

Dialog
on
Language Instruction

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Interaction in Group Work Can It Enhance FL Acquisition?

Grace Fakhouri
School of Middle East Languages

For a long time, the focus in language learning classrooms was on the input or the data presented to the learners. Many teaching approaches and methods that were proposed had to do with how to present the input to foreign language learners. Lately, language researchers realized the importance of communication in acquiring a foreign language, and adopted the communicative approach in classroom teaching, which focused not only on the language received (input), but also on the language produced (output) by the learner.

In traditional language classes, the teacher is the primary speaker and students get only a few seconds to talk or communicate. Long and Porter (1985) believed that one of the main reasons FL learners have low achievement in learning the FL is simply that they do not have enough time to practice the language in classrooms. They used the term “lockstep” to describe the mode of instruction in such classes, in which communication and interaction among students are rarely practiced. Rather, one person (the teacher) sets the same instructional pace and content for everyone, by lecturing, explaining a grammar feature, or asking questions of the whole class (p.208).

In the last decades, this has changed considerably. The importance of the learners’ involvement in FL classrooms is recognized and “learner-centered classrooms” have been considered as an alternative mode only in which the learner is encouraged through group or pair work to interact, produce meaningful language, negotiate for meaning, and request information for a lengthy period of time. The theoretical trend in recent years has been to approach foreign language teaching as communication and interaction, as opposed to teaching language as a formal, closed system of grammar rules. Learners’ interaction in language classrooms is viewed as an absolute necessity for acquisition and the use of language for communication.

Literature Review

The purpose of this study is to examine the language produced during interaction among my students (NNS with NNS) and to investigate whether some utterances in group or pair work may enhance foreign language proficiency in the light of Swain’s “Output Hypothesis” (1985, as cited in Swain, 1993). This hypothesis argues that through producing language, either spoken or written, language learning may occur. Before presenting this study, I would like to include in this paper some definitions of the term “interaction” and “group work” and present some related arguments proposed by various researchers.

Brown (1994) defined interaction as “the collaborative exchange of thoughts, feelings, or ideas between two or more people resulting in a reciprocal effect on each other.” (p.159). He stated that, “in the era of communicative language teaching, interaction is, in fact, the heart of communication.” (p.159). Rivers (1987, as cited in Brown, 1994) emphasized the importance of interaction in classroom setting and argued that, “through interaction, students can use all they possess of the language and all they have learned or casually absorbed in real-life exchanges.” (p.159). Long and his colleagues (1976, as cited in Lightbown & Spada, 1993) conducted one of the earliest studies to

measure different types of interaction in second language setting. The findings revealed that students produced not only a greater quantity but also a greater variety of speech in group work than in teacher-centered activities.

Interaction can be manifested in pair or group work in student-centered classrooms. Brown (1994) viewed and defined group work as a “generic term covering multiplicity of techniques in which two or more students are assigned a task that involves collaboration and self-initiated language” (p.173). Emphasizing the advantages of group work, he explained the following points:

1- Interaction in group work generates interactive language. He believes that this technique not only increases the quantity of output, but also the variety and quality of interactive language. Group work, in his opinion, provides opportunity for student initiation, for practice in negotiation of meaning, and for extended conversational exchanges (p.173).

2- “Interaction in group work promotes responsibility because each member undertakes the responsibility of his/her learning” (p.174). This explanation agrees with Swain’s (1993) definition of “Output Hypothesis” which states that when learners are given the opportunity to produce language, they are able to take responsibility for their own learning (p.159).

3- “Group work offers an embracing affective climate and this ultimately enhances motivation. When genuine exchange of information is enhanced during group work, the students’ motivation to participate in language learning activities is enhanced” (p. 174). This technique encourages students to discover for themselves certain principles or rules rather than simply being told because they would be motivated to hypothesize forms and rules that might work better in conveying their ideas. Long and Porter (1985) presented pedagogical arguments for the use of group work in FL learning. They argued that, besides the fact that group work provides opportunities for increasing the quantity of language practice in FL classrooms, it also improves the quality of student talk; helps individualized instruction; promotes a positive affective climate; and increases motivation to learn more.

According to Lightbown & Spada (1993), advocates of the “interactionist hypothesis”, it is necessary for learners to have access to meaningful and comprehensible input through conversational interactions with teachers and other students. These advocates also believe that learners will “Say what they mean and mean what they say.” (p. 83). They argue that through an interactive approach, learners are compelled to negotiate meaning and to arrive at mutual understanding.

Swain (1993) also argues that group work produces more opportunity for “negotiation of meaning”. When students have trouble saying something, they can help each other and discuss how to say it correctly. An important part of group activities is talking about “the target language itself, where students reflect together on their own output, reprocessing and modifying it as their collective knowledge permits. Woodfield (1997) mentions about Swain’s students of French, while working together, discussed what should be the correct gender, tense, prepositions, vocabulary, and register.

Working cooperatively in groups was supported theoretically by Vygotsky’s “Zone of Proximal Development”. On the other hand, Cole and Wertsch (c.1999) defined the latter term as “the distance between the level of actual development and the more advanced level of potential development that comes into existence in interaction between more and less capable participants. An important aspect of this interaction is that less capable participants can participate in forms of interaction that are beyond their competence when acting alone”. That is, lower level learners benefit from interaction with somewhat higher-level learners. By the same token, higher-level learners benefit because, in trying to explain something, they help themselves to better understand what they already know.

Klinger (1999) states that, while observing students working in groups doing activities, students were extremely patient and helpful with each other as they try to think of what to say and how to say it. When students feel it is safe to make mistakes and learn from their mistakes, learners gain confidence and feel motivated in trying to speak. He

believes that interaction and oral output activities increase confidence and motivation.

Klinger (1999) also argues that increased motivation is the most immediate and readily observable benefit of interaction in group work where increased time is spent on speaking and negotiation of meaning. He explains that success in saying something that is understood, even if it is grammatically dubious and is only spoken to other students whose language ability is no higher than one's own, builds confidence and encourages more studying in order to be able to say even more. The pleasure that learners feel that they have made some progress gives them a sense of satisfaction and motivation.

Conversely, Acton (1997) argues that in communicative language teaching, interaction resulting in negotiation of meaning between students during an information gap activity may not have a value, as was proposed by some linguists, to be the most ideal context for speaking and learning. Moreover, Acton (1997) argues that although classroom-based research now seems to suggest that information gap in group work activities do generate a great deal of talk and interaction, it is not clear what is learned in the process. In other words, he believes that interaction, no matter how active and engaging it might be, may not necessarily teach or practice anything that helps that particular development point. Desforges (1995a: 102) agrees with Acton's argument and notes that it is difficult to show evidence of achievement in learning through activities such as project work, group work, and problem-solving exercises.

Opponents of learner-centeredness that involves group work activities raise the question whether interaction during group work is effective, and they argue that some activities that produce a lot of laughter have an image of not being serious study and as such is viewed as a wasted time of valuable instructional hour.

Klinger (1999a) explains that the most commonly given reason why teachers hesitate to use group work activities that promote communication and practice in speaking skill is that they treat language as a set of rules and items to be memorized. They feel that these activities do not seem to be as efficient as direct grammar instruction. For those teachers who believe that they should "teach" something in every lesson, it seems reasonable that the grammar points could be written up on board and memorized by the students in a short time instead of being explored and experimented in communicatively approached group work speaking activity. In response to Klinger's comments, Van Raay (1998) recommends that teachers dispel the notion that they must "teach" something in every lesson and encourages them, instead, to consider motivating their students to communicate in foreign language by providing group work activities.

The Study

Since communicative learning activities in language classroom involve interaction among students, I was interested in collecting data from NNS's, by observing, and analyzing the language produced by my students during interaction through group work, and investigating the possible facilitation of such interaction on the language acquisition process.

The observation and study of the data will reflect Swain's (1985) "Output Hypothesis" which proposes four ways in which producing language might play a role in the process of second language acquisition. These four ways are summarized as the following:

1. Output permits the development of automaticity in linguistic use. It might enhance fluency rather than accuracy. The learners can use the language as fluently as possible.
2. Output forces the learner to move from semantic processing to syntactic processing and provides opportunity for the learner to reprocess the output.
3. Output may serve the language learning process through hypothesis testing. The language produced gives opportunity to the learner to try out means of expression and see if they work.

4. Output may generate responses from natives, which can provide learners with feedback in the form of confirmation checks, clarification requests, or error-correction.

The method I utilized in collecting the data was tape-recording. I recorded two dialogues conducted by my students during speaking hour while they were performing an assigned task, then I listened to these tapes and transcribed the language they produced

Participants

The participants were military personnel learning Arabic Basic Course at DLI. It was their 15th week of instruction. The subjects were 4 males and 6 females. They were all at the same proficiency level. Their ages ranged from 18 to 22.

Procedure

The first dialogue was recorded during a speaking hour. The class at that time consisted of 8 students. They were randomly divided into four pairs. I chose to record the dialogue between S1 (a female) and S2 (a male) and my purpose to choose this pair was based on my observation that they are normally silent, shy, and inactive during classroom activities, and they do not participate unless they are called upon. The four pairs were engaged in a dialogue between each other, but for the purpose of collecting data clearly, I placed the tape recorder on the prospective subjects' (S1 & S2) desk and informed them of my plan to record, making them aware that this process would have no effect on their grades. The whole conversation was supposed to last 15 minutes, but it lasted longer, almost 20 minutes. The transcript of the first dialogue is found in "Appendix A".

The second dialogue was also conducted during a speaking hour. The class, then, consisted of 6 students. They were divided into three pairs. I was interested in recording S3 (male) and S4 (male). Again, I placed the tape recorder on their desk and explained to them my plan as I did for the first group. The whole conversation was recorded and it lasted for almost 23 minutes. The transcript of the second dialogue is found in "Appendix B".

Task # 1

The task for the first class in which the dialogue between S1 and S2 was recorded, was that S1 will ask S2 about his favorite hobby, then S1 will take notes and report the conversation in Arabic to the whole class. A guideline consisting of 4 questions was written in English on the board so that the students had to translate the questions into the target language and proceed in conversation. The students were given the freedom to ask other questions as well. These are the questions that were supplied:

1. What is your favorite hobby?
2. Since when did you start?
3. How often do you practice?
4. How did you learn it?

Task # 2

The task for the second class, in which the dialogue between S3 and S4 was recorded, was that S3 will ask S4 about a trip he took last summer, then S3 will take notes and report the information in the target language to the whole class. Again, a guideline consisting of 4 questions was provided on the board in English, but the students were given the freedom to ask any other questions related to the topic. The questions were as follows:

1. Where did you go?
2. How did you spend your time there?
3. What did you see?
4. Describe the houses, streets, people...

In both classes, I was present during recording of the two dialogues, and I was also available to answer any questions and to provide any assistance or feedback.

Discussion

The data collected in appendices A and B presented various ways the language learners interacted with each other and offered examples of language output through interaction of NNS with NNS. First, I will analyze these two dialogues in a general sense, investigating some evidence in support of the researchers who advocated the advantages of interaction through group or pair work. Second, I will investigate the output in detail and analyze it according to Swain's "Output Hypothesis".

The output produced in these two appendices calls for some general observations:

First, in the first three or four lines of the conversation, the language produced in both samples was short. The students did not expand in the language, for example: "S3: Not bad. I am tired." (Appendix B, line 3). He did not explain the reason unless his friend asked him why. In the middle of the conversation, however, the sentences became longer and the output seemed to be produced in more fluent and spontaneous way. For example: "S2: I hunt, oh, sorry, I hunted when was..I was 12 years.. sorry year old. It is funny - sorry, fun to do that. I like it very much." (Appendix A, line 8-9). By the end of the dialogues, the meaningful linguistic production developed a kind of automaticity and fluency, but the language accuracy still suffered a little bit. For example: "S4: Thank you. Not the whole day. I go with my girlfriend to the cinema, then to the mountains, then to the restaurant and ate delicious shish kebab and then we went to the casino, then..." (Appendix B, line 30-31). This supports Brown's (1994) argument that group work provides opportunity for student initiation, for practice in negotiation of meaning, and for extended conversational exchanges. It also supports Long and Porter's (1985) argument that group work increases language practice.

Second, the way the dialogue was performed indicated that the atmosphere was very pleasant and the participants were very comfortable during interaction, an indication that the affective filters were very low. The participants were very open, interactive, and happy during their performance of the task. Contrary to their classroom nature as shy individuals, the two pairs laughed a lot and made jokes, and they were motivated to elaborate and bring up subjects of interest, such as drinking beer with a girlfriend and getting married. (Appendix B, line 16 and also line 44-45). This supports Brown's (1994) proposal that group work offers a pleasant climate and ultimately enhances motivation. It also supports Long and Porter's (1985) proposal that group work promotes a positive affective climate for language learners.

Third, the motivation to interact and communicate led the participants to carry on a lengthy conversation. They were asked to speak only for 15 minutes, however; their conversation went on for more than 22 minutes, and I eventually had to stop them because of the shortage of time. This proves that motivation to communicate enhanced the learners to be engaged in a lengthy exchange of information as suggested by Long and Porter (1985).

Fourth, the interaction did not only increase the quantity of the output, but also the variety of the language produced. This supports the findings of Long et al. (1976). The two dialogues contained many examples of different language structures the subjects tried to produce. They asked each other questions different from the written guidelines that were provided to them in the beginning of the session. For example, in Appendix A, line 22-39, S1 asked her colleague if he went fishing at Monterey beach, and why didn't he have fishing equipment, and then he negotiated about getting money

from her, then the language expanded to cover catching fish and BBQing and inviting their friends for dinner. In the same manner, we can notice examples of extended and various language topics produced by S3 and S4. For example in (Appendix B, line 30-45) S3 and S4 talked about going to the casino, gambling, winning a million dollars and planning to get married.

Fifth, the participants were not satisfied only with what they knew; they even searched for new vocabulary in the dictionary to produce meaningful language. For example, in Appendix A, S2 looked three times in the dictionary to search for the meaning of new words. In line 16, he resorted to the dictionary to get the plural of “deer”. In line 24, he looked for the word “tool”. Again, in line 30, he looked for the word “if”. In all these instances, S2’s purpose in resorting to the dictionary was he that it would help him carry on an extended and meaningful conversation. Likewise S4, in Appendix B, used the dictionary three times to look up for new words such as “wedding party” “gambling” and “win” to continue an extended exchange of information (Appendix B - Line 10, 33, 37). The aspect of using a dictionary to look up new words and use them during the interaction supports Brown’s (1994) argument that interaction in group work promotes responsibility among learners for their own learning, which is also in agreement with Swain’s “Output Hypothesis.”

By analyzing the data in detail, I will now examine the phonological, syntactical, and semantic aspects of the utterances produced by the participants through interaction; investigate the ways the output was produced; and find out whether these ways, according to Swain’s “Output Hypothesis”, might have facilitated the process of second language acquisition.

There are instances where the participants tried out means of expression and tested them to see if they work, for example: “S1: What do you hunt? sorry, what animal.. animals do you did you hunt? (in English) Can I say it that way?... I guess?.. let me ask the teacher.” (Appendix A, line10-11). Another example is found in Appendix A, line 17, where the students asks the teacher: “teacher, is that right, fox, is that the way we pronounce it?” Another example: “S3: No.. No.. I mean.. did you go around the city by car? (In English, do I say it that way)?” (Appendix B, line 25). Here the participants resorted to testing hypotheses and expressed their uncertainty and asked for help, according to Swain’s (1993) testing hypotheses that “output may generate responses from natives which can provide learners with feedback in the form of confirmation checks, clarification requests, or error-correction” (p.160).

Amazingly, every time there were instances of testing hypothesis, they were associated or followed by a request for feedback from the teacher. For instance, “S1: (asking me) can I say: what animals that you catch? Is it correct?” (Appendix A, line 12) and many more examples are found in Appendix A, lines 26, and 32). Another example in the second dialogue indicated also the fact that students requested feedback from the teacher, for example: “S4: Of course. But not the all day. Teacher, can I say: not the all day?” (Appendix B, line 28).

Another observation was that in two instances, the participants asked for feedback for phonological clarification. Here is the first example “Teacher, is that right, /thalab/, is that the way we pronounce it?” (Appendix A, line 17). The second example is mentioned in (Appendix B, line 34) “Teacher, excuse me, is this a correct pronunciation /mukamara/?”

In other instances, they were in need of feedback for lexical assistance, for example: “ S3: (In English, let’s ask the teacher): Is this the right word... “yafouz” for the word “win”?” (Appendix B, line 40). Other examples for lexical feedback are found in (Appendix A, line 25 and 26), where S2 seeks help to choose the right lexicon for the word “tool”. These examples, according to Swain’s hypothesis might facilitate the learning process. The feedback here led the learners to modify or reprocess their output and this kind of output, according to Swain, may be a route to language learning (p.160).

Another type of feedback is found in (Appendix B, line 6), where “S4: (In English) You should say “did you go?” Here, S4 is correcting his peer S3. It was really

amazing of how S4 took the initiative to provide feedback to his peer. This trend supports the interactionist hypothesis that learners like to negotiate meaning and arrive at mutual understanding and the idea that learners can help each other.

Some other utterances that were produced through the interaction of the participants indicate that the language learners were forced to move from semantic processing to syntactic processing, as Swain suggests. For example: "S2: Uh, I liked... sorry, I like hunting." (Appendix A, line 4). Another example: "S1: Did you (f) go to the sea in Monterey? Oh..Oh.. sorry. Did you (m) go to the sea in Monterey?" (Appendix A, line 22). In these examples, the subjects themselves noticed the incorrect form of a sentence and corrected themselves and moved from processing semantically into processing syntactically. At other times, the partner took the initiative and forced the speaker to utilize syntax in expressing his or her opinion, for example: "S4: (In English) You should say "did you go?" (Appendix B, line 6).

The interesting thing I observed is that when the participants were engaged in an interesting conversation, the fluency rate increased, and the accuracy rate dropped, with the output geared towards semantic processing, drastically ignoring the syntactic processing, such as: "S1: No, No. I will give you not the all fish. I will invite my girlfriend and showed him the big fish and we only eat. ha. ha.. ha.. ha..." (Appendix A, line 38-39). Here, the production of tenses was not consistent. The subjects exhibited interlanguage variation of the past tense. For example (Appendix A, line 29) S2: "because I did.. do.. did not have money. I am poor. You give... me dollars. ha..ha..ha." Here the student started increased fluency with some grammatical errors. Another example of increased fluency and decreased accuracy can be found in the second dialogue, "S4: Yes, I win 1 million dollars and my girlfriend won 10 million dollars and now we are rich, we will married in Lake Tahoe next summer and play there again... ha..ha..ha..." (Appendix B, line 44-45).

Another interesting observation is that, in (Appendix A) each student corrected himself/herself, but in (Appendix B) S4 corrected his peer S3 three times, but when he spoke a lengthy sentence in (line 44 and 45), he made the same grammatical mistakes as his friend did before. My reflection on this observation is that S4 was "noticing" his peers' output and attending to it with awareness. But when he was engaged with a topic that was of a great interest to him, his focus was on meaning more than on form, and his concern was how to convey his ideas more than how to produce syntactically accurate language.

Classroom Implications

In sum, the findings of this study indicate that the output produced through interaction in group work contained numerous instances that proved that the participants had the opportunity to manipulate, negotiate, and reprocess the output in a manner that favored both Swain's "Output Hypothesis", which argues that through producing language, language acquisition may be enhanced, and the interactionist hypothesis, which states that: "through an interactive approach, learners are compelled to negotiate meaning and to arrive at mutual understanding. Though, interaction in group work produced, at some instances, jokes and laughter, the final byproduct, as Klinger (1999) stated, raise the motivation level and confidence in trying to make sense what students have already learned.

Conclusion

This leads us to the conclusion that output maybe as important as input in language learning as it leads learners to be engaged in interaction through group work, which eventually permits the development of automaticity in linguistic use; enhances fluency; allows learners to move from semantic to syntactic processing; and provides

opportunity for learners to reprocess the output and eventually learners become motivated to produce more and feel more confident in speaking and communicating with others, which is viewed as a crucial aspect in language acquisition.

The production of the target language should therefore, be encouraged in classroom instruction through communicative activities, which promote interaction through group or pair work. The output produced during such interaction may facilitate and enhance foreign language acquisition among foreign language learners.

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Appendix A

A literal translation of the data follows:

S1: Hi, how are you today?

هوي لافل اح فيك ،اب حرم

S2: I am fine, how are you?

افل اح فيك ،تن أو ،ري خب ان

S1: Good, good. What is your favorite hobby?

قفلضفملا كتي او ه يه ام ،ديج ،ديج

S2: Uh, I liked... sorry, I like hunting.

ديصلال بح انا .. اوفع .. تببح انا .. ها

S1: Oh, hunt..hunting? what does that mean?

اذه ين عي اذام ..ديصلال .. ديصلال ها

S2: Hunting. Hunting. means, catch, to catch an animal.

ناويح كسمي ،كسمي ،ين عي ديصلال .. ديصلال

S1: OK, OK, I understand, understood. When did you start this hobby?

؟اي اول ا هذه تادب يتم ..تم هف .. هفا انا ..بيط .. بيط

S2: I hunt, oh, sorry, I hunted when was..I was 12 years.. sorry year old. It is funny - sorry, fun to do that. I like it very much.

اذه نك ..يرم عنم اوفع .. قن س 12 تنك ، اناتنك امدن عتدطص انا ..ال ..تدطص انا .. اوفع ..داطص انا اريثك كفل ذبح انا .. عتمم .. اوفع .. كحضم

S1: What do you hunt? sorry, what animal.. animals do you did you hunt? (in English)

Can I say it that way?... I guess?... let me ask the teacher.

