Defense Language Institute
Foreign Language Center
&
Presidio of Monterey

Command History
1994-1995
Defense Language Institute
Foreign Language Center
and
Presidio of Monterey

Command History
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Presidio of Monterey, California
MEMORANDUM FOR SEE DISTRIBUTION

SUBJECT: 1994-95 Command History

1. My predecessor, COL Vladimir Sobichevsky, steered DLIFLC and the Presidio of Monterey through some turbulent times from January 1993 to December 1995. To continue to serve our nation, we had to adapt and improve in every area. The enclosed command history records the final two years of his tenure as commandant and installation commander. When I took command in January 1996, I could see the results of all this hard work.

2. In the fall of 1993 the Institute reorganized its seven schools. In 1994-95 we saw proficiency levels climb even though student enrollment also grew. To handle growing demand, we hired many new instructors. When Fort Ord closed in the fall of 1994, we established the U.S. Army Garrison, Presidio of Monterey. Directorates and offices under the garrison commander and chief of staff reorganized, relocated, took on new missions, and provided continued support to the Institute. Meanwhile, the cleanup and transfer of Fort Ord property added new responsibilities. These changes are detailed in the pages that follow.

3. The enclosed command history is the product of teamwork, like most of what we do here. Steven R. Solomon wrote the first five chapters. He has worked at DLIFLC since 1987 as a German instructor and writer/editor in the Curriculum Division. Dr. Jay M. Price wrote the chapters on garrison support, BRAC, and environmental functions. He joined the Command History Office in October 1997 and has served as deputy command historian since September 1998. Dr. Stephen M. Payne, who served as deputy command historian during this period, collected much of the documentation and provided invaluable assistance during the writing. Dr. James C. McNaughton, the command historian, provided overall direction.

4. Read the pages that follow with pride. In them you will see a story of innovative responses to many new situations. The total range of our mission activities is impressive. In these years, we took on some new missions, and we did some old missions in new and exciting ways. I encourage each of you to read this report and consider how we can make our tomorrow even better.

Encl

DANIEL D. DEVLIN
COL, AR
Commanding

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The World Political Situation in the Mid-1990s

The years 1994 and 1995 found the "New World Order"—as former U.S. President George Bush had dubbed the post-Cold War era—in full swing. Russia, Ukraine, and Belarus now maintained largely cordial relations with their former foe, the United States. Encouraged by a $7.4 billion payoff to their government, in 1994 the last Russian occupying troops finally withdrew from Germany, which had reunited in 1990 as a democracy and a staunch U.S. ally rather than the neutral nation some Soviet theorists had once proposed. Positive change was afoot around the globe, not only in regions once controlled by Moscow. In May 1994, Nelson Mandela, who had endured decades of imprisonment because of his opposition to South Africa's policy of apartheid, became that nation's president and the leader of its first multiracial government. August of that year also saw a cease-fire in the quarter century of strife between the Irish Republican Army and the British government of Northern Ireland.

But these two years also provided ample evidence that the demise of the Soviet Union did not signal the end of all the world's problems. In December 1994, Russian President Boris Yeltsin strained his country's new friendship with the United States by responding to the attempted succession of Chechnya with force of arms. Stung by American criticism, Russia refused to support the U.S. ban on trade and investment with Iran in May 1995. In some regions, Soviet control had forced historical enemies to coexist peacefully; with that control gone, long-standing ethnic hatreds flared into armed conflict. The war in the Balkans, which began in 1991, proved resistant to all attempts at resolution. Bosnian Serbs answered a NATO (North Atlantic Treaty Organization) airstrike by taking lightly armed United Nations (UN) peacekeeping forces hostage in May 1995. In December of that year, President Bill Clinton reluctantly committed U.S. ground troops to the conflict. Iraqi President Saddam Hussein repeatedly tested Clinton as he had tested Bush, interfering with UN weapons inspectors while loudly demanding an end to sanctions against his regime. North Korea's refusal in 1993 to allow treaty-mandated inspections of its nuclear facilities caused tensions with South Korea and the United States that lasted into 1995 and beyond. The death of long-time dictator Kim Il-sung in July 1994 left the leadership of North Korea open to speculation for a time and served to heighten existing tensions. A U.S.-led invasion in September 1994 was required to convince a military junta to return control of Haiti to its democratically elected government, and a U.S.-supported occupation was required to keep that government in power. The positive developments in South Africa stood in stark contrast to events elsewhere on the continent: In March 1994, the UN began a year-long phased withdrawal of its troops from Somalia. UNOSOM II, the UN Operation in Somalia, ended in failure, leaving warlords in power rather than a legitimate government. In April 1994, Rwanda erupted once more in horrific violence. Freedom still had many foes under the New World Order. Most shocking of all to Americans was the fact that some of these foes were home-grown: the 19 April 1995 car-bombing of the Murrah Federal Building in Oklahoma City, which killed 168 people, was revealed as the work of U.S. antigovernment extremists—not foreign terrorists, as was first supposed.

The task of the U.S. defense community had actually become more complicated since the fall of the Soviet Union. The one dependable foe had been replaced by a variety of threats and
potential enemies in the new era. And the continuing downsizing of the federal government in general and the military in particular meant that the United States had to do more with less in responding to these threats. In November 1994, the Republican party won a majority in both houses of Congress for the first time since 1954. Republican lawmakers moved swiftly in early 1995 to pass their “Contract with America,” a plan to reduce the size of the federal government. Although the Democrats were able to block parts of the plan, the trend toward a smaller federal government was clear.

In this new era of shrinking budgets and multiplying threats to peace, the role of the Defense Foreign Language Program (DFLP), charged with training U.S. military personnel in foreign languages, was more crucial than perhaps at any time since World War II. The largest and most visible component of the DFLP is the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC), located at the Presidio of Monterey (POM) in Monterey, California. This volume tells the story of DLIFLC & POM during the years 1994 and 1995. In order to put that story into proper perspective, it is necessary to first explain the changes underway in the DFLP during this event-filled two-year period.

The Defense Foreign Language Restructure

Throughout 1994, the Department of Defense (DoD) implemented plans to shift and strengthen policy oversight of defense foreign language programs and initiatives. Staff actions arising out of the 1993 DoD Inspector General (IG) report on the Defense Foreign Language Program (DFLP) resulted in two major memoranda realigning the DFLP to provide DoD greater responsibility for enhanced program oversight. The first, between the Assistant Secretary of Defense for Command, Control, Communications & Intelligence (ASD[C3I]) and the Services and key support agencies, assigned the responsibility of the restructured program under ASD[C3I]’s policy purview. (Operational control, however, remained with the United States Army.) The restructured program expanded the oversight mechanism beyond the training of DoD linguists to include greater responsibility for linguist career management, Command Language Program (CLP) development, and linguist management information systems. The DoD IG recommendations highlighted each of these program components as variables requiring enhanced DoD oversight. The second memorandum, between ASD[C3I] and the Office of the Under

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1 This summary of the restructuring of the DFLP was kindly provided by Air Force Maj. Rusty Shughart, Deputy Director, DLI-W.
3 The signatories included the Assistant Secretary of Defense for Reserve Affairs (ASD[RA]); the Assistant Secretary of Defense for Special Operations and Low-Intensity Conflict (ASD[SO/LIC]); the Director of the Joint Staff (DJS); the Assistant Secretary of the Army for Manpower and Reserve Affairs (ASA[M&RA]); the Assistant Secretary of the Navy for Manpower and Reserve Affairs (ASN[M&RA]); and the Assistant Secretary of the Air Force for Manpower, Reserve Affairs, Installations and Environment (ASAF[MRAI&E]). See ASD[C3I]/ASD(FM) Memorandum, Subject: Defense Foreign Language Restructure, 19 Oct 1994.
Secretary of Defense for Personnel and Readiness (OUSD[P&R]), realigned existing DFLP policy oversight relationships at the DoD level, establishing the ASD[C3I] role as the Primary Functional Sponsor (PFS) for policy oversight of the revised program. The new DFLP structure superseded the roles, functions, and relationships of the old DFLP, as outlined in the Department of Defense Directive on the Defense Language Program (DLP) and codified in the corresponding joint service regulation.

ASD(C3I) presented much of the groundwork for the DFLP restructure in March 1994 at what would be the last meeting of the General Officer Steering Committee (GOSC). Craig Wilson and George Ostrom steered efforts to develop a “strawman” plan to restructure the DFLP. The recommendations outlined in the DoD IG report and the need to reorganize to meet the linguist management realities of the post Cold War period served as the underlying driving forces of change. Among these was a consistent underfunding of DLIFLC and DoD’s other foreign language programs as mission, manpower, and resource changes combined to weigh heavily on the Army’s ability to respond effectively to the changing operational environment. Other factors included the threats of the closure of the POM and/or the relocation of DLIFLC in Base Realignment and Closure Commission (BRAC) programs in 1993 and 1995, the Army’s wavering interest in Executive Agency, a high turnover in leadership, and role ambiguity and conflict among the GOSC membership.

The DFLP development strategy throughout 1994 emphasized a program foundation based on clarified responsibilities and management processes. ASD(C3I) became the DFLP PFS because of the Intelligence Community focus of DoD’s broad-based foreign language mission. The reorganization raised the importance of the military service and defense agency requirements and resources process for linguist training and utilization. It also emphasized the need for oversight of linguist career management policy at levels above the services and defense agencies. The intent of the revised DFLP was to reduce the narrow focus on DLIFLC regarding linguist matters, and to highlight linguist training, resourcing, management, and retention variables as management challenges that lay largely beyond the locus of the schoolhouse in Monterey.

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4 See Defense Foreign Language Restructure, 19 Oct 1994. This three-page memorandum, signed by OSD(C3I) and USD(FM&P), essentially redefined the DFLP within the continued rubric of the DoD Directive on the Defense Language Program. As the DFLP PFS, OSD(C3I) is charged to assess the quality and efficiency of the Program; recommend changes to policy, levels of resources, and specific types or content of training to meet DoD requirements most economically, uniformly, and effectively; and report and defend the respective programs to Congress. See Department of Defense Directive 5160.41, Defense Language Program (DLP), 7 Apr 1988.


7 These included significant changes in the required linguist quantity, mix and proficiency; reductions in military management staff structures; continuing pressures to reduce programmed funding outlays; and expanded base closure initiatives.

Wilson’s strawman resulted in the 19 October 1994 memorandum on the Defense Foreign Language Restructure. The memorandum in its final version cited the need to (1) coordinate the multitude of language requirements both inside and outside the Services, (2) advocate resources, and (3) manage the careers of skilled linguists as the main components warranting the reassignment of DLP management and oversight functions from the Army to OSD. Consequently, the restructuring of the DFLP included a Policy Committee to assume the oversight responsibilities and authorities of the GOSC at the apex of defense foreign language management (see organization chart below). The DFLP used this oversight and other organizational initiatives to address the program management concerns outlined in the DoD Inspector General’s findings.

DFLP MANAGEMENT STRUCTURE

On 4 November 1994, the DFLP Policy Committee met for the first time, primarily to validate the new DFLP structure and to set the stage for the post-GOSC era. Since then, the DFLP has existed as an organization arrayed in five separate tiers that coordinate policies and

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10 The DFLP organization chart is based on a slide from the Command Briefing of 1 Jan 1995, entitled “From the Cold War to the 21st Century.”
programs to support DoD’s foreign language intelligence and special force operations: the Policy Committee, two administrative bodies, the defense agencies and military services, the schoolhouse, and the linguist corps.

ASD(C3I) provides upper-level leadership and policy oversight for requirements and funding of the DFLP. The Principal Deputy Assistant Secretary of Defense for Force Management Policy (PDASD[FMP]) similarly furnishes personnel policy control and career management oversight. The Principal Deputy Assistant Secretary of Defense for Command, Control, Communications and Intelligence (PDASD[C3I]) coordinates all policy initiatives through the DFLP Policy Committee, comprised of senior foreign language representatives from the defense agencies and military services (many of whom were formerly GOSC members). The Policy Committee convenes as necessary to mediate and validate actions impacting the DFLP (it convened once in 1994 and did not meet in 1995). It provides the statutory authority to linguist requirement, resource, and career management matters. Such authority extends to policy oversight for the acquisition, training, and utilization of all Active and Reserve Component military linguists.

Two administrative bodies responsible for coordinating linguist management initiatives make up the DFLP’s second tier: the Requirements and Resources Coordinating Panel and the Career Management Panel. The Requirements and Resources Coordinating Panel meets monthly to supervise linguist program variables. Comprised of senior program managers from the defense agencies and services representatives, as well as representatives from the Army Office of the Deputy Chief of Staff for Operations and Plans (ODCSOPS) and the Army Training and Doctrine Command (TRADOC), this group operates as the core managerial body of the DFLP. It addresses problems and coordinates options for Policy Committee approval to resolve linguist management issues of greater significance. In this role it focuses on the foreign language manpower structure, resources, training and readiness. The Career Management Panel addresses personnel and compensation policy concerns, such as linguist life-cycle variables and special incentive pay programs. Its role is to formulate policy guidance designed to maximize the accession, utilization, development, and retention of DoD linguist assets.\(^\text{11}\)

Until October 1995, when it began to meet regularly and became the primary working-level focal point of the DFLP, the Requirements and Resources Coordinating Panel met on an ad hoc basis. Since then, it has met monthly at the DLI-Washington Office to address DFLP management initiatives. Much of its work in 1995 related to issues of the new DFLP structure and to remaining questions of Executive Agency, particularly in light of the Army’s uncertainty

\(^{11}\) In 1994, the developers of the new DFLP structure envisioned that the Requirements and Resources Coordinating Panel would address three main concerns: the coordination, prioritization and validation of foreign language requirements (including numbers, population skill distribution and training); OSD program budget oversight; and readiness. The Career Management Panel was envisioned to address four main concerns: utilization (assignments); proficiency pay (analysis, proponenty and testing); readiness; and recruiting. See DFLP General Officer Steering Committee 1994 Report, 18 Mar 1994.
regarding its Executive Agent role. The Career Management Panel met only on an ad hoc basis, primarily to address special incentive pay programs related to linguist career issues. Through the end of 1995, the meetings of these two administrative groups continued to take place under the terms of the OSD memorandum in lieu of a validated DoD Directive on the DFLP or a coordinated Joint Regulation on the DFLP.

The defense agencies and military services comprise the third tier of the DFLP. Led by foreign language program managers within intelligence, training, and personnel disciplines, these organizations undergird the DFLP through the daily operational control of its linguistic assets. They provide functional management to the DFLP. Each defense agency and service has coordinating offices, committees, regulations, and operating instructions to direct its foreign language assets. As keystones within the DFLP, defense agency and service program managers have overall staff supervisory responsibility for the development, coordination, and conduct of all facets of their foreign language program. This involvement extends to participation in defense agency, cryptologic, HUMINT, and special forces management organizations.

The fourth tier of the DFLP consists of DoD foreign language training centers and schools. The DFLP oversees instruction in more than 50 languages by or under contract to DoD components, except activities conducted by or for the National Security Agency (NSA), service academies, or DoD Dependent Schools. While DLIFLC provided resident instruction in more than 20 languages through 1995, the DLI-Washington Office augmented this effort by administering the Contract Foreign Language Training Program (CFLTP). The CFLTP employs proprietary and government schools to meet the foreign language training needs of DoD’s lower density languages and to help satisfy contingency training requirements. In late 1995, the CFLTP sponsored a program of Serbian and Croatian refresher and conversion training to support the operational and intelligence requirements of Operation Joint Endeavor.

The new DFLP structure continues to designate the Secretary of the Army as executive agent for all DFLP training. In this role, the Army manages and administers foreign language instruction to meet DoD intelligence and operational requirements. Operating under the auspices of the ODCSOPS and under the command of TRADOC, the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) conducts the vast majority of this resident training and administers a wide variety of non-resident, evaluation, research, technical, and review programs.

In its role as Executive Agent for the training portion of the DFLP, the Army bears responsibility for programming, budgeting, and managing the foreign language program and school structure on behalf of the constituent members without payment or transfer of funds from them to the Executive Agent. ODCSOPS and TRADOC jointly execute these tasks by consolidating the training requirements of the defense agencies and services, programming the

12 The U.S. Navy, as part of the base operations realignment of the former Fort Ord, and the National Security Agency each expressed an interest in assuming the role of DFLP Executive Agent.

13 See Army Regulation 350-20, Management of the Defense Foreign Language Program, 15 Mar 1987. This is a joint training regulation, cited as Army Regulation 350-20, OPNAVINST 1550-7B, Air Force Regulation 50-40 and Marine Corps Order 1550.4D.
necessary funding to meet the validated needs, and delivering training to its constituents. Other government organizations not covered by the Executive Agency agreement may obtain services from the Executive Agent on a reimbursable basis.

The Army Chief of the Institutional Training Division (DAMO-TRI), ODCSOPS, coordinates the development of the annual Structure Manning Decision Review (SMDR) for DLIFLC. This includes collaboration with DLIFLC to define the actual schedule of classes and numbers of students to be taught and to outline the faculty mix required to provide and administer the instruction. The Army programs its training budget through one of its many Management Decision Execution Packages (MDEPs). The DLIFLC MDEP, which consists of 10 major funding categories, funds the SMDR plan to meet foreign language readiness requirements across the broad spectrum of DoD’s intelligence and operational missions.

The linguist corps itself comprises the fifth tier of the DFLP. DoD acquires its linguist personnel through initial accessions and in-service recruiting programs. Each service continually reviews its language shortages for inclusion into special incentive pay programs such as enlistment, foreign language proficiency pay (FLPP), and selective reenlistment bonus programs. Both the DFLP Requirements and Resources Coordinating Panel and the Career Management Panel addressed a variety of linguist issues throughout 1994-95 as part of the revised DFLP structure.

By the end of 1995, several important issues had combined to limit the effectiveness of the new DFLP management structure. First, soon after defense foreign language restructure it became apparent that OSD lacked the manpower and legal authority to effectively administer the DFLP. Wilson and Ostrom did not have the staff support required to sufficiently direct the DFLP, and Wilson’s retirement in December 1995 further reduced the effectiveness of ASD(C3I) oversight. From the perspective of the administrative framework, there was also no coordinated DoD Directive on the DFLP to delineate program authorities and responsibilities or to drive the requisite organizational and staffing actions to administer the revised DFLP. Second, the DFLP funding responsibility remained with the Army, meaning that OSD oversight of defense language processes was limited to policy considerations—OSD had no authority to direct the expenditure or reallocation of resources. Third, the important and unresolved issue of Executive Agency and its relationship to BRAC continued to be the focal point of DFLP staff initiatives as OSD intensified its efforts on upper-level initiatives at the expense of addressing the DFLP’s lower-level management concerns. Each of these problems emerged as major issues in 1996.

Executive Agency

Ever since service language training programs were first consolidated in the 1960s, the Secretary of the Army has had overall responsibility for managing foreign language training for the entire Department of Defense (DoD). The role and responsibilities of the Secretary of the Army for DoD language training were codified in DoD Directive 5160.41 and in the joint service

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14 This is a Total Force corps, including Reserve Component and National Guard elements.
regulation, which name the Secretary of the Army Executive Agent (EA) for the Defense Foreign Language Program. However, throughout 1994 and 1995, the Army’s determination to remain EA was in question.

The uncertainty surrounding the Executive Agency officially began in January 1993, when, under the unprecedented budgetary pressures associated with the BRAC process, TRADOC released a memorandum signed by MG James M. Lyle stating the Army’s willingness to relinquish the EA role. The memo suggested that the Navy assume the Executive Agency and responsibility for DLIFLC, the Presidio of Monterey, and the Presidio of Monterey Annex by 1 October 1993. Should the transfer to the Navy not be feasible, Lyle recommended transfer of the EA to the Air Force and relocation of DLIFLC to Goodfellow Air Force Base, Texas. Should neither transfer prove possible, TRADOC recommended that the language school be relocated to Fort Huachuca.

In an era of base closures and shrinking defense budgets, it is not surprising that the driving force behind the EA controversy was funding. The TRADOC staff had realized the full base operations costs for the Presidio of Monterey as a separate installation and was looking for alternatives. The other members of the foreign language community were amenable to the Army’s wish to relinquish the DFLP EA because they felt that the Army had chronically underfunded DoD language training needs. A basic disagreement concerning DLIFLC’s status had arisen: For the DFLP community at large, DLIFLC was a DoD activity for which the Army received “fenced” funding; hence, the Army was obligated to fully fund DLIFLC. However, some members of the TRADOC and Army staffs saw DLIFLC essentially as an Army school; hence the Army had the right to fund the school at whatever level Army leadership deemed appropriate. TRADOC reserved the right to subject all its schools—DLIFLC included—to a “Command Tax” or “Command Bill.” Although early 1996 would see some degree of resolution of both the Executive Agency issue and the underlying funding controversy, in actuality, both problems would prove more tenacious.

While Craig Wilson, then-Director of Intelligence, Policy and Planning in OASD(C3I), and his assistant, George Ostrom, went about the business of restructuring the DFLP, they also began seeking new candidates for the DFLP EA. Two main proposals were under consideration in 1994 and 1995: One envisioned the Navy as EA; the other, some combination of the NSA and

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16 MG James M. Lyle, USA, Director of Training, ODCSOPS, DAMO-TRO, Memorandum, Transfer of Executive Agent Responsibility for the Defense Language Institute (DLIFLC) from Army to Navy, 29 Jan 93. Lyle’s memorandum was cited in “NPS seems safe; Navy may get DLIFLC,” Monterey County Herald, 23 Feb 1993.
17 E-mail message from LTC Jonathan N. Lang, RE: DLIFLC Annual Command History, 21 Mar 1998: “TRADOC would take the $5 million each year as a tax on the MDEP to help TRADOC fund other priorities.” See also Historian’s Notes, Telephonic Interview with John Daly Re: Navy as prospective Executive Agent, 25 Feb 1998: “For budget purposes, DLIFLC is probably more of an Army school than a Defense Agency.”
the Office of the Secretary of Defense (OSD) as EA, with the Navy as possible Base Operations Support (BASOPS) provider.\(^\text{18}\)

At first glance, the Navy might seem an unlikely choice for EA because of the relatively small number of Navy personnel among DLIFLC’s student body (approximately 11 percent in fiscal years 1992 and 1993). Nevertheless, the personnel and training community at the level of the Secretary of the Navy had a genuine interest in the foreign language training mission, as did RADM Marcia Evans, who became Superintendent of the Naval Postgraduate School (NPS) in 1995.\(^\text{19}\) Moreover, the presence of NPS in Monterey made the Navy a logical choice for BASOPS provider for DLIFLC & POM and the POM Annex.\(^\text{20}\)

In addition to the Navy, C3I also approached the NSA about assuming responsibility for the DFLP, in whole or in part. The NSA had a large stake in the DFLP because over half of all military students at DLIFLC were eventually assigned to the NSA. Of the various proposals advanced, the best one envisioned DLIFLC as a semi-independent school along the lines of the Army War College, with the NSA serving as budget manager. C3I would have administered DLIFLC, leaving limited BASOPS administration to the Navy. The proposal provided for a military garrison commander with a civilian NSA deputy and would have elevated the post of DLIFLC provost to a Senior Executive Service position with the title “chancellor.”\(^\text{21}\)

At some point during the discussion of these proposals, Army officials apparently had a change of heart and began expressing renewed interest in the Executive Agency. General William W. Hartzog, who assumed command of TRADOC in October 1994, emerged as a strong advocate of the Army’s continued role as EA.

OSD officially resolved the EA controversy in early 1996 by issuing two Program Budget Decisions (PBDs), Numbers 362 and 718: PBD 362 (4 January 1996) confirmed the Army as DFLP Executive Agent, directed the Army to “fully fund the Defense Language Institute/Foreign Language Center as a readiness priority and sustainment mission,” and further stipulated that funding resources would be “identified within the JMIP [Joint Military Intelligence Program] vice the current identification within TIARA [Tactical Intelligence and Related Activities].”\(^\text{22}\) Both of these measures were intended to fence DLIFLC’s funding against “taxes.” Additionally, PBD 362 confirmed that OASD(C3I), with the support of the DFLP Policy Committee, would

\(^{18}\) E-mail message from Susan Schoeppler to Steven R. Solomon RE: CACH 1994-95, 2 Mar 98.

\(^{19}\) E-mail message from George Ostrom to Steve Solomon RE.: NPS Superintendents, 1 Apr 1998.

\(^{20}\) Like DLIFLC, NPS had come under the scrutiny of BRAC officials and faced the threat of relocation. Consolidating all BASOPS in the area under the Navy appealed to those elements of Naval leadership who wanted NPS to remain in Monterey.

\(^{21}\) Hugh McFarlane, former Cryptologic Training Services Representative, interviewed by Steve Solomon on 11 Aug 1997.

\(^{22}\) E-mail message from Lt. Col. Roderic Gale, Associate Provost/Dean of Students, to Steve Solomon, 3 Jun 1998. See also Jeffrey Richelson, *The U.S. Intelligence Community*, 2nd ed., Ballinger, Cambridge, Mass., 386-87. Richelson provides this definition: “The TIARA program is composed of three programs: Tactical Intelligence, Reconnaissance, Surveillance, and Target Acquisition; the DRSP [Defense Reconnaissance Support Program]; and the Tactical Cryptologic Program.”
exercise “overall policy control” over the DFLP; gave the NSA the Chair of the curriculum evaluation review process; and directed the Army and the Navy to continue seeking a resolution to the problem of regional BASOPS for the Monterey area. PBD 718 (8 February 1996) “combin[ed] base operations funding and responsibility for all DoD facilities in the Presidio of Monterey region with the Navy,” and reiterated that the Executive Agency was not to be transferred to the Navy.23

Nevertheless, the EA issue died hard. The day after PBD 718 was finalized, the Navy again sought the Executive Agency.24 Rumors that some other military service or defense agency would take over the DFLP EA persisted for some time. Unfortunately, the funding controversy proved even more resistant to resolution. Agreeing to “fully fund” DLIFLC was a condition of the Army’s retention of the Executive Agency and was spelled out clearly in PBD 362.25 That agreement notwithstanding, the future would show that the resourcing controversy was far from dead.

Thus the Executive Agency controversy ended much as it had begun three years earlier, with the Army as EA and the rest of the DFLP community dissatisfied with DLIFLC’s level of funding. Some things had changed, however. Although neither the Navy nor the NSA proposal was eventually accepted, each has bequeathed a legacy on the DFLP: The Inter Service Support Agreement (ISSA) between DLIFLC and the Navy can be seen as the heritage of the Navy proposal.26 The partial rewrite of DoD Directive 5160.41 and the corresponding joint regulations springing from the restructuring can be considered the legacy of the NSA proposal.27

The protracted uncertainty about the Executive Agency had far-reaching effects on the DFLP. This uncertainty was partially responsible for the unfinished state of the revision of the regulations governing the DFLP.28 The result was that a partial restructuring of the DFLP took place (as outlined above), but the program is still functioning under an unfinished regulation as of this writing (March 1999).29 Dealing with the EA controversy also occupied time and energy that the participants might more properly—and profitably—have spent on questions of resources and requirements.30

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23 Program Budget Decisions 362 (4 Jan 1996) and 718 (8 Feb 1996), hereafter cited as PBDs.
24 Excerpts of Minutes of DFLP Requirements and Resources Panel Meetings, 6 Nov 1995-Feb 1996, supplied by Ivy Gibian and Maj. Rusty Shughart, DLIFLC-W.
25 “[T]he Army expressed renewed commitment to the program and has requested to retain the mission. Based on this request and commitment, the Army is directed to ‘fully fund’ the Defense Language Institute/Foreign Language Center (DLI/FLC) as a readiness priority and sustainment mission.” PBD 362, 4 Jan 1996.
26 The ISSA is described in detail in Chapter VI.
28 According to Maj. Rusty Shughart, Deputy Director, DLIFLC-Washington, Ostrom hesitated to press ahead with the staff work necessary to complete the rewrite of the pertinent regulations, fearing that the selection of a new EA would render all such work obsolete. Shughart, interviewed by Steve Solomon, 5 Feb 1998.
29 Hugh McFarlane, interviewed by Steve Solomon, 11 Aug 97.
30 Excerpts of Minutes of DFLP Requirements and Resources Panel Meetings, 6 Nov 1995-Feb 1996, supplied by Ivy Gibian and Maj. Rusty Shughart, DLIFLC-W.
The Defense Foreign Language Program and the Budget Process

The 1993 Annual Command History identified several serious problems besetting the budget process that funds the DFLP. The 1994-95 time period saw the resolution of some, but not all, of these problems.

One serious difficulty was inherent to the budgetary process itself: namely, “the SMDR [Structure Manning Decision Review] validated resident language training requirements eighteen to twenty months prior to the Fiscal Year in question.”

This problem was solved, not by shortening the lead time, but by lengthening it to 30 months. The switch to longer-range planning—instituted by DLIFLC and the DFLP EA and then adopted Army wide—made justifying (and defending) the budget easier, allowing DLIFLC staff to make a better case for the funding required to meet the needs of the user agencies. The Training Requirements Arbitration Panel (TRAP) afforded the budgetary process crucial flexibility. The TRAP meetings allowed for adjusting the budget to current conditions, thus mitigating the possible detriments of planning far in advance of the given fiscal year. TRAP met five times annually—quarterly, plus a fifth meeting that normally became the MegaTRAP, or “Pre-SMDR.” MegaTRAP, a DLIFLC innovation that DA subsequently mandated for the entire Army, was a meeting between DLIFLC’s Directorate of Operations, Plans and Programs and the Service Program Managers that convened three to four days before the formal SMDR and allowed the participants to review, analyze, and correct the previous year’s programs. Use of the MegaTRAP transformed the SMDR from “a brutal two-day session of burning the midnight oil” into a process that took “about two painless hours.”

Command Language Program (CLP) training needs, especially those met by means of Video Teletraining (VTT) and Mobile Training Teams (MTT), represented another problem area for funding. VTT and MTT programs were becoming increasingly important in the unpredictable post-Cold War era, yet the Army’s Training and Doctrine Command refused to fund these programs through the normal channels (the Army Training Requirements and Resources Systems [ATRRS] and the SMDR) because VTT and MTT courses were considered non-resident. DLIFLC countered that because reporting linguist readiness had become mandatory under the Status of Resources and Training Systems (SORTS), and because VTT and MTT programs were needed to maintain unit linguist readiness, the normal DFLP budget should include VTT and MTT. TRADOC eventually agreed, but the formal inclusion of the programs in the DFLP budget did not entirely solve the problem: Command Language Program Managers (CLPMs) were inclined to use their entire budget allowance to pay for initial linguist training (Basic courses at DLIFLC) in order to cover billet shortfalls; sustainment training for existing linguists seemed unimportant by comparison.

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32 Art Gebbia, Scheduling Branch Chief, interviewed by Steve Solomon on 6 Aug 97, 7 Aug 97, and 4 Aug 98.
33 1993 DLIFLC Annual Command History, pp. 22-23.
34 Art Gebbia, Scheduling Branch Chief, interviewed by Steve Solomon on 6 Aug 97.
The issue of Foreign Language Proficiency Pay (FLPP or “propay”) languished during 1994 and 1995. FLPP, intended to encourage linguists to maintain their foreign language proficiency after the end of formal training, is problematic for a number of reasons: The high number of linguists in the U.S. military makes FLPP expensive, even when held to the modest sum of $100 per month per linguist. Thus, language maintenance competes for linguists’ off-duty hours with other maintenance tasks, tasks for which the military can afford to offer higher incentive pay—the Air Force, for example, offers $125 per month as an incentive for personnel to remain flight-qualified, but only $100 for language maintenance. Language maintenance is a difficult task that must be accomplished during the service member’s personal time and, depending on tour of duty, possibly with little help from his or her command. (Command Language Programs [CLPs] vary greatly from command to command. Some commands have CLPs with excellent materials, facilities such as language laboratories, and programs of study in place. Other commands have skeletal CLPs.) Varying approaches to determining FLPP from one branch of the military to the next add confusion to the issue. Perhaps most damning is the lack of any conclusive evidence that FLPP improves language proficiency maintenance at all. Given the scarcity of resources during these two years, it is hardly surprising that the thorny issue of FLPP was not resolved.

Shifting Requirements

By fiscal year (FY) 1993, enrollments at DLIFLC had already begun to reflect the enormous political changes that wrought the end of the Cold War. By FY 1996, the Institute’s enrollment levels mirrored the New World Order completely. The graph below includes all languages with an enrollment of at least 50 students and divides those languages into groups that exemplify the enrollment shifts in progress: The European (“NATO”) language group (Czech, German, Polish, and Russian), which boasted the highest enrollment before the fall of the Soviet Union, fell to second place, then to third. Due to the resurgent tensions in the Middle East and between North and South Korea, the Asian/Middle East group (Arabic, Chinese, Korean, and Persian) remained in first place, despite a downturn after FY 1994. The European/Latin American group (French and Spanish) showed the least fluctuation of the three, reflecting the steady demand for Spanish due to the ongoing War on Drugs.

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35 For an account of how the Army and DLIFLC adapted to meet the changes in language requirements, see “Language of Change,” Soldiers (Feb 1995).
36 1993 DLIFLC Annual Command History, p. 27.
37 Graph adapted from a slide from the DLIFLC & POM Command Briefing of 27 Jan 1999.
Action Officers

The aptly named Action Officers (AOs) are the real administrative workhorses of the Defense Foreign Language Program (DFLP). It is usually the AOs, who meet monthly, rather than their superiors on the DFLP Policy Committee (formerly the General Officer Steering Committee [GOSC]), who meet relatively seldom, who resolve conflicts and solve problems confronting the DFLP.

LTC John Daly, USA, was the AO for the DFLP in the office of the Assistant Chief of Staff for Operations and Plans. During this time, he was involved in an investigation of a friendly fire incident in Operation Desert Storm. Fortunately, disruption of DFLP business was limited because the investigation did not begin until some 60 to 90 days before the end of Daly’s tenure as Army AO, and Daly’s successor, LTC George Sumner, USA, arrived approximately 30 days before Daly relinquished the post.\(^{38}\)

Center for the Advancement of Language Learning

The Center for the Advancement of Language Learning (CALL) in Arlington, Virginia, exists to foster cooperation and coordination among the various entities in the federal

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government’s foreign language community, to develop course materials in languages for which commercial materials are scarce or non-existent, and to reach out to the business and academic communities. Since the Center’s inception in 1992, DLIFLC personnel have been actively involved in CALL initiatives, serving on the CALL Executive Board, Curriculum Focal Point Committee, and Research and Development Board; taking the lead in shaping CALL’s faculty training programs; participating in joint course development; and developing Computer Assisted Study (CAS) projects for joint agency use. In 1994 and 1995 as in previous years, DLIFLC personnel made great contributions to the federal foreign language community at large by participating in CALL’s activities. In return, CALL provided funding to DLIFLC’s Directorate of Curriculum and Instruction (for course development projects) and Directorate of Evaluations and Standardization (for the development of a language research Bulletin Board System and a set of computerized opinionnaires). Through participation in CALL, DLIFLC personnel also gained access to a wealth of resources, including the Less Commonly Taught Languages Database (a compilation of contact information for institutions offering courses of study in difficult-to-find languages), the Language Materials Project database (as of spring 1995, already offering dictionaries, grammars, multimedia, and other materials for over 35 languages and information on 1,000 more), and multimedia course materials developed by the Federal Language Training Laboratory (a federal lab in Arlington, Virginia, dedicated to developing foreign language education technology), which joined CALL on October 1, 1995.

Of all the activities and benefits available through CALL membership, the most significant for DLIFLC during the years 1994 and 1995 were the databases and the Unified Language Testing Plan, an effort to standardize the testing of speaking proficiency throughout the federal government. This effort and the extensive contributions to it on the part of DLIFLC personnel are detailed in Chapter IV.

Bureau for International Language Coordination

DLIFLC continued to participate in the Bureau for International Language Coordination (BILC) in 1994 and 1995. The 1994 BILC Conference was held 20-24 June in Turin, Italy.
with the theme “Quality Control.” Sobichevsky and Clifford represented the Institute. Susan Noel Rudy of the Foreign Service Institute (FSI) and Leslie Johnson of U. S. Army Europe’s Language Training Detachment rounded out the United States delegation. Clifford presented a paper in which he differentiated process evaluation (evaluation of procedures) from product evaluation (evaluation of outcomes) and suggested appropriate uses of each type in maintaining the quality of foreign language instruction. Sobichevsky and Clifford again represented DLIFLC the following year in Hürth, Germany. They were joined by two colleagues from the Defense Language Institute English Language Center (DLIELC), Colonel Robert Feeley, USAF, Commandant, and Peggy Goitia-Garza, Chief of Curriculum Development. The theme of the 1995 Conference, which met 15-19 May, was “Meeting the Increasing Language Training Requirements in the Post Cold War Era.” Clifford’s 1995 presentation concentrated on a topic of crucial importance to DLIFLC: the task of unifying general proficiency with the Final Learning Objectives mandated by the Institute’s user agencies. At both Conferences, Clifford and Sobichevsky participated in study groups composed of top foreign language educators and administrators from North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) member nations and observer nations.

and a series of seminars on topics such as foreign language instruction, testing, and educational technology.

47 A notable participant in the 1995 Conference was Sobichevsky’s Australian counterpart, Lieutenant Colonel Kenneth A. Brownrigg, Commanding Officer of the Australian Defence Force Language School (ADFLS) at Point Cook. Brownrigg later visited DLIFLC. In an interview with the Globe, he reiterated the message in Australia’s report to the BILC Conference: After a year of intense scrutiny of the costs of military foreign language training, the Australian government awarded the contract for foreign language training to ADFLS rather than to any civilian contractor. “National Report - Australia,” 1995 BILC Report, pp. 89-91; “G’Day! Commanding Officer from the Australian Defense Force Language School pays a visit,” Globe (Jun 1995), 15.
CHAPTER II
Managing the Defense Language Institute

As 1994 began, everyone at the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) could look back on an eventful and stressful 1993: A new commandant, COL Vladimir I. Sobichevsky, USA, had arrived in January and had immediately faced the threat that the Institute would be closed or relocated by the Base Relocation and Closure Commission. A 1992 decision by the Secretary of the Army to save scarce defense dollars by closing Fort Ord early (in September 1994 rather than in fiscal 1997) had burdened the Institute’s top leaders with an ongoing set of new responsibilities. The Final Learning Objectives (FLOs), a series of linguistic tasks the military services wanted DLIFLC graduates to be able to perform, were introduced into the Institute’s curricula, causing confusion and controversy among the faculty. Shifts in world politics had required the layoff of instructors in some language programs and the hiring of instructors in other programs. Finally, in 1993 Sobichevsky had planned and executed the first two phases of a three-phase reorganization of the Institute’s schools and support activities designed to make more efficient use of both personnel and space.¹

No one at the Institute in early 1994 could have been blamed for hoping that the immediate future might prove more tranquil—but if anyone actually harbored such hopes, they were dashed. The impending deadline for the closure of Fort Ord forced the acceleration of some very complicated tasks, such as the cleanup and disposal of former federal properties and the standup of the DLIFLC’s own garrison while the Fort Ord garrison stood down. These tasks—along with the underfunding and restructuring of the top levels of the Defense Foreign Language Program, the ongoing implementation of the FLOs, the continuing work on the Faculty Personnel System (FPS), efforts to assure the re-affirmation of the DLIFLC’s accreditation, and another threat of relocation or closure under BRAC ’95—combined to make the years 1994 and 1995 anything but “business as usual.”

Top Leadership
A combination of continuity and change in leadership characterized this two-year period. Sobichevsky, who had served as commandant since 22 January 1993, became installation commander as well on 1 October 1994, and remained at the helm until 13 December 1995.² Dr. Ray T. Clifford continued to serve as provost, the DLIFLC’s highest-ranking civilian and the official responsible for academic issues. Clifford had held this position for over a decade. Other “long-timers” were Lt. Col. Roderic Gale, USAF, who had become the Institute’s associate provost/dean of students in 1993 and would serve throughout 1995 and beyond, and Col. William H. Oldenburg II, USAF, chief of staff since February 1993, who would remain at the Institute until early 1996.

¹ 1993 DLIFLC Annual Command History, pp. 29-31, 36-43.
One position that did change hands was that of assistant commandant. The year 1994 began with Col. Ronald E. Bergquist, USAF, holding this office. Bergquist, a graduate of DLIFLC’s Arabic program, was assigned to the Institute in 1991. He served initially under COL Donald C. Fischer, USA, and then under Sobichevsky, both of whom had reputations as activist Commandants. Nevertheless, Bergquist was often frustrated by the slow rate of change. He ascribed the difficulty in effecting change to the fact that not all personnel at the Institute were military. Bergquist also perceived considerable disagreement—even among top management—about the exact nature of the Institute’s mission. Consequently, in his last year at DLIFLC, Bergquist became a vigorous proponent of Total Quality Management (TQM), which he saw as a way of improving communication and forcing agreement on the mission.

