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Guest Editorial

Values for the New Millennium

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Never before in the nation's experience have the values and expectations in society been more at variance with the values and expectations indispensable to a military establishment.
— Columnist George Will (Maginnis, 1993, p. 2)

Emphasis upon values—important principles, goals, and standards—receives renewed attention today within military, educational and business arenas. This article outlines eight key values of significance to educators. While not exhaustive, the concepts addressed in this essay, when adapted and adjusted to individual teaching personalities and styles, can help maximize creativity, energy, and classroom stamina. These values are well tuned to meet the challenges of the new millennium.

Importance of Values

In a very difficult time, I believe that going back to our values, our essence, [gives] us the strength and direction we [need].
— General Gordon Sullivan (1996. p. 62)

Though this former Chief of Staff of the Army's words were addressed to the Army at large, they also have equal significance for us as faculty and staff members of the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center.

Classroom pressures overwhelm. Maintaining motivated students over an intensive 26-to-63 week course of instruction taxes even the most energetic faculty member. Administrative changes—whether introduction of new team members or department chairs or introduction of new learning strategies—can infuse new zest and vitality—or create irritation and frustration. Years spent in the DLIFLC classroom may promote a "been-there, done-that" perspective which saps creativity and depletes inspiration.

This article acknowledges the strains and tensions of the DLIFLC language learning environment. In the midst of these demands, however, a renewed emphasis upon substantive values can enliven, reassure, and inspire us in the task of training Armed Forces linguists for a new millennium. In

emphasizing eight key values, we can refresh and reanimate our enthusiasm and dedication to teaching.

I write these thoughts from a vantage point somewhat removed from the Institute. After serving three years as chaplain for World Religions at DLIFLC, I am at present deputy staff chaplain for Fifth United States Army, Fort Sam Houston, Texas. My outlook is based on reflections and thoughts generated near the conclusion of and immediately after the tour of duty in Monterey.

Patriotism

I think it is true that there are an astonishing number of people who want to serve their country and are willing to accept the modest security and low pay of a Civil Service employee simply because they feel that they are performing a patriotic service.

— Eleanor Roosevelt (1949, p. 7)

The training grind often stifles broadened perspective. Classroom drills, homework route, and engaging sometimes recalcitrant learners take our eyes off the bigger picture.

Faculty members and staff, your service to the United States of America is an invaluable one. Though you may not slog through the rain and mud of force-on-force combat, you nonetheless contribute greatly to our nation's defense. In an increasingly asymmetrical, unconventional, and globalized military environment, foreign language mastery for Armed Forces personnel is critical.

Our DLIFLC graduates—the products of your instruction—play an expanding role in military operations. The national loyalty and love of country you demonstrate daily bears tangible fruit through the lives of these graduates. Thank you for your service. May you continue to see the results of your patriotic labors and be satisfied.

Dialogue

One important idea coming from the seminars was improved communication between teachers of different schools and different teaching teams.

— Ayca Dutertre (Britton, 1999, p. 9)

One of my most rewarding experiences as DLIFLC chaplain was participating in a Faculty Professional Development Day on 28 May 1999. Faculty and staff from throughout the institute met in hallways and presentation rooms. School, department, and "Building 614" barriers came down. Ideas were shared. Interaction took place. Dialogue flourished.

Such interplay and exchange are vital. Fresh ideas spawn new learning techniques. Communication across school and department lines enables spirits

to be bolstered. Interfacing with others also facilitates awareness of being part of a larger mission.

A renewed emphasis upon dialogue also helps us deal with the many changes occurring in any government or educational institution. Change is made more acceptable by leaders (administrators, staff and department/team chairs) "being personally involved and by constantly talking to people, explaining both what we [do] and why." (Sullivan, 1996, p. 149).

National, religious, and cultural differences often diminish in the face of such conversations. As evidenced by a recent symposium held for Middle East teachers at Boston College, "common bonds between teachers transcend even the bitterest rivalries between...governments." (Steinberg, 1999). I would encourage us all—through formal exchanges or in the less structured setting of Aiso Library, Munzer or Munakata Hall—to take time for dialogue with diverse counterparts. Break down walls. In the process, experience renewal.

Constructive Attitude

[I endeavored] to create a climate in which each individual member could find personal meaning and fulfillment.
— General Edward Meyer (1997, p. 58)

Maintaining a positive, constructive attitude is crucial to our mission. Nourishing our inner souls through spiritual development, artistic, family, or hobby interests fortifies a perspective which dispels negative complaining and sour dispositions.

This constructive dimension arises also as we see the broader, human dimension of our teaching profession. Educator Haim Ginott, in his inspiring book entitled *Between Teacher and Child*, offers a student's critique of a teacher we all would do well to emulate.

> One teacher I'll never forget. He helped me to change my view of myself and my world...He was different. He delighted in our company. In his presence, we felt important; what we thought made a difference. He believed in us and guided us, appealing to our pride and imagination. 'The world needs your talents,' he would assure us. 'There is suffering and sickness and slums. You can be your brother's keeper or his killer. You can bring hell or help. You are each other's agents of agony or of comfort. In every situation, you can become part of the solution, or part of the problem.' His words still ring true in my heart and affect my life for the better. (Ginott, 1975, p. 237)

When we employ such a positive, helpful attitude with students, we can likewise make a similar impact.

Discernment

I had long since learned to cope with Army management fashions. You pay the king his shilling, get him off your back, and then go about doing what you consider important...
— Colin Powell (1996, p. 213)

Too often we create excessive negative energy complaining about policies over which we have little control. Filling out student counseling forms; following rigid schedules of instruction; arriving no later than 0745 and leaving after 1645; receiving 59 minutes of leave prior to a three day weekend; when disgruntledness with the rationale or explanation of such policies begins to consume our energies, we've lost the battle.

Wisdom entreats us to know where to spend our energies, to accept what cannot be changed, and to focus on what we consider vital and important. Establishing priorities and maintaining an elastic and pliable perspective is important. Following a well-thought-out vision can enable us to concentrate on critical aims and purposes. Rather than stubbornly fighting the foolish, irrelevant, or impossible to change, we can refocus the battle in the direction where we know we can make the greatest impact.

Focus

[If you are going] to succeed, you must focus on what's important or you get eaten up going 'faster, faster.'...'Focus, Sully, focus'
— General Gordon Sullivan (1996, p. 24)

Concentration on the task at hand and seeking creative methods to exercise our personal gifts within the constraints of the classroom can be challenging. Some of us have passions for music, art, or literature. Our interests may lie in history, economics, or practical arts and sciences. We seek to be creative. Yet restrictions, whether set lesson plans or in-class exercises, seem to limit full expression of our talents.

Maintaining a focus assists us in balancing personal gifts with structured requirements. Instructional schedules outline set tasks for the fifty-minute classroom session. Diligent focusing on these responsibilities can lead to task completion with ten-to-twenty minutes to spare. With some planning, such blocks of time make excellent opportunities to engage in language learning methods which more readily fit our personal interests and demeanor. Classroom tasks receive full treatment. Personal interests, which develop attendant student curiosity, are able to be employed as well.

Technology

No matter how the Information Age changes the role of people...we can safely predict that people and their ideas will remain at the heart of our organizations...Treating people with dignity and respect is the keystone of effective team building, leader development, and empowerment.
— General Gordon Sullivan (1996, p. 222)

The increasing benefit of quality language learning software in our school computer labs performs a great service. Computer savvy students learn through a medium with which they are comfortable. Interactive programs with visual, audio, and spoken venues stimulate acquisition of language skills.

Yet we need not fear the computer will replace dedicated teachers. An important human dimension remains in place with technological methodologies. Students need observation, coaching, training, and mentoring throughout the process. The character, personal worth, and internal motivation of the learner are factors which stress the essential need of the teaching profession. Embrace technology—yet realize its limits.

Gratitude

Oh, give thanks to the Lord! Call upon His name; make known His deeds among the peoples.

— Psalm 105:1

It may be a part of the aging process or renewed affirmation of habits instilled by my mother, but I am continually encouraged by the benefits of showing gratitude. A simple word of genuine thanks spoken or simply written goes a long way to cementing relationships between people. We all benefit in the process.

We show gratitude in many differing ways: applauding the student who diligently plugs along with slow though methodical progress; rewarding a recalcitrant learner who displays a fresh grammatical insight or masters a difficult pronunciation skill; simply acknowledging the presence of the Pride workers who maintain our floors; jotting a note to a presenter after an in-service training session; giving words of praise to God for benefits we readily take for granted.

As we express our thankfulness, others receive encouragement and we are blessed as well.

Spiritual Fitness

Spiritual fitness transcends moral fitness because it prepares the individual to deal with ultimate questions such as the meaning and value of life and not merely questions of proper behavior.

— Chaplain (COL) John Brinsfield (1998, p. 83)

As an ordained pastor in the Reformed Church in America and chaplain in the United States Army, I would be remiss not to emphasize the necessity of valuing spiritual fitness. Maintaining a healthy perspective, emphasizing the importance of the human dimension, and creating a divine witness through diligent, quality-enhancing work all stem from possessing genuine spiritual depth and energy.

Spiritual fitness comes through maintaining strong ties with our sacred heritage, attending the synagogue, church, mosque, meeting house, or chapel

of our choice, and upholding a devotional faith practice. Such a spiritual foundation sustains and enables other helpful virtues and values to flourish.

Conclusion

Values for the new millennium are critical in how we go about doing what we do in an environment of increasing change. As we put into practice the eight values outlined in this article—patriotism, dialogue, constructive attitude, discernment, focus, technology, gratitude, and spiritual fitness—we gain personal confidence and institutional pride concerning the important task given us by our nation, the training of our Armed Forces linguists.

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Article

Error Treatment
Does it Help in Second-LanguageAcquisition?

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The purpose of this article is to analyze what has happened in the field of second-language acquisition (SLA) concerning error correction from both theoretical and practical points of view. In the introduction the choice of the term error treatment, *used here for the discussion of corrective feedback, and the definitions of the act of error correction are discussed. The part entitled "Theoretical Background" focuses on the discussion in the literature of the very need for correction in the foreign language classroom. The parts that follow are devoted to empirical research on the subject of error treatment and its pedagogical implications. The inconclusiveness of this research is reflected within the complexity of the many issues of error correction in the field of foreign language pedagogy. As will be shown, the questions* what, when, *and* how *to treat an error need further discussion by specialists, as well as by foreign language teachers.*

Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics defines *error* in the speech or writing of a second or foreign language learner as "the use of a linguistic item (e.g., a word, a grammatical item, a speech act, etc.) in a way which a fluent or native speaker of the language regards as showing faulty or incomplete learning" (Richards, Platt, & Platt, 1992, p. 127).

I agree with Allwright and Bailey (1991) that this definition is sometimes too narrow and inadequate to work with. It "does not take into account the possibility that the target language mode the learner is exposed to may not be the native speaker norm" (p. 84). However, for practical reasons and for the purposes of this paper, I will accept the dictionary definition as a satisfactory one. In the DLIFLC Russian School where I work, the native speaker norm is the goal of the language program.

There are also many definitions of the actual act of error correction in the literature. In the contexts of different investigations one can encounter "corrective feedback," "repair," "negative evidence," "error correction," "negative data," and "error treatment." The term "negative evidence" is

discussed in various studies within the context of hypothesis testing as the main language strategy in first- and second-language acquisition. Within this framework researchers discuss language input in terms of positive and negative evidence. Positive evidence comes from exposure to the target language. Negative evidence (sometimes referred to as "negative feedback") refers to information that indicates to the learner that his hypothesis about a specific language feature is incorrect.

Allwright and Bailey (1991) use a medical analogy when they compare the word "correction" with the word "cure," and opt for the term "treatment" instead. I, too, will use "error treatment" in this paper.

The teacher's role is to provide language students with the feedback they need "to modify their hypotheses about functions and linguistic forms" (p. 99). Although not everybody agrees that the construction of hypotheses is the main mental procedure of language learners, I consider it to be an acceptable theoretical concept. As I see it, if we associate error correction with a "cure," only the learner himself can actually realize his language problem and eliminate it permanently.

In my review of the literature I found that, among other things, error treatment may be message-focused or code-focused. It may be self- or other-initiated and self- or other- repaired (Schegloff, Jefferson, & Sacks, 1977). It may occur implicitly or explicitly in the form of provision of the correct form by a teacher, peer, or native speaker. It may be accompanied by explanation, especially in a classroom setting (Chaudron, 1988; Gaskill, 1980; Kasper, 1985; Long, 1977). In a few instances in research studies implicit error treatment is included. In this paper I will focus on explicit error treatment of grammatical structures.

Theoretical Background

Many language teachers would agree with van Lier, who argues that error treatment is an "important variable in language learning" (1988, p. 182). A language teacher also wants to know whether error treatment is justified by learning theories.

Previous teaching practices, which are no longer supported in the field of language learning and teaching, relied on theories of conditioning, learning by association, and habit formation. At present the error treatment issue is part of a wider discussion on the topic of the benefits of conscious, form-focused instruction (Doughty & Varela, 1998; Lightbown, 1998; Long & Robinson, 1998; Williams & Evans, 1998).

The research that hypothesizes a drastic distinction between acquisition and learning maintains that learning is the product of form-focused instruction, but that only acquisition can produce real L2 behavior and knowledge. Within this framework, authors who consider that a second-language is learned the same way as a first-language insist that negative evidence, which does not play a significant role in first-language acquisition, is equally unimportant in second-language acquisition (Dulay, Burt, & Krashen, 1982;

Schwartz, 1986, 1993). Therefore, it is important for some language teachers to have reassurance that languages are learned, and that form-focused instruction, including error treatment, is an important part of language teaching.

Some authors argue that adult second-language acquisition is not like first-language acquisition, especially on the point of the need for negative evidence. According to this view (Cancino, H., Rosansky, E., & Schumann, J., 1974), the second-language learner does not necessarily utilize the same language acquisition as the child. As a result, he needs to be given negative evidence, either direct error treatment or some subtle hint as to the incorrectness of form in his utterances. He then processes this information with the problem-solving component of the mind (Bley-Vroman, 1988).

In the tradition of the theory of hypothesis formulation in both first-language and second-language acquisition, Schachter (1991) emphasized that there is no reason to believe that second-language learners behave differently from adult participants in problem solving, discrimination, inferencing, and concept learning experiments. She discussed some experiments in the field of psychology, in which adults make use of negative feedback. They abandon their hypothesis directly upon receiving negative feedback, switching to some new hypothesis immediately (Karmiloff-Smith & Inhelder, 1977). Schachter argues that, like those adults who participated in the psychological experiments cited above, language learners behave as if they are formulating hypotheses, testing them, and revising or rejecting them as necessary. If the input contains no negative data, the learner who has over-generalized while formulating a hypothesis will face a dilemma of trying to figure out which non-occurring sentences could not occur. She maintains that there is a great deal of evidence showing that adults and older children do not manage to cut back on over-generalization. It is also the case that negative evidence is often accessible and useful to adults in concept learning, and it seems reasonable to expect that negative evidence would be helpful for adults in language learning as well (Schachter, 1991).

In the tradition of Universal Grammar, Carroll and Swain (Carroll & Swain, 1993) stated that on the basis of specific analyses of linguistic knowledge, it was shown (e.g., by Chomsky, 1986, White, 1989) that naturalistic linguistic input is incomplete and could be misleading as a basis for constructing hypotheses about abstract principles of grammar. As a consequence, linguists reject the position that everything one comes to know about a language is induced.

Comparing second-language acquisition with first-language acquisition, some authors (e.g., Higgs & Clifford, 1982; Omaggio, 1984) insist on error treatment, explaining the need for it by citing the fact that classroom language learners especially in foreign-language contexts receive minimal input. This condition may make error treatment necessary to avoid fossilization.

Empirical Research

Empirical research on error treatment has accumulated some mixed findings on the interrelationship between error treatment and learning – some of them positive and some negative. Lalande (1982) examined learners' written work in his study of second-year German students at Pennsylvania State University. He showed that the use of an elaborate coding system for making students aware of the nature and frequency of their errors greatly reduced the number of errors in the course of a semester, compared with more traditional correction (in which the teacher simply makes the correction for the student).

In another study (Robb, Ross, & Shortreed, 1986), Japanese learners of English were examined. No stable or significant differences in fluency, accuracy, or complexity in English writing were found between groups that had received error treatment of different degrees of elaborateness.