؟داطصت ..تدطص انا ناويح ي ا .. اوفع ؟داطصت اذام

S1: (asking me) can I say: what animals that you catch? is it correct?

؟حي حص اذه له ؟كسمت تنان انا ناويح ا يه ام :لوقا له

Me: Yes. But it is better to say it this way. What are the animals that you hunted?

؟امتدطص ا يتل انا ناويح ا يه ام :لوقت نا لضف ال انك لو م عن

S1: OK, what are the animals that you hunted?

؟امتدطص ا يتل انا ناويح ا يه ام ،بيط

S2: I hunted deer..deer (in English, wait, wait..let me see what is the plural of deer in Arabic?) (looking up in a dictionary) I guess it is deer, and fox.

بل عشو ل ازغ ن اذق عا ..ل ازغ ..ل ازغ تدطصا

Then asking the teacher. (teacher, is that right, fox, is that the way we pronounce it?)

؟اذك ه لوقن له ،بل عث ،حي حص اذه له :ذاتس ا

Me: Yes, fox, that is right.

حي حص اذه بل عث ،م عن

S2: asking the teacher in English (what do we say to go to catch fish from the sea?)

Me: It is the same word like hunting.

ديص - قمل كل ا سفن

S2: Oh, I did.. not know that. OK, OK, I also go hunting fish.

كسم سل ا ديصل بهذا اضي انا ا بيط ..بيط .. كل ذ فرع ا مل انا ها

S1: Do you (f) go to the sea in Monterey? Oh..Oh.. sorry. Do you (m) go to the sea in Monterey?

؟يري تنوم يف رحبال اى ا بذت له .. اوفع .. اوفع .. يري تنوم يف رحبال اى ا ن ي بذت له

S2: No, I do not, sorry, I do not have (hold on, in English) (looking into the dictionary).. tools. تاودا يدين دجوي ال ..الك ..الك

(can I say it that way) let me ask the teacher.. In Arabic: Can I say "tools"??

"تاودا" لوقا نا عي طتس ا له

Me: In this case you should say fishing equipments.

ديصلل تاودا لوقت نا بجي فل ا حل اذه يف

S1 & S2: Ok. Ok. fishing equipments.

ديصلل تاودا

S1: Why will you .. sorry why don't you buy them?

؟اه يرتشت ال اذامل اوفع .. اذامل

S2: because I did.. do.. did not have money. I am poor. You give... me dollars. ha..ha..ha...

هه ..هه ..تار الود ين طعا .. اوفع ..ين طعا تنان .. ريقف انا .. سولف يدين ع ال .. سولف ال

S1: Oh, dollars, O.K... (let me see, how do we say "if" in Arabic) (looking it up in the dictionary). If I give.. gave you money, can I go hunting with you? (In English,

I don't know, if that is right, let me ask the teacher... Can I say: go fishing with you??

؟ديصلل ك عم بهذا نا عي طتس ا له ..دوقن كتي طعا اذا ..رالود ها

Me: Yes, of course.

S1: OK. Can I go fishing with you?

؟ديصل لك عم بهذا نا عيطتس الة ..

S2: Yes, but if I caught fish one, I will give you not it because I want to ate the fish alone, I like eat fish and it is all me. I will give you a little and I will invite my girlfriend and make BBQ in my house and drink beer and ha.. ha.. ha...

كيطع أس.. يلا اهلكو نكتمس الة كان ابح... يدحول نكتمس الة كان اديراي نال كيطع انزل.. يدح او نكتمس تدطص اذا ..هه..هه.. قري بل ابرشينو انتيب يف يوشم نكتمس لم عنو يتق يدص و عدا سو ال يلح

S1: No, No. I will give you not the all fish. I will invite my boyfriend and showed him the big fish and we only eat. ha. ha.. ha.. ha...

.....هه..هه..هه.. يدحول اهلك او قري بلك ا نكتمس الة هيرو ا يقى يدص و عدا سو نكتمس الة كيطع انزل.. ال..ال

Appendix B

(This is a literal translation of the data)

S3: Hi, how are you today?

؟كل اح فيك ، ابحرم

S4: Fine, how are you?

؟كل اح فيك تن او ري خب

S3: Not bad. I am tired.

ن ابع ان ا بس اب ال

S4: Why? Are you sick?

؟مضيرم تن الة اذامل

S3: No. No. Today is Friday. But, thank God. OK. OK. Where do you go last summer?

؟مض امل ا فيصل ا يف ب هذت نيا . طل دم حل اة عم حل ا مويلا ..ال..ال

S4: (In English) You should say "did you go".

؟تبد نيا

S3: Oh, yes. (in English) did you to last summer?

؟مض امل ا فيصل ا يف تبد نيا يلا ..م عن .أ

S4: I go... oh, no, I went to Lake Tahoe.

و هات قري حب يلا تبد ان ا ..ال..ب هذا ان ا

S3: Oh, yes, good, very good. What do you (f) sorry did you (m) do there?

؟ك ان ه تتل عفف ..تتل عفف اذام .. اذج دي ج دي ج ..م عن ..ه

S4: I went ... (hold on) in English...to attend. (looking up in a dictionary) .. wedding party.

ف افز قل فح رض حال تبد

S3: Oh, good, who is .. was the (hold on) the bride and groom?

؟س ير عل او سور عل او ه نم ..دي ج

S4: The bride was my uncle's son.

يم ع نبا وه سور عل ا

S3: Son, ha.. ha.. ha... bride.. son?

نبا .. سور ع ..هه..هه..نبا

S4: OK.. OK.. I know.. bridegroom is my uncle's son.

يم ع نبا وه س ير عل ا . فر ع ان ا . بي ط ..بي ط

S3: (satisfied) OK... Did you drink a lot of beer there?

؟قري بل انم ري نك تبدش له

S4: Of course... I liked.. no no I like beer very much.

ار ري نك قري بل ابح ان ا ..تبد بح ان ا ..اع بط

S3: How was the party?

؟كل ف حل ا تن ا ك فيك

S4: It is good... Um..

خدي ج ..دي ج

S3: What do you do there?

؟ك ان ه ل عفت اذام

S4: You must say: what did you do there?

كأنه تملح اذام

S3: OK..OK.. What did you do there?

كأنه تملح اذام ..بيط..بيط

S4: I eat, I dance, I drank too much beer, then I am tired and then I became sick.

صيرم تحبصاوان ابعث ان ا مث. فريتك فريب تبرش و صقراو لكأ ان ا

S3: OK..OK.. Um.. The city.. Did you see the city?

فنيدمل ا تدهاش له فنيدمل ا ..بيط..بيط

S4: Of course.

اعبط

S3: No.. No.. I mean.. did you go around the city by car? (In English, do I say it that way)?

فنيدمل ا لوح تبذل له ينعا ..ال..ال

S4: Around the city..Oh..Oh.. tour in the city by car?

فرايسل اب فنيدمل ا يف فلو ج ها..ها؟ فنيدمل ا لوح

S3: Yes, Yes... (In English, that is what I wanted

م عن..م عن

S4: Of course. but not the all day. Teacher, can I say: not the all day?

موي لك ل اس يل ، اعبط

Me: It is better to say (not the whole day)

موي ل لك س يل

S4: Thank you. Not the whole day. I go with my girlfriend to the cinema, then to the mountains, then to the restaurant and ate delicious shish kebab and then we went to the casino, then...

ون يز الك اى ال انب جنوب ابك ان لك اول ب جل اى ال امث ام ن يس ل اى ال ا يتق يدص عم هذا ان ا .موي ل لك س يل ، اركش

S3: To the casino? ha.. ha... why?

هه.. هه.. ون يز الك اى ال ا

S4: Why?... to play (hold on, one minute)(looking up in the dictionary) gambling. (hold on): Teacher, excuse me, is this a correct pronunciation? gambling?

فم ا ق م ل ا ب ع ل ت ل ؟ اذام ل

Me: No. we do not say: “makmara”. we say: “mukamara”

S4: OK..OK..gambling.. ha.. ha.. ha..

فم ا ق م ..ها..ها

S3: Did you find... no..no.. (hold on)(looking up in a dictionary) did you..(In English, I don't know which word to choose?)

ال..ال..؟ ت د ج و ل

S4: (In English, let me see, I guess it is this word: “yafouz”

S3: (In English, let us the teacher): Is this the right word... “yafouz” for the word “win”??

Me: In this context, you use the verb “yarbah” if you want to talk about money, and you use the word “yafouz” if you talk about games.

S3: Thank you very much. OK..OK.. did you win money?

فدوق ن ت ح ب ر ل

S4: Yes, I win 1 million dollars and my girlfriend won 10 million dollars and now we are rich,

we will married in Lake Tahoe next summer and play there again... ha..ha..ha..

و ملتقري ح بي ف حوزت سن سو عاين غل ل ن ح زون و ي لم ا ت ح ب ر ي ت ق ي د ص و ر ل و د ن و ي ل م ت ح ب ر م عن
...هه..هه..هه..كأنه اضي ا ب ع ل ا س و م د ا ق ل ا ف ي ص ل ا ي ف

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Input Elaboration in Second and Foreign Language Teaching

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Rich comprehensible input is an essential (though not a sufficient) condition for foreign language acquisition. But what are the possible sources of comprehensible written input for learners who have passed the 0+ level described by the ILR scale as memorized proficiency? Teacher-produced texts may come across as contrived and lack authenticity. Those who believe in using authentic texts in the classroom are faced with a daunting task of finding printed texts in the target language at the $i + 1$ level. Comprehending unmodified authentic texts usually lies far outside the beginning learner's zone of proximal development -- i.e., potential ability. On the other hand, linguistically simplified authentic texts, when stripped of essential natural features, do not contribute to building proficiency in the real live language. This article examines the concept of elaborated authentic texts (as opposed to both unmodified and simplified reading texts) as a source of classroom input.

Role of Input in Second and Foreign Language Acquisition

Researchers and classroom foreign language teachers almost unanimously recognize the importance of input in second language acquisition. Krashen's (1985) *Input Hypothesis* purports that *comprehensible input* at the $i+1$ level¹ is all that is needed for successful acquisition provided that the acquirer's *affective filter* is down.² The main assumptions of the Input Hypothesis are as follows: (1) access to comprehensible input is present in all cases of successful language acquisition, (2) greater quantities of comprehensible input appear to result in better and faster acquisition, and (3) lack of access to comprehensible input results in little or no acquisition (Long, 1982). Even though the Input Hypothesis has undeniably played a very significant role in the second and foreign language acquisition research, it is recognized to have limitations and has received strong criticism from some researchers (Gass, 1988; McLaughlin, 1987; Swain, 1985; White, 1987). Shifting the focus to the learner and the extent to which the learner understands the input provided by the speaker, Gass (1988) attached crucial importance to *comprehended* input (as opposed to *comprehensible* input). Swain (1985) argued that *comprehensible output* was no less important than comprehensible input to the success of language acquisition. Long's (1983, 1996) *Interaction Hypothesis* purports that input is most effective when it is modified through the negotiation of meaning between interlocutors.

In sum, it is now widely recognized that the presence of input is not, in itself, sufficient for successful acquisition in second and foreign language learners. Nevertheless, the role of input remains one of the central issues in second language acquisition research and theory. In particular, researchers are concerned with what makes input comprehensible. Corder (1967) made a distinction between *input*, understood to be any speech sample in the target language available to the learner, and *intake* defined as that subset of input that is actually utilized in some way by the learner. In other words, intake can be defined as filtered input, in which the relationship between meaning and form was noticed and comprehended by the learner, and which can be further converted to uptake (internalization of the target language feature) and language output.

Caretaker and Foreigner Talk

In order to gain insight into what makes input more comprehensible to second and foreign language learners, researchers have investigated input comprehension in different linguistic environments. In particular, they analyzed the adjustments to input that are usually made by native speakers of a language during their interactions with learners of that language. Similar to the so-called *caretaker talk* frequently used by adult caretakers in conversations with young children learning their first language, *foreigner talk* is used in conversations with non-native speakers (Ferguson, 1975). Foreigner talk contains linguistic modifications that are believed to make the messages easier to understand. It may be characterized by short simple sentences, or even bullet-form communication, stylistically neutral high-frequency vocabulary items (idioms and low-frequency vocabulary items are avoided), and regular grammatical forms that are familiar to the learner. Other salient features specific to foreigner talk include slower rate of speech, louder volume, longer pauses, more deliberate articulation, and greater use of gestures (Park, 2002).

These linguistic and non-linguistic modifications found in foreigner speech may arguably assist non-native speakers in the immediate comprehension of the message. However, as far as their applicability in second and foreign language teaching is concerned, they can hardly be used as primary sources of foreign language input (at least once the learners have passed the 0+ level of proficiency³), because they may lack the linguistic features that the learners need to acquire. White (1987) argues that receiving input in the form of caretaker speech may, in the context of foreign language learning, lead to a situation of input deprivation, where instead of rich input in the form of natural language, non-native acquirers will receive inadequate, impoverished, artificially simplified input. It is easy to see that foreigner speech may lack the essential vocabulary, morphology, and syntax characteristic of natural adult everyday speech, both in its aural and written modalities.

Against Simplification as Method of Input Modification

In discussing the pitfalls of using simplified linguistic materials in foreign language curricula, Doughty and Long (2001) state that linguistically simplified input, which goes hand-in-hand with synthetic (structural) syllabi, tends to be impoverished input. Controlling grammar, vocabulary, and sentence length for classroom use forces learners to rely on a limited source of target language in the process of learning the code.

In reviewing 12 empirical studies, Parker and Chaudron (1987) report that linguistic simplification does not always have a significantly positive effect on learners' comprehension of aural and written texts. Unfortunately, the studies they reviewed leave many questions unresolved, because "few of these studies have avoided confounding the categories" (p. 111). In those studies where the effects of simplification can be "disambiguated" from those of other modifications, "linguistic simplifications are not consistently superior" (p. 114).

Arguably, it is intuitive that simplifying a message linguistically can have a positive effect on comprehension at least some of the time. However, in the context of language learning, in those instances in which comprehension is facilitated by simplification, it is achieved by removing the exact items and language features to which the learners need to be exposed. The limitations of most of the known studies are that they investigate the effects of input modifications only on learner comprehension. As teachers, we are really interested in the possible relationship between these modifications and language acquisition (e.g., incidental vocabulary acquisition), which has been the focus of rather few studies.

In discussing written input, Yano, Long, and Ross (1994) argue that linguistic simplification of printed texts can be really self-defeating because the true long-term purpose of a reading activity is, after all, not comprehension of a given passage, but

learning of the language in which the text is written, and the development of general reading comprehension skills which are transferable and not specific to any particular text. Undoubtedly, simplification of aural input poses a similar threat to successful language acquisition as does simplification of written input. The focus of this paper, however, is limited in scope to the discussion of useful and harmful modifications of written input. In view of the concern about simplification as a method of input modification, it makes sense to examine alternative ways of modifying written input in foreign language teaching.

Input Elaboration

Chaudron (1983) discusses the contrast between simplification *in the linguistic sense* (shortening of sentences, artificial simplification of syntactic structures, deletion or regularization of irregular forms, etc.) and simplification *in the cognitive sense* (building cognitively more explicit speech through redundancy and other clarifying modifications). Urano (2000) gives the following simple example:

Baseline version: Everybody knows that Ken is *diligent* and kind to others.

Simplified version: Everybody knows that Ken is hardworking and kind to others.

Elaborated version: Everybody knows that Ken is *diligent* or hardworking and kind to others.

Obviously, the simplification in the second version will make the sentence more comprehensible to those learners who are not familiar with the word *diligent*. At the same time, however, the second version denies them an opportunity to gain knowledge of this word. The third version both exposes them to the word *diligent* and clarifies its meaning. It adds a synonym (*hardworking*) in apposition to the target word (*diligent*).

Widdowson (1979) distinguishes between two different ways, or levels, of simplification: the first one implies replacing complex words and structures with approximate equivalents that already exist in the learner's own interlanguage leaving out those that are not known to the learner, thus bringing the original text into the scope of the learner's *linguistic* competence. The second method concentrates on making explicit the propositional content of the original and bringing it into the scope of learner's *communicative* competence. For example, Widdowson looks at ways of simplifying the following:

The majority of alloys are prepared by mixing metals in the molten state; the mixture is poured into metal or sand molds and allowed to solidify. Generally the major ingredient is melted first; then the others are added to it and should completely dissolve. (p. 185)

He comments that depending on what items we believe not yet to be present in the learner's interlanguage, we may be tempted to replace *the majority of alloys* with *most alloys*, *prepared* with *made*, *metals in the molten state* with *melted metals*, etc. (Needless to say, it may not be possible to find such replacements for the words *molds* or *ingredient*, which, consequently, will have to be handled differently such as by providing a glossary of technical terms.) Although this process brings individual items into the scope of the learner's knowledge, it will not necessarily make the passage easier to understand as a whole. Clarifying the message may involve restructuring it, since the sequencing of clauses in the passage does not coincide with the sequencing of events in the process of making alloys. (The second sentence in the passage refers to the same

events as the first part of the first sentence, which precede the events described in the second half of the first sentence.) Thus the message could be simplified by rearranging these sentences in the following manner:

The majority of alloys are prepared by first melting metals and then mixing them. The metal which is the major ingredient is melted first; then the other metals are added to it and they should completely dissolve. Then the mixture is poured into metal or sand molds and allowed to solidify. (p. 187)

Here is another example of how a baseline native speaker utterance could be modified in these two different ways from Yano, Long and Ross (1994):

1. Native speaker baseline version:

Because he had to work at night to support his family, Paco often fell asleep in class. (p. 193)

This is a single multi-clausal sentence which contains a lower frequency verb *to support* in the meaning of “to provide for (financially).”

2. Linguistically simplified version:

Paco had to make money for his family. Paco worked at night. He often went to sleep in class. (p. 193)

This version contains three short, single-clausal sentences. The verb *to support* has been replaced by a synonymous expression *to make money for (someone)* and the expression *fell asleep* has been replaced by *went to sleep*.

3. Cognitively (not linguistically) simplified version:

Paco had to work at night to earn money to support his family, so he often fell asleep in class the next day during his teacher's lesson. (p. 193)

This sentence is longer than the original baseline multi-clausal version and contains much of the original complexity in terms of syntax and lexis with the following modifications: (1) the first clause has been transformed from subordinate to main clause, (2) *Paco* has been fronted to help the reader identify the topic right away,⁴ (3) *to earn money* has been added to assist in understanding the meaning of *to support*, rather than replacing *to support* as in Version 2, (4) *the next day* has been added to clarify the temporal/causal framework for Paco's tiredness, and (5) *during his teacher's lesson* has been added to clarify *in class*.

One can see how addition (not deletion or oversimplification) of surface elements, as well as other clarifying (rather than simplifying) modifications, may result in cognitively more explicit, and, therefore, more easily comprehended speech, which will contain characteristics of rich real discourse and not resemble the stilted sanitized texts sometimes encountered in textbooks. Modifications of input that add redundancy and clarifying elements to the input are frequently referred to as *input elaboration*.

It is possible that teachers and curriculum developers may develop a concern that elaboration may lead to greater sentence length and, thus, increase the comprehension burden on the learner with limited proficiency. In her study, Blau (1982) challenges the traditional sentence length criterion which deemed short sentences easy to read, and long sentences harder for comprehension, and demonstrates that simple syntax alone does not aid comprehension. She compares the subjects' comprehension of three types of passages:

Version 1 contains primarily short simple sentences. Example:

Manufacturers must get goods to market. Suppose the manufacturer and the market are a long distance apart. This can be a big expense. (p. 518)

Version 2 contains complex sentences with surface clues to underlying relationships left intact, e.g., relative pronouns are not deleted in subordinate clauses even though they may be optional; noun subjects and finite verbs are not deleted (or replaced by pronouns and auxiliary verbs); explicit conditional clauses are present, etc. Example:

If the manufacturer and the market are a long distance apart, then it can be a big expense for the manufacturer to get goods to market. (pp. 518-519)

Version 3 contains complex sentences as well, but with a higher degree of chunking, noun subjects and finite verbs deleted or replaced in subordinate clauses, lack of explicit conditional clauses, ample use of -ing forms instead of infinitives and other verbal forms, etc. Example:

*Being removed from the market can easily run up the cost.*⁵

One may summarize that, while Version 1 contained short simple sentences, Version 2 included complex sentences with explicit clues to the underlying syntactic relationships, and Version 3 contained complex sentences without such clues. Here is an additional example from Blau (1982) that illustrates the difference between Version 2 and Version 3 passages in her study (the conditional and relative clauses in Version 3 are not explicit).

Version 2:

If you cook food for a long enough time, you will kill any disease germs that may be present. (p. 519)

Version 3:

Cooking food for a long enough time will kill any disease germs possibly present. (p. 519)

Blau (1982) reports that reading comprehension tasks in this study yielded the highest scores on Version 2 in non-native speaker college students (with the exception of those with the lowest proficiency levels, who, surprisingly and quite inexplicably, performed best on Version 3). Additionally, college students generally evaluated Version 2 passages as being the easiest to read as well. Blau's findings may be interpreted to provide support to two important notions: (1) short simplistic sentences are not necessarily comprehended best by learners, and (2) input becomes more comprehensible if the underlying structure is made explicit to learners.