Bergquist retired and was replaced as assistant commandant in October 1994 by Col. Robert E. Busch II, USAF. Busch was a graduate of DLIFLC’s Russian program who had served as director of Technical Assessments with the National Air Intelligence Center at Wright-Patterson AFB, Ohio, before returning to take his place in the Institute’s Command Group. He was to remain at DLIFLC until his own retirement in 1996. Busch was a strong advocate of using computer technology to enhance language teaching. He envisioned CD-ROM-based programs that would free teachers from repetitive tasks such as conducting drills, provide students with more opportunities for practice, and automatically collect data on student strengths and weaknesses to assist teachers in targeting their instruction and remediation efforts. Busch also advocated increasing Foreign Language Proficiency Pay as an incentive for service members to maintain their hard-won language proficiency while in the field.

On 30 September 1994, Fort Ord formally ceased to exist, and on the following day, the Presidio of Monterey was reborn as the 17th installation in the Training and Doctrine Command (TRADOC). With this change in status came the requirement for a garrison and a garrison commander. COL Ila Mettee-McCutcheon, USA, arrived from NATO (North Atlantic Treaty Organization) Headquarters in Brussels on 14 October 1994 to take command of the U.S. Army Garrison, Presidio of Monterey. Mettee-McCutcheon, a psychologist, had entered the Women’s Army Corps in 1971 and served in psychological operations until 1974, when she moved into the field of intelligence. She had studied Spanish at DLIFLC in 1987, prior to a deployment to Panama.

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3 1993 DLIFLC Annual Command History, p. 35.
4 Col. Ronald E. Bergquist, USAF, DLIFLC Assistant Commandant, interviewed by Dr. James C. McNaughton and Dr. Stephen M. Payne, 20 Oct 1994.
6 Col. Robert E. Busch II, interviewed by Dr. Stephen Payne 17 May 1996.
Standing up the Garrison

On 3 August 1994, LTC Jan Karcz, USA, arrived to serve as acting garrison commander pending the arrival of Mettee-McCutcheon. Karcz’s first task was to “work with the staff sections that were going to be assigned to the garrison element and try to pull them together.” Although Oldenburg had begun to work on effecting the transition of DLIFLC from a tenant of Fort Ord to an independent installation, this work had consisted of troubleshooting specific issues rather than a coordinated effort focused on procedures. One problem Karcz faced was a serious shortage of personnel—initially only two positions were authorized, the commander and commander’s secretary. Fortunately, the DLIFLC was able to “inherit” Frances Kelly, long-time secretary to Army COL Thomas F. Ellzey, Jr., Fort Ord’s outgoing installation commander. Kelly and SGM Richard Higdem, USA, whom DLIFLC CSM Thomas Bugary decided to allow to remain as the DLIFLC Garrison Sergeant Major, provided the new garrison with a crucial link to the past. As valuable as these individuals were, more officers were still necessary for the garrison to perform its duties properly. It would be almost a year after Karcz’s arrival before the garrison could boast a permanent operations officer, MAJ Mike Scott, USA.9

On 14 October 1994, Mettee-McCutcheon arrived and assumed command. Her task was complicated by a number of special difficulties: Standing up the new garrison involved the transfer of functions from the former Fort Ord, which had been under Forces Command (FORSCOM), to the new Presidio of Monterey Garrison, which was under a different major command, TRADOC. The closure of Fort Ord was an enormous undertaking in and of itself. Many employees had been demoralized by the closure and feared that ongoing cutbacks would cost them their jobs. Also, DLIFLC personnel had often felt that the support they received from Fort Ord represented the division’s “leftovers.” Mettee-McCutcheon worked hard to change that perception and to create a team that would provide DLIFLC with excellent customer service.10

Another challenge Mettee-McCutcheon faced were the three Interservice Support Agreements (ISAs) between DLIFLC and the Naval Postgraduate School (NPS). One of these, concerning fire prevention and protection, was largely successful for both institutions. The others did not function as well. The public works ISA, which had a value of over $1.13 million, proved especially problematic.11 Like the other ISAs, this agreement was written and signed before Mettee-McCutcheon’s arrival or the existence of the Presidio Garrison. In the opinion of the new Garrison Commander, the crafters of the agreement, though well-intentioned, lacked sufficient garrison experience to design the document correctly. Within six months it became apparent that the Army expected things that the Navy was not providing, and the Navy wanted more detailed guidance. A series of meetings ensued, but renegotiations were not completed until late 1995.12

Many areas that fell to the new Garrison Commander had previously belonged to Oldenburg, the Chief of Staff. Oldenburg was an involved, hands-on manager who worked many

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9 LTC Jan Karcz, interviewed by Dr. Stephen Payne, 8 Sep 1995.
10 COL Ila Mettee-McCutcheon, Garrison Commander, interviewed by Dr. Stephen Payne, 19 Sep 1996.
11 For the value of the ISAs discussed here, see “From the Cold War to the 21st Century,” commandant’s briefing dated 1 Jan 1995.
12 COL Ila Mettee-McCutcheon, Garrison Commander, interviewed by Dr. Stephen Payne, 19 Sep 1996.
issues personally. A good example was his involvement in the proposed transfer of DLIFLC from Army to Navy “ownership.” He wrote an information paper that outlined the advantages to the Navy of taking over the Institute, including increased efficiency and lower maintenance costs relative to the existing DLIFLC-NPS ISAs.  

After a lengthy transition period, Oldenburg departed for a new assignment in early 1996 and his position was eliminated.

Mission and Vision

In 1994, U. S. Army leadership showed a growing appreciation of the importance of language-qualified soldiers. Crises in various parts of the world—the Persian Gulf region, Haiti, and Somalia—had highlighted the need for linguists in the field. The Army required personnel with second-language skills in Military Intelligence, Psychological Operations, Civil Affairs, and in the Foreign Area Officers Program as well. This was a welcome development for the DLIFLC after a year of closure/relocation threats and large-scale Reductions-In-Force. And thanks to the tireless efforts of Sobichevsky and his staff, the DLIFLC was able to position itself as the best provider of language training to meet the needs of the Army and all branches of the military.

During 1994 and 1995, the Institute’s leaders made a concerted effort to “get the word out” to user agencies, faculty and staff, and officials in Washington, DC, by means of vision statements. The word was that the Institute was totally focused on customer service, committed to ever-increasing levels of quality, and prepared to hold employees responsible for their role in student learning outcomes. In a headline article in the January 1994 Globe, Clifford outlined a “DLIFLC Academic Vision” consisting of five “core values”: high standards, accountability, professionalism, efficiency, and service. Clifford pledged that eighty percent of the Institute’s graduates would meet or exceed the proficiency goals and the user-defined learning objectives. The Faculty Personnel System and the Consolidated Team Configuration would work together to promote accountability. Program evaluations would be informed by data from such sources as the Defense Language Proficiency Tests and the Final Learning Objectives Skills Tests. DLIFLC teachers would put their students first and strive for constant improvement in the instructional process. Eliminating unnecessary layers of management and communicating effectively would improve efficiency. The Institute would provide training for military linguists throughout their careers and would help user agencies define their requirements.

13 Readers interested in more information on the proposed realignment of the DLIFLC under the Department of the Navy are referred to Chapter I. Also, the DLIFLC Command History Office has an extensive collection of Oldenburg’s files. The information paper and other documents relating to the proposal to transfer the DLIFLC from Army to Navy control can be found under “Chief of Staff Oldenburg Files, BRAC, IS.”
Throughout his DLIFLC tenure, Sobichevsky continued to provide what Bergquist identified as the Commandant’s major strengths: leadership and heart. Sobichevsky had come up through the ranks and had a reputation of caring about those under his command. He made a point of listening to people. In countering the ongoing BRAC threat, Sobichevsky mounted a two-pronged attack, holding the Institute’s faculty and staff responsible for student learning outcomes while informing policymakers in Washington, DC, that the DLIFLC was indispensable to the nation’s defense, better at what it did than any competitor every could be, and irreproducible. In April 1994, Sobichevsky underscored and expanded on Clifford’s message with an even more forceful statement of his own. Sobichevsky briefly recapped the difficult previous year, then turned to matters of ongoing concern: He exhorted all teachers to support and commit to the team teaching concept; pledged to emphasize “the harmonious merging of both the military and civilian expertise to meet the Institute’s mission objectives,” including efforts by the four student troop units to provide Headstart and after-hours assistance for struggling students; expressed his support for the Military Language Instructor (MLI) 3 Plus professional development program; and reminded all Institute personnel that “there are still survival battles ahead of us.”

In 1993, Sobichevsky had already pushed through two phases of his three-phase reorganization of the Institute. Phase I had reorganized the schools. Phase II had created OPP as the single point of contact for both resident and non-resident foreign language training. Phase III was to be an internal reorganization of the schools that would streamline management and improve efficiency. This last phase included the abolition of the Academic Coordinator (AC) positions, the establishment of non-supervisory team leaders, and the requirement that the military Associate Deans (ADs) provide input to the school Deans on the Chairs’ management performance.

Unfortunately, Phase III could not be implemented until the Federal Personnel System (FPS) was in place. Under certain circumstances, Phase III might require, for example, that an employee who had been a GS-12 department chair be reassigned to duty as a classroom teacher. The General Schedule (GS) system allowed for temporary reassignments, called details, but limited the length and frequency of such assignments. The FPS, however, used a rank-in-person system rather than rank-in-position; hence, the same employee could be assigned to teaching, supervisory, or managerial duties, as needed. Because the FPS was delayed, only the requirement for AD input to the deans concerning the chairs’ management performance was implemented by the close of 1995. After the FPS was in place, existing coordinator positions (two per team) were abolished in favor of a single team leader per team. A new provision was added that required

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17 “DLIFLC: Where we’ve been, where we are, and where we’re going,” Globe (29 Apr 1994), 2-3.
18 Readers interested in Phases I and II of the reorganization are directed to the 1993 DLIFLC Annual Command History, pp. 38-43.
19 Before the FPS was instituted, teaching teams had two GS-11 team coordinators, one faculty coordinator and another in charge of coordinating student matters. Overlapping functions prevented the two-coordinator system
input from the ACs to the Deans on the Chairs’ academic performance (parallel to the ADs’ input on managerial issues), but eventually, the AC positions were eliminated as well.  

One area that received the Commandant’s special attention was the FLOs, which were a key management concern because of their importance to DLIFLC’s user agencies. Sobichevsky’s point man for this issue was Associate Provost and Dean of Students Lieutenant Colonel Roderic Gale, USAF. Gale came to the DLIFLC from U.S. Central Command in August 1992 and became Associate Dean of the Middle East School. In June 1993, Sobichevsky elevated the position of dean of students to associate provost and appointed Gale, who immersed himself in the topic and quickly became the Institute’s FLO expert.

Surviving BRAC ’95

In dealing with BRAC ‘95, DLIFLC’s defenders once again faced two threats, federal budget cutters and lobbyists—specifically, lobbyists employed by the “Fort Huachuca 50,” a citizens’ group from Sierra Vista, Arizona, dedicated to getting the DLIFLC relocated to their area. As they had done during BRAC ‘93, members of the Fort Huachuca 50 expended considerable time and money generating statistics to bolster their claims that DLIFLC could be operated more cheaply in Arizona than in California. However, their hopes were dashed even more thoroughly than they were under BRAC ‘93: as of 8 March 1995, DLIFLC had escaped both the Army and the Secretary of Defense base-closure lists for BRAC ’95. However, the BRAC commission had until 17 May to add bases to the list, which would be submitted to President Clinton on 1 July. Dan Albert, mayor of Monterey, stated that vigorous lobbying that began as an attempt to get DLIFLC off the BRAC ‘93 list had never ceased. In 1993, BRAC commissioners had asked that DLIFLC and NPS work together and with Monterey city officials to reduce costs for both schools. The renewed threat of base closure stimulated some innovative thinking after 1993, including the provision of maintenance services at the Presidio by the city of Monterey, the sharing of military recreational facilities with the city in return for city funding of facility improvements, and Monterey City Manager Fred Meurer’s lease-back proposal, under which the city would lease the Presidio from the Army, then lease back only those facilities needed to run DLIFLC. Monterey would provide essential services such as public works and police and fire protection in return for the lease payments. Rep. Sam Farr, D-Carmel, supported the lease-back concept with legislation that would allow military installations to deal directly from functioning well and led to the abolition of the positions. E-mail from Dr. Ray Clifford to Steve Solomon, “RE: Questions for 1994-95 History,” 2 Mar 1999.

21 “Associate Provost: a new position at DLIFLC,” Globe (29 Oct 1993), 7. For detailed information on the FLOs, see Chapter III.
22 “Monterey group set to counter Arizona DLIFLC bid,” Monterey County Herald, (28 Dec 1994), 1A, 10A.
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with cities. But even the favorable BRAC decision in the spring of 1995 did not guarantee the Presidio and DLIFLC would not face new threats in the future. Deputy Secretary of Defense John Deutsch noted that the 1995 BRAC list excluded major Army maneuver posts and training centers, and warned that such installations could be on BRAC lists in the next few years.

In the end, Mettee-McCutchon decided against the lease-back concept. Instead, in early 1994 she began a series of discussions that would culminate in three agreements with the Naval Postgraduate School to provide public works support for the Installation and those parcels of the former Fort Ord that had not yet been transferred to other owners.

Resourcing the Program

The closure of Fort Ord and the standup of DLIFLC’s own garrison caused a diversification of DLIFLC’s budget. Through fiscal year (FY) 1994, DLIFLC had only one all-inclusive budget category. Beginning in FY95, DLIFLC & POM had two funding categories, Mission and Base Operations (BASOPS). The jump in the total budget from approximately $53 million in FY94 to approximately $98 million in FY95 reflects this change.

At the national level (namely, that of the Defense Foreign Language Program [DFLP]), the so-called “Command Tax” or “Command Bill” continued to bedevil the funding of federal foreign language training. As funding mandated by Congress filtered down to the DLIFLC through the intervening layers of command, higher layers reserved the right to “tax” those beneath them. From the Army’s viewpoint, the DLIFLC was simply one TRADOC school among many, all of which were subject to TRADOC’s taxation. From the standpoint of the greater DFLP, however, the DLIFLC was a Department of Defense (DoD) activity that trained members of all the Armed Services and a recipient of fenced funding that should have been legally exempt from TRADOC taxation. DLIFLC leaders, as well as leaders in OSD, the defense agencies, and the other services, remained concerned that the Army was not giving DLIFLC adequate funding for its mission. This issue would remain a bone of contention throughout 1994-95 and beyond.

Change of Command

Sobichevsky was honored in a retirement and change of command ceremony on 13 December 1995. LTG James T. Scott, Commanding General of the U.S. Army Special

23 “Monterey bases escape hit list,” San Jose Mercury News (8 Mar 1995), 1B, 4B. Leon Panetta, who had represented Monterey in the U. S. House of Representatives since 1977, had been instrumental in protecting DLIFLC from BRAC ’93. He left the House later that year to serve as White House Chief of Staff. Farr was elected to his seat in 1993.


25 Figures in this section are taken from the Fiscal Year Cost Reviews for the fiscal years 1994 and 1995, published by Resource Management, Budget Division. Note that the figures cited here do not reflect $5 million in FY94 and $2 million in FY95 cited in the Cost Reviews as a grant to the Monterey Institute of International Studies (MIIS). These funds were not part of DLIFLC’s (or POM’s) budget at all; accountants in Resource Management simply administered a grant to MIIS from the Office of Economic Adjustment.

26 For more information on the Command Tax, see Chapter I.
Operations Command (Airborne) and MG Joe N. Ballard, TRADOC Chief of Staff, were in attendance. The entire December 1995 edition of the *Globe*, which featured a full-color cover and a color portrait of the outgoing Commandant, was dedicated to Sobichevsky’s nearly 40 years of military service and his accomplishments at the DLIFLC. Officers who worked under his command praised his ability to lead effectively without micromanaging. Clifford credited Sobichevsky with helping the Institute to improve proficiency results by eleven percentage points in 1995 alone. Especially significant in Clifford’s view were Sobichevsky’s support for the Institute’s Proficiency Enhancement Plan and his addition of a breakout room to the Consolidated Team Configuration.

Sobichevsky was succeeded as Commander and Commandant by Mettee-McCutcheon, who was to serve until the arrival of COL Daniel D. Devlin, USA, in February 1996. She turned over command of the Garrison to Karcz, whom Sobichevsky had designated Deputy Garrison Commander, but retained oversight of Garrison activities as well as her membership in the Fort Ord Reuse Authority, where she represented the U.S. Army.

As 1995 drew to a close, everyone at the DLIFLC could look back on the last 24 months as a time of great accomplishments. The Institute had survived threats of closure and relocation and had made great strides in quality and customer service. Mettee-McCutcheon had begun to weld diverse support organizations into a new garrison command. From both a military management and an academic standpoint, the Institute was moving in the right direction.

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CHAPTER III
Resident Language Training

The primary mission of the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) is to provide foreign language training at the Presidio of Monterey, California. This chapter details the DLIFLC’s resident training programs during calendar years 1994 and 1995, as well as related academic issues.

Reaffirmation of Accreditation

In January 1994, in preparation for a visit from a team of educators representing the Accreditation Commission for Community and Junior Colleges (ACCJC) of the Western Association of Schools and Colleges (WASC), the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center published its Accreditation Self-Study Report. This report was the culmination of an intensive, year-long examination of every factor that affected the Institute’s ability to accomplish its teaching mission: faculty, administration, programs, student services, financial and physical resources. Reaffirmation of DLIFLC’s accredited status (first granted in 1979) would depend upon the validation of the Self-Study Report by the ACCJC team, as well as the team’s own observations while visiting the Institute.

In addition to presenting a “snapshot” of the state of the Institute in 1993 and early 1994, the report also addressed eleven recommendations made by the previous ACCJC team, which had visited DLIFLC in 1989. Although the report’s authors were able to marshal evidence that DLIFLC had acted on all eleven recommendations, some issues from 1989 remained unresolved. The most significant of these involved Recommendation 2, which urged vigorous pursuit of approval for the Faculty Personnel System (FPS). However, creation of the FPS was proving a more arduous task than anyone could have foreseen in 1989. In fact, the legislation authorizing the FPS was not approved until October 1992. And passage of the legislation was not the end of the process, but only the beginning. The FPS could not become reality until an implementation plan was crafted—a process that would open a veritable Pandora’s box of regulatory changes—and approved by the Department of the Army and the Department of Defense.

The accreditation team visited DLIFLC 22-24 March 1994. Despite some misgivings about the delay in implementing the FPS, the level of faculty involvement in decision-making, and the lack of racial and ethnic diversity among the student population (relative to that found in a typical civilian student body), the team was sufficiently impressed with the Institute to recommend that DLIFLC’s accreditation once again be reaffirmed.

Although the team’s own Evaluation Report was generally positive, it highlighted several concerns, one of which deserves special mention: DLIFLC lacked the authority to grant degrees. Originally a feature of the proposed legislation creating the FPS, degree-granting status had not survived the House-Senate reconciliation process in 1992. This issue was crucial because of a change in accreditation policy: Since DLIFLC’s previous reaffirmation in 1989, the ACCJC had

1 The FPS, originally proposed in 1985 as the “New Personnel System,” is discussed in detail below.
3 Ibid., pp. 21-22.
made degree-granting status a condition of accreditation. However, thanks to the timely efforts of the Provost, Dr. Ray T. Clifford, the Institute was able to satisfy this requirement by means of an articulation agreement with Monterey Peninsula College (MPC). On 4 February 1994, Clifford signed an agreement with MPC that allowed DLIFLC language courses to count toward MPC’s AA degree in foreign language.⁶

The ACCJC team was supportive, but understandably cautious, in its remarks about the DLIFLC-MPC cooperative AA degree program.⁷ After all, the articulation agreement had been signed only weeks before the team’s arrival at DLIFLC. However, the program proved to be a resounding success for all concerned. In its first year of operation alone, the cooperative degree program enabled forty-four students to turn their hard work at DLIFLC into an AA degree recognized by the educational community at large.⁸ Over the next few years the program would grow in popularity, simultaneously bringing increased enrollment to MPC, benefiting more military language students, and maintaining DLIFLC’s status as an accredited institution.

The Accreditation Commission approved renewal of DLIFLC’s accreditation for six more years, with the next review scheduled for 2000.⁹ As a result, the Institute’s students continued to receive college credits for their course work, and now, the opportunity to earn an AA degree.

Proficiency Standards and Results

During 1994, DoD language training came under the scrutiny of the U.S. Senate Committee on Appropriations. Congress had tasked the General Accounting Office (GAO) to write a report on the training of military linguists working in the field of intelligence. GAO released the report on 12 July 1994, and—at first glance, at least—the news was mostly bad: Approximately one-third of DLIFLC students graduated without attaining the goal of Level 2 proficiency, and the military services routinely granted waivers to such students to allow them to proceed to follow-on technical training.¹⁰ During their stay at technical schools, students could

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⁵ Evaluation Report, p. 12; 1992 DLIFLC Annual Command History, p. 34.
⁶ Languages Transfer Credit Agreement between Monterey Peninsula College and Defense Language Institute, 4 Feb 1994.
⁸ According to DLIFLC’s Education Center, under the Cooperative Degree Program, 4 AA degrees were awarded in Spring 1994, 6 in Summer 1994, 18 in Fall 1994, and 16 in Spring 1995, for a total of 44 since the program was initiated in February 1994. Monterey Peninsula College/Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Associate Degree Program, 20 Jul 1998. For a student’s perspective on the program, see “Take your knowledge to college: DLIFLC students can now earn degree through MPC,” Globe (Sep 1994), 17.
¹⁰ DLIFLC and other federal agencies measure language proficiency against the Interagency Language Roundtable scale. Level 2 is considered “Limited Working Proficiency.” A person rated Level 2 in a given
suffer a decline in proficiency of as much as 25 percent—a loss in ability that most, but not all, students redressed after a year in the field. Language Proficiency Pay (incentive pay for linguists who maintained a given level of foreign language proficiency) was not handled in the same way by all four military services, and Command Language Programs (CLPs), which were intended to help linguists in the field maintain their proficiency, varied widely in quality. Moreover, the Army was the only branch of the military that had regulations in place requiring unit commanders to establish CLPs. The report asserted that the DoD’s two language programs in the national capital region, the NSA’s National Cryptologic School and DLI-Washington’s Contract Foreign Language Training Program, wasted resources by failing to coordinate training with one another.\textsuperscript{11} The press seized on this report and sensationalized it, touting it as evidence of egregious waste at the Pentagon.\textsuperscript{12}

A closer and more balanced examination, however, revealed that the news was not all bad: DLIFLC graduate proficiency had climbed dramatically between FY85 and FY92; the Institute’s students outshone graduates of college foreign language programs; the Army was in the process of revamping AR 220-1, Unit Status Reporting (Field Organizations), to make linguist DLPT scores a reportable item on unit readiness reports.\textsuperscript{13} Nevertheless, the report made the need for improvement in federal language training programs abundantly clear.

In this climate, DLIFLC’s considerable progress toward its proficiency goal—that 80 percent of its graduates attain Level 2 proficiency in speaking, reading, and listening—during 1994 and 1995 was especially welcome news. In 1993, DLIFLC’s overall graduate proficiency stood at 51 percent. The figure rose to 53 percent in the following year, then surged to 64 percent in 1995.\textsuperscript{14}


\textsuperscript{12} “Parlez-Vous Waste? Uncle Sam blows $78m to teach GI’s foreign languages,” \textit{Star}, 10 Jan 1995.

\textsuperscript{13} GAO Report, pp. 5, 11. In contrast to some national publications, the local press was quite sympathetic. See “GAO study shows DLIFLC stacks up well,” Monterey County \textit{Herald} (29 Jul 1994).

\textsuperscript{14} See “Overall Proficiency Results, Basic Programs,” \textit{DLIFLC Program Summary}, Dec 1997, p. 24. The chart “Overall Proficiency Results (%%)” was generated from data presented in the Command Briefing of 27 Jan 1999.
A number of factors contributed to the Institute’s success: 1993 saw the end of the extensive reductions in force (RIFs) that had undermined faculty morale; in 1994, the faculty roster stabilized and morale once again improved. The reorganization of 1993 made the Consolidated Team Configuration (CTC) and true team teaching possible, with the result that teachers were able to provide each student with more individual attention and more speaking practice.15 The Institute placed increased emphasis on teacher training, doubling the duration of the Instructor Certification Course (ICC), which could now last four weeks for new faculty. In 1994 the Final Learning Objectives (see below) began to assume a central role in DLIFLC language instruction. By October of that year, all programs except Serbian/Croatian (for which the curriculum had not yet been established) included mandatory testing of the FLO Subskills.16 The Subskills Test Batteries had the effect of driving salutary changes in DLIFLC’s curricula, sharpening the focus on practical requirements and skill integration without compromising the role of proficiency. The progress toward the 80 percent goal was even more impressive because it was achieved during a time when shifts in student enrollment and instructor staffing levels created turmoil in two of the Institute’s largest programs, Arabic and Korean.17

16 The FLO Subskills were subsequently renamed “Performance FLOs.”
The charts below give an overview of proficiency results DLIFLC’s five largest programs.\(^{18}\)

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\(^{18}\) These charts were generated using data from the *Annual Program Review*, 1 Jan 1995, and the *DLIFLC Program Summary FY 95*, Dec 1995.
Final Learning Objectives/Course Development

The Final Learning Objectives (FLOs) are a set of tasks that DLIFLC graduates must be able to perform in their target languages. The FLOs were defined for DLIFLC by its most important user agencies in two documents, “Cryptologic Final Learning Objectives” (published by the National Security Agency/Central Security Service [NSA/CSS] in December 1992) and “General Intelligence Final Learning Objectives” (published by the Defense Intelligence Agency [DIA] in September 1993). Because of the similarity of the two documents, the creation of a unified program for all basic course students was possible.19 There are 33 FLOs, divided into 4 categories: The language skills of listening, reading, speaking, and writing (L/R/S/W) are termed the 4 Proficiency FLOs. (Hence, the FLOs include proficiency.)20 FLO Subskills or Performance FLOs can be considered specific military applications of the more general Proficiency FLOs. Among the 16 Subskills are such tasks as writing down the gist of a conversation or broadcast in the target language. The 8 Content FLOs are cognitive information, such as the culture of the target language and the history of the target culture. Ancillary FLOs cover such tasks as using a dictionary or other reference work (easy in some languages, very difficult in others) and recognizing a dialect. There are a maximum of 8 Ancillary FLOs, but not all of them apply to all languages. For example, recognizing a dialect is not an important skill for U.S. military students of German or French, but it is vital to students of Arabic.21

19 “Final Learning Objectives for Basic Level Language Programs in the Defense Foreign Language Program,” Mar 1995, p. 5. This booklet, which contains both the NSA and DIA documents, is the authoritative source of information on the FLOs.
20 The Defense Language Proficiency Tests (DLPTs) assess the target-language proficiency of DLIFLC students. The Speaking Proficiency Test (SPT) takes the form of an interview between the candidate and two testers. Listening and reading proficiency are measured by means of multiple-choice tests. The writing proficiency of DLIFLC students is not tested. (Writing is less crucial for military linguists than are speaking, listening, and reading, and the inherent difficulties of designing and scoring have so far prevented the development of a writing test. DLIFLC does test the writing proficiency of prospective faculty and bilingual secretaries, who must write an essay both in English and in the other language in question. These essays are then scored by trained proficiency testers.)
DLIFLC began to emphasize the FLOs in 1994. Integrating them into the Institute’s existing programs of instruction was a massive undertaking, requiring teamwork among faculty and staff from various directorates. In order to create a sense of urgency among the faculty and drive changes in the Institute’s curricula, the administration elected to begin developing FLO tests and to require that these tests be administered in all language programs (except for Serbian/Croatian) by October 1994. By combining closely related FLOs such as the two gisting tasks described above, DLIFLC test developers succeeded in designing a battery of only 10 tests that assessed all 16 Subskills.22 Even with these economies, however, writing the FLO tests for so many programs was an enormous task. Because the test development staff of the Evaluation and Standardization (ES) directorate could not possibly complete all the needed tests by the October deadline, teachers from the schools had to assist in the development process. In some cases, faculty had to develop tests without any help from ES staff. Tests developed by ES or with ES assistance were termed external FLO tests, as opposed to internal FLO tests, which were developed by the schools “in-house,” without ES help. The time required to develop FLO tests did not vary from language to language, so beginning with the highest-enrollment programs was the most logical approach. Consequently, ES began by developing the Russian tests. However, because subsequent development was tied to the availability of teachers to leave the classroom and write test items, it was not always possible to target the large programs first.23

Educating the faculty about the FLOs was as vital as the test batteries themselves. After years of focusing solely on proficiency in the four language skills, the Institute’s teachers now needed to understand that proficiency was part of a larger set of abilities military linguists were required to develop during their language training. Trainers from the Faculty and Staff Development Division conducted FLO seminars for faculty from all schools, teaching four iterations in 1994. And because the FLOs were now the core of the Institute’s training programs, FLO training became as integral a part of faculty development as the basic instruction DLIFLC had been providing to new teachers for years.24

As an additional method of supporting and popularizing the FLOs, Dr. Maurice Funke, Academic Coordinator of East European School I, began publishing Bridges, an in-house periodical featuring suggestions for FLO-related teaching activities and reviews of relevant academic books, in May 1994.25

Subsequently, the Bridges/FLOs concept thoroughly permeated the Institute’s course development efforts. When development of the new Spanish Basic Course began in March 1995, FLOs were included from the very first lesson, and the military emphasis of the Bridge activities

22 Ibid.
23 Lt. Col. Roderic Gale, interviewed by Steve Solomon, 22 Sep 98.
25 The term “Bridges” stems from the work of Dr. Earl Stevick of Georgetown University, whose work concentrated on the design of activities to “bridge” the gap between students’ existing proficiency and the Final Learning Objectives. See Bridges: A Publication Dedicated to Teaching the Final Learning Objectives (May 1994), 1.
became stronger and more explicit as the course progressed.\textsuperscript{26} Much the same was true of the new Korean Basic Course, \textit{Korean in Context}. A mini-Bridge ended each chapter, and after every four chapters there was a major Bridge. With the exception of word-for-word translation and the transcription of decontextualized numbers—the writing down of strings of numbers dictated without any intervening words, a task DLIFLC graduates practice in their follow-on cryptologic training at Goodfellow AFB as a way of sharpening their ability to extract information from enemy transmissions—all FLOs were targeted.\textsuperscript{27}

\textit{Faculty Personnel System}

When the Accreditation Commission for Community and Junior Colleges (ACCJC) team visited DLIFLC in early 1994 to assess the Institute’s worthiness for reaffirmed accredited status, one of the few serious complaints team members had was the lack of progress in implementing the Faculty Personnel System (FPS). The burden of dealing with the waves of Base Realignment and Closure (BRAC) activity that had begun in 1991 and 1993, coupled with other high-level challenges such as the major reorganization of DLIFLC’s schools, consumed much of the time and energy of the Institute’s top officials and frustrated the Provost’s stated intent to institute the FPS during 1994.\textsuperscript{28} True, the Institute could not boast of having reached any major milestones since the passage of the FPS legislation in October 1992. However, it would be incorrect to assume that the FPS issue was not progressing. By 1995 at any rate, the Institute’s leaders were wrestling with the host of unforeseen complexities that attended such a fundamental change in DLIFLC’s employment practices. Led by Chief of Staff Colonel William Oldenburg II, USAF, members of top management, the Civilian Personnel Office, and National Federation of Federal Employees (NFFE) Local 1263 were hammering out the details of the FPS implementation plan, drawing on examples from civilian colleges and from Department of Defense schools such as the National Defense University and the Army War College.\textsuperscript{29}

The issues delaying the implementation of the new system were many, varied, and in some instances thorny. The Institute had to craft a compensation package generous enough to attract faculty of the highest caliber without exceeding budgetary limits, design a system of selection boards to perform the task of hiring, and decide on procedures governing advancement in rank and merit pay. Union officials demanded adequate safeguards for personnel transferring into the FPS, and were naturally interested in the potential effect of the FPS on the Institute’s RIF authority. DLIFLC required plans for a transition period to ease the entry of eligible employees

\textsuperscript{26} Deanna Tovar, interviewed by Steve Solomon, 18 Aug 97.
\textsuperscript{27} Dr. Patricia Boylan, interviewed by Steve Solomon, 19 Aug 97. Concerning translation, Boylan notes that \textit{Korean in Context} does include translation in the sense of gisting in English, which is in fact what the military requires. This is never called translation, however, because of the danger that teachers who learned English via grammar translation might try to institute that method in their classes.
\textsuperscript{28} 1993 DLIFLC Annual Command History, p. 54.
\textsuperscript{29} Dr. Stephen Payne, Historian’s Notes, “Bob Snow - CPO,” 28 Jun 1994.
into the new system—and for operating with a mixed FPS/GS (General Schedule) faculty in case some eligible personnel stayed in the old system.

One of the most daunting tasks was the revision of those civilian personnel regulations that could not accommodate the FPS. The work of revision began in June 1995 and continued into early 1996. In December 1995, Steve Perloff of the Office of Personnel Management (OPM) met with DLIFLC Associate Provost/Dean of Curriculum and Instruction Dr. Martha Herzog to set the requirements for the academic ranks envisioned under the FPS and to clarify issues surrounding the resulting FPS ranks of transferring GS employees. The final draft of the FPS Handbook was completed in January 1996, but the new system could not yet be implemented—the FPS still required the approval of the Office of Management and Budget. In fact, the FPS would not go into effect until early 1997.30

The Schools

Asian I

Asian School I experienced considerable growth in calendar year 1994, adding 21 instructors while losing only 7 (five teachers retired from the Federal Service and two passed away). The number of teaching teams in Chinese Departments A and B increased from five to seven to accommodate the growth of the Chinese program. In 1995, however, 11 civilian faculty members retired and one was reassigned to Asian School II, while only 5 were hired (two Japanese instructors and three Chinese instructors).

Peter Armbrust continued to serve as dean of Asian School I, a post he assumed in October 1993.31 During 1994, MAJ David Tatman, USA, became associate dean; 2LT David Bukovich, USA, assumed the post of executive officer; SFC Daniel Hill, USA, became the deputy assistant dean; and Kelly Gibson was hired as the dean’s secretary. In May, Meei-Jin Hurtt became the first female chair in Asian I when she was put in charge of Chinese Department B. Duong Bui became permanent Vietnamese Branch chief, and Huan Hoang was promoted to GS-11 program coordinator.


The staff was involved in a number of other course and test development projects as well. Beginning in April 1994, Vietnamese faculty members Nguyen Vy and Troan Tran developed

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30 Dr. Stephen Payne, interviewed by Steve Solomon, 31 Aug, 1 Sep 1998.
supplemental materials for the Special Forces Vietnamese Basic Course that were utilized beginning the following July. Beginning in late 1995, Vietnamese course developers began work on a estimated 18-month project to develop second-semester materials under the guidance of Dale Purtle, a curriculum specialist with the Directorate of Curriculum and Instruction.33 Also in 1994, Seldow and Avenlia Estella completed workbooks for the Tagalog Basic Course. In 1995, Zhen Lin Qiao and the two department chairs, Harry Olsen and Meei Jin Hurtt, completed standardized module tests for the first semester of instruction, validated Modules I and II, and completed new FLO tests. Three Vietnamese classes validated the Vietnamese DLPT IV in May and June 1995. In May 1995, Japanses classes began to implement a total immersion program, requiring students and faculty to use only Japanese in and out of the classroom no later than the third semester.34

Members of Asian I’s staff represented DLIFLC at the conferences and seminars of a number of professional organizations in 1994 and 1995, including the Center for Applied Language Learning (CALL); the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL); and the Association of Departments of Foreign Language (ADFL).35 Dr. Nanna Johnson of the Thai Department assisted in organizing a CALL conference on Thai Language Teaching, which was held in Monterey in August 1994. In 1995, staff members attended a Thai workshop and a Chinese seminar at CALL in the Washington, DC, area. Chinese B instructor Patrick Pak Chong Lin was invited to present a paper at the 1994 International Language Education Conference, which convened in November of that year in Hong Kong. In 1995, Lin presented a paper on the teaching of Chinese at a conference in Guangdong, China. In January 1995, Japanese Branch Chief Minoru “John” Onomoto presented a discussion of language proficiency and skill development to the Laurasian Institution, a non-profit organization dedicated to “enhancing the cultural understanding between Asia, North America and Europe.”36

Asian I had opportunities to support important taskings over and above the school’s normal duties: In January 1994, the two-day U.S.-Japan Defense Guideline Review met at the Naval Postgraduate School in Monterey to clarify ambiguities in the U.S.-Japan Security Treaty. Japanese instructor Takashi Kato served as an official interpreter for the U.S. negotiators.37 In May 1994, Japanese instructors Hiroko Tsuzuki and Eiko Kraynak participated in the 97L Project

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34 E-mail message from Peter Armbrust, Asian I Dean, to Steve Solomon, entitled “ASIAN I-Command History,” 13 Sep 1998.
35 The ADFL is a professional organization for foreign language program administrators.
at Fort Huachuca, Arizona. Thai instructors Renu Turner and Charoonsri Hannah visited Thailand to participate in the Army’s Cobra Gold ‘95 Mission.

In 1994, Asian I received a visit from the members of the General Officer Steering Committee, and the team of educators representing the Accreditation Commission for Community and Junior Colleges (ACCJC) of the Western Association of Schools and Colleges (WASC) visited the Chinese Department. In 1995, Asian I hosted a number of distinguished visitors, including Steve Dawson, Assistant for International Affairs to the Army Chief of Staff, and the Honorable Kiyohiko Nanao, Consul General of Japan.

Asian II

The years 1994-95 were a dynamic time for Asian School II, home of the Institute’s Korean program. This two-year period was characterized by an increase in graduate proficiency from 8 to 23 percent. Dean Dr. Neil Granoien; Academic Coordinators Dr. Patricia Boylan and Joe Kwon; and department chairs Lee (A), Shon (B), and Rhee (C) kept the faculty focused on the improvement of linguist proficiency through the revamping of every aspect of the school’s curriculum and teaching methodology. The ground-breaking textbook development project initiated in 1993 continued throughout 1994 and into 1995. The task of writing a communicative Korean textbook targeted at American learners turned out to be even more formidable than expected. By spring of 1995, the project’s deadline was extended from 18 to 22 months and the staff was increased from 10 to 15.

The revision of the Korean Basic Course text was the most important element in the effort to improve Korean instruction, but it was not the only element. In 1995, Asian II conducted a two-phase local Korean Immersion Program (KIP) as an addition to the Basic Course. Phase 1 of the KIP was two weeks of training conducted at the POM Annex from 12 to 23 June. Nineteen students moved into dormitories and studied, worked, ate, and slept in the Korean language training environment. All initial reports indicated success: student skills increased, teacher training strategies improved, and the program was enjoyable.

Phase 2, consisting of three weeks of training, was conducted from 11 to 29 September. Once again, preliminary results were generally positive: most students felt better able to use Korean in practical situations, and instructors garnered more useful experience in training.

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38 The 97L Project was an attempt to recruit Americans who had grown up bilingual and train them as linguists and interpreters. E-mail from CSM Ronald Solmonson, to CMSgt. Alan R. Dowling, Subject: “RE: ASIAN I Issues,” 5 Aug 98.
40 1993 DLIFLC Annual Command History, pp. 58-60.
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strategies for both traditional and immersion classrooms. Future immersion training may include a more extensive use of facilitative learning activities. Granoien and his staff expected completion of the 22-month Basic Korean curriculum development project, which would train the full spectrum of FLOs, in mid-1996.\footnote{1996 BILC Report, p. 131.}

Asian II did not confine its activities to its own program, but also reached out to the greater community of Korean teachers by hosting the American Association of Teachers of Korean (AATK) Conference from 12 to 14 July at the Asilomar Conference Center in Pacific Grove, California. Granoien and the Provost were among the guest speakers at the conference, which drew attendees from all over the United States and from the Republic of Korea. According to Dr. Yoo S. Rhee, AATK treasurer, the AATK was only one year old but already had 100 members, almost half of whom were from DLIFLC.\footnote{“DLIFLC hosts Korean educators at Asilomar Conference Center,” Globe (Sep 1995), 14-15.}

East European I

In September 1993, Russian School I (RU1) became East European School I (EE1) as part of the DLIFLC-wide reorganization. The following two years were to bring even more changes to EE1. Dr. Neil Granoien had served as the school’s dean throughout the reorganization process, but volunteered for the post of Asian School II dean shortly thereafter in order to guide the development of the new Korean curriculum. Granoien was succeeded as EE1 dean by Charles Cole, who had studied Russian at DLIFLC during the 1960s.\footnote{1993 DLIFLC Annual Command History, pp. 40, 59, 61.} A change in the school’s mission was also in the offing: EE1 began calendar year 1994 with three Russian Departments, plus a Multi-Language Department that taught Belorussian, Polish, and Ukrainian. In June 1995, the Multi-Language Department of East European School II (EE2), which taught Czech, Serbian/Croatian, and Slovak, was reassigned to EE1; in September of that year, this department was merged with EE1’s existing Multi-Language Department. The resulting department then taught Belorussian, Czech, Polish, Serbian/Croatian, Slovak, and Ukrainian.\footnote{1996 BILC Report, p. 132.} Ishka Jensen, who had chaired EE1’s existing Multi-Language Department before the merger, continued as chair of the merged department after the consolidation. Dr. Hanna Priser, chair of EE2’s pre-merge Multi-Language Department, became Czech Branch Chief.\footnote{E-mail from Charlie Cole to Steve Solomon, “RE: SEA 1994-95,” 6 October 1998.}

Cole continued Granoien’s focus on methodology, assigning training and other developmental tasks in this area to Dr. Maurice Funke, who had served as EE1’s Academic Coordinator under Granoien and could thus provide continuity.\footnote{1993 Annual Command History, p. 61; 1996 BILC Report, p. 132.} Cole and Funke had their work cut out for them; conservative elements among the faculty continued to prefer older teaching methodologies that had admittedly produced good proficiency results for the school in the past.
By exchanging two EE1 chairs for two EE2 chairs, Cole and Funke succeeded in introducing the concept of team teaching in two of the three departments: Team leaders took over the responsibility of planning the daily schedules and adapting their instruction to the needs of the students. Decisions concerning materials and approaches were made in team meetings rather than imposed from above by the chairs. In some teams, more communicative approaches were implemented; however, preparation for the Defense Language Proficiency Test (DLPT) remained the highest motivator for shaping lesson plans.