Error treatment was one of the 19 variables in Ramirez and Stromquist's (1979) observational study, which involved 18 teachers and 141 students of English as a second-language from grade one through three. "Correcting the students' grammatical errors directly by providing the correct structure" (p. 151) was one of five treatment variables (teacher behaviors) that were found to be strongly and positively associated with students' growth. No significant correlation with students' growth was found for indirect correction of grammatical errors.

Carroll, Roberge, and Swain (1992) conducted a laboratory study with 79 college-age speakers of English who had studied French as a second-language to determine the effect of error treatment on the learning of derivational morphology. They found a positive short-term effect of error treatment in getting the learners to remember which suffix is attached to a specific stem. However, there was no evidence that these learners were able to construct a morphological generalization (that they induced the suffixation rule) better than the learners in the control group.

In a subsequent experiment, Carroll and Swain (1993) investigated the relative effects of explicit and implicit forms of error treatment on the acquisition of the English dative alternation by 100 adult Spanish-speaking learners of English as a second-language. Their objective was to "determine empirically whether feedback can help learners learn the appropriate abstract constraints of an over-general rule" (p. 357). These learners did better in learning the general dative alternation rule after a training period (during which they were told they were wrong after each mistake and then given the rule) than did learners under any of the other feedback conditions in the experiment.

These other conditions were: (1) the learners were told they were wrong (not given the rule); (2) they were given a correct response (if they were wrong); (3) they were asked if they were sure they were correct (when they were wrong); (4) they were not given any feedback. The last group performed worst of all the groups.

The results of this study revealed significant differences between all of the feedback groups and the comparison group, which had no feedback.

As Carroll and Swain stated "these results suggest that adult learners can and do use feedback to learn specific and abstract linguistic generalizations" (p. 358).

DeKeyser (1993) performed an "aptitude-treatment interaction study" on the differential effect of error treatment as a function of cognitive and affective student characteristics. The participants in the study were 35 Dutch-speaking high school seniors learning French as a second-language in the Dutch-speaking part of Belgium. The general hypothesis underlying his study was that "for the classroom as a whole, error treatment does not make a significant difference, but it has a significant positive or negative impact on individual students" (p. 504).

His first hypothesis was that "*No main effect* exists for error correction – i.e., no overall significant difference in learning outcome is discernible between the group that receives frequent and elaborate error correction and the group that receives virtually no error correction during communicative activities" (p. 505). This hypothesis was generally confirmed.

DeKeyser's second hypothesis was that students with high previous achievement benefit the most from error correction. A marginally significant interaction between previous achievement and error treatment was found in the written grammar test. The hypothesis was not confirmed, however, when the dependent variable was an oral test.

His third hypothesis–that students with strong grammatical sensitivity benefit the most from error correction–was not confirmed.

The fourth hypothesis was that students with strong extrinsic motivation benefit the most from error correction. This idea was not confirmed.

Finally, the fifth hypothesis–that students with low anxiety benefit the most from error correction–was confirmed for the written grammar test but not for the oral test.

The findings of DeKeyser's study seem to suggest that if error treatment is more useful for the "better students," as some studies imply (see Lalande, 1982) and as the interaction with previous achievement in his study confirmed, then "better students" are not those with higher aptitude, but those with other "probably affective, positive attributes" (p. 511).

DeKeyser emphasized that for students with very high or very low scores on such variables as previous achievement, extrinsic motivation, and anxiety, error treatment makes a significant difference: Students with high pre-test scores did better on the written grammar post-test after systematic error correction. Students with low extrinsic motivation did better on oral accuracy and oral fluency post-test measures after systematic error correction, and students with higher extrinsic motivation did better on oral accuracy and fluency without error correction. Finally, students with low anxiety did better on the written grammar post-test after systematic error correction. The study clearly pointed to different effects of error treatment on learners with different individual features.

In her work, Schachter (1974, 1986) speculated that besides error *correction,* various other forms of feedback are potentially helpful to adult

second-language learners. These include confirmation checks, clarification requests, failures to understand (such as *Huh?* or *What?*) silence, and extended and corrected repetitions (1986, p. 90).

Luster and Ranta (1997) conducted studies on the effectiveness of various feedback techniques in four immersion classrooms at the primary level. They analyzed transcripts totaling 18.3 hours of classroom interaction, taken from 14 subject-matter lessons and 13 French language arts lessons. They found that recasts (i.e., the teacher's reformulation of all or part of a student's utterance, minus the error), although the most widespread response to learner error, were the least effective in eliciting immediate revision by learners of their output. Instead, the provision of metalinguistic clues, clarification requests, repetition of learner error, and teacher elicitation of a repaired response were the most effective in stimulating learner-generated repairs.

Pedagogical Implications

As we can see, the various studies reviewed above produced different results. Some studies examined learners' written work; others focused on communicative oral activities. There are observational, quasi-experimental, and laboratory studies. Some researchers were interested in learners' immediate reactions to error treatment, while others investigated the effect on a learner's ability to deduce a general rule of grammar structure. The researchers examined how more or less explicit feedback or a variety of error treatment techniques affected language learners with different personalities.

There is also pedagogical literature which discusses factors that should influence a teacher's decision-making in error treatment (Hendrickson, 1978; Tomasello & Herron, 1991; Walz, 1982). The assumption here is that feedback will work to facilitate language learning in much the same way as it works elsewhere. But as we can see, there is not as much empirical evidence to support this assumption today, as there was when Hendrickson (1978) researched the literature on error treatment. He came to the following conclusions:

· no current standards exist on whether, when, which, or how student errors should be corrected or who should correct them;
· there are few widely accepted linguistic criteria of grammatical and lexical correction in foreign language teaching;
· much of what has been published on error correction is speculative, and needs to be validated by a great deal of empirical experimentation (p. 389).

Still, the majority of teachers as well as students generally agree that error treatment is at least sometimes useful and sometimes, though not always, necessary. Although experimental evidence is inconclusive, it suggests that error treatment may be helpful. What we really know is that the kind of knowledge to be learned, the kind of evidence presented to the learner, the situation in which the learning takes place, and the cognitive capabilities and

personality of the learner all play a part in the efficient or non-efficient use of error treatment.

One of the implications of the research on error treatment is that it must be optimal in order to be effective. If there is too much error treatment–i.e., almost a barrage of interruptions–it can stop learners' attempts at communication. They can think that so much is wrong with their production that there is little hope of getting anything right. On the other hand, the willingness of the teacher to let errors go untreated may serve to reinforce learners' errors. The result could be the persistence or even fossilization of errors.

Hendrickson, following Burt and Kiparsky (1974), advised teachers to try to discern the difference between "global" and "local" errors in learners' language. Global errors hinder communication; they prevent comprehension of some aspects of the message. A local error usually affects only a single element of a sentence; it does not prevent a message from being heard because context provides keys to meaning. Unfortunately, many erroneous structures in learners' language fall somewhere between global and local, and it is often difficult to discern the necessity for error treatment.

How to treat errors is even more complex. It seems quite clear that students in the classroom generally want and expect errors to be corrected. Allwright and Bailey (1991) discussed questions (which were originally raised by Hendrickson) concerning the decision-making process of the teacher. They pinpointed some important factors in the discussion of *whether* to treat oral errors or not.

Many factors influence this decision. For example, the teacher has to know if the learner has previously been exposed to the structure in which he made an error. Does the level of the learner's interlanguage development "allow him to react appropriately to error treatment–i.e., is the error within the learner's grasp?" (p.102) Another issue the teacher needs to address is the fact that the learner's erroneous output could negatively influence the rest of the class.

In deciding on *when* to treat an error, the teacher should keep in mind whether the learner is ready to notice and internalize the corrected form. Pienemann's (1984) learnability theory suggests that the learner will be able to deal with a new structure if it is in the next stage of the learner's natural language development.

One of the approaches to describing error treatment emphasizes the whole exchange, involving one or more learners and the teacher, and not an isolated act of treatments. Long (1977) provided a model of the decision-making options teachers go through in providing feedback. Chaudron's (1977) comprehensive taxonomy of such options and features (cited in Allwright & Bailey, 1991, pp. 220-221) explicitly describes error treatment. In her useful taxonomy Bailey (1985) recommends seven "basic options" and complements them with eight "possible features" within each option (Bailey, 1985, p.111).

In general, the research has provided teachers with some valuable insights into the nature of error treatment. It is still not clear to what extent error treatment facilitates learning. As Ellis (1995) stated, the general picture is that

error treatment is not a manipulative process. Rather it is a process of negotiation, one of several ways in which the teacher and the learners collaborate in managing interactional tasks in the classroom.

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Faculty Exchange

Supervisory Class Observations as a Teacher Development Tool

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Many of us consider formal supervisory class observations as a painful requirement, often associated with a high degree of ambiguity, discomfort, and anxiety on the part of both the supervisor and the observed teacher. This feeling is usually aggravated if observations are done randomly without much communication between the observer and the teacher before and after the observation. The teacher instinctively knows that each observed class will somehow appear on an annual performance evaluation. Yet the teacher typically has no opportunity to receive feedback or to explain his or her rationale for classroom decisions, which, if considered by the observer, might alter the outcome of the lesson evaluation. Teachers then conclude that the supervisor's goal is to catch them off guard. The negative cycle thus begins.

The supervisor also feels pressure since evaluating the act of teaching is itself a very complex task requiring specialized skills. It is virtually impossible to capture the essence of the instruction in an objective manner unless the observer and the teacher share at least part of the instructional context that determines the teacher's long-term objectives and day-to-day teaching decisions. Without that context the observer is limited to the "what" and "how" of the observed lesson but is unable to access the "why" without a high degree of speculation and subjective interpretation.

To try to understand the rationale for what happened in the observed class, the supervisor relies not on the teacher's explanations but on perceptions stemming from his or her own past teaching and learning experiences. These "ghosts behind the blackboard" (Wajnryb, 1992, p. 13) can color the supervisor's evaluation of the lesson.

Supervisory observations can be successfully demystified and can become a positive experience for both the teacher and the supervisor in spite of the ever-present element of evaluation. If done systematically with open lines of communication, they can serve as a powerful professional development tool for both the teacher and the supervisor. The enhanced quality of classroom instruction can in turn lead to improvement of a language program, branch, department, or school.

Below is a description of an approach which I consider most conducive to establishing a meaningful link between classroom observations and teacher development. I have found it very successful in the programs I worked with as Polish Department Chairperson and as Dean of the European and Latin American School.

Grazyna M. Dudney

The Observation Cycle

In this approach, observations are always announced. They last for the duration of the teaching hour and constitute one link in a three-part observation cycle, which consists of a pre-observation session with the teacher, an observation, and a post-observation conference. The purpose of the pre-observation session is typically twofold.

First, it is to negotiate the observation focus, the specific aspect of the teaching on which the observer will primarily concentrate. Areas for an observation focus could be, for example, the distribution of class time among students, time spent on tasks, the extent of target language used in class, error correction techniques, time management strategies, or the use of cognitive strategies in the context of a language task. The selection of the observation focus is usually driven by the teacher's or the supervisor's concern about an area of the teacher's or students' performance and is followed by a decision about which hour of instruction will be observed.

The second goal of the pre–observation session is to decide on a data-gathering method best suited to capturing information in support of the focus. An in-depth discussion of data-gathering techniques goes beyond the scope of this article. However, excellent insights and information on the topic can be found in numerous publications. Some of the best resources in this area are Richards and Lockhart (1994); Richards and Nunan (1990); Acheson and Damien Gall (1997); and Wajnryb (1992).

During the observation, the supervisor should follow basic rules of observation etiquette, such as being on time, appearing neutral and pleasant, not interfering with the teaching, and being as unobtrusive as possible. The purpose of the observation is to compile data about the lesson, paying special attention to the previously selected observation focus. This is a very important first step in the evaluation process. Evaluation cannot be valid unless it is based on an accurate and objective record.

Therefore it is important for the observer to concentrate only on gathering and recording data during the observation and not to try to fill out an evaluation form simultaneously. After the lesson, the observer should spend some time organizing and analyzing the data, filling out the evaluation report, and preparing a plan for the post-observation conference.

The post-observation conference should take place no later than two or three days after the observation to ensure that details from the observed lesson are still remembered. The post-observation session should be devoted to interpreting the data gathered during the observation (which should include opportunities for the teacher to expand on his or her decision-making process during the lesson), providing feedback to the teacher on strength and needed improvement, and working out an action plan. The action plan would normally relate directly to the agreed-upon observation focus and would give the teacher specific tasks to accomplish before the next observation. For example, as part of the action plan the teacher might agree to make a recording or a videotape of his or her class and to prepare an in-depth analysis of a selected area of

teaching. Other specific tasks might be attending a workshop, reading an article, setting up and carrying out action research, preparing a detailed lesson plan that is to be reviewed with the supervisor before instruction, or arranging for a reciprocal peer observation with a colleague. As part of the post-observation conference, the supervisor and the teacher agree on the purpose of the action plan and on the transition to the next observation.

Documentation of the observation cycle is carried out on an observation form capturing the main points from the pre-observation session (including the observation focus), data from the observation, and conclusions from the post-observation conference and plans for the next observation. It is important for the teacher to receive a copy of the completed observation form.

The supervisor should keep a class observation record for each teacher under his or her supervision. These records can also be included in a more comprehensive portfolio maintained by the teacher that includes other records of the teacher's accomplishments, such as articles written, presentations given, and other academic recognition.

Figure 1: The Process of Teacher Development Through Classroom Observations
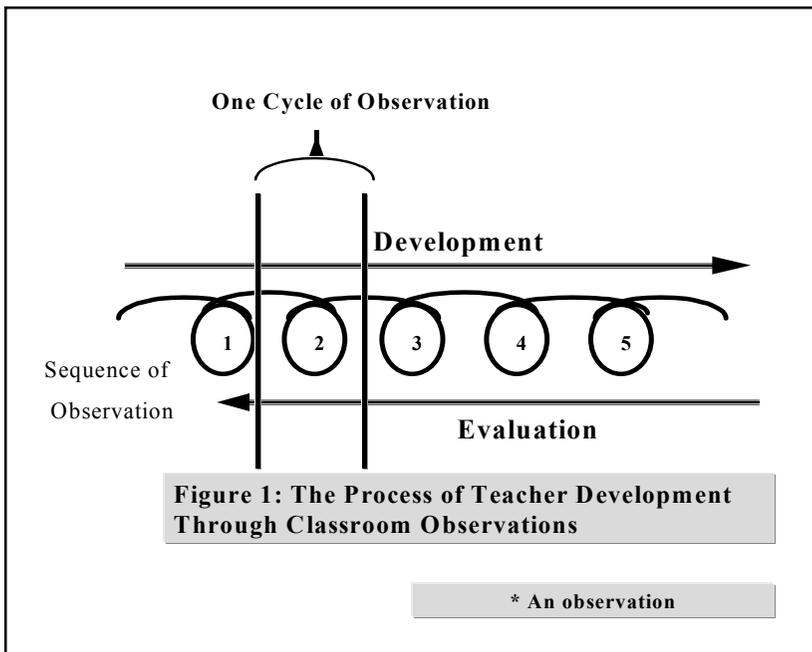
* An observation

The approach to observations described here is cyclical, systematic, and purposeful. It ensures that there is a meaningful link between observations. It allows the supervisor and the teacher to identify specific areas for observation and follow-up activities that are based on each teacher's needs and abilities. This focused activity, then, contributes to the long-range individualized

development plan for each teacher as well as to more specific short-term goals. Because of its orientation towards the future, the approach is formative rather than summative in nature. The observed hour of instruction is not the end of the observation cycle but serves as a springboard for continued development.

Choosing a variety of feedback options, such as directive, alternative, and non-directive (Freeman, 1990), as part of the communication process for pre- and post-observation sessions creates an atmosphere conducive to maintaining an ongoing dialog about teaching principles and practices and more readily leads to classroom experimentation.

The Role of Evaluation

The fact that evaluation is an integral part of supervisory classroom observations can sometimes get in the way of the process of teacher development, especially if the supervisor relies solely on a summative approach. A cyclical, systematic approach to observations does not diminish the role of evaluation. Rather, it makes evaluation multidimensional and less threatening. Figure 1 illustrates the interdependence of teacher evaluation and development in the context of formative supervisory class observations. Instead of using isolated class visits as the primary building blocks for the teacher's appraisal, it uses regular class visits as the foundation for formative and individualized long-term planning of teacher development. The core of the teacher's annual appraisal is then derived not from the number of deficiencies observed, but from the progress the teacher made from the beginning of the process to the point at which the rating is due.