In their study, Parker and Chaudron (1987) define elaboration as "the addition of redundancy, and the explicit realization of underlying thematic relations" (p. 110). For the purposes of the study, they create two different types of passages from an original baseline passage: their "elaborated" version retained all the redundancies and explicit markers of thematic relations, and was further modified along these lines. The "non-elaborated" version had all the redundancies removed and was transformed to adhere to canonical word order. The authors found no statistically significant difference between the posttest cloze reading comprehension test scores of the students who read the elaborated version and those who read the other one. Urano (2000) stresses that, since the

non-elaborated version in Parker and Chaudron's study had actually been modified from the original baseline version, one may conclude that they had shown that there were no statistically significant differences between student comprehension of elaborated and simplified printed input. This finding is broadly consistent with the findings in a number of empirical studies of the effects of input simplification versus input elaboration on comprehension (Parker and Chaudron, 1987; Yano et al., 1994; Urano, 2000; Oh, 2001). The pedagogical implications of these findings are that even with comprehension success rates being equal between elaborated and simplified texts, use of elaborated texts would appear more methodologically-sound in terms of accelerating the learners' progression to fluent reading of unmodified materials, which is the ultimate goal.

Lexical Elaboration and Incidental Vocabulary Acquisition

In his study, Urano (2000) did not only measure reading comprehension after the subjects read English sentences with different types of modifications, but also administered a form-recognition and a meaning-recognition vocabulary test after the treatment. The tests were designed to measure incidental vocabulary acquisition.

He believes that the performance of the 40 Japanese participants on these tests suggested that elaborating the targeted items (by means of providing synonyms in apposition) triggers acquisition of these elaborated words, whereas lexical simplification does not allow for such acquisition (since the targeted items are removed from the sentences). One occurrence of the targeted vocabulary item may be insufficient for acquisition of its meaning. However, more advanced learners, in his opinion, may be able to learn some words after just one encounter.

Urano's study has an important pedagogical implication for curriculum design. Since his study, as does Blau's (1982), lends support to the assertion that increasing sentence length does not necessarily add much of a comprehension burden for learners, adding synonyms to words unknown to learners may be a useful technique in designing L2 reading materials. This technique does not require a large investment of time or effort on behalf of the teacher or curriculum developer.

Typographic Input Enhancement

Another method of making targeted language features more salient to the learner in written input is typographic input enhancement. Noticing of targeted features is a prerequisite of their acquisition. Unfortunately, due to the lack of saliency to the learner, a targeted language feature may remain unnoticed even if it is frequently repeated in the input. In discussing the theory of *focus on form* as the suggested methodology of teaching grammar in the communicative classroom, Doughty and Williams (1998) point out that other means may be required to induce noticing, such as *text enhancement* (not to be confused with *text elaboration*), which refers to typographic modifications of parts of the input. Enhancement may be achieved by bolding, increasing font size or changing the font color, underlining, italicizing particular words or segments, etc., in the printed texts. In the following examples, the perfect infinite is presented in a larger font in bold typeface.

1. *Coalition officials are questioning six suspects on Wednesday believed to **have killed** three civilian workers.*
2. *Saddam's eldest son Uday is known to **have made** millions from the international trade in antiquities.*

The purpose of the study conducted by Jourdenais et al. (1995) was to determine whether one enhancement technique -- textual modification -- made preterit and imperfect verbal forms more noticeable and affected learners' processing of these target

forms. Analysis of the subsequently collected think-aloud protocols and the written narratives produced by the subjects revealed that those subjects who had received the input with the textual enhancement noticed more of the targeted forms and used more of them in their written production.

Some Possible Guidelines for Input Elaboration

As stated earlier, lexical elaboration can be achieved by providing high-frequency synonyms or definitions of low-frequency items that are presumed to be unknown by the learners (in addition to these items, and not in lieu of them). Consider the following examples:

*His querulous manner alienated the neighbors.
The illness swallowed her face.*

The following additions serve to clarify the meaning of the low-frequency adjective *querulous* and the verb *to swallow*:

*His querulous, fault-finding manner alienated the neighbors."
The illness swallowed her face, which now looked sickly and dull.*

Structural elaboration presents many more possibilities. When dealing with such complex notions as clarifying the propositional content of utterances, it does not appear feasible to describe all possibilities or to formulate hard and fast rules of cognitive elaboration. Nevertheless, I will present some examples that may prove to be useful in elaborating English texts which have not already been mentioned anywhere else in the course of this discussion. In making a decision about what method of structural elaboration best suits a particular language sample without changing its pragmatic intent, teachers of different languages should rely on their own professional expertise and judgment.

The sentence below contains the pronoun *those* serving as a replacement for the noun-phrase *facial features*.

He hired an anthropologist and had her facial features examined and compared to those of Katherine the Great.

If the teacher believes that the learners are not able to handle the cognitive load increased by the use of *those* in this function, he may choose to keep the noun-phrase instead:

He hired an anthropologist and had her facial features examined and compared to the features of Katherine the Great.

In the following example, the second sentence has been added in order to rephrase, or summarize, the content of the first.

Joe tends to be partial to red wines favoring them over white. In other words, he likes red wines better.

This sentence contains an elliptic clause with some structural elements omitted:

Mrs. Perkins has bet seven times on the horse known as 'the Orwell Stallion', and her husband five.

If the teacher believes that the learners may not be able to fill in the gap based on the context, he may elect to fill in the omitted elements:

Mrs. Perkins has bet seven times on the horse known as 'the Orwell Stallion', and her husband has bet on him five times.

In the following example, the teacher decided to preserve the original structure with finite verbs omitted in the first sentence, but added a redundant clarifying sentence afterwards:

Laura could have made things right by asking them to join her the moment she noticed how hurt they were, but she didn't and is not likely to. She did not ask them then, and it is unlikely that she will ever do it.

Since *anaphoric* references that imply use of a word or group of words, which point to a referent located earlier in the text, are much more common than *cataphoric* references, which point forward, replacing a cataphora with an anaphora may serve the purpose of simplifying the comprehension task. For example, in the following sentence the student referred to in the beginning is not characterized until later in the sentence:

It is a naive student who hopes to teach himself to speak a foreign language in isolation, without interacting with others.

One of the following two sentences may be used if the teacher feels that the learners are unprepared to handle the cataphora:

It is naive to think that one can learn to speak a foreign language in isolation, without interacting with others.

or:

A student who thinks that he can teach himself to speak a foreign language in isolation, without interacting with others, is naive.

It is, of course, impossible to describe all potential structures where modification may be desired and to recommend a specific prescriptive elaboration technique. In each instance, the teacher will make the decision about what is most beneficial to a particular group of learners based on his assessment of a variety of factors, including the learners' ages, levels of sophistication, prior language experience, motivation, goals, etc.

Conclusion

Simplification of syntactical structure in written input may result in providing the learners with impoverished input and ultimately impede their ability to graduate to unmodified authentic texts. Input elaboration, such as redundancy and clarifying modifications, on the other hand, enhances comprehensibility of authentic utterances, but does not take away from the richness and naturalness of the input, provided the pragmatic considerations of the original remain intact. Even though an occasional simplification may arguably be an allowable and justified shortcut, it appears reasonable to conclude that elaboration may, in most cases, be the preferable method of input treatment. Moreover, it may be argued that lexical elaboration that provides a paraphrase, or a synonymous expression to clarify a low-frequency vocabulary item, triggers acquisition of this vocabulary item. The elaboration adds saliency to the item and thus promotes noticing by the learner. It provides semantic detail which helps foreign language learners make inferences from the context. While structural elaboration requires rethinking of the structure, lexical elaboration is easy to achieve and does not require a large investment of time on the part of a teacher or course writer.

Teachers and course-writers can use the following guidelines for text elaboration. Syntactical simplifications, shortening of sentences, deletion of sentence segments, replacing low-frequency items with high-frequency synonyms and low-frequency structures with high-frequency structures should not be used as the predominant ways of input modification (except for proficiency levels 0 and 0+⁶). Some possible ways of achieving structural elaboration are adding redundancy to the text through marking topical component parts, clear signaling of relationships between clauses and sentences (e.g., explicit conditional and relative clauses), retention of full noun-phrases (in lieu of their pronoun replacements) and finite verbs (in lieu of auxiliary verbs), supplying omitted structural elements, using anaphoric rather than cataphoric references (pronouns that occur after their referents rather than before), and use of clauses and paraphrasing summary statements which make underlying logical relations more explicit without adding new information. Typographic text enhancement (of the target features) has been shown to have a positive effect on noticing and recall of the enhanced elements in learners.

On a final note, second and foreign language learners need to be exposed to listening and reading texts from a variety of sources and genres that correspond to their age, proficiency levels and interests. Elaborated texts should be used as sources of input within a skill-integrated approach, in combination with information gap and opinion gap activities, free conversation, and other activity formats that afford learners plenty of opportunities to produce their own language output and negotiate meaning in interaction with others.

Notes

¹ According to Krashen's *Input hypothesis*, learners progress in acquiring a language when they receive messages in the second language that are linguistically one step beyond their current stage of development. For example, if a particular learner's competence is currently at stage 'i', then acquisition may occur when this learner is exposed to language input which can be characterized as level 'i + 1'.

² According to Krashen's *Affective Filter Hypothesis*, acquisition will take place when the comprehensible input at the appropriate level is experienced under conditions which lower the acquirer's anxiety, and raise the motivation, confidence, and the self-image of the acquirer.

³ Level 0+ on the Interagency Language Roundtable proficiency scale is characterized as Memorized Proficiency. In Reading, a level 0+ learner can read isolated words and phrases, but not connected prose, and in Listening, can comprehend a number of memorized formulaic messages in areas of immediate needs and possibly other short utterances with frequent pauses and after several repetitions.

⁴ It is important to note that fronting *Paco* here may result in violating the pragmatic concerns of the given-new information and the theme-rheme arrangement. (In the original sentence *Paco* was preceded by the clause *because he had to work at night to support his family*.) Without knowing the wider discourse context, it may not be possible to state with certainty whether such a violation indeed took place. In general, however, moving something that represents new or rhematic information in a sentence into the given or thematic slot would not be acceptable.

⁵ Blau (1982) did not provide the third version of this example. The sentence was constructed by me based on my understanding of what its syntax could possibly be to satisfy the author's description of the third version passages.

⁶ Considering the fact that Level 0 is characterized as No Proficiency and Level 0+ as Memorized Proficiency limited to reading isolated words such as numbers, street signs and place names, as well as some short phrases (not connected prose), the listed simplifications appear suitable at these proficiency levels.

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Developing Materials For Gloss Principles, Content, and Instructional Technology

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This article represents an overview of GLOSS (Global Language Online Support System). The authors will describe how the concept of GLOSS (former DLIFLC Langnet) was born, what constitutes GLOSS today, what methodological and practical principles lie behind it, what it takes to create effective online lessons, what technology is involved, as well as its future prospects. The goal of the authors is to introduce GLOSS to foreign language teachers and thus make this rich source of online instruction available to the students and graduates of the DLIFLC.

Methodology

A Little Bit of History

The need for quality online materials in all languages, especially in the less commonly taught ones, such as Arabic, Korean, Chinese, Russian, and many others, has been pressing for many years. There are millions of American linguists and language learners around the world who are in dire need of guidance and instruction at all levels and areas of linguistic endeavor. Some of them are graduates of universities and government language schools, some have taken various language courses, some are independent learners, some may be working with the target language (TL), and some may not have any exposure to the TL at all. However, all of them have one thing in common – they need a source of guidance and language instruction that answers their specific needs while being easily available at any time.

In our age of digital technology, this goal is not as idealistic and unattainable as it may have seemed several years ago. Global Language Online Support System is an attempt to solve this challenging task and to provide language learners with a language-maintenance and a language-enhancing tool that is free of charge, anonymous, and available around-the-clock anywhere in the world.

The history of GLOSS goes back several years. In the late nineties, the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center created a Diagnostic Assessment (DA) Team for the task of identifying the field linguists' proficiency level in the skills of Reading, Listening, and Speaking through a face-to-face 1.5-hour interview. The goal of this interview was to pinpoint the strengths and weaknesses of any given linguist, which were then reflected in the DA profile document and provided the linguist with a learning plan. These two documents gave a complete picture of all the areas in which the linguist needed the most help, and gave detailed advice in the form of strategies which were aimed at raising his/her performance in any given area. Each learning plan was highly individualized due to the thoroughness of the assessment process and was accompanied by a list of sources and materials to assist independent learning.

The feedback from students and program managers alike was extremely favorable, except for the fact that most of the materials available at that time were outdated, too generic, or meant exclusively for classroom teaching. Also, there was nothing of value available on the Internet that an independent learner could log on to and receive answers to questions stemming from their individual needs.

The group of DA specialists was just beginning to come up with ideas of how to link the DA profile to meaningful materials that targeted specific linguistic issues, and moreover, how to create and maintain a bank of such materials on the Internet.

On the other side of the continent, the National Foreign Language Center (NFLC) was looking for ways to improve their LangNet website, which at the time was an archive of various resources for foreign language specialists. A new concept was devised by NFLC in conjunction with the DLIFLC team of DA specialists and educational technologists. The choice of languages and levels was based upon national security needs at the time. All of the materials posted on GLOSS have been developed and continue to be created by the DLIFLC GLOSS team, which consists of subject matter experts (SMEs) and educational technology specialists working under the auspices of the Curriculum Development Division.

Definition of GLOSS Terms

GLOSS is an integrated, technologically enhanced language learning support system, which has been designed and is being developed as a maintenance and proficiency enhancing tool for independent language learners. GLOSS is part of the DLIFLC official site www.lingnet.org. Materials are searchable using the following categories: language, proficiency range ($1+2$, $2+3$, etc.), skill, topic, and competence; but most importantly, the learner may access a diagnostic assessment component of GLOSS to have an individualized learning plan generated for his/her specific needs.

Diagnostic Assessment is the component that is the cornerstone of the entire system. It allows the users of GLOSS to take an online diagnostic test and receive an individually tailored learning plan. At present, it is a collection of carefully selected “can-do” questions organized by level and functional objective, which users answer to the best of their ability. The plan for the near future is to develop a full, computer-adaptive, task-based diagnostic instrument.

The Learning Plan is a collection of strategies with twenty lessons (called ‘Learning Objects’), addressing the areas of need demonstrated by the learner in the course of the Diagnostic Assessment Test.

Learning Objects (LOs) are independent units of language learning which are not a part of a language course or a curriculum. Each LO has its own objective and provides all the necessary materials, activities, guidance, and explanations, which help the learner reach this objective within a time frame of approximately one hour. The length of time required from the learner depends on that particular learner’s characteristics and on the volume of the teaching material presented, but it should not exceed two hours.

Each LO consists of four to five activities. It opens up with an overview page, which states the focus and gives a short description of each activity. By clicking the ‘Begin Lesson’ button located on the overview page, the user commences the first activity.

On the top of each page there is a self-explanatory navigation bar, from which the user can link to all of the activities, the original text document accompanied by an English translation, an audio recording of the text, a glossary, an information page containing all the key information about the level and the objective of the LO, and a “Help” page for explanations of how to navigate through each activity. There is no fixed order in which the LOs should be used. The learner is also free to explore all of the elements of the lesson in any order, but for maximum effect, users are encouraged to follow the sequence suggested by the developer, which is to start with the warm-up activity, proceed through two or three enabling activities, and finish with the wrap-up activity.

The article you are about to read deals with the recycling system in China. To enhance your comprehension of the article, you will be asked to reflect on phrases and identify whether they are related or unrelated to the handling of used consumer electronics. All of the words in question are used in the article. If you need to learn more about the phrases presented below, click the "Teacher" button to see them in their actual contexts.

Activity 1 **Where Did the Rest of Old Consumer Electronics Go? (2 of 2)**

阅读下列关于废旧家电处理的词语，然后根据你的意见把它们分配到处理废旧家电有关的“回收废旧家电”或“不回收废旧家电”的相应框。

TECHNOLOGICAL TERMS

淘汰市场	销售或买	露天焚烧
非法拼装或在低质量低成本的家电产品	实行市场化运作	拼装电子产品
回收材料	收购的废旧家电	回收旧手机

请整理出家电有关的词语

和与整理旧家电无直接关系的词语

Figure 1. Example of an activity page (categorizing activity).

Methodological Principles Behind GLOSS

Text Selection

GLOSS at present is a collection of lessons aimed at enhancing learners' Reading Comprehension skills.¹ Quite naturally, each Learning Object explores a printed text. The selection of texts for the Learning Objects, where to look for them, and what criteria to take into account is probably one of the most challenging tasks that each developer faces.

First and foremost, the DLIFLC SMEs are committed to working exclusively with authentic materials, both printed and web-delivered. Foreign language publications that grant copyright release are sometimes scarce, especially in languages such as Chinese, making the developer's search for appropriate materials time-consuming and strenuous, especially since other important criteria, which will be discussed below, have to be taken into consideration.

The core of selection criteria is ILR² (Interagency Language Roundtable Language Skill Level Descriptions), a document describing foreign language proficiency levels, which has been the U.S. government standard in foreign language teaching and testing for decades.

The second most important criterion, which lays the foundation for the text selection process, is Child's classification of text typology and text modes, which provides a link to the original purpose behind the text. The author's intent becomes of primary importance in identifying the following text modes: orientation mode, instructive mode, evaluative mode, and projective mode. Here is a short description of each mode:

- Orientation mode – texts written in this mode give the reader an orientation as to who or what is where, or what is happening within a generally predictable pattern. A common text type is advertisements. Orientation mode corresponds to L1 on the ILR scale, and to the intermediate level according to ACTFL standards.
- Instructive mode – texts written in this mode talk about something that exists, or is developing, or will happen in the real world, without any analytical judgment on the part of the author. News reports or any stories that represent facts and simple descriptions of people, places, and events belong to this mode. Instructive mode corresponds to L2 on the ILR scale and to the advanced level on the ACTFL standards.
- Evaluative mode – in texts written in this mode the emphasis shifts from facts to a perspective in which these facts are presented. Editorials are a common text type. These texts typically contain supported opinion, hypothesis, and suasion, and they require the ability to read between the lines. They also presuppose considerable shared information between the author and the reader. Evaluative mode corresponds to L3 on the ILR scale and to the threshold superior level according to the ACTFL standards.
- Projective mode – texts written in this mode emphasize conceptualization and personal input. They are characterized by unpredictable turns of thought, as well as highly individualized and very idiomatic language with a high level of synonymy where any attempt on substitution will result in change of nuance. This mode corresponds to L4 by the ILR scale and falls within the high range of superior level by the ACTFL standards.

There are a number of pragmatic considerations that come into play during the process of text selection for online lessons. One such consideration is the choice of topics. It is important that the five most common topical domains be represented evenly. These domains are: politics/economy, culture/society, geography/environment, technology/science, and military/security.

Texts should be interesting, not dated, and contain sufficient examples of certain linguistic features which would be worthwhile to teach. These considerations are the main criteria in text selection, but by far not an exhaustive listing.

Designing the Lesson

After the text has been selected, the developer begins the task of designing the lesson. The process starts with setting very clear objectives. Each LO is oriented toward a functional objective and a linguistic objective.

Functional objectives stem directly from the ILR descriptions of what the learner should be able to do with the language at a certain level. These descriptions are translated into real-life tasks. For example, if the ILR states that at L2 one should be able to comprehend main ideas and supporting facts in factual authentic material on a familiar topic, the functional objective (the real-world task) might be skimming a connected text with the goal of finding the main idea, or it might be reading the text to find details about

how something happened and in what sequence. An L3 reader is supposed to be able to read between the lines, so in real life he/she could be asked to read an evaluative text, such as an editorial, to identify the author's implications.

Linguistic objectives depend on what the learner is asked to do with the text. If it is an evaluative L3 text, and the task is to find out the author's opinion about an event, the developer needs to identify what language specific features may stand in the learner's way to complete the task. Only those linguistic challenges which may affect the learner's ability to accomplish the task are selected for specific explanations and activities. Lexicon, grammar, and discourse devices are presented in context and are need-dictated.

The DLIFLC team of Diagnostic Assessment specialists has identified important language-specific features³ which constitute any given level for reading materials in Arabic, Russian, and Chinese, and has created the so-called Language Specific Profiles for those languages. The can-do statements from those Language Specific Profiles have become the basis of the DA self-assessment piece of GLOSS.

The language features fall under four competencies: structural, lexical, discourse, and socio-cultural, which constitute some of the categories by which the LOs are tagged. The process thus far is similar to the preparation stage of classroom teaching.

Challenges of Online Teaching

Once the objectives are set and the language features identified, the developer faces the challenges of the online environment. Two major factors to keep in mind are that the learner is working on the computer with no assistance from a teacher, and that each LO is a self-contained unit that is not tied to other LOs.

Unlike in a classroom, the developer cannot rely on the students to ask questions. Instead, he has to think for the student and foresee all possible questions and difficulties that the student might have while completing the tasks. Therefore, every question and every distractor in the multiple choice activity, for example, has to have instructional value and lead to meaningful feedback.

The overall design of the LOs follows the same pattern and is geared toward making the learners better and more independent readers. Every LO includes activities that help learners activate topical and background information prior to reading the text, activities that get the learner through the challenges of the text, and activities that reinforce the learning that has taken place.

The DLIFLC SMEs are committed to moving away from the testing mode to make every LO as much of a teaching tool as possible. Therefore, the main goals of the LO developer are to design logically connected sequences of activities, use tasks of different types with gradually increasing degrees of complexity, focus on important features of the text, and make each lesson a cultural experience for the learner. The activity templates, which are the result of the joint effort of the SMEs and the technology department, provide multiple opportunities for the developers to give various types of feedback, such as those listed below:

- Strategies, which give the learner tips on what to pay attention to while reading
- Hints before the learner answers the question
- Hints that follow the action of answering
- Terminal feedback, which is provided even for correct answers
- A 'Teacher' button for additional types of information such as grammar notes and historical or cultural information
- Cultural notes to make the learner aware of cultural issues
- Rewards, which are sometimes given for correct answers, and are offered in the form of jokes, pictures, etc.

