Information MLA, 10 Astor Place, New York, NY 10003-6981; Fax (212) 477-9863, Email convention@mla.org

27-30 December, American Association of Teachers of Slavic & E. European Languages, Toronto. Information AATSEEL, 1933 N. Fountain Park Dr., Tucson, AZ 85715; Fax (520) 885-2663, Email 76703.2063@compuserve.com

**1998**

26-28 February, Southern Conference on Language Teaching with Foreign Language Association of Georgia, Savannah. Information Lee Bradley, Valdosta State University, Valdosta, GA 31698; (912) 333-7358, Fax (912) 333-7389, Email lbradley@grits.valdosta.peachnet.edu

14-17 March, American Association of Applied Linguistics, Seattle. Information AAAL, 7630 West 145th Street, Suite 202, Apple Valley, MN 55124; (612) 953-0805, Fax (612) 891-1800, Email howe@mr.net

17-21 March, Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, Seattle. Information TESOL, 1600 Cameron St., Suite 300, Alexandria, VA 22314-2751; (703) 836-0774, Fax (703) 836- 7864, Email conv@tesol.edu

26-29 March, Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, Milwaukee. Information CSCTFL, Rosalie Cheatham, University of Arkansas-Little Rock, 2801 S. University Avenue, Little Rock, AR 72204; (501) 569-8159, Fax (501) 569-3220, Email rmcheatham@ualr.edu

16-19 April, Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, New York. Information Northeast Conference, Dickinson College, PO Box 1773, Carlisle, PA 17013-2896; (717) 245-1977, Fax (717) 245-1976, Email neconf@dickinson.edu

24-26 April, Pacific Northwest Council for Languages, Boise. Information PNCFL, Foreign Languages and Literatures, Oregon State University, 210 Kidder Hall, Corvallis, OR 97331-4603; Fax (541) 737-3563, Email verzascr@cla.orst.edu

23-26 July, American Association of Teachers of French, Montreal. Information Jayne Abrate, Executive Director, AATF, Department of Foreign Languages and Literatures, Southern Illinois Univer- sity, Carbondale, IL 62901.

September dates to be announced, International Congress of Slavists, Cracow. Information Robert Rothstein, Department of Slavic Languages, Herter Hall, University of Massachusetts, Amherst, MA 01003-3940.

27-31 October, Foreign Language Association of North Carolina, location to be announced. Information Mary Lynn Redmond, 6 Sun Oak Court, Greensboro, NC 27410; Fax (910) 759-4591, Email redmond@wfu.edu

20-22 November, American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Lan- guages, Chicago. Information ACTFL, 6 Executive Plaza, Yonkers, NY 10701-6801; (914) 963-8830, Fax (914) 963-1275, URL http://www.infi.net/~actfl

20-22 November, American Association of Teachers of German, Chicago. Information AATG, 112 Haddontowne Court #104, Cherry Hill, NJ 08034; (609) 795-5553, Fax (609) 795-9398, Email 73740.3231@compuserve.com

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27-30 December, American Association of Teachers of Slavic & E. European Languages, location to be announced. Information AATSEEL, 1933 N. Fountain Park Dr., Tucson, AZ 85715; Fax (520)885-2663, Email 76703.2063@compuserve.com

**1999**

8-14 March, Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, New York. Information TESOL, 1600 Cameron St., Suite 300, Alexandria, VA 22314-2751; (703) 836-0774, Fax (703) 836-7864, Email conv@tesol.edu

11-13 March, Southern Conference on Language Teaching, Virginia Beach. Information Lee Bradley, Valdosta State University, Valdosta, GA 31698; (912)333-7358, Fax (912)333-7389, Email lbradley@grits.valdosta.peachnet.edu

7-10 April, Pacific Northwest Council for Languages, Tacoma. Information PNCFL, Foreign Languages and Literatures, Oregon State Univer- sity, 210 Kidder Hall, Corvallis, OR 97331-4603; Fax (541) 737- 3563, Email verzascr@cla.orst.edu

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19-21 November, American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, Dallas. Information ACTFL, 6 Executive Plaza, Yonkers, NY 10701- 6801; (914) 963-8830, Fax (914) 963-1275, URL http:// www.infi.net/~actfl

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17-19 November, American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, Boston. Information ACTFL, 6 Executive Plaza, Yonkers, NY 10701- 6801; (914) 963-8830, Fax (914) 963-1275, URL http:// www.infi.net/~actfl

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## 2001

16-18 November, American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, Washington, D.C. Information ACTFL, 6 Executive Plaza, Yon kers, NY 10701-6801; (914) 963-8830, Fax (914) 963-1275, URL [http://www.infi.net/~actfl ].

16-18 November, American Association of Teachers of German, Washing- ton, D.C. Information AATG, 112 Haddontowne Court #104, Cherry Hill, NJ 08034; (609) 795-5553, Fax (609) 795-9398, Email 73740.3231@compuserve.com

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