Conclusion

The approach to classroom observations described above lends itself to creating an atmosphere of trust and cooperation in an organization. It communicates the high value of professional development and by focusing on reflection, communication, and professional inquiry, it allows both the teacher and supervisor to become not only better at what they are doing but also to enjoy it more.

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Arabic as a Foreign Language in the New Millennium

Integrating Language and Culture Through the Comprehension of Idioms

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"Arabic as a Foreign Language in the New Millennium" was the theme of a symposium held at Wayne State University, Detroit, Michigan, on October 15 and 16, 1999. The symposium was cosponsored by the Department of Near Eastern and Asian Studies, the Foreign Language Technology Center, College of Liberal Arts, and the American Association of Teachers of Arabic (AATA).

According to the conference keynote speaker, Dr. Emily Spinelli, 1999 American Association of Teachers of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) President, the process of second language acquisition in the new millennium is shifting away from format and standardization to meaning, diversity, and individualization, and from uniformity to customer service technology (including CD ROM and video sound systems). In an address titled "Language Teaching and Learning in the 21st Century," Dr. Spinelli spoke of growing interest in interactive videos and distance learning.

The symposium featured presentations, group discussions, and workshops, and was attended by over 100 professionals in the field of Arabic as a foreign language (AFL) from the United States, Canada, Europe, and the Middle East. Four themes predominated: AFL past and present; AFL directions in the new millennium, AFL and technology, and the teaching of Arabic in the Detroit Arab community. Professional presentations addressed linguistics, language and culture, computer-assisted studies, multimedia teaching materials, and second language acquisition. A lesson learned from the symposium is that AFL is on the rise.

My contribution to the symposium included the following paper.

Comprehension of idioms as sociolinguistic features of a foreign language is an important task in proficiency-oriented instruction. Many aspects of a foreign culture can be taught effectively when introduced and practiced in contexts which are relevant to the needs of students.

The significance of sociolinguistic and cultural features is apparent when language competence is measured by the extent to which a person can perform specific tasks in a foreign setting using a foreign language. To perform dependably, one needs an understanding of many idioms and sayings of everyday life. As with any language, the most elementary and frequent social conventions of the Arabic language have their roots in Arab culture.

This paper is a brief introduction to the Arabic program at the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC). It includes a discussion of the "ways and means" of integrating language and culture, students' reaction to the learning of culture, and some personal experiences.

The Arabic program at DLIFLC was established in 1948. Enrollment has grown from 11 students that year to about 800 in 1999. The number of faculty members has grown from four instructors in 1948 to nearly 200 in 1999.

This expansion led to the formation of two Middle East Schools with 28 teaching teams for the Arabic Basic Course and four teams for refresher and intermediate programs. The two schools have at least 82 sections for the basic course and a number of other sections for post-basic course instruction.

The Arabic Basic Course is a 63-week intensive program in Modern Standard Arabic that includes cultural modules and familiarization with three regional dialects—Egyptian, Gulf, and Syrian. Three other dialects—Saudi, Yemeni, and Magribi (Moroccan)—can be included upon request.

"Gulf to the Ocean," popularly called "the GO Course," is the main text for the first of the Basic Course's three semesters. It is a functionally and culturally oriented interactive video program which was introduced in 1986 and supplemented in 1990 with two texts containing proficiency-oriented material. All materials designed for the second and third semesters have been developed by the DLIFLC faculty.

In the first semester, a lot of emphasis is given to sociolinguistic and cultural aspects of Arabic. The second semester includes five modules of language and culture topics dealing with travel, tourism, and transportation; the marketplace and money; health care and medicine; jobs and education; and sports, hobbies, and leisure activities. In the third semester, students use a variety of proficiency oriented materials that focus on geography; military and security; politics and economics; cultural and social issues; and science and technology.

Course materials are organized with the DLIFLC mission and students' final learning objectives (FLOs) in mind. The FLOs orient the teaching of foreign languages at DLIFLC towards proficiency by defining the objectives and outlining ways of reaching them. Besides focusing on the three major skills of listening, reading, and speaking, the FLO-oriented approach address a number of sub-skills to include transcription, translation, and two-way interpreting.

A lot of emphasis is put on training students to extract essential elements of information from an audio or printed text. There is very little emphasis on writing skills in the Arabic Basic Course.

To enhance and reinforce understanding of the above-named topics, each student receives a set of authentic supplementary materials. Students are required to pass several listening and reading combined tests, semester tests, FLO tests, and proficiency tests throughout the course. The goal is to attain, at least, Level 2 proficiency in listening, speaking, and reading upon completion of the course.

The rating scale for proficiency is that of the Inter-Language Roundtable (ILR) Skill-Level Description Guidelines. It is similar to the ACTFL Scale. When our students attain Level 2 proficiency, they are categorized as "intermediate".

A survey of students who graduated from the Arabic Basic Course in fiscal 1999 shows that 94% attained Level 2 skills in reading, 80% attained Level 2 skills in listening, and 45% attained Level 2 skills in speaking. These figures show a notable improvement over the figures for fiscal 1998, when 91% attained Level 2 skills in reading, 68% attained Level 2 skills in listening, and 32% attained Level 2 skills in speaking. In stark contrast, a 1985 survey showed that only 5% of graduating students had attained Level 2 skills in listening, only 5% had attained Level 2 skills in speaking, and only 1% had attained Level 2 skills in reading.

Factors that may have contributed to students' increasing success in the Arabic Basic Course are the dedication of the instructors, and the implementation of a Learning Enhancement Packet provided by the administration of Middle East School 1.

The packet includes an outline of activities arranged by semester. Two short seminars on language learning and language strategies, two briefings about speaking skills (including familiarization videos in English and Arabic), a series of motivational talks to students by school administrators, and use of computer programs designed to review grammar and culture in communicative context are also included.

As indicated earlier, the Arabic Basic Course is not grammar-based; rather, it is culturally and functionally oriented. From the beginning, instructors introduce idioms and cultural information in contextual passages and dialogues that are modeled by the instructors and discussed in the classroom.

For example, in the new Introductory Phase, developed and implemented five years ago and taught in the first four weeks, students are given notes explaining how idioms and phrases that are widely used in the Arab world are rooted in culture. In Lesson 4 of this phase (the fourth or fifth day of the Arabic Basic Course), the materials draw attention to a very important aspect of public behavior. It is important for our students to understand that in an Arab setting, certain forms of lounging while seated are unacceptable. One of the worst things a person can do is lean back and place a foot on a desk or a table in the presence of another person, even in an informal situation. sloppy quickly loses status in the eyes of others.

Appearances and one's public image count for a lot more in the Middle East than in North America. In the Middle East, one whose behavior is considered. In the Arabic Basic Course, the introduction of culture and familiarization with Arabic settings begins on the first day of instruction. To practice unfamiliar sounds as well as to get a feeling for Arabic culture, an Arabic name chosen at random is assigned to each student. For example, Mr. Anderson might become "Sayyid Ahmad" and Miss Morris might become "Aanisa Nora". (The word *sayyid* means "Mr." and *aanisa* means "Miss.") Students are then taught to differentiate in gender when using the second person. The pronoun *anta* is the masculine pronoun for "you" and *anti* is the feminine. When students address an instructor, they use the word *ustaz* for a male instructor and *ustaza* for a female instructor.

Early in the course our students are made aware of the significance of a number of Arabic expressions that have cultural values and connotations. For instance, the phrase *alhamdu-lillah* is explained in a special note because it is so widely used in the Arab world and by Arabic and non-Arabic speaking Muslims all over the globe that its introduction early in the course is a must. Like *alhamdu-lillah*, the phrase *inshallah* is explained not only because it is as widely used as the former but also because it may be misunderstood by Americans dealing with the Arab world. Often, foreign people who do not have a good knowledge of linguistic and cultural aspects of Arabic are likely to misunderstand a phrase such as *inshallah* to mean that the partner is not interested or even insincere.

The Arabic Basic Course focuses early on expressing greetings, excusing one's self, using forms of address and titles (which are important in the Arab world), using expressions of courtesy, asking or giving directions, and expressing thanks. Students are taught to invite a person to sit down, to share food or drink, and to enter a room or an office. On the first day of the course they learn a very useful expression, *ahlan wa sahlan*, which has a number of meanings that can be translated as "Nice to meet you" when an introduction is made and "You're welcome" in response to an expression of thanks.

Also made available to students are two in-house publications that are rich sources of cultural information. Volume One of *Culture of the Arab World: Selected Aspects of Middle East Religion/Culture* addresses culture in a systematic way. Volume Two deals with Arab manners and customs. Instructors have also produced a number of compact disks in collaboration with DLIFLC's Technology Branch of the Curriculum Development Division. These are used in computer labs. Software which integrates language and culture includes interactive drama, military and culture modules, and interactive grammar.

The following expressions that a person is likely to hear every day in an Arab country are included in the Arabic Basic Course to integrate cultural idioms into language teaching. Arabs often greet each other warmly and enthusiastically. Simple Arabic greetings such as *marhaba(n)* ("Hello") and *ahlan wa sahlan* ("Welcome") are taught during the first meeting between

instructors and students. During that phase, instructors introduce the phrase *Kaifal-hal* (How are you?) and teach students to respond by saying *Alhamdu-lillah* ("Praise be to God."). More complex greetings are taught during the first phase of the course. Many of these, though difficult to pronounce, are of cultural significance. For example, students learn to say *Sabahu-l-khair* ("Good morning" or "Morning of goodness"). Students are taught to respond by saying *Sabahu-n-nur* ("Morning of light").

The word *nur* here refers to "the light of God." At the same time, students learn the expression *Assalamu-'alykum* ("Peace be upon you"), which is an international greeting used by Arabs and non-Arab Muslims at any time of the day or night as a greeting.

Students are made aware that because the Arab world spans a vast region encompassing 20 countries on two continents (Asia and Africa) there are many cultural differences within the Arab countries. Students benefit from our diverse faculty by learning various forms of greetings from different instructors. For example, students learn from an Egyptian instructor the phrase *Izzayyak* ("How are you?" or, more literally, "How is your outfit?"). One who does not know this phrase in context might well be confused, thinking that there is something wrong with the clothing one is wearing.

Likewise, students are exposed to dialect forms expressed by other nationalities. Iraqis say *Shlounak* ("How is your color?"); Moroccans say *Ishakhbarak* ("How is your news?"); Tunisians say *Shnu Ahwalak* ("How are your conditions?"); Algerians say *Ishrak* ("How do I see you?"). In the Levant dialects used by Syrians, Lebanese, Jordanians, and Palestinians, the equivalent expression is *Kief-halak* ("How is your situation?") or *Kief-Sahtak* ("How is your health?"). The differences between such forms can become significant to students if they one day travel to any of the countries where these phrases are used.

Students should be made aware of the subtleties of idiomatic expressions because literal translation could easily lead to misunderstanding. For example, it is very common in the Arab world to heat the phrase Hamatak bithibback, which literally translates into English as "Your mother-in-law loves you." This phrase is said by people who are dining at the time a visitor arrives. It is an invitation to share the meal.

Literal translations of idioms used in English can likewise lead to confusion. For example, the very common idiom, "What's up?" would not be understood if it were translated literally into Arabic. A listener might look upward and wonder to what the speaker is trying to direct his attention.

I personally experienced a shock on my first day in the United States in August 1971 when I inquired at Temple University about lodging for the night. I was told that the university had a "guest house," which I thought was similar to a *madhafa,* which in Arab countries is understood to be a guest room of a house. My shock came when I was told the cost was $50 per night.

After a few weeks in the Arabic Basic Course, instructors begin to engage students in cultural activities that include use of idiomatic expressions and proverbs that convey Arab cultural values of hospitality, generosity, and etiquette.

Among the proverbs is *al-akl 'ala qadril-mahabba,* which means: "The amount you eat is equal to the amount of love you have for us." We teach our students to respond to this expression of hospitality by accepting the host's invitation. We advise students that if they have already had enough to eat, or if they are on a diet, they can politely abstain from eating by just sampling the food. That way they avoid offending the host by refusing.

Adjectives and other parts of speech are often taught through idioms and proverbs. For example, when we teach students the Arabic equivalent of the adjectives "long" and "short," the phrase "His tongue is long" may be introduced, not only to practice a new adjective but to introduce an idiomatic way of saying "He is talkative" or "He is impudent."

As a follow-up activity, other idioms or proverbs that make use of the word "tongue" may be introduced. Among these are *Yu'araf'úl-marii min lisanih* ("The man is known by his tongue.") or *lisanak husanak itha khuntu khanak wa itha suntu sanak* ("Your tongue is your guardian. If you protect it, it will protect you, but if you betray it, it will betray you.")

To build proficiency, instructors prepare their own proficiency-based materials. These usually deal with ordinary activities such as dining in a restaurant, reserving a room in a hotel, or mailing letters at a post office. Some instructors also conduct vocabulary games, or introduce students to activities they can perform in the computer lab using compact disks. A game called *Souk Ukaz* ("The Market of Ukaz") is recommended as an approach to FLOs and enhances students' abilities in listening comprehension, transcription, pronunciation, and translation. This game was used in ancient times for poetry competitions. It requires a player to formulate a word, phrase, or sentence that begins with the last consonant of a word spoken by another player.

Nonverbal communication is another way to integrate language and culture. Students are taught that gestures convey lexical meaning. This is especially useful knowledge for one who has minimal knowledge of Arabic. Arabs tend to gesture regardless of the intensity of their emotions. The gestures described as follows are some that are likely to be misunderstood by Americans:

1. Raising eyebrows while shaking one's head sideways means "I can't understand" or "I can't hear" or "I don't get it." This gesture can be used by an instructor when a student gives an incorrect answer or an unclear response.
2. Moving the tips of all fingers of the right hand and pointing upward means "Wait a minute." This also can be a useful gesture when a student has said or read something incorrectly.

3. Gesturing for "Come here" in Arabic is done by motioning towards the speaker with the whole hand. A North American equivalent is waving only the index finger, which could be considered offensive in the Arab world because it is generally used with dogs and other animals. Knowing this is particularly important when teaching the imperatives "Come here," "Go there," etc.

4. Arabs consider a person who faces them while sitting cross-legged to be very offensive. Even more offensive is sitting with a foot upon a desk or table.

I will tell you about a "culture shock" I experienced on my first day as a student at Temple University. As soon as my English teacher (who was wearing blue jeans) had entered the classroom and said hello, he sat down and put his feet on his desk facing the students. As an Arab who was conditioned to regard teachers with the highest respect, the teacher's attire and manners seemed repulsive.

In conclusion, I would like to point out that our main text, "Gulf to the Ocean," still uses laser disc and a personal computer. The latest attempts to transfer the material to compact disk were successful, but the DLIFLC administration is looking for ways to make additional improvements. Despite the efforts for an alternative up-to-date text, the "GO" course is still considered the best available global functional program to integrate language and culture.

Segments of the video are introduced to students. A passage based on four lessons is introduced–first aurally, then visually. Students learn by discovery. In the functional global method, students are led from the whole to the parts. The video program has the following advantages.

1. Students work at their own pace outside the classroom.
2. The program gives students the opportunity to build up a reservoir of knowledge.
3. Students do not have to rush to understand complex material within a single class period.
4. Generally, students get to know each other well through performing the role-playing activities such as "Meeting and Greeting," which is introduced in Lessons 1 through 4.

Students indicate they like the student-centered setting. They enjoy the relaxed atmosphere with the instructor remaining in the background, only monitoring class activities. Students value our main text as excellent for building speaking skills because it has many cultural and survival situations that can be used every day. "Gulf to the Ocean" helps students develop receptive skills, helps them break away from rote repetition, and enables them to observe live examples on the screen.

In the second and third semesters, students acquire sufficient cultural, social, and historical knowledge to understand idioms and significant expressiona. Student feedback about the Arabic Basic Course is very encouraging. The course, the supplementary materials, the creativity and dedication of instructors, and the unique composition and diversity of the faculty combine to give students an understanding of Arabic culture.

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Will Translation Devices Replace Humans?

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In recent years researchers have made undeniable progress with computer-based machine translation (MT) devices and a number of MT systems are now commercially available. However, these systems have so far failed to dominate the market for language translation services. It is now recognized by many language service providers and their customers that MT technology in its present form cannot match the versatility of human translators (O'Hagan, 1996).