The process of developing LOs is not easy. It requires a lot of time, expertise, and commitment on the part of the SMEs. Due to the pioneering quality of the project, the time and effort needed to create a good, methodologically solid LO often is underestimated. On top of being an experienced teacher, every LO developer has to have experience in testing or Diagnostic Assessment, which includes a thorough knowledge of proficiency levels, knowledge of text typology, thorough computer training (taking a Web publishing class is highly recommended), an open mind, and a lot of enthusiasm and commitment to quality teaching.

Content Development

When we think of developing materials for independent online learning, our first inclination is to develop pedagogically sound activities based on a text. One may later think of some of the interactivity the computer provides that can work with these activities. After all, should not pedagogy drive the technology?

Pre-Interactive Learning Objects

When we first began developing Learning Objects, the challenge was to link online material to online diagnostic assessment. The LOs we developed were proficiency level-based units that dealt with particular language features and functional objectives. The focus was on drawing the learners' attention to pertinent features of the text that were thought to be worthwhile, and to devise activities around them. These first LOs were envisioned in a paper-pencil mode and were not rendered electronically.

In the post-concept stage, we developed LOs that were ready to be programmed. We had to think not only of meaningful activities, but also of electronic forms of handling these activities, and whether they should be multiple choice, drag-and-drop, highlight, true-or-false, etc.

The issue was more complex than it might seem at first. In a flat mode development process (for classroom teaching or textbook writing), the driving force is the relevance of the activities to the text. This is no easy task by itself, but it is the guiding principle. Developing material for computer and online interactivity brings many opportunities, but also some limitations.

Interactive Learning Objects

Instead of only thinking of the nature of the task which is to be performed in conjunction with the target language material, we have to think of a feasible and suitable interactive medium. Feasibility involves technological considerations, as well as considerations of what is available to the developer in his/her workplace. Suitability concerns the degree to which the interactive medium serves the pedagogical objective of the teaching/learning task. For the first interactive LOs that we developed, we had to negotiate with the programmers (who are themselves language teachers) on what could be done and what could not be done. We had the opportunity to let our imagination lead us, but often, the products of our imaginations had to be adjusted or changed. They sometimes turned out differently than imagined.

One of the first major issues that we had to deal with was the multitude of interactive formats, and the alternative answers that had to be displayed, such as in multiple choice, drop-down menus, or even true-and-false. The danger in offering multiple choices is that this could easily turn an activity into a test item, as distractors do in multiple choice tests. If our objective is to highlight learning opportunities in authentic target language materials, providing close, but misleading, alternative choices would not help us achieve our goal.

Multiple Choice and Feedback

As developers, we had to think of different reference criteria for coming up with multiple choices to fit in with our main objective. In multiple choice formats, the items had to be based on the problematic areas of the text relative to the intended level of the learner. Multiple choices, including the most appropriate ones, need to have a teaching point: a synonym that is appropriate for a different context, or a conjunction that requires a different sentence structure.

We had to think about feedback before coming up with the choice items. We soon realized the importance of feedback for stand-alone online learning materials. Feedback became the link between the learner and the teacher, the medium of teaching and facilitating. We have gone through several phases of experimentation with types and ways of delivering feedback, from a simple question-answer version to a multi-layered and multi-purpose version. Nevertheless, a rich LO does not rely solely on feedback for the direct linguistic and functional features of the text, but also includes all the other interesting and not so visible elements of the text. These features are present not only in high level and abstract texts, but also at the most mundane level. The interplay between background and surface text and between culture and the stated message is part of language communication. It also makes for a more interesting learning experience, which is vital for student motivation. This “facilitating” of information has been incorporated into LOs in a variety of ways, including strategies, notes, teacher’s notes and optional pop-up windows.

Text Selection

One of the most important bases for a meaningful LO is the target language text itself. A well-rounded consideration of the merits of a text will impact the quality of the LO and the learning opportunities it offers. One can argue that a resourceful teacher can take any text and put it to good use. While such resourcefulness is highly desirable, it may be employed more effectively if applied to more yielding materials. An example of feedback for the appropriate choice from L2 text (ACTFL advanced) about an ancient city in Syria follows:

Two words denote the military importance of the city. One is عسكري (عسكري), and the other is النظام الدفاعي (الدفاعي) (defense system). استراتيجي (استراتيجي) (strategic) also enforces this importance. The verb that is used with this description, يُعتبر (يُعتبر) is in the passive meaning (it is considered).

وأوضح أن "الأندرين" تقع على طريق الحرير، وهي ذات موقع استراتيجي جعلها كموقع عسكري وسياسي واقتصادي واجتماعي تعتبر جزءا من النظام الدفاعي في سورية الوسطى.

In developing our LOs, there are two selection considerations that we take for granted, namely, authenticity and proficiency level appropriateness. Briefly, we have found that authentic material allows us to deal with the intricacies of real world language situations that we cannot duplicate as well if we try to produce them ourselves. Contrived material also tends to overemphasize one language feature at the expense of all the elements of authentic spoken or written communication. The consideration of level appropriateness helps to target the language areas that are of the most immediate use to the learner.

These two considerations are the foundation of the text selection process, but there are many other considerations. The texts do not only have to provide language learning opportunities to the student, but also provide a window into the target culture.

This consideration involves selecting diverse topics from all facets of life in the target culture. In certain cultures, some teachers may find themselves associating this aspect with “window-dressing” the culture, and they select only what is perceived as “positive.” We interpret a positive portrayal as one that reflects all the human dimensions of a society. In the case of some languages, such as Arabic, one also needs to cover as many countries as possible. The learner can later narrow down his or her choices of countries, if they wish to do so.

Language Features

Once these points are taken care of, the text will hopefully “talk” to us. It will have some outstanding features that will be worthwhile exploring as learning opportunities (features include all of the linguistic and paralinguistic elements that contribute to the coherence of a text). The idea that the text will set the teaching agenda is somewhat of a deliberate oversimplification here, since, as teachers, we do not really come to the text with an open agenda. We often have a few items in mind that we are looking for. This approach is a circle, but not necessarily a vicious one. We need the discerning eye of an experienced teacher to spot areas of difficulty for students. Such an approach is different than starting with a predetermined list of language features.

In the case of Arabic, for example, when selecting grammar topics, teachers tend to fall back on traditional, and very prescriptive, offerings. There have been efforts to produce textbooks that are not so faithfully tied to the traditional grammar approach, but these efforts remain few. In Arabic, there is the opportunity and the challenge to highlight those language features that are the most functional. What needs to be emphasized is how these features are used and not so much how they have been traditionally explained. For instance, we know that linguistic discourse features are a stepping stone between the intermediate and advanced levels. In Arabic grammar references, linguistic discourse features are found across different sections under different parts of speech, and they are treated as simply that. Authentic Arabic texts from contemporary sources offer rich material to explore discourse features. Therein lies both the challenge and opportunity.

Although we are guided by proficiency levels when we home in on a particular feature in a text, there remains a vast range of sublevels of proficiency and learner profiles. It is not a forgone conclusion to determine what would present a difficulty for a learner in a particular text. An LO developer has to rely on his/her intuitive and professional knowledge to predict the potential difficulties. The accuracy of the prediction will be a consequence of the developer’s familiarity with learners’ difficulties in a particular language.

Any authentic text is likely to have many language features of varying levels of importance. One has to exercise a sense of priority guided by proficiency level, functionality, and interest in the topic. In the long run, an overview of which language features have been exhausted and which have not also ought to guide our choices. An LO is likely to work better if the sense of priority is derived from the text itself. If a text, for example, uses several common idiomatic phrases, the focus needs to be directed toward these phrases. An LO does not have to have one single focus; it can highlight several elements that demonstrate the way the text works to achieve its intent.

Creating and Choosing Activities

As one develops more LOs, one can fall into a pattern. Some patterns are desirable, while others are simply convenient. It is good to have an outline of the LO, a sequence of the activities, and their relation to each other. On the other hand, it is perhaps rather convenient to associate a particular task (of an activity) with a particular electronic format or template. For example, one can get into the habit of always starting an LO with a vocabulary matching activity (as an advance organizer), not that there is anything wrong with that! But we do not have to limit ourselves to patterned choices.

Alternating activities and formats for the sake of variety may also defeat the ultimate purpose. The characteristics of the focus feature(s) should guide the selection of the electronic format. Discourse features, for example, may lend themselves more to formats where items can be moved around or inserted. But possibilities abound. One way of going about choosing a format for a focus item is to determine what we want the learner to know about the item in question. Meta-language should be the last of our concerns. What we need to explore are the uses and their manifestations in the text. In Arabic, it may be interesting to know that *لِعَافِلَا مِسَا* is *رِشَان* (active participle), but what will advance a learner's understanding of Arabic is how they are used. One of the uses of *لِعَافِلَا مِسَا* is to depict jobs: *رِشَان* (publisher), *مَكَا ح* (governor), or *بِرْدَم* (trainer). These categories of usage are, however, seldom explored in Arabic. Such an approach will provide the learner with tools to be able to handle new and unfamiliar language situations.

Activities in a self-contained LO should address the content of the text (the message), the pertinent conduits of that content, and the context of the content. The shift in balance on any of these components depends on the makeup of the text itself. For example, a simple scientific report is not likely to require much cultural awareness (the context), but it may present interesting structural and lexical opportunities (the conduits).

Strategies, Notes, and Pop-Up Windows

In LOs, we use a variety of tools within activities and as peripheral links within the LO. The functions that a facilitator performs in a classroom can be rendered through strategies within activities, notes about the background of a text, notes on cultural aspects related to the text, grammar illustrations, or images. Such items add to the richness of the interaction with the LO.

Some activities may require the inclusion of text-specific strategies as part of their tiered feedback. A developer may suggest a way of approaching the text by drawing attention to the pivotal point and showing how other types of information in the text are linked to it. One consideration to keep in mind concerning these tools is that the longer they are, the more likely a reader will lose interest. They must be clear and succinct. An example of a reading strategy for an article about the Al-Jazeera television channel follows:

- The article includes many views on Al-Jazeera. One of your tasks is to differentiate between cited opinions and those that the author espouses. For clues, do not limit yourself to verbs that directly depict approval or disapproval. Look also for words that indirectly betray a stance, such as “to shy away from” something, implying some level of disapproval.

We input the language content (that includes all the types of interaction with the target language material discussed above) in a set of templates that are “web-ready.” This set of templates is continuously updated and expanded. An example of an activity template is a “categorizing” one, that a language content developer can use if he or she sees a need for concepts, phrases, or ideas that can be broken into two main categories as a pre-reading activity or for some other objective in the LO. The content developer will input the items (to be categorized) and the two categories, as well as the feedback and any pertinent notes, in the appropriate fields.

Thus, the developer of content for GLOSS has two issues to contend with: how to create meaningful learning opportunities, and how to present these learning opportunities in pedagogically sound electronic formats. On the first issue, the developer is mainly guided by methodological principles, which in their turn are a reflection of GLOSS guidelines and current standards, and of his or her experience in foreign language education. On the issue of creating web-ready templates, the developer provides the concepts and initial layout for prospective activities, which the technology department developers translate into templates. This conversion process is a series of accommodations of content, technology (programming tools), and e-learning (effective ways to communicate content online), negotiated by the content developers and the technology developers.

Coming back to the initial question of this section, namely “should not pedagogy drive the technology?” the answer is more complex than the premise of the question. The premise is valid, since the objective is pedagogical in the first place, and it needs to be diligently kept in focus. On the other hand, extending teacher-learner interaction beyond the face-to-face medium takes us into special challenges. There are technological and medium limitations that determine what language content can be conveyed online. But the medium also offers new possibilities for language learning that are not present in face-to-face interaction. It is this balance between the current limitations and new possibilities that will be shaping the pursuit of pedagogically-sound e-learning.

DLIFLC’s ‘LO Generator’: Instructional Technology

The authoring tool Generator 1.2, created by DLIFLC, enables teachers to design interactive, web-based activities accessible to learners at any Internet-capable computer terminal with a standard web browser. Based on the positive outcome of previous online courses in field testing, the DLIFLC embarked on the GLOSS project. This project framework relies on Generator 1.2 to produce lessons for skill development.

History

A handful of programmers developed LOs using HTML and JavaScript, writing new code for each activity. Teachers without a background in web design or programming came up with new activities, presenting a constant challenge to the programmers, and requiring an extensive investment of effort. Unfortunately, many activities were developed and programmed without meeting the standards of instructional design. The LOs underwent scrutiny and recommendations were implemented. Content revisions led to programming changes and debugging sessions. This inefficient approach demanded a procedural reorganization. First, instructional designers analyzed all the individually programmed activities that survived the first quality control. Second, a committee of online course developers/programmers reviewed these activities. Third, they selected a small set as models for future development. This decision reduced the time needed to encode each new activity.



Figure 2. Developer's interface of a "categorizing" template

Templates, not Models

Using models did not completely solve the programming problem. Whenever a new activity did not precisely replicate the models, the programmers had to alter the model. The content developers' variations forced the programmers to craft new code and to spend hours debugging. Further review and discussion led to a plan to train the programmers in template development. To this end, another analysis of the programmed activities took place, and only methodologically sound activities were considered for templization. Since these templates were originally developed in English, this solution proved to be ineffective.

The programmers still had to adapt the English templates to non-Roman alphabets and right-to-left writing systems. Another impediment to progress at this stage was recurring revision of content. Often the recommendations of the reviewers required changes in the feedback. The programmers had to apply the correction in the JavaScript arrays where the text was embedded, a particularly tedious maneuver in the case of Arabic.

ADDIE and the Generator

Clearly, saving programming time entailed a more drastic approach that would totally separate content from programming. To achieve this, a few programmers received intensive training in extensible markup language (XML) and successfully programmed an independent shell, known as the ‘Generator’, for the content. Armed with this new tool, a committee of managers, instructional designers, subject matter experts, and graphic artists set the new rules of production and adopted the ADDIE Instructional Design Model⁴. The new Generator templates required specific features. One such feature would be to enable any teacher to create web-based activities for direct student access. Hot Potatoes⁵ had created six different types of web-based exercises to stand alone or be linked to other exercises to form a sequence of tasks. However, only Roman character set languages were supported. The Generator programmers faced the challenge of supporting non-Roman alphabets and right-to-left script.

The Generator design process involved the development of a conceptual model of the application. A user-centered design took human factors into account, such as information processing and storage. The goal was, and still is, to allow the user to focus on the task, rather than on how to communicate with the computer. This approach was based on the analysis of the usability of commercial software. Moreover, it confirmed the designers’ conviction to promote an intuitive interface with consistent features that would conform to the users’ mental model of the application and its functionality.

After the Generator was created, the committee met regularly to review the activities that were available for the content developers to achieve the project’s goals. The main goal is to assist the learner in reaching a level of proficiency where he will be able to:

- Read an authentic text and determine the intent of the author.
- Analyze the arguments.
- Understand the message.
- Appreciate the style.
- Make inferences on the topic based on text information.

Thus, the activities had to reflect all of these abilities.

The activity templates are divided into pre-reading activities, enabling activities, wrap-up activities, and peripheral as well as prototype activities. Content developers strive to keep their lessons appealing by varying the activities, and thus have felt the need to add more templates. Many pictures and interactive maps enhance the LOs. However, Flash⁶ and DreamWeaver⁷ are not used at this point because both products do not support right-to-left languages such as Arabic and Hebrew. The interactivity of the images and maps is developed in JavaScript and Cascading Style Sheets. The Generator programmers aim to achieve a product that is ADA⁸ compliant. So far, the Generator pages support Internet Explorer 6.0, Netscape 7.0 and Mozilla 1.2 in a PC environment, with moderate success for Netscape 7.0 in a Macintosh environment.

LOs: Whole Language, the Learner Takes Charge

This project offers the learner an opportunity to work on several LOs, emphasizing whole language and interaction with the text. The same language feature is presented several times in different contexts, and each developer adds his/her classroom

experience, methodology, and awareness of learning styles. Nevertheless, the students take charge of their learning and raise their own awareness of the language, as well as of the learning process. The activities vary from simple and brief to more complex and demanding. Simulated real-life situations challenge learners; they may be asked to react to a specific situation through reflection or an abstract conceptualized action.

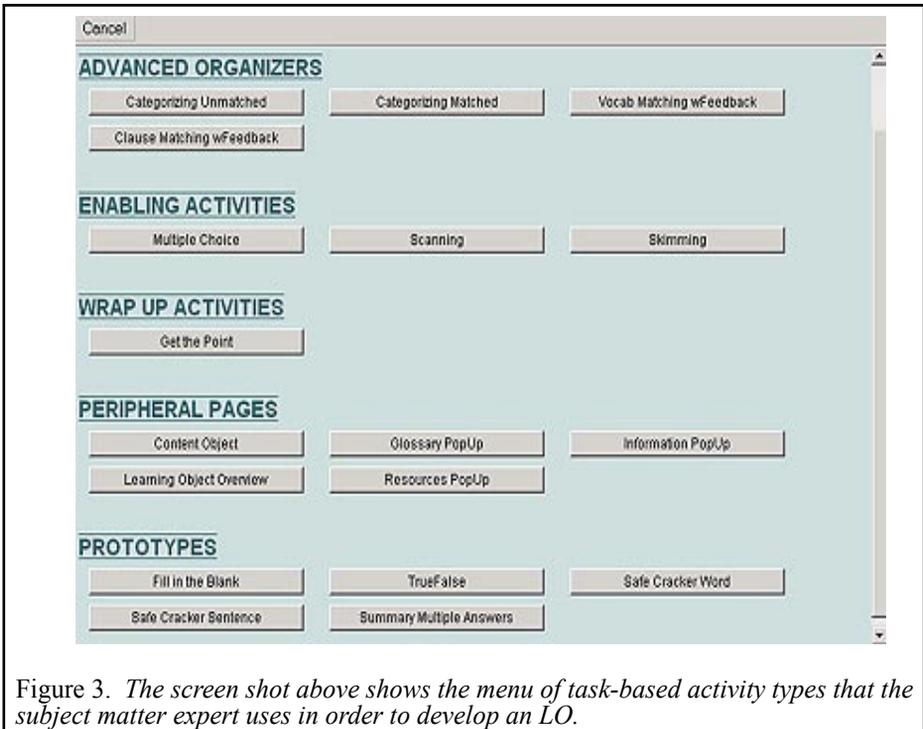


Figure 3. The screen shot above shows the menu of task-based activity types that the subject matter expert uses in order to develop an LO.

In designing task-based reading activities for the LOs, a number of considerations were taken into account. The reading process was analyzed and a format for activity sequence was adopted:

1. Activating and processing background knowledge.
2. Decoding the text's linguistic surface structure by skimming.
3. Recognizing and selecting relevant information from the text by scanning.
4. Organizing the selected information or focusing on specific language features through enabling activities.
5. Integrating new information with existing knowledge into a mental model by application or summaries.

The template activities available on the Generator are designed to allow language learners to interact with the text, monitor their comprehension, reread confusing parts, evaluate, analyze, and confirm or compare predictions. They are engaged in semantic mapping, summarizing, and making decisions about the author's intent. The activities after reading might test the learners' comprehension or provide occasions to synthesize, generalize, and apply newly acquired knowledge through simulation. However, the effectiveness of the tasks depends on the ability of the content developers to engage the learners and motivate them to concentrate on the importance of linguistic features in

communication. This motivation works only if the learners link the activities with tasks in the real world.



Figure 4. Example of an Activity Interface.

Writing and Reading

What about the link between writing and reading? The content developers insist on engaging the learners in activity that requires them to write. Nevertheless, some languages, such as Arabic and Persian, added an extra dimension due to their writing system. Providing an on-screen keyboard for these languages did not solve this problem. Learners also desire to have their production evaluated. Through classroom experience, most learners have come to expect personal feedback. At this stage, artificial intelligence cannot replace the teacher in providing accurate, individualized feedback. Therefore, learners have to rely on the standard feedback that is provided in each LO. This could disappoint learners who need individual attention to their production. On the one hand, Internet delivery is expected to provide the means, context, and content for meaningful communication. On the other hand, Internet delivery has not yet reached the stage of providing personalized communication without the assistance of teachers.

Cultural Considerations

Classrooms are culturally non-neutral insofar as they permit reproductions of cultural and societal environments specific to the target language. To achieve cross-cultural understanding in the “less commonly taught languages,” the socio-political issues are of great importance and require significant emphasis. Even classroom teaching may or may not help the learner develop an unprejudiced attitude toward the target language societies. Moreover, linguistic awareness does not necessarily resolve conflicts between the different societies. However, classroom interaction provides opportunities to challenge biased expectations and learn about cultural practices and perspectives. Before embarking on high-technology programs in less commonly taught languages, it

would be prudent to consider the limitations of technology in demystifying foreign cultures. Web-based delivery should focus on cultural significance, which eventually leads to an appreciation of the different ways of life in the society of the target language. In this project, the designers attempted to enrich the LO with cultural notes and visuals in order to compensate for the absence of classroom cultural impact.

Feedback

Programming constraints imposed limitations on the type of feedback that instructional designers conceived. The instructional designers envisioned ways to provide several steps of feedback. A first feedback encourages the learners to take another look at the text and rethink it. A second feedback assists the learners in monitoring their progress and exhorts them to reconsider their actions. A third feedback recognizes the growth of skills and creates a feeling of accomplishment. A final feedback presents a discrete award in the form of an image, humor, or a recipe to further motivate the learners and to replace the teacher's praise. However, these steps in feedback generated a complex design and gave the programmers nightmares. Nevertheless, they were successful in writing the operational codes and implemented these features in the activities.