In addition to promoting new teaching methodology, EE1’s top leadership worked hard to update the Russian curriculum. Funke directed the efforts of three Russian course developers, Kira Semin, Lisa Kramer, and Alena Tvrznik, in completing three volumes of Russian textbook materials for the third term Russian Basic Course, including audio and video programs and computer lessons that were integrated into the textbook materials. The failure of Russian newspaper and magazine publishers to respond to numerous requests for copyright permission prevented some of these materials from reaching the classroom. Under Funke’s direction, Elena Litvenenko wrote tests for the entire Basic Course—including module, semester, and final examinations—that were field-tested and in use by the end of the year. The development of a Russian Headstart course was assigned to a series of employees who were on the RIF list. Due to the RIF of all the developers in September 1994, the course was never published.49

EE1’s course development efforts were not limited to work on its own Russian Basic Course. In 1994, the school had three unusual training and development opportunities: assignments from the Center for the Advancement of Language Learning (CALL), the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA), and the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI). CALL asked EE1 to develop a Ukrainian Basic Course and appointed Funke Project Director. The course was to be reviewed by the NSA, the FSI, the CIA, and several universities. Three full-time instructors were to be employed for two years at CALL’s expense. Volumes 1 and 2 were developed by Natalya Entis, Larisa Kushnir, and Naum Burkoy; Kushnir wrote volume 3. These volumes were published in 1997.50 In order to fulfill a tasking to teach NASA astronauts and engineers, EE1 assigned George Velikoshapko, a Russian teacher with expertise in engineering, the task of developing suitable materials. NASA had regularly scheduled classes in Russian by the end of 1994.51 One highly successful graduate of this program was astronaut Dr. Norman Thagard, who subsequently set an American record for continuous time in space by spending 115 days aboard the Mir space station during the spring and summer of 1995. Also during 1994, Funke traveled to Washington, D.C., and secured the agreement of the FBI for the development of a special course tailored to the needs of agents of who had already attained Level 2 proficiency in speaking, reading, and listening. The FBI endorsed Funke’s proposal, and he designed a

49 E-mail from Dr. Maurice Funke to Steven R. Solomon, entitled “RE: history,” 21 Oct 1998.
50 Ibid.
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textbook consisting of extensive Bridges based on themes of the FBI’s choosing. After weeks of
training with an FBI agent who came to Monterey, Litvenenko wrote the textbook according to
Funke’s design. The project was completed in 1995 and was approved for final publication by
Marijke Cascallar, program manager for the FBI Language Services Unit.52

Materials for the new Belorussian and Ukrainian courses were under development during
1994 and 1995. The Belorussian textbook was completed in October 1995. The author was Ida
Reynes. The Ukrainian textbook was completed in 1997. While it was being written, teachers
made limited use of an older Ukrainian textbook and created their own materials as needed, using
the Russian textbook as a guide.53

EE1 performed vital translation and interpretation duties during calendar years 1994 and
language materials to be translated by East European School I into Russian, Ukrainian,
Belorussian, and Polish. In February 1995, EE1 completed a 900-page translation of the new 97L
interrogation course materials. Also in February, EE1 started providing interpretation services to
the US Secret Service. This tasking took several instructors to former Eastern Bloc countries to
assist Secret Service agents while they taught anti-crime initiatives to foreign police and other
responsible government agencies. This mission supported President Clinton’s pledge to assist
emerging governments in combating crime and corruption. EE1 had a high-profile interpretation
task in August 1995, when four Ukrainian generals accepted an invitation to visit to the
California Air National Guard in order to learn how it operates with respect to civil defense and
about its role in the Total Force Concept.

EE1 began another series of Serbian/Croatian cross-training courses in October 1995 to
meet linguist requirements arising from events in the former Yugoslavia. (EE2 was the scene of
DLIFLC’s Serbian/Croatian course development project. See below for details.)

East European II

Throughout 1994 and into early 1995, East European School II (EE2) was organized into four
departments: three Russian departments (providing follow-on training in the Le Fox and On-
Site Inspection Agency [OSIA] programs as well as basic Russian training) and a Multi-
Language department (providing training in Czech, Serbian/Croatian, and Slovak). But EE2
was shortly to undergo two major changes in composition, and hence, in mission: In the
second quarter of 1995, Multi-Language was reassigned to East European School I (EE1) and
was moved into buildings in the 200 series. In May 1995, the Persian department was
reassigned to EE2 from Middle East School II (ME2) and was moved into Building 848.54

52 E-mail from Dr. Maurice Funke to Steven R. Solomon, entitled “RE: history,” 21 Oct 1998.
53 Dr. Maurice Funke, interviewed by Steve Solomon, 19 Mar 1999.
54 E-mail message from Ben De La Selva, SEA Dean, to Steve Solomon, entitled “RE: SEB Historical Input 95->,” 15 Sep 1998.
Throughout 1994-95, Benjamin De La Selva served as EE2 Dean. Maj. Mark Stotzer, USMC, held the position of Associate Dean until his retirement in August 1994. The position remained vacant until the arrival of Stotzer’s replacement, MAJ Kirt Quist, USA, in October of that year. The post of EE2 Executive Officer remained vacant after the November 1994 departure of 1LT Scott Nipper, USA. Stanislov Popov joined EE2 in January 1994 to assume the post of Academic Coordinator. The department chairs were Irene Baratoff (Russian A), Rosa Rubinstein (Russian B), Dr. Vladimir Gimpelevich (Russian C), Dr. Hana Pariser (Multi-Language), and Dr. Nourredin Ale-Ali (Persian).

March 1995 saw the completion of the Czech Proficiency Improvement Course (PIC), which Jana Kunta-Reimann and George Petracek had begun developing in December 1993.55 The purpose of the project was to provide a PIC on computers at proficiency level 2 and above to serve as refresher or enhancement training. The PIC was oriented around the FLOs; featured geography, economy, ecology, and the military as core topics; and incorporated authentic listening and reading materials, graphics, and scanned authentic images. In the second quarter of 1995, the Czech PIC was pressed on CD-ROM for future mass production and was released to the field in October 1996.56

In 1989 the resident Serbo-Croatian program was closed along with nine other “low-density” languages due to low enrollments.57 The subsequent outbreak of war in the former Yugoslavia forced DLIFLC to develop what was properly known as the Serbian/Croatian Cross-training Course (to “cross-train” linguists proficient in other Slavic languages into Serbian/Croatian linguists) in 1993.58 Dr. Gordana Stanchfield, a former employee of the Directorate of Curriculum and Instruction, was brought out of retirement to direct the course development effort. The first students, who graduated in January 1994, did well in this cross-training course.59 Beginning in January 1994, the course was lengthened to 16 weeks.60

In late 1995, faculty trainers from the Directorate of Curriculum and Instruction, Faculty and Staff (DCI-FS), supported the Serbian/Croatian teaching effort by conducting teacher training via Mobile Training Teams (MTTs) and Video Teletraining (VTT).61 From 14 to 18

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55 1993 DLIFLC Annual Command History, p. 63.
57 1989 DLIFLC Annual Command History, pp. 22-23.
58 This course is sometimes referred to popularly as a “conversion” course, but the term is inaccurate. The official terminology for a course designed to retrain linguists quickly in a language related to one in which they are already proficient is “cross-training,” not “conversion.” The latter term refers to accelerated training in a language unrelated to any the linguists have mastered. The official designation of the Serbian/Croatian “Conversion” Course is 05SC, “Cross-training.” See DLIFLC Pamphlet 350-8, 1996 General Catalog, pp. 30, 36. See also an undated Information Paper on cross-training and conversion courses prepared by Art Gebbia of the Directorate of Operations, Plans and Programs.
59 For an account of the development of the new Serbian/Croatian course materials and the first iteration of training via VTT, see the 1993 Annual Command History, p. 96.
60 Roelof Wijbrandus, interviewed by Steve Solomon, 4 Sep 1997.
61 For details on MTTs and VTT, see Chapter IV.
November 1995, FS provided a teacher development course to 8 Serbian and Croatian teachers in Washington, DC, via VTT, and then followed up by sending one MTT to Washington for two days (20-21 November) to provide additional training and monitor the participants’ progress. Another Serbian/Croatian MTT spent 4-15 December in Washington conducting a teacher development course for 13 participants.62

De La Selva proposed a new 47-week Serbian-Croatian Basic Course to the Provost in August 1994.63 Course development began in August 1995, but had to be set aside one month later so that development of the Cross-Training Course—which was to go forward with increased student loads that would require the hiring of more faculty—could continue. To the extent possible, the development team concentrated on tasks that would benefit both courses, such as the grammar component and some grammar tests.64 The Basic Course would not be taught until 1996.

In late September 1994, the Clinton administration launched the controversial Operation Restore Democracy to end the regime of Lieutenant General Raoul Cédras and restore ousted President Jean-Bertrand Aristide to power in Haiti. Aircraft carrying the paratroopers of the 82nd Airborne Division never reached their destination—Cédras agreed to step down as soon as he heard that Restore Democracy was underway—but that did not mean the end of the crisis or of American military involvement in the affairs of the island nation. Lieutenant General Henry H. Shelton, commander of XVIII Airborne Corps, led a coalition force of nearly 20,000 (mostly U.S.) troops in Operation Uphold Democracy, the goal of which was to maintain order as Aristide once again took up the reins of power.65

In October 1994, DLIFLC learned that Haitian Creole linguists might be needed as early as the first week of December. French linguists would be required to cross train to Haitian Creole in a 10- to 12-week cross-training course with an entrance requirement of L2/R2/S2 in French. Other details, such as the exact number of students and the precise time of their arrival, were conspicuous by their absence. Further complicating the tasking was the lack of any suitable cross training course. DLIFLC personnel would have to write the course materials before training could begin. But in a matter of three months, DLIFLC personnel overcame all these difficulties

62 For information on DLIFLC’s support of U.S. participation in the UN-led Implementation Force (IFOR), see Chapter V.
63 Memorandum for: Provost, Defense Language Institute. Subject: Serbian/Croatian Basic Course Development. 3 August 94. De La Selva envisioned the Conversion Course as the “nucleus for the comprehensive Basic Course.” The new Basic Course, like the Conversion Course it was to be based on, was to meet student needs in terms of “FLOs skills development.”
and transformed an unvalidated audiolingual course from 1975 into a modern text ready to be used in the classroom.

Based on the availability of office and classroom space and the proximity of open barracks, and on De La Selva’s experience as a French linguist in the U.S. Army, Clifford quickly assigned the mission to EE2. Key to the effort was the participation of SSG Cassandra Woel, USA, a native speaker of Haitian Creole who also boasted proficiency in French and familiarity with DLIFLC curricula. Woel and Ani Frazier of the Directorate of Information Management (DOIM) began revising the typewritten, methodologically and orthographically outmoded 1975 text. Peter Schultz, EE2 Information Manager, and Pavel Bielecki, a Czech instructor noted for his extensive computer skills, succeeded in scanning and running Optical Character Recognition software on the old text, enabling Frazier and Woel to do their work on computers. Christa Rutsche of the Directorate of Curriculum and Instruction and Les Turpin of the Production Coordination Office supported the effort by ordering supplemental texts and dictionaries.

Meanwhile, faculty trainers Solfrid Johansen and SSG Donny Weber traveled to Washington, DC, to conduct the Instructor Certification Course for seven contract Haitian Creole instructors, and EE2 Associate Dean Quist succeeded in securing office and classroom space for the training and housing for both the students and the instructors. By the time the last of the students had arrived—26 January 1995, a scant three months from the date of the initial tasking—all needed materials and instructors (Woel and seven contract employees) were in place. The course was a resounding success. All 26 students enrolled graduated, 14 with honors.

East European School II provided hundreds of hours in language support to the field in both Russian and Serbian/Croatian through the use of Video Teletraining (VTT) and Mobile Training Teams (MTTs). In 1994, EE2 sent out an average of three MTTs per quarter, primarily to Hawaii, Ft Huachuca, California, and Texas.

In 1995, VTT personnel delivered 294 hours of instruction to the following sites: Fort Riley, Kansas; Fort Huachuca; Camp Lejeune, North Carolina; Fort Meade, Maryland; Dryden Site at Edwards Air Force Base, California; and OSIA (Arlington, Virginia). The EE2 Special Requirements Team provided 642 hours of Russian and Persian (Farsi) to OSIA; NASA; the 748th MI Company, Fort Irwin, California; and other locations in the United States.

A Serbian/Croatian Mobile Training Team (MTT) from EE2’s Multi-Language Department spent the period of 3 January to 28 March 1995 at Fort Richardson, Alaska. The Team, comprised of Dimitrije Milinovich and Amalija Cvitanic, taught the Serbian/Croatian

68 Search of Academic Administration’s Student Database, 23 Sep 97. A G.P.A. of 3.7 or higher constitutes graduation “with honors.” The Haitian Creole Conversion Course had no DLPT requirement, so no proficiency scores are available.
Conversion Course to soldiers of the 6th Military Intelligence Company. Nineteen students attended the training, which was conducted to provide global language skills weighted toward a military perspective. The core topics were geography, history, the military, and ecology. Also in the first quarter of 1995, Dr. Anna Orelko provided two-week Russian refresher courses at Fort Bliss, TX, and Fort Huachuca, Arizona. In the second quarter, MTTs were sent to Spain’s NSGA (Serbian/Croatian), Fort Drum’s 10th Mountain Division (Serbian/Croatian), Fort Bliss’s 66th MI Co (Russian), and Fort Huachuca’s 11th MI Battalion (Czech and Russian). In the third quarter, Russian MTTs were sent to HQ, 4th RFIS, Fort McCoy, Wisconsin; HQ, RFIS, Fort Meade, Maryland; and Fort Devens, Massachusetts.

EE2 staff had the following Temporary Duty assignments in 1995: Arlington, Virginia (OSIA), and Germany, for Russian Oral Proficiency Testing; the United States Army Intelligence School (USAINTS) for 97L training at Fort Huachuca; CALL, Washington, DC, for Oral Proficiency training; Vandenburg Air Force Base, California, for interpretation for the Strategic Rocket Forces Russia; Finland, for duties for the State Department.

Middle East I

Middle East School I (ME1) consisted of three Arabic Departments and one Multi-Language Department, made up of the Greek, Hebrew, and Turkish Branches. Dr. Mahmood Taba Tabai served as dean. Lt. Col. Donna M. Connolly served as associate dean until her retirement in August 1994; she was replaced by Lt. Col. Alan D. McKee, USAF. Serving as Chairs of the language departments were Despina White (Arabic Department A), Niniv Y. Ibrahim (Arabic Department B), Dr. George El-Hage (Arabic Department C), and Dr. Nicholas G. Itsines (Multi-Language Department). The School's Academic Coordinator was Sabine Atwell.

El-Hage resigned in August 1994. McKee served as acting department chair until December, when Alfi Yacoub was selected as to fill the position.

All teachers took the FLO workshops during the course of 1994. Furthermore, both teachers and students were briefed about the FLOs in two-hour sessions between April and June of that year. All new faculty, full-time and intermittent, completed the Instructor Certification Course (ICC) required to conduct instruction. Additionally, eleven new faculty received two-hour weekly training from August to December 1994 in listening and reading skills, counseling, testing, and classroom management by Atwell. Two ME1 instructors attended the ACTFL conference in Atlanta, Georgia, in November 1994.

In 1995, approximately one-third of the faculty attended a 30-hour course entitled “Helping Students Through Meaningful Feedback and Counseling,” and the training regimen for new faculty was expanded to include not only the ICC but the Pre-ICC as well. Many faculty and staff members attended in-house and off-post training in computer use and other subjects.

All incoming students received four orientation workshops (7 hours total) from Atwell in skill level descriptions, reading strategies, listening strategies, and in the DLPT and FLO testing.
systems. During 1994, ME1 graduated a total of 307 Basic Course students (262 in Arabic; 38 in Greek, Hebrew, and Turkish; and includes 7 intermediate students in Arabic and Hebrew.)

During 1995, the total fell to 246 students (204 in Arabic Basic, plus 5 intermediate and 6 advanced students; and 31 in Hebrew and Turkish).

ME1 proficiency results during 1994-95 were impressive. The percentage of Arabic students attaining the 2/2/2 goal rose from 44 in 1993 to 57 in 1995. Hebrew proficiency rose from 67 to 74 percent, and Turkish results doubled, from 50 to 100 percent. No Greek class graduated in 1995; however, Greek proficiency results for both 1993 and 1994 stood at 100 percent.

During 1994, internal FLO Subskill tests were developed in Arabic and Hebrew. The first students to take these ten Subskill tests were the October 1994 Arabic and Hebrew graduating classes. The Arabic faculty, under the guidance of the academic coordinator, developed a set of materials at level 2 for all the FLO Subskills. They were used as classroom practice materials by the faculty. In view of the change in dialect requirements to 50 hours per dialect, with emphasis on recognition and discrimination, ME1 developed a new dialect course (in Egyptian, Syrian and Iraqi) jointly with Middle East School II (ME2). The course included a final test as well. ME1 began revising the first seven Arabic tests in November 1994.

ME1 developed Greek FLO test batteries in 1994. In February 1995, developers in Evaluations and Standards began work on external FLO tests for Greek. Itsines reviewed these tests in November of that year. After the completion of the external Greek FLO tests, the internal tests were used for student practice. The Greek Branch had received one course development work year for 1995 which was expended in reviewing, correcting and revising semester I modules V-XI of the new Greek Basic Course being developed under contract. The Turkish Branch made some revisions and corrected errors in its new Turkish Basic Course.

ME1 conducted non-resident as well as resident training, making use of VTT to provide instruction to Fort Meade, Maryland, and other installations: Arabic (including a 24-week Conversion Course) and Greek were offered in 1994; in 1995, Arabic (including a new Sinai Familiarization Course taught via satellite linkup) and Hebrew. Also in 1995, ME1 dispatched a

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69 Internal FLO Subskills tests were those developed and used in one of the DLIFLC’s schools; external FLO Subskills tests were developed under the guidance of and administered by the Directorate of Evaluations and Standards. E-mail from Dr. Mahmood Tabai Tabai, Dean, SEB, to Steven R. Solomon, entitled “FW: SMA in 1994-95,” dated 13 Oct 1998; Historian’s Notes, telephonic interview with Dr. Nicholas Itsines, Chair, Multi-Language Department, 3 Nov 1998.

70 Prior to September 1990, students who completed the Basic Course in Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) then began a 16-week follow-on course (coded 05) in one of three dialects, Iraqi (Gulf), Egyptian, or Syrian (Levantine). The last class in such a course graduated on 16 Aug 1990. Difficulties in predicting which dialect or dialects would be needed, a lack of student motivation (students were not tested on their mastery of their assigned dialects), and the status of MSA as a regional lingua franca motivated the move away from extensive dialect instruction. DLIFLC then began conducting a 63-week course coded 01AE (Egyptian), 01AP (Syrian), or 01DG (Iraqi). The last 01 class graduated on 14 Dec 1995. E-mail message from Sabine Atwell to Steve Solomon, entitled “Arabic Course,” 3 Nov 1998; John Dege, Dean, Academic Administration, interviewed by Steve Solomon on 13 Nov 1998.
Mobile Training Team (MTT) to Fort Bragg to conduct a new six-week Arabic Civil Affairs Course developed by ME1 faculty.

During 1995, external FLO Subskills tests were developed in Arabic and Greek. ME1 conducted an Arabic curriculum study at the beginning of the year. The result was a detailed Arabic Course Outline with clear instructional motives. This outline was distributed to all faculty and students. The outline became the basis for a major Arabic test project. In an effort coordinated with ME2, ME1 developed the first 14 Arabic tests (given every three weeks) emphasizing FLO Subskills and the early use of authentic materials. All teams using the new tests were briefed on the instructional focus of the new tests. The Turkish Branch made some revisions and corrections to its modular tests. Also during 1995, Survival Kits were translated into Greek, Hebrew, and Turkish. ME1 developed an in-house Arabic Test Feedback program to improve student evaluation and counseling.

Other accomplishments in 1995 included the development and implementation of a systematic class visit form; the development of a system of in-progress semester reviews and an end-of-course review dealing with student, team, and curricular issues and involving the participation of team/branch members, the chair, the dean, the associate dean, the academic coordinator, and the chief MLI; the standardization of instructor schedules throughout the School to monitor instructor activities, and the stabilization of team assignments so that changes occurred only as a result of recruitment, promotion, retirement, or reassignment to a project.

**Middle East II**

Although not established until October 1993, during 1994 Middle East II (ME2) quickly expanded to become DLIFLC’s largest school. Its original 87-member faculty soon increased to a force of 103 full-time instructors, and the student population reached more than 460 by year’s end. This rapid growth posed a number of unique problems for the fledgling school, including space shortages and additional training requirements for newly-hired instructors. Both language programs, Arabic and Persian, underwent growth, and by year's end new program input had filled up all classroom and office spaces allocated under the 1993 reorganization. In April, ME2's Arabic program was large enough to warrant the creation of an additional Arabic department, resulting in a total of five language departments for the school—four Arabic and one Persian.

The year 1995 brought a major change to ME2: In May, the Persian department split off from ME2 and became part of East European II. This move reduced the instructor population from 103 to 89 and the student load from 460 to 350 by year’s end. Nevertheless, the Arabic program continued to grow, making ME2 responsible for conducting half of DLIFLC’s largest language program.

Luba Grant served as ME2 Dean. MAJ Richard Donovan, USA, served as Associate Dean until his retirement in August 1995, when he was replaced by Maj. Michael Markovitch.

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71 E-mail message from Ben De La Selva, SEA Dean, to Steve Solomon, entitled “SEB Historical Input 95-~,” 15 September 1995.
USAF. SFC Glenn Miller, USA, retired in October 1995, and was succeeded as Deputy Associate Dean by MSgt. Roger Swift, USAF, a former ME2 Military Language Instructor. Dr. Giselle Yonekura held the post of ME2 Academic Coordinator.

ME2 graduating students achieved record Defense Language Proficiency Test (DLPT) results in FY94 and FY95.\(^{72}\) In Arabic, a program in which measured proficiency levels had been steadily declining since 1991, 2/2/2 proficiency results climbed from 44 percent in FY93 to 51 percent in 1994, and then to 62 percent in 1995.\(^{73}\) Despite these results, ME2 was able to hold Arabic academic attrition to 10 percent in FY 95. The Persian program also experienced considerable success, continuing its steady climb in proficiency from 51 percent in FY93 to 56 percent in FY94. In addition to the overall effort and hard work exhibited by ME2 faculty personnel, a number of factors contributed to these successes, including the school's emphasis on high academic standards, split-section training, increased learner-focused instruction, and earlier identification and assessment of student learning deficiencies.

An intensive internal review gave rise to efforts at improving and revamping the existing Arabic Basic Course curriculum. A new multi-dialect strand for the program was developed and implemented in 1994 for all classes graduating after December to replace the single-dialect "flavoring" used at DLIFLC since 1990. In addition, ME2 undertook an extensive effort toward correcting and revising the Arabic multi-lesson tests, which had been a major source of concern on the part of students and faculty alike. Moreover, Grant assembled an in-house test-development team to create a new series of "Double-Lesson Quizzes" (DLQs) for the Arabic program to supplement the existing Combined and Semester tests. By year's end, the administration decided to develop a new Arabic basic course over the next several years under the auspices of the Directorate of Curriculum and Instruction (DCI). For the Persian program, the initial portion of a new Intermediate course was completed. Meanwhile, the Persian Basic Course was placed under review. As a result, a development team created significant supplementary materials for the course.

Yonekura devised and executed a comprehensive instructor training program for ME2 faculty throughout 1995. Her efforts were expected to reap considerable future dividends. A concerted effort was initiated near the end of the year to revamp course tests and grading scales, in order to better measure student achievement of language proficiencies being taught in the course and identify student weaknesses. Final Learning Objectives (FLO) Subskills were also implemented throughout the course, so that every hour taught would contribute to meeting one or more of the 33 Subskills.

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\(^{72}\) Proficiency results are calculated and reported on a Fiscal Year (FY) rather than Calendar Year (CY) basis. The FY runs from 1 October to 30 September.

\(^{73}\) The Defense Language Proficiency Test is actually a battery of three tests designed to assess proficiency—ability to use language in real-world situations—in three skills: Speaking, Reading, and Listening. A score of Level 2 indicates that a linguist can use that particular skill sufficiently well to perform professional duties in the target language.
Resident Training

ME2 faculty garnered honors during 1995. Mohammed Al-Haise was selected the Institute’s Civilian Instructor of the Year.

West European and Latin American

The West European and Latin American School (WELA) provided basic, intermediate, and advanced language training to representatives of all military services and, upon request, to members of the Federal Bureau of Investigation, Drug Enforcement Agency, U.S. Customs Service, and U.S. Marshals Service. Languages taught were Dutch, French, German, Italian, Portuguese, and Spanish—all the Category I and II languages taught at the DLIFLC. The German course lasted 34 weeks; all other language courses lasted 25 weeks.

Alex Vorobiov served as dean during 1994-95, having arrived from Asian II in late 1993. He was assisted by MAJ Kevin Brown, USA, Associate Dean. Deanna Tovar, Spanish Department B chair, was reassigned, becoming WELA academic coordinator in the spring of 1994. Until the arrival of the new Spanish B chair, Ed Moos, Tovar performed the duties of both positions. LT Penny White, USN, served as executive officer (XO) until May 1994, when she left WELA to take over Test Management in the Evaluation Division of the Directorate of Evaluation, Research, and Testing. The XO position remained open after White’s departure. In March 1994, GySgt. Charles A. Caroll, USMC, replaced SFC Edwin Pizarro, USA, as deputy associate dean. Carroll left for advanced education in August of that year and was replaced by TSgt. Sally Cabrera, USAF. In March 1994, Heide Wilson became permanent chair of the German Department, taking over from Ingrid Hirth, who had served as acting chair. In April, Rick Berrios took over from Maria DeSoto as chair of Spanish Department A, and Edward Moos took over from Deanna Tovar as chair of Spanish Department B.

In October 1994, PO2 Jack Williams, USN, became the first Military Language Instructor at the Institute to be certified under the new MLI 3-Plus Program. Williams met the stringent certification requirements: a proficiency score of Level 3 in speaking, listening, and reading; completion of the Instructor Certification Course (ICC); and 500 hours of teaching experience. Also in that month, Maria Aparicio was selected as WELA Teacher of the Year.

The school supported two important contingency operations during 1994-95. In January 1994, WELA sent four of its Military Language Instructors to Los Angeles in support of Joint Task Force Rosetta, which was created to assist the Federal Emergency Management Agency in processing over 300,000 people left devastated by the Northridge earthquake. Military Language

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75 Deanna Tovar, interviewed by Steve Solomon, 27 Oct 98.
76 When Vorobiov arrived in 1993, German was part of SWL’s Multi-Language Department, which was chaired by Archie Schmidt. However, enrollments increased to the point that the German program once again needed its own department, and Vorobiov appointed Hirth Acting Chair until a permanent Chair could be selected via the competitive process. E-mail message from Alex Vorobiov, former SWL Dean, to Steven R. Solomon, entitled “RE: SWL in 1994-95,” 6 Oct 1998.
Instructors who deployed for linguistic support in Spanish were SFC Ramirez (USA), SSG Velez (USA), TSgt. Nobles (USAF), and Sgt. Robledo (USAF). From 27 to 31 March 1995, WELA supported the relief efforts of the Red Cross by sending MLIs to work at the Red Cross center in Salinas, California as translators/interpreters for victims of the Carmel River floods.78

In October 1994, WELA became the first School to receive top-quality stereo tape-recording equipment for the express purpose of improving the sound quality of language tapes. An entire room was dedicated to this operation and was used to compose, dub, and record audio language material for the Dutch, French, Portuguese, Italian, German, and Spanish languages.

An eventful period in the arena of curriculum development began in October 1994. The Spanish Program implemented its first standardized testing program for all three Spanish Departments, thereby eliminating much confusion among the various teaching teams and simplifying the tracking of student progress. Also, four workyears were acquired for the development of a new Spanish curriculum.

Development of the new course began in early 1995 under the direction of Tovar. The existing Spanish course had been in use since the 1970s and featured outmoded methods such as cognitive code, dialogue memorization, and heavy use of transformation and pattern drills. Despite faculty efforts in the mid-1980s to adapt the curriculum to proficiency-oriented instruction methods, the course was badly outmoded. Tovar’s guiding principle was to create a curriculum different from and far superior to any commercial materials (for the Institute’s purposes) by targeting the special needs of DLIFLC’s students: FLO Subskills such as gisting, summarizing, and reading authentic handwriting were incorporated from the very first chapter. Every fifth chapter included both a traditional review and a “Bridge.” All Bridges in the new course are tied to military life, and the military emphasis becomes stronger and more explicit as the course progresses. The new curriculum was to consist of two volumes covering the first two semesters and video-based materials for the third semester. Development continued into 1997.79

Spanish was not the only language for which new materials were developed. A new third-semester German curriculum was completed in the first quarter of 1995.

Students in Resident Training

Military Students

Foreign language students at the DLIFLC face not one but two very demanding tasks: learning a new language and successfully completing the various stages of their ongoing military common skills training. Vital to their success in both endeavors are the four student commands: Troop Command (USA), the 311th Military Training Squadron (USAF), the Naval Security Group

78 For information on operational contingencies, see Chapter V.
Detachment (USN), and the Marine Corps Detachment (USMC). The student commands had always worked hard at the second task (what the Army refers to as “soldierization”), but until the tenure of Sobichevsky, their involvement in the first task was minimal. Sobichevsky emphasized “the harmonious merging of both the military and civilian expertise to meet the Institute’s mission objectives,” mandating greater involvement by the student commands in the learning outcomes of the students assigned to them and exhorting the faculty to work with the commands.

Troop Command (TPC) kept a busy schedule and underwent several major changes during 1994 and 1995. Beginning in 1994, there were seven companies in addition to the headquarters company, divided roughly between the schools: A (Asian I/II), B (Middle East I), C (East European I), D (Middle East II), E (NCOs and Officers), F (East European II), G (European and Latin American). Shifting requirements for Army linguists caused changes in the student population of the command’s companies in 1994. Company A grew to 381 soldiers due to a rising demand for Asian languages. Meanwhile, the declining demand for Russian meant a decline in numbers in C Company, which moved to the Russian Village to facilitate an anticipated consolidation with Company F. By early 1995, A, B, and D Companies were the largest, with 377, 198, and 292 students, respectively.

During 1995, TPC’s companies underwent considerable reorganization, a process that stemmed from the reorganization of the schools. On 8 June, a platoon of Persian (Farsi) students transferred to F Company. On 15 June, C Company was inactivated and its soldiers were also reassigned to F Company. As a result of these changes, unit strength at F Company grew from 130 to 280 soldiers whose languages included Russian, Persian (Farsi), Ukrainian, Polish, Czech, and Serbian/Croatian. On 17 August 1995, G Company was redesignated as the new C Company, with linguists studying languages such as German, Spanish, and French.

TPC also experienced a change of command. On 29 June 1994, LTC James W. Berry, USA, commander since June 1992, was succeeded by LTC W. Jack Dees, USA. Berry, who departed for a new assignment with Headquarters, Intelligence and Security Command in Fort Belvoir, Virginia, considered TPC’s work in the aftermath of the Northridge earthquake in Los Angeles to be a highlight of his tenure at DLIFLC. Dees, an former DLIFLC Arabic student, noted many improvements since his 1985 tour in Monterey: the students seemed more disciplined and focused, new buildings had been erected, military leadership at all levels had improved, and

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80 For information on both the academic and “soldierization” missions, see “Skills improve in and out of class,” Globe (Dec 1995), 15.
81 “DLIFLC: Where we’ve been, where we are, and where we’re going,” Globe (29 Apr 1994), 2-3.
83 “LTC Berry’s tenure wraps up at Troop Command,” Globe (Aug 1994), 10. For details on DLIFLC’s role in responding to the earthquake, see Chapter V.
TPC enjoyed a new degree of involvement with language training. Among the new commander’s priorities was to change Troop Command’s name to “a numerical designation, a historical lineage, with . . . colors and flags like other Army battalions.” Dees would achieve this goal on 15 March 1996, when Troop Command was redesignated the 229th Military Intelligence Battalion.

During 1994 and 1995, TPC participated in a number of events and activities. TPC planned the POM/DLIFLC activation ceremony of 30 September 1994 that made DLIFLC and POM’s new status as a TRADOC installation official. TPC supported DoD missions in 1994 by coordinating DLIFLC’s response to contingency operations, such as Joint Task Force Rosetta and the effort to cross-train French linguists in Haitian Creole to support military operations in Haiti. Activities also included those related to soldierization such as marksmanship training. Headquarters Company was especially involved in M16 training and qualification. In addition, soldiers were involved in military-related activities such as funeral details and participation in military and national holidays.

Over 60 percent of soldiers at TPC were Initial Entry Trainees (IETs). This meant that TCP had large numbers of soldiers who lived in the barracks. In addition, as part of their soliderization process, all soldiers, including those who were married, spent their first four weeks at DLIFLC in the barracks. Providing recreation opportunities for these troops became a concern during 1994-95. Meanwhile, the Chief of Staff of the Army established the Better Opportunities for Single Soldiers (BOSS) Program. The goal was the provide services and activities that promoted the personal welfare, development, recreation, and overall quality of life for single soldiers. In January 1995, TPC, in connection with the Directorate of Community Activities, launched the BOSS program at DLIFLC & POM.

The Air Force was the second largest service represented at DLIFLC, with roughly 600 personnel assigned to the 311th Training Squadron (TRS) at any one time. The 311th TRS was commanded by Lt. Col. Lawrence K. Robb from December 1993 until February 1995, when he was succeeded by Lt. Col. Janet J. Escobedo. Escobedo was to serve into 1997. The 311th TRS

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84 “Former DLIFLC student heads Troop Command,” *Globe* (Sep 1994), 12.
86 Briefing slides, HHC M-16 Qualification & Air Assault Training, 3 Oct 95.
87 ATFL-TPC-P, 4th Quarter (CY 95) Troop Command Historical Report, 26 Jan 96; ATFL-TPC, 3rd Quarter (CY 95) Troop Command Historical Report, 25 Oct 95; ATFL-TPC-P, 2nd Quarter (CY 95) Historical Report for Troop Command, 17 Jul 95; Troop Command Historical Report 1st Quarter 1995; Troop Command 1994 Historical Summary, 16 Feb 1995; ATFL-TPC-O, Annual Summary of TPC Activities, January 1994-December 1994, 3 Feb 95; Troop Command, 4th Qtr FY 94 Command Training Guidance, 25 Apr 94; Troop Command, 3 Qtr FY94 Command Training Guidance, 3 Mar 94. For details on contingency operations, see Chapter V. Details on the development of the Haitian Creole Cross-training Course can be found in Chapter III.
88 “Standard Operating Procedures (SOP) for Better Opportunities for Single Soldiers (BOSS);” Troop Command Historical Report 1st Quarter 1995. For additional discussion, see the section on Directorate of Community Activities in Chapter VI.
Resident Training

consisted of six flights, lettered A through F. Unlike TPC, which assigned troops to companies by language, TRS assigned personnel to flights based on specialty. During 1994 and 1995, USAF personnel were involved in the same types of language training, military development, recreation, and community activities as Army soldiers.89

The Air Force presence at DLIFLC & POM was supplemented by personnel from the Air Force Element (AFELM) and the 60th Comptroller Squadron. The unit represented Air Force personnel on the installation who were not students. AFELM personnel numbered between 60 and 70 and included Air Force staff who supported the installation, as well as MLIs who taught in the classroom. The 60th Comptroller Squadron was a detachment of the 60th Airlift Wing, Air Mobility Command, out of Travis AFB, and provided financial support service to Air Force personnel in the region.90

Navy personnel at DLIFLC served as part of the Naval Security Group Detachment (NSGD), which during this time had a unit strength of approximately 350. During 1995, for example, there were a total of 282 Navy enlisted and 78 officer students enrolled in language courses at DLIFLC. Approximately 85 percent of sailors at the NSGD were trained for duty in the position of Cryptologic Technician (Interpretive) (CTI). During 1994 Navy students led all the services in proficiency results, with 85 percent achieving Level 2 in listening and reading and 68 percent attaining the goal of Level 2 in all three skills.

LCDR James W. Blow commanded the NSGD from December 1993 until his retirement on 2 November 1994. CDR Gus Lott served as officer in charge (OIC) from November 1994 until 1996. In addition, sailors received support from a number of organizations outside of DLIFLC & POM. For example, the Personnel Support Detachment based at NPS provided personnel support for NSGD sailors. Other sources of support were based at Navy facilities at Treasure Island and in San Diego. Excluding support functions, NSGC was organized into four divisions, three of which had approximately 100 students. The Navy also had approximately 10 MLIs, who served as part of the DLIFLC Military Language Instructor Program.91

Although a unit strength of around 320 made the Marine Corps Detachment (MCD) the smallest of the services represented at DLIFLC, the Marines were nevertheless a dynamic part of

89 311TRS/CCE, 311TRS: Screaming Eagles Quarterly Unit History Report, 4 Oct 95.
the student body on the installation. Maj. Todd Coker took command of the MCD in 1993 and
served in this post until 1996. Focused on providing support to Marine Corps linguists, the MCD
operated a variety of programs for its students, including Before Course Instruction courses and a
Learning Resource Center. In May 1995, the MCD was the sponsoring service for the DLIFLC
Worldwide Language Olympics and was responsible for coordinating and operating the event.92

An important aspect of military service is service to the community. Every year, the
military students assigned to the DLIFLC participate in countless charitable events, and the
period from 1 January 1994 through 31 December 1995 was no exception. For example, DLIFLC
students competed in the “Run with the Dream” race, assisted in the Special Olympics, supported
the Monterey 1995 Adobe Tour, and participated in other community service projects such as
“Adopting a Beach” and even helping with maintenance of the DLIFLC’s grounds. Personnel
from all four services participated in some events, while others were more service specific. For
example, the Marines participated in the annual commemoration for Commodore Sloat’s
landing in Monterey on 7 July 1946.93

DLIFLC students in general achieved excellent learning outcomes in 1994 and 1995, and
some even earned special recognition. Just one such example was Sergeant Steven B. Barnes,
USA. Barnes, a June 1992 graduate of DLIFLC’s Korean program, was selected Linguist of the
Year 1994 by the Intelligence and Security Command (INSCOM). Rather than allowing his
Korean skills to degrade after completing his formal language studies, Barnes actually increased
his proficiency from Level 2+ to 3 within five months of his assignment to the 501st Military
Intelligence Brigade. Despite his lack of formal interpreter training and the availability of more
senior soldiers for the duty, Barnes’s language proficiency and professionalism earned him
selection as an interpreter for the April 1994 Mock Nuclear Inspections held in the Republic of
Korea. His outstanding performance in this duty garnered him the recognition of the U.S. Forces
Korea J2. Barnes was active in his unit’s Command Language Program, mentoring 15
subordinates and helping them improve their DLPT scores. While maintaining that real language
learning takes place on the job and that the formal study at DLIFLC is “only the beginning,”
Barnes added, “a person couldn’t ask for better.”94

On 22 April 1995, five students of Mandarin at DLIFLC participated in the 21st Annual
Mandarin Speech Contest, conducted by the Chinese Language Teachers Association of
California. One of these students, PV 2 John Greenawalt, USA, took second place, despite having studied Mandarin for less than four months.95

92 Commanding Officer, MCD to Commandant of the Marine corps, Command Chronology CY 1995, 16 Jul 96.
For information on the Worldwide Language Olympics, see Chapter V.
93 ATFL-TPC-O, OPORD 001-95: Troop Command Support to Monterey 1995 Adobe Tour, 18 Apr 95;
95 “DLIFLC students compete in Mandarin Speech Contest,” Globe (Jun 1995), 16-17.
Civilian Students

On 2 October 1995, DLIFLC began accepting civilian students on a space-available basis. Students were to be charged nearly $400 per week for language instruction only; other expenses, such as food and lodging, were not covered, nor were barracks or mess halls to be made available to civilian students. Civilians were to be admitted at the Commandant’s discretion during a two-year trial period, and would be subject to the same admission requirements and academic standards as military students. The DLIFLC promoted the new program by sending out over 200 application packets to interested students. By January 1996, one request for enrollment had been received.