When U.S. Marines conducted a 1999 mock invasion of the Presidio of Monterey, California, called Operation Sea Dragon, one of their goals was to test new equipment, including a hand-held simultaneous translation device which was said to be capable of providing instantaneous translations from foreign languages into English.

I volunteered to participate as one of the "Booleans," the inhabitants of a mock Arab village who were friendly towards the Marines. I wanted very much to communicate with the Marines using the new translation gadget, although I was skeptical about its capability. As it turned out, the Arabic translation device was not used during the operation because of a mechanical problem that developed with the helicopter that was to transport it.

However, I had a chance to observe the Korean translation machine in operation. I watched as the operator carried it on his shoulder and extended a hand-held device about the size of a cell phone. From a paper he read sentences in Korean and the English translations came forth from the machine almost instantly!

It was amazing, and I couldn't help thinking: "Will the day come when a translation device replaces humans?"

Translators and Interpreters: What Do They Do?

Translators and interpreters have to understand concepts which underlie the languages spoken and written by people of diverse cultures (O'Hagan, 1996). In other words, linguistic ability, itself difficult enough to find and develop, is essential but not sufficient to make a good translator or interpreter. Linguistic traps abound, with potentially disastrous consequences for interpreters and translators.

For example, the Japanese often try to avoid direct and confrontational language and may not clearly say *yes* or *no*, which can make their statements very hard to translate into English, with its more straightforward expressions. A simple phrase caused friction between former President Richard Nixon and

Japanese Prime Minister Eisaku Sato, who was accused of not keeping his promises after stating through an interpreter that he "would take care of the issue." The original Japanese expression, *zensho shimasu,* was in fact intended to be a polite noncommittal response, but this was not the meaning conveyed by the interpreter (Matsumoto & Mukai, 1976, p. 4).

An Arabic expression which literally translates as "this is a word of truth" is normally used to describe things which are untrue.

Additionally, spoken Arabic is almost always in dialect and contains colloquial expressions. If I had used Arabic to ask one of the young Marines of Operation Sea Dragon what country he was from, I could have done so in many ways. For example, I could have said:

1. *Ya jundi, min aina anta?*   (IAINDIMNAIN ANT)

2. *Anta menin ya dufaa?*   (ANT MNIN IA DF")

3. *hwa alakh alkareem menin?*   (?W AIAO ALKRIM MNIN)

4. *Men AI balad anta?*   (MN AI BLD ANT)

Expressions 1 and 4 would be considered Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) and might well be translated correctly by the translation device. I doubt that the device would have the same success with expression 2 because the word "dufaa," which in this context means "fellow soldier," also means, as defined in the Arabic-English *Hans Wehr* Dictionary of Modern Arabic, "a burst, a gush, a spurt, all at once, in one stroke and the like." Therefore, a possible translation by the device would be: "Where's a burst from?" As for expression 3, it could be translated as "Where's your generous brother from?"

It is not difficult to imagine the potential for misunderstanding that could arise unless the translator or the interpreter is thoroughly versed in such everyday usage. In reality, every language has elements of national idiosyncrasies buried in culture-bound expressions. Cross- cultural communicators have a daunting task to negotiate such hidden traps, as the failure to do so can cause grave misunderstanding.

In the world of literary translation, there is no shortage of examples to demonstrate the difficulties in transferring hidden messages contained in language. In some texts, conveying the cultural code attached to words can be crucial and a drastic adjustment in the process of translation may be essential. One often-quoted example (Bekku, 1982, p. 86) occurred when a famous American translator of Japanese literature translated the Japanese words *shiro* (white) *tabi* (socks) as "white gloves" in English. What seems an obvious error was a deliberate strategy to convey the implied message. The original Japanese words carried the idea of formal attire, a concept that would have been completely lost by a literal translation, which would more likely have suggested casual sportswear. "White gloves," on the other hand, recreated

the implied image in the reader's culture.

I recall an interesting incident that happened while I was visiting my home country, Egypt. Some of my cousins were watching an episode of "The Love Boat" series on television. It was not dubbed, but subtitles in Arabic appeared across the bottom of the screen. It caught my attention when a character named Doc said to a character named Gopher: "Come on, I'll buy you lunch," and Gopher responded by saying: "I can't, I'm busy now, but I'll take a rain check." I looked at the translation printed on the screen. Gopher's response read: "I can't, I'm busy now, but I'll take a check of rain".

Needless to say, my cousins appeared very confused by Gopher's response, and asked me if Americans were in the habit of giving checks every time it rains! To me it was very obvious that the translator did not understand this American idiomatic expression and failed to communicate what was said correctly.

The requirement for intimate cultural knowledge is generally less applicable to translators of technical material, but their task is no less difficult. Technical translation pursues the principle of literal rendition to a larger extent than literary translation does. Because the former tends to deal with more universal concepts rather than culture-specific ideas, it is less concerned with conveying connotative meaning across cultural barriers.

Machine Translation Devices: What Can They Do?

Contrary to the computer engineers' initial predictions that "if the dictionaries were large enough and the lexicography good enough, then the programs would be able to do quality translation" (Schank and Kass, 1988 p. 182), the languages we speak and write, with all their exceptions and ambiguities, their subtleties and idiosyncrasies, are far more complex than this statement suggests and have proved to be beyond the capabilities of computer technology. Some of the issues which challenge human translators to their limits have been insurmountable for machines. The translation process often relies on extra-linguistic information which is extremely difficult to capture in computer terms. In other words, the correct interpretation of natural language often relies on human linguistic intuition.

Human listeners and readers often add information from their own sources to make sense of the words they hear or read. For instance, in the sentence "He cannot bear children,"' we automatically assume the meaning of "bear" to be "tolerate," because we know that men cannot give birth. But if the sentence was "She cannot bear children," the only way to determine the correct interpretation of "bear" would be from the context. The sentence "I was watching a man with a telescope" is most likely to conjure up an image of the subject watching a man *through* a telescope, rather than watching a man carrying a telescope, because of our knowledge about the meaning of the word "telescope."

On the other hand, if the sentence read "I was watching a man with a gun" we would understand it as most likely to mean that the man was carrying a gun, as we know a gun is not a viewing device. This distinction, however, cannot be made purely on the basis of grammatical rules.

Another example is the term "back-to-back housing" (Lodge, 1994, p.63). A literal translation into some languages would not carry the intended meaning of "working class housing."

Before a translator, human or machine, can even begin the task of converting such sentences into another language, it is usually necessary to resolve such ambiguities. Doing this involves access to an enormous amount of world knowledge or common sense, together with the inference capabilities required to apply the knowledge to a given context.

While human translators and interpreters generally carry out extra-linguistic interpretation of sentences and phrases subconsciously, making computers do the equivalent is an extremely ambitious task. Cultural issues, such as the examples illustrated earlier, add a further challenge to translation devices.

Machine Translation Devices: Success Stories

Two surveys give an interesting insight into machine translation applications in the 1990s. In June 1993 the International Association for Machine Translation (IAMT) surveyed 75 MT users worldwide and received responses from 38, including 16 in the United States, 11 in Europe, and 11 in Japan (Lawson & Vasconcellos, 1993, pp. 121-122). Eighty-two percent of the respondents had installed MT during the preceding five years. Seventeen systems were in use. Output ranged from 25,000 to 45,000,000 words per annum and the most commonly translated item was technical manuals. One user, a manufacturer of machinery for industrial fluids, stated: "Translation would be barely feasible for this volume at this speed without machine translation devices," while a commercial translation company commented: "MT is indispensable for high-volume jobs" (Vasconcellos, 1993b, p. 43).

Often cited as the most successful and long-standing example of MT in operation anywhere in the world is the TAUM METEO system, which was implemented in Canada in 1978. Developed at Montreal University, it is used by the Canadian Weather Service for routine translation of weather reports from English into French. With a vocabulary of some 1,500 items, about half of which are place names (Nirenburg et al., 1992, p.12), the system relies on the fact that sentences used in weather reports are generally short and employ standard phraseology (i.e., the input to the MT system is syntactically and semantically well-delineated). Translated text is sent out directly to newspaper offices, broadcast stations, and other news outlets. With a success rate for unaided translations of about 95 percent (Nagao, 1998, p.33) the TAUM METEO example has demonstrated that within the confines of the "ideal" environment MT can attain highly usable results.

Conclusions

Translation devices do not appear to be a threat to human translators for a variety of reasons. Only trained experts who have knowledge of the culture of both languages should perform translating and interpreting. When dealing with the complexity of languages and cultures, no computer device can be sufficiently reliable to replace humans. It is now recognized by many language service providers and their customers that the technology in its present form cannot match the versatility of human translators.

The translation device may have some limited usefulness at times when no linguists are available, but with some restrictions. Within a specific field, such as meteorology, it is possible to predefine almost all possible grammatical structures used, thus reducing ambiguity to a minimum. Perhaps within a decade, MT will appear in several ways, including telephones that translate, multilingual E-mail, and machines that scan and translate letters and articles. You may be buying toys over the phone from a sales agent in Japan with the telephone doing the translating. And when you travel to a foreign country, you'll be able to get the same bargain rates that the natives do with your trusty PET (Portable Electronic Translator) (Hovy, 1993).

One can leave the last word on the subject of future machine translation to the imagination of Douglas Adams. In *The Hitchhiker's Guide to the Galaxy* (1979) he describes the ultimate portable automatic translation machine: The Babel fish feeds on brainwave energy received not from its own carrier but from those around it. It absorbs all unconscious mental frequencies from this brainwave energy to nourish itself. It then excretes into the mind of its carrier a telepathic matrix formed by combining the conscious thought frequencies with nerve signals picked up from the speech centers of the brain which has supplied them. The practical upshot of all this is that if you stick a Babel fish in your ear you can instantly understand anything said to you in any language. The speech patterns you hear decode the brainwave matrix which has been fed into your mind by your Babel fish (pp. Adams, 1979: 49-50).

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Scheduling Special Assistance

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European School II

Special assistance to students with academic problems is an important part of our school's effort to help students and to lower attrition. The purpose of this study is to share an approach to scheduling special assistance sessions that is being used by my colleagues in Russian Department C in European School II.

Traditionally, special assistance has meant an additional classroom session for students who have failed a test or who have other academic problems. At DLIFLC, the scheduling of special assistance varies from school to school. In the Russian program it once was a 60-minute session that was scheduled for the seventh hour and was called a remedial hour. Now it is a 30-minute session scheduled just after lunch from 1 to 1:30 p.m.

Normally, teaching teams try to place students who need special assistance in groups of not more than three, according to the students' areas of weaknesses. For example, students who are experiencing problems with listening comprehension are placed in one group and those who are experiencing problems with grammar in another.

However, if there are four students who need to work on listening, and two who need to improve their grammar, then very often one of the two who need to work on listening is grouped with the two who need grammar improvement. This is done to avoid forming an additional special assistance group.

There are a number of students who experience difficulties in more than one skill. In the Russian program, students often have difficulties with both listening and grammar. It is a challenge for instructors to prepare materials and to organize time with these students. Often during the half hour of special assistance, instructors focus on one of the skills, leaving the other for the next day. If more than one instructor is scheduled to teach a particular special assistance group during a week, problems of coordination can develop.

In our school, students who are not in need of special assistance have an additional 30 minutes at lunch break, which they can use to take care of personal matters or just to rest. Their lunch break lasts from 12 noon to 1:30 p.m. The lunch break for those on special assistance is from 12 noon to 1 p.m. Missing out on a half hour of free time that is being enjoyed by their classmates might cause students on special assistance to feel they are being punished. Such feelings can undermine their motivation during the special assistance session.

What might help to avoid these problems is simply removing students who need help in a particular skill from the regular class and working with them in small groups.

For example, if a student needs improvement in listening, he or she would be pulled out of the audiolab or any other class focusing on listening. If a student needs to work on his or her reading skills, he or she would be pulled out of a class that has a main focus on reading.

Students who are experiencing the same learning problems would then be placed in small groups of not more than three, exactly as for special assistance. With an instructor they would follow the same schedule and cover the same materials as the rest of the class. However, they would be able to do it at their own pace with less peer pressure to speed up, and they would have more time to ask for clarifications.

In our department we have experimented with this alternate approach to special assistance and I would like to quote one of the students who experienced both special assistance options. This student, who found the alternate approach preferable, said: "It's great to get more personalized time with the instructors and not feel like I'm holding back the rest of the class with my questions."

Teachers also have said they prefer the alternate approach because it gives them more opportunity to address students' needs.

"The most important benefit is that there is a whole class period instead of just 30 minutes," one instructor said.

Also, a class of only three students instead of ten (or 30 during the audiolab hour) allows instructors more contact with each student. This enables instructors to detect students' academic problems and their causes more effectively.

"I find it more effective because I prefer to do a lesson with three people instead of ten," one student said. "It is better than the special assistance at 1300 because I find half an hour of special assistance it was too short and unstructured."

If a student has more than one area of weakness, he or she can be pulled out of a full section more than once during a day (if there are enough instructors available to do it). This allows more flexibility in combining students into small groups based on their areas of weakness. If there are not enough instructors on the team to address each student's weakness in a separate hour, then addressing areas of student weakness can be alternated.

For example, the student who is experiencing problems in both listening and reading would be placed one day with students working on improving listening and on the following day would be placed with students working on their reading skills.

Placing students who need assistance in small groups can serve as a preventive measure as well. Because the students get more attention from an instructor and have more time and opportunity to obtain clarifications and to practice the language, the probability of better understanding, acquisition,

and reinforcement of the material is higher. These students would likely have fewer problems with the material that lies ahead.

Some instructors note that a conventional half hour of special assistance can be used as a question-and-answer session, giving students a chance to obtain clarifications of a range of concepts, including concepts introduced much earlier in the program. Students often cannot do this during the regular class hours because instructors are under constant pressure to cover new lesson material and have no time to review old material.

Organizing a more homogeneous group of students with the same or similar problems can help an instructor choose teaching techniques that benefit a particular group. Then if the needs of students are still not met, an additional special assistance hour from 1 to 1:30 p.m. can still be scheduled.

To maintain continuity in helping students with their problems and to monitor students' progress, it would be beneficial for both students and instructor if the same instructor worked with the same group of students throughout the week or throughout the entire textbook lesson (instructors' availability permitting). This would help to solve a dilemma whether to go over the same material that was covered in class or to use additional materials. Many instructors face this dilemma.

Working with the same group of students for a period of time helps instructors select teaching materials, approaches, and techniques appropriate for a particular group of students. Better continuity would result because the instructor could reinforce what was covered, reintroduced, or clarified in the previous lesson.

Finding a separate room for each small group would be necessary. It might become a problem because most of the classrooms at the Institute are typically ocupied during regular teaching hours.

Helping students with academic problems during regular class hours softens the perception of special assistance as punishment and gives all students the same amount of time for a lunch break. Students surveyed found special assistance during the regularly scheduled hours beneficial. One student attributed his progress in the course exclusively to the full-hour special assistance option.

"It covers the same material as is covered in class," he said. "It allows those of us who are having some trouble to get more individualized help without hindering the rest of the class. And because we are covering the same material as in class, we are not a step behind, or constantly trying to play catch-up. I truly believe that this approach has played a major role in the improvement of my grades."

More classroom time, better scheduling, increased continuity in teaching, more attention to student needs, better class preparation — these are benefits that I see in scheduling special assistance sessions during regular classroom hours. They combine to make special assistance a preventative measure as well as a corrective one.

Elena Litvinenko

I would like to hear my colleagues' opinions about this approach and I would be interested in hearing about other approaches to special assistance. Readers can contact me by phone or by e-mail at the Russian Department, European School II.

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News and Views

Language Enhancement

The 1999 Worldwide Language Olympics and the 1999 Command Language Program Seminar

Lidia Woytak

Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center

A growing number of linguists travels every year to the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC), Presidio of Monterey, California, to compete in the Worldwide Language Olympics (WLO) and to participate in the Command Language Program (CLP) Managers Seminar. (The seminar is followed by a Language Training Technology Exposition). Over 300 linguists who attended the 1999 WLO and the 1999 CLPM had many opportunities to compete, network, and get involved in the Defense Foreign Language Program.

Language Olympics

For almost a decade the WLO games have been held annually at the Presidio of Monterey in May following a month of video teleconference games among players at various installations around the world. In recent years the games have expanded from an individual incentive program to a training event that encompasses units, commands, and services within some 260 CLPs. Throughout the Department of Defense (DOD), throughout both active and reserve Army, Air Force, Navy, and Marine units, military and civilian linguists have been competing in Arabic, Chinese, Korean, Persian, Russian, and Spanish games.