Evaluating the Learning Experience

Last but not least, the individual learner's needs and preferred learning style must be taken into account. The designers of activities reflected on the fact that individuals learn to read in different ways and at different rates, and that effective instruction must attempt to respond to these differences. However, the fact that it is the computer that delivers the learning activities limits the possibilities for more individualized instruction. Nevertheless, the activities attempt to create an environment where different learning styles can be addressed and consequently different learners' needs are met.

Conclusion

GLOSS is a system that needs constant maintenance and expansion in order for it to remain viable. Content developers, programmers, instructional designers, and graphic specialists work hand in hand to address all the considerations discussed above. They are constantly seeking and incorporating users' feedback to revise and create new templates and activities. A team of specialists is currently working on a full-fledged, task-based diagnostic tool for the part of GLOSS that deals with reading. The initial stage of exploration of different techniques in developing effective, online listening comprehension units has been completed. Prototypes for nine templates for listening LOs have been developed, and in April 2004 production of listening materials will begin.

The teams are now collecting feedback from the user community and exploring different possibilities as to how GLOSS can be used by teachers and students currently enrolled in language courses. It has been found that there are various learning contexts that lend themselves to making use of LOs. Here are just a few:

- Special assistance
- Homework
- Language lab
- In the classroom
- Refresher courses

Within those contexts there are multiple ways of using LOs. For example, a lot of classroom time can be saved if an LO on a certain topic is given as homework and is used as a starting point for discussion in the classroom.

Taking into consideration the enormity of the project, DLIFLC is continually looking for partners who can contribute LOs to the system. In order to aid the Foreign Language Training Center at Fort Lewis, DLIFLC made the LO Generator available to them at the end of 2002. This partner has successfully contributed a large number of LOs to the pool in languages that DLIFLC targets, as well as additional languages. The ultimate goal is to make GLOSS a comprehensive source of online instructional materials for language learners around the world.

Notes

¹ Currently the team of Subject Matter Experts at the Curriculum Development Division is beginning to work on Listening Learning Objects.

² ILR definitions of proficiency levels are parallel to ACTFL definitions.

³ The DLIFLC group of GLOSS content developers is continuing their research of language specific features for each level in Reading and Listening.

⁴ ADDIE stands for: Analyze: Define the needs and constraints. Design: specify learning activities, assessment, and choose methods and media. Develop: begin production, formative evaluation, and revise. Implement: put the plan into action. Evaluate: evaluate the plan from all levels for next implementation (Kemp, Morrison, & Ross, 1998).

⁵ The *Hot Potatoes* software includes six applications, enabling users or teachers to create interactive multiple-choice, short-answer, jumbled-sentence, crossword, matching/ordering and gap-fill exercises for the World Wide Web. (Half-Baked Software).

⁶ A Macromedia product that creates rich web experiences through interactive multimedia technology.

⁷ A Macromedia product that builds professional web sites and applications.

⁸ Americans with Disabilities Act. July 26, 1990.

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Conditionally Communicative Exercises

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The article is dedicated to the problem of dynamic stereotypes formation in the Russian Basic course of the DLI. In order to efficiently form dynamic stereotypes in the field of TL, the author suggests replacement of non-communicative exercises of the currently used textbook with conditionally communicative exercises. This newly defined class of exercises is distinguished by situational value and motivating instructions.

The article considers the possibility of transforming non-communicative exercises into conditionally communicative exercises in order to improve teaching efficiency.

It describes a study that shows the effectiveness of conditionally communicative exercises as means of forming TL dynamic stereotypes that underlie communicative skills.

The results of the FLO scoring and of the tests that complete the Russian Basic course show that the TL grammar and word usage of about 90 per cent of DLI graduates are extremely Anglicized. Although our students theoretically know the rules of the TL grammar, and often even can even illustrate those rules with examples, their speech products are often difficult to understand by an unprepared native speaker of TL. Those fatal errors are mostly caused by the negative interference of LI patterns. This provides the grounds for the following diagnosis: our students possess the so-called *explicit knowledge* (or *competence*, using N. Chomsky's term) of the TL, but lack the *implicit knowledge* (i.e., *performance*), vital for normal communication.

Analysis of the structure of the 1990 Russian Basic Course textbook shows that the distorted TL speech strategy of our students is, to a great extent, a product of the traditional methodology's erroneous belief that lexical and grammar automatism, formed by learning rules and schemata of making up TL speech samples, will, in the course of drilling, transform into communicative skills. Thus, the mechanical exercises of the textbook units' parts I - *Vocabulary Presentation*, II - *Grammar Presentation*, IV - *Progress Check*, V - *Application*, XI - *Reinforcement Review*, intertwine with communicative exercises of parts III - *Discourse*, VI - *Reading Comprehension*, VII - *Listening Comprehension*, VIII - *Conversation*, and X - *Comprehension / Communication*. However, the transformation, mentioned above, does not happen. Or, in the words of Michael Long (2001), "explicit knowledge does not become implicit knowledge."

In accordance with Chomsky's theory of "generative grammar," that has dominated a significant portion of linguistic research for about forty years, "implicit knowledge" or "internalized language," as Chomsky (1965, 4, 8) calls it, is not a sum of separate words and rules, but a system of dynamic stereotypes, i.e., automated patterns of operations that underlie communicative activity and summarily constitute the so-called "language feeling." Although, theoretically it is possible to distinguish within this system its lexical, grammatical, and phonetic components, they function all together, in their natural integrity. Thus, in the words of Sharon L. Shelly (1995, 199), "in modern generative theory, "grammar" refers to the highly integrated system of knowledge underlying the behavior (e.g., production, comprehension, acceptability judgments) of the speakers of a language."

On the other hand, the mechanical grammar, lexical, and phonetic automatism, formed by drilling outside a context, are stored in memory abstractly and separately from dynamic stereotypes. They do not interact with one another, i.e., they lack dynamism. Therefore, they do not create a "language feeling," and do not underlie speech

activity. Besides, speech activity as a form of behavior is known to be motivated by subjective necessity to share certain information with somebody. Through the speech intention the communicative motivation activates the system of dynamic stereotypes, which offers the individual the words, phrases, and grammar forms, adequate to express the desired information. The mechanical automatisms, formed without communicative motivation, are not activated by it. The necessity to share some information in the TL is more likely to activate the already existing system of dynamic stereotypes in the individual's native tongue than the abstractly remembered mechanical automatisms of the TL. But, pointing out that "it is quite possible to communicate on the basis of the native tongue "surface transfers" (transliterations or translations) plus ultra rapid applications of rules and compensatory strategies... especially if the use of L 2 is in a limited set of contexts," Richard Towell and Roger Hawkins (1994, 257) state that using the above technique "it is not possible to attain native-like competence." Such transliteration-based TL speech can hardly be satisfactory for the needs of the linguists we educate. What our students really need are the regular TL speech skills. This implies the regular system of TL dynamic stereotypes as well.

The above speculations lead to the logical conclusion that the most effective structure of the teaching/learning process is one that provides for purposeful development of TL dynamic stereotypes under the conditions of contextual and communicatively motivated exercising, i.e., in the course of doing communicative exercises. Non-communicative exercises cannot be effective, because they lack both the context and the motivation. Thus, we can assume that the way to solve the problem discussed is through replacement of non-communicative exercises with communicative ones.

However, the notions of communicative exercises, and of communicative teaching per se are not unambiguous. Thus, David Nunan (1993, 201) distinguishes the "strong" and the "weak" versions of communicative teaching. The "strong version" implies the intuitive acquisition of language in the course of communicative exercises. The "weak version" tends to combine communicative exercises with explicit rules as means of creating the orientation system for correct TL activity.

When choosing between the above two variants of communicative teaching, we should keep in mind that intuitively formed dynamic FL stereotypes are unstable. In the absence of the TL medium they are soon lost. Explicit rules, on the other hand, remain in a learner's memory for a long time. Besides, as Alice Omaggio Hadley's (1993, 239) psychological research shows, "formal... activities may be most suitable for [adult] students who have a low tolerance of ambiguity or who are reluctant to take risks, especially when they are just beginning language study." This corresponds to the idea of Diane Larsen-Freeman and Michael H. Long (1994, 321) about the feasibility of combining communicative exercises with formal instruction.

Now, in order to find out which class of exercises can lead to purposeful formation of dynamic TL stereotypes, and serve as a bridge between formal instruction and real communication, let us consider their existing classifications. Thus, M. Long (1985, 89) and M. Funke (2001, 14-15) contrapose the notion of *task* to the notion of *exercise*, defining the latter as "an activity that would not take place outside of the classroom; such as fill-in-the-blank, multiple choice, scrambled sentences, etc. Exercises typically focus on grammar and are void of meaning," while tasks involve solving problems simulating real life situations. Such a contraposition raises certain doubts. Webster's II New Riverside University Dictionary (1988, 452) defines the notion of *exercise* as "activity requiring physical or mental exertion, esp. when performed to maintain or develop fitness. ...Something practiced so as to increase one's skill." The definition fits both *exercises* and *tasks*. The notion of *tasks* in Long's and Funke's interpretation corresponds to Wilga Rivers' definition of type B *exercises*. Wilga Rivers (1981, 105) contrasts the exercises of this type, which "move" the students' activity "in the direction of autonomous communication," with type A exercises, which present a linguistic form outside a context.

Type A exercises correspond to the notion of "exercise" in M. Long's and M. Funke's interpretations, and also to that of "mechanical drills" in C. B. Paulson's (1970,

187-193) classification of drills. If, on the basis of the above definition by Webster, we equate the notion of “drill” with that of “exercise”, then both the other two classes, described by Ch. B. Paulston, correspond to type B, although only the communicative class corresponds to the notion of “tasks” according to M. Long and M. Funke.

If the presence or absence of the context is the characteristic distinguishing meaningful from mechanical drills, then the presence or absence of communicative motivation is the most prominent feature to distinguish between meaningful drills and communicative exercises. Another discriminating feature is the methodological purpose. Thus, a meaningful drill is used to develop a lexical or grammar automatism, while a communicative exercise, or otherwise “task,” as presented in the above classifications, is used to master the skills of speaking, listening, reading or writing on the synthetic entity of automatisms. None of the classifications foresees a possibility of using communicative exercises for the purpose of developing automatisms. Such a possibility, nevertheless, exists, if repeated contextualized and communicatively motivated actions are limited to overcoming one definite grammar or lexical difficulty. Here we speak about a qualitatively different class, which can be distinguished among communicative exercises, by analogy to Ch. B. Paulston’s distinguishing the mechanical and the meaningful classes of drills among the non-communicative exercises.

The different class can only conditionally be called communicative because a student’s attention, when doing it, is divided between extra-linguistic content and the linguistic form to be mastered. This peculiarity discriminates conditionally communicative exercises from meaningful drills, on one hand, and from real communicative exercises, on the other. The latter class involves solving real life problems for non-linguistic purposes, e.g. “Will you, please tell me about your own attitude to the issue of cloning?” The above characteristic of a conditionally communicative exercise helps a student to realize that “the difference between grammatical and communicative is relative,” as Nina Garrett (1991, 86), notices. “It can be thought of as residing in the kind of meaning that is conveyed through what used to be referred to as “optional” linguistic rules – not only semantic meaning, but also socio-linguistic, pragmatic, and discourse meaning. Both competencies are kinds of language knowledge, and both result from the same kind of cognitive activity, meaning-forms mapping.” In other words, development of an automatism within a communicative situation as a means to fulfill a typical communicative task lends a communicative character to the automatism, which is acquired and stored in memory as a dynamic stereotype.

Table 1 illustrates the place of conditionally communicative exercises among other classes of exercises.

Table 1. *Classification of Exercises*

Options Classes	Level of actions				Situat. value	Communicat. motivation	Results
	Sign/Word	Sent.	Par.	Long narration			
Mechanical	+	+	-	-	-	-	mechanical automatism
Meaningful	+	+	+	-	+	-	mechanical automatism
Conditionally	+	+	+	-	+	+	dynamic
Communicat. Real	+	+	+	+	+	+	stereotypes communic.
Communicat.							skills

Study

When compiling her classification of drills, Ch. B. Paulston (1970, 191) came to an important conclusion that it was possible to change the class of an exercise by changing its class-distinguishing feature. Thus, the loss of contextuality can transform a meaningful drill into mechanical. And vice versa, attaining the context value is able to transform a mechanical drill into meaningful. Following this thought, it seems promising as well as realistic to transform most non-communicative exercises into conditionally communicative in order to purposefully develop the desired dynamic stereotypes. Replacing non-communicative exercises, conditionally communicative exercises will play a similar role in the structure of the teaching/learning process. Say they will occupy 10 minutes in a 50 minutes class several times a week, immediately after presenting a major grammar feature, like The Past Tense, etc. Let us take, e.g., Lesson 33 of the Russian Basic Course (Module VI, pp. 60-125). The lexical topic of the lesson is “Post Office. Telephone.” The grammar theme is “The Dative Plural.”

At the beginning of the unit, the textbook presents the lesson’s vocabulary in the form of a list of Russian words with their English translation:

posylka - parcel
banderol' - small parcel; printed matter
perevod (denezhnyj) - postal money order
pochtalyon - postman, etc.

The teacher’s role, foreseen within this step of the Lesson, is to read the Russian words out loud, and to make students repeat them after him/her. Then the students read the pattern sentences and translate them into English. The same steps of perception, understanding and imitation of the new lexical material can be accomplished by means of the following conditionally communicative exercise:

Teacher: *Sevodnya my pogovorim o pochte i pohtovykh uslugakh.* [Today we are going to discuss mail and postal services.]



On the screen: *POCHTALYON.*

Teacher: *Kto etot chelovek?* [What is this man?]

Students: *Pochtalyon.* [Postman.]

Teacher: *Pravil'no. Eto pochtalyon.* [That's right. This is a postman.]

Pochtalyon prinosit nam (Dative Plural) [A postman brings us (D.P.)]



On the screen: *POSYLKI*

Students: *Posylki* [Parcels]

Teacher: *Pravil'no. Posylki ...* [That's right. Parcels...]



On the screen: *BANDEROLI*

Students: *Banderoli.* [Small parcels.]

Teacher: *Da. Banderoli ...* [Yes. Small parcels...]

Teacher: *i ...* [and...]



On the screen: *DENEZHNYE PEREVODY*

Students: *Denezhnye peregody.* [Money orders.]

Teacher: *Pravil'no. Denezhnye peregody.* [That's right. Money orders.]

Tak chto zhe nam prinosit pochtalyon? [So, what does a postman bring us?]



On the screen:

Students: *Posylki ...* [Parcels]



On the screen:

Students: *banderoli ...* [small parcels]

On the screen:



Students: *i denezhnye perezvody* [and money orders]

Teacher: *Ya dumayu, vy vsyegda rady pochtalyonu. Ne pravda li?* [I believe you are always glad to see a postman, aren't you?]

Students: *Da. My vsyegda rady pochtalyonu.* [Yes. We are always glad to see a postman.]

Teacher: *A yeshcho chemu vy rady?* [What else makes you glad?]

On the screen: the following table, containing an implicit system of orientation:

Nominative Plural

Dative Plural

My rady:

*posylki
denezhnye perezvody
banderoli*

*posylkam
denezhnym perezvodam
banderolyam*

Students: *My rady posylkam (D.P.), banderolyam (D.P.), denezhnym perezvodam (D.P.).* [We are glad to receive **parcels (D.P.)**, **small parcels (D.P.)**, and **money orders (D.P.)**.] ...etc.

Portions of the vocabulary list in the textbook are followed by some illustrative examples of usage within separate sentences, that have no common context:

a. *Sevodnya utrom prishla posylka ot sestry iz Moskvy.* [A parcel from my sister who lives in Moscow has arrived this morning.] ... b. *On poslal denezhnyj perezvod.* [He sent a money order.], etc. (p. 60).

Instead of these illustrations, the following conditionally communicative exercise can be used:

Teacher: *Komu vy posylaete denezhnye perezvody?* [Whom do you send money orders?]

Students: *Zhonam (D.P.).* [To our wives.]

Teacher: *A komu vy posylaete posylki s igrushkami?* [And whom do you send parcels with toys to?]

Students: *Detyam (D.P.).* [To our kids.]

Teacher: *Komu vy posylaete pozdravitel'nye otkrytki?* [Whom do you send greetings?]

Students: *Roditelyam (D.P.).* [To our parents.], etc.

In the textbook, development of lexical subskills continues in the Progress Check part (p. 73) with Exercise 1: “Complete the following sentences by translating the words in parentheses.” 6. Pochtalyon _____ pis'mo bez _____ i _____ na posylku. (to bring, return address, notification) [A postman _____ a letter without _____ and a parcel _____.] ...9. Viktor _____ dva _____ pis'ma. (to mail, registered) [Victor _____ two _____ letters.], etc.

This exercise can be replaced by a conditionally communicative exercise with the following instruction: “When I was watering the flowers in my garden, a postman brought me a letter. Unfortunately the letter fell into a puddle, and now I have difficulty reading some words. Therefore, I am asking for your help to restore the washed out words.”

The written portion: “1. *Dorogaya Larisa! Ne znayesh li ty sluchayno*

novovo adresa Sashi? Vchera _____ ot nevo.

2. *No ono bylo bez _____.*

3. *Viktor _____ uzhe dva zakaznych*

_____ po staromu _____.

4. *No ne pokhozhe, chto Sasha ich _____ poluchil*

_____.”

“1. Dear Larisa: Do you by any chance know Sasha’s new address? Yesterday (washed out) from him. 2. But it had no (washed out). 3. Victor (washed out) already two registered (washed out) to his old (washed out). 4. But it does not look like Sasha (washed out) them ...”]

Picture prompt:



Similarly, communicative motivation can be introduced into grammar exercises. Thus, the non-communicative exercise III (v. IV, pp. 66-67) for the language laboratory: “Replace the underlined words with the nouns you hear” can be replaced with the following conditionally communicative exercise: “Have a talk with the speaker. Answer his questions. Check your correctness using the above tables.”

Speaker: *Pered kazhdym praznikom ya posylayu rodstvennikam (D.P.) pozdravitel'nye otkrytki. A komu vy posylayete otkrytki?* [On the eve of each holiday I send my **relatives (D.P.)** greeting cards. Who do you send greeting cards to?]

Student: *Ya tozhe posylayu otkrytki rodstvennikam (D.P.).* [I also send greeting cards **to my relatives (D.P.)**]

The non-communicative exercise: “Put questions to the underlined words” can be replaced with the following conditionally communicative exercise: “Listen to a story. Ask the speaker about what you have not heard clearly.”

Sp.: *Vchera ya poslal pozdravitel'nyuyu otkrytku moim (D.P.) ZZZ*.* [Yesterday I sent a greeting card to my ZZZ.] (ZZZ indicates a kind of noise hum preventing hearing a word or a group of words.)

Student: *Komu vy poslali pozdravitel'nyuyu otkrytku?* [Who did you send your greeting card to?]

Sp.: **Moim roditelyam (D.P.).** *Oni zhyvut v Rostove.* [To my parents (D.P.). They live in Rostov]

A conditionally communicative exercise can be used to replace mechanical exercise IV (p. 67) for laboratory work: “Complete the sentences by using the proper forms of the words in parentheses: *Ya posylayu (bratya) novye marki.* [I send (brothers) new postal stamps.]” (*Ya posylayu bratyam (D.P.) novyye marki.*) [I send **my brothers (D.P.)** new postal stamps.]” etc.

The replacing exercise can have the following instruction: “Have a talk with the speaker. Promise to send his relatives the presents they like.”

Sp.: *Moi bratya lyubyat sobirat' novyye marki.* [My brothers like to collect new postal stamps.]

Student: *Ya poshlyu vashim bratyam (D.P.) novyye marki.* [I will send **your brothers (D.P.)** new postal stamps.]

A written non-communicative exercise II (v. IV, p. 66): “Fill in the blanks with appropriate dative plural endings.” can be replaced with the following conditionally communicative exercise for homework: “Dear students, I am sorry for my awkwardness. But my mail has again fallen into water. Could you please once again help me to restore the letter? Thank you.”

Dorogoj brat Seryozha!
.Ya poslal zakaznyuyu banderol' plemyanik [redacted]. Soobshchi, pozhaluyjsta, poluchili li oni yeyo?...”

[Dear Brother Serezha: I have sent a small registered package to my **nephew...** (Washed out). Please notify me if they have received it.]

Conditionally communicative exercises can be appropriate in such steps of grammar stereotype development as transformation and reproduction. For example, a mechanical exercise: “Put the personal pronouns into the Dative Plural form” can be replaced with the following conditionally communicative exercise for the language lab: “Imagine that you are speaking with your friend Victor over your home telephone, and suddenly your other friend, Valya, calls you on your cellular phone. So you have to speak over two phones simultaneously. Ask Valya what Victor wants to know. Then reproduce her answers to Victor.”

Victor: *Yesli ya ne oshibayus', na drugoj linii u tebya Valya. Sprosi u neyo, pozhalysta, poluchili li oni s Grishej posylku, kotoruyu ya im (D., 3-d Pers. Pl.) poslal* [If I am not mistaken, Valya is on your other line. Could you please ask her if she and Greg have received the parcel I set **to them** (D., 3-d Pers. Pl.).]

Student: *Valya, vy s Grishej poluchili posylku, kotoruyu vam (D., 2-nd Pers. Pl.) poslal Viktor* [Valya, have you and Grisha received the parcel Victor sent **you** (D.2-nd Pers. Pl.)?]

Valya: *Net poka. Nam (D. 1-st Pers. Pl.) tol'ko chto prinesli izveshchenye.* [Not yet. The notification has just been delivered **to us**.(D. 1-st Pers. Pl.)]