Washington Office

MAJ Arlene K. Underwood, USA, served as director of the ten-member DLI-Washington Office (DLI-W) throughout 1994. After her retirement in January 1995, LTC John R. Martin, USA, served as the DLI-W chief in an interim capacity. He departed in July, when MAJ Arne Curtis, USA, was officially assigned as director.

DLI-W, located in Arlington (Crystal City), Virginia, performed three important functions: the development and execution of the Contract Foreign Language Training Program (CFLTP); the training and certification of Russian translators for the Moscow-Washington Direct Communications Link (MOLINK) and for the White House Communications Agency; and the representation of DLIFLC in the nation's capital.

DLIFLC used the CFLTP to teach foreign languages not provided at the Presidio of Monterey. Five civilian contract schools and two federal government language programs to provide this instruction. DLI-Washington also provided training in commonly-taught languages, primarily to meet the needs of the U.S. Defense Attaché System and to support military contingency operations. To support the operational and intelligence requirements of military contingencies, DLIFLC used the CFLTP for language conversion training. DLI-W played a major role in 1994 in the rapid development of a conversion course in Haitian-Creole in support of Operation Restore Democracy. The first class was taught at DLIFLC; DLI-W conducted subsequent courses to satisfy USAF contingency requirements. In fiscal year (FY) 1994, DLI-W trained 516 students in 41 languages; in FY 95, DLI-W trained 548 students in 45 languages.

97 DLIFLC 1st Quarter FY96 Significant Activities Report, Jan 1996.
98 E-mail message from Maj. Rusty Shughart, Deputy Director, DLI-W, to Steve Solomon, entitled “RE: DLIFLC-W Directors?” 28 Sep 1998.
99 DLI-W Historical Input, 13 Oct 98.
November 1995 saw the beginning of contingency training in support of U.S. operations in Bosnia that would cause DLI-W’s overall training load for FY 96 to increase dramatically.\footnote{E-mail message from Maj. Rusty Shughart, Deputy Director, DLI-W, to Steve Solomon, entitled “RE: History,” 19 Mar 1999.}

The training and certification of Russian translators was the DLIFLC-W’s second task, accomplished by two instructors of the DLIFLC-W staff. Despite the end of the Cold War and the advent of other communication systems, MOLINK remained a vital communication tool for the two nations’ leaders. Additionally, an increased need for translation and interpretation services in support of DoD security initiatives with Russia (such as the creation in December 1993 of a hotline between U.S. Secretary of Defense Les Aspin and his Ministry of Defense counterpart) and the newly independent states led DLIFLC to create a third Russian translator position at DLI-W for staffing in 1996.\footnote{1993 DLIFLC Annual Command History, p. 75.} The instructors provided language services for the Secretary of Defense and the Joint Staff. A major customer in 1994 was the U.S.-Russia Joint Commission on Prisoners of War and Missing in Action. DLI-W also provided translation and interpretation services for Joint Staff officers attending the European Joint Simulation and Modeling Conference, held in Garmisch, Germany.\footnote{DLI-W Historical Input, 13 Oct 98.}

The final mission of DLIFLC-W was the representation of DLIFLC in the Washington area. This was accomplished primarily through three organizations. The first was the Federal Interagency Language Roundtable, established to coordinate language issues throughout the federal government. The second was the Director of Central Intelligence Foreign Language Committee, chartered to provide similar coordination for the various elements of the intelligence community. Finally, DLI-W represented DLIFLC on matters concerning the Defense Foreign Language Program (DFLP). As a result of the DoD Inspector General report on the Defense Language Program, the senior foreign language management community was reorganized in 1994 to align itself more closely with the Office of the Assistant Secretary of Defense for Command, Control, Communications and Intelligence (OASD/C3I).\footnote{See Chapter I for information on the reorganization of the DFLP.} Beginning in October 1995, the newly created DFLP Requirements and Resources Coordinating Panel began to meet monthly at DLI-W, attended by military service and defense agency foreign language program managers to identify and address foreign language training issues of common concern. The changes in policy oversight were transparent to the students and much of the faculty and staff and did not affect training.\footnote{DLI-W Historical Input, 13 Oct 98.}

\begin{thebibliography}{9}
\bibitem{1} E-mail message from Maj. Rusty Shughart, Deputy Director, DLI-W, to Steve Solomon, entitled “RE: History,” 19 Mar 1999.
\bibitem{2} 1993 DLIFLC Annual Command History, p. 75.
\bibitem{3} DLI-W Historical Input, 13 Oct 98.
\bibitem{4} See Chapter I for information on the reorganization of the DFLP.
\bibitem{5} DLI-W Historical Input, 13 Oct 98.
\end{thebibliography}
CHAPTER IV
Academic Support

The primary and most visible mission of the Defense Foreign Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) is providing foreign language training to members of the United States military. In performing that mission, DLIFLC’s faculty benefits from academic support “behind the scenes.” During 1994 and 1995, that support was provided by three directorates: Evaluation, Research, and Testing (ES), which reported to the commandant; and two provost organizations, Curriculum and Instruction (DCI) and Academic Administration (DAA).¹

Evaluation, Research, and Testing

The Directorate of Evaluation, Research, and Testing was directed by Dr. John L.D. Clark and comprised three divisions: Evaluation, Research and Analysis, and Testing. The Evaluation Division monitored the effectiveness of resident, nonresident, and contract foreign language training programs by evaluating everything from course design and materials, to educational technology, to teacher performance. The Research and Analysis Division conducted applied research on language learning and analyzed associated data. The Testing Division trained, certified, and recertified speaking proficiency testers; designed and validated foreign language testing programs; and conducted both proficiency and Final Learning Objectives (FLO) testing.² Below is a summary of directorate-wide activities in 1994 and 1995, followed by highlights from the three divisions.

In 1992, in response to a challenge from Vice President Albert Gore’s National Performance Review, the Center for the Advancement of Language Learning (CALL) convened the Federal Language Testing Board (FLTB), which set about the task of standardizing proficiency testing throughout the federal foreign language teaching community.³ Agency-specific idiosyncrasies had crept into the testing of speaking, so that the Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI) was no longer the same test at every test site.⁴ CALL submitted a four-year implementation plan to Gore’s office in March 1994, and by November, prototypes of a new system for testing speaking proficiency began in Spanish.⁵ This effort was known as the Unified

¹ DLIFLC Regulation 10-1, 6 May 1994, pp. 17, 34.
² Ibid., pp. 17-19.
³ The FLTB is composed of representatives from all of CALL’s member agencies: The Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC), the Foreign Service Institute (FSI), the Central Intelligence Agency (CIA), the Defense Intelligence Agency (DIA), the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI), and the National Security Agency (NSA).
⁴ Although all federal testing agencies were guilty of allowing their test procedures to drift somewhat, the Oral Proficiency Interview as conducted by the Foreign Service Institute (FSI) represented the most obvious deviation from the stated standard. For approximately three years, FSI had been administering what was basically a different test than the one used at other federal agencies, incorporating a listening section and an “information pass” item (in which the examinee gathered information from one tester on a given topic and then “passed” that information to the other tester). The other agencies tested listening separately from speaking, and did not use the information pass item. Historian’s Notes, Telephonic interview with Dr. John L. D. Clark on 8 Jul 1998.
⁵ “Moving Toward Unified Language Testing,” CALLer (Fall 1994), 1-2.
Language Testing Plan (ULTP), and it was to change the way every federal proficiency tester evaluated speaking proficiency.

Because of the tremendous volume of proficiency testing DLIFLC conducted, the Institute had a huge stake in any changes to the test specifications. (DLIFLC tested all graduating students in the target language, and all applicants seeking employment as teachers or bilingual secretaries in both the target language and in English.) For this reason, DLIFLC personnel, chief among them Clark, made vital contributions to the ULTP. Clark was involved with this effort in one capacity or another from November 1992 until autumn 1994, and worked almost full time at CALL from June through October 1994 as a senior associate to the CALL director. All in all, DLIFLC personnel from a variety of directorates eventually contributed in the neighborhood of 1,100 man-hours to the development and validation of the new test procedures.

The pilot study of Spanish testing using the new Speaking Proficiency Test (SPT), the successor to the OPI, began in early November 1994. In this study, sixteen experienced CIA, DLIFLC, FBI, and FSI Spanish Proficiency Testers were retrained in the SPT at the National Foreign Affairs Training Center. In April 1995 the English pilot study began, this time using inexperienced (new) testers conducting approximately 300 tests of 75 subjects. In July 1995, experienced Russian testers from the aforementioned four agencies came to CALL for training in the SPT. Two weeks of classroom workshop training were followed by four weeks of practice. The Director of Central Intelligence’s Foreign Language Committee (DCI/FLC) released its combined report on the Spanish and English pilot studies in February 1996; the report on the Russian pilot study followed in May of that year. Both reports supported the validity of the new SPT test for measuring speaking proficiency.

As DLIFLC officials looked outward to DFLP-wide proficiency testing issues, they also looked inward to evaluate their own proficiency testing program. In response to concerns expressed by some deans concerning the validity of student speaking proficiency ratings, Sobichevsky held a fact-finding meeting with testing officials from ES on 15 June 1994. This meeting revealed some problems with DLIFLC proficiency test procedures, so Sobichevsky created the Oral Testing Task Force (OTTF) to investigate and to suggest solutions. The task force met throughout 1994 and 1995 and investigated a number of issues, including the training, certification, and recertification of oral proficiency testers; difficulties in scheduling proficiency tests for job applicants; quality control; and increasing tester motivation by linking performance of testing duties to the TAPES and FPS evaluation systems and by creating incentive awards. The

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6 Historian’s Notes, Telephonic Interview with Dr. John Clark, 8 Jul 1998; DLIFLC, DLIFLC-W, DLIELC Annual Reports, BILC Conference 1995, Hürth, Germany, p. 16.
7 E-mail message from Dr. Dariush Hooshmand to Steve Solomon, entitled “RE: DLIFLC Contributions to Unified Language Testing Plan (ULTP),” 3 Jun 1998; DLIFLC, DLI-W, DLIELC 1995 Annual Reports, p. 16.
OTTF also formulated a plan for simultaneously phasing in the new SPT while phasing out the OPI. The retraining of DLIFLC’s proficiency testers began in 1996.

The ULTP was a major factor in qualifying the DCI/FLC Reinvention Labs Team for a prestigious “Hammer Award,” which Vice President Albert Gore presented on 7 December 1994.

In 1995, while work on testing issues continued, ES personnel undertook three other major initiatives: ES began conducting bi-monthly Video Teletraining (VTT) sessions between the DLIFLC assistant commandant and the commandant of the Goodfellow Technical Training Center plus their respective key staff members for the purpose of discussing testing and student management. Following the development of the latest group of FLO Subskills tests, ES embarked on a project to develop specifications and objectives for the Content and Ancillary FLOs, which were to be developed initially in the schools. On 6 November 1995, ES began administering a new, simpler Automated Student Questionnaire (ASQ).

The Evaluation Division (ESE) briefed the command group monthly on problem areas identified by the ASQ, which was an important diagnostic tool for Institute managers during 1994. The Commandant responded to these briefings by creating several task forces to address problems with the Provost’s grading and testing system, audiotape quality in the Schools, and the OPI testing system. ESE worked on the design of a proposed Interim Student Questionnaire (ISQ) and began developing a Command Student Questionnaire for possible use in other TRADOC schools and an External Student Questionnaire (ESQ) for use with students in DLIFLC-sponsored VTT and Mobile Training Team (MTT) courses. Work on questionnaires continued in 1995 with the development of a new delivery and reporting program for the ASQ. ESE distributed an exportable ASQ to the DLIELC, Goodfellow AFB, the Australian Defence Language School, Lackland Technical Training Center, and Fort Bragg’s John F. Kennedy Special Warfare Center and School. By the end of Fiscal Year 1995, ESE had processed almost 1995 BILC Report states that ESE “developed an Interim Student Questionnaire to complement the ASQ” (p. 17), implying that the ISQ was completed and used at that time. Similar references exist in the 1993 Annual Command History (p. 78). However, these references now seem to be to planning or “sensing” sessions, because the earliest existing ISQs in the DLIFLC Command History collection are dated November 1997.
600 ESQs. ESE also developed a Command Language Program Manager’s Course Questionnaire in 1995.

During 1995, the External Evaluation Branch (EE) participated in Field Assistance Visits (FAVs) to approximately 15 language training sites and in a Staff Assistance Visit (SAV) and a Signal Intelligence (SIGINT) Training Advisory Conference at Goodfellow Technical Center (GTC). EE streamlined the FAV evaluation system and the Feedforward/Feedback (FF/FB) system. The branch also integrated FF/FB into the DLIFLC Local Area Network, initiated format conversion to Paradox for Windows, and entered all DLIFLC students into the database for use by organizations other than GTC. Important branch innovations were the integration of FF/FB data into the Commandant’s ASQ briefings and the creation of the automated Integrated Data Analysis System (IDAS) to track and report on issues across all evaluations. FF/FB activities continued in 1995: an FF/FB system was established with Fort Huachuca; narrative FF/FB capability was established for the system at Goodfellow AFB; Goodfellow and Fort Huachuca began FLO testing; and the Graduate Field Survey, for graduates of non-intelligence occupational specialty skills, was implemented.

The Test Administration Branch played a critical role in planning for the administration and scoring of the new FLO tests and in making significant changes to the OPI system through participation on the OPI Testing Task Force. By early 1996, Test Administration had been renamed Test Management.

During 1994, the Research Division changed its name to the Research and Analysis Division (ESR). With only four professional staffers, ESR managed to engage in a number of demanding projects during the year.

In keeping with the requirements of the Technology Transfer (T2) Program mandated by the Institute’s new status as a Federal Laboratory, ESR devoted considerable time and energy to the drafting of a licensing agreement to allow Heinle & Heinle, a major publisher of foreign language textbooks, to use DLIFLC’s Listening and Reading Book Templates. ESR also actively sought private-sector partners interested in using the Template Library developed by Faculty and Staff’s Technology Training Branch. Unfortunately, the agreement with Heinle & Heinle was never signed—development of the prototype legal documents took so long that, in the interim, the publisher was able to assemble an in-house team of programmers to do the job “from scratch,” making partnership with DLIFLC unnecessary—nor were interested parties found to

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14 In October 1993, DLIFLC attained the status of “a federal laboratory and research center for technology transfer purposes.” This status “both authorized and required” DLIFLC “to seek opportunities to share government-developed technology with private-sector partners, which may be either for-profit or non-profit in nature.” 1995 DLIFLC, DLIFLC-W, DLIELC Annual Reports, pp. 17-18. See also Memorandum, ATFL-CMT, for general distribution, Subject: DLIFLC Technology Transfer Program, 6 Oct 1995. Concerning DLIFLC’s templates, see Historian’s Notes, Interview with Dr. John Lett, Acting Director, ES, 30 Jun 1998. The Listening and Reading Book Templates and the Template Library are both modules designed to help non-programmers create computer assisted language study materials in ToolBook, an authoring environment from Asymetrix Corporation.
license the Template Library.\textsuperscript{15} Due to the problematic nature of government/private sector collaboration (including the federal government’s inability to create copyrighted materials), it would in fact be August 1996 before the Institute and a private-sector partner could sign a Cooperative Research and Development Agreement (CRADA).\textsuperscript{16} Nevertheless, ESR staff members diligently fulfilled their Federal Laboratory responsibilities by seeking additional training in copyright and trademark issues, attending the Computer Assisted Language Instruction Consortium (CALICO) annual meeting and the Asymetrix World Developers’ Conference for the purpose of demonstrating DLIFLC educational technologies, and attending the major fall meeting of the Federal Laboratory Consortium. Also, ESR advertised the T2 program in the journal of the Software Publishers Association and in the ACTFL Annual Meeting Program. In September 1995, Captain Wes Andrues, USAF, joined ESR as a full-time Technology Transfer Officer.

ESR continued participating in the CALL Research and Development Board, through which it received $90,000 to execute two projects on behalf of the CALL community: a controlled-access Bulletin Board System (BBS) for the exchange of non-classified but sensitive research data, and computer-based testing and opinionnaire templates.

DLIFLC personnel worked in close concert with a contractor to complete the research BBS, which was unveiled in February 1995. However, although CALL and its member agencies were all pleased with the product, it proved to have a short useful lifespan. Because of security concerns, CALL leadership had stipulated that the BBS not be connected to the Internet or to any other network. Hence, the only way to access the BBS was by placing a telephone call to the server, which was located in Monterey, California (specifically, in Munzer Hall). Most of the potential users resided on the East Coast and would thus incur long distance charges to use the BBS. The Director of Central Intelligence’s Foreign Language Committee declined to defray the cost of long distance charges, electing instead to pursue the development of Intranets, which were making the older BBS technology obsolete.\textsuperscript{17}

The computerized testing and opinionnaire template project, on the other hand, gave rise to much more durable products: the ASQs (and in 1997, the Interim Student Questionnaires [ISQs]) and the computerized Final Learning Objectives (FLO) Subskills Tests.\textsuperscript{18}

The ASQs replaced the old paper-and-pencil Student Opinion Questionnaires (SOQs) as a method of gathering data on end-of-course student satisfaction with the Institute’s faculty, materials, and training. The data was then used to improve subsequent classes. The ISQs were

\textsuperscript{15} Dr. John Lett, Director, ESR, interviewed by Steve Solomon, 16 Dec 1998.
\textsuperscript{17} DLIFLC, DLIFLC-W, DLIELC Annual Reports, p. 19; e-mail message from Dr. John Lett to Steve Solomon, “RE: CALL and ES, 1994-95,” 27 May 1998.
\textsuperscript{18} The FLO tests were developed by the Testing Division of ES. See below for details.
devised as a way of gathering information while the course was still in session, allowing for improvements before the students polled graduated.

As of this writing (March 1999), the ASQs/ISQs are still in use at DLIFLC, as are the computerized FLO Subskills Tests, which have also been exported to 12 remote sites, including Forts Bragg, Gordon, Hood, Huachuca, Shafter, Meade, and Lewis, and the Kunia Regional SIGINT (Signals Intelligence) Operations Center (RSOC).  

During 1994 and 1995, ESR worked on a number of significant research projects, including the following:

Data sharing agreements and procedures between DLIFLC and the Defense Manpower Data Center (DMDC) were detailed in a report released in June 1994. The purpose of the collaboration between DLIFLC and DMDC was to maintain historical DLIFLC student databases and link them with selected elements of DMDC’s databases.

In June 1994, ESR convened a round-table discussion of language families, language difficulty categories, and their implications for improving language aptitude assessment at a meeting of the CALL Research and Development Board. Also in 1994, ESR coordinated DLIFLC’s response to Department of the Army requests for information needed to compile a comprehensive list of languages for which proficiency pay would be authorized in the new, post-Soviet world. DLIFLC’s role was to provide the Army with expert advice in the creation of new language codes, the assignment of languages to difficulty categories, and the determination of language versus dialect/variant status. DLIFLC’s success in addressing these questions led to subsequent Army requests for quick-response assistance in researching the languages spoken in certain parts of the world, such as Rwanda, Jamaica, and Haiti.

ESR spent the first nine months of 1994 collecting validation data for the new Defense Language Aptitude Battery (DLAB) 1.5 by retesting approximately 2,230 students who had already taken the previous version of the DLAB. A report entitled Language Choice and Performance (Jackson and Shaw), Report FY95-01, was released in November 1994. It revealed very little correlation between students’ reported satisfaction with the language they had been assigned to study and their performance.

In September 1994, ESR released the Final Report Series of the Language Skill Change Project (LSCP), which was designed to examine the change in language skill levels in the months immediately following completion of DLIFLC training. The reports were very well received, and selected pre-publication findings were cited in the 1993 DoD Inspector General’s Report and the

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19 E-mail message from Dr. Dariush Hooshmand, Director, EST, to Steve Solomon, entitled “RE: Computerized FLO Tests,” 8 Jul 1998.
21 Out of this discussion arose some of the sessions at the Language Aptitude Invitational Seminar (LAIS), which the Center for Applied Language Learning (CALL) convened that September. ESR personnel attended, presenting sessions and assisting CALL in rating proposals for presentations.
22 The DLAB is used to assess the ability of prospective military language students to acquire new languages. Admission to courses in languages with higher difficulty classifications require higher DLAB scores.
1994 General Accounting Office Report, both concerning the DFLP. However, the age and limited scope of the original LSCP Final Report Series and the vast changes throughout the DFLP in the previous decade persuaded the Office of the Secretary of Defense to authorize a replication and expansion of the original LSCP called the LSCP Relook, for which CALL provided partial funding. Data collection began in June and August 1995 at two follow-on sites. The final report was published in 1997.

ESR research on immersion training and cross-training that began in 1994 continued into the following year and was accomplished via a contract with PRC, Inc., of Reston, Virginia. Development of the Language Awareness Course, a CD ROM-based program to prepare students for language study, was conducted under the PRC contract as well, beginning in September 1995. Also in 1995, ESR completed an analysis of remote language proficiency testing in coordination with the U.S. Marine Corps; evaluated the Korean Immersion Program (KIP) being conducted in Asian School II (Chapter III); and proposed and secured funding for the Proficiency Evaluation Project (PEP), designed to assess the proficiency levels being attained by language majors and other advanced students throughout the United States.

At the request of the Naval Postgraduate School (NPS), a new liaison program was inaugurated between DLIFLC and NPS. During the last six weeks of calendar year 1995, ESR hosted the NPS “Experience Tour” for three master’s candidates in the field of Operations Research Analysis. Each candidate identified a research topic that addressed a real-world informational need of the DLIFLC that was also acceptable to NPS faculty as a master’s thesis topic.

During 1994, the Testing Division (EST) completed DLPT IV batteries in Greek and Russian and started developing batteries in German, Polish, Portuguese, and Thai. In 1995, the Ukrainian DLPT IV was completed; completion of the German (Forms C and D), Persian (Forms C and D), Serbian/Croatian, and Vietnamese DLPT IV was slated for early 1996.

In November 1994, EST completed FLO tests in Korean, Polish, Russian, Spanish, and Vietnamese. EST developed FLO Subskills Tests in Arabic, Chinese, Filipino, Persian, Czech, Greek, Ukrainian, and Thai between September 1994 and February 1996. Each FLO test battery consisted of the following tests: (1) Listening/Summarize, (2) Listening/Content Questions, (3)

26 The DLPT IV consists of two forms of listening tests, two forms of reading tests, and four forms of a tape- and booklet-mediated speaking test. DLIFLC, DLI-W, DLIELC 1995 Annual Reports, pp. 20-21.
Transcription (Text), (4) Transcription (Numbers), (5) Reading (Printed Texts), (6) Reading (Handwritten Notes), (7) Translation (Target Language to English), (8) Translation (English to Target Language), (9) Speaking (Elicit Biographical Data), and (10) Speaking (Two-Way Interpretation). With the exception of the two speaking tests, which were administered face to face by trained testers, these tests were delivered by computer on CD-ROMs. Students recorded their answers in booklets, which raters scored manually.

In late summer 1994, EST was tasked on short notice to develop Constructed Response Tests in Listening and Reading in Belorussian. Several members of the Testing Division worked with two Subject Matter Experts (SMEs) from the department to develop and implement these tests.

The Language Proficiency Tester Training Branch (EST-W) was responsible for training and maintaining a cadre of approximately 300 testers in 28 languages during 1994 and 1995. In 1994, the EST-W assumed responsibility for training faculty members to administer the Elicit Bio-Data portion of the FLO test battery. In the summer of 1994, the Commandant created an Oral Proficiency Task Force to make recommendations on all aspects of testing speaking. EST-W trainers joined representatives of Test Administration and the Schools in serving on the Task Force, which presented a proposal for solutions to problems in the areas of test administration and tester training to the Commandant in the fall of that year.

Curriculum and Instruction

The mission of the Directorate of Curriculum and Instruction (DCI) was to support the teaching process in three ways: by guiding and facilitating course materials development (including both traditional media and computer software), by providing training and other opportunities for faculty professional development, and by facilitating the use of suitable educational technology by both teachers and students. Throughout 1994 and 1995, DCI personnel served in advisory and training capacities for course development projects in all seven schools, reviewing and providing feedback on all course development projects within these schools and serving as consultants and trainers in the areas of pedagogy, International Language Roundtable (ILR) skill-level descriptions, and lesson design.

During 1994 and 1995, DCI was organized into three divisions: Curriculum (DCI-C); Faculty and Staff (DCI-FS), which included the Technology Training Branch (DCI-TT); and Technology Integration (DCI-TI). DCI-C’s primary responsibility was supporting the Institute’s foreign language course development efforts. DCI-FS developed and conducted training for faculty members in academic matters, while DCI-TT focused on training in the use of technology. DCI-TI’s task was to make educational technology available to the Institute’s faculty and students.

Dr. Martha Herzog continued to serve as associate provost/dean of DCI. During the first quarter of 1995, Deniz Bilgin left the Directorate of Information Management (DOIM) to become

27 The term Constructed Response means that this is not a multiple-choice test. Answers must be written out, not chosen from a list of options.
branch chief of DCI-TI, replacing Joseph Krupski, who had assumed the duties of project coordinator for Arabic course development. In February 1995, Dr. Gordana Stanchfield transferred from DCI-C to DCI-FS.

As in previous years, DCI-C personnel cooperated closely with the academic coordinators and course developers in the Schools. Materials under development reflected the DFLP-wide emphasis on the so-called “less-commonly taught languages,” including Basic Courses in Belorussian, Russian, and Ukrainian; the Intermediate Persian Course, and the Serbian/Croatian Conversion Course. The Belorussian and Ukrainian Basic Courses were remarkable in that they had to be developed while instructors were actually teaching them.

Noteworthy for its “cross-training” approach, the Serbian/Croatian Conversion course was designed to retrain a number of linguists already qualified in other Slavic languages quickly in Serbian/Croatian in order to speed deployment of Serbian/Croatian linguists. The new course included a balance of Serbian/Croatian listening and reading texts from Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia, Dalmatia, Montenegro, and Serbia, thus redressing one of the failings of the old “Serbocentric” Serbo-Croatian course used at DLIFLC until 1987. Stanchfield collaborated with TI to plan and develop a computer assisted study component for the new course. These materials, consisting largely of listening comprehension exercises, were completed in 1995.

Other materials completed in 1995 included Russian for FBI and a syllabus and program of instruction (POI) for Russian for the On-Site Inspection Agency. The Vietnamese course writing team began work on materials for the second semester of the Basic Vietnamese Course.

In addition to Basic, Intermediate, and Conversion courses, DLIFLC also developed Proficiency Improvement Courses (PICs). During 1994, DCI-C assisted in the development of PICs in French, Czech, Korean, and Persian. The French PIC Reading track was completed in 1994, but a lack of resources prevented the completion of the other tracks.

Work continued into 1995 on a notable addition to the PIC lineup—the computer-assisted Czech language course, intended for use by both resident and non-resident students. The Czech computerized PIC provides about 80 hours of instruction addressing language levels 1+ to 2+ or 3. The Czech PIC was completed in March 1995 and was released to the field in 2 October 96. Jana Kunta-Reimann and George Petracek developed and programmed the course using Multimedia ToolBook; Steve Solomon, Writer/Editor, DCI-C, edited the English texts (instructions and answer keys); quality control was performed by Kyril Boyadjieff of DCI-TI preparatory to pressing and duplicating CD-ROMs for the field. The learning concepts of this project—namely, basing multimedia activities on the FLO Subskills and incorporating authentic texts to the greatest possible extent—made it the model for subsequent CALL-funded Language Maintenance Programs in Russian, Arabic, Serbian/Croatian, and Persian.

28 For details on the development of the Serbian/Croatian course, see Chapter III.
30 CALL requested that the name “Proficiency Improvement Courses” (and the acronym “PIC”) be changed to the “more straightforward title of Language Maintenance Programs” for these courses because they were
The frequent use of authentic materials in DLIFLC foreign language instruction gave rise to a number of copyright issues. Because the "fair use" provision for educational purposes in existing copyright law does not extend to republishing, DLIFLC had to secure permission from the copyright holders to incorporate such materials into DLIFLC and CALL courses. This requirement weighed especially heavily on course developers working in the less commonly taught languages: authentic materials for these languages are typically scarce, and the copyright holders are often difficult to locate.

DLIFLC had safeguards in place, but for help understanding this area of rapidly changing law, and often foreign law as well, the Institute requested legal advice. MAJ Murray B. Baxter, USA, an attorney from the Office of the Judge Advocate General, Intellectual Property Law Division, visited the Institute in February and March 1994. He provided mandatory training to all faculty, managers, supervisors, and all other employees whose work had anything to do with copyright issues. Baxter was critical of DLIFLC’s copyright compliance. However, thanks to vigorous support from the Provost, the Commandant, and Herzog, DLIFLC’s level of compliance increased dramatically within the space of six months. Baxter visited the Institute twice more to help DLIFLC faculty and administrators understand the requirements of copyright legislation.

DCI personnel cooperated closely with ASD in resolving both old and new copyright issues. In September 1994, with the financial support of CALL, Stanchfield traveled to several countries in the former Soviet Union to collect materials for Slavic course development projects and to secure copyright permission for both DLIFLC and CALL. She secured newspaper copyright releases by hand-carrying requests to the publishers and attempted to negotiate other releases, especially for broadcast materials essential to CALL course development projects. DCI translated copyright request and response letters into English for the use of ASD and, in 1995, established a system for tracking the status of all copyright requests. Also in 1995, Stanchfield devised a system for evaluating the use of authentic materials in existing DLIFLC Russian courses to determine what copyright releases were needed in order to publish the courses legally.31

DCI-C continued to provide “behind-the-scenes” support in two areas vital to the production of quality materials: editing and graphic arts. The main task of the editorial staff was to check all courses developed by the Institute for clarity, consistency, and completeness. During 1994 and 1995, the editors also wrote and/or edited some of the DLIFLC’s most important administrative, pedagogical, and procedural documents: the two DLIFLC Journals, Dialog on Language Instruction and Applied Language Learning; the Style Guide for the DLIFLC Journals; the Spanish DEA Pamphlet; and the 1996 General Catalog.

The graphics/visual personnel supporting DCI made great strides in computer literacy in 1994, gradually supplementing their hand-drawn work with clipart, computer-generated artwork,

designed for interagency use. E-mail message to Steve Solomon from Dr. Martha Herzog, Dean, CFD, entitled “RE: CX PIC Legacy?” 6 Jul 1998.

and scanned material. Significant contributions to DLIFLC publications continued in 1995. DCI graphic artists designed the cover of the 1996 General Catalog on the Macintosh computer system; produced a board game in seven languages involving speaking proficiency practice; illustrated DLPT IV for several languages; illustrated and formatted textbooks and/or textbook covers for DLIFLC courses; and worked on the DLIFLC Journals and various PIC courses.

The Basic Military Language Course (BMLC) development project financed by the Special Operations Forces (SOF) officially ended on 23 December 1993. However, at that time, some tasks remained unfinished, including the scanning of graphics, which was not yet complete for all languages. From January through June 1994, two graphic artists completed the scanning of all graphics for the thirteen languages, and the complete courses were put onto optical disks. Also, the Culture Notes of the French BMLC were rewritten and inserted into the course, and all of the audiotapes for the course were re-recorded.

A team of five DCI-TI specialists spent the months of January to October 1994 subjecting the approximately 4,500 BMLC computer assisted study (CAS) exercises that DLIFLC had developed for SOF to exacting scrutiny. The exercises were debugged, modified, and enhanced. This quality-control effort, necessitated by the tight deadlines under which the original, cutting-edge SOF-CAS project was completed, brought the reliability rate of the multimedia exercises to an estimated 99 percent. DCI-TI then pressed the SOF-CAS exercises onto CD-ROMs. TI worked on a number of other CAS-related projects as well, supplementing older courses with CAS materials or converting them entirely to the CAS format.

Although developed for the Special Operations Forces, the BMLCs proved useful for resident DLIFLC instruction as well. German, Spanish, Vietnamese, and Thai instructors began using BMLCs. The Vietnamese and Thai Departments devoted resources to developing supplemental listening exercises for their BMLCs.

In 1993, DLIFLC responded to the emerging language training requirements of the post-Cold War era with an increased emphasis on teacher training programs that could prepare individuals with proficiency in needed languages but little or no teaching experience for teaching duties at the Institute. Continuing this emphasis, DCI-FS spent approximately 60 hours in January and February of 1995 developing the new Pre-Instructor Certification Course (Pre-ICC) for incoming faculty members who lacked prior teaching experience or training.

In 1994, Steve Koppany of DCI and Dr. Maurice Funke, academic coordinator of East European I, facilitated teacher training for the 10th Special Forces Group in Fort Devens, Massachusetts, and Fort Carson, Colorado. Koppany and Funke developed a comprehensive 16-

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32 1993 DLIFLC Annual Command History, pp. 91-93.
33 Ibid, p. 81.
34 Note that while the DLIFLC, DLI-W, DLIELC 1996 Annual Reports, (p. 4), refers to the Pre-ICC as “the first step in the ongoing development of the Military Language Instructor (MLI) Certification Course,” there was, in fact, no separate course for MLIs. All DLIFLC instructors, whether civilian or military, were required to complete the ICC; those lacking a teaching background were required to complete the Pre-ICC before beginning the ICC.
week program of instruction capable of serving as a model curriculum for any refresher program. Koppany and Funke made the program available to DCI staff and to the Academic Coordinators of each DLIFLC language school. In December 1994, TT staff joined forces with two members of Faculty and Staff to design and discuss a teacher-training packet for resident and non-resident VTT trainers. TT designed a short course on the production of quality audiotapes. TT staff presented the course to two schools and made it available to other schools upon request. FS developed a new one-week workshop designed to improve the effectiveness of student counseling at DLIFLC and presented it five times during 1994. FS also offered the Skill Level Descriptions course; courses in teaching listening comprehension, reading, and speaking; a course in teaching the Final Learning Objectives (FLOs); and nine Instructor Certification Courses (ICCs). ICC participants included representatives of Command Language Programs from Florida, Korea, and Japan.

DLIFLC continued to support participation by its teachers in the Master of Teaching Foreign Language (MATFL) program at the Monterey Institute of International Studies (MIIS) by covering 100 percent of their tuition.\(^\text{35}\) During 1994-95, 12 DLIFLC faculty members, 3 of whom were Military Language Instructors (MLIs), earned MATFL degrees. Four civilian teachers and one MLI earned MIIS certificates.\(^\text{36}\) All parties involved benefited from the cooperation between the two institutes: MIIS enjoyed increased enrollment, DLIFLC faculty members enhanced their teaching skills and their opportunities for career advancement, and the Institute and its students benefited from better-trained faculty.

DCI curriculum specialists were involved in the Final Learning Objectives (FLO) test development effort from the outset, working on the test specifications, the training of the test writers, the actual development process in nine languages, and providing quality control.

In the late eighties, a revolution in the computer industry sparked a revolution in the field of foreign language education. The appearance of authoring systems—programs that allow even novice computer users to “author” their own software by choosing items from pull-down menus and writing scripts in simplified programming languages resembling English—sparked a movement to turn foreign language teachers into developers of computer-assisted course

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\(^{35}\) E-mail message from Darlene Jones, Education Center Chief, to Steve Solomon, RE: “DLI support for MATFL candidates?” 17 Mar 1999.

\(^{36}\) Earning the certificate requires 17 hours of practical coursework (including methods, curriculum, and language testing courses). The MATFL degree requires an additional 20 hours of coursework in theory and advanced practical topics. Dr. Jean Turner, Associate Professor of Applied Linguistics/Academic Advisor for DLI-Sponsored Students, Monterey Institute of International Studies, interviewed by Steve Solomon, 27 Aug 1998 and 23 Mar 1999.
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materials. The movement culminated in November 1994 with the release of the DLIFLC Template Library by the Technology Training Branch of DCI-FS.

The Template Library was an “add-on” to the authoring system ToolBook, intended to enforce sound foreign language pedagogy while simplifying the task of programming. The Template Library did not represent DLIFLC’s first foray into the arena of teacher-developed computer courseware, nor was it the only such tool available: the Template Library faced competition from the so-called Varosh Templates and from WinCALIS. However, the Template Library was superior to both its competitors. In its support for a variety of activity types, its incorporation of Final Learning Objectives (FLO) principles, and its ability to create programs for both low- and high-level courses, the Template Library went far beyond the Varosh Templates. In 1995, a three-way contest between development teams conclusively demonstrated that the Template Library was quicker and easier to use than WinCALIS. Shortly after the release of the Template Library, faculty trainers began developing and presenting Template Library training, both at DLIFLC and elsewhere in the DFLP. The Library’s user-friendly features and specific focus on language course development made it even easier to use than ToolBook, cutting training time in half. The Template Library received an enthusiastic welcome in the DFLP at large, created quite a stir at the 1995 ACTFL Conference and the Asymetrix.

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37 The first authoring system was Apple Computer’s WildCard for the Macintosh, renamed HyperCard by the time it was released in 1987. Imitators, such as Asymetrix’ ToolBook for the IBM platform and Allegiant’s SuperCard for the Macintosh, followed.


39 An earlier attempt by former DLIFLC Commandant Colonel Donald Fischer to use HyperCard for this purpose was frustrated when the Department of Defense mandated the purchase of PCs rather than Macintoshes.

Jon Varosh, a DLIFLC employee, developed his Listening and Reading Book Templates between December 1992 and March 1993 on his own time and initiative, then generously transferred copyright to the federal government to make his work available to the Technology Transfer (T2) Program. Like the Template Library, the Varosh Templates were ToolBook add-ons. The Varosh Templates enjoyed considerable success at DLIFLC: Varosh modules were hosted on LingNet, trainers from Faculty and Staff offered resident and non-resident courses in the use of the Varosh Templates, and the publisher Heinle & Heinle negotiated for permission to use the Varosh materials. Historian’s notes, Interview with Dr. John Lett, Acting Dean, ES, 30 Jun 1998.

WinCALIS, an independent system rather than a ToolBook add-on, was developed at Duke University with funding from the National Security Agency (NSA). Despite bugginess and questions over intellectual property ownership that arose when one of the developers left Duke, WinCALIS had adherents at DLIFLC and at West Point. As of Mar 1999, WinCALIS modules were still to be found on LingNet.

40 Each of the teams developed a Listening Comprehension Maintenance course: Kazimirez (Kaz) Gonet and his team used the Template Library to develop a Russian program; meanwhile, using WinCALIS, Brigitta Ludgate and her team developed a Spanish program and Steve Koppany led a team developing an Arabic program. All three courses were very good, but the Template Library was clearly the more powerful development tool. Unlike the WinCALIS teams, Gonet’s ToolBook team had no need to resort to “from scratch” programming and hence finished so far ahead of schedule that there was time to develop an extra Reading component.
Developers Conference, and demonstrated its usefulness in training civilian and military faculty as well as in designing foreign language course materials.

Unfortunately, the Template Library would not achieve the same level of success at the Institute as it did elsewhere. A number of factors conspired to undermine the Template Library’s popularity at DLIFLC: Busy schedules and a lack of modern computer equipment in the Schools prevented most teachers from developing software. Shorthandedness in the Technology Training shop precluded updates to the Library. Philosophically, the Institute shifted away from teachers and back to professional ToolBook programmers as developers of computerized courses. In the field, however, the Template Library enjoyed continuing popularity over the next several years.

DLIFLC continued to participate in the activities of the Center for the Advancement of Language Learning (CALL). In 1994, Herzog served as DLIFLC's focal point officer for course development projects and faculty training funded by CALL. With the Provost serving on the CALL Executive Committee, DLIFLC received $125,000 for in-house development of the Ukrainian Basic Course, $180,000 for contract Persian Basic Course development, $94,500 for Persian PIC development, and $94,500 for Korean PIC development.

DCI personnel served as consultants, reviewing and monitoring CALL course development projects via telephone conference calls, tele-video conferences, and TDY trips to various locations throughout the U.S. DCI staff also assisted and trained course developer teams and contractors, served as team leaders for specific language projects, and provided useful support for team leaders in the other government schools.

Notable DLIFLC/CALL collaborations included a module-based Syrian Arabic course designed to raise student proficiency from Level 1+ or 2 to Level 2+ or 3; an intermediate speaking course in Cantonese targeted at students with a speaking proficiency between 1+ and 3; and a basic course in Armenian designed to bring a beginning student to Level 2 in speaking. All three courses made extensive use of video clips.