The games motivate linguists to enhance their language capabilities and performance. "On the surface, the games are just a fun event," said Air Force Lieutenant Colonel Roderic A. Gale, DLIFLC's Associate Provost and Dean of Students. "Below that surface comes competition. Who performs better as a linguist? Thus the essential matter of raising language capabilities of all WLO participants resurfaces."

Referring to events in the Persian Gulf War and the Balkan struggle, Gale outlined the criticality and complexity of the tasks of military linguists.

"A linguist of today has to have a full capability, not just a specialty," Gale said.

Preparing to compete in the WLO motivates linguists to expand their knowledge in the areas of military, security, geography, culture, economic,

political, and social events related to the countries in which their target languages are used. They know that almost any bit of information might help their chances of winning in such games as "Handcopy**," "**Get the Point," "Jeopardy," "Intel-Triathlon," and *"Impromptu."* The prospect of winning a gold medal prompts them to scan Lingnet for new materials, to read *Pravda* rather than *The Washington Times*, or to watch *Jakarta News* rather than CNN.

Participants compete individually and in pairs representing the four military services. For example, a team may consist of an Army and an Air Force linguist. Each team consists of at least one non-native linguist. Sergeant Major Norman Zlotorzynski, DLIFLC's Sergeant Major for Military Language Instructors (MLIs) who has been coordinating the games since July, 1998, noted that some linguists who were born and schooled in the United States and who acquired a target language at home could be in the gray area of native/non-native distinction.

Resident Olympics

While participants in the 1999 WLO were arranging their flights to Monterey, Mr. Ron Nelson and Air Force Senior Master Sergeant David Hurlbut, both of DLIFLC's Operations, Plans, and Programs directorate, were finalizing preparations for the games. Schedules were drawn, games were prepared, rules were established, staff members were assigned, and hotel accommodations were arranged. For a few days DLIFLC's Weckerling Center, which is much-used for world religions and cultures events and classes, changed into a communications center for the Olympians. Regular classrooms became television studios, teachers became referees, and linguists became contestants.

In the Weckerling Center's Bay Room, three teams were about to start playing "Jeopardy." An airman and a soldier were quietly selecting a subject category (politics, geography, science, or history) and the amount of their theoretical wager. When they had made their choices, a question appeared on the television screen. A member of the opposing team pressed a button. Was the response correct or incorrect? For a correct response, the responding team would gain the bet amount. For a wrong response, the team would lose the amount.

Upstairs a number of Korean and Russian linguists were playing *"Get the Point."* This game is a test of ability to comprehend information on economics, science, technology, culture, geography, and politics. The contestants read informative articles and fact sheets, take notes, then compete in answering multiple-choice questions.

The following morning, many contestants played "Handcopy." In this game of active listening, players take notes while listening to 12 one-minute recordings of target-language news broadcasts or interviews on military, economic, scientific, cultural, and geographical topics. Afterwards they respond to multiple-choice questions.

In "Intel-Triathlon," teams of players compete in both linguistic ability and physical stamina. The players run a two-mile course, stopping at 12

stations. Players are scored on their ability to report, to conduct an interview, and to transcribe numbers. In this game, they are also credited for the amount of time they need to complete the course.

In the game of "Impromptu," teams use their speech-making and translation skills. In this game of elimination rounds, one team member talks spontaneously on a given topic and a second team member translates the speech into English.

Nonresident Olympics

In the WLO video teleconference games that preceded the games staged at the Presidio of Monterey, linguists played "Handcopy," **"**Get the Point," "What's My Job?", "Powerword," and *"*Picture Perfect." In these games they tested their speaking, listening, writing, and reading skills in Arabic, Chinese, Korean, Persian, Russian, and Spanish. Speaking skills were emphasized in "Picture Perfect" and "What's My Job?"

In "What's My Job?", players try to identify an occupation by watching a videotaped scene. In "Picture Perfect," a game of linguistic and team skills, a player views several pictures for 90 seconds, then conveys information in the target language about each of them to a team member who does not see them. The latter attempts to identify in writing the objects in the picture and their characteristics.

In a game of vocabulary skills, *"*Powerword," a player gives clues about a word to be guessed and a second player makes repeated guesses to arrive at the word. Teams use a packet of 10 cards for each round, each card containing the word to be guessed, plus four non-usable words. Words, phrases, or complete sentences may be used as clues.

Throughout the year, a DLIFLC committee of military and civilian members plan the WLO games in their spare time. Over the years the design of the games has changed somewhat. The current games have less resemblance to commercial television entertainment and more similarity to military tasks. The 1999 planning committee members said they spent a lot of time preparing some games, while other games required less work. They said they spent many hours researching and preparing "Jeopardy" questions, but for "Impromptu" they needed to prepare only a list of topics.

The best linguists and the best teams are awarded gold, silver, and bronze medals. The linguist who does not win a gold medal in a specific category has a chance to win a medal for overall performance. The linguist who does not win an individual medal may share in a team medal. Individual and team medals are important to unit commanders because they are awarded for excellence.

Command Language Program Managers
Seminar

A few days after the WLO games concluded, Colonel Daniel D. Devlin, who is the Commandant of DLIFLC and the Commander of DLIFLC and the

Presidio of Monterey, opened the 1999 CLP Managers Seminar. The foreign language skills of the military's top linguists are attained through a lifetime commitment to foreign language maintenance and improvement, Devlin said in opening remarks.

In accordance with DOD Directive 5160.41, DLIFLC's commandant approves materials, sets guidelines for instructor qualifications, establishes course content guidelines, defines testing and teaching procedures, and establishes procedures for screening applications of students with prior foreign language knowledge for resident and nonresident courses.

Devlin said he would like more CLPs set up around the world.

On behalf of DLIFLC, Devlin presented the CLP of the Year award to the 501st Military Intelligence Brigade, which is headquartered in Seoul, Korea. The brigade was nominated by Army Lieutenant General Claudia J. Kennedy, Deputy Chief of Staff for Intelligence, who credited the unit for providing language training and services on the Korean Peninsula and in the Pacific Theater.

"Military intelligence linguists play a critical role in intelligence operations around the world," Kennedy wrote to Devlin. "As the Army's missions expand and evolve, so does the requirement for highly skilled linguists in support of those missions."

Army Colonel William H. Marvin, the commander of the 501st, said brigade members maintained accurate and extensive databases, edited a language journal, and held quarterly Command Language Councils.

Marvin said managers of the 501st provide linguists a variety of educational opportunities. On-post, brigade linguists can enroll in Language Enhancement and Assessment Program (LEAP) courses, Defense Language Proficiency Test (DLPT) Listening Clinics, School of the Soldier and Korean Augmentee to the United States Army. Off-post, soldiers of the 501st can enroll in Yonsei University courses.

Marvin said each 501st linguist above 2/2 received six hours of training weekly. Those below 2/2 received 10 hours of training. Despite high turnover in personnel, including supervisors, over 90 percent of the brigade's linguists maintained 2/2 proficiency and 25 percent maintained 3/3.

The brigade encouraged participation in such skill-enhancing events as the WLO games and competition for honors as Linguist of the Quarter, Collector of the Quarter, Analyst of the Quarter, and Most Improved Linguist of the Quarter/Year.

Devlin also announced the two units that were runners-up for the CLP of the Year Award, the Air Force's 25th Intelligence Squadron and the US Naval Security Activity, Rota, Spain (NSGA). Lieutenant Colonel Randal K. Jacobson, commander the 25th, cited the setting up of innovative training sites such as ROSECROSS HYBRID, publishing a monthly newsletter and a CLPM pamphlet, and structuring the linguist database as major accomplishments of the unit. He noted that the CLP squadron manager implemented diagnostic and qualification testing, acquired DLIFLC, DOD, and commercial courseware, and installed computers for linguists.

"Our DLPT and AELTP CDE scores have significantly improved and usage of the language lab has increased by more than 100 percent," Jacobson said.

The Command Language Program of the NSGA, was cited for outstanding results in language training. The program supports 134 linguists of whom 33 are dual-qualified and 12 are triple qualified. Seventy-six percent of Rota linguists meet or exceed 2/2 minimum requirements. Training resources include a 24-hour language lab, project fluency (broadcasts in 17 languages), a language homepage (http:// ceveza.rta. usn.nsa/~jdsmit8/lang.htm), Voice of America, INTELINK and NSANET. Linguists are developing their proficiency in refresher, remedial, sustainment, and enhancement classes. Moreover, NSGA Rota linguists enhance their skills at in-country immersion programs and at recognized national language centers such as FLTCE, DLIFLC, and Operation Joint Force.

NSGA Rota also designed in-country immersion programs and language competitions to motivate linguists to stay in the service. In 1998 NSGA Rota's retention amounted to 66 percent.

CLP Initiatives

DLI/FLC

CLP Seminar organizers chose "Enhancing Language Programs Through Diagnostics" as the seminar's theme.

Guest speaker Dr. Pardee Lowe, Jr., chairperson of the Interagency Language Roundtable Testing Committee, spoke on language enhancement through diagnostics.

Lowe said that because the results of diagnostic tests reveal strengths and weaknesses of linguists, they can be used to guide linguists in their improvement efforts.

Lowe contrasted two concepts related to diagnostics: proficiency and performance. He said proficiency, frequently associated with the Defense Language Proficiency Test (DLPT), focuses on transferable, unlimited, person-oriented, and transferable skills. Performance, associated with foreign language objectives (FLOs), focuses on nontransferable, limited, mission-oriented, topic-dependent skills.

Lowe said feedback is obtained through macro- and micro-diagnostics. He said macro-diagnostics measures language knowledge or the ability of a linguist. Microdiagnostics, on the other hand, measures a linguist's ability to handle a specific language feature, such as proper use of past tense. He noted that diagnostic tests are longer than other tests because they test the same feature several times. When a linguist misses an item consistently, a language problem is diagnosed.

Lowe said feedback from diagnostics is unofficial. It is not entered into the official records of a military linguist. He emphasized, however, that communication about the feedback among the linguist, the program manager, and the tutor is essential and should lead to designing an individual remedial language program.

Mr. Steve Koppany of DLIFLC, described DLIFLC's diagnostic profile project. He said diagnostic testing is used to define linguists' abilities in speaking, reading, and writing. Speaking abilities are measured on the basis of an oral proficiency interview (OPI). During the interview one tester asks questions while another tester takes notes. A few days after the diagnosis, the linguist receives a written description of his or her abilities in general and according to skills. The linguist also receives comments pertaining to his or her intonation, stress, pronunciation, and syntax. Additionally, the linguist receives a letter grade: S (for sufficient), B (borderline), or I (insufficient) for his or her performance in each skill.

Koppany added that the testers, when not involved in training, devise diagnostic tests at varying levels. In the future, he said, he would like to see military linguists involved not only in diagnosis and feedback, but also in follow-up sessions to determine progress being made to fine-tune the training.

Mr. Ken Anderson from Fort Gordon, Georgia, and Mr. Frank Buschgans, from Medina Annex Unit, San Antonio, Texas, described diagnostic profile projects implemented at their installations. They said diagnostic testing enables linguists to know where they stand, tells them what they need to do to catch up with other linguists, and tells them what resources to use.

Lieutenant Colonel Richard Chastain of DLIFLC's Operations, Plans, and Programs directorate said DLIFLC assists user agencies in determining and validating foreign language training requirements. He said the Institute could conduct on-site language assessment.

Marine Corps Master Sergeant Charles A. Carroll, described video teletraining (VTT), a distance-learning program offered by DLIFLC to all CLP Managers. He said seven VTT studios are in operation at DLIFLC and that instructors have received special training to conduct VTT sessions. He said the Institute can broadcast 24 hours a day, seven days a week.

Carroll said a typical program lasts two weeks with six hours of instruction per day. A daily routine might include an hour of listening, an hour of reading, one or two hours of conversation, an hour of grammar review and note-taking, and an hour of review. Managers interested in setting up training sites need a telephone line, a pentium computer, and a kit consisting of a microphone, a video camera, and some software. Carroll said an hour of VTT costs less than $30, a small amount compared to $5,000 needed to send one linguist abroad for immersion training. He urged that VTT be included in annual training plans for military linguists. He said VTT can be set up anywhere in the world and noted that students are currently learning Arabic in Albania.

Mr. Sam Lipsky of DLIFLC's Cryptologic Services spoke on National Security Agency support to CLPs. He said the reorganized Office of the Assistant Secretary of Defense is fixing problems and reviewing the entire Defense Language Program.

Army

Army Chief Warrant Officer 5 Jeffrey Platt, a DLIFLC graduate, presented the Army Linguist Master Plan. Platt said DLIFLC has been graduating

better linguists and providing better courses. He said soldiers have raised their proficiency from a minimum 1/1 to 2/2. He said commanders have been including language proficiency in readiness reports and noted that the Army now has a Foreign Language Proponency Office.

Platt said the Army's goal is to raise the foreign language proficiency of military linguists to the level of 3/3. He said the Army needs highly proficient linguists in such areas as intelligence, special operations, coalition warfare, humanitarian assistance, host nation support, and contingency operations. He said unit commanders' involvement in raising proficiency levels is crucial.

At present, several groups are reviewing the Army Linguist Program, Platt said. He said the groups are determining whether language requirements address current international situations rather than outdated Cold War scenarios. Platt said contractors won bids to teach Albanian, Serbian, and Croatian programs.

For their value as incentives to linguists, Pratt said, the Army has established a Linguist of the Year Award and foreign language proficiency pay. He said current proficiency pay of $50 to $100 may be doubled.

One seminar participant questioned whether a native or a heritage speaker of a target language should receive proficiency pay. Another inquired whether a linguist who receives proficiency pay for a third language needs to maintain proficiency in a second language. Platt said that these matters are currently being reviewed.

Staff Sergeant LaPosta from the Directorate of Continuous Learning at Fort Huachuca, Arizona, outlined a Language Military Occupational Specialty (MOS) Evaluation Program. He said the program provides language testing and training materials for unit commanders. He said commanders use test results to identify training needs and to develop either short-term or long-term individual training plans. The goal is to bring linguists to true operational language proficiency.

LaPosta said an audio-reinforced CD-ROM on MOS language skills contains a 7,000-word and phrase database, interactive listening and reading exercises, and an order of battle interrogator notebook, all accompanied by a scoring page with feedback and training tips. He described the CD ROM project in Korean and said CD ROMs for Arabic, Persian, and Russian are planned.

LaPosta said global language proficiency as measured by the DLPT does not equal technical language proficiency. He said interview results provide valuable data pertaining to the performance of linguists.

"They are losing information because they are not comfortable working within their jobs in the target language," he said.

LaPosta said some linguists' comprehension is diminished by not enough listening and too much thinking about how they will formulate their next utterance.

Mr. Jack Horn, Chief of the Language Program at U.S. Army Intelligence and Security Command, said the Army had a problem about four years

ago when linguists involved in Haiti and Somalia operations needed transla-
tion, interpretation, and liaison support. General Kennedy turned to INSCOM
for help in obtaining the support of contract linguists.

Horn, who developed a program for contract linguists, said contract
linguist support is available to any government agency. He said contingency
contracts focus on overseas language needs and operational contracts focus
on domestic needs. As examples of a contingency contract, he cited language
assistance to Albanian, Arabic, Hebrew, and Persian missions.

Horn said accountability and quick response are the hallmarks of the
program. He described an unsuccessful attempt of the Department of Health
and Human Services to provide Albanian linguists through the Red Cross,
saying that of 50 Red Cross volunteers who agreed to assist, only seven
showed up for duties. Moreover, they showed up according to their own
schedules because they were not paid for their services. Only after Army
contract linguist support was established did 20 Albanian linguists show up
for duties as scheduled.

Horn said that for the past nine years he has worked on a linguist
database because there has been no consistent way to track Army linguists.
He said that although units have followed the same regulations, they organize
their data in different ways.

"I never had two units who would build their reports the same way,"
Horn said. "The units used a variety of software including d-base, Excel, and
Access. They would build different fields and would send their messages by
different means, including electronic or surface mail."

According to Horn, the varied communication created a statistical
nightmare.

Horn's axiom that anything that is standardized should be automated
motivated him to build a new database system that would be applicable to the
entire Army linguist program. His system would prompt everybody to use the
same database, the same fields, the same report structure, and to flow the
information through the same channels.

This centralized database instantly provides information pertaining
to availability of linguists and their capabilities.