Victor: *Shto ona govorit?* [What does she say?]

Student: *Im (D., 3-d Pers. Pl.) tol'ko shto prinesli izveshchenye.* [The notification has just been delivered **to them** (D., 3-d Pers. Pl.)]” Etc.

The efficiency of conditionally communicative sentences was experimentally tested in three groups of Russian Basic Course students in 1998. The teaching/learning process in control group A strictly followed the methodology, incorporated in the Russian Basic Course textbook of 1990. All the theoretical material was studied and all the exercises were done in the sequence determined by the textbook. In the teaching/learning process for experimental group B each non-communicative exercise of the textbook was replaced by a corresponding conditionally communicative exercise, as shown above; and all the conditionally communicative exercises of a unit/lesson were gathered in a “pre-communicative subunit”, while a “communicative subunit” contained only real communicative exercises. The structure of the teaching/learning process for another experimental group - C - was the same as that for group B, i.e., a unit/lesson consisted of a pre-communicative and a communicative subunit. But the exercises for group C were the same as for group A, i.e., those from the textbook of 1990. Thus, the only variable for groups B and C was the class of exercises used for skills development in a pre-communicative subunit.

The experiment lasted four weeks. It proved that the replacement of non-communicative exercises with conditionally communicative exercises in group B considerably intensified the rate of TL dynamic stereotypes development, due to the purposeful and controlled character of the process of their formation. The non-communicative lexical and grammar exercises used in groups A and C led to formation of mechanical automatisms, instead of dynamic stereotypes. Some stereotypes, however, were formed intuitively in the course of performing real communicative exercises. But the process was not purposeful, not manageable, and, therefore, inefficient in comparison with that conducted by means of conditionally communicative exercises. Most dynamic stereotypes, necessary for participating in TL communicative activities, were transferred from L 1 to compensate the lack of the dynamic TL stereotypes. For this reason the students' TL speech remained utterly anglicized, and contained a great number of lexical and grammar mistakes. Changing the teaching/learning process' structure for group C relatively to that for group A did not improve the results of the teaching/learning process, because neither the teaching/ learning process for group A, nor the one for group C provided for purposeful formation of dynamic stereotypes.

The experiment will be described in full in a future article.

It is interesting to mention that the results of our study principally coincide with those received by Gilbert A. Jarvis and William N. Hatfield (1971, 401). Experimental approbation of the effectiveness of contextual exercises versus mechanical drills in teaching French to college students brought Jarvis and Hatfield to the conclusion that

“...differences [in the progress made by students of the experimental and the control groups] were highly significant and consistently favored the Contextual group. Differences were most pronounced in the ability to write sentences describing pictures, to give picture-cued answers to oral questions, and to describe orally a series of pictures.”

It is also worth mentioning that students favored the replacement of non-communicative exercises with conditionally communicative ones. Thus, in the questionnaire offered at the end of the teaching experiment all the students of experimental group B chose the answers: “Agree” and “Strongly agree” to the statement: “During the last four weeks it was more interesting to study than before.” Only one student of group A and one student of group C chose the answer: “Agree.” 2 students of group A and 5 students of group C chose the answer: “I am not sure.” 5 students of group A and 2 students of group C chose the answer: “Disagree.” To the statement: “I made much progress during the last four weeks” 5 students of experimental group B answered: “Strongly agree” and 3 – “Agree.” Only 2 students of group A and 3 students of group C chose the answer: “Agree,” while 5 students of group A and 3 students of group C answered: “I am not sure.” All the students of experimental group B answered: “Strongly agree” to the statement: “I would like always study like we did during the last four weeks.” Only 3 students of group A and 5 students of group C chose the answer: “Agree” to this statement, the rest of the students answering either: “I am not sure” or “Disagree.”

Conclusions

The above investigation offers the ground to suppose that replacement of non-communicative exercises of the Russian Basic Course with conditionally communicative ones will help to develop TL dynamic stereotypes more successfully. It also has enabled the author to amend the classification of exercises, adding to it one more class - the conditionally communicative exercises; to distinguish some characteristic features of conditionally communicative exercises, such as:

- a. their communicative motivation implied in the instruction;
- b. their level of operation – from a sentence to a paragraph;
- c. their sphere of application – formation and development of dynamic stereotypes.

-

Pedagogical Implications

Our research has shown that replacement of lexical and grammar non-communicative exercises with corresponding conditionally communicative exercises can essentially intensify the rate of dynamic stereotypes formation and considerably improve the resulting skills' quality. It has also proved that all non-communicative exercises on the level of a sentence or higher can be transformed into conditionally communicative exercises. Although the research described has been conducted on the basis of the Russian Basic Course in the Defense Language Institute, it can be of value for teaching any language at any type of educational establishment.

Limitations of the Study

Some issues of structure of conditionally communicative exercises, their variations, and their interrelations with other classes of exercises in the teaching/learning process deserve more detailed future studies.

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The Integrative Test of Arabic (IAT)

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Continuing Education

The Integrative Test of Arabic (IAT) is designed to test or assess the overall ability of non-native learners' ability to learn a second language (L2) by working with Internet Arabic language material on various topics relevant to learners' daily lives or pertaining to particular military fields.

This type of test includes the following formats: (1) cloze-test passages (C rule 2) which are characterized by the deletion of two letters in every third word with the exception of proper names, (2) multiple-choice questions on short reading passages to test comprehension of idiomatic expressions and grammar, and (3) dictocomp listening passages characterized as obtaining essential elements information (EEI) through recalling and storing the data collected in the memory for a later production as a translation (written script) or interpretation (oral/speaking).

The purpose of the study is to see that the three formats include C-rule 2 and assess more accurately the overall ability of students as either native (L1) or non-native (L2) Learners (Braley, 1985). In general, this type of test can be used as an instrument to test students' proficiency in a target language (TL) similar to their native language (L1).

In fact, the IAT study clarifies statistically that IAT discriminates between the groups of learners according to the time they have spent experiencing this new language and proves statistically that it discriminates successful learners from poor or mediocre (of low-ability) learners within the group itself. The statistical tools used in the analysis are: discriminative index (ID), multiple-choice (MC) items, the item facility means (IF), the standard deviation (SD) of the students' scores, and the correlation coefficient (r_{xy}) between the three formats of the IAT per se.

The notion that the test is integrative comes from the fact that the Integrative Arabic Test (IAT) uses different formats as tasks, such as (1) filling out the missing suffixes and prefixes as morphs or right syntax (Appendix A, B), (2) multiple-choice questions to test grammar related to meaning (Appendix C), (3) collection of essential elements of information (EEI) through listening (Appendix D) as comprehension related to written translation or oral interpretation. The purpose is to measure or assess students' general comprehension of the language through authentic high level texts taken from the Internet or any other magazines or newspapers.

IAT measures and assesses various levels: clause-level, phrase-level, the macro-level of textual meaning of the passage, and also the pragmatic-level of extra-textual meaning as schema-dependent comprehension (Markham, 1987) because the deletions may touch all those areas and the students need to figure out through the overall texts in hands what is missing regardless of complexity. The texts of the IAT are authentic in that they are written for native speakers, damaged by taking off parts of unspecified (random) words, then presented to the examinees to be restored and this requires a lot of language proficiency to do correctly. (Braley, 1985)

Analysis

The C-test Passages (Questions 1&2)

The C-test passages measure two variables since the deletions in each passage are different (Clearly, 1988). In part 1 (Q1) of the test, the missing letters are at the beginning of the word known as right-hand (RH) deletion whereas in part 2 (Q2) the missing letters are at the end of the word as left-hand (LH) deletion, on the theory that right-hand deletion C-Test (RH) tests micro (intra-sentential relations of the words of the text) and macro (the inter-sentential relations of the sentences throughout the whole text) elements and issues of the target language. On the other hand, it is suggested that the left-hand deletion C-Test (LH) also tests the micro level elements of the language since the macro ones take the form of the free morphemes when it happens that they are at the end of the word (Markham, 1987).

The pragmatic elements to be tested within written texts are the delicate issues of connotations and/or subliminal meanings of words and phrases closely related to deletions. These inferential and/or abstract cues are often detected through the general hidden voice between the lines of the text as students read the texts at hand (Jonz, 1987). A few indications of conversational and dialogue cues scattered here and there all over the text might help the successful learners to use them as clues for understanding the contents of the texts. Bachman described this pragmatic part of the language as extra-textual information of sociolinguistic element and/or discourse of the target language (Bachman, 1995).

Understanding these pragmatic issues requires a lot of background information to do those kinds of tasks as answers to different parts of the tests. To help the examinee, I left two sentences at the beginning and the end of the C-Test passages not mutilated but intact to help the examinees discern the theme of the passages. These two intact sentences stimulate the examinees to guess generally what the theme is about and accordingly try hard to fill the gaps (Clearly, 1988). With regard to the students' efforts when taking C-Tests of all language elements as contextualized language material, C-Tests demand a lot of work from the examinee. Braley (1984) described it as in the following: "The test subject (the examinee) pieces the text together, using all he or she knows of the language, and about the language, and about the real world, and moves backwards and forwards inside the text, after revising earlier guesses as other parts of the text are restored."

Proficiency Test through Multi-group of Assessment (Question 3)

Using IAT tests in my classes in cases other than this study makes me believe that IAT is integrative because it demands different responses from the examinees according to the formats and methods of the test sections. C-Test, for example, demands that those undergoing testing produce the missing parts of the text by reading it as a whole. Multiple-choice questions demand from them that they read the Arabic short-text as "referent" material and then select the best answer from among the four options given in English for each item.

Dictocomp Listening Passages (Question 4)

Dictocomps demand from those undergoing testing to decode and then encode information of the texts to which they listened by giving them adequate time to write the answers (Bailey, 1998).

After being given their results, students explain the process as many attempts exerted to analyze, put together choices, and then eliminate some of the choices to come up with the final decisions. Their explanation of the process as going back and forth to

analyze and figure out the missing letters is interaction based on meaning and combination of words in the text and the responses of the students to fulfil the requirements to make the text meaningful to pass the test (Bachman, 1995).

This test is also authentic in that all the material exposed to the students is articles or short-texts taken from the Arabic newspapers, magazines, and other mass media. The dictocomp texts are listening passages taken from BBC and VOA as voice and scripts. No alterations, modifications, changes, or amendments are made to the original language of the texts.

Procedures

Not being sure of the results of applying C-Test principle to test students' ability in Arabic language as non-natives, I came to consult my colleagues Dr. Rizkallah M. in Department A, and Mr. Shimon J. in Department C to check the validity of the lexical words, linguistic and discourse structures, and the lengths of the texts (Farhady, 1996). Finishing designing the C-Test passages, the multiple-choice questions, I let the test be subject to the scrutiny of my colleagues who piloted it as native speakers (Hughes, 1989). We three teachers agreed that the level of the texts would match the students'. Meanwhile, Dr. Rizkallah, a team member, told me (and he was right) that the RH C-Tests would influence the results of the students since mutilations have had damaged the "roots" of the words, thinking that is difficult for the non-natives to work it out (Cohen, 1984).

Restrictions on the time and length of the response were taken into consideration (Bachman, L. 1995). We, therefore, discussed together how long the test was going to be and we agreed that 45 minutes would be enough for the students to answer the two C-Test passages and the 10 multiple-choice questions based on short reading-texts in one teaching hour. We decided to run the dictocomps test alone in a different class.

Dictocomps are taped listening passages read twice for the examinees. They are motivating in that the instructions are read in English, and the two passages are read twice at the normal speed of an Arab native speaker. Students are given 5 minutes for each passage to recall and write down the contents in English since they are not trained in using the target language to answer essay questions. Twenty minutes for the dictocomps questions were decided to be enough if given at the lab hour.

Students followed the same instructions and procedures to carry out the test in two different times. Students were not informed about the test until the last minute before taking it. It is note worthy here to say that both departments of Arabic Shool 2 were not familiar with the C-Test format or the dictocomps format of recalling the information of the passages to write them down in their L1 to check out their comprehension of the content (Bachman, 1995). At advanced levels, students can write information that they collect from the listening material in the target language. For this case, I was really hesitant to tell students to write in the target language because I was not sure of their writing ability in Arabic. Moreover, it takes longer for students to write in the target language, and I did not have enough time for that.

Subjects

The test was administered to two classes from two departments, A and C. Group A is comprised of 15 students and they are in their 51st week of instruction. Group C is comprised of 20 students and they are in their 56th week of instruction. Therefore, the subjects of Group C are five weeks ahead of the subjects in Group A. The knowledge and the background of the students in Group C must be richer since their experience and 'maturational linguistic development' with the target language (Chappelle and Abraham, 1990) Arabic is longer, taking into consideration the total class hours of the input that they were exposed to during these five weeks of the course.

The approaches of teaching are a little bit different between the two groups. In Group C, teachers are free to teach grammar or grammar related to lexical words with

negotiation of meanings whenever the students and the instructors have the opportunity to do so. Teachers in Group C isolate classes of listening for listening, reading for reading, and speaking for speaking. On the other hand, Group A instructors had already introduced grammar rules and explanations of grammar at an early stage and for eight months. They believe that students need to be taught globally by exposing them to more authentic language passages. Wh-questions about essential elements (EEI) of the listening or reading texts are mainly means to test students' ability of comprehension in both skills listening and reading, the means that students usually use to learn a new language. In fact, this is the only way that students have been taught during the classes all time. So, all test-material passages for this Group (which is A) are to be presented in a way similar to the ways that their students are taught, which is simply skimming and then scanning. The gender factor is not taken into consideration for either group in this study.

Students in C-Tests would fill in the blanks with the missing letters of the words using the same testing sheet. In Multiple-choice group questions, students would write the letter of the correct answer in the blank of the stem using the same testing sheet. With regard to the dictocomp group, a blank sheet of paper is attached to the testing booklet so that the students could use both sides of it for writing their answers and notes. By using the same testing booklets, students will save money, effort, and time for the school.

The Findings

Validity

The IAT test has face validity to test language in contextual material by C-Tests, Multiple-choice questions, and the dictocomp passages. Students reported they were satisfied with the test material, feeling that the various methods might really test their ability and knowledge of the Arabic language at a higher level and with precision (Bachman, 1995).

In Table 1, the mean of the two classes shows that the results are normal (though numbers are small). The difference in means is nearly 2 points in t-test, an indication that the validity has strong relation with the reliability of the test since the test was statistically able to evaluate Class C as being more advanced than A by six weeks (Hughes, 1995) without the knowledge of the researcher. The median and mode are accordingly higher also. The range of the scores in Group C shows a huge disparity between the subjects of the group (27-79). The standard deviation is 13.50, which is high because the students' level is less homogenous and/or the discriminability of the items is high also. The other reason might be that the grades of a couple of students who got zero affected statistically the distribution of the scores (Brown, 1988).

If we compare the results of the four group types of tests (in Table 2), the means of the test sections show higher points in the multiple-choice questions. The reason possibly is that both groups of the students are familiar with the format (Bachman, 1995) or because the items are easy (Bailey, 1998). Group A did better in the LH C-test and got a mean of 20, but Group C got a mean of 19.25. The reason is that students can guess the endings of the words more easily since forthcoming grammar inflections are usually related to the word and the sentence level. On the other hand, the right-hand deletions at the beginning of the words caused more difficulty on the part of the low level students in Group A, who got a mean of 14.30. On the contrary, Group C kept very much the same 19.00, an indication that low level students do pretty well on the easy and familiar tasks but not on the difficult ones (Braley, 1984).

Table 1. *Statistics on the Students' Scores*

Class	Mean	SD.
A (15 Students)	54.33	7.41
C (20 Students)	55.9	13.5

Table 2. *Students' Results in Terms of Means*

class dictocomps	LH Deletions	RH deletions	MC
A (15 Students)	means 20	14.27	6.27
C (20 Students)	means 19.25	18.85	6.75

Items: 34 34
 Format: 10 items; 12 information items

It is interesting that Group A's mean in dictocomps is higher than Group C. One possible reason is that even though there is a protocol for answers, there is still subjectivity of the rater involved in scoring and rating (Bailey, 1998) the information given by the students. If we carry out an inter-rater correlation then the reason might be clearer when rating is found to be the reason. It could also be the students' familiarity with the format. I used the dictocomps technique with my students in Group A more than three times after I read about it in *Learning about Language Assessment: Dilemmas, Decisions, and Directions* by Dr. K. M. Bailey (1998). The third possibility is that students wrote their information in English, since they are not trained in school tests to write essay answers in the target language. By using C-Test passages with the students, teachers might in the future ask their students to write in the target language rather than in their L1 to measure the level of the students more accurately.

Content Validity

The themes and topics to an extent determine the validity of the language to the text content. Two or three language instructors participated in the selection of the passages, a sound procedure when it was interpreted in the light of the test results and analyses of the students' scores. The means, modes, medians, ranges, and standard deviations of the test parts in Table 1 indicate that the test is valid pertaining its content and difficulty (Braley, 1984).

Item Facility Analysis on C-Tests

It is necessary to run an item facility (If) analysis on each item of the test to help examiners differentiate between items and take off the ones that almost no student answer and have the chance to amend or replace it with another one.

The item facility (IF) analyses of the C- Test passages come up with high IF means to determine the achievements of the students in items that vary in their difficulties, since the deletions touch every other word of the text. C-Tests are productive since they require a lot of language usage to fill the blanks that are numerous, the distance between one item and the other being very short and only one word. The reliability of the test is higher when the distance is shorter and the numbers of the items are many (Farhady and Kemarati, 1996). Table 3 includes the summary information of the IF means of Group A and C in both LH and RH C-Tests.

Table 3. *IF Means of the Two C- Test Passages*

Group	IF LH Mean	IF RH Mean
A	0.59	0.41
C	0.57	0.53

LH items: 34 (each item 1 point)
 RH item: 34 (each item 1 point)
 Students: 35

Group C again shows that the IF RH is 0.53 and higher than Group A's 0.41. This result again makes clear that right hand (RH) deletions are more difficult to deal with by the low level students than the left hand deletions (LH) and for the same linguistic reasons. The right-hand deletions usually touch the root of the Arabic word and that makes the process of analysis more complicated to figure out the meaning of the verb or a noun as lexical words. Whereas the left-hand deletion usually hit the inflexions whether derivational or grammatical and the lexical meaning is mostly clear as lexical meaning of the roots as bases. Item Facility results of all the C-tests are shown in Appendices C, D, and E.

Item Discriminability (ID.)

To work on the reliability of the test and its ability to discriminate between the successful students and the poorer ones, this study analyses the multiple-choice question items (MCs) by computing the item discriminability ID for each one. Table 4 shows that items 1, 2, 7, 8, and 9 of the MCs do not discriminate between the successful students who got high scores and the poorer ones who got low scores. These items should be revised or replaced if it is conducted in any other class.

Table 4. *Item Discriminability for Multiple-choice Questions*

Item ID	High scores (top nine) with correct answer	Low scores (bottom nine) with correct answers
	6	6
	2	2
	7	2
4	9	8
5	9	5
	1	1
	6	6
	2	3
	7	7
10	8	4

Items: 10
 Students: 35

Items 3, 5, 10 discriminate between the successful examinee and the unsuccessful one

Pearson Correlation Coefficient of the Variables:

For reliability of the test the researcher conducted Pearson Correlation between all the variables of the test. The Pearson correlation coefficient between LH C-Test & RH C-Test is highly correlated and this indicates that C-Test (rule 2) tests important elements of the target language as it deletes parts of syntax or content or other pragmatic parts of the language related to coherence or cohesion or social discourse. The correlation between the RH C-Test and the dictocomps is lower than LH C-Test and the dictocomps. This result again reinforces the assumption that RH C-Test is difficult compared to the LH C-Test. The same results show that the correlation between RH C-Test and multiple-choice questions is lower than the correlation between LH C-Test and the multiple-choice questions. The overlapping material r^2 of the sections of the test in Table 5 is very low, an indication that the sections of the test do test different things. The test objectives of using different types or groups as a process for assessment seem then to be more general and more comprehensive.

Table 5. *Pearson Correlation Coefficient of the Variables and r^2*

Variables	rx_y	r² (material overlapping)
RH C- Test & Dictocomps	0.04	0.001
LH C-Test & Dictocomps	0.26	0.07
RH C-Test & MC	0.17	0.03
LH C-Test & MC	0.2	0.03
LH C-Test & RH C-Test	0.77	0.06

Conclusion

The means and SD of the students' scores in the various sections of the test show that the test is dependable and more of precision. Pearson correlations also suggest that the test is significant. RH C-Test correlates high with LH C-Test, but correlates low with all other components. The results indicate that C-Test is a difficult but useful instrument between the advanced learners and the less-advanced ones.

The C- test results apparently showed that Group C earned higher scores, which was to be expected in view of differences in length of their studying Arabic. Multiple-choice questions in the ID analysis also discriminate between the higher-scoring examinees and the lower-scoring ones.

A few items of the MCs need to be looked into since almost all students fail to answer them correctly. So, it is necessary to make each test of MCs subject to item discrimination ID process so that the items may be restated or be replaced by ones that match the level of the students and the level of the course.

Training the students on the format of the dictocomps may influence results in that the low-level students do better when they were already exposed to this kind of writing technique.

Wash back of this test is not yet determined since it was done only one time and without any credit for the students. I feel that students were eager to get their results back to see their grades and to know precisely their ability in the language, since this test was difficult to perform. I did give them back the results and they made their comments on evaluating each group. Students were impressed though they were not experienced to such styles before.