FS coordinated and helped design three CALL-sponsored courses: The Korean Interactive Video Workshop (24 hours) and Models of Teacher Supervision (4 hours) in April 1994; and Simulation and Gaming in Teaching a Foreign Language (12 hours) in September 1994.

In 1995, Herzog coordinated with CALL to plan joint agency projects for easily portable sustainment packages for less commonly taught languages. The CALL Executive Committee approved DLIFLC development in Arabic, Persian, Russian, and Serbian/Croatian, as well as a

41 The need for trained programmers revealed another irony: ToolBook and other authoring systems, originally designed to allow non-programmers to program, had become so complex that novice users could no longer access all their features.
42 Personnel at Goodfellow Air Force Base; the 470th Military Intelligence Battalion in Panama City, Panama; and Fort Lewis remain enthusiastic users of the Template Library, frequently requesting additional training from DLIFLC. Teacher-developers at Fort Lewis used the Template Library to create lessons in Indonesian, Thai, and Korean for internal use.
43 For detailed information about the activities of CALL, see Chapter I.
Basic Course for Ukrainian. DCI-C Curriculum Specialists reviewed the Syrian Arabic, Cantonese, and Armenian courses developed in 1994, as well as courses in Turkmen, Serbian, Persian, and Ukrainian; in addition, DCI-C personnel supervised the revision of the Persian Basic Course. 45

Not all of DLIFLC’s training is conducted at the POM or the DLI-Washington Office. DLIFLC also exports training by means of VTT and MTTs. During 1994, DCI-FS dispatched MTTs to Saudi Arabia, Fort Bragg, and Fort Gordon to teach the Instructor Certification Course (ICC). During the development of the Template Library (see above), Brigitta Ludgate and Steve Koppany of DCI-TT formed an MTT to conduct ToolBook- and/or Template-related training for I Corps at Fort Lewis; III Corps at Fort Hood; Lackland Air Force Base-Medina; the 470th Military Intelligence Battalion, Corozal, Panama City, Panama; and at CALL. Weekly follow-on training via telephone followed the MTT visit to Lackland Air Force Base-Medina, where personnel were developing foreign language activities for a computer-based curriculum. Koppany facilitated one VTT, a teacher training workshop. Koppany was assisted by Solfrid Johansen of DCI-FS and Kitako Henderson, a VTT trainer who had formerly worked for Operations, Plans and Programs (OPP).

DCI-FS conducted many hours of training via MTTs in 1995. From 3 to 13 January at the Washington office, Solfrid Johanson and TSgt. Don Weber, USAF, of FS conducted the Instructor Certification Course (ICC) for seven Haitian Creole instructors slated to teach at the Presidio of Monterey. From 23 January to 3 February, Kaz Gonet and Koppany conducted a 40-hour intermediate computer authoring workshop for civilian instructors at the Foreign Language Training Facility, I Corps, Fort Lewis, WA. From 13 to 24 February, Koppany and Ludgate of FS-TT conducted an 80-hour computer authoring workshop for seven military personnel and one civilian instructor at the 470th Military Intelligence Battalion in Corozal, Panama. Barbara Darrah of the European and Latin American School (SWL) and Johanson conducted the 80-hour ICC for new contract instructors at the John F. Kennedy Special Warfare Center and School (JFKSWCS) at Fort Bragg from 6 to 17 March. FS sent another MTT to Fort Bragg to teach the ICC again from 4 through 15 September. FS also made significant contributions to DLIFLC’s Serbian/Croatian instruction effort (see Chapter III).

DLIFLC and CALL collaborated on a number of faculty workshops in 1994 and 1995. A Korean Instructor’s Workshop in August 1993 led to two follow-up sessions in the spring of 1994, one of which afforded 18 Korean teachers an opportunity to meet with educators from the University of Hawaii. DLIFLC hosted a Thai Teacher’s Workshop in August 1994 for 20 DLIFLC Thai teachers, who met with educators from Northern Illinois University and the University of Hawaii. Dr. Donald Freeman and Dr. Kathleen Bailey conducted a workshop entitled “Alternate Models of Teacher Supervision” at DLIFLC in April 1994. 46

CALL promoted the use of technology to foster cooperation and sharing of resources by the members of the federal language teaching community, providing software, Internet access,

45 Ibid.
46 “Workshops for Instructor Development,” CALLer (Spring 1994), 3.
Web browsers, and other computer materials via its Resource Center in Arlington, Virginia. Of the greatest use to DLIFLC were two databases with which CALL was involved: the Database of Less Commonly Taught Languages from the University of Minnesota and the Language Materials Database under development at the University of California at Los Angeles (UCLA). The Minnesota database contains information about institutions of higher learning offering programs of instruction in less commonly taught languages. It is a database of contact persons rather than of teachers or of language study materials. The UCLA database contains dictionaries, grammars, multimedia, and other materials for numerous languages, as well as information on 1,000 other languages taken from the Minnesota database. The Language Materials Project was conducted jointly by UCLA and the Center for Applied Linguistics in Washington, DC. Although originally funded by the Department of Defense, as of fall 1994, the Project was located at CALL. These databases continue to prove very helpful to both DLIFLC personnel and to CLPs, providing resources that are otherwise difficult or impossible to find.

As 1995 drew to a close, DCI was a thriving organization that continued to receive high levels of funding from CALL. But beginning in 1996, budget cuts would make DCI’s status uncertain and would lead to a reorganization in 1997.

*Academic Administration*

The mission of the Directorate of Academic Administration (DAA) is to serve as the program manager and principal advisor to the Provost on administration of resident training and training development in support of the Defense Foreign Language Program. DAA is under the direction of a Dean and an Associate Dean, who are supported by a Records Analyst. The Directorate consists of the Academic Records Division, the Aiso Library, and the Program Management Division, each under a division chief.

The years 1994 and 1995 saw turnover in key DAA personnel and—as a result of the standup of the new Garrison—some changes in the directorate’s structure as well. The Chief of Academic Records position, held for many years by a succession of Army captains, became a permanent civilian slot in early 1994. Roelof Wijbrandus was recruited to fill this position in February 1994. The graduation NCO position also became a permanent civilian slot at this time. Augustine Salgado was recruited in March 1994 as the first civilian computer assistant for graduations. Captain Juan Camacho, USAF, DAA’s Executive Officer (XO), departed in April 1994 and was succeeded in April 1994 and was succeeded by a series of short-term replacements, the last of whom left DAA in

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47 The Resource Center opened in late 1994, then celebrated an “official” opening in the spring of 1995, at which expanded services were unveiled. “Resource Center,” CALLer (Spring 1994), 6-8; “CALL’s Resource Center Officially Open!” CALLer (Summer 1995), 1.

48 “Language Materials Database Now Available,” and “Less Commonly Taught Languages Database from the University of Minnesota Available via GOPHER,” CALLer (Spring 1995), 8-9. At the time the latter article was written, the UCLA database boasted materials for 35 languages, with 5 more expected by the end of Fiscal Year 1995.

October 1994. The XO position remained vacant through the end of calendar year 1995. In May of that year, Salgado departed and the computer assistant position for graduations became a graduation clerk position. Michael Matheson was hired to fill this slot. DAA dean Jawdat “Joe” Yonan passed away on 19 October 1995. Dr. Alex Vorobiov became the new dean on 20 November 1995.

The mission of the Academic Records Division was (1) to establish and maintain student enrollment records and produce student transcripts upon request; (2) to process all student actions and maintain Army Training Requirements and Resources System (ATRRS) and local student databases; and (3) to certify student eligibility for graduation, prepare graduation documentation, and coordinate arrangements for formal graduation ceremonies.

During 1994 and 1995, AR performed registrar functions for the annual population of about 3,000 resident foreign language students, to include maintaining and updating student enrollment files and the student database; coordinating graduations; publishing graduation bulletins; and providing monthly, quarterly, and annual statistical reports.

The mission of the Aiso Library was (1) to manage and operate the Library and Learning Center, (2) to provide information and research resources in support of foreign area studies and language learning, and (3) to procure printed materials in support of DLIFLC classroom instruction. The Aiso Library’s chief librarian of 18 years, Gary Walter, retired in September 1994 and was replaced by Margaret Groner, the former systems librarian. Also retiring that year were Celia Pamintuan, the collection development librarian, who was replaced by Carol Marvos; and Adorjan deGalfy, who was replaced by Roberta Forrest as catalog librarian.

The Aiso Library was administered by a chief librarian and has a requirement and authorization for 13 library staff, based on staffing formulas. Despite this authorization, underfunding has prevented the Library from ever employing more than 12 staff members. During 1994 and 1995, the library was operating with 11 full-time personnel (6 librarians and 5 technicians). Each librarian worked an average of 12 hours of overtime weekly to enable the Library to remain open on weekends. During 1995, the Library recruited a temporary retrospective catalog technician to create electronic records for those items not yet cataloged in electronic form.50 The library subsequently (on 26 July 1995) issued the draft of a new collection development policy. In 1994, the library was open an average of 72 hours per week, Sunday through Friday. In 1995 the average dropped to approximately 67 hours per week. Over 300 people visited the library per day.51

The Aiso Library continued to provide information resources to support course development, language instruction, and area studies throughout 1994 and 1995. Along with acquiring and keeping printed and non-printed materials essential to current and future requirements, the library provided facilities and assistance for current students, teachers, and staff.

50 E-mail message from Margaret J. Groner to Steven R. Solomon, “RE: Aiso Staffing,” 30 Jun 1998.
The most noteworthy events during this time period concerned the increased use of computers. In 1994, Aiso Library installed a CD-ROM public-access catalog and an automated circulation system that circulates items with a bar-code number. A local area network was installed to support this new circulation system and to link library office computers. The library also set up four public-use computers with commercial language software programs, including word processors. The TRADOC Library Network (TRALINET) Office provided two multimedia computers, one of which was made available for public use. The DLIFLC language schools lent five computers to the library for student use.

The mission of the Program Management Division (PM) was (1) to develop and coordinate plans and policies, and to collect, organize, and provide data in support of the management of resident training and training development; (2) to conduct the Quarterly Review and Analysis Program; (3) to collect, validate, and maintain a database of team activities; (4) to coordinate and prepare the Training Module (TRAMOD) and Army Extension Training Information System (AETIS) reports, and (5) to prepare the Training Development Five-Year Plan.

Under the direction of PM Chief Joe Jackson, the division designed and implemented the Consolidated Team Activity Report System (CTARS) in October 1994. This system captured the time spent on various teaching-related activities by each individual team member. It also allowed, though use of a relational database, for relating the results of a group of students to the team of teachers by whom they were taught.

The division also produced the Annual Program Summaries. These statistical analyses of the results achieved in the various language programs of the Institute were widely used in briefings both within and outside the Institute. The Annual Program Reviews (APRs) were conducted in February 1994 (for fiscal year 1993) and December 1995 (for fiscal year 1994).

**Foreign Area Officer Program**

The mission of the Foreign Area Officer (FAO) Program was to coordinate the three-phase training program (language, graduate school, and in-country) and manage the orientation of new Foreign Area Officers in accordance with applicable policies and procedures of the FAO Proponent Division of the Office of the Deputy Chief of Staff for Operations (ODCSOPS). As 1994 began, the FAO Program was part of Area Studies, a provost activity. By May 1994, Area Studies had been abolished and the FAO Program director reported directly to the provost. However, by early 1995, the program was subordinated to the assistant commandant.

The FAO Program conducted a one-week orientation course (FAOOC) for new FAOs and their spouses, and a guest speaker program that brought regional experts from academia and from the U.S. and foreign governments to lecture at the Presidio of Monterey. The FAO Office provided administrative assistance and professional guidance for all FAOs (over 300 annually) undergoing DLIFLC language training.

LTC James Silva, USA, served as director of the FAO Program from 1 September 1993 to 30 July 1995, when he was replaced by LTC Gary Walker, USA. In addition to managing the
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FAO Program, the director was responsible for overseeing the operation of DLIFLC’s Weckerling International Cultural and Language Center.52

*Weckerling Center*

The mission of the Weckerling International Cultural and Language Center in 1994 and 1995 was to provide a multi-use facility for the conduct of cultural and educational activities that contributed to the overall accomplishment of the DLIFLC and POM missions. Activities were conducted to provide a more thorough immersion in cultural understanding, and included films, classes in international cooking, and cultural workshops. Marina Minelli served as the director of cultural activities, and Achmad Hidajat served as the services coordinator. In June 1995, Hidajat accepted a position with the Curriculum and Instruction Directorate and was succeeded by Richard Neal.53

52 Memorandum for Commander, DLIFLC, ATTN: Command Historian (Mr. Steve Solomon), Presidio of Monterey, CA 93944; Subject: FAO Program Input to DLIFLC Command History (CY 1994-1995), 6 Jul 1998.
53 Ibid.
CHAPTER V
Support to Command Language Programs and Operational Contingencies

The Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) has the threefold mission to train, sustain, and evaluate military linguists. Operations, Plans and Programs (OPP) contributed to all three mission areas in 1994-95: Through its scheduling function, it supported both resident and nonresident training. By supporting linguists in the field with study materials, it bore the primary responsibility for sustainment. By scheduling proficiency tests for field linguists, it contributed to the evaluation mission. OPP also coordinated DLIFLC’s support to operational contingencies, which were many and varied during these 24 months.

Operations, Plans, and Programs Directorate

The second of the three phases of the major reorganization of 1993 was the creation of the Operations, Plans and Programs Directorate. Creation of OPP was DLIFLC’s response to a recommendation by the Department of Defense Inspector General that the Institute establish “a comprehensive plan for supporting Command Language Programs (CLPs).”1 OPP also fulfilled the requirement for provision of “technical oversight as well as operational and planning support to the DFLP” stated in DoD Directive 5160.41, Defense Foreign Language Program.2 OPP had four main functions: (1) strategic planning for the entire Institute, (2) planning for and monitoring the Institute’s student population by language and branch of service, (3) responding to operational contingencies involving the need for military linguists, and (4) supporting linguists in the field by providing language study materials and training to CLPs. The OPP director reported to the assistant commandant.

OPP was under the leadership of Maj. Maria Constantine, USAF, and comprised two divisions, Programs and Proponency (PP) and Plans and Operations (PO).3 OPP-PP was responsible for linguist life cycle management, the development and implementation of policies and procedures concerning CLPs, the Worldwide Language Olympics, and the LingNet Bulletin Board System (BBS). OPP-PO was charged with the “development of policies and procedures for resident and nonresident foreign language training requirements”; with maintaining “liaison with outside agencies in matters pertaining to training requirements and quotas, translation and interpretation services, mobile training teams and video teletraining”; with coordination of “language support to mobilization and contingency operations” and with marketing reimbursable

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3 On 1 November 1994, Constantine officially became OPP Director. Constantine had served as Acting Director since October 1993, when serious illness forced the retirement of Lieutenant Colonel Britt L. Edwards, USA, who had served as Director, Operations, Plans, and Doctrine (one of OPP’s predecessor organizations) and Reserve Affairs Advisor. DLIFLC, DLIFLC-W, DLIELC Annual Reports, BILC Conference 1995, Hürth, Germany, p. 16; 1993 DLIFLC Annual Command History, p. 42; “Presidio Portrait of Lt. Col. Maria C. Constantine, Director, Operations, Plans and Programs,” Globe (Nov 1995), 2; Art Gebbia, Chief, Scheduling Division, OPP-PO, interviewed by Steve Solomon, 4 Nov 1998.
services and materials. OPP also maintained an Army Reserve Advisor’s Office to assist in the development of CLPs for reserve components, serve as point of contact with reserve units and higher headquarters, provide materials and specialty training for reserve and National Guard students, and to advise the DLIFLC command staff on reserve issues.

In 1994, OPP faced the task of “implementing and refining the reorganization of 1993.” Constantine accomplished this task by reorganizing the Proponency Branch of OPP-PP and transferring the Law Enforcement Support Program (LESP) to the Plans and Operations Division. Details about the restructuring and activities of the two divisions are treated separately below.

Programs and Proponency Division

MAJ Greg Robinson, USA, was chief of OPP-PP. Robinson was replaced by Capt. Rob Terselic, USMC, who served as division chief until 24 August 1994, when he departed for an assignment at USMC Base Twentynine Palms, California. Terselic was replaced by Capt. Ken Lasure, USMC. OPP-PP was divided into the Programs Branch and the Proponency Branch.

In October 1995, Joe Betty, a 28-year veteran USAF Korean linguist, former Goodfellow teacher/Training Section Chief, and former DLIFLC Military Language Instructor and Evaluation and Standardization (ES) employee, became the first Programs Branch chief. He was responsible for supervising other members of the branch and for the CLP Newsletter; the CLP Managers Course and the development of the new Commanders’ CLP Course; the CLP of the Year program; the revision of DLIFLC Pamphlets 350-5 (DLIFLC Catalog of Instructional Materials) and 350-9 (Guidelines for CLPs) and other publications; for LingNet; and for planning and auditing Field Assistance Visits (FAVs).

After the 1994 reorganization, the Proponency Branch of OPP-PP consisted of two teams, a Procurement and Development (P&D) Team and a Linguist Network (LingNet) Team. The reorganized Proponency Branch served as the single point of contact for three important taskings: “(1) facilitating the development and distribution of Computer Aided Study (CAS) materials, (2) oversight and expansion of the linguist computer bulletin board (LINGNET), and (3) expertise concerning linguist life cycle management and language issues.” CW4 Bob Higgins, USA, was appointed the first Proponency Branch chief, but was replaced later in the year by CW3 Fred Runo, USA. The P&D Team was led by SFC Bob Stutz, USA, and charged with incorporating field requirements into the DLIFLC’s language training material development efforts. Stutz

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5 DLIFLC Regulation 10-1, 6 May 1994, 10.
served as team leader until his retirement from the Army. He was replaced by SSG Ronald E. Johansen, USA, in June 1995.9

*LingNet*

The LingNet “Team” was a team of one, TSgt. Red Lloyd, USAF, the LingNet Systems Operator, who monitored and controlled access to the Bulletin Board System (BBS) and responded to requests from users. The LingNet BBS served as DLIFLC’s computer network for linguists. Thanks to “increased monitoring, upgraded equipment, and additional information,” the years 1994 and 1995 were a time of growth and diversification for the network, which prior to 1994 had been an “unstable BBS with limited information and only 26 local users.”10 In response to a suggestion by LTC John Daly, USA, then-Action Officer for the DFLP at ODCSOPS, that the Institute develop new ways of distributing materials, DLIFLC used LingNet to deliver phrasebooks in Word 4.0 format for the Rwanda operation.11 LingNet also became a valuable communication tool for DLIFLC course developers, enabling the Haitian Creole development team to continue work via e-mail during the absence of a key member of the team.12 The roster of authorized users more than doubled (from approximately 1,000 to over 2,035) between July and December 1995. Meanwhile, the number of supported languages rose from 10 to 13. LingNet became accessible on the Internet and then via the World Wide Web. By year’s end, the LingNet Website boasted 17 language pages (the newest of which were Hungarian and Persian-Farsi) and two general interest pages.13 It was in 1995 that LingNet evolved beyond its previous role as a messaging system to include a truly extensive library of files, including modules created with the Varosh Templates and with WinCALIS.14

*Worldwide Language Olympics*

The Worldwide Language Olympics (WLO) is an annual for military linguists in the field, designed to pinpoint linguistic weaknesses and to encourage and reward proficiency maintenance. Linguists in Command Language Programs (CLPs) around the world competed in local Language Olympics events—which included games requiring both linguistic proficiency...
and area knowledge and emphasizing the ability to perform critical military tasks in a given target language—to qualify for competition in the prestigious worldwide event in Monterey.\footnote{For an account of one such local competition, see “Where military linguists do battle,” \textit{Stars and Stripes} (31 Mar 1994), 3.}

OPP-PP sponsored the third annual olympics 16-20 May 1994. The featured languages were Modern Standard Arabic, Cantonese, Mandarin, Korean, Russian, and Spanish. Offices of the On-Site Inspection Agency (OSIA) made an especially strong showing, taking both first (OSIA Washington) and third (OSIA Magna, Utah) place in the overall rankings. The 10\textsuperscript{th} Special Forces Group from Fort Devens, Massachusetts, took second place. SrA Paul Martindale and TSgt. Tony Costello brought honor to DLIFLC’s Middle East School II by attaining first place in the Arabic competition.\footnote{“Language Olympics: more than just a game,” \textit{Globe} (29 April 1994), 8; “Linguists named 1994 Language Olympics winners,” \textit{Globe} (Aug 1994), 18.}

DLIFLC’s Marine Corps Detachment sponsored the fourth annual olympics, which were held 15-19 May 1995 and attracted nearly 300 participants from 59 military units and federal agencies in such diverse locations as Alaska, Japan, Korea, Hawaii, Germany, and Russia. Two-linguist teams competed in Modern Standard Arabic, Mandarin, Korean, Russian, and Spanish. Top overall honors went to 694 IG, Fort Meade, Maryland; OSIA Washington placed second, followed by OSIA Moscow in third place. The Medina Regional SIGINT (Signals Intelligence) Operations Center (RSOC), Kelly AFB, was the overall VTT winner.\footnote{“Language Olympics,” \textit{CLP Newsletter} (Feb 1995, Web version); “Worldwide Language Olympics ’95,” \textit{CLP Newsletter} (Jun 1995, Web version); “Language ‘athletes’ square off: DLIFLC hosts fourth annual Worldwide Language Olympics,” “1995 Worldwide Language Olympics winners,” and “Linguists spar in airwave olympics,” \textit{Globe} (Jun 1995), 4-9.}

\textit{Command Language Program Managers’ Seminars/Course}

A Command Language Program Managers’ (CLPM) Seminar was held 6-10 June 1994. In addition to the more general purpose of updating CLPMs on the status of DLIFLC materials and services, the seminar served as a workshop for development of a 40-hour CLP Manager’s Course. A second gathering, termed the CLPM Course Design Workshop, convened 17-21 October 1994 to write lesson plans and homework assignments based on the outlines and suggestions from the participants in the June seminar. The course was designed to teach new CLPMs how to establish and operate an effective CLP, to include not only academic issues of instruction and evaluation but also managerial issues such as budgeting, advertising, and regulatory guidance. The CLPM course could also be customized to meet the specific needs of the students in attendance.\footnote{DLIFLC, DLIFLC-W, DLIELC 1995 Annual Reports, p. 3; “CLPM Workshop,” \textit{CLP Newsletter} (Jul 1994), 1; “CLPM Course Design Workshop,” \textit{CLP Newsletter} (Nov 1994, Web version).}

The first draft of the quarterly Command Language Program Managers’ Course was completed and approved in December 1994. The course was first conducted 13-17 March 1995. A Forces Command (FORSCOM)-specific iteration was planned for 26-30 June 1995. Another
iteration open to all services and Major Commands (MACOMs) was conducted 11-15 September 1995. OPP-PP and Faculty and Staff personnel conducted a CLPM course in Garmisch-Partenkirchen, Germany, 7-11 August 1995, followed by a series of FAVs. There were two other nonresident iterations, 27 November-1 December 1995 in Hawaii and 4-8 December 1995 in Korea. A total of 56 managers from all services took part in resident courses in 1995; the total for nonresident courses was 39.

DLIFLC hosted the first CLPM seminar of 1995 from 8 to 12 May. Participants discussed a number of topics, including ways to improve CLP access to foreign language training materials and to simplify requests for Oral Proficiency Interviews, and learned about voice recognition technology and computer-assisted study authoring software.

Other Support to Command Language Programs

As in previous years, OPP-PP continued to support Command Language Programs in other ways as well: Members of the division conducted a number of Field Assistance Visits (FAVs) to help military units all over the world to establish and maintain CLPs. During 1994, OPP-PP sent $677,344 worth of language study materials and survival kits gratis and sold another $170,597 worth to units and individuals. In 1995, OPP-PO sent materials valued at approximately $332,188, for which DLIFLC was reimbursed approximately $98,000.

Finally, OPP-PP created DLIFLC Pamphlet 350-13, Foreign Language Services, to provide CLPs and individuals with a complete listing of all DLIFLC services and points of contact. By the close of calendar year 1995, there were 255 CLPs encompassing all four branches of the military, both active and reserve components.
**Plans and Operations Division**

LCDR Cheri Waterford, USN, served as chief of OPP-PO. By early 1995, Capt. Juan Camacho, USAF, had taken over for Waterford as OPP-PO chief. Camacho transferred to Saudi Arabia in mid-1995 and was replaced by Capt. Benedict Bourgeois, USAF. OPP-PO consisted of three branches: the Video-Teletraining Systems Branch, the Training Management Branch, and the Plans Branch. Art Gebbia served as program analyst. From March through July 1994, OPP-PO consolidated all its resources and moved from building 517 into buildings 636B, 637A, and 637B.

**Law Enforcement Support and Other Programs**

During 1994, the Law Enforcement Support Program (LESP) significantly contributed to the nation’s War on Drugs. Serving on Mobile Training Teams (MTTs) together with teachers from the Institute’s schools, LESP personnel conducted over 1,000 hours of foreign language training for law enforcement agencies at every level from local to state to federal, including the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI), the Drug Enforcement Agency (DEA), and the U.S. Customs Service. OPP provided additional support to law enforcement officers by developing custom language training materials, including a U.S. Coast Guard module for the Latin American Headstart Program and a Spanish for Law Enforcement book and tape. These materials were designed specifically to target the special needs of the user agencies.

The LESP was part of OPP-PP until October 1994, when it was transferred to OPP-PO and merged with the Mobile Training Team. TSgt. Isabelle Rubio, USAF, followed the LESP to OPP-PO and continued to function as the Law Enforcement Support Coordinator. In 1995, LESP personnel conducted 29 MTTs, 28 in Spanish and one in Russian, delivering a total training time of 2,360 class hours to 358 law enforcement personnel.

The Training Management Branch responded to three high-visibility calls for information during 1994. Developed the DLIFLC’s 135-page submission to the Interservice Training Review Organization (ITRO) Study, identifying language requirements by course and student type (officer, enlisted, civilian, or other) and summing overall language level and DLIFLC total training requirements.

The other two information taskings had very short suspenses: When Department of the Army Headquarters requested information on what DLIFLC could do to support contingency planning for language training, TM prepared, secured the Commandant’s approval for, and dispatched DLIFLC’s reply to the USA Language Program in a matter of six hours.

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27 Art Gebbia, corrections, 7 Dec 1998.
28 DLIFLC, DLIFLC-W, DLIELC 1995 Annual Reports, p. 3.
29 Ibid.
Similarly, TM compiled a report to TRADOC Headquarters on all significant contingency action and activities DLIFLC had accomplished over the previous five years and sent it to the Assistant Commandant and the Chief of Staff within 48 hours.

On 1 April 1994, TM updated and published Space Available Foreign Language Training for Family Members, DLIFLC Regulation 350-7.

After Gebbia attended the FY96 Structure Manning Decision Review (SMDR) and briefed the Command Group on the results, the Commandant tasked OPP to prepare a video that could be provided to all schools and staff offices. The video, which explained the SMDR process (the scheduling and budgeting of DLIFLC’s student load), was designed to help faculty and staff understand the impact of federal budgetary restrictions and military training needs on DLIFLC’s employees.³²

TM worked with the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA), negotiating the transfer of four Russian instructors from the DLIFLC to NASA’s Johnson Space Center (JSC) over the course of 1994 and facilitating language training for astronauts, scientists, and staff. DLIFLC and JSC signed a Memorandum of Understanding (MOU) that left the instructors on DLIFLC’s manning documents, assigned to DLIFLC in support of JCS. JCS reimbursed DLIFLC for all expenses incurred in the language training.³³

TM supported the Haitian and Rwandan contingency operations by supplying Command and Control (C2) cards and situation reports, by validating training requirements, and by coordinating the Army’s French-to-Haitian Creole conversion training.³⁴

When the Army sent students to DLIFLC without scheduling classes for them, TM coordinated the action to create seven new Arabic sections. The cost of instructing these students was partially funded by the Army and absorbed by the Institute in FY95.³⁵

OPP’s Translations and Interpretation Service (TIS) was a major source of reimbursable revenue for the Institute during 1994, generating an income of nearly $108,000. Two of the more notable taskings in 1994 were translations of documents connected to the World Trade Center bombings and of briefing slides into Ukrainian for the Joint Chiefs of Staff.³⁶ (Ukraine is California’s partner in the Partnership for Peace program between the US and former East-bloc nations. The California National Guard hosts a Ukrainian military delegation every summer.³⁷

OPP-PO’s Plans Branch supported the Institute’s contingency operations efforts by developing materials for linguists in the field. By the end of 1994, the creation of Language Survival Kits for 11 languages (Modern Standard Arabic, Iraqi Arabic, French, Dutch, Igbo,

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³³ Memorandum of Understanding between the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center and the National Aeronautics and Space Administration Johnson Space Center, Subject: Russian Language Training-NASA, signed 22 Feb 1994 (COL Vladimir Sobichevsky) and 16 Mar 1994 (Donald R. Puddy).
³⁴ For details on DLIFLC support to the Rwanda and Haiti operations, see Operational Contingencies, below.
³⁵ DLIFLC, DLIFLC-W, DLIELC 1995 Annual Reports, p. 4.
Kinyarwanda, Romanian, Russian, Spanish, Swahili, and Tagalog) had brought the total number of languages supported to 20. An additional 20-plus kits were under development.38 The Plans Shop also provided other contingency support. For more information, see Operational Contingencies, below.

Nonresident Instruction

OPP-PO’s Training Management Branch was responsible for the Institute’s non-resident instruction efforts, Video Teletraining (VTT) and Mobile Training Teams (MTTs). In fiscal year 1994, DLIFLC provided 10,900 hours of instruction via VTT and 5,520 hours via MTTs. In fiscal year 1995, VTT hours fell to 9,300, but MTT instructional hours skyrocketed to 13,400.39

Video Teletraining

The Training Management Branch of OPP-PO assumed direction of VTT in January 1994. Euripides F. “Pete” Lallos directed VTT operations and supervised a staff consisting of four GS-11 Training Coordinators (Tako Henderson, Solfrid Johansen, Steve Koppany, and Roelof Wijbrandus). Due to an internal OPP reorganization that shifted responsibility for VTT and MTT scheduling from the Nonresident Training Branch to the Training Management Branch, Koppany, Wijbrandus, and Henderson were all reassigned by October of that year.40 Clare Bugary became VTT training coordinator. Rich Savko was selected as a GS-9 Plans Officer on 12 November 1995.41 James Laughlin was hired to design, create, and operate the VTT and MTT databases In May 1994, Lallos was inducted into the Telecommunications Hall of Fame at Oklahoma State University in recognition of his pioneering work on DLIFLC’s Video Teletraining program. He joined the list of Who’s Who in Teleconferencing.42

In March 1994 the VTT studios were moved from buildings 418 and 234 to newly refurbished studios in buildings 637A and 637B. The move went smoothly and resulted in no interruptions of scheduled transmissions. The new studios featured general improvements such as more powerful lighting and more space, as well as upgraded equipment that allowed the teacher increased control over the whole VTT environment via a user-friendlier interface in the form of a pen and tablet. DLIFLC Commandant Vladimir Sobichevsky participated in a demonstration of

39 Annual Program Review, Defense Language Institute, Presidio of Monterey, California, 1 Jan 1995, “OPP,” n.p.; DLIFLC Program Summary FY95, Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center, Presidio of Monterey, California, Dec 1995, pp. 52-53. Note that these documents list MTT instruction in terms of instructor weeks rather than instructor hours. The figures for FY94 and FY95 were 138 and 335 weeks, respectively. Assuming a standard 40-hour work week, these figures convert to 5,520 and 13,400 hours, respectively.
40 DLIFLC, DLIFLC-W, DLIELC 1995 Annual Reports, p. 5.
the new equipment’s image manipulation capabilities in which he “handed” certificates to recipients at Fort Meade, Maryland, some 3,000 miles from the DLIFLC. 43

In August 1994, officials at the Army Training Support Center (ATSC) in Fort Eustis, Virginia, advised DLIFLC of their willingness to bear the costs of communications on the dedicated, high-performance T-1 video and audio line at Kunia, resulting in an estimated savings to Kunia, the National Security Agency (NSA), and the Intelligence and Security Command (INSCOM) of approximately $180,000 annually. The ATSC continued to administer the VTT contract and also provided the Network Control Center (NCC) for scheduling and operation of the over 120 VTT stations in the ATSC net. Oklahoma State University (OSU) was the primary contractor; subcontractors VTel and Highs Communications provided up- and down-link satellite communications, respectively. ATSC continued to provide the lion’s share of VTT funding. In September 1994, DLIFLC paid ATSC $300,000 to defray part of the satellite costs, but this sum represented only about 20 percent of the actual cost of maintaining the DLIFLC VTT network during 1994 ($74,000 for each of 21 stations, including the lease and the communications link, or approximately $1.5 million). 44 Also in 1994, OSIA officials notified DLIFLC of their intention to cancel all other language contracts and use DLIFLC exclusively for all OSIA foreign language training needs.

In FY94, there were 21 VTT sites dedicated to language programs: 7 at DLIFLC; 4 at the 741st Military Intelligence Battalion (Fort Meade, Maryland); and one each at the 101st Military Intelligence Battalion (Fort Riley, Kansas); the 513th Military Intelligence Battalion (Fort Gordon, Georgia); the 519th Military Intelligence Battalion (Fort Bragg, North Carolina); the 104th Military Intelligence Battalion (Fort Carson, Colorado); the Center for Applied Language Learning (CALL-1 in Arlington, Virginia); the On-Site Inspection Agency (OSIA in Arlington, Virginia); Field Station Kunia (Schofield Barracks, Hawaii); Goodfellow Air Force Base (AFB), Texas; the 748th Military Intelligence Battalion (Kelley AFB, Texas); and Davis Monthan AFB (Arizona). In September 1994 an additional four VTT stations—one of which was to be installed as DLIFLC station 8—were authorized by the US Army Training Support Center (ATSC), but none of the dishes was installed at DLIFLC. 45 Instead, the 519th Military Intelligence Battalion and the OSIA each received a second VTT dish, and two new locations (the 111th Military Intelligence Battalion at Fort Huachuca, Arizona, and the 2nd Radio Battalion at Camp Lejeune, North Carolina) came online with one dish each. Meanwhile, the 101st Military Intelligence Battalion shut down its VTT operation. These changes brought the total number of VTT stations in FY95 to 24. 46

45 Ibid., p. 5.
The years 1994 and 1995 brought some changes and innovations in the area of VTT hardware. The Compression Labs, Inc., systems at all locations were replaced during March and May 1994 with a more advanced VTT system built by VTel, Inc., featuring a more detailed but user-friendlier room controller allowing the instructor to control multimedia programming both at the sending as well as the receiving site. Despite some difficulties with the VTel audio components, the down time of VTT systems due to technical failure fell to below 1 percent of total broadcast time.\(^{47}\) In the following year, OPP began experimenting with a new type of VTT equipment leased through and funded by the ATSC, a Desktop Video Teletraining (DVTT) system consisting of a personal computer with a 17-inch monitor, a videocamera, and a speaker/phone. Unlike the studio systems, which transmitted via satellite, the DVTT systems made overseas connections via high-speed Integrated Services Digital Network (ISDN) telephone lines, which had the potential to operate at approximately 75 percent of the cost of a satellite link. Five systems were installed, one at DLIFLC and the other four at remote locations. In May 1995, OPP requested that the Army’s Training and Doctrine Command (TRADOC) invest $640,000 in distance learning, but this request was denied. Nevertheless, OPP began trial DVTT in October 1995, delivering Level 1+ instruction in Russian to three students at Langley AFB, Virginia (NASA). The instructors involved were impressed with the technology and felt that it could be used to train small groups of students.\(^{48}\)

VTT transmission time during 1994 amounted to almost 11,000 hours, a reduction of about 5,000 hours from the previous year’s total. Because of mounting financial pressures, on 1 October 1993 DLIFLC had begun charging $41.10 per instructor hour for VTT instruction, a formerly free service.\(^{49}\) The full impact of the charge took effect during 1994. Effective 1 October 1995, thanks to better planning and programming by the receiving units and Sobichevsky’s decision to partially finance VTT transmissions as a part of the Institute’s sustainment mission, DLIFLC was able to reduce the cost to $29.44 per hour. In order to maintain the lower rate, DLIFLC instituted the “120 notification policy,” which required CLPs to request VTT 120 days in advance of the need.\(^{50}\) Nevertheless, total transmission time in fiscal

\(^{47}\) DLIFLC, DLIFLC-W, DLIELC 1995 Annual Reports, p. 6.
\(^{49}\) An October 1993 directive from the commanding general of the Training and Doctrine Command allowed DLIFLC to begin charging VTT recipients “to offset the cost of instructor time and course development.” “VTT improving capabilities and technology,” Globe (30 Jun 1994), 15.
1995 fell to 9,300 hours. Still, even this relatively low figure qualified the DLIFLC as the largest user of VTT in the DoD in 1995.

The major customers for the DLIFLC’s VTT instruction were Fort Meade, Kunia, and OSIA. Russian was the language most in demand, followed by Arabic and Spanish. Of especial note was the Russian training the DLIFLC provided to OSIA. Known as terminology-specific language training, the OSIA courses included the following topics: Chemical Weapons terminology, Speeches and briefs, START (Strategic Arms Reduction Treaty) terminology, Chemical Warfare Protocol, Consecutive Interpreting, NTT terminology, and NTT Protocol.

Other noteworthy offerings during 1994 included cross-training and conversion courses and new acquisition training programs. Cross-training of linguists in surplus languages (Czech, Polish, German, and Russian) was provided in Spanish, Ukrainian, and Belorussian. A new acquisition training program in Arabic delivered to 18 Slavic language linguists at Fort Meade was a great success, attaining in 24 weeks (6 hours daily, 5 days a week) learning outcomes normally achieved in a resident 47-week course. In 1995, the DLIFLC provided language sustainment training in Serbian/Croatian to the United States Marine Corps, 2nd Radio Battalion, Camp Lejeune, North Carolina.

Mobile Training Teams

After the 1994 reorganization, Rich Savko served as MTT training coordinator. Working with teachers from the language schools and trainers from the Directorate of Curriculum and Instruction, OPP personnel provided training of various types to remote locations by means of Mobile Training Teams (MTTs). In 1994, MTTs were dispatched to Saudi Arabia, Fort Bragg, and Fort Gordon to teach the Instructor Certification Course (ICC) and trained course developers at Forts Lewis, Fort Hood, Lackland Air Force Base, the 470th Military Intelligence Battalion in Corozal, Panama, and in Washington, DC, in the use of ToolBook, the Varosh Template, and the DLIFLC Template Library. In 1995, training included the Instructor Certification Course (ICC) for Haitian Creole teachers and for contract instructors at Fort Bragg’s John F. Kennedy Special

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51 A hoped-for upturn in VTT hours in fiscal 1996 did not materialize because Fort Meade, the Institute’s largest VTT customer, was off-line for the first two quarters of the year. Instead of rising, the total hours of VTT transmission fell to 7,944. See DLIFLC and POM Review and Analysis Quarterly Report, First Quarter, Fiscal Year 1997, “VTT Hours of Instruction,” 14.
52 1996 BILC Report, p. 124: “DLIFLC is the largest user of VTT in the DoD, with seven studios broadcasting almost 10,000 hours of language training in FY 1995.”
54 Ibid., p. 6.
57 DLIFLC, DLIFLC-W, DLIELC 1995 Annual Reports, pp. 14-15. For information on ToolBook, the Varosh Template, and the DLIFLC Template Library, see Chapter III.
Command Language Programs and Contingencies

Warfare Center and School, a teacher development course for Serbian/Croatian teachers, and computer authoring courses at Fort Lewis, Washington, and Corozal, Panama.\(^{58}\) For more information about MTTs in calendar years 1994 and 1995, consult Chapter III, “Directorate of Curriculum and Instruction” and “the Schools.”

**Operational Contingencies**

At first glance, a casual observer might not identify the DLIFLC as a military organization that would play a large role in contingency operations. However, when contingencies involve significant numbers of people who do not speak or read English, military operations acquire a linguistic aspect. In 1994 and 1995, the DLIFLC was involved in supporting a number of contingency operations that required language-trained personnel, including operations in Haiti and Bosnia and the disaster relief efforts of the Federal Emergency Management Agency (FEMA) in the aftermath of the Northridge earthquake.