"If a call comes in inquiring how many left-handed Ruandas are avail-
able, I access the data and get a response immediately, Horn said. "We in-
creased our capability and visibility of data and decreased the amount of work
required for individual unit."

Horn said the database enables CLP managers to focus on their main
job of training linguists. He said the database can also generate statistical
analysis.

"We get all sorts of pie charts, histograms, tracking of DLPT scores
(by) language, unit, (by) any combination of factors," he said.

Horn said the database structure is locked, but the files are unlocked.
Reports can be customized, he said. The database is divided into three parts:
administrative record, individual training record, and unit training record.

The administrative section deals with military occupation specialties, soldiers' grades or ranks, unit identification codes, and funding. It also shows the entire capability of a given unit.

The database tracks spending by indicating how much has been spent and how much is left in a training budget. The reliance on the database saves time. To prepare a report by computer one usually needs three to seven instead of three to six hours by hand.

The individual training record provides personal data. The record shows whether a linguist is on active duty, reserve duty, or civilian-contractor status. The data shows the training record of each linguist by listing courses language courses completed and scores attained (including DLTP scores).

Horn said the records can be obtained or updated very quickly.

"You have the record of a person even before she or he shows up," Horn said. "I can look at your record and see whether you are worthwhile to keep."

Navy

Linda H. Heaton, Division Chief of N7/CTEP Naval Security Group Command, described a computerized test of linguists' performance in several languages, including Russian, Arabic, French, Hebrew, Serbian, Croatian, and Spanish. She said the test ranks the language performance of Navy linguists and is used to determine eligibility for advancement and for proficiency pay.

Heaton described the Cryptolinguistic Status of Training and Evaluation Test (C-STATE), a diagnostic tool designed for the individual training program of a linguist. She said C-STATE is based on current missions and materials and can be used along with the DLPT. The advantages of C-STATE are that it is computerized, self-grading, and provides instant feedback and remedial guidance. It directs linguists to the topics they desire and to the consulting sources, indicating where these can be found. She said C-STATE is very efficient, requiring less than two hours to administer, and that it can be administered at strategic locations, including aboard an aircraft or ship.

Air Force

Air Force Master Sergeant Rod Freidt discussed the Air Force's Exploratory Linguistic Training Program and its testing, training, managing, and diagnostic tools. He said the need for the program surfaced after Operation Desert Storm when the Air Force became fully aware of disparities between cryptologic operational performance and global proficiency performance.

Scenario Training Units are self-contained mission-oriented cryptological materials in Arabic, Chinese, Hebrew, Korean, Persian-Farsi, Russian, Spanish, Serbo-Croatian, and Vietnamese. Each unit has a workbook with information on mission, topic, and activity, or an audiotape exercise book and test tape. The materials are self-paced, short, and self-contained designed for independent study at duty position. Three modules or more can be put together to form a mini-course.

Freidt said the Air Force's new Cryptologic Diagnostic Exam is based on a survey of current missions. It contains multiple-choice questions, at least five on each topic or mission.

Marine Corps

Marine Captain David A. Reynolds discussed the Marine Corps' Command Language Program.

He noted that Marine linguists frequently do simple translations in disaster relief operations, such as an earthquake evacuation in Lima, Peru.

Reynolds described a screening and tracking technique of language abilities as a major initiative of the Marine Corps program. He said most Marines who are proficient in categories 2 and 3 languages meet the standards of 2/2/1 proficiency, but Marine linguists in category 4 languages lag behind that standard.

Reynolds said maintenance and enhancement of language skills remains high on the Marine Corps agenda. He said the Corps is grateful to DLIFLC for assistance in setting up a maintenance and enhancement program for Marines. He identified screening and tracking of Marines' language abilities as a major initiative.

DLIFLC Resident Programs

Gale discussed the function of the final learning objectives (FLOs) in DLIFLC's instruction and evaluation. These objectives, originally written in 1992-93 within the National Security Agency and the Defense Intelligence Agency, were adopted by the General Officers Steering Committee for all U.S. military services.

The objectives put an end to the division of language learners into listeners and speakers. Currently, DLIFLC students enrolled in basic language programs receive training and evaluation against the same objectives regardless of rank, service, specialty, or follow-on assignment.

In the past, Gale said, linguists frequently were not tasked to do what they were trained to do. He said linguists who were trained as listeners were called upon to speak and linguists were trained to speak were assigned to listen to broadcasts.

Currently identified language objectives elicit a full spectrum of knowledge and linguistic abilities, Gale said.

"A linguist has to do what a commander expects him or her to do," Gale said.

Final learning objectives address needs for language proficiency, job or task performance, regional studies, and ancillary abilities, Gale said. He said proficiency skills address global language abilities, while performance skills focus on language needed to perform a job.

Gale said proficiency training and testing materials are readily available at the Institute, while materials for performance, regional studies, and ancillary skills are still being developed. He said student proficiency is

measured by three DLPTs, which typically take four and a half hours to administer, and student performance is measured by 10 tests which typically require 10.5 hours to administer. Gale said the Institute is currently developing area-study teaching and testing materials for FLOs in economics, political geography, sociology, and religion.

Devlin said DLIFLC curricula are designed to meet the FLOs. He said instruction at the Presidio of Monterey is conducted in 21 languages in four categories, from category 1 (25-week programs) to category 4 (63-week programs). He said enrollments in category 4 languages are heaviest.

To illustrate the military's changing requirements for linguists, Devlin said that 649 students of Arabic were enrolled in 1998 compared with 255 in 1985. He contrasted the figures of 550 students graduating from DLIFLC's Arabic Basic Course in 1998 with nine who received bachelor's degrees in Arabic from America's colleges and universities in that year. Devlin said 250 students graduated from DLIFLC's Persian Basic Course in that year while no college or university students graduated with a bachelor's degree in Persian.

Devlin said 2,076 students graduated from DLIFLC in 1998, 450 more than in 1996.

Devlin said category 4 language students' proficiency scores in reading and listening have been moving up.

"We're getting more 2-pluses and 3s in listening," he said.

Devlin said a similar rise in speaking proficiency was not recorded, which he said is probably due to testing procedures.

"We were too tough on speaking by not allowing students to talk around the subject," Devlin said.

He said members of DLIFLC's testing staff are revising proficiency test procedures so that students can obtain credit not only for the expected correct answer to a test question but also for an unanticipated correct response.

Devlin discussed the problem area of recurring converted listening and reading scores of 39 and 40, which separate graduates into the 1+ and 2 levels. Although a score of 39 or 40 operationally does not make a difference in the field, Devlin said, technically they impact upon the linguist's promotional opportunities and pay.

Devlin said members of user agencies frequently ask him to "cut out the amount of training and produce a higher level of linguists." He said DLIFLC is producing more and more 3/3 linguists.

"Capability is there," Devlin said. "It has to do with individual effort."

Devlin said some 18- and 19-year-old students don't fully understand the importance of attaining high proficiency in a foreign language.

To cut down on academic attrition, Devlin said, he launched a research project with the Marine Corps Detachment on predictive capability. He said a follow-up on the needs of cognitive- versus skills-based learners, who require more repetition to pick up a language, lowered academic attrition to 3 percent with Marine Corps students.

This year for the first time in DLIFLC history, eight linguists graduated in Albanian through the DLIFLC Washington programs, Devlin said. He said the Institute needs to train more Serbian and Croatian linguists.

Devlin said civilians were offered instruction on a space-available basis through special legislation in 1995-96. Several civilians completed instruction at the Institute and came out with operational, not just literary, language capabilities. Graduates in Italian, Japanese, and other languages were willing to pay tuition of $10,000 to $25,000 depending on course length to complete training that earned them up to 45 semester hours of academic credit, as do DLIFLC military students. In this "win-win scenario," Devlin said, the civilian benefits because he or she gains language proficiency and the Institute benefits by filling an otherwise empty classroom seat with a paying customer.

Discussions and Implications

Seminar participants heard presentations on a unified software system for record-keeping purposes. Some shared their experiences about inefficiency caused by a variety of computers and software systems. Many said that a unified system would be useful, not only for the Army but for all services.

The CLP managers talked about languages in terms that applied to them. Many became aware of the distinction between global language proficiency, technical proficiency, and mission-oriented proficiency on the job. Moreover, the meanings that were attached to these operational terms were fluid and, to some degree, depended on the group, time, and circumstances of use.

The CLP mangers discussed shortcomings in the performance of linguists who focus primarily or exclusively on language rather than on the context in which the language is used. While processing information received and formulating the next utterance, some linguists lose their grasp of the situation. As a result their performance deteriorates.

Professor Robert Gagne of Florida State University has said that automatic performance frees memory for performance of complex tasks. Just as an automobile driver pays attention to oncoming traffic and synchronizes his or her driving with other drivers, a linguist performs in a situation using language as a tool.

Proficiency pay proved to be a recurring topic during seminar question-and-answer sessions and breaks. Some CLP managers expressed concern about rewarding heritage speakers for language skills they acquired at home rather in a classroom. Some questioned whether linguists should be paid for proficiency in more than one foreign language.

"Do you check whether the person still maintains proficiency in the first target language?" one seminar participant asked.

"What makes a linguist proficient?" was a question that was asked repeatedly during the seminar.

Do target language skills alone make a linguist proficient?

Does a battery of skills that includes communication, reasoning, and technical skills determine proficiency?

Determining the operational language capabilities of linguists and ways of measuring them turned out to be another popular topic. CLP managers said repeatedly that unit commanders need to know what these capabilities are and how to test them adequately.

Many seminar participants used the seminar to share materials and information. Some distributed mission-oriented testing and training materials such as CD ROMs. Some learned about programs that are available at DLIFLC and via Lingnet. In many cases, participants found out that all they had to do to get the programs was to ask for them.

Conclusions

Many of the WLO and CLP Manager Seminar participants enjoyed coming back to DLIFLC to test their skills in the Olympics games and to meet with their colleagues stationed in various parts of the world.

This year more CLP managers and more service representatives participated in the seminar than in the previous years. Despite the fact that they were stationed in various parts of the world, they discussed many common experiences.

The seminar gave the managers an opportunity to get acquainted with the ways and means of applying diagnostics in a program, the input of individual services into the programs, and the operations of the best programs.

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Surviving Immersion

Joseph Orr
Academic Journals

*I am not fluent. I am neither fluent in English nor French,
though fluency remains my lingual carrot and keeps me
speaking. I am far from fluent in Korean, a language that
the United States Army has decided, by whim or by need,
that I should speak. I do not and may not speak Korean for
months. I wait. As my various vocabularies decrease, I've
reflected on the nature of my upcoming tongue, and on
those two languages of my past. Of the tongue upcoming
and its nature, I can only guess. I won't guess. I come to
Korean with as clean a slate as imaginable. I wonder more
at the school itself having been to schools often in rapid
succession and having learned by a variety of forms at
varying lengths, startlingly, little in a superficial pursuit of
varia. I will compare the Korean school, assuredly,* post
hoc *with my time spent at a French university in a program
contrived to right me, Gallicly speaking, by means of
immersion.*

The University

In the fall of 1997, I began my studies at l'Université Catholique de l'Ouest in Angers, France. The *Catho,* as we called the school, is a medium-sized institution of 11,000 French and 1,500 international students. I, being of the latter, attended the *Centre International d'Études Françaises* (CIDEF) where I would learn the nuances of a language and culture that had so long eluded me in my lax and cynical approach to American classroom French.

Along with me came a contingent of some twenty other students from the University of Notre Dame, with French-speaking abilities ranging from essentially none to fluency. To have a fighting chance before the semester began, we attended the *prestage*–one month of intensive French classes. During the prestage, we were instructed (each according to his needs and abilities) on the nuts and bolts of the language, proper conduct at the *pâtisserie*, appropriate selection of wines for lunch, and sundry other utilities meant to facilitate our sudden ingress into a seemingly hostile and insolent culture.

One of our *prestage* activities was *l'enquête* (investigation). In this graded activity, we were to accost the French in the street as they went about their business and pester them with a series of questions as to their

gastronomical habits, vacation preferences, attitudes toward governing socialists, et cetera. The project forced us to interact with natives, speak non-academic French on seemingly random topics, and overcome the apprehension born by insular souls (such as mine) of speaking with imperfect accent, grammar, and vocabulary. It was a language trial by fire, forcing me to adjust to meeting non-English speakers under unpredictable circumstances and conversing about any variety of subjects, and providing the necessary confidence for a year abroad. Thus I quit being too scrupulous to speak, and I was able within a short time to interact freely and easily.

By the beginning of the semester in October, I thought nothing of sitting through lectures given entirely in French by an instructor who spoke no recognizable English in a class peopled by Japanese and Italians to whom I could turn for help only in our Frankish lingua franca, French. I had been quickly readied for the school year proper.

Classes and Travel

Classes were the vital springboard for our entry into French life. We were fitted each day with a new verbal repertoire suitable for visiting a market, going to the post office, making conversation, or understanding a radio broadcast. As much as these classes engrained the good, they also, due to their uniquely international set-up, engrained the bad. In these classes we found and fossilized archaic forms of high French. For example, whereas our grammar instructor might rhetorically seek the affirmation of some point with *n'est-ce pas?*, the average Frenchman seemed to always opt for the simple and efficient *non?* I also had to reshape my opinion of that mainstay of classroom French the world over: *Comment allez-vous*, which the natives generally and cleverly replaced with the shorter and less formal *ça va?* Likewise, *qu'est-ce que c'est?* was far too unwieldy and minimized as *c'est quoi, ça?* The list goes on. Walking through the streets, I found little use for another of my American-French phrases. It seemed no one in France wore a watch (or, incidentally, purchased their own cigarettes), and would often need the use of yours. This was accomplished not by asking *Quelle heure est-il?* as I had been instructed in the ninth grade, but by the quick and dirty-sounding *L'heure, s'il vous plaît*. It took me a month before I fully understood what was going on. In the meantime I stood by, stupidly, proffering cigarettes in the vain hope that the person would go away.

I found that the phrases I learned in the classroom tended to be bulky and verbose whereas common speech seemed pared down and comfortable. The time I spent in textbooks and before teachers studying any antiquated phraseology served simply to bolster my confusion in speech and audition. It only delayed the time when I could finally speak without the stilted and stylized syntax of a tourist.

There was a more linguistically dangerous problem to arise than simply sounding too stiff in common conversation. It was an outright misuse. The incestuous nature of class interaction (i.e., non-native speakers conversing

with non-native speakers) led, at least in one case, to a phrase being stripped of its true meaning. It was imposed with another phrase and then commonly taken throughout the class as acceptable spoken French. This misuse (perpetuated originally by the Scandinavians in the class) led to the utter perversion of the phrase *comme ci, comme ça* (so-so, in English) to a form expressing indifference, as follows:

Tu veux manger au Macdo ou au Quick?
C'est comme ci, comme ça.

The true crime here was not that we were developing our own brand of bad French through the contagious disease of improper usage, but that we missed an opportunity to express ourselves correctly with one of France's many cabbage-based idioms: *c'est chou vert ou vert chou*.

This problem went unchecked until one of the students used the phrase in its incorrect form while speaking with the teacher. I realize that the instructor would have had an impossible task attempting to quell any rising linguistic corruptions. The presence, however, of even a handful of native-speaking French students would have stopped the deviant usage immediately through correction, gentle rebuke, or even instantly effective ridicule.

Fortunately for me, CIDEF was considerate of students with a heavy traveling schedule. I was able to polish up my language abilities on the road. I believed (and believe) school alone could not match in steepness the learning curve of travel. It righted the wrongs done by complacency in the classroom and reinstilled my sense of learning urgency. For example, during the *prestage* when class was over or on *la pause*, I fell passively back into thinking in English. I had little stamina for the French language, but I soon discovered the danger of an idle mind. Somewhere in western France after ignoring, in one of my lapses, the announcement of the *changement de train,* I found myself not chugging through the Pyrenees as I expected, but ejected from the train in seaside, La Rochelle. Afterwards, on every trip, out of paranoia, I listened for the *changement*, asked anyone I could about the *changement*, and read French newspapers, books, or even advertisements to keep my ear keen for announcements and avoid any other such expensive mistakes. Thus by moving across the country by train, cheaply and quickly, I was forced to speak and think in French to overcome the grand and trivial obstacles consequential of solitary travel. Moving from town to town required the same constant language use as the classroom, but the quicker pace and the harsh negative results of misuse made the road a truer linguistic proving ground, and one on which my speaking confidence solidified.