The statistic outcomes of the study, in fact, helped me to find that this multi-faces text tests have the validity and the reliability to assessing the Arabic language proficiency material through authentic texts taken from the Internet. It is likely that one day Arabic schools as foreign language teaching or testing may or can adopt these kinds of tests for the final assessment of their students' proficiency level(s) in listening and reading. Teachers also can, if they want to, use, every now and then, these synthetic tests

of three formats to test or assess their students' language progress within the courses. The C-Test findings, in fact, need further investigations and other research articles in applied linguistics to prove that it is an applicable and integrative instrument to test the general language proficiency of Arabic for the non-natives.

Appendix

Question 1

C-Cloze Test

Left Hand (LH) Missing Characters: LH Test

Q1. Read over the entire passage and try to understand what it is about. Then try to fill in the blanks by writing down the missing letters of the word in the blank space. Each blank line represents one letter of the word. Remember that short vowels are not written as letters within the words.

Akadat diraasa amrekiya nushirat fi al adad al akheer min majalat al ma'ahad al waTanee lil saraTaan, anna khaTar al eSaaba bi saraTaan al riya yabqa murtafi'aan jiddan ladaa al mudakhineen al shariheen Hataa ba'ada muDee sanawaat 'alaa al tawaquf min al tadkheen.

W thak _ (1) al diraasa al _ (2) qaama bih _ (3) fareeq _ _ (4) al markaz alT _ (5) al tabi'a li jaa _ _ _ (6) daalas _ _ (7) al qism al a _ _ _ (8) min al mad _ _ _ (9), siwaa akaan _ _ _ (10) la yazaa _ _ (11) nashiTeen _ _ (12) la , yaSaa _ _ (13) bi aDraar khaTee _ _ (14) fi al sh _ _ (15) al ha waiya wal r _ _ _ _ (16).

W q _ (17) a'aDaa al fur _ _ (18) bifaHS al in - - - (19) al ri?awiya lad - (20) 63 shakh - - (21) min al mudakhineen waga - - - (2) al mudakhineen wal muda - - - - (23) al sabiqeen, wa taba - - (24) lahum - - (25) 4 - - (26) alma?a faqa- (27) min al mudakh - - - (28) yamlikuun ri?at - - (29) biHaala jay - - (30) muqaabil 25 - - (31) alma?a - - (32) al mudakhineen al saa - - - - (33) wa 53 - - (34) gayer al mudakhineena.

Wakataba mu?aloifu aldiraasa anna nataa?ijana tusheer ila anna taDakhum alkhalaaaya al mutadharira yaHSul katheeran fi SaTiH naseej al Shu'aab al hawaa?iya lada al mudakhineen wa ?innahu yabqa li 'aidat sanawaat b'ada an yatawaqafu 'aan al tadkheen.

Note: The direction in Arabic should be switched off.

Question 2

C-Cloze Test

The Right Hand (RH) Missing Characters: RH Test

Q2. Read over the entire passage and try to understand what it is about. Then try to fill in the blanks by writing down the missing letters of the word in the blank space. Each blank line represents one letter of the word:

'alimat (al iti Haad) min masaadir muTa li'aa fi Ankara ams anna al minaa warat al 'aaska riya al turkiy ya al israeliya sa tuj ra fi albaHr al muta wa siT bayna awakhir nuvember wa maT la'a desember al muqbil.

Wa ash'a rat (1) - - - saadir (2) - la anna (3) - - - ees al turkiy (4) - - - maan demerel (5) - - u akid khilal(6) - - - ratihi limiSr (7) - - sebtember (8) - - - Tanat Umman (9) - - - Kuwait fi (10) - - - uber 'aala (11) - - al munaa warat (12) - - tastah dif (13) - - daw lat (14) - - al man Taqa . wa min (15) - - - qar ar anna (16) - - um wazeer (17) - - - fa'a al isra eeli (18) - - Haq Murdakhay (19) - - - aara ila Tur kiya (20) - - al ayaam (21) - - - qbila li ijraa? (22) - - - Hathaat ma 'aa (23) - - - ?uuleen Turak kiz (24) - - uu San 'aala (25) - - - awaraat (26) - - - kariya wal ta 'aawun (27) - - - - raateeeji ?idhaafatan (28) - la milaf (29) - - - yaa? Qubayla (30) - - - qaad al mu?tamar (31) - - - wli bisha?nihi (32) - - aakhir sebtember . wa kaana al safer (33) - - - ra ?eeli fi (34) - - gara qad ?ak ka da bi anna al munaawaraat al askariya al Turkiya al ?isra ?eeliya tastamir hatha al a'aam wa qala anna mithil ?israa?eel dawla 'aalamaniya wa ?anna al mujtama'a al yahuudi juz? Min Turkiya.

Note : The direction in Arabic should be switched off.

Question 3

Reading Test

Multiple-choice Questions Mode

Q3. Read the following short contexts and then answer by writing the number of the sentence and the letter of the correct option in your sheet.

1. *sa tuHadid al maHkama fi waqtin laHiq al 'aiqaab al lathi sayulHaq bil jaami al lathi qaama bi al?I'atida? al jinsi 'aalayha thum ma qatliha wa daf niha fi Hadeeqat beetihi.*

The man in this story wil be -----.

- A: released
- B: arrested
- C: punished
- D: executed

2. *Shurb al qahwa waHdaha la yusaa 'aid 'aala man'a al iSaaba bil saraTaan ma lam yatba'a al ashkhaaS al 'adaat alSiHiya kal imtinaa'a 'an al tadhkeen.*

This statement indicates that -----.

- A: drinking coffee does not harm someone's health
- B: smoking is bad and people should not do it
- C: stop smoking and drinking coffee prevent cancer
- D: drinking coffee and smoking help in getting cancer

3. *Qala al Ductor james warner wa hu wa muHaa dhir fi 'ailm al nafs bi jaami'aat al mustashfa inahu itha lam tu'ajib al mardha taSarufatana wa madha rana finahum yaSbaHuuna ?aqal thi qata bina wa bi 'ailajina.*

Dr. James Warner said that the doctors should pay attention to their -----.

- A: patients
- B: patients and treatments
- C: behavior
- D: behavior and clothes

4. *a'alana ra?ees libya anna libya tata qad dam fi Talabin rasmi min khilal al mufawidheen al leebiyeen lil umam al mutaHida li muTalabat ieeTaliya bi dafi'a ta'a wee dhaat bi sabab iHtilaaliha.*

United Nations that Italy -----.

- A: cease the negotiations
- B: grant its sovereignty
- C: end occupation
- D: pay compensations

5. *qaama samir zaynil abideen bi tarweeji il mukhadaraaat amaam baabil madrasa al thanawiya libanaat fi manTaqat baabil luuq fil qaahira, fa alqat alshurTa alqabdh 'aalayhi.*

Samir Zayn Al Aabiden was arrested because he _____ drugs.

- A: bought publicly
- B: injected
- C: publicly sold
- D: had

6. *al Tawaquf almufaji? Lil qalb 'aindama yakifu 'an alnabidhi bin tiDaam huwa sabab niSf il wafayaat il naajima 'an al ?iSaaba.*

The Main point of the Passage is _____.

- A: the regular heart impulse
- B: the heart does not beat regularly
- C: half of the deaths are because of the sudden stop of the heart
- D: 50% of the deaths are because of the irregularity of the pulse

7. *qar ra ra markazu il diraaati il difaa'aiya al turkiya tarkeeb anDima dhid al Sawaareekh fiT Taa?ira el mirwaHiya wathaalika ba'ada ?isqaaT mirwaHiyatayni bi Sawaarikh ruusiya il Suin'a fi Shamaali 'airaaqi.*

The Turkish Defense Industrial Center decided to _____.

- A: supply their helicopters with missiles to attack the anti-air missiles
- B: use new rocket systems in their helicopters to destroy the missiles
- C: use the old helicopters with a new missile system
- D: add anti-missile systems to their helicopters

8. *aw dhaHa naatiq bismi wazaratil daakhiliya anna alqaatil allathi kaana yaH-milu rashaashan yugoslavi il Sun'a tasal lala 'aibra al naafithati biwaasiTati sul lam ila Gurfati il qateeli fiL Taabiqi il thaani litanfeethi jareematihi.*

How did the man kill his victim? The criminal _____.

- A: broke into the room on the first floor and shot her with his gun
- B: went through the window to the second room and shot her to death
- C: used the ladder across the window to the second floor and shot her
- D: went up the stairs to the second floor and then shot her to death

9. *sa tuHaaT ziyarat ul malika Elizabeth li amre staar fi 14 october al Haali bi ijraa/aat ?amniya mushadada Haythu qar ra rat il Hukumat u l hindiya nashr khamsat aa laafjundi idhaafi fil madeena khilaal il ziyaara.*

The visit of the Queen Elizabeth _____.

- A: comes as a response to the decision from the Indian Government
- B: comes as a procedure to guarantee security in the area
- C: is to celebrate the deployment of 5000 additional soldiers in the city
- D: will be supported by the tightened security measures

10. *yusheeru d ductuur 'aimaad ila anna al tafseer al 'ailmi lifa 'aaliyat hatha il mustaHdhar al jaded yarji' au ila annahu ya 'amalu bi musaaa'adat ?ifrazaat al gudda al daraqiya 'aala tansheeT al gudda al sha'ariya au al dihniya al lati tal'abu dau ran asa siyan fi nimu al sha'ar.*

This type of new medical lotion is for _____.

- A: thyroid glands
- B: energy
- C: nourishment
- D: hair grow

Question 4

Listening Test

Dictocomps

This passage will be read twice. Listen to it carefully. When you finish listening, start to recall the information that you received and write them in an answer sheet. Use your own English words and style to cover the content. It is not necessary to be put in sequence.

Wafaqa zu'amaa? El 'aaalam min haythu el mabda? ?ams 'aala arbaa'eena taw siya li mukafaHat el jareema el munadhama , feema wasafat el wilaayat ul mut taHida bi annahu nasara fee el ma'araka el daa?ira Dhid el irhaab.

Wa saa'aada qaadat el du wal el sinaa 'aiya al sab'a el kubraa fe el 'aaalam 'ala muqtaraHaat li mukaafaHat el jareema bayna el du wal a'an Tareeqi taktheefi l ta'aaawuini bayna ?aj hizati el shurTa wal mukhaaabarati wa mukaafa Hati ma saadiri el tam weeli wa alas liHaHate el mu wajahati ?ila l kharijeena 'ala el qaamuun wa Tala bat qaadat el du wal el sab'a min ruusiya dham ma juhuuda ha ilay him fee majaan el tan deedi bi l ?irhaabi wal ta'ahudi bi muHaarabatihi.

10 scores (2 scores for each)

1. The world leaders principally agreed upon (40) recommendations to fight the elaborate crime.
2. America described this agreement as a victory in the battle against terrorism.
3. The leaders of the seven large industrial countries in the world approved the suggestions to fight the crime at the international level.
4. By increasing the cooperation between the police and FBI and the sources of financing and armament given to face the outlaws.
5. They asked Russia to join them in denouncing and fighting terrorism.

Question 5

Listening Test

Dictocomps

This passage will be read twice. Listen to it carefully. When you finish listening, start to recall the information that you received and write them in an answer sheet. Use your own English words and style to cover the content. It is not necessary to be put in sequence.

Ba da?at quwaat Urduniya wa amreekiya al marHala l ?uula min munaawaraat asqariya mushtaraka fee man Taqat el saHraa? Ilaa el junuub min 'am maan tas tah difraf'a ka faa ?at el qu waat el Urduniya al qitaa liya.

Wa yusharik fee haathihi el munaawaraaat al lati uTliqa 'aalay ha ?ism (Daw? Il qamaar)

El aba dee sita w tis 'auun alfjundee min kul jaanib. Wa qaala qaa?id el quwaa el amreekiya al mushaarika inna 30 Taa?ira amreekiya wa mi?aat al qiTa'a el 'askariya al muta Tawira sa tusharik el tamreenat al lati tutawaaj bi ma'a rakatin wah miya Dhakhma fil thakheera l Hayya fil thaalith wal raabi'a min yulu el muqbil. Wa tusharik fil munaawarat muqaatilaat amreekiya min Tiraaz Harrier wa Ta?iraat 'aamudiya min Taraaz KOPRA wa muqaatilaat Urduniya min Tiraaz (F faif).

Wa ta?ti haathihi el tamreenaat el bar riya fee waqtin gaadarat el Urdun 43 muqaatila amreekiya ba'ada an ishtarakat li mud dat isbuu'a fee tamreenat ma 'a el silaaH el jawee al arthi.

12 scores (2 for each)

1. The Jordanian and American forces started the first phase of their joint maneuverings in the desert in the Southern part of Jordan.
2. The goal is to raise the battle-competence of the Jordanian forces.
3. Each side has 96 thousand soldiers participating in this maneuvering which is named " the moon shine".
4. 30 Americans planes and hundreds of modern military pieces will participate in drills that will execute a mock battle with live ammunition.
5. The Jordanian and the American fighters will participate in these maneuverings.
6. These ground drills come after 43 American fighters already left Jordan after they participated in a drill with the Jordanian Air Force Arms for one week.

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Faculty Exchange

Putting Principles of Interactive Language Teaching into Your Classroom Practice

Alaa Elghannam
Curriculum Development

A workshop on the Principles of Interactive Language Teaching was held on October 15 & 16, 2002 at the DLI and was facilitated by Professor H. Douglas Brown of San Francisco State University. Several individuals representing different departments at DLI attended this workshop. The following is a summary of this workshop and its implications for teaching and curriculum development, in general.

The pronounced objective of the six-hour workshop was to increase interactivity among students in the participants' (teachers') classrooms. Twelve fundamental principles of interactive language teaching were reviewed and participants were asked to share some of their particular experiences or issues they face in the classroom. However, in order to focus on the issue of creating optimal classroom interaction, two of those principles were further scrutinized.

Brown began his workshop by reviewing the history of language teaching for the past hundred years, indicating that "methodology" has always been the most salient characteristic of such history. The "grammar-translation" method which initiated that history at the turn of last century has evolved nowadays into "communicative language teaching" as the most widely accepted method of foreign language instruction. Communicative language teaching is characterized as interactive, functional, task-based, learner-centered, and that it stresses the whole language (or the integration of the four skills into a communicative language course,) rather than bits and pieces of a language.

Brown made an interesting distinction between what he called "designer methods" and communicative language teaching. Designer methods, compared to communicative language teaching, include such methods as the silent way, suggestopedia, the total physical response, and the natural approach. While such methods have always been referred to as communicative methods, the writer thought that such distinction is useful. Simply, it might help eliminate the confusion about the appropriate methodology to use in foreign language teaching. It has always been the position of the writer that there is no absolute or best method to use in every foreign language teaching situation. Rather, the methodology should always be dictated by the needs and background of the learners, the goals of instruction, and the particulars of each teaching situation. Brown seems to agree with that position.

Brown proceeded to suggest an approach or a model that, according to him, applies to any language teaching situation. That model begins with a diagnosis of the learners' needs and of what works for them. Based on such analysis, treatment (things that must be done to achieve the goals of instruction, such as materials, activities, and techniques) is introduced. Finally, assessment is initiated to evaluate the outcomes of instruction. Probably what is new here is the simplicity of the model and its applicability to any teaching and curriculum development situation.

Brown, then, generally reviewed a large list of language acquisition and pedagogy principles that has been generated through his experience and sometimes in collaboration with his graduate students. However, he seems to pay particular attention to the issues of automaticity and intrinsic motivation. Meaningful learning, strategic investment, and language ego also were touched upon in the workshop. Basically, automaticity refers to acquiring rather than learning isolated forms of language, or in other words, integrating a few language forms into the automatic processing of a relatively

unlimited language forms. In this respect, Brown quoted a study which suggested that a reasonable balance of focus on form (may be 25% of class time) and communication in the classroom might not actually be detrimental after all, depending upon the situation and objective. The idea is that grammar is already embedded in the language and what is needed is to teach students how to use it, rather than lecturing about it.

Meaningful learning which involves relevant and interesting materials and activities seems to facilitate automaticity by leading toward better long term retention. Content centered approach to language teaching is one example of meaningful learning. The facilitator spent a considerable amount of the workshop time discussing intrinsic motivation and its role in language learning. He defined motivation as “the anticipation of reward.” After reviewing different perspectives on motivation, he emphasized that teachers should motivate their students by ensuring that they are aware of the rewards of learning a foreign language, immediate and/or long-term. He also indicated that the mood and attitude of a teacher in class, and his/her approach to students may considerably influence their motivation. A comfortable and accommodating learning environment would create motivation that is essential to learning.

Brown seems to view language learning, or as he puts it “the language game,” as a strategic investment on the part of students. Successful mastery of the second language, to a large extent, will be due to a learner’s own personal “investment” of time, effort, and attention to the second language. Anything that is done on the part of the teacher in terms of providing meaningful learning, motivation techniques, activities, or otherwise in order to boost such effort seems to be a step in the right direction.

Furthermore, students should always be aware of themselves or of their “language ego” throughout the various developmental stages of language learning. According to Brown, successful language learners, in their realistic appraisal of themselves as vulnerable beings yet capable of accomplishing tasks, must be willing to become “gamblers” in the game of language, or willing to produce and to interpret language that is a bit beyond their absolute certainty. In this respect, teachers should always attempt to make students aware of their progress and style of learning in order to help them devise their own strategies for learning the language. In other words, teachers should help students become independent and autonomous learners.

The facilitator concluded the workshop by suggesting a rubric or as he puts it “a new approach” to language learning. He simply collapsed the concepts reviewed in the workshop into a two-element model of Awareness (or styles) and Action (or strategies.) He believes that students should be made aware of themselves and of their learning styles and habits before deciding on the proper course of action (or treatment.) The teacher’s role basically is to “give students awareness and action possibilities.” The specifics of styles, strategies, and how they could be matched in different contexts, however, have not been discussed in this workshop.

While Brown’s model might be a useful simplification of a rather complex process, it does not offer new insights into the second language acquisition process. It does, however, direct attention to the importance of interaction between the teacher and students in the foreign language class. Interaction that aims at finding out as much information as possible about nature, needs, and goals of students in learning a second or foreign language, and at using such information to optimize the teaching and/or the curriculum development process. Hence, the desired outcome might be achieved. It should be noted, however, that the facilitator has acknowledged that teaching a foreign language is more of an art, rather than a science.

Reviews

Chinese the Easy Way. (1999). By Philip F.C. Williams and Yenna Wu. Hauppauge, NY: Barron's Educational Series, pp. xvi + 343. Paperback \$13.95. ISBN 0-7641-0659-7. Photos, drawings, grammar charts, indices.

Reviewed by DAWN HSU CHAO SUN
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This beginning-level Chinese language textbook achieves what the co-authors set out to accomplish by making the learning of this vitally important language as easy and straightforward as possible.

There are two main approaches taken by Philip Williams and Yenna Wu to help beginners make rapid communicative progress in what has long been considered one of the world's most difficult languages. First, the language is presented as native speakers first learn it as small children, namely at the oral/aural level, without any hindrance from the notoriously difficult writing system and its thousands of characters. Although Chapter 20 introduces the Chinese writing system and there is a bilingual vocabulary index with characters in the end matter, it is not necessary for the user of this textbook to learn the Chinese writing system while developing a solid grounding in oral and aural Chinese skills. Second, the lively and often humorous lesson dialogues are drawn from a wide array of ordinary situations that are frequently encountered in daily life—including a check-up at the doctor's office, dinner at a friend's house, a night at the opera, purchases in an open-air vegetable market and at a bookstore, a meal in a restaurant, a bus trip within a city, a transaction with a hotel clerk, introductions and discussions of family and friends, and asking for directions. The language used in these dialogues is very natural and plain, in contrast with the bookish idiom and stilted turns of phrase occasionally encountered in some other textbooks.

Various other features add to the attractiveness and usefulness of this textbook. Scores of grammar charts with accompanying example sentences speed the student's internalization of new sentence structures. Exercises to test the student's mastery of new sentence patterns appear after nearly every section of the book—an average of half a dozen sections per chapter. Instead of having to wait until the end of each chapter to test their grasp of new structures and vocabulary, as is the case with most language textbooks, students are able to engage in shorter, more focused, and more frequent "bite-sized" practice sessions—i.e., several different occasions per chapter. Moreover, the book's end matter contains an answer key to all of the book's exercises, thereby enabling the reader to check an answer at any time desired. Aside from the answer key to exercises and an alphabetical list of all the characters found in the dialogues and vocabulary lists, the end matter also contains a complete Chinese-English index and an exhaustive English-Chinese index that are in romanized Chinese. Along with the extremely detailed seven-page table of contents, these ample end-matter indices make the book especially helpful to readers who wish to review previously studied material—and to students who are studying on their own or with the assistance of a tutor.

Photos of Chinese landscapes and festivals add to the book's visual appeal, which is accentuated by cartoon illustrations of every dialogue scenario. Explanations of new grammatical patterns are clear and thorough yet succinct. All in all, this may be the best beginning textbook for readers who are learning on their own or with the assistance of a tutor, particularly if they wish to gain a solid foundation in speaking and listening comprehension before venturing into reading and writing Chinese. Even for students who are taking a formal college-level Chinese course that hones reading and writing skills in tandem with speaking and listening abilities, *Chinese the Easy Way* would be very useful as a supplementary textbook or workbook for conversational practice and sentence pattern review. Though it is not designed to be a stand-alone textbook for a comprehensive college-level course in first-year Chinese, *Chinese the Easy Way* serves as an excellent conversational and pattern-review supplement to multi-volume

comprehensive textbooks such as Chen & Link's *Chinese Primer* (Princeton University Press, 1994) and Yao & Liu's *Integrated Chinese, Level One* (Cheng & Tsui, 1997). For travelers and other independent learners outside of the college classroom, Chinese the Easy Way appears to be the most accessible and understandable introduction to spoken Chinese that is currently available.