**Northridge Earthquake**

Although the term “operational contingencies” often conjures up images of U.S. forces intervening in crises on foreign soil, OPP had occasion during 1994 and 1995 to provide support to efforts quite close to home. On 17 January 1994, the Los Angeles area suffered an earthquake measuring 6.6 on the Richter scale—a disaster that directly affected over 800,000 people, many of whom did not speak or read English.\(^{59}\) On 20 January, Sixth Army Headquarters requested 220 linguists (10 Russian, 85 Korean, and 125 Spanish) to support FEMA relief efforts. OPP began planning its response. DLIFLC was to coordinate all linguists (its own and those provided by other agencies) participating in the relief action, entitled Operation Northridge.\(^{60}\)

By 23 January, DLIFLC had a team of 57 (22 Korean, 22 Spanish, and 10 Russian linguists, plus 3 support personnel) in Los Angeles ready to begin work out of 6 Disaster Assistance Centers the following morning. Some of the DLIFLC personnel were MLIs from the Korean, Spanish, and Russian schools; others were intermediate or advanced language students or platoon sergeants.\(^{61}\) Capt. Rob Terselic, USMC, deployed to the Sixth Army operations center at the Presidio of San Francisco to serve as DLIFLC’s liaison officer.\(^{62}\) DLIFLC’s linguists in Los Angeles, collectively termed “Task Force Rosetta,” were under the command of CPT John

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\(^{61}\) Historian’s Notes, Interviews with SFC John C. Andruszka, USA, 11 December 1997; and Tom Coleman, DLIFLC Korean instructor, 15 Dec 1997.

Armeau, USA. In Monterey, LCDR Waterford, Capt. Brett Hall, and MSgt. Oglesby, USAF, of OPP’s Plans Branch (which served as the emergency operations center) provided document translation via fax in Russian, Spanish, and Persian.

DLIFLC linguists served as translators of documents and as interpreters. They enabled earthquake victims with little or no ability to speak or read English to apply for assistance from FEMA, the Red Cross, and social service agencies. DLIFLC linguists helped people made homeless by the earthquake move from their cars into temporary shelter, and enabled the sick and injured to get access to sometimes life-saving medical care. Linguists handled difficult translation tasks involving specialized business terminology needed to fill out small business claims forms, suffering from fatigue and hoarseness as they worked 13-hour days. In addition to its vital translation, interpretation, and coordination functions, Task Force Rosetta also helped disseminate information to the public. At the request of the FEMA Joint Information Center (JIC) in Pasadena, DLIFLC Korean linguist SFC Johnny Saucier, USA, transcribed Korean radio broadcasts. When Maj. Maria Constantine was interviewed by Los Angeles radio station KNX-AM on 24 January, she used the opportunity to publicize the need for bilingual volunteers to help with the relief.

Task Force Rosetta redeployed on 6 February 1994. Both FEMA and Sixth Army were pleased with DLIFLC’s linguist support. FORSCOM requested that the service members directly involved in the disaster relief efforts be awarded the Humanitarian Service Medal. When General Frederick M. Franks, USA, Training and Doctrine (TRADOC) Commander, visited the DLIFLC on 13 April 1994, he presented DLIFLC TF Rosetta linguists with his Commander’s Coin. In a separate ceremony, COL Sobichevsky awarded the Joint Service Achievement Medal to TF Rosetta linguists and the Joint Service Commendation Medal to the task force leaders.

Task Force Rosetta incurred costs of slightly under $150,000. FEMA fully reimbursed DLIFLC for all Rosetta expenses.

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64 DLIFLC, DLIFLC-W, DLIELC 1995 Annual Reports, pp. 4, 6.
66 Ibid.
68 Ibid.
69 PROFs message from J. Berry to COL Vladimir Sobichevsky, SUBJECT: TF ROSETTA Visit Trip Report, 31 Jan 1994.
72 PROFs message from Col. William Oldenburg to COL Vladimir Sobichevsky, Subject: Operation Northridge Earthquake, 26 Jan 1994.
Rwandan Refugees

In April 1994, Rwandan President Juvenal Habyarimana attended a peace conference in Tanzania aimed at ending the ethnic strife between majority Hutus and minority Tutsis that had plagued his county since 1959. In one of history’s sad ironies, his efforts did not lead to peace but to another round of bloodletting that culminated in a mass exodus of Hutus from Rwanda. Soon refugee camps in neighboring countries were overcrowded and filthy, international relief agencies were overextended, and refugees began dying in record numbers of hunger, dehydration, and contagious diseases.

With the memory of Somalia fresh in their minds, top American officials were wary of military involvement in Rwanda. However, the United States did send extensive humanitarian aid to the border regions. In September, over a thousand U.S. soldiers deployed to neighboring Zaire in Operation Support Hope. DLIFLC did not contribute any personnel to these efforts, but the Institute was tasked with translating survival kit materials into Swahili and Kinyarwandan. DLI-Washington fulfilled the tasking on a contract basis and sent the Survival Kits to DLIFLC. DLIFLC also developed command and control cards featuring medical and refugee-related terminology, and distributed phrase books in Word 4.0 format via the LingNet BBS while the printed materials were still in production. The total cost to DLIFLC for support of Rwandan relief operations in FY94 was $7,600.

Carmel River Floods

The following year, DLIFLC was once again called upon to support a contingency operation within the United States, indeed, quite close to home. Over 120 U.S. service members from DLIFLC provided relief from the flooding of California’s Carmel River, which washed out the Highway 1 Bridge on 11 March 1995. Starting on 13 March, DLIFLC students assisted in the construction of a Bailey bridge and cleaned homes inundated with mud. DLIFLC Spanish linguists worked at the Red Cross temporary operations center, performing the same duties that members of JTF Rosetta had discharged the previous year at the FEMA Disaster Assistance Centers—they helped those unable to speak or read English to complete forms entitling them to food, clothing, and temporary housing. Their efforts garnered a letter of appreciation addressed to COL Sobichevsky from L.D. Foy, Vice President and Manager of the California-American Water

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73 Historian’s Notes, Interview with LTC Frederick Mason, DLIFLC Resource Management Director, on 9 Dec 1997.
75 E-mail message from Ivy Gibian to Steve Solomon, Re: Rwanda, 8 Dec 1997.
Company.\textsuperscript{77} During the floods, Art Gebbia and SrA Kimberly Harrison, USAF, ran EOC operations.\textsuperscript{78}

\textit{Chinese Boat People}

In March and April 1995, DLIFLC Mandarin linguists had two opportunities to help other federal agencies in the San Diego area. Staff Sergeant Chin-Sheng Tsai, USA, assisted the Coast Guard, the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI), and the Immigration and Naturalization Service (INS) in dealing with the Chinese vessel \textit{Fan Ming} and her 105 passengers, who were living in filthy, unhygienic conditions.

Shortly thereafter, Tsai and two Military Language Instructors (MLIs), Technical Sergeants Troy Goss and Robert Fraleigh, USAF, assisted the Coast Guard, which had detained the \textit{Xin Ji Li}, a converted Korean fishing vessel carrying 166 Chinese passengers who had mutinied against the crew when food ran out and set a northerly course for the United States. In addition to interpreting and helping monitor the boat people, the DLIFLC linguists taught members of the other agencies basic phrases in Mandarin for use in directing and controlling the passengers.\textsuperscript{79}

\textit{Bosnian Peacekeepers}

The leaders of the former warring factions in Bosnia signed the Dayton Agreement on 14 December 1995. Two days later, NATO launched its largest operation ever, Operation Joint Endeavor. U.S. personnel would account for one-third of the 60,000 troops comprising Joint Endeavor’s multinational Implementation Force (IFOR). The first American ground combat units entered Bosnia in January 1996.\textsuperscript{80}

DLIFLC supported IFOR not only by training linguists in Serbian and Croatian, but also by training teachers in DLI-W’s Contract Foreign Language Training Program (CFLTP). Despite uncertainty about the success of the peace process and a furlough that prevented much of the DLIFLC staff from working, DLI-W staff succeeded in coordinating a vital workshop on refresher training for teachers from the CFLTP, taught during mid-November 1995 via VTT and MTT by DLIFLC Faculty and Staff Development facilitators. The facilitators taught the contract instructors about proficiency level descriptions, current instructional methodology, and learner style-preferences in order to optimize the teaching of Serbian-Croatian. On 27 November, weeks

\textsuperscript{78} Corrections/additions to Chapter 5 draft from Art Gebbia, 7 Dec 1998.
before the Dayton Agreement was signed, DLI-W welcomed its first class of military linguists to the eight-week Serbian-Croatian refresher training course.81

DLIFLC also provided language survival kits to units in the field. The vast majority of these (nearly 16,000) were in Serbian/Croatian, but kits for other languages in the region were distributed as well: DLIFLC sent out over 500 kits each in Russian and Macedonian, and nearly 400 in Ukrainian. Some linguists downloaded materials in Serbian/Croatian, Russian, Macedonian, and Hungarian directly from LingNet.82

81 “DLI Washington carries out contingency training plan,” Globe (Jan 1996), 12-13. For information on Serbian-Croatian course development and training in 1994-95, see Chapter III. For in-depth information on DLIFLC’s support of IFOR and its successor, the Stabilization Force (SFOR), see the 1996-97 DLIFLC & POM Command History (forthcoming).
CHAPTER VI
Garrison and Support Functions

While the foreign language mission continued as before in 1994-95, virtually every aspect of the supporting mission changed because of the closing of Fort Ord. The formation of the Presidio of Monterey Annex, the establishment of the new garrison, and the consolidation of several Fort Ord and Presidio offices all posed challenges to the Presidio and its leadership. Meanwhile, the complicated and sometimes contentious disposal of former Fort Ord lands became a major responsibility. Complicating the transfer of services was the belief among many in the Army that the BRAC action that closed Fort Ord also closed the Presidio of Monterey. This had been the root of the 1993 BRAC process when the Army considered transferring DLIFLC to Fort Huachuca. That legacy shaped how DLIFLC & POM stood up its garrison and the policies that garrison assumed to complete its mission.¹

Closure of Fort Ord

On 30 September 1994 the Department of the Army officially closed Fort Ord. This was the culmination of a three year process starting in 1991, when the Defense Base Realignment and Closure (BRAC) Commission first recommended that the base be shut down. In the years that followed, the Army moved the headquarters of the 7th Infantry Division (Light), Fort Ord’s primary tenant unit, deactivated the remaining units, and finally closed the garrison. During a four-month period in 1993, the Army moved over 20,000 soldiers and their families to other installations. In the year that followed, COL Thomas F. Ellzey, Jr., USA, last Garrison Commander of Fort Ord, oversaw the largest military installation closure in the United States since World War II. A ceremony on the parade ground held on the morning of 30 September marked the inactivation of the Fort Ord garrison and the closing of the facility. The speakers at the event included GEN Dennis J. Reimer, USA, commander of the U. S. Army Forces Command (FORSCOM). The lowering of the post’s colors and the sounding of the final retreat marked the end of Fort Ord as an active Army installation.²

¹ For general overview of these issues see Fort Ord: A FORSCOM Model Installation, Base Closure After Action Report Primer, 30 Sep 1994, hereafter referred to as Fort Ord Primer; Fort Ord, Director of Plans, Training and Mobilization, Office of the Historical Officer, U.S. Army Garrison- Fort Ord, Annual Historical Summary, 1 January 1994-30 September 1994, hereafter referred to as “Fort Ord Annual History”; AFZW-GC, Fort Ord Closure Report, 2 Sep 1994; DLIFLC, Presidio of Monterey Lessons Learned, BRAC 93, Dec 1994. See also General Orders, Department of the Army, Number 26, 30 Dec 1994, hereafter referred to as GO 26. Interview with Kathleen Clack by Dr. Jay M. Price, 23 Nov 98; DLIFLC, 1993 Annual Command History. Unless otherwise noted, all sources cited will refer to DLIFLC or POM materials. Some materials, especially those related to BRAC activities, are in binders. These binders are cited when appropriate.

² Enclosure Six in Fort Ord Annual History.
Garrison and Support Functions

That afternoon, the Presidio of Monterey held its own ceremony. Since 1946 the Presidio, which housed the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center, had been a sub-installation of Fort Ord. With the deactivation of Fort Ord, the Presidio once again became a separate installation, officially called the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center and Presidio of Monterey (DLIFLC & POM). COL Vladimir Sobichevsky, USA, who had served as commandant of DLIFLC since January 1993, was now the installation commander as well. In attendance was MG John Herrling, USA, Chief of Staff of the U.S. Army Training and Doctrine Command (TRADOC). This ceremony marked the beginning of a new chapter in Presidio history. Just one year earlier, in 1993, the Presidio had narrowly escaped the threat of its own closure and the possible relocation of the language school to Fort Huachuca, Arizona. Now the Presidio was not only the Army’s main presence in Monterey, but one of two active Army installations left in California, the other being Fort Irwin.

Creation of the Garrison

For the Presidio of Monterey, one major consequence of the closing of Fort Ord was the emergence of a separate garrison. Until 1 October 1994 DLIFLC’s base operations support had been provided by Fort Ord’s garrison or by a set of small DLIFLC directorates under the Chief of Staff, Col. William H. Oldenburg II, USAF. Although an installation the size of the future DLIFLC & POM would have required only an O-5, Sobichevsky pushed for and got an O-6 slot for the garrison position. This garrison would assume the tasks being handled by the DLIFLC Chief of Staff, oversee the management of the POM Annex, coordinate the consolidation of POM and former Fort Ord offices, and perform the daunting and complex task of transferring thousands of acres of Fort Ord land to other entities.

By the beginning of 1994, TRADOC published orders that provided for the creation of a garrison at the Presidio of Monterey. In the months that followed, DLIFLC staff set up this new command using Army Regulation 5-3, “Installation Management and Organization,” as a model. The plan was for the Garrison Commander to take on the following activities: Base Realignment and Closure, Chaplain, Contracting, Community Activities, Environmental and Natural

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3 For a view of the traditional relationship between an installation and a sub-installation, see AR 5-3, Installation Management and Organization, 9 Oct 92, 6.
1994-95 DLIFLC & POM Command History

Resources, Facilities Management, Logistics, Law Enforcement, and Security. However, the plan departed from the AR 5-3 model in some areas. At the request of Colonel Oldenburg, the Chief of Staff position retained oversight of some organizations, including Civilian Personnel, Information Management, and Resource Management, while Garrison got up and running.  

On 1 October 1994 the garrison officially came into existence. The interim Garrison Commander was LTC Jan Karcz, USA, who served pending arrival of the slated Garrison Commander, COL Ila Mettee-McCutcheon, USA. On 14 October 1994 Colonel Mettee-McCutcheon officially became Garrison Commander, a position she held until October 1996.  

The story of the garrison during this period is really that of the subordinate offices, directorates, and organizations. During 1994 Fort Ord’s offices shrank severely and the remaining staff were transferred to DLIFLC & POM. In some instances, this process simply involved transferring a whole directorate. In many cases, however, Fort Ord’s personnel had to be integrated into the equivalent DLIFLC & POM office or directorate. This was an extremely complicated process that took place over several months. On paper, the transfers were to be completed by 31 October 1994, although it ultimately took several months after that to finally work out the details of the arrangement. For some directorates and offices, an additional change came in 1995, when they began reporting to the Garrison Commander rather than the Chief of Staff or Assistant Commandant. Meanwhile, many of these offices had to deal with various aspects of the closing of Fort Ord and the disposal of its property.  

The consolidation of the offices was a thorny issue. Physically moving the offices to the Presidio of Monterey or to the Annex involved additional logistics. Finally, many offices continued to play a role in the ongoing Base Realignment and Closure (BRAC) process. Thus, Fort Ord overshadowed the garrison’s departments and offices throughout 1994 and 1995.

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8 Karcz also acted as Garrison Commander between 13 December 1995 and February 1996, while COL Mettee-McCutcheon served as Installation Commander and Commandant.  
9 Program for garrison assumption of command ceremony for the Presidio of Monterey, 14 Oct 1994; E-mail, Sobichevsky to Sobichevsky, et al, 14 October Assumption of Command Ceremony, 7 Oct 1994; “New garrison commander and garrison sergeant major get down to business,” “Globe” (Dec, 1994), 4-7; Interview with COL Ila Mettee-McCutcheon, USA, by Dr. Stephen Payne, 19 Sep 1996; Karcz Interview.  
10 According to the DLIFLC Staff Relocation Plan, offices physically moved to the Presidio of Monterey based on priorities. First priority were those major offices including DOC and DOIM, that moved over early in 1994. Second in priority were offices related to community activities, logistics and law enforcement. Third priority included the staff that handled personnel, resource management, public affairs, safety, security, and equal opportunity. Second and third priority offices moved over from April to October 1994. See DLIFLC Staff Relocation Plan, 22 Nov 1993, and Karcz Interview.  
12 Briefing slides, C/S BRAC Transition Meeting Agenda, 1-2 Nov 1994; Briefing slides, DLIFLC Brief to the TRADOC Chief of Staff, 2 Aug 1994; Briefing slides, C/S BRAC Transition Meeting Agenda, 20 Sep 1994; Briefing slides, C/S BRAC Transition Meeting Agenda, 5 Jul 1994; DLIFLC BRAC Functional Organization Milestones, 4 Feb 1994; OPORD 93-2 DLIFLC Staff Relocation Plan; “DLIFLC BRAC Functional Organization Milestones,” 4 Feb 1994 (Both in BRAC Binder, Misc.); Decision Brief, Office of the Garrison
Uncertainty over the division of responsibilities between the Chief of Staff and the Garrison Commander continued into 1995. Early that year, the Garrison Commander gradually took control over most directorates from the former Chief of Staff. When Oldenburg departed in early 1996, the chief of staff position (O-6) was downgraded to that of executive officer (O-5).

After two decades as a TRADOC “tenant activity” on a FORSCOM installation, DLIFLC & POM was now a separate installation with its own garrison command. The various support activities had completed the closure of Fort Ord, then transferred to the new installation. From a motley and sometimes dispirited collection of directorates and offices, Mettee-McCutcheon forged a new command under new leadership.

**Adjutant General**

At the start of 1994, the Fort Ord Office of the Adjutant General was headed by Major Kirt Quist with the following military branches: Personnel Services, Personnel Operations, Retention/In-service Recruiting, the Transition Center, In-out Processing, Strength Management, Personnel Automation, and ID cards/tags. During most of 1994, the AG’s activities centered around performing these functions in connection with the military personnel assigned to Fort Ord. These functions were similar to those that Civilian Personnel handled, including personnel assigned to Fort Ord’s MEDDAC and DENTAC commands. The Presidio of Monterey’s equivalent was the Administrative Support Division (ASD), commanded by CPT Susan Kessler, USA, and composed of Headquarters Personnel and the Military Personnel Branch.

As Fort Ord closed, DLIFLC’s ASD gradually took on the oversight of military personnel issues. In March 1994 the processing of ID cards transferred from Fort Ord to the Presidio of Monterey. The remaining functions transferred over on 1 October 1994, when ASD became the DLIFLC & POM Adjutant General. The office remained under Chief of Staff Oldenburg. In early 1995 CPT Susan Meyer replaced CPT Kessler. The AG continued to serve in the same areas that its predecessor offices did. In early 1995 the AG also assumed responsibility for the burial detail and two new sections: Retirement Services and Mortuary Affairs.\(^{13}\)

**Installation Chaplain**

The closing of Fort Ord brought about major changes to the chaplaincies of Fort Ord and the Presidio of Monterey. Originally, Fort Ord’s chaplaincy oversaw the spiritual needs of both Fort Ord and DLIFLC. Chaplain (COL) Thurman Doman, USA, was Installation Chaplain and Chaplain (LTC) Michael B. Kirkelie, USA, was in charge of the post chapels. Chaplain (MAJ) Eugene Ahlstrom served many of the activities at DLIFLC. During 1994 Fort Ord chaplains oversaw the closing of eight of the installation’s nine chapels. The remaining chapel served the military community living on what became the Presidio of Monterey Annex. During 1994

Chaplain Doman retired and Chaplain Kirkelie became the installation chaplain until his retirement the following year.

On 1 October 1994 the chaplaincy at Fort Ord transferred to the Presidio of Monterey, where it served under the garrison commander. Most of the chaplains had retired, but several chaplain assistants remained on during the transfer. By 1 October 1994 the staff of the chaplaincy included three chaplains, four chaplain assistants, and two civilians. Throughout 1994 and 1995 the Army contracted Roman Catholic and Jewish clergy, a religious education coordinator, and musicians for services and religious support. Other Fort Ord chaplain services, programs, and funds that remained also switched to the Presidio.

A succession of interim installation chaplains served during the several months after Kirkelie retired in March 1995. On 29 June 1995 LTC Larry J. Hebebrand became the new installation chaplain. On 16 July LTC Glen R. Kelso was installed as pastor of the POM Protestant Chapel. Both provided outstanding service until their respective retirements.

Programs of the Chaplain included conducting worship services at POM and the Annex for Protestant, Catholic, Jewish, and Mormon congregations. The chaplains and their staff took part in the ceremonies closing Fort Ord and initiating the DLIFLC & POM, as well as the creation of the Presidio Garrison. During the rest of 1994 and 1995 the chaplains handled programs for children and adults, conducted special holiday services, and hosted talks with guest lecturers. In April 1995 the staff held a memorial service for the victims of the bombing of the Murrah Federal Building in Oklahoma City. TRADOC Command Chaplain, (COL) Calvin H. Sydnor, visited in October 1995.14

Civilian Personnel Office

For most of 1994 Fort Ord and DLIFLC each had a separate Civilian Personnel Office (CPO). Nell Taylan directed Fort Ord’s CPO and was responsible for such areas as classification, recruitment and placement, position management, management/employee relations, retirement, training, benefits, labor relations, and awards. The office was also heavily involved in the closure of Fort Ord. Robert Snow directed DLIFLC’s CPO and was under the Chief of Staff, and performed functions similar to those of his Fort Ord counterpart. The DLIFLC office consisted of sections handling management/employee relations, position management and classification, training and development, recruitment and placement; and technical Services. In October 1994 the staff of the Fort Ord CPO merged with that of the Presidio of Monterey, CPO. It took another year, however, for the different staff and divisions of CPO to move over to new quarters on the Presidio. Snow remained as director of CPO only until the end of October 1994, when he retired and was succeeded by Nell Taylan. On 1 February 1995 CPO became a function of the garrison.

By November 1995 CPO completed its consolidation and had moved all remaining personnel and equipment from Fort Ord to the Presidio.\textsuperscript{15}

One of the biggest issues in 1994-95 was what to do with Fort Ord’s civilian employees. The Army could transfer troops to new duty assignments or release them early from their enlistments. For civilians, the Army had to find new jobs or put them through a Reduction in Force (RIF) action. The scale of the reduction in personnel was huge. In January 1994 Fort Ord employed 1,260 military and 1,884 civil service employees. By 1 October 1994 that workforce had decreased to 50 military and 680 civilian workers.\textsuperscript{16}

Both the Fort Ord and DLIFLC CPOs faced the unpleasant task of determining which Fort Ord employees were reassigned to the Presidio. During 1994 Fort Ord’s CPO conducted several RIFs of those not selected. Meanwhile, the DLIFLC CPO had to determine who got hired, basing its decisions on a point system outlined in Title 5 of the United States Code.\textsuperscript{17} Candidates were rated on a point scale based on their background and qualifications—the higher the points, the better the chance of being selected. This system gave additional points to military widows and widowers, veterans, and disabled veterans. For those not selected, a few took advantage of FORSCOM’s Voluntary Separation Incentive Pay/Voluntary Early Retirement Authority (VSIP/VERA). Hundreds took jobs elsewhere in the Federal Government through the DoD Priority Placement Program (PPP). By the end of FY 1994 the personnel actions at Fort Ord were as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Action</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Transfer of Function to DLIFLC</td>
<td>167</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VSIP/VERA</td>
<td>270</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Priority Placement</td>
<td>466</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Change Personnel Servicing Office</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Permanent Employees Terminated (RIFs)</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Temporary Employees Terminated</td>
<td>245</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Some Fort Ord employees moved to DLIFLC & POM. However, even with expanded duties, the Presidio’s offices could hire only so many additional personnel. The creation of the POM Annex and the expanded duties resulting from Fort Ord’s closure brought an increase of only 300 positions at the Presidio. Of this total, 244 were positions transferred from Fort Ord. By the end of September 165 Fort Ord permanent employees and 36 temporary employees transferred to DLIFLC & POM.\textsuperscript{18} There were, in addition, 82 persons who went to DLIFLC through the PPP, not counting those with the medical and dental offices. Most Fort Ord

\textsuperscript{15} Interview with Robert Snow by Dr. Stephen Payne, 27 Oct 1994.

\textsuperscript{16} Fort Ord Annual History, 1.

\textsuperscript{17} United States Code, Title 5, Government Organization and Employees, Apr 1994, especially Chapters 31, 33, 34, and 35.

\textsuperscript{18} Fort Ord and DLIFLC each had separate unions for their employees. When Fort Ord employees transferred to DLIFLC & POM, they were grafted into the existing union contract with DLIFLC.
employees had to find employment elsewhere. These included 81 persons who went to work for the Naval Postgraduate School, most in the public works department that hired more people to do the work of the interservice support agreements (ISAs). At Fort Ord, not even CPO itself was immune from these staff reductions. On 1 October 1994 CPO had a staff of nineteen, many of whom stayed only for several additional weeks to take care of a few remaining issues. By the end of October, only five Fort Ord CPO staff worked in the new DLIFLC CPO, including the director Nell Taylan.

One issue that emerged involved those employees whose salaries were paid for by non-appropriated funds (NAFs), most of whom worked for the Directorate of Community Activities (DCA). In September 1994 FORSCOM refused to pay the severance costs for NAF employees terminated because of the closing of Fort Ord, a cost estimated to be around $310,000. Discussions about the issue took place at the MACOM level between FORSCOM and TRADOC. Eventually, TRADOC negotiated with FORSCOM to receive a one-time allocation of $406,000 to take care of these severance costs and to handle DCA-related capital improvements.

DLIFLC’s CPO, both before and after October 1994, had to deal with a number of other issues. One of these was the implementation of the Total Army Personnel Evaluation System (TAPES). The Army implemented this DOD system of performance standards and rating in 1994. This meant training hundreds of employees, both the raters and the rated. The addition of hundreds of Fort Ord employees in the middle of 1994 further complicated matters, because Fort Ord, as a closing installation did not implement new policies such as TAPES.

Another issue involved a new Faculty Personnel System (FPS), a change in the civil service rules intended to give DLIFLC more flexibility in recruiting and training instructors. Unlike the previous system, the new system provided for merit-based bonuses for good teaching, and recognition of professional development. DLIFLC did not implement the FPS until early 1997. However, throughout 1994 and 1995 CPO and Oldenburg, with input from the union and the faculty, worked on many of the system’s unresolved details.

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19 The ISA issue will be discussed in more detail in the section on the Directorate of Public Works.
21 ATZP-DGC, Previous Issues Update, 6 Jan 1995; E-mail, Oldenburg to Stephen Payne, Update on Transition of Fort Ord to TRADOC, 26 Feb 1995.
22 DLIFLC Annual Command Histories, 1992, 1995; 1993 DLIFLC Annual Command History, p. 54; Briefing slides, FPS: A Work in Process, 1998; and files on the FPS system in the Oldenburg Files. See also Chapter III of this volume.
In 1995 CPO faced a new challenge: preparing for regionalization of the Army’s personnel system. Under the old system, each civilian personnel office was a relatively autonomous entity. Under the new plan, most personnel functions would take place in regional Civilian Personnel Operations Centers (CPOCs). What remained at the individual installations were Civilian Personnel Advisory Centers (CPACs) that had small staffs and performed liaison and customer service duties. The Army briefly considered the POM Annex as a possible site for the western regional CPOC in late 1995 but opted instead for Fort Huachuca. Although final implementation of the system did not take place for several years, the POM CPO operated with the realization that eventually its role and function would change and its staff be greatly reduced.23

During the rest of 1994 and throughout 1995 CPO continued many of its traditional functions of overseeing personnel actions such as hiring, employee orientation, and separations. Its staff also engaged in a number of training exercises and programs. These tasks included working with Oldenburg on the Personnel Action Review Committee (PARC) to determine the staffing needs of the installation’s various departments.24 CPO staff oversaw 56 training and development classes with over 900 persons attending. Classes included subjects such as computer use, customer service, team building, environmental issues, new employee orientation, TAPES, and AIDS. CPO also dealt with workers’ compensation issues, conducted training sessions, and handled employee grievances. As part of the Army Incentive Awards Program, CPO oversaw the granting over 1,102 monetary and time off awards.25

In late 1994 Commandant Sobichevsky initiated an organizational review of those offices most impacted by the closure of Fort Ord. The intent was to ensure that they were staffed and organized correctly. CPO staff led the organizational review team, which worked throughout 1995 and into 1996.26 In June 1995 CPO also established a Disabilities Committee to handle issues related to the Americans with Disabilities Act. In September, CPO braced for the impact of a potential government shutdown due to disagreements between the President and Congress over the federal budget. In December, all non-essential civilian employees, including instructors, were placed on administrative leave for five days but were compensated once they resumed work.27

Counterintelligence and Security Office

In early 1994 both Fort Ord and DLIFLC had Security Offices. Both offices handled information, personnel, and physical security issues. When Fort Ord closed, its Security Office closed as well. Steven W. Comerford, director of the DLIFLC Counterintelligence and Security

23 ATZP-CP, Calendar Year 1995 Input to the DLIFLC Annual Historical Summary, 31 Jan 1996.
24 A TRADOC inspection resulted in a directive to dissolve the PARC. See PARC files, Oldenburg Files.
26 ATZP-CPP, Organization Reviews for New or Substantially Changed POM Organizations, Nov 1994.
Office, and his staff took over the monitoring of security issues on the POM Annex. For the rest of 1994 and into early 1995, office staff spent a great deal of time reconciling security issues from the former Fort Ord under the new POM-based office. This included investigating the status of condition of various equipment and facilities at Fort Ord to ensure compliance with POM security guidelines. Throughout 1995, the office staff carried out a variety of duties such as conducting travel briefings. Other activities included conducting security inspections of various schools and directorates, conducting security briefings, and processing security clearances for civilian employees.28

**Directorate of Community Activities**

During 1994, Fort Ord’s Directorate of Community Activities (DCA) assisted in the closing down of the installation. The process began in 1993 when the soldiers left and DCA closed down such institutions as the Officers’ Club and the Noncommissioned Officers Club. In 1994, the closings continued and included the Monterey Bay Community Club (the former NCO club), the Sports Arena, Shea Gym, the Freeman Weight Center, Faith Fitness Center, the boating program, the recycling center, the swimming pool, and the Monterey Road Child Care Center. In addition, the directorate faced a loss in staff from a pre-BRAC strength of 645 to a post-BRAC staff of 120.

Because DLIFLC did not have its own DCA, for most of 1994, the DCA at Fort Ord administered recreation facilities at the Presidio, including the Price Fitness Center and the Recreation Center. Beginning in 1994, the director of DCA was Wendon Kelley. In April of that year, Kelley left, and Michael J. Gates took his place. On 1 October, the much reduced DCA simply shifted from being a Fort Ord organization to one serving DLIFLC & POM. Throughout 1994 and 1995, various offices moved to the Presidio. On 21 October 1994, DCA opened up its main facility in Lewis Hall, in the building that began as a recreation hall in the 1930s. This time, the hall housed the DCA administrative staff and Outdoor Recreation.29 Some divisions and programs, however, remained on the POM Annex to serve the military members and families who lived there.

As of 1 October 1994, the DCA programs and activities on the Presidio of Monterey were Administration, the Alcohol and Drug Abuse Prevention and Control Program, Army Emergency Relief; the Common Support Division; Information, Tour and Travel, Outdoor Recreation, the Price Fitness Center, the Recreation Center, the Student/Faculty Club, and the Youth Center. Programs and activities on the Presidio of Monterey Annex consisted of Army Community Services, the Autocrafts Center, Central Accounting, the Chamberlin Library, the NAF Civilian Personnel Office, Non-Appropriated Fund (NAF) Property Office, the Porter Youth Center, the Presidio of Monterey Community Center, and the Recreational Vehicle Storage Lot. DCA also

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coordinated with Army and Air Force Exchange Service (AAFES) activities, the veterinary clinic, and billeting. Even with these programs DCA did not need all the staff it once required. Throughout 1993 and 1994 several staff members left through voluntary separation or were placed elsewhere in the federal government.30

During 1994 and 1995 DCA provided a variety of services to the civilian and military personnel on the Presidio of Monterey and the POM Annex. For example, starting on 17 January 1995 DCA supported the Better Opportunities for Single Soldiers (BOSS) Program with the goal of meeting the needs of soldiers living in the barracks and providing recreation opportunities for them. In August 1994 DCA sent out a questionnaire to ascertain the needs of military families as an aid for the development of future programs. On 11 and 12 April 1995 the Garrison hosted the first Presidio of Monterey Army Family Action Plan (AFAP) Symposium. Among the issues discussed was the need to set up a teen center (this was done a few years later). To publicize events such as these, DCA published a regular newsletter, The DCA Leisure Times, between August and November 1994. Publication ceased when Garrison began producing its own newsletter, Community News, which included announcements from DCA.31

Child care on the former Fort Ord and the Presidio of Monterey became a major issue for DCA as well. A large number of soldiers at both installations had children, making the need for child care an important factor in the quality of life here. In 1993 discussions began over whether there was sufficient demand to have two child care centers. In late 1993 both facilities stood at between 35 percent and 40 percent occupancy. From the Army’s perspective, the high cost of providing child care made operating two facilities unfeasible. In April 1994 Ellzey closed Fort Ord’s Monterey Road Child Development Center at the request of Sobichevsky, who preferred retaining the POM facility. The Monterey Road facility remained closed over the objections of Mettee-McCutchon, who saw the large number of families now living on the Annex as an indication that two facilities were necessary. She had DCA conduct a survey and a feasibility study, then a draft financial plan. Sobichevsky wanted to make sure that the second facility would be financially feasible. By 1995 the Presidio of Monterey facility was losing over $9,000 per month, although that was down from the $18,000 it was losing in September 1994. The director of the facility was changed, financial management was improved under Garrison supervision and on 1 June 1995 the Monterey Road Child Development Center (CDC) reopened.32

Education services were another significant issue. The Fort Ord Education Center suffered a considerable decline in support, and was transferred to DLIFLC & POM, where one full-time counselor and two-part time staff members supplied the service. In addition, the Skill Development Testing (SDT) program was reduced. Other education programs fared better. In February 1994 the DLIFLC & POM Education Center launched a program whereby military personnel could earn an Associate’s degree through Monterey Peninsula College.

One of the most important issues to emerge during this period was funding. DCA’s programs relied on NAFs that went into the Installation Morale, Welfare, and Recreation Fund (IMWRF). DCA usually required about $1 million a year to operate its programs. In 1994 and 1995 revenues from Fort Ord’s Bayonet and Black Horse golf courses made up the majority of these funds. For example, of the $400,816 that DCA took in during the second quarter of CY 1995, $288,053 came from the golf courses. It was not surprising, therefore, that the Garrison Commander and DCA were concerned when the City of Seaside expressed an interest in acquiring the golf courses in 1993. In 1995 Representative Sam Farr introduced legislation in Congress that directed the Army to sell the Fort Ord golf courses to Seaside, with proceeds going to the MWR account. This legislation passed, but negotiations over the property continued into January 1997, when the Army sold the courses to Seaside. From 1994 to 1996 the two courses were managed by DCA and increased in revenue to an all time high. However, DCA operated its many programs with the realization that its chief source of revenue would soon evaporate.33

DCA had hoped that revenues from the Edge Club would help offset the money lost from the sale of the golf courses. Constructed in 1904 the building had served for many years as the DLIFLC NCO club, enlisted club, and more recently, faculty and student club. Under DCA, the facility reopened on 19 May 1995 as a club for all military personnel for holding meetings, banquets, and other social activities. Although the Edge Club took in $24,108 within a month and a half of opening, the facility lost money from the outset. It simply could not replace the lost revenue from the golf courses.34

**Directorate of Contracting**

Prior to the downsizing of Fort Ord’s staff, the installation’s Directorate of Contracting (DOC) had approximately 65 personnel in five divisions: Administration, Contracting, Purchasing, Contract Administration, and Automation. Downsizing took place during 1993 and


1994. In October 1994 Fort Ord’s DOC became that of DLIFLC & POM, with only 18 positions. Joseph R. Scanlan was hired as Director of Contracting on 9 January 1995, replacing acting director Penny Sinclair. The directorate continued to administer most of the same base-level contracts, although many claims were filed that had to be resolved. Also, new contracts were awarded in the area of base closure and BASOPS. In January 1995 the directorate reorganized into four divisions: Purchasing, Contracting, Contract Administration, and Automation. In May 1995 DOC completed its move to the Presidio of Monterey.

During 1994 and 1995, DOC was a key player in the closing of Fort Ord. One of the major tasks involved closing the remaining contracts and purchase orders from Fort Ord and the Presidio. This task continued after Fort Ord closed. By 1 October 1994 there were still 1,725 outstanding purchase orders and 168 contract actions. With oversight of roughly 40 utility contracts, including gas, electricity, water, and telephones, DOC became heavily involved in the BRAC process. DOC staff were involved in the negotiations regarding the transfer of Fort Ord’s gas and electric utility infrastructure to Pacific Gas and Electric (PG&E). As such, DOC had to coordinate with the Fort Ord Reuse Authority (FORA), BRAC, DOIM, the Garrison Commander, the Corps of Engineers, and others on this issue. At the request of Fort Ord’s DOIM, DOC became the main coordinator of the process and drafted many of the key documents related to this issue. DOC also handled the documents related to the unsuccessful plan to transfer the Fort Ord telephone system to Pacific Bell.

DOC had to implement a number of federal policies during this time. One of the largest was the Federal Acquisition Streamlining Act, which Congress passed in January 1994. The act’s intent was to streamline how the federal government purchases items. It was particularly focused on the “micro-purchases” of $100,000 or less (increased from $25,000 in the previous policy) that made up 89 percent of government purchases. The act contained provisions covering a number of topics from electronic payment, relations with small businesses, and the use of the Federal Acquisition Computer Network to coordinate the process.35

In 1995 the implementation of a government credit card program was another responsibility for DOC. Under this program, offices had individuals authorized to use government VISA credit cards. With these cards, each office could make purchases (of less than $2,500) without having to go through an installation’s DOC first. It took several years to implement the program. TRADOC had implemented the International Merchant Purchase Authorization Card (IMPAC) in 1992. However, Fort Ord, under the BRAC process, did not implement new government programs, so staff at DLIFLC never used the cards. In 1995 Scanlan brought the Presidio of Monterey into compliance with TRADOC guidelines and its DOC.

became responsible for administering the IMPAC program. In July, DOC began a phase-in of the card.36

Other activities in 1994-95 included handling a contract to PRC, Inc., to evaluate Language Immersion Training. The directorate also developed various policies related to acquisition plans and regulations. In the summer of 1995 DOC began drafting the Army’s first Cooperative Agreement for the caretaking of the POM Annex. The Garrison Commander initiated action under special legislation to have cooperative agreements with the underlying jurisdictions replace the existing interservice support agreement (ISA) between the Army and Navy. The ISA was inefficient and too expensive. FORA concurred that the service provided by the Navy under the ISA was below standard (see below for more discussion).37

**Directorate of Information Management**

Fort Ord’s Directorate of Information Management (DOIM) was a complex agency employing 133 personnel within several divisions and organizations: These included the Information Center, Logistics Support, Operations and Systems Integration, Administrative Services, Postal, Publications Warehouse, Records Management, TCC Message Center, Data Processing, Systems Integration, Telecom Operations, and help desks. Ron Selfors served as director.

During 1994 Fort Ord’s DOIM staff upgraded the telephone, computer, and electrical services in several buildings on the installation and assisted many offices in their moves to new buildings and to the Presidio of Monterey. They also oversaw the disposition over 1,325 cubic feet of records, including the destruction of 604 cubic feet and the transfer of 621 cubic feet to Fort Lewis, the nearest FORSCOM records holding area. When Fort Ord closed, thirteen employees transferred to the Presidio of Monterey’s DOIM.

For much of 1994 DOIM at DLIFLC consisted of Plans and Architecture, Systems, Production Coordination, and the Information Center. During this entire period, the director of DLIFLC’s DOIM was Betty Jackson. On 1 October 1994 these branches were combined with Visual Information along with some personnel from Fort Ord’s DOIM to form an expanded directorate.38 By 1995 DOIM consisted of the Information Center, Plans and Resources, Production Coordination, Records Management, Systems, Telecommunications, and Visual Information. On 3 January 1995 oversight of DOIM became a function of the Garrison

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37 ATZP-DOC, Quarterly Historical Report, 19 Oct 1995; ATZP-DOC, Quarterly Historical Report, 17 Apr 1995; ATZP-DOC, Annual Historical Summary, 6 Jan 1995; *Fort Ord Closure Report, G-1, G-2; Final Status Report; Fort Ord Annual Command History*, 31; “Directorate of Contracting” in *Fort Ord Primer*. For more information on the ISAs, see Directorate of Public Works in this chapter.
38 Audio-Visual Management, later renamed “Visual Information” was a separate office for most of 1994 with Allen M. Merriman as director.
Commander. Later in 1995 DOIM underwent a series of minor internal changes as a result of an organization study conducted that year (see CPO section for discussion of the review process). DOIM’s activities during 1994 and 1995 included both DLIFLC mission and installation functions. Activities in support of DLIFLC’s mission included printing course materials for languages such as Haitian Creole, Korean, Russian, and Arabic. Some materials were specifically designed for courses at DLIFLC. Other materials consisted of survival packages for distribution to military personnel in the field. For example, during the second quarter of 1995, the Production Coordination Division put together 18,000 Bosnia survival kits and distributed them to U.S. Army Europe (USAREUR). During the fourth quarter that year, Production Coordination prepared and shipped 65,500 survival kits, mostly to personnel in the Balkans and Central Europe. In the fall of 1995, Production Coordination also prepared, ordered, and sent out a record 33,400 textbooks and dictionaries (17,890 in November alone). DOIM personnel also supported language lab facilities for such instructional tools as the LingNet and SCOLA systems.