Lodging and Electronic Stimuli

To deepen our understanding of the language and culture, and to expand our casual French usage, the Notre Dame contingent of the CIDEF students was subjected to life as lodgers, renting rooms in French homes. The

idea was to live intimately with the French, though it seemed, in many cases, that we had nothing more than a boarder's relationship with the French family, consisting of simple shallow discussions over shower use. I found I had little in common with anyone in my household, the patriarch of which *ne pouvait plus bouger* and subsisted on his country's dole and my tuition dollars in front of the television.

For all this, I learned the value of a highly specific vocabulary, and that alone was worth the hours of cigar smoke and silence. I built up a quick collection of soccer-related terms thanks to match play-by-play announcers and assorted sporting magazines. By this small arsenal (to include some basics*: le foot, hors-jeu, le but, le gardien, les attaquants,* et cetera), a recollection of my former idolization of Jean-Pierre Papin and all things *marseillais*, and some international posturing and bravado, I realized that I could talk soccer with anyone. This held me in some good stead, I think, with the man of the house, who would occasionally leave off leering quietly at the female boarders to detail (with some great foresight) why France was going to win the upcoming World Cup.

My time spent sitting in the hazy dark with this man drove home another lesson I probably would not have learned otherwise: television and films are important. Not only did the programming attune my ear and ease the transition from observation to conversation, but it also introduced me to situational vocabulary and slang that I would never have seen, or particularly deemed appropriate to use in the classroom. This was the case despite what seemed to be a French obsession with dubbed versions of hideous American films and police programs. Had it not been for film–and particularly the dubbed version of Alien Resurrection–I would never have picked up such useful and slangy phrases as: *Je ne pige pas cette gonzesse*, "I don't get this chick," or *C'est merdique*, "That's rotten." Film and television also provided French at a variety of speeds, emotional intensities, accents, and inflections that I would not usually see, all together, over the course of an average day. I learned about machineguns (*les mitrailleuses*), about explosions (*les explosions*), to look out! (*fais gaffe!*), to make love (*baiser*) and choice dirty words all by a little cash and my *réduction étudiante*, or some time invested with a strange man, cigars and a satellite dish.

Telephone

I measured my French progress by the ease with which I made telephone calls. At first, I lived in dread fear of phones, for without the clues of body language, visible context, and facial expressions, without the ability to point, mimic, or draw, I was stripped of all the tools and crutches I had used to circumvent my flawed understanding. My first phone conversations were rigid set pieces, which I would plan out ahead, even writing my own dialogue, my

interlocutor's likely responses, and a list of inevitably necessary vocabulary. This approach, however, did more harm than good, for reasons of inflexibility. In one instance, I was on the phone to someone near Lourdes, trying stubbornly to arrange a night in a *gîte d'étape* (rural hotel), while the woman on the other end was trying patiently to explain that where I was really looking to stay was a slightly more rustic *refuge* (mountain shelter). Unable to adjust to her recommendation (because it was not one of my prepared contingencies), I gave up and left the arrangements to another in my travel party. What I realized was that my reliance on the sheet of paper, or adherence to a rigid conversational guideline, prevented me from following the train of thought of the person on the other end of the line as soon as she wandered off script. From then on, I went into every phone conversation consciously unprepared, forcing myself to use the same approach I would in English: listening to what was said to me, and responding accordingly. Despite the standard minor difficulties in aural comprehension, this approach made my telephonic encounters much more productive, and concreted my swaggering confidence in speech.

Conclusions

The course at CIDEF was an effective one. Classroom immersion, daily interaction with native speakers, and the necessity of rapid vocabulary growth to accomplish even basic tasks mirrored primary language acquisition by a child. Additionally, I would stress that television was an important tool for honing the ear and adapting to the pace of spoken French (with the only drawback being the maddening subjection to French programming.)

I aim one criticism at CIDEF for separating international students in the classroom from French students. By doing so, we were afforded none of the in-class interaction with our native speaking peer group that would have precipitated our abandonment of "textbook French" for the easy flow of the vernacular. What we had instead was the incestuous exchange of bad habits and malapropisms collected from French classrooms all over the world.

A second criticism I reserve for myself for my failure to expand my acquaintances much beyond the Americans I knew. Though we, Notre Dame students, at first—as instructed—spoke solely in French, we quickly reverted to English for simplicity and comfort. Without a true circle of French friends, I missed a further opportunity to acquire the quick head and broad language exposure necessary to wield the idiomatic expressions and argot that separate true French speakers from work-a-day communicators.

It is, in the end, to immersion that I credit my language successes. To myself and my repeated use of English as a communicative crutch, I ascribe my language failures. *Fin*.

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Out of the Korean Classroom

Bo Yang Park
Asian School II

Trip to the Temple and Beyond

My students were noticeably excited. It was the morning of our visit to Sambosa, a Buddhist temple located within a quiet area near Carmel. Perhaps, they were so excited because Buddhism, a major religion in Korea, was unfamiliar to the students. None of them had probably ever been to a Buddhist temple before.

Upon our arrival, two monks of tranquil demeanor welcomed us with serene smiles and ushered us to the temple's ceremony hall where we sat on Korean-style floor cushions. The temple's abbot entered the room and sat facing us. Behind him was an altar, and behind the altar were three golden statues. The statue in the middle represented Buddha. The other statues represented Bodhisattvas. Each figure had a peaceful smile and displayed a different hand gesture.

After the abbot and the students exchanged greetings, the abbot spoke on the fundamentals of Buddhism. He spoke in Korean. I translated some of the more difficult parts for the students.

Following the abbot's talk, several students asked questions in Korean: "What is nirvana?" "What is the difference between a Buddha and a Bodhisattva?" "Who are the two images next to the image of the Buddha?" I interpreted some of the abbot's answers into English.

Following the question and answer session, the students and I returned the abbot's kindness to us by bowing deeply three times in the Korean style. The students followed my lead when they bowed. The students were then allowed free time to quietly look around the ceremony hall and drink Chinese tea that was served to them. Some of the students gathered around the abbot and asked more questions about Buddhism. Other students asked me about the meaning of the wall pictures, and the occasions on which the bell in the ceremony hall was rung. Before we departed the temple grounds, the abbot gave each student three booklets on Buddhism.

The next stop on our field trip was to a Korean restaurant located in Pacific Grove where we had luncheon reservations. The students ordered their meals and spoke amongst themselves and with the waitresses, as much as possible, in Korean.

After lunch, we remained at our table while selected students presented research papers in Korean and English. Although each student had written a paper, only the best were selected for presention: five on Korean culture and

five on area information The topics included: "The History of Korean Buddhism," "Types of Korean Shamanistic Rituals," and "North Korea's War Preparations." Everyone listened carefully to the presentations.

The last stop on our field trip was to a Korean grocery store located in the City of Marina. On display was an abundance of Korean food items and merchandise. The students were given plenty of time to examine and talk about the items.

Although the students' proficiency in Korean did not equal that of the native speakers, they tried to speak and understand Korean in each of the settings we had visited. This enabled the students to deepen their understanding of Korean culture which was one of the purposes at the outset. I think Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) students always benefit from this type of experience.

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Language Training Exercises

Alpha Company's Language Training Exercise (LTX) began at 7 o'clock on a cold April morning. I sensed that despite the chilly weather all soldiers were ready to play their role in the exercise. LTXs provide an opportunity for students at the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) to practice the language they are learning in a mock type of situation similiar to what students might find once they graduate and go onto their duty locations. U.S. Army linguists at the DLIFLC must participate in a LTX at least once before graduating from the school. Students of Korean and Russian languages were intermixed during this exercise. My job was to act as a civilian-role player.

By using six separate scenarios, the students train with their target languages in a variety of situations. One of the situations I observed was a group of soldiers who were to provide language support to United Nations' peacekeepers located in a city type of an environment. The city was ridden with fractional conflicts who bore enmity to United States military forces. There were two gates and a guard post leading into the city. The soldiers were responsible for checking any and all people trying to enter the city. The focus was to trade weapons for cash with incoming civilians who could only speak the target languages–Korean or Russian. If a soldier did not understand an incomer, the soldier was replaced with another who did understood the incomer's language. The soldier had to search the incomer who was trying to enter the city with weapons, negotiate and bargin for those weapons while watching out for any violence that might erupt. Afterwards the soldiers had to write receipts in their target languages and English for any weapons they had confiscated.

In a separate scenario, role-players informed soldiers about Korean and Russian hostages. They led the soldiers to the building where the hostages were being held. Enemy forces attacked while they were approaching the building. Despite the sudden attack, the soldiers still invariably found ways to rescue the hostages.

   The soldiers practiced listening, speaking, writing, and paraphrasing in their target languages while undergoing stressful, realistic scenarios. All scenarios were followed by a review session in which the role-players comment on the soldiers' performance. In addition to the review sessions, there was a final follow-up session with the Company Commander covering what they did, how they did it, and in what areas they need to improve. The training was carefully planned, properly executed, and closely supervised by the Alpha Company's Commander who, along with his adjutant, was constantly on the move monitoring the exercise.

   Language Training Exercises require a lot of preparation, but also offer multiple benefits. I hope that, in the future, all DLIFLC students will participate in as many LTXs as possible. I did not see many civilian instructors participating in LTXs. Hopefully more instructors will out help their students by joining in these exercises as well.

Author

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   Institute Foreign Language Center, Monterey, CA 93944-5006.
   Specialization: foreign language education.

National Museum of Language

Is Born

The *National Museum of Language*, which was founded in 1997, serves as a resource for people in all walks of life, and contributes to better understanding and communication among individuals and among the peoples of the world. The goals of the new museum include plans for future exhibits and programs such as the linguistic heritage of America, the history of language, world language displays, language and technology, linguistics, and a young linguist program. Among the facilities of the Museum will be an exhibit gallery, a theater for readings and presentations, viewing and listening rooms, a library and media center, and research accommodations. A Web site and a "virtual museum" are under development.

The Museum is a nonprofit organization recognized under section 501(c) (3) of the Internal Revenue Code. Individual, institutional, organizational, and corporate memberships are available. These memberships contribute to the early work of establishing the Museum. A brochure with application form will be sent upon request. Membership benefits include a quarterly newsletter and an annual report.

The Museum is in the very early stages of planning and welcomes inquiries, suggestions and ideas from both home and abroad. All correspondence, including requests to be put on the mailing list and for brochures, should be addressed to:

Amelia C. Murdoch, President
National Museum of Language
7100 Baltimore Avenue, Suite 202
College Park, MD   20740
Telephone: 301-864-7071
email (natmuslang@juno.com)

Reviews

Chinese: The Easy Way. (1999). By Philip F. C. Williams and Yenna Wu. Barron's Educational Series. Hauppauge, NY: Barron's.

<div align="right">

Reviewed by JIM JIELU ZHAO
Asian School I

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As the title indicates, this textbook is intended to provide an easy way for beginning students of Chinese to build a foundation in listening and speaking. While emphasizing the development of listening and speaking skills, the authors have also incorporated in each chapter succinct cultural notes. By studying this textbook students not only acquire some basic communication skills to satisfy simple communication needs, but they also gain ability to function appropriately in a Chinese community.

Chinese:The Easy Way contains 20 chapters. Starting with Chinese pronunciation, the authors guide the learner through a variety of daily topics by means of listening to and speaking simple texts and by doing grammatical exercises.

The first two chapters focus on the Chinese pinyin romanization system. They include concise explanations of how to pronounce single syllables, how to apply basic tones, and how to change tones as one reads different combinations of syllables. Furthermore, the authors compare similarities and differences between Chinese sounds and their closest equivalents in English and German. Moreover, the authors single out those sounds that are most confusing to western learners and they summarize many rules-of-thumb for navigating the pinyin romanization system. This approach makes the learning of Chinese pronunciation, usually a difficult and tedious process, easier and more enjoyable.

In Chapters 3 through 19, the authors present simple but idiomatic dialogues on a variety of themes such as greetings, telling time, talking about one's family, shopping, eating in a restaurant, taking a bus, visiting the doctor, and watching an opera. The lively and humorous dialogues are colloquially written and attractively illustrated. Each chapter begins with a preview of contents followed by a vocabulary list, a dialogue, a dialogue translation, grammar explanations and exercises, cultural notes, and a chapter summary.

Chapter 20, an introduction to the Chinese writing system, not only debunks certain misconceptions about the writing system, but also deals with the contrast between speaking and understanding Chinese, on the one hand, and reading and writing it, on the other. In addition, Chapter 20 provides suggestions and tips on how a student can learn the characters without an instructor.

The appendixes at the end of the book are a valuable feature that is most helpful for self-study. They include answers to the exercises in Chapters 3 through 19, Chinese pinyin-English glossary, English-Chinese pinyin glossary, and Chinese pinyin-Chinese character glossary. Various Chinese

songs and rhymes appear throughout the book to reinforce words and sentence structures, as well as to enhance the interest of the student in learning Chinese.

Grammar is the backbone of this textbook. The grammar explanations are simple, precise, and to the point. The explanations include comparisons of Chinese grammar with English grammar; exercises follow the explanations. The grammar is not meant to be preached or taught but rather is to be learned by the students in a relaxed way. Students are provided with immediate opportunities to test themselves on what they have learned.

Another special feature of this textbook is the way the authors approach the pinyin system. In general, the uniqueness of Chinese characters is what impresses and attracts many foreign learners. Therefore in many other Chinese textbooks authors introduce Chinese characters early on, after a brief introduction to pinyin romanization. In this book, however, the authors do not introduce Chinese characters until the last chapter. They believe that "for practical and successful learners of Chinese, the singularity of the system of Mandarin Chinese pronunciation deserves far more attention, particularly in the early stages of language study."

Although the authors claim that the purpose of this book is to provide practice to develop listening and speaking skills, such practice is rather limited in terms of quantity and variety. Another weakness is a lack of practice exercises in the first two chapters where the pinyin romanization system is introduced. Understanding pinyin in theory is not too difficult, but correctly articulating the sounds is a skill that requires a lot of practice.

Despite the weaknesses mentioned above, *Chinese: The Easy Way* is a very good textbook, well suited for beginning learners of Chinese. It can be studied by students working on their own or it can be used as a classroom textbook. Supplemented with additional exercises to strengthen listening and speaking ability, it would be an ideal textbook.

Travel Wise: Arabic. (1998). By Holger von Rauch and M. Sadek Trad. Editor and translator: Michael Bonner. Barron's Educational Series. Hauppauge, NY: Barron's. Soft cover, $16.95. Pp. 316. Color illustrations, audio tape included.

<div align="right">

Reviewed by HOWARD D. ROWLAND
Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center

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Generally speaking, Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) students can find good supplementary language materials in the form of commercial language courses consisting of books, occasionally with accompanying cassette tapes, which can be found in the numerous bookstores on the Monterey Peninsula. This, of course, is especially true for commonly studied European languages such as Spanish, French, and German, but there is also a wealth of materials to be found for, for example, Russian,

Italian, Japanese, and Chinese. The local bookstores also yield quite an abundance of commercially produced works for Arabic, but unfortunately many of them are inappropriate for DLIFLC students. With the exception of those materials meant for teaching reading and writing, they are nearly all either totally dialect-oriented (usually the Egyptian dialect) or else present an arbitrary mixture of dialect and Modern Standard Arabic (MSA). DLIFLC students focus only on MSA rather than the dialects, and therefore need materials which teach this as the target language and provide an opportunity to increase their proficiency in the various skills of MSA. There is one travel-oriented work which does teach MSA consistently and successfully, and is of obvious high quality. It is Barron's *Travel Wise: Arabic*, a small book, plus a cassette tape with five supplementary spoken dialogues and an accompanying booklet showing the dialogues in written form and with translations.

As is usual with travel-oriented commercial courses, *Travel Wise: Arabic* deals with the standard tourist topics, such as getting acquainted, checking in and out of a hotel, ordering food in a restaurant, buying plane, train, and bus tickets, asking for directions and information in a city or at a museum, mailing letters or packages at a post office, or visits to a doctor.

The language used is always MSA, with the Arabic script being fully voweled and the transliterated equivalents dropping most of the inflectional endings, as Arabs normally do with MSA when using it as a spoken medium. An English translation is provided for each utterance and vocabulary item in the glossaries. There are a few errors in the Arabic spelling, voweling, and translating into English, but generally speaking, the material is quite correct and accurate.