Modern English-Hebrew Dictionary. (2000). By Avraham Zilkha. University of Texas Press, 464 pp. 6 1/8x 1 1/4.

Reviewed by SADOK MASLIYAH
Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (Ret.)

One of the problems a student of a foreign language encounters is choosing the desired lexical item from a gross of entries in the target language. The student's choice of the target language words appears to be arbitrary and often is misleading. This can desystematize the learning process for the student and causes frustration. This reviewed dictionary addresses this problem. It enables the student and the general reader to find the exact Hebrew lexical item used by a Hebrew native speaker rather than taking arbitrarily any word of the many meanings given in Hebrew. The way the entries are introduced helps the user to find the desired meaning easily and render the dictionary a user-friendly tool.

The author gives a clue or a key word for each English entry and provides its equivalents in Hebrew. Thus the user can choose the proper word to suit his/her sentence. For example, the clue word for each of the multiple meanings of the word appeal is given as follows:

appeal n. 1. (plea)	Hebrew
2. (request)	Hebrew
3. (attraction)	Hebrew
4. (law)	Hebrew
appeal vi. 1.	Hebrew
2.	Hebrew
3.	Hebrew
4. vt.	Hebrew.

So far this valuable approach has not been employed in any other English-Hebrew dictionary.

The selection and presentation of entries are made according to academic standards and reflect research about the use of English and Hebrew and the employment of current vocabulary by educated native speakers of Hebrew. For example, English uses the verb "to wear," for shoes, coat, hat, glasses, and jewelry while an educated speaker of Hebrew uses a separate verb for each of these items: na'al, lavash, havash, hirkiv, and 'anad respectively.

The vocabulary is sufficient for the student throughout his/her Hebrew courses of instruction and beyond. The number of entries (30,000) is large enough to assure the current employed vocabulary in the newspapers and everyday speech. The majority of the Hebrew meanings contains one or two items and the maximum is four or five. This renders the size of the dictionary adequate for use at home, office, and classroom.

The grammatical information of the English items (part of speech) and the verb type transitive or intransitive) are mentioned in brackets and the plurals of unpredicted plurals of nouns (such as Hebrew 'market,' 'side,' 'city,' 'table,' 'egg,' etc.) are furnished too. Although this feature is essential and helpful to the Hebrew learner, other English-Hebrew dictionaries failed to provide such useful information.

The vocalization of the Hebrew entries is clear and meticulous. The Hebrew meanings are given in 'plene spelling' where additional vowels are employed. This current method of spelling guarantees the correct reading of the Hebrew text. In spelling proper nouns like David and Moses (traditionally spelled without vowels), the author wisely followed the traditional spelling.

Despite the fact that this dictionary contains many up-to-date newly coined words and useful acronyms in various fields, I think that more English-Hebrew entries in the computer field are desirable. And I say this taking into consideration that the continuous coinage of new Hebrew lexical items turns any size of Hebrew dictionary into incomplete work.

In summary, Zilkah's new dictionary is handy and an important contribution to the English-Hebrew lexicography and certainly is beneficial to general users and students of Hebrew.

Multimedia-based instructional design; A computer-based training, web-based training, distance broadcast training book. (2000). By Lee, William W. & Owens, Diana L. Jossey-Bass/Pfeiffer Inc. Pp. 359, hardcover, CD included.

Reviewed by SHOREH FARAHMAND
Curriculum Development Division

The purpose of this book is to answer technology-related questions vis-à-vis training, delivery and business issues. The authors extol the virtue of "Speed to Market" and recommend the saving of time by concentrating on developing content and getting to the optimal task rather than "developing a new instructional design for each new technological delivery method". In addition, the authors of this book demonstrate the most profitable and successful ID model of other aspects of the development process such as authoring, project management, test preparation, the formulation of objectives, web security, media analysis and cycle time reduction issues. Therefore, this book focuses on human performance through learning of performance support.

The content and the language of the book are mainly written in technical terms and intended for the use for of course developers (instructional designers, authors, and project managers). Content of the book include: Multimedia Needs Assessment and Analysis (pp.1-79); Multimedia Instructional Design (pp.81-135); Multimedia Development and Implementation (pp.139-184); Multimedia Evaluation (pp.185-217); Appendices A, B, C, D and E (pp. 219-327).

I think this book offers analyses, procedures, and tools which are important to course developers in the field of multimedia-based Instructional design.

Assessments such as need assessments (overall the course and step-by-step need assessment), division of work responsibility and clarity on each single person's duty, time management, knowing the audience and task-related issues (specifically knowing DLI mission task), a well organized team work and development and trainings need assessment are well pointed and analyzed.

In the appendix, the authors place a checklist of steps and actions, review forms, editorial forms, recording forms, technical review forms, questioner, sample template and different types of assessment forms, which are of potential value to the Instructional design team, especially to new developers.

Overall this book was developed to benefit the business world, to produce more profits in a shorter period of time. In considering cost analysis and return of the profit to DLI, bear in mind the following!

Because of the DLI's unique blend of military mission and academic solution, the principle of maximizing profit may not fit entirely well at the DLI. Nevertheless, the DLI is always trying to optimize the efficiency of its operations, and this entails delivery of the best product in the least amount of time, and at the lowest possible expense

In addition, cost analysis can significantly affect the choice of delivery media and the duration of the development. Therefore, it can affect the application result.

An important point is the lack of emphasis on interactivity within the course activities and in content material development, which shows lack of concern for an academic environment.

Objectives here at DLI are also more defined and academically based with a specific emphasis on cutting-edge technology approaches toward foreign language instruction.

Overall I found this book very interesting and informative. I think this book will save time for both trainers and for trainees. Many important concepts and aspects of well developed materials that a new multimedia developer needs to consider can be easily accessed through this book. I recommend this book to colleagues who are interested in the field of instructional design, especially to newcomers and project managers for better and more effective planning.

Grammar Links: A Theme-Based Course for Reference and Practice. (1999). M. Kathleen Mahnke (Series Editor). Boston: Houghton Mifflin. 3 vols.

ANN E. ROEMER
Utah State University

Grammar Links is a three-level theme-based series for ESL students at the beginning through advanced levels. An audiocassette, workbook, teacher's guide, CD-ROM, and website accompanies each volume. The books are divided into thematic units on goals, money, national parks (Book 1); technology, animals, the care of body and mind (Book 2); and personality, sports, popular fiction (Book 3). Each unit covers one area of grammar, with examples and exercises focussing on the overall theme. The series is designed to spiral grammar points across levels, and themes become more academic as the students progress from Book 1 to 3. Each unit is organized as follows: Unit Objectives, Unit Introduction, Chapter Introduction, Grammar Briefings, Grammar Practice, and Unit Wrap-Ups.

Unit Objectives lists the grammar points to be presented, followed by example sentences. One of the grammar points listed in Unit Seven (Book 2) is adjectives ending in -ing and -ed, with the example, Cowboy life is boring. They're bored by this life. The theme and grammar of the unit are then introduced by a reading/listening selection, which is also recorded on the cassette. Unit Seven, for example, titled The Wild West, is a brief, five-paragraph history of the American West in the last two centuries. The same selection is recorded on the cassette tape that accompanies Book 2. After a comprehension check of the information, generally in the form of a true-false exercise, the students are presented with a Think about Grammar task, which encourages them to induce the grammar rules themselves, before any formal explanation. This part of the Unit Introduction invites students not only to think about grammar, but also to work with their classmates and discuss the grammar point. In Unit 7, Book 2, Think about Grammar lists all of the modifiers used in the selection titled The Magic of the West, according to parts of speech. The students' task is to underline the modifiers and the nouns that they modify.

Like Grammar Dimensions, each chapter in Grammar Links begins with an Introductory Task, in which students are asked to recognize or use the structure being studied. It is often communicative: Students give their personal opinions about a topic. Other times it is analytical: in Book 1, Chapter 26, students read a paragraph and then answer questions about direct objects. Still other Introductory Tasks include the skill of listening: Book 3, Chapter 5, asks students to listen to a conversation and write the verbs they hear; many chapters include a written passage that students can also hear on the audiotape.

In Grammar Briefings, the grammar is explained in Form and Function Charts,

with the objective being to keep them clear, accurate, and concise. Two special features of Grammar Links are Grammar Hotspots, which helps students with problematic aspects of grammar, and Talking the Talk, which explains the register of the grammar under consideration. In the Book 1 unit on modals, Grammar Hotspots warns students not to confuse *may be* and *maybe*. The same unit has a Talking the Talk which explains the difference in stress between *can* and *can't* in spoken English.

Grammar Practice follows; Most of these exercises are written, with a few utilizing the tape. In general, they progress from more controlled and focusing on form, to more communicative and focusing on function. Several require group work and include a variety of types.

Each unit concludes with a Wrap-Up, a series of communicative activities that encourage students to apply what they have studied. These activities are more productive and open-ended than others in the unit. They begin with an error correction exercise focusing on the grammar studied in the unit; and this exercise is followed by three tasks. Many of the tasks involve pair and group work, such as a game, and others, especially in Books 2 and 3, ask student to write a story or paragraph. An example of a Wrap-Up task in the Book 3 unit on the passive voice includes a team debate on a controversial topic (Should athletes be paid large salaries? Following the debate students are asked to write a paragraph explaining their opinion.

The strengths of Grammar Links are the engaging topics and the listening exercises. The topics maintain high student interest, and a creative teacher can readily use them for additional writing or speaking assignments. The cassette helps students make the link between spoken and written language, focusing on meaning—not just form. Students don't simply manipulate the language—they have to understand it. As with many grammar texts, the weakness of this series is that some written exercises are mechanical, almost like substitution drills of the past. This is regretful—they are often rich with meaning. Overall, though, the series deserves commendations for its pedagogically-sound communicative, content-driven approach to the teaching of grammar.



Countries in Perspective



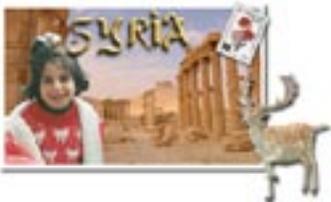
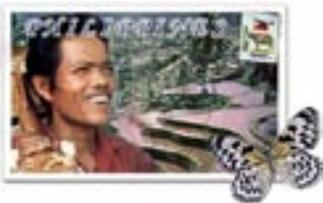
Curriculum Development Division

Countries in Perspective (CiP) is an ongoing, web-delivered project hosted by Lingnet at www.lingnet.org. It is designed to address the area studies needs of resident and non-resident programs. The **Instructional Design Department** initiated the project in the summer of 2003 by creating a learner-centric modality of independent learning. The user-friendly content incorporates graphics, video clips and interactive Flash pieces to further engage learners and stimulate their interest in the material.

The Instructional Design Department's technical competence and effective use of pedagogy helped make the content pertinent, relevant, and compact. All materials used in the project are copyright-cleared.

The countries presented are **Iraq, Iran, the Philippines, Liberia and Syria**, with more countries to follow in the future. All of the country guides have adopted a similar design format, although the uniqueness of each country brings the focus on different aspects that show cultural, political, geographical, or economic distinctiveness.

The material presented is frequently updated and ensures minimal download time and ease of navigation. Learners have their choice of following the suggested path of information or taking their own approach. Additionally, a PDF version of the text is available for download and quick printing. This product is also available on a stand-alone CD.



General Information

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Calendar of Events*

2004

- Modern Language Association of America (MLA)**, 27–30 December, Philadelphia. Contact: MLA, 10 Astor Place, New York, NY 10003-6981; Fax (212) 477-9863, Email: convention@mla.org, Web: www.mla.org
- American Association of Teachers of Slavic and Eastern European Languages (AATSEEL) and American Council of Teachers of Russian**, 27–30 December, Philadelphia. Contact: AATSEEL, Kathleen E. Dillon, Executive Director, P.O. Box 7039, Berkeley, CA 94707-2306, Email: aatseel@earthlink.net, Web: www.aatseel.org
- International Association of Teachers of Czech (IATC-NAATC)**, 27–30 December, Philadelphia. Contact: Hana Pichová, Executive Officer, Slavic Languages and Literatures, University of Texas at Austin, P.O. Box 7217, Austin, TX 78713-7217; Email: pichova@mail.utexas.edu, Web: www.language.brown.edu/NAATC/index.html

2005

- Southern Conference on Language Teaching (SCOLT)**, 24–26 February, Charlotte, NC. Contact: Lynne McClendon, SCOLT, 165 Lazy Laurel Chase, Roswell, GA 30076; (770) 992-1256, Fax (770) 992-3464, Email: lynnemcc@mindspring.com, Web: www.valdosta.edu/scolt
- Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages**, 10–12 March, Columbus, OH. Contact: Patrick T. Raven, Executive Director, P.O. Box 251, Milwaukee, WI 53201-0251; (414) 405-4645, Fax (414) 276-4650, Email: CSCTFL@aol.com, Web: www.centralstates.cc
- 20th Conference on Spanish in the US**, 24–26 March, Chicago. Contact: fstayn1@uic.edu Web: <http://spaninus.uic.edu/>
- Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL)**, 29 March – 2 April, San Antonio, TX. Contact: TESOL, 700 S. Washington Street, Suite 200, Alexandria, VA 22314; (703) 836-0774, Fax (703) 836-7864, Email: conventions@tesol.org, Web: www.tesol.org
- Association for Asian Studies (AAS)**, 31 March – 3 April, Chicago. Contact: AAS, 1021 East Huron St., Ann Arbor, MI 48104; (734) 665-2490; Fax (734) 665-3801, Email: annmtg@aasianst.org, Web: www.aasianst.org
- Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (NECTFL)**, 31 March – 3 April, New York. Contact: Northeast Conference, Dickinson College, P.O. Box 1773, Carlisle, PA 17013-2896; (717) 245-1977, Fax (717) 245-1976, Email: nectfl@dickinson.edu, Web: www.dickinson.edu/nectfl
- Southwest Conference on Language Teaching (SWCOLT)**, 7–9 April, Irving, TX. Contact: Audrey Cournia, SWCOLT, (775) 358-6943, Fax (775) 358-1605, Email: CourniaAudrey@cs.com, Web: www.swcolt.org
- American Educational Research Association (AERA)**, 11–15 April, Montreal, Canada. Contact: AERA, 1230 17th St. NW, Washington, DC 20036-3078; (202) 223-9485, Fax: (202) 775-1824, Web: www.aera.net
- International Reading Association (IRA)**, 1–5 May, San Antonio, TX. Contact: International Reading Association, Headquarters Office, 800 Barksdale Rd., PO Box 8139, Newark, DE 19714-8139, (302) 731-1600, Fax: (302) 731-1057, Web: www.ira.org
- Computer-assisted Language Instruction Consortium (CALICO)**, 17–21 May, East Lansing, MI. Contact: CALICO, Southwest Texas State University, 214 Centennial Hall, 601 University Drive, San Marcos, TX 78666, (512) 245-1417, Fax: (512) 245-9089, Email: info@calico.org, Web: www.calico.org

- American Association of Teachers of French (AATF)**, 7–10 July, Quebec City, Canada. Contact: Jayne Abrate, AATF, Mailcode 4510, Southern Illinois University, Carbondale, IL 62901-4510; (618) 453-5731, Fax (618) 453-5733, Email: abrate@siu.edu, Web: www.frenchteachers.org
- Summer Institute in Applied Linguistics**, 27 June – 21 July, The Pennsylvania State University, University Park, PA. Contact: James P. Lantolf, Dept. of Linguistics and Applied Language Studies, The Pennsylvania State University, 305 Sparks, University Park, PA, 16802; (814) 863-7038, Email: jpl7@psu.edu
- AILA 2005**, 24–29 July, 14th world congress, Madison, WI. Contact: Richard F. Young, AILA 2005, Department of English, University of Wisconsin, 600 North Park Street, Madison, WI 53706; (608) 263-2679, Email: rfyoung@wisc.edu, Web: www.aila2005.org
- American Association for Applied Linguistics (AAAL)**, 24–29 July, Madison, WI. Contact: AAAL, 3416 Primm Lane, Birmingham, AL 35216; (205) 824-7700, Fax (205) 823-2760, Email: aaaloffice@aaal.org, Web: www.aaal.org
- International Conference on Task-based Language Teaching**, 21–23 September, Katholieke Universiteit Leuven, Belgium. Contact: Web: www.tblt.org/index.htm
- American Translators Association (ATA)**, 9–12 November, Seattle. Contact: ATA, Contact: ATA, 225 Reinekers Lane, Suite 590, Alexandria, VA 22314, (703) 683-6100, Fax (703) 683-6122, Email: conference@atanet.org, Web: www.atanet.org
- American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL)**, 18–20 November, Baltimore, MD. Contact: ACTFL, 700 S. Washington St., Suite 210, Alexandria, VA 22314; (703) 894-2903, Fax (703) 894-2905, Email: headquarters@actfl.org, Web: www.actfl.org
- American Association of Teachers of German (AATG)**, 18–20 November, Baltimore, MD. Contact: AATG, 112 Haddontowne Court #104, Cherry Hill, NJ 08034; (856) 795-5553, Fax (856) 795-9398, Email: headquarters@aatg.org, Web: www.aatg.org
- Chinese Language Teachers Association (CLTA)**, 18–20 November, Baltimore, MD. Contact: CLTA Headquarters, Cynthia Ning, Center for Chinese Studies, Moore Hall #416, University of Hawaii, Honolulu, HI 96822; (808) 956-2692, Fax (808) 956-2682, Email: cyndy@hawaii.edu, Web: clta.deall.ohio-state.edu
- National Network for Early Language Learning (NNELL)**, 18-20 November, Baltimore, MD. Contact: Mary Lynn Redmond, NNELL, P.O. Box 7266, A2A Tribble Hall, Wake Forest University, Winston-Salem, NC 27109; Email: nnell@wfu.edu, Web: www.nnell.org

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- Southern Conference on Language Teaching (SCOLT)**, 16–18 February, Orlando, FL. Contact: Lynne McClendon, SCOLT, 165 Lazy Laurel Chase, Roswell, GA 30076; (770) 992-1256, Fax (770) 992-3464, Email: lynnemcc@mindspring.com, Web: www.valdosta.edu/scolt
- Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL)**, 15–19 March, Tampa Bay, FL. Contact: TESOL, 700 S. Washington Street, Suite 200, Alexandria, VA 22314; (703) 836-0774, Fax (703) 836-7864, Email: conventions@tesol.org, Web: www.tesol.org
- Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages**, 9–11 March, Chicago. Contact: Patrick T. Raven, Executive Director, P.O. Box 251, Milwaukee, WI 53201-0251; (414) 405-4645, Fax (414) 276-4650, Email: CSCTFL@aol.com, Web: www.centralstates.cc
- Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (NECTFL)**, 30 March

– 2 April, New York. Contact: Northeast Conference, Dickinson College, P.O. Box 1773, Carlisle, PA 17013-2896; (717) 245-1977, Fax (717) 245-1976, Email: nectfl@dickinson.edu, Web: www.dickinson.edu/nectfl

Association for Asian Studies (AAS), 6–9 April, San Francisco. Contact: AAS, 1021 East Huron St., Ann Arbor, MI 48104; (734) 665-2490; Fax (734) 665-3801, Email: annmtg@aasianst.org, Web: www.aasianst.org

American Educational Research Association (AERA), 8–12 April, San Francisco. Contact: AERA, 1230 17th St., NW, Washington, DC 20036-3078; (202) 223-9485, Fax: (202) 775-1824, Web: www.aera.net

International Reading Association (IRA), 30 April – 4 May, Chicago, IL. Contact: International Reading Association, Headquarters Office, 800 Barksdale Rd., PO Box 8139, Newark, DE 19714-8139, (302) 731-1600, Fax: (302) 731-1057, Web: www.ira.org

American Translators Association (ATA), 2–5 November, New Orleans. Contact: ATA, 225 Reinekers Lane, Suite 590, Alexandria, VA 22314, (703) 683-6100, Fax (703) 683-6122, Email: conference@atanet.org, Web: www.atanet.org

American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL), 17–19 November, Nashville. Contact: ACTFL, 700 S. Washington St., Suite 210, Alexandria, VA 22314; (703) 894-2903, Fax (703) 894-2905, Email: headquarters@actfl.org, Web: www.actfl.org

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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. *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.

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

Articles

Manuscripts should not exceed 20 double-spaced pages. Divide your manuscript into the following sections:

- Abstract
 - Introduction
 - Organizing Construct
 - Point 1
 - Point 2
 - Point 3
 - Discussion
 - Conclusion
 - Appendices
 - Notes
 - References
 - Acknowledgments
 - Author

Abstract

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

Introduction

Describe the purpose of the manuscript. Relate it to the content of the recently, within the last two to three years, published literature. Describe work that had a direct impact on your study. Avoid general references. Cite only pertinent research findings and relevant methodological issues. Provide the logical continuity between previous and present work. Identify the main issues of your study. Point out the implications of your study.

Organizing Construct

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

Discussion

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

Conclusion

Summarize your findings.

References

The list of references should be submitted on a separate page of the manuscript with the centered heading: *References*. The entries should be arranged alphabetically by 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., **Abstract**

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

Introduction

Describe the purpose of the manuscript. Relate it to the content of the recently, within the last two to three years, published literature. Describe work that had a direct impact on your study. Avoid general references. Cite only pertinent research findings and relevant methodological issues. Provide the logical continuity between previous and present work. Identify the main issues of your study. Point out the implications of your study.

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

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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, 2001, 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

They 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-CD-AJ (Editor), Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center, Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944-5006.