Installation-related activities centered around installing and upgrading wiring and other equipment in connection with the movement of offices to the Presidio of Monterey and on the POM Annex. This work included three major projects: increasing underground cabling; upgrading the interior wiring in older buildings to accommodate the new garrison offices; and upgrading the telephone system, particularly the switching system. For example, the Telecommunications Division upgraded the cables and telephone lines in many of the older buildings on the Presidio, particularly the buildings around Soldier Field. Because most of its focus was on upgrading the existing wiring and infrastructure, DOIM did not purchase large numbers of new computers for the installation as it would in later years. It did, however, purchase the first 113 Pentium class PCs for the installation, almost a quarter of which were used as servers on the installation network.

In April 1995 DLIFLC established a direct connection to the Internet. The Information Center provided training for using the Internet and World Wide Web. In the summer of 1995 the Visual Information Division oversaw the creation of a video teleconferencing center, which opened on 11 September. Furthermore, during 1995 DOIM staff handled over 1,400 telephone work orders and nearly 1,000 trouble calls. POM and POM Annex telephone lines grew from 872 in March 1994 to 2,700 by late 1995. In 1995 DOIM telephone crews installed two 2,400 pair cables to support increased requirements for phone service. An AT&T Outside Plant Cable Restoration (OSCAR) contract supplied fiber installations to more than 25 additional buildings at

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POM in 1995.40 BRAC funded interior wiring in 20 POM buildings as part of the personnel moves from the Fort Ord to the Presidio.41

**Directorate of Law Enforcement**

Prior to 1 October 1994 the Directorate of Law Enforcement (DLE) at Fort Ord also oversaw police activities at the Presidio of Monterey. During 1994 and 1995 the Director of Law Enforcement was Tom Savage. One of the major impacts of the closing of Fort Ord was the loss in personnel. In January 1994 DLE staff consisted of 235 civilians and military personnel. By October, the figure was 93 civilians. During FY 1994 DLE had to hire an additional 33 civilian guards to make up for the departure of military personnel. When Fort Ord closed, DLE became a part of the Presidio of Monterey’s activities, operating under the Garrison Commander.

Throughout this period, DLE ensured the security of the Presidio of Monterey, the Presidio of Monterey Annex, and those portions of the former Fort Ord that remained under Army control prior to transfer. It also assisted the chief of police of California State University, Monterey Bay (CSUMB) on security issues. Activities included conducting regular police patrols, investigating incidents of crime and vandalism, overseeing gun and vehicle registration, and handling traffic cases. Traffic cases—and speeding in particular—were the largest single source of source of incidents during this period, ranging from 90 to 200 citations a month. Among the issues dealt with was the concern that the opening of POM Annex to the general public would increase the incidents of crime there. Crime did not generally increase although traffic incidents doubled between early to late 1995. Later years would see a handful of very public incidents take place on the former Fort Ord.42

**Directorate of Logistics**

At the start of 1994, Fort Ord’s Directorate of Logistics (DOL) was a large organization with several sections, including Plans and Operations, the Maintenance Division, and the Transportation Division, as well as staff to operate a number of warehouses. It functioned under

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40 “OSCAR” was a Army-wide contract to AT&T and GTE for the replacement of large-scale cabling infrastructures on installations.


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the leadership of LTC Andrew Chmar, USA, and Cicero Wilkinson. Through the summer of 1994, the organization was primarily involved with shutting down the installation, transferring equipment and supplies, and clearing the Fort Ord property books, a task completed in September. During this time, the directorate also faced a cutback in funds and staffing to meet the future needs of the Presidio of Monterey. The pre-BRAC Fort Ord DOL had an annual budget of roughly $30 million. The post-BRAC DLIFLC & POM DOL budget for FY 1995 was roughly $14 million. Before BRAC, Fort Ord’s DOL occupied 82 buildings. After BRAC, the new organization occupied 17. Fort Ord’s DOL had a pre-BRAC strength of 327 civilian positions. By September 1994 civilian staffing was down to 110 positions.

Meanwhile, the DLIFLC’s Logistics Division, under the direction of Ralph Brooks, consisted of a small staff who primarily administered the POM warehouse or took care of relatively minor activities such as copier repair. October 1994 marked the creation of a new Presidio of Monterey Directorate of Logistics, under the Garrison Commander. DLIFLC’s former Logistics Division became the Supply and Services Division under the new organization. The new POM DOL had four divisions: Supply, Services, Transportation, and Maintenance. Eventually, this organization consisted of 89 positions, 68 of which were filled with transfers from Fort Ord. Tom DeVilbiss, the chief of Services and Supplies at Fort Ord, became the new director of logistics.

During 1994 the Fort Ord DOL handled the transfer of millions of dollars of property. One aspect of this was the transfer of $32 million worth of equipment from the Fort Ord property book to the DLIFLC & POM property book. By the end of 1994 there were still over 177,000 items of personal property that needed disposal. In addition, the office oversaw the creation of a BRAC property book to manage the disposal and transfer of property from Fort Ord to civilian organizations and institutions. Meanwhile, other parts of DOL dealt with the physical transfer of the items and their storage.

During 1995 DOL continued to reorganize. In June the DOL headquarters moved from Fort Ord to the Presidio. In April, Carlson Wagonlit Travel replaced Scheduled Airline Traffic Offices (SATO), Inc., as the contract travel agency to handle official and personal travel arrangements. In June DOL oversaw the relocation of equipment related to the closing of the Army Research Institute on the Presidio. Other activities conducted by DOL included the Transportation Division’s automation of its storage procedures in the fall.

DOL staff also oversaw changes not directly related to the closing of Fort Ord. During 1994 DOL sold the vehicles in both the Fort Ord and POM motor pools at auction and leased a new fleet of vehicles from the General Services Administration. It took several years for DOL to physically move the Fort Ord motor pool onto the POM Annex.

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43 “Research unit leaves Presidio,” Monterey County Herald, 4 Jan 1995.
Directorate of Public Works

Fort Ord’s Directorate of Public Works (DPW) consisted of seven divisions: Environmental/Natural Resources, Resource Management, Engineering, Supply, Operations, Housing, and the Fire Department. LTC Bjorn Lundegard, USA, was director. During its final year, DPW’s divisions were primarily involved in engineering and environmental activities related to the closing of Fort Ord. One of the main duties was processing the remaining contracts and work orders, especially regarding utilities. Another aspect of this work included the mothballing of the remaining Fort Ord buildings. Because DPW included Fort Ord’s Environmental Division, the directorate oversaw a wide variety of environment related tasks. These included sampling soil and water; producing plans related to the management of wildlife and endangered species; overseeing the cleanup/removal of underground storage tanks; implementing the Community Environmental Response Facilitation Act (CERFA); producing archaeological and cultural resources surveys; and drafting surveys and reports of various Fort Ord sites regarding hazardous materials and unexploded ordnance. All of these activities took place in spite of reductions in personnel.

When Fort Ord closed, the remaining staff and sections of the Fort Ord DPW became parts of other POM entities. For example, the Environmental Management Division became the core of the new Environmental and Natural Resources Directorate. The Presidio of Monterey’s equivalent of DPW was the Facilities Management Office, which for most of 1994 was part of the Base Realignment and Closure (BRAC) Division. The closing of Fort Ord and the reorganization of functions on the POM resulted in the Facilities Management Office becoming its own directorate, also called the Directorate of Public Works, in September 1994. This DPW served under the new Garrison Commander position. The former manager of Facilities Management, Jerry Abeyta, became the Director of Public Works.46

Unlike most other DLIFLC directorates, DPW faced a major change in its role and mission as a result of interservice support agreements (ISAs or ISSAs) with the Navy and contracts with the City of Monterey. With the closure of Fort Ord, DLIFLC would acquire the responsibility for Base Operations Support (BASOPS) functions. The addition of the Presidio of Monterey Annex and the former Fort Ord parcels awaiting transfer through the BRAC process added even greater pressure on the installation. According to the Directorate of Resource Management (DRM), for example, BASOPS cost DLIFLC $47 million in fiscal year 1995, 47 percent of the installation’s budget. Moreover, the funding for the installation and its activities would remain severely limited at best and the costs of funding BASOPS would require cuts in mission activities. The 1993 BRAC review had targeted the Presidio of Monterey for closure in part because of the high cost of operating the installation and was a

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45 For more discussion of this act, see the “Environmental” section in this volume.
concern during BRAC 95. Attempts by the University of Arizona and Arizona officials to relocate DLIFLC to Fort Huachuca also loomed in the background. One way to reduce expenses was to keep the anticipated high Base Operations Support (BASOPS) costs to a minimum.47

During 1994 and 1995, there was considerable discussion about keeping DLIFLC in Monterey but eliminating BASOPS costs by leasing or transferring the POM to another body. The two most popular alternatives involved the City of Monterey and the Naval Postgraduate School (NPS). The lease-leaseback program with the City of Monterey emerged in 1993 as a way to reduce the cost of operating DLIFLC in Monterey and therefore, keep it off the BRAC 95 list. Under this proposal, the City would lease the POM from the Army and then lease back the property to the Army. Any unused space could then be leased to other entities. In doing this, the City of Monterey would take over the services, utilities, and public works responsibilities for the installation. Although this proposal was not implemented as fully as originally planned, it did pave the way for such activities as the leasing of Soldier Field or the Lower Presidio (see below) in later years.48

The other alternative was to possibly transfer DLIFLC to the Navy. DLIFLC would become a tenant organization on a Navy-owned Presidio, a status similar to the one it had while a tenant of Fort Ord. Under this plan, there would be only one public works department, based out of NPS, to handle the needs of the POM and POM Annex as well as Navy needs. There was some discussion of the matter during 1994 and 1995 that resulted in a DoD BASOPS study completed in April 1995. While tempting in terms of the savings that could result, the plan concerned many, especially given the problems with existing agreements with the Navy (see below). The proposed transfer never took place and the issue faded once news broke that both NPS and DLIFLC were spared from the BRAC 95 cuts.49

The solution seemed to rest with developing smaller agreements with the Navy and the City of Monterey instead of wholesale transfer. By developing these partnerships, the Army was able to maintain some of its facilities at POM and the POM Annex. The Naval Facilities Engineering Command (NFEC) was in charge of BASOPS functions at the NPS. Early in 1993,

DLIFLC staff including John Estep of DRM began negotiations with the Navy to develop ISAs so that NFEC could take over support functions on the POM and the Annex. Early discussions considered consolidating a variety of BASOPS functions including Safety, Information Management, Logistics, and the Chaplain. Eventually, the main focus of the negotiations centered around public works issues. By consolidating public works under one facility, this program would eliminate the duplication of public works directorates and therefore required fewer staff and resources to support.  

During 1994, DLIFLC initiated 24 ISAs, of which three pertained to the Naval Postgraduate School. Sobichevsky and ADM Thomas A. Mercer, NPS superintendent, signed these agreements in July 1994. The first was a contract through which the Naval Postgraduate School provided fire protection services for the POM and POM Annex at a programmed cost of $1,151,446 for FY 95. The second was a public works ISA in which the Army paid the Navy to be a public works center for the POM and the Annex for a cost of $7,617,232 for FY 95. The third ISA stipulated that the Army pay the Navy for caretaker functions for buildings on the lands of the former Fort Ord that had not yet been transferred to new owners. The programmed cost for FY 95 was $1,131,189. Early plans estimated that DLIFLC and POM would save an $683,000 in annual operating costs and another $513,000 in contracting and supplies because of the ISAs.  

Originally intended as money- and job-saving endeavors, the ISAs proved to be troublesome. The public works and caretaker ISAs were a tremendous blow to over 200 Fort Ord employees. The last survivors of a much larger Fort Ord DPW staff, they had hoped that their functions would be smoothly transferred to new positions with DLIFLC. Instead, most were RIFed at the last minute; only 81 finding new jobs with NPS.  


52 Mary Aguilar, Human Resource Officer, Naval Postgraduate School to Civilian Personnel Officer, Fort Ord, 8 Feb 1994; PROFS message, Snow to Oldenburg, Meeting on 25 February with Fort Ord CPO, 28 Feb 1994; PROFS message from Snow to Oldenburg, Coordination Meeting with the Fort Ord CPO, 14 Feb 1994; ATFL-
The fire protection ISA was the most successful with only minor issues arising over its implementation. The other two ISAs encountered major problems. Customer service, or the perceived lack thereof, was a particularly sore subject for the Army. Part of the complexity stemmed from the fact that two thirds of the new NPS public works force were former employees from Fort Ord whose salaries were still paid by the Army, even though the money went through the Navy. In the years that followed, problems emerged with the POM and POMA caretaker ISA due to the workload placed on the Navy, the Navy using outside contractors to perform the work, and the insufficiency of Army funds to meet the rising costs demanded by the Navy. Friction between Army and Navy staff exacerbated the situation. Although the public works ISA was renegotiated late in 1995 and the caretaker ISA renegotiated in 1996, the Army did not feel that the Navy was sufficiently managing the POM and POM Annex facilities.\textsuperscript{53} Eventually, this led to a cancelation of the building maintenance part of the public works ISA in 1997.

There were additional concerns related to the so-called caretaker ISA. The closed areas of Fort Ord were low on the Navy’s list of priorities and as a result, facilities quickly fell into disrepair. By October 1995 BRAC requested that the Garrison Commander terminate the caretaker ISA and transfer the maintenance responsibilities to the Fort Ord Reuse Authority (FORA). Eventually, FORA and the Presidio’s Directorate of Base Realignment and Closure (DBRAC) were so dissatisfied with that aspect of the caretaker ISA that the Army canceled that ISA in 1997 as well and had the functions return to garrison.\textsuperscript{54}

Garrison also looked to the City of Monterey to help maintain some of the property on the Presidio itself. Monterey already provided DLIFLC with fire protection. Usually, contracts and reciprocal agreements between military installations and municipalities were fraught with difficulty and were sometimes found to be illegal. However, on 1 October 1994 the work of Congressman Sam Farr and the Department of Defense resulted in the creation of Public Law 103-337, Sec 816. This allowed the DLIFLC & POM (and NPS) to engage in a number of these agreements as a test case.\textsuperscript{55} Several agreements resulted from this period of experimentation. For example, in mid-1995, Garrison entered negotiations with the City of Monterey over the Presidio’s Soldier Field. The Presidio was not using the field enough to make its upkeep cost effective. Meanwhile, the city needed more public recreation space. Under the agreement, the city obtained a license from the Army to operate the field and agreed to develop and maintain the


\textsuperscript{55} Public Law 103-337, Section 816. See also \url{http://pom-www.army.mil/partnerships/baseops.htm}. 
property. The Army retained ownership of the land but did not have to pay for its maintenance. In 1996 both parties signed the agreement.\footnote{For a good synopsis of the partnerships that POM developed with the City of Monterey and the Navy, see \url{http://pom-www.army.mil/partnerships/}.}

The ISAs and agreements with the city did not cover all public works issues on the POM. Garrison retained oversight of such matters as utilities management and billeting. Bachelor billeting, including the barracks on the Presidio, remained under DPW’s control. Furthermore, DPW oversaw some contract administration. Unlike its Fort Ord counterpart, which had maintained a large in-house labor force, the Presidio’s DPW had a small staff and managed its responsibilities through contracting out the functions. For the rest of 1994 and through 1995, the organization managed the public works functions through several ISAs, various service and construction contracts, support from the Naval Public Works Support Activity-Oakland, and the Sacramento District, Army Corps of Engineers.\footnote{ATZP-FM, Military Construction Army FY 98-01, 20 Oct 1994; \textit{Final Status Report; Fort Ord Annual History}, 48-56, \textit{Fort Ord Closure Report}, A-1, A-2; “Directorate of Public Works” in \textit{Fort Ord Primer}.}

A major challenge involved obtaining funding for construction and other public works projects. In the wake of base closures and studies during BRAC 1993, the Army put a moratorium on all new military construction at the Presidio of Monterey. Thus, DLIFLC & POM lost Department of Defense military construction (MILCON) funding for several projects such as an academic auditorium, an audio/visual center, and a $14,626,000 classroom building known as the General Instruction Facility (GIF) III. As a result, DPW had to maintain an extremely crowded installation with no resources to construct new buildings.\footnote{ATFL-BR, POM EA Revision Cost Estimate and Time-Line, 8 Mar 1994; ATFL-CMT, Ft. Ord Billeting Fund Shortfall, 19 Sep 1994; Memorandum from Jerry Abeyta, City of Monterey Proposal on POM, 2 Aug 1994. For further discussion, see supporting materials on the General Instruction Facility from the DLIFLC Facility Planning Meeting, 9 Dec 98. See also materials in file called “DPW Projects – FY 1994,” Oldenburg Files.}

\textit{Directorate of Resource Management}

The Fort Ord’s Directorate of Resource Management (DRM) started 1994 under the direction of LTC Edward Quinnan, USA, with Parnell Rickerson as deputy director. It had divisions of Budget, Program Development, Management Analysis, Manpower, and Finance and Accounting. However, that structure was in a state of flux over the following months as Fort Ord shut down and people left or transferred. During its last year, Fort Ord’s DRM had two major BRAC assignments. The first was to develop and monitor the BRAC budget. During FY94 DRM administered $107.43 million (including Operations and Maintenance Army (OMA) and BRAC funds), most of which went to the BASOPS budget. While a decrease from the previous year, the funding was sufficient to complete all of the tasks related to the operation and final closure of Fort Ord. The other task was to develop a phasing plan to assist in the downsizing of the Fort Ord workforce. DRM planned for the two RIFs of April and September 1994 that CPO implemented.
Meanwhile, DRM faced staff cutbacks of its own. By September, 1994, DRM staff consisted of 7 persons, down from 40 at the beginning of the year. 59

Resource management at DLIFLC consisted of two sections: Management and Budget. At the start of 1994, John A. Estep was acting DRM Director, having taken over the position when LTC Charles Miller, USA, become head of DLIFLC’s BRAC office. In early 1994 LTC Jonathan Lang, USA, became DRM Director. In October 1994 the DLIFLC DRM absorbed a few of the personnel from the now defunct Fort Ord DRM. Estep retired and Rickerson took over as senior management analyst. The new organization consisted of four divisions: Management, Budget, Force Management, and Accounting. In April 1995, TRADOC directed that DRM become a function of the Garrison Commander, over the objection of the DLIFLC Chief of Staff. 60

One of the issues that DRM faced in response to the consolidation of positions from Fort Ord was that of authorized manpower. In June 1994 the Department of the Army considered reducing the allocation to DLIFLC’s Management Decision Package (the vehicle through which DLIFLC is funded) from $54.5 million to $35 million for FY96. Meanwhile, TRADOC itself underwent an authorization drill and had pressure to reduce its number of authorizations. TRADOC staff saw DLIFLC, with its possible reduction in funding and growing use of contracts and ISAs for BASOPS, as a place where authorizations could cut. As a result TRADOC took away over 800 authorized positions. Eventually, the Department of the Army decided to restore that funding. However, the TRADOC authorization cuts still stood, meaning that DLIFLC & POM was short 800 authorized positions. The cuts took place with FY96 with garrison staff such as DOL and DPW bearing the brunt of the shortfall. In the years that followed, DLIFLC & POM gradually hired additional staff as needed through use of Full Time Equivalent mechanisms.

DRM’s main role was to ensure that DLIFLC & POM operated as efficiently as possible, making the best use of resources. These included assessments of manpower, budget, and organizational issues. The Budget Division’s main duty was to prepare the Command Operating Budget and the Midyear Review. Its staff also prepared the financial portion of the installation’s Five Year Plan and the Mobilization Budget. Other duties included oversight of the Resource Advisory Subcommittee, a body made up of the heads of DLIFLC schools and Garrison offices that met to sort out resource management issues. In early 1995, in response to the standing up of the DLIFLC & POM garrison, the RASC was standardized to conform with Army guidelines. The new body became the Program Budget Advisory Committee. Finally, it was also responsible for policies and procedures related to the distribution of funds and resources. 61

During 1995 the Force Management Division produced monthly summaries that detailed the number of student, faculty, and staff positions at DLIFLC & POM. These reports also

61 See for example, ATFL-RMB, Resource Advisory Subcommittee, 14 Jan 1994, Oldenburg Files.
documented changes in the organization. One of the major issues that Force Management handled during this time was the deactivation of Company G, Troop Command, on 17 August 1995 and the transfer of troops to Company C.

The Management Division was responsible for developing the Interservice Support Agreements (ISAs). During fiscal year 1995, DRM initiated four ISAs and finalized nine others. Other issues included the development of a new Defense Finance and Accounting (DFAS) site in the Seaside/Fort Ord area and DLIFLC & POM support to the Defense Manpower Data Center. This division also conducted studies on a variety of issues including the Fire Department and GSA vehicles.62

History Office

During 1994 Dr. James C. McNaughton was the command historian, working under the Chief of Staff. Over the course of the year, the command history office took on a number of projects that benefited the Army, but resulted in a lag in producing the Defense Language Institute’s annual command history series. After completing an accreditation study for the provost in 1994, McNaughton was awarded a Secretary of the Army Research and Study Fellowship to write the history of armed forces language training from World War II to the present. Just as this fellowship was awarded, the U.S. Army Center of Military History (CMH) assigned him the task of writing the official Army history of Nisei linguists in World War II. In June 1994 McNaughton presented a paper on this topic at the Conference of Army Historians, later published by CMH. The office hired Dr. Stephen Payne to write the annual command histories so that McNaughton could work on these two projects. During this time, McNaughton also finished writing the 1992 Annual Command History, published in January 1995. Later that year, the provost’s office tasked Payne, who was writing the 1993 Annual Command History, to work on accreditation issues. In December 1995, McNaughton completed a paper on the history of management issues in the Defense Foreign Language Program.63


An additional activity involving the office was the closing of the Presidio of Monterey Museum (Building 113). The closure of Fort Ord had eliminated the funds and staff necessary to run the museum. DLIFLC took it over in 1992 but had not been able to keep it open. In March 1995 CMH packed up the museum’s artifacts, and sent them either to other museums or to Army storage facilities. From 1992 to 1995, the closed museum was under the direct control of Area Studies, not the Command History Office. Area Studies provided security, access, and property control for the site. However, talks soon began with the City of Monterey and the California Department of Parks and Recreation to open a new museum in place of the old one in a few years.64

Internal Review Office
At the start of 1994, the internal review office consisted of one person, Dwight Johnson. Based at Fort Ord, the office conducted reviews and audits of a number of processes and services taking place on the installation and at the Presidio. One of Johnson’s final activities as a Fort Ord office was to audit the Fort Ord property books. On 30 August, the office moved to the Presidio of Monterey. It became an official part of DLIFLC & POM early in September, reporting to the Assistant Commandant.65

Protocol Office
During 1994 and 1995, Pierrette J. Harter remained the director of Protocol. The office began 1994 under the Chief of Staff but was transferred to the Assistant Commandant on 1 October 1994. Protocol continued to schedule and support the visits of VIPs coming to the Presidio. During this period, the office received a variety of visitors, including military officials, political figures, and representatives from foreign countries. The office was especially active during September and October 1994, when it oversaw the ceremonies that marked the creation of the DLIFLC and POM and the creation of the POM Garrison. Fort Ord had no equivalent office; the protocol functions had been handled by Public Affairs.66

Public Affairs Office
On Fort Ord, public affairs had a small number of staff members. That number became even smaller as personnel left during the last months that the installation was in operation. From January to September 1994, Dick Dyer was acting public affairs officer. During these months, the

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65 Final Status Report, 9 Dec 1994; Fort Ord Annual Command History; Fort Ord Closure Report, N-1; “Internal Review and Audit Compliance” in Fort Ord Primer.
office coordinated a number of public events related to the shutdown of Fort Ord and the BRAC process. Because Fort Ord had no equivalent to DLIFLC’s Protocol Office, Public Affairs handled such functions as coordinating the itineraries of official visitors. The office’s last activity was to help coordinate the final closure ceremony. When Fort Ord closed, the remaining PAO staff lost their jobs, since the Presidio’s office did not require any new positions.

On 1 October 1994 the DLIFLC PAO became the installation PAO under the direction of James F. Davis III. The office was under the DLIFLC Chief of Staff. On 1 October it came under the Assistant Commandant. During this period, PAO covered a variety of Presidio of Monterey and POM Annex events in the Globe. The Globe expanded its coverage to include the POM Annex after the Fort Ord Panorama ceased publication in December 1993 after 53 years of continuous publication. On 7 November 1994 PAO began publishing Community News, a Garrison newspaper to inform military and family members of a wide range of news and events. When Fort Ord closed, PAO took over the task of maintaining DLIFLC’s link to the Satellite Communications for Learning (SCOLA) international television service. During that same time, PAO launched a half hour daily public announcement show that appeared in the morning and evening on the SCOLA channel at DLIFLC and the POM Annex.

One of PAO’s main functions was to document the various changes that arose as a result of the closing of Fort Ord and the emergence of the DLIFLC & POM. This included coverage of several of the land transfers, such as those that went to the universities as well as the transfer of Fritzsche Army Airfield to the city of Marina. When California State University, Monterey Bay opened in 1995, PAO covered the ceremony, which featured a speech by President Bill Clinton. In December 1995 PAO devoted a whole edition of the Globe to the outgoing commandant, Sobichevsky.67

Safety

For most of 1994, occupational health and safety functions for both installations took place out of Fort Ord’s Safety Office, under the direction of David Larose. During 1994, the office finished installation safety inspections on Fort Ord. In October 1994 the Safety Office and its staff of three transferred to the Presidio of Monterey. At that time, it became a part of the Chief of Staff’s administration, but transferred to the Installation Commander in December 1995. During 1994 and 1995, this office provided regular services such as safety briefings and training and conducted Safety Day. It investigated complaints about safety issues, including those related

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to personal injuries or about potentially unsafe situations. It surveyed the Presidio and the Annex for safety violations and issues.68

Special Staff

Another set of offices impacted by the closing of Fort Ord were those of the special staff. One of these, for example, was the office of the Command Sergeant Major (CSM). In 1993, Colonel Sobichevsky demanded that the commandant of DLIFLC have a Command Sergeant Major to prepare for the time when DLIFLC and POM would become a separate installation. In 1993 CSM Thomas J. Bugary, USA, was assigned to fill the role.69

The Fort Ord Inspector General (IG) office continued its functions of assistance, inspection, and investigations until its closure in September 1994. LTC Davidson served as IG until spring 1994. In October 1994 the IG of Fort Ord became that of DLIFLC & POM. LTC Thomas Nosack became DLIFLC & POM IG in January 1995. There was no IG during much of 1994 so interim military staff served as needed. The office performed functions similar to those of its Fort Ord counterpart. One of its main duties was acting on Inspector General Actions Requests (IGARs). These included investigating cases involving military personnel management, military personnel conduct, and civilian personnel management. During 1995 the office handled between 30 and 45 IGARs a quarter. In addition, the office conducted information briefings as well as particular command-directed non-compliance inspections. The IG also provided support for such issues as the Child Development Center.70

At the start of 1994, the Fort Ord Office of the Staff Judge Advocate (SJA) handled matters of military justice, claims, legal assistance, and administrative support for the Defense Language Institute as well. On 1 October 1994 the office, with 18 persons led by the SJA, MAJ Diana Moore, USA, transferred over to the POM. A key issue during this time was the transfer of general court martial convening authority from the commander of Fort Ord to the commander of DLIFLC & POM, a process that took several months. The Secretary of the Army finally authorized the Installation Commander, DLIFLC & POM, to have this authority effective 1 October even, though that person was only an O-6 grade officer. Therefore, the Installation Commander became one of the few colonels in the nation with general court martial convening authority, a privilege that many general officers did not have.

68 ATZP-SAF, Annual Historical Report to Closeout of CY 94 (1st Qtr FY 95) and current CY 95 to date (2nd Qtr FY 95), 10 Apr 1995; Fort Ord Annual History, 41; Fort Ord Closure Report, M-1; “Safety” in Fort Ord Primer; materials on the Command Safety Office in Oldenburg Files; “Safety Day,” Globe (26 May 1994); Issue Paper for Chief of Staff Meeting, ATFL-CS, Fort Ord Safety Inspections, 9 May 1994.
69 Fort Ord Annual History, 9; 1993 DLIFLC Annual Command History, pp. 113-17; Interview with CSM Thomas Bugary by Dr. Stephen Payne, n.d.
In July 1995 LTC Andrew D. Stewart, USA, took over as SJA. Throughout this period, the office of the SJA, in addition to its regular duties, was heavily involved in drafting and reviewing the paperwork related to the transfer of Fort Ord property. For example, in July 1995 the office drafted the paperwork for the first parcel of Fritzsche Army Airfield that was transferred to the City of Marina.\(^71\)

Initially, both Fort Ord and DLIFLC had separate Equal Employment Opportunity offices (EEOs). The head of the Fort Ord office was Dr. Verna Woolfolk-Sloan; Kathryne F. Burwell directed DLIFLC’s office. Both EEOs handled equal employment and affirmative action issues for civilian employees; military Equal Opportunity (EO) staff handled these issues for military personnel. In September 1994, the Fort Ord EEO office closed and the Presidio’s office expanded its role to include the POM Annex. Woolfolk-Sloan retired on 30 September 1994. Burwell was EEO Officer through 1995.

EEO’s duties centered on two activities: handling the EEO complaints system and implementing an affirmative action program. In early 1994 the DLIFLC EEO office handled roughly 10 complaints a month. After October, that number jumped to an average of 23 complaints a month. This jump was due to processing unresolved FORSCOM complaints. The carryover of complaints from FORSCOM continued into 1995 because resolution of a typical case took often took two years or more. During 1995, the EEO office handled 100 formal and 26 informal complaints.

In addition to complaints, EEO conducted training sessions on topics such as the prevention of sexual harassment. EEO conducted these sessions in part to educate the installation on EEO matters and thereby reduce the number of complaints arriving at the office. Lowering the number of complaints would free up staff and time to conduct additional activities. In addition, EEO staff oversaw the Federal Women’s Program, the Hispanic Employment Program, the Asian American/Native Pacific Islander and American Indian/Alaskan Native Program, and the Program for Individuals with Disabilities. As part of these programs, staff coordinated events related to Hispanic Heritage Month, Asian Pacific Heritage week, National American Indian Month, National Women’s Equality Day, Women’s History Month, and Black History Month.\(^72\)


CHAPTER VII
BRAC, Environmental, and the Disposal of Fort Ord

Disposing of Fort Ord’s property was one of the most complicated tasks Army officials faced in closing the base. Fort Ord consisted of 27,827.4 acres that had to be transferred, with the exception of the 773.93 acre “footprint” retained by the Army. Determining who got which parcels of land and on what terms was a slow and involved process, one that began well before Fort Ord closed and continues to the present with no end in sight.

Overseeing this process was a complicated array of Army officials and offices. Closing Fort Ord involved staff at the Department of the Army; Training and Doctrine Command (TRADOC), the command that operated DLIFLC; and Forces Command (FORSCOM), the command that operated Fort Ord. In addition there were staff from Fort Ord such as Garrison Commander COL Thomas Ellzey, USA. The major players from DLIFLC & POM included the Commandant, COL Vladimir Sobichevsky, USA, and (after October 1994) Garrison Commander COL Ila Mettee-McCutchn, USA. Prior to October 1994, actual administration of the process took place under the Directorate of Base Realignment and Closure (DBRAC) at Fort Ord and the equivalent office at DLIFLC. After October 1994 the two offices were combined into one directorate under DLIFLC & POM. In addition, the Directorate of Environmental and Natural Resources (DENR) at Fort Ord and later DLIFLC & POM oversaw the massive job of cleaning up parcels of Fort Ord property to be transferred. Meanwhile, the United States Army Corps of Engineers (USACE), Sacramento District, produced a number of plans, surveys, and documents related to the cleanup and the transfer processes. USACE, in turn, contracted out much of its work to private firms such as Harding Lawson and Associates.

Creation of the Presidio of Monterey Annex

In 1991 the BRAC commission voted to close Fort Ord with the understanding that at least part of the land would remain under Army control, administered through the Presidio of Monterey. However, the size of the property, known informally as the “footprint,” was never specified and remained a subject of negotiations through 1994. Residents of the surrounding communities, who wanted more land to be available, pressured the Army to reduce the size of the footprint, originally intended to be roughly 1,500 acres. On 1 October 1994 the DLIFLC & POM became the administrator of a 773.93-acre section of the former Fort Ord called the Presidio of Monterey Annex (POMA). While this parcel included a variety of buildings and office space, the layout of the footprint excluded a number of properties that in retrospect might have been useful. Among these were several athletic and sports facilities that the Army could have used as money-making ventures had they been leased or opened to public use. In some instances, the Army found itself stuck with buildings that it had no use for, while the properties it wanted were on the other side of the street.
but outside of the footprint. During 1994 Ellzey and Sobichevsky oversaw the relocation of DLIFLC & POM offices from other locations on Fort Ord to the footprint.¹

Although the annex contained space for offices, the biggest part of the property retained by the Army consisted of family housing. Over 35 percent of the personnel at the Presidio were married and many also had children. The Presidio itself simply did not have the space to house all these people. Finding a place to live was a challenge in the limited and expensive housing market of the Monterey Peninsula. By contrast, Fort Ord had several sections of family housing, along with the supporting infrastructure such as a commissary, post exchange, chapel, and community center. In earlier years, most military personnel with families from DLIFLC had lived on quarters at Fort Ord. Housing married DLIFLC and NPS students on the former Fort Ord made sense. In addition, the housing on the former Fort Ord could alleviate the housing problems that the Naval Postgraduate School also faced. Having Navy personnel live on the site also made sense because, with the Public Works ISA, the Navy was already responsible for the maintenance of the buildings on the Annex.

In March 1994 military families began moving onto the footprint when the Army opened up 1,583 military family housing units in the Hayes, Stilwell, Fitch, and Marshall Park housing areas to DLIFLC & POM married personnel. By late 1994 the population on the annex consisted of roughly 58 percent DLIFLC students, 40 percent Navy personnel, and 2 percent Coast Guard. In addition, the Army retained control of such structures as the commissary, post exchange, movie theater, chapel, youth center, and library. To coordinate activities for the service members and their families living in these housing parks, the Garrison set up a program called the Presidio of Monterey Mayors. Prior to its closing, Fort Ord had a mayors program. The new program continued the effort. Each housing park had a “mayor” to welcome new residents, produce newsletters, and set up social events. Therefore, although the 7th Infantry Division was gone and the official activities of the installation shut down, the Army base once known as Fort Ord was far from abandoned even when it closed in September 1994.²

Symbolic of this transformation was the moving of the Drill Sergeant Statue onto the footprint. Dedicated in 1974, the statue represented Fort Ord’s origin and heritage as a training center. When preparations were being made for the closing of Fort Ord, staff at the drill instructors school at Fort Jackson, asked if they could move the statue to that installation. The proposal was met with a strong outcry from local retirees, who felt that the statue belonged at

Fort Ord. In 1992 pressure to keep the statue at Fort Ord won out. However, the statue’s original location was at the 12th Street gate, on land that would eventually be transferred to new owners. In late 1994 POM oversaw the transporting of the statue to a new location in front of the remaining chapel on the POM Annex.3

The BRAC Process

The 1991 decision to close Fort Ord was only the start of a very long and complicated process. First came the transferring thousands of troops to new assignments. Next came the process of closing down the installation and consolidating the staff with that of the Presidio of Monterey. The final stage, disposing of the installation’s land to other owners, began shortly after the announcement to close the base and continues to the present.4

The Department of Defense Base Reuse Implementation Manual, a handbook for implementing the closure of installations, provided the main guidelines for the closure process. However, the process was made more complex by an array of national, Army level, and local issues. For a number of issues there were no guidelines. As a result, staff at DLIFLC and Fort Ord had to improvise many policies and procedures.5

Three major federal policies shaped the BRAC process at Fort Ord. These were funding, the President’s Five Point Plan, and the Congressionally mandated screening process that set up priorities for the disposal of Army lands. BRAC 91 and Congress allowed six years for the entire process of closing bases and transferring the land. Therefore, under these guidelines, Fort Ord’s transfer had to be completed by July 1997.

The process was funded accordingly. The money was channeled through the Department of Defense to the Department of the Army to the major commands (FORSCOM through September 1994 and TRADOC beginning October 1994) to the installation. The BRAC funding for Fort Ord during FY 1994, 1995, and 1996 totaled $32.9 million. Of this, $24.9 million was for


5 Records for the BRAC and environmental cleanup issues are extensive. The Sacramento Office of the Army Corps of Engineers has copies of all major documents. The Historian’s Office DLIFLC & POM has copies of deeds and other official documents as well as newspaper clippings and the historical reports of the agencies involved. Some of these are collected into binders, which are mentioned when appropriate. The BRAC Office, located on the POM Annex, maintains binders of documents related to each Fort Ord parcel. Environmental and Natural Resources, also on the POM Annex, contains documents related to the environmental cleanup of Fort Ord. The Seaside Public Library holds for public use a set of environment-related documents, including the investigations, reports, and plans of the Army Corps and Engineers and the contractors under them. For the basic Department of Defense guidelines related to base closures, see Department of Defense, Base Reuse Implementation Manual, Jul 1995.
FY 1994, $7.2 million for FY 1995, and only $0.8 million for FY 1996.6 After July 1997 BRAC money ran out and DLIFLC & POM had to pay BRAC costs out of its own budget until the process was completed. This policy encouraged TRADOC and the Army to transfer the property as quickly as possible.7

Meanwhile, on 2 July 1993 President Clinton issued a Five-Point Plan for base closure and reuse. On 6 April 1994 the plan became an interim rule. On 25 October 1994 the Final Rule became law as part of the National Defense Authorization Act for 1994. The plan’s intent was to break with former policy in the disposal of federal property—namely, to generate as much revenue as possible. Rather, the focus was on helping the affected communities recover economically from the closure. Community input rather than unilateral federal action, was to become the new norm. The Five Points were

- Jobs-centered property disposal placing local economic redevelopment first
- Fast-track environmental cleanup removing needless delays while protecting human health and the environment
- Transition coordinators at major bases slated for closure
- Easy access to transition and redevelopment help for workers and communities
- Larger economic development planning grants to base closure communities

The emphasis was on transferring property as quickly as possible and having public input in the process. Under BRAC laws, the local reuse authority (LRA) embodied the community’s voice and had a large say in how land was disposed. One result was that the community developed the plan for the reuse of Fort Ord. The Army did not impose the plan from above.8

However, when the principle was applied to Fort Ord, a major problem arose: there was no single community voice until 1994. Most installations have only one or two neighboring jurisdictions to contend with. Fort Ord had eight, plus Monterey county, each of which had its own character and perspectives on the BRAC process. Marina and Seaside suffered the most economic disruption in the closure, and their leaders saw Fort Ord lands as resources for

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6 As it worked out, during FY 94, DLIFLC received $2,618,000 in BRAC funds. DLIFLC & POM received $6,908,900 during FY 95. See ATZP-DRM-B, Fiscal Year 1994 Cost Review, 9 Feb 1995; ATZP-DRM-B, Fiscal Year 1995 Cost Review, 26 Jan 1996.
7 Interview with Kathleen Clack by Dr. Jay Price, 23 Nov 1998; “BRAC Budget Briefing FY 1994, FY 95, FY 96,” 8 Jun 1994 (BRAC Binder, Misc.).
economic development. In opposition were residents of cities such as Carmel, who saw in the BRAC process an opportunity to limit growth in the region and to allow Fort Ord’s vast lands to remain (or return to) a natural state. Added to the mix was a myriad of local organizations such as veterans’ groups, environmental watchdogs, Native American interests, universities, and advocates for the homeless.

Congressman Leon Panetta (D-Carmel) tried to find a single voice among all these communities when he organized the 350-member Community Task Force on Fort Ord early in the 1990s. Under the leadership of Panetta, and later, State Senator Henry Mello, the Task Force considered issues surrounding potential uses for the extensive Fort Ord properties. Out of the Task Force grew the Fort Ord Reuse Group (FORG), created on 22 October 1992 and composed of city managers and planners from Monterey County and the cities of Seaside, Marina, Sand City, Del Rey Oaks, and Monterey. FORG began the task of planning reuse, but proved unable to complete it. The main problem was contention from Marina and Seaside leaders, who insisted that the revitalization of Fort Ord center around local economic development, dismissing the needs and concerns of neighboring communities. By December 1993 Senator Mello lost patience with FORG and introduced California State Senate Bill 899. Co-sponsored by State Assemblyman Bruce McPherson, R-Santa Cruz, the bill set up a governing authority composed of the FORG members, all three county supervisors, and the cities of Pacific Grove and Carmel.

In May 1994 the bill passed, creating a successor to FORG: the Fort Ord Reuse Authority (FORA). Marina and Seaside went along with the new organization once Mello promised the cities certain concessions on land transfers, plus two votes each on FORA decisions, versus the one vote each given to the other cities. Monterey County had three votes in FORA’s weighted voting system. The DoD’s Office of Economic Adjustment provided funding for the body. The first FORA board was sworn into office on 20 May 1994 with 13 members. This divided and contentious body of communities had to come up with a plan for reusing Fort Ord. Soon after it was created, the Fort Ord Community Task Force, a predecessor to FORG, produced a voluminous strategic report that called for an extensive redevelopment on the former Fort Ord with high-rise hotels, acres of housing, and facilities for thousands of jobs. This initial

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9 Early in the BRAC process an agreement between the Army and local communities established jurisdictional boundaries for Marina, Seaside, and the County of Monterey within Fort Ord. While these jurisdictions had no authority within Fort Ord, this arrangement provided federal income for these jurisdictions. With BRAC 91 the three jurisdictions saw a new tax base in the properties to be transferred to private owners.

10 “Revitalizing Base Closure Communities”; California State Senate Bill 899; “BRAC Background,” Fort Ord Reuse Group, Initial Base Reuse Plan, 19 Mar 1993; “Fort Ord Disposal Sequence,” Corps of Engineers document; Interview with COL Ila Mettee-McCutchon, USA by Dr. Stephen Payne, Sep 1996; Interview with Adrian Nakayama, 7 Jan 1998; interview; Interview with Viana LaRue by Dr. Stephen Payne, n.d.; Clack interview; “Haves, have-nots fight for piece of Fort Ord pie,” Topeka Capital-Journal (21 Dec 1994); “Chronology lists milestones on road to enactment,” Monterey County Herald (10 May 1994); “Ord reuse signed into law,” Monterey County Herald (10 May 1994); “Fort Ord reuse bill easily clears Assembly,” Monterey County Herald (29 Apr 1994); “Cities drop opposition to Ord reuse body,” Monterey County Herald, (14 Apr 1994); “Fort Ord land transfers will take place – but when?,” Monterey County Herald (27 Mar 1994).
plan sparked outrage among many segments of the community, especially those who opposed population growth in the region and what they perceived as overdevelopment. FORG, as contentious as it was, did adopt a scaled back (and condensed) version of this plan as an interim working document. The new document called for a greatly reduced level of development, with large parcels of land remaining open space and many others going to public entities such as universities. The Army then evaluated the document in its Final Environmental Impact Statement (FEIS) in June 1993 and its Record of Decision (ROD) in December 1993. These documents provided FORG with several alternatives on how to reuse the land, with options for high, medium, and low density reuse. In early 1994 FORG issued a revised draft of its Fort Ord Reuse Plan, which was then commented upon by the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers in a study known as the “Duffy Report,” named after the leader of the project team. In December 1994 FORA resolved to uphold the reuse plan as a guide for its activities although it continually revised the document throughout 1995 based on input from the Army and other sources. In 1995 the Army issued a supplemental Environmental Impact Statement to update the plans first proposed and discussed in 1993 and 1994. The goal was to have a plan that allowed for both development of the site and protection of a wide range of environmental concerns. FORA submitted a draft of the reuse plan to the public for comment in May 1996. After several subsequent drafts, FORA approved a Final Reuse Plan, with modifications, in June 1997.11

However, the community was not completely free in determining who got which lands. Federal law played a large role in giving preference to certain organizations and institutions. This “screening process” was one of the main reasons why 90 percent of disposable property went to public entities such as federal and state agencies, public universities, and cities. Under federal law and Department of Defense policy, various public entities had first right of refusal of Fort Ord lands, including

- other Department of Defense installations
- McKinney Act programs (programs to give housing and support to the homeless)12


12 The Steward B. McKinney Assistance Act authorized the use of excess or surplus federal property by organizations helping the homeless. In 1992, eleven local nonprofits formed the Fort Ord Homeless Services Providers Coalition. In 1993, the coalition requested a number of Fort Ord facilities, mostly housing units in Patton, Hayes, and Abrams housing parks. Of these proposals, most received properties via Health and Human Services by public benefit conveyance in 1996, 1997, and 1998. See “BRAC Background”
federal agencies
federal agencies that accepted land on behalf of other public interests (such as state or local bodies)
state, local, and other public bodies

Private interests could purchase Army land only after these other institutions decided that they did not want the property. To accompany this screening was a complicated set of mechanisms by which the property was transferred. Lands could be transferred from the Army to another federal agency free of charge or at a reduced or token cost. The Army could transfer property to local public entities through what is called a public benefit conveyance (PBC). In a PBC, a federal agency sponsors the local body. For example, the Army transferred Fort Ord’s schools to the Monterey Peninsula Unified School District through the U.S. Department of Education. The PBC only applied to federal agencies, or state and local bodies who were sponsored in the process by federal agencies. Once the screening was done, the Army then offered the land to a Local Reuse Authority or LRA (such as the Fort Ord Reuse Authority) through an economic development conveyance (EDC). This process came into law during 1994, just as the disposal of Fort Ord lands began to take place. At Fort Ord 19 percent of the land, or 5,200 acres, was available through EDC. Only after the LRA had refused the property or had failed to agree with the Army on a fair market value would it become available for sale to the public.

Army-level issues shaped the BRAC process as well. For example, FORSCOM and TRADOC had conflicting agendas: FORSCOM was interested in divesting itself of Fort Ord as rapidly as possible. Once the decision to leave the post had been made, every day the property remained in FORSCOM’s hands meant more money lost on the operation and maintenance of unneeded facilities. Meanwhile, TRADOC had an ongoing stake in the region and needed time to assess its needs before rushing into policies that it might regret later. In the end, TRADOC assumed responsibility for closing what had been a FORSCOM installation for almost twenty years.

Directorate of Base Realignment and Closure

Although complex and multifaceted, the Army’s role in the BRAC process essentially consisted of three tasks. The first was to transfer tracts of Fort Ord property to new owners. This

14 “Transfers to Other Federal Agencies,” 8 Sep 1998; “Department of Education PBCs,” 8 Sep 1998; “Federal Aviation Administration PBC To Marina At Fort Ord, CA,” 12 Aug 1998; “Federal Highway Administration PBCs at Fort Ord, CA,” 8 Sep 1998; “Health and Human Services (HHS) PBCs at Fort Ord, CA,” 8 Sep 1998; E-mail, Jay Verett to Jay Price, Fort Ord BRAC and Environmental,” 8 Dec 1998; Economic Development Conveyance, Title XXIV, National Defense Act. See also Nakayama Interview; Clack Interview; “Changes at Military Bases: A Community Planning Challenge,” (BRAC Binder, Misc.); “90% of Ord may stay in public hands,” Monterey County Herald (7 Jan 1994).
15 Mettee-McCutcheon Interview; Clack Interview; “BRAC background.”
task included negotiating the size of the transfers and their terms, resolving issues of utilities and public access, and handling the paperwork and administration involved. The second task was to prepare the parcels for transfer, especially in terms of environmental restoration and remediation. Before a property could go to new owners, it had to meet a bewildering array of state and federal environmental quality standards. The Army first had to survey the property and assess it for contamination from lead, ordnance and explosives, underground storage tanks, chemicals, and a number of other materials. Then, if these materials were found, it was the Army’s job to clean up the contamination. Only after the contamination was removed and the Army signed a document called the Finding of Suitability to Transfer (FOST) could the property be transferred. Even then, this happened only after appropriate safeguards to wildlife, plants, and groundwater were in force. Third, the Army had to be stewards of the properties until they were transferred. These responsibilities included providing security for the buildings and preventing the facilities from becoming safety hazards.16

On 17 September 1993 Deputy Secretary of Defense William Perry selected Fort Ord to be a demonstration project for base closure reuse. In the years that followed, the BRAC offices at Fort Ord and DLIFLC worked under constant scrutiny from Army leaders and politicians who were in charge of base closures at other installations. Many of the early Fort Ord land transfers set precedents for base closings nationwide.

In September 1991 Fort Ord established a BRAC team under DRM to oversee the BRAC process with Frank Johnston as the first chief. In April 1992 the BRAC function was transferred to the organization that became DPW. In June 1992 MAJ Philip May, USA, became BRAC Branch Chief. In October 1992 Fort Ord established the Directorate of Base Realignment and Closure with COL Richard A. Garlitz, USA, as Director. In July 1993 LTC Ronald Perry, USA, became the director. By 30 September 1994 the directorate consisted of 10 staff members, who handled such functions as operations, closure and environmental issues.

In March 1993 DLIFLC established its BRAC office. Sobichevsky appointed LTC Charles W. Miller, USA, as director. This BRAC directorate functioned under the Chief of Staff and contained a Base Realignment and Closure Division and a Facilities Management Division.

The larger Fort Ord BRAC office prepared the baseline documents related to the transfer of property, such as deeds, FOSTs, and memoranda of understanding. Tasks also included working with the Sacramento District Corps of Engineers on planning the disposal of Fort Ord property and monitoring that process. Fort Ord’s BRAC also monitored and coordinated utilities, environmental, reuse, and remediation issues. DLIFLC BRAC was more involved in overseeing the relocation of offices on Fort Ord to the POM or the POM Annex.

The fact that there were two offices involved caused friction in early 1994. When Miller left in May, Adrian Nakayama became acting DLIFLC BRAC director. In June, Perry left to take a command at Fort Leonard Wood, Missouri. In August 1994 LTC William Jones, USA, from TRADOC took control of both the Fort Ord and DLIFLC offices. Jones oversaw BRAC activities.

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at TRADOC prior to arriving at the POM and was a good match for the local BRAC effort. On 1 August 1994, the two offices were combined, with the DLIFLC & POM staff in charge. In October 1994, the directorate became a function of the Garrison Commander. The directorate consisted of three divisions: Personal Property, POM Annex and Real Property, and Real Estate and Infrastructure. 17

In November 1994 POM’s BRAC and the Army Corps of Engineers, Sacramento District, held the first quarterly Fort Ord BRAC In Progress Review (IPR). This meeting included members from BRAC and from Environmental and Natural Resources, officials from TRADOC, and representatives of other Army offices and directorates involved in Fort Ord reuse. The purpose was to coordinate these different efforts and receive TRADOC guidance on the matter. Quarterly meetings have been held ever since.

The Universities

The first and most publicized land transfer went to California’s universities. The closing of Fort Ord corresponded with the California State University (CSU) system’s search for a site for a new university in the Monterey region. Meanwhile, the University of California at Santa Cruz (UCSC) was also looking for a place to build a research center for science, technology, education, and policy known as the “STEP” center. Beginning in 1992, officials at UCSC conceived of a research center that would combine the Monterey Bay’s environmental resources with Silicon Valley’s technology to become a major research center. A 1992 Fort Ord Community Task Force strategic report recommended that at least part of Fort Ord be used as an education, science, and technology center. Even the contentious FORG agreed that the installation should be the home of a 25,000-student CSU campus and a research and technology center for UCSC. Discussions about the location of a CSU campus centered around a section of buildings by North-South Road between First and Third Streets. When UCSC officials studied the possibility of acquiring land at the former Fort Ord, they found that a set of parcels along Reservation Road and adjacent to the CSUMB land offered the best opportunities. The land contained the former flight simulator building of Fritzsche Field and hundreds of acres of chaparral that served as home for a several types of rare plants and animals. 18
Negotiations about what should be turned over to the universities proceeded in earnest during 1994. In March, the Defense Department approved $15 million to convert some Fort Ord barracks into classroom and office space for the CSU system. The original transfer date was set to be in April but was moved back because Army and Congressional leaders spent several weeks working out the recently created rules that permitted transfer by Economic Development Conveyance (EDC). Because UCSC intended to make a profit off of the businesses at the STEP center, it was ineligible for a PBC. Because transfer via EDC was limited to LRAs such as FORA, it took special state legislation, passed in May 1994, for both UCSC and the CSU system to be considered limited LRAs so that they could take advantage of an EDC for the property. Ultimately, land for UCSC was transferred through an EDC in which future profits from the endeavor would be split 60/40 with the Army for 15 years after development or until payments reached $12 million, whichever came first. Meanwhile, William Perry, now Secretary of Defense, was interested in a speedy transfer and moved his visit up to July, applying additional pressure to complete the university negotiations.\footnote{19}

On 8 July 1994 Perry attended a ceremony that was held on the main parade grounds of Fort Ord. Perry called the conversion of Fort Ord to civilian use a model project. This event marked the transfer of 630 acres of Fort Ord land, including 114 buildings and 1,253 housing units, to the CSU system to create the campus for California State University, Monterey Bay (CSUMB). That same day, 961 acres around Fritzsche Field went to UCSC for construction of the STEP center.\footnote{20}

The event was largely ceremonial. The deeds that CSUMB Interim Provost Steven Arvizu accepted from Assistant Secretary of the Army Michael Walker were not actually signed until 19 August 1994. The UCSC transfer became official on 31 August 1994, when the university’s board of regents accepted the deed. Even so, the event marked the end of one chapter in Fort Ord’s history and the beginning of an intense period of activity to get CSUMB ready.\footnote{21}

\textit{Chance, A Vision in Progress: The Decision to Establish a Public University at Monterey Bay} (California Higher Education Policy Center, June 1997).

\footnote{\textit{Chance, A Vision in Progress: The Decision to Establish a Public University at Monterey Bay} (California Higher Education Policy Center, June 1997).}

\footnote{California Senate Bill 900; Clack Interview.}


\footnote{Quitclaim Deed between Department of the Army and Trustees of the California State University, 19 Aug, 1994; Quitclaim Deed between the Department of the Army and the Regents of the University of California, 31 Aug 1994; “Finding of Suitability to Transfer, California State University Phase I,” 14 Jul 1994; “Finding of Suitability to Transfer, University of California Santa Cruz, Phase I,” 15 Jun 1994.}
In 1995 the university presence on the former Fort Ord continued to develop. President Bill Clinton attended the ceremony dedicating the new university on 4 September 1995. Meanwhile, UCSC did not plan to build new facilities itself on the Fort Ord land, but rather to encourage businesses and institutions to build facilities on the property. At the time of the transfer, UCSC had received a $750,000 grant from the U.S. Department of Commerce to begin developing the site. However, UCSC would not start actual work on the infrastructure on the facility, now known the MBEST (Monterey Bay Education, Science, and Technology) Center, until 1998.  

### LIST OF COMPLETED TRANSFERS as of December 1996

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<td>749.98</td>
<td>11 Aug 95</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>Bureau of Land Management</td>
<td>7,211.91</td>
<td>18 Oct 96</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

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Bureau of Land Management

While the new state university was the most visible transfer, the largest parcel of land actually went to the Bureau of Land Management (BLM). Early on in the BRAC process, Steve Addington of BLM and LTG James Moore, U.S. Army (Ret.), worked through Leon Panetta’s task force to ensure that the BLM would receive a large portion of Fort Ord’s lands. Negotiations over the terms of this transfer took place over the next several months. Early plans called for BLM to receive 15,500 acres, just over half of Fort Ord’s total land area. This figure was later slightly reduced to 14,852 acres. This property encompassed much of the undeveloped area to the east and south of the main garrison. BLM intended to keep this property as a nature preserve. This policy decision, however, was not simply the result of a concern for the local ecosystem. The Army had used this land for artillery practice for decades, resulting in an accumulation of unexploded ordnance (UXO). There were so many unexploded shells in the area, that the land was unsafe for any other use.

Because of the need to clean up certain areas of environmental contamination, the property could not be transferred as a whole. Instead, in November 1994 the Army authorized the transfer of $383,665 worth of land to the BLM with the understanding that the property would not be transferred until it had been cleaned up. In April 1995 the Assistant Secretary of the Army and the BLM agreed to a memorandum of understanding regarding the transfer of the first parcel. However, it was not until October 1996 that the Army formally transferred the first 7,212 acres to the BLM.23

Fritzsche Army Airfield

Another major transfer was that of Fritzsche Field to the City of Marina. Once the airfield for the installation, the property was very attractive to Marina as a major asset to the local community and a source of economic development. The parcel contained a 3,000 foot runway, five hangars, and an array of other buildings. To get Marina to agree to FORA as the LRA in 1994, Mello allowed the airfield to be exempt from certain FORA controls. As a result, the Army transferred the first parcel, 750 acres to Marina, under the authority of the Federal Aviation Administration (FAA) through public benefit conveyance on 11 August 1995.24

Schools

24 Quitclaim Deed for Surplus Airport Property, 11 Aug 1995; Memorandum of Agreement, 1 Aug 1995; “Finding of Suitability to Transfer, Fritzsche Army Airfield Parcel, Phase I.”
Prior to its closure, Fort Ord maintained five schools: Marshall, Hayes, Patton, Stilwell, and Fitch. Although on U.S. Army property, the schools operated as a part of the school system of Seaside and were administered through the Monterey Peninsula Unified School District. On 15 July 1995 the Army officially transferred the school property and real estate, 113 acres, to the district in the form of a public benefit conveyance, through the U.S. Department of Education. In the process, the school district received a future school site parcel between the UCSC and CSUMB locations. The district also received two buildings including the Fort Ord officers club and 29 acres of land, all of which was transferred on 2 February 1996.25

Silas B. Hays Hospital
The Army’s decision to close Fort Ord’s Silas B. Hays Army Community Hospital in 1994 was controversial. It meant that military personnel and retired veterans who had relied on the facility no longer had a military hospital nearby. Instead they had to go the closest military hospital at Travis Air Force Base or sign up for a special health plan called Civilian Health and Medical Program for the Uniformed Services (CHAMPUS). CHAMPUS, which went into effect on 1 February 1994, enabled military personnel and their families to use local civilian health care providers. The closing of the hospital was one of the main reasons why the Veterans Administration eventually acquired a facility on the former Fort Ord.

The hospital was reduced in status to a large clinic on 31 March 1994 and closed entirely on 1 July. When the POM Annex was set up, the former hospital building was not included in the footprint because at the time it was not needed to support the mission of DLIFLC & POM. The building became a stand-alone operation that remained on the POM property books. Early in 1994, DLIFLC & POM agreed to allow the Defense Finance and Accounting Service (DFAS) use of the building as a regional finance center. Under the agreement, DLIFLC & POM owned the property but DFAS was responsible for maintaining the building and for determining the space allocation inside. DFAS took over the operation of the building on 1 October 1994. One of four regional DFAS centers in California, the facility on the former Fort Ord brought 750 new jobs to the area.26


County Herald, 12 Nov 1993; “Army sticks to closing date for Ord Hospital,” Monterey County Herald, 2 Nov 1993.
Leases and Interim Access

Because the process of cleaning up the environmental problems on certain parcels was so time consuming, the Army decided to lease some properties or grant interim access to certain groups on the former Fort Ord so that the property retained some use to the community while waiting for transfer. Leases included the fire station at Fritzche Army Airfield (to the City of Marina) and some Fort Ord lands (to the California Army National Guard). BRAC granted interim access to such organizations as the FBI, the Monterey County Parks Department, the City of Marina, the Marina Equestrian Association, and the Veterans Administration. Unlike a lease, which was usually in place for extended periods of time, grants of access were for short durations, usually not more than a few days.27

Parcels Awaiting Transfer

In addition to these major land transfers, the BRAC office and the rest of DLIFLC & POM’s staff worked on a variety of other issues related to the closing of Fort Ord. One involved the transfer of Fort Ord’s utilities. Previously, the Army owned the Fort Ord electricity and gas systems. The fact that the different utilities were not separately metered was only one of several major issues to be overcome. By 1994 all of the utility systems were aging as well. With the closing of the installation, the question of who would take over that system became a pressing issue. Pacific Gas and Electric (PG&E) was especially interested in acquiring the Fort Ord utilities. The negotiations began in the spring of 1994 lasted for years. They centered around the complex and unprecedented transfer of a government-owned utility system to a utility provider, with the easement issue a particular concern. Among the contentious issues in the negotiations were the transfer of a substation and easements, as well as the selling price. Ultimately, the two sides came to an agreement and sold the Fort Ord gas and electric system to PG&E in March 1997.

A related but separate issue involved the transfer of the Fort Ord’s government-owned telephone system to Pacific Bell. Pacific Bell already owned portions of the system in the housing areas. However, without a utility provider to take over the rest, much of the former Fort Ord would be without telephone service. Negotiations concerning this issue also began in spring 1994. In 1994 FORA intervened in the process. By early 1995, however, conflicts over who would have easements for the lines changed how the Army proceeded with the transfer of the

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system. The Army decided to offer the system up for competitive sale, but no buyers could be found. Instead, the Army allowed organizations acquiring property to also take control of the sections of the telephone system on their respective parcels through addenda to the transfer deeds.28

Another big project involved 990 acres of seacoast scheduled to go to the California Department of Parks and Recreation. This parcel included 4.5 miles of beach as well as dunes and sites for potential restored wetlands. State Parks had been interested in the property since 1992, when it asked the National Park Service to sponsor a PBC for the site. In February 1994, the conveyance application was approved and in anticipation of the transfer, California’s Park and Recreation Commission named the site the Fort Ord Dunes State Park. However, actual transfer of the property could not take place until contamination on the dunes had been cleaned. These dunes were the site of Fort Ord’s firing ranges and were filled with tons of spent ammunition. The cleanup continued for years. Related to that issue was the fate of Stilwell Hall, the original Fort Ord Soldiers Club which needed extensive and expensive renovations as well as a plan for dealing with the coastal erosion that threatened the structure. This issue halted the transfer of the property because the state did not want to incur the cost of renovating the historic building.29

Other issues included transferring the Fort Ord golf courses, a topic that remained very public and contentious for years. In 1993 the City of Seaside expressed interest in acquiring Fort Ord’s Bayonet and Black Horse golf courses. The Army, however, wanted to retain the courses. By law, the morale, welfare, and recreation programs on every military base must be self-sustaining. The Directorate of Community Activities (DCA) wanted to retain control of its revenue-generating activities—especially the golf courses, their primary money-maker—to offset the cost of its other programs. Obligated to go along with the community’s desires but interested in keeping a popular and lucrative site, the Army negotiated the transfer the golf courses throughout 1994 and 1995. In 1995, Congress passed a bill authorizing the Army to sell the golf courses specifically to the City of Seaside and to allow the proceeds to go to the MWR program via the Government Accounting Office (GAO). However, negotiations over the sale continued for several more years.30


29 California State Parks, Fort Ord Dunes State Park, Preliminary General Plan, May 1996.

Environmental and Natural Resources
The main environmental aspect of the BRAC process was initially the work of the Fort Ord’s Environmental/Natural Resources Division, a branch of the Fort Ord Directorate of Public Works. On 1 October 1994 the division became a separate DLIFLC & POM directorate, the Directorate of Environmental and Natural Resources (DENR), responsible to the Garrison Commander. James M. Willison, who had worked on environmental issues at Fort Ord since 1984, remained the division’s director. DENR consisted of three divisions. Environmental Management oversaw such issues as air pollution and asbestos, underground tanks, water and wastewater, environmental restoration, explosives, ordnance, and wildlife. Cultural and Natural Resources Management took care of environmental documentation and monitored the condition of cultural and historic sites on the POM and the former Fort Ord. Solid and Hazardous Waste Management was responsible for waste management issues for both facilities. In addition, both BRAC and Environmental used the Sacramento District Corps of Engineers as the executing agency for contracts addressing the investigation, mapping, and cleanup of the former Fort Ord. The Corps of Engineers, in turn, contracted much of its work, particularly investigation work, to private companies, including CMS Environmental, International Technology (IT) Corporation, Dames and Moore, Uribe and Associates, and especially Harding Lawson Associates (HLA) Engineering and Environmental Services. IT Corporation was the Total Environmental Restoration Contractor and did the major construction work required for the cleanup.\textsuperscript{31}

**Figure 2. Fort Ord Site Map**

- CU-1 Former Fire Drill Area
- COU-2 Fort Ord Landfills
- 1* Ord Village Sewage Treatment Plant
- 2* Main Garrison Sewage Treatment Plan
- 3* Beach Firing Range
- 4* Beach Storm water Outfall
- 5* Range 35A (Explosive Ordnance Disposal)
- 6* Range 30 (Abandoned Car Dump)
- 7* Ranges 40 & 41 (Fire Demo Area)
- 8* Range 49 (Molotov Cocktail Range)
- 9* Range 30 (Flamed Fuel Exhibition)
- 10 Fire Drill Burn Pit
- 11* AAFES Fueling Station
- 12* DOL, Automotive Yard, Cannibalization Yard, Lower Meadow Area
- 13* Railroad Right-of-Way
- 14 707th Maintenance Facility
- 15 Directorate of Engineering and Housing (DEH) Yard
- 16 DOL Maintenance Yard, Fett’s Pond Area
- 17 140th Block Motorpool
- 18* 1660 Block Motorpool
- 19* 2200 Block Motorpool
- 20 South Parade Ground, 3800 Block Motorpool, 519th Motorpool
- 21 4400/4500 Blocks Motorpool (East)
- 22 4400/4500 Blocks Motorpool (West)
- 23 3700 Block Motorpool
- 24* Old DEH Yard
- 25* Former DRMO Site
- 26* Sewage Pump Station - Bldgs 5872/5143
- 27* Army Reserve Motorpool
- 28* Barracks and Main Garrison Area
- 29* DRMO
- 30 Driver Training Area
- 31 Former Dump Site
- 32* East Garrison Sewage Treatment Plant
- 33* Golf Course
- 34 Fritzche AAF Fueling Facility
- 35* Aircraft Cannibalization Yard
- 36* Fritzche AAF Sewage Treatment Facility
- 37* Trailer park Maintenance Shop
- 38* AAFES Dry Cleaners
- 39 Inland Ranges Impact Area
- 40 Fritzche AAF Defueling Area
- 41 Crescent Bluff Burn Pits

* Preliminary Identified No Action Sites appear in bold

**Source:** Superfund Proposed Plan

30 Aug 94
Handling the environmental issues related to the closing of Fort Ord consumed the vast majority of the office’s time and resources. The environmental work on Fort Ord was a key part of the BRAC process, although it was technically a separate function. This work essentially consisted of two elements: the Superfund program and those sites not part of the Superfund program. DENR conducted the Superfund program in compliance with the standards of the Comprehensive Environmental Response, Compensation, and Liability Act (CERCLA). In 1990 the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA), which implemented the act, assigned Fort Ord a hazard ranking score (HRS) of approximately 42. A score exceeding 28.5 earns an installation a place on the National Priorities List (NPL), making it a so-called Superfund site because it becomes eligible for certain federal funds for cleanup. The main factor in Fort Ord’s selection for the NPL was lead contamination from ordnance and contamination of the soil and groundwater stemming from the installation’s landfill.

This rating was misleading. Fort Ord Superfund project manager Gail Youngblood maintained that, with the exception of the impact areas and the firing ranges, the contamination of the post was comparable with that of any city of similar size. Moreover, the contamination was confined to 43 identified areas, not the entire facility. Nonetheless, Fort Ord’s designation as a Superfund site threatened to upset the BRAC process and made the disposal of property all but impossible. In response to a bill proposed by then-Congressman Leon Panetta, in October 1992 Congress passed an amendment to the CERCLA, the Community Environmental Response Facilitation Act (CERFA). CERFA amended CERCLA section 120 to allow federal agencies to transfer properties that they (with EPA approval in the case of “Superfund” sites) determined to be clean. Essentially, CERFA gave government entities such as the Army more leeway in disposing of BRAC properties. CERFA made it possible for the Army to distinguish between the Superfund

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32 This 1986 act authorized the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) to investigate and oversee the cleanup of sites that contain hazardous materials. It also provided a fund of money in that effort. In response to that act, the EPA produced a list of hazardous substances and developed a ranking system to determine how seriously a site has been contaminated by them. Sites that exceeded certain levels became eligible for special federal cleanup money and were referred to as “Superfund” sites. See 42 U.S.C. §§ 9601 to 9675, especially § 9620 (120); Fort Ord Environmental Cleanup Project Update, 9 Jul 1996; Major Walter S. King, AFCEE/JA, “Environmental Cleanup,” May 1997; Implementation Plan For the Closure of Fort Ord, California; U.S. Environmental Protection Agency Region 9 and the State of California and the United States Army, Federal Facility Agreement Under CERCLA Section 120, Administrative Docket Number 90-14, Jun 1990.
FORT ORD SUPERFUND PROCESS

BASEWIDE STUDIES

GU-1

TIME CRITICAL REMOVAL SITES
Chemical (2)
UAG (1)

GU-2

NO ACTION SITES (16)

GU-1 PROPOSED PLAN November 18, 1994

GU-2 PROPOSED PLAN October 12, 1993

GU-1 ROD August, 1994

APPROVAL

NO ACTION ROD February, 1995

INTERIM ACTION ROD February, 1995

INTERIM ACTION

CONFIRMATION REPORT

YES

REMOVAL ACTION

CONFIRMATION REPORT APPROVED

YES

FINAL RIE REPORT December 1993

PROPOSED PLAN

ADDITIONAL WORK REQUIRED

BASEWIDE ROD

Note: See Table 1 for a list of Interim Action, No Action, and Remedial Investigation Sites.
sites on Fort Ord and the rest of the installation in terms of meeting the environmental requirements for transfer.\textsuperscript{33}

The Army conducted a Remedial Investigation/Feasibility Study (RI/FS) of the sites to determine the extent of the contamination and evaluate cleanup solutions. This, too, was mandated as part of the CERCLA. At Fort Ord, this process centered around sites that would require complicated and time consuming cleanup and where long-term reuse might expose the public to certain chemicals or substances. An initial draft of the plan appeared late in 1994, one year ahead of schedule. It grouped sites into different categories, based on the extent of contamination and the effort needed to clean it. There were sites that required no action, interim actions sites that required relatively minor cleanup, and Remedial Investigation (RI) sites, where contamination was sufficient to require extensive cleanup and a number of additional assessments and studies. This plan addressed the 43 NPL sites, two “operable unit” (OU) sites (Fritzsche Field and the landfills), and five designated RI/FS sites, as well as a number of others.

However, even before a draft was released, the plan quickly came under fire by the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, the California Environmental Protection Agency, and environmental groups because it did not contain a provision for unexploded ordnance (UXO). Army’s position was that UXO was a serious safety issue and would be cleaned up, but was not an environmental issue that required remediation under CERCLA.\textsuperscript{34}

Property that did not require action under Superfund guidelines had to meet a different set of standards. Under the CERFA provisions, the Army leadership at Fort Ord could transfer property for which the Army could demonstrate that the parcels had no history of storage or disposal of hazardous substances or petroleum products. To demonstrate that property met this standard, Arthur D. Little, Inc., a contractor working for the Army Environmental Center in coordination with the installation, surveyed properties for environmental and health risks such as hazardous substance storage, underground storage tanks, UXO, lead-based paint, and asbestos. If these substances were located, the Army then had to remedy the situation before it could dispose of the property to other owners. Only after a parcel received a Finding of Suitability to Transfer (FOST) or Finding of Suitability to Lease (FOSL) could the BRAC process continue and the


property be transferred or leased out. As with many other environmental issues, FORSCOM and later TRADOC contracted out the surveys and cleanups through the Army Corps of Engineers, Sacramento Office. As of September 1993 the Army had spent $28.11 million on the cleanup of Fort Ord and expected to spend an additional $189 million through fiscal 1997.35

**Ordnance**

One of the largest of these issues that DENR faced involved ordnance. Army training activities through the years had left thousands of pieces of ordnance at the site, some unexploded. Most contained large amounts of lead and other hazardous materials. From the outset, concern over unexploded shells had an impact on the transfer of land and property. It was the reason why so many acres remained “natural areas” under the Bureau of Land Management. Ordnance and explosives shaped the RI/FS process and were an especially significant issue for the transfer of thousands of acres along the coast, places that had been firing ranges and target areas for decades. In 1993 and 1994, the Army Corps of Engineers, Huntsville Division, conducted two studies on ordnance at Fort Ord. There was an original report created in 1993 and a 1994 supplement that identified 25 additional sites. Together, these plans identified 55 sites. In May 1994 members of the U.S. House Natural Resources Committee met in Seaside to discuss the issue of remaining ordnance in closed military bases. The hearing found that the ordnance issue facing the BRAC process at Fort Ord plagued the closing of hundreds of installations nationwide.

Under the guidance of the Army Corps of Engineers, Huntsville Division, Fort Ord ordnance project staff performed a thorough archive search to identify now-forgotten former training areas that had subsequently been put to other uses. The process began at Fort Ord in November 1993. For example, along the coast, crews from the Army Corps of Engineers covered an 8,000-acre impact area, sweeping the ground with sensitive metal detectors. Further inland, the thick, tangled vegetation made locating UXOs a challenge. To find the ordnance, the vegetation had to be burned off, resulting in another environmental issue: air pollution. Fort Ord’s Habitat Management Plan restricted burning to 800 acres a year, so cleanup proceeded slowly. The first phase of the burn program began in July 1994. Even this limited burning, however, provoked strong public outcry. The Army faced a public who demanded a thorough cleanup of spent and

unexploded ordnance but who also opposed the burning of vegetation necessary to accomplish that task.  

*Water and Groundwater*

Water was a critical issue in the discussion of the reuse of the former Fort Ord. Reuse depended in large part on how much water various projects would need. North Monterey County was a place where development could easily outpace water resources.

Fort Ord lies on top of two groundwater basins, the Salinas, located under the main garrison, and the Seaside, under the installation’s open training ranges to the south. In 1994 the Army conducted an investigation and found eleven hazardous chemicals in the groundwater of the shallowest of the four aquifers that comprise the Salinas Basin, which supplied water to Fort Ord and Marina. The installation’s landfill was the source of the material. In 1995 the Army spent over $6 million to construct a treatment system to clean the groundwater. Water was pumped up from wells, filtered through a process using charcoal and ultraviolet light, and then pumped back into the ground, forming a cycle. Estimates on how long it would take to completely filter the water ranged from ten to thirty years. Because removing the contents of the landfill would not be cost-effective, the landfill would eventually be capped to prevent water from entering and leaching more chemicals into the water. Construction of the landfill cap began in July 1995 and treatment of the contaminated water began in October 1995.

Provisions to protect Monterey Bay, which had recently been made part of a national marine sanctuary, also had to be considered. In October 1994 Harding Lawson Associates completed a draft report for the Corps of Engineers regarding Army activities on Monterey Bay itself. The report looked at such issues as ordnance and wastewater contamination of the bay. It

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concluded that most contamination was either slight enough to pose no serious hazards or, in the case of ordnance, so difficult to remove as to make remediation impossible.\textsuperscript{38}

**Habitat Management**

Another major environmental issue involved habitat management. By preventing commercial, agricultural, or residential development on Fort Ord, the Army had helped preserve some rare coastal habitat. According to a biological survey conducted in December 1992, Fort Ord was home to 23 special-status species of animals and 22 special-status species of plants. Bound by the Endangered Species Act and further encouraged by Secretary of Defense William Perry, DENR worked with the Fish and Wildlife Service to create a plan to deal with habitat management. As with FORA, DoD’s Office of Economic Adjustment funded this program. In February 1994 the Army signed the Fort Ord Habitat Management Plan to address habitat issues that the Army and future civilian owners of Fort Ord land would have to deal with in order to comply with environmental laws and principles. In the years that followed, the plan was revised and adapted.\textsuperscript{39}

**Public Relations**

During 1994 and 1995, the Army (FORSCOM, TRADOC, and the Corps of Engineers) worked with the EPA to make sure that it was complying with all the appropriate environmental regulations. Even with this cooperation, however, the EPA fined the Army for environmental infractions. Money to pay these fines came out of the installation’s command operating budget except for those violations caused by tenant activities. In those cases, the tenants had to pay the fines.\textsuperscript{40}

Few places had more active environmental watchdog groups than California’s central coast. Some opposed growth and development in the region and used the environmental part of the BRAC process to stop the development at Fort Ord. Others were skeptical that the Army was fully cooperating with the environmental cleanup of the installation. For example, in December 1994, one of these groups, the Tides Foundation, sued the EPA for not cracking down on what it perceived to be environmental violations on the part of the Army and for not providing clear


\textsuperscript{40} E-mail, James Willison to all DLIFLC Activities and Tenants, Hazardous Waste Management Compliance Inspection, 13 Jan 1995.
enough guidelines for the process. Meanwhile, other organizations such as Fort Ord Toxics Project, headed by Curt Gandy, maintained constant watch over the cleanup process.\footnote{“EPA sued over toxics at Ord,” \textit{Monterey County Herald}, 5 Jan 1995; E-mail, Gail Youngblood to Steven Solomon, Restoration Advisory Board, 20 Jan 1998; Mettee-McCutchon Interview; LaRue Interview; Clack Interview.}

Therefore, a key part of the BRAC process involved relations with the community. At first this dialogue took place through a body called the Fort Ord Technical Review Committee. In 1993 the Department of Defense issued guidance regarding cleanup at closed installations and recommended the formation of a Restoration Advisory Board (RAB) at each site. The Fort Ord RAB consisted of twenty-four members, including representatives from several local community organizations, the Army, the EPA, and the California Environmental Protection Agency. It first met in May 1994. Its purpose was to provide a forum for discussion of environmental issues related to Fort Ord. The RAB was to advise the Commander of DLIFLC & POM on clean up issues. It included committees on procedures, the Environmental Baseline Survey/FOST process, RI/FS studies, and UXO issues. Unfortunately, this body quickly became more a source of debate and contention than a place to work out differences. Local environmental organizations criticized Army cleanup efforts, arguing that since those efforts were not satisfactory, that property could not be transferred and therefore could not be developed. Army representatives, meanwhile, were unaccustomed to such direct and sometimes personal attacks. They became wary of the environmental groups and reluctant to involve them when planning environmental strategies. What had been intended as a forum for discussion became a catalyst for mistrust.\footnote{A press release faxed to the Command History Office by Lyle Shurtleff on 21 January 1998 describes the RAB as follows: “The mission of the Fort Ord Restoration Advisory Board (RAB) is to provide a forum through which the local communities, the Army installation, and the regulatory agencies work together in an atmosphere that encourages discussion and exchange of information, and educates the public on the investigation and remediation of environmental contamination at Fort Ord. The RAB is to review, comment, and advise the Base Realignment and Closure Cleanup Team (BCT) on site-related documents, on the investigations, the proposed remediation, and the suitability of property for transfer.” See also By-Laws, Fort Ord Restoration Advisory Board Nov 1995, Amended Oct 1996; Minutes of the Restoration Advisory Board, 1994-95, Seaside Public Library; “Fort Ord Restoration Advisory Board Progress, \textit{Advance}, Fall 1994; ATZP-EP, Quarterly Historical Report 31 Jan 1995; Mettee-McCutchon Interview; Clack Interview.}

\textit{Historic and Cultural Preservation}

One aspect of the transfer process involved potentially historic or culturally significant properties as outlined by Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act. DENR had to prepare for the potential issues that would arise in the event that archaeological or Native American sites were uncovered in the process of cleaning up Fort Ord. In September 1993 Tri-Services Cultural Resources Research Center, sent a team of archaeologists to survey Fort Ord for historic-period archaeological sites and found four that were possibly eligible for the National Register of Historic Places. Archaeologists check for the presence of prehistoric sites as well. Moreover, a September 1993 report on historic and cultural properties identified several buildings
as eligible for nomination to the National Register, including Stilwell Hall, Martinez Hall, the Whitcher Cemetery, and the buildings of the East Garrison. In early 1994 the Army signed a programmatic agreement with the California State Historic Preservation Officer (SHPO) and the Advisory Council on Historic Preservation promising to uphold all pertinent historic and archaeological preservation legislation when dealing with Fort Ord. Because none of these properties was transferred during 1994 or 1995, the historic preservation aspect of the BRAC process during this time mainly impacted discussions and negotiations of property but did not become a major issue until later years.43

The closing of Fort Ord and the transfer of personnel to the Presidio also raised concerns over the uses and renovations of historic structures on the Presidio. Michael Kelly, who oversaw the management of cultural and natural resources on the Presidio, had to liaison between the SHPO, who was interested in maintaining the historical integrity of the place, and the staff at DLIFLC, who needed to use the installation and its facilities to perform their jobs. In 1994 and 1995, four projects on Presidio historic structures did not get the proper approval from DENR. One of these was the renovation of Lewis Hall for use by DCA, which included painting some the walls of the structure bright blue, a color out of keeping with the historic nature of the structure and its location in the Presidio’s historic district. These breakdowns in communication resulted in a number of possible violations of the National Historic Preservation Act and the POM Programmatic Agreement. Repeated violations would have caused the cancellation of the agreement and would have forced the POM to consult with the SHPO on all work involving historic structures. A meeting held in early 1995 attempted to remedy the situation.44

Other Issues

DENR also handled environmental issues on the Presidio of Monterey that were totally separate from the