Some chapters are too sparse in the number of utterances provided, and concentrate too much on the vocabulary lists. Also, the utterances are sometimes rather long and too complex for a basic learner of the language, but they should not present a problem for a DLIFLC student who has had six months or more of Arabic. Also, the context (subject matter, vocabulary, situations selected, etc.) often seems to be rather generically European instead of targeting the Middle East scene. But, again, for DLIFLC Arabic students, this is not really a problem since they are usually not learning the language with the expectation of being stationed in the Middle East.

The situational topics are then followed by a short (quite academically oriented) summary of Arabic grammar, and then an extensive (81-page) English-Arabic glossary. The spoken dialogues are quite good and well presented. The method used is that of attempting to relax the student, with classical music and mediation music played in the background, as he/she initially listens to the dialogue utterances and selected phrases presented at a slow pace, after which each dialogue is presented in a normal rapid delivery, with a small dosage of appropriate background noise.

All in all, my opinion is that this book, with its accompanying taped dialogues, is a valuable supplementary tool for any DLIFLC Arabic student who is motivated and looking for something outside the standard issue of Arabic materials to help himself/herself gain more exposure to the language at a suitably basic and intermediate level.

General Information

DLI Index

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Hammoud, Salah-Dine. (1993). *ACTFL '92 Impressions. 9*(1), p. 59.

Editorials

Interviewees

Correspondence

Announcements

General Information

Calendar of Events*

2000

2-4 November, *Foreign Language Association of North Carolina,* High Point, NC. Information Debra S. Martin, Executive Director, PO Box 19153, Asheville NC 28815; (828)686-4985, Fax (828)686-3600, Email [martintl@interpath.com].

3-4 November, *National Association of Self-Instructional Language Programs,* Washington. Information Alexander Dunkel, NASILP Executive Director, Critical Languages Program, 1717 E. Speedway Blvd., Suite 3312, The University of Arizona, Tucson AZ 85721-0151; (520)626-5258, Fax (520)626-8205, Email [adunkel@u.arizona.edu].

9-12 November, *American Association for the Advancement of Slavic Studies,* Denver. Info: AAASS; Email [walker@core-mail.fas.harvard.edu]. National Association of District Supervisors of Foreign Languages, 15-16 November, Boston. Information Loretta Williams, Plano ISD, 150 Sunset, Plano TX 75075; (972)519-8196, Fax (972)519-8031, Email [lwillia@pisd.edu].

15-16 November, *National Association of District Supervisors of Foreign Languages*, Boston. Information Loretta Williams, Plano ISD, 150 Sunset, Plano TX 75075; (972) 519-8196, Fax (972) 519-8031, Email [lwillia@pisd.edu].

16 November, *American Association of Teachers of Arabic,* Orlando. Information John Eisele, Department of Modern Languages & Literature, College of William and Mary, Williamsburg, VA 23187-8795; (757)221-3145, Email [jceise@facstaff.wm.edu].

16-19 November, *American Association of Teachers of Turkic Languages with Middle East Studies Association,* Orlando. Information AATT, 110 Jones Hall, Princeton University, Princeton NJ 08544-1008; (609)258-1435, Fax (609)258-1242, Email [ehgilson@princeton.edu], Web [www.princeton.edu/~ehgilson/aatt.html].

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, Email [actflhq@aol.com], Web [http://www.actfl.org].

17-19 November, *American Association of Teachers of German,* Boston. Information AATG, 112 Haddontowne Court #104, Cherry Hill, NJ 08034; (856)795-5553, Fax (856)795-9398, Email [aatg@bellatlantic.net], Web [http://www.aatg.org].

17-19 November, *Chinese Language Teachers Association,* Boston. Information CLTA, 1200 Academy Street, Kalamazoo, MI 49006; (616)337-7001, Fax (616)337-7251, Email [clta@kzoo.edu], Web [http://www.clta.deall.ohio-state.edu].

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

29 November-1 December, *Online Educa Berlin,* Berlin. Information ICEF Berlin, Sylke Sedelies, Niebuhrstr. 69A, D10629 Berlin, Germany; +49-30-3276140, Fax +49-30-3249833, Email [sylke.sedelies@icef.com, Web [www.online-educa.com].

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

27-30 December, *North American Association of Teachers of Czech,* Washington, Information George Cummins III, German and Russian, Tulane University, New Orleans, LA 70118; (504)899-7915, Fax (504)865-5276, Email [gcummins@mailhost.tcs.tulane.edu].

27-30 December, *American Association of Teachers of Slavic & East European Languages and American Council of Teachers of Russian,* Washington. Information AATSEEL, 1933 N. Fountain Park Dr., Tucson, AZ 85715; Fax (520)885-2663, Email [aatseel@compuserve.com], Web [http://clover.slavic.pitt.edu/~aatseel/].

2001

4-7 January, *Linguistic Society of America,* Washington, D.C. Information Margaret Reynolds, LSA, 1325 18th St, NW, Suite 211, Washington, DC 20036; (202)835-1714, Fax (202)835-1717, Email [lsa@lsadc.org], Web [www.lsadc.org].

24-27 February, *American Association of Applied Linguistics,* St. Louis. Information AAAL, PO Box 21686, Eagan, MN 55121-0686; (612)953-0805, Fax (612)431-8404, Email [aaaloffice@aaal.org], Web [http://www.aaal.org].

27 February-3 March, *Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages,* St. Louis. Information TESOL, 700 South Washington Street, Suite 200, Alexandria, Virginia 22314; (703)836-0774, Fax (703)836-7864, Email [conv@tesol.edu], Web [www.tesol.edu].

8-10 March, *Southern Conference on Language Teaching Joint Conference with South Carolina Foreign Language Teachers Association,* Myrtle Beach. Information Lynne McClendon, SCOLT Executive Director, 165 Lazy Laurel Chase, Roswell, GA 30076; (770)992-1256, Fax (770)992-3464, Email [lynnemcc@mindspring.com].

15-17 March, *Ohio Foreign Language Association,* Akron. Information Bob Ballinger, OFLA, 766 Ashler Ct., Worthington OH 43085; Email [treevid@megsinet.net].

26-29 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 [nectfl@dickinson.edu], Web [www.dickinson.edu/nectfl].

26-28 April, *Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages,* Indianapolis. Information Diane Ging, PO Box 21531, Columbus, OH 43221-0531; (614)529-0109, Fax (614)529-0321, Email [dging@iwaynet.net].

23-26 May, *International Association for Language Learning Technology,* Houston. Information Claire Bartlett, Language Resource Center, Rice University, MS 37, Houston, TX 77251-1892; (713)737-6157, Fax (713)737-6168, Email [bartlett@rice.edu], Web [http://iall.net].

5-8 July, *American Association of Teachers of French,* Denver. Information Jayne Abrate, AATF, Mailcode 4510, Southern Illinois University, Carbondale, IL 62901-4510; (618)453-5731, Fax (618)453-5733, Email [abrate@siu.edu], Web [http://aatf.utsa.edu/].

4-8 July, *American Association of Teachers of Spanish & Portuguese,* San Francisco. Information AATSP, Butler-Hancock Hall #210, University of Northern Colorado, Greeley, CO 80639; (970)351-1090, Fax (970)351-1095, Email [lsandste@bentley.unco.edu].

28-30 July, *Language Planning and Lexicology*, Zagreb. Information ChristerKiselman, P. O. Box 480, SE-751 06 Uppsala, Sweden; Email [kiselman\@math.uu.se].

2-5 August, *American Association of Teachers of Korean Conference*, University of Hawaii, Hawaii. Information Dr. Joe Ree at Florida State University.

13-15 September, *Third Language Acquisition and Trilingualism,* Leeuwarden/Ljouwert, The Netherlands. Information Danny Beetsma, Fryske Akademy, PO Box 54, 8900 Ab Leeuwarden, The Netherlands; Fax +31-58-2131409, Email [dbeetsma@fa.knaw.nl].

1-3 November, *Wisconsin Association of Foreign Language Teachers,* Appleton, WI. Information Eddie Lowry, Ripon College, 646 Woodside Avenue, Ripon, WI 54971; (920) 748-3077, Fax (920) 748-7243, Email [lowrye@ripon.edu].

14-15 November, *National Association of District Supervisors of Foreign Languages,* Washington. Information Loretta Williams, Plano ISD, 150 Sunset, Plano TX 75075; (972)519-8196, Fax (972)519-8031, Email [lwillia@pisd.edu].

14-15 November, *National Association of State Supervisors of Foreign Languages*, Washington. Information Virginia Ballinger, Ohio State Department of Education, 65 S. Front St., Room 1009, Columbus, OH 43215-4183; (614) 466-2190, Fax (614) 728-3058, Email [pd_ballinger@ode.ohio.gov].

16-18 November, *American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages,* Washington. Information ACTFL, 6 Executive Plaza, Yonkers, NY 10701-6801; (914)963-8830, Fax (914)963-1275, Email [actflhq@aol.com], Web [http://www.actfl.org].

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17 November, *American Association of Teachers of Arabic,* San Francisco. Information John Eisele, Department of Modern Languages & Literature, College of William and Mary, Williamsburg, VA 23187-8795; (757)221-3145, Email [jceise@facstaff.wm.edu].

17-20 November, *American Association of Teachers of Turkic Languages with Middle East Studies Association,* San Francisco. Information AATT, 110 Jones Hall, Princeton University, Princeton, NJ 08544-1008; (609)258-1435, Fax (609)258-1242, Email [ehgilson@princeton.edu], Web [www.princeton.edu/~ehgilson/aatt.html].

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

27-30 December, *North American Association of Teachers of Czech,* location to be announced. Information George Cummins III, German and Russian, Tulane University, New Orleans, LA 70118; (504)899-7915, Fax (504)865-5276, Email [gcummins@mailhost.tcs.tulane.edu].

27-30 December, *American Association of Teachers of Slavic & E. European Languages and American Council of Teachers of Russian,* location to be announced. Information AATSEEL, 1933 N. Fountain Park Dr., Tucson, AZ 85715; Fax (520)885-2663, Email [aatseel@compuserve.com], Web [http://clover.slavic.pitt.edu/~aatseel/].

2002

3-6 January, *Linguistic Society of America,* San Francisco. Information Margaret Reynolds, LSA, 1325 18th St, NW, Suite 211, Washington, DC 20036; (202)835-1714, Fax (202)835-1717, Email [lsa@lsadc.org], Web [www.lsadc.org].

21-23 March, *Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages,* Kansas City, MO. Information Diane Ging, PO Box 21531, Columbus, OH 43221-0531; (614)529-0109, Fax (614)529-0321, Email [dging@iwaynet.net].

6-9 April, *American Association of Applied Linguistics,* Salt Lake City. Information AAAL, PO Box 21686, Eagan, MN 55121-0686; (612)953-0805, Fax (612)431-8404, Email [aaaloffice@aaal.org], Web [http://www.aaal.org].

9-13 April, *Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages,* Salt Lake City, Utah. Information TESOL, 700 South Washington Street, Suite 200, Alexandria, Virginia 22314; (703)836-0774, Fax (703)836-7864, Email [conv@tesol.edu], Web [www.tesol.edu].

2-5 May, *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

2-5 August, American Association of Teachers of Korean, Harvard University, Boston, MA. Information Director of Korean, Harvard University.

20-21 November, *National Association of District Supervisors of Foreign Languages,* Salt Lake City. Information Loretta Williams, Plano ISD, 150 Sunset, Plano TX 75075; (972)519-8196, Fax (972)519-8031, Email [lwillia@pisd.edu].

22-24 November, *American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages,* Salt Lake City. Information ACTFL, 6 Executive Plaza, Yonkers, NY 10701-6801; (914)963-8830, Fax (914)963-1275, Email [actflhq@aol.com], Web [http://www.actfl.org].

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23 November, *American Association of Teachers of Arabic,* Washington. Information John Eisele, Department of Modern Languages & Literature, College of William and Mary, Williamsburg, VA 23187-8795; (757) 221-3145, Email [jceise@facstaff.wm.edu].

23-26 November, *American Association of Teachers of Turkic Languages with Middle East Studies Association,* Washington. Information AATT, 110 Jones Hall, Princeton University, Princeton, NJ 08544-1008; (609)258-1435, Fax (609)258-1242, Email [ehgilson@princeton.edu], Web [www.princeton.edu/~ehgilson/aatt.html].

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

27-30 December, *North American Association of Teachers of Czech,* location to be announced. Information George Cummins III, German and Russian, Tulane University, New Orleans, LA 70118; (504)899-7915, Fax (504)865-5276, Email [gcummins@mailhost.tcs.tulane.edu].

27-30 December, *American Association of Teachers of Slavic & E. European Languages and American Council of Teachers of Russian,* location to be announced. Information AATSEEL, 1933 N. Fountain Park Dr., Tucson, AZ 85715; Fax (520)885-2663, Email [aatseel@compuserve.com], Web [http://clover.slavic.pitt.edu/~aatseel/].

Information for Contributors

Purpose

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

Submission of Manuscripts

The success of *Dialog on Language Instruction* depends on your cooperation and support. We encourage you to submit a previously unpublished article, a review, a description of innovative classroom activities, a news item, or even a comment on language instruction. Your manuscript may deal with the following areas: (1) instructional methods and techniques; (2) curriculum and materials development; (3) testing and evaluation; (4) implications and applications of research from related fields such as linguistics, education, communication, psychology, social sciences, and other related fields; (5) assessment of needs within the profession. *Dialog on Language Instruction* accepts only original manuscripts with the understanding that they have not been submitted for publication elsewhere.

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

Articles

Manuscripts should not exceed 20 double-spaced pages. They should be accompanied by an abstract and a list of references. The abstract of not more than 200 words should identify the purpose of the article, provide an overview of the content, and list findings. The list of references should be submitted on a separate page of the manuscript with the centered heading: *References.* The entries should be arranged alphabetically by surnames of authors. The sample list of references below illustrates format for bibliographic entries:

> Dulay, H., & Burt, M. (1974). Errors and strategies in child second language acquisition. *TESOL Quarterly,* 16(1), 93-95.
> Harris, D. P. (1969). *Testing English as a second language.* New York: McGraw-Hill.

Reference citations in the text of the manuscript should include the name of the author of the work cited, the date of the work, and when quoting, the page numbers on which the material that is being quoted originally appeared, e.g., (Jones, 1982, pp. 235-238). All works cited in the manuscript must appear in the list of references, and conversely, all works included in the list of references must be cited in the manuscript. Notes should be used for substantive information only, and they should be numbered serially throughout the manuscript. Subsequently, they all should be listed on a separate page titled *Notes*.

Faculty Exchange

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

Reviews

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

News and Views

Manuscripts should not exceed one double-spaced page. Items related to language instruction such as reports on conferences, official trips, official visitors, special events, new instructional techniques, training aids or materials, research findings, news items, etc., will be considered for publication.

Specifications for Manuscripts

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

quotations in foreign languages be glossed or summarized. Authors are advised to prepare a note pertaining to their professional status. An author's name, position, department, school, address (if outside of DLIFLC), and interests would be identified in the note. An example of such a note is presented below:

Author

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

Specifications for Floppy Disks

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

When mailing a floppy disk, please enclose the following:

1. Word processing software used:

2. Disk is formatted as: double___ high density___

3. Remarks:

_____

_____

Review Process

Each manuscript will be evaluated anonymously by at least two foreign language educators. To assure anonymity, authors should not put their names on submitted manuscripts, but should include a 3 x 5 in. card listing the title of the manuscript, author's name, department/division, and telephone number.
Each author will be informed of the evaluation results. In general, a manuscript will be accepted for publication if two anonymous readers recommend acceptance, and, by the same token, manuscripts not recommended by the readers for publication will be rejected. In cases in which one reader recommends acceptance, and the second one, rejection—a third reader will be asked to review the manuscript.

Accepted Manuscripts

A manuscript accepted for publication may be accepted "as is" or may require certain revisions which may target the need to consider other sources, or to elaborate on a certain point; or, finally, may address such minor details as a typo or a lack of citation. In the latter case, the author is asked to revise it and subsequently the editor checks whether the author complied thoroughly with the guidance.

Rejected Manuscripts

Manuscripts are rejected due to such major flaws as:

inappropriate/unsuitable topic for DLIFLC
lack of purpose
lack of organization
poor quality of writing
lack of applicability to instruction

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

In some cases, an author whose manuscript was already rejected decides to revise the manuscript thoroughly and to resubmit it for publication. Since the quality of the version is unpredictable, no promises can be issued to the author regarding publication.

Correspondence

Submit your correspondence and manuscripts to *Dialog on Language Instruction, ATTN*: ATFL-AP-AJ (Editor), Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center, Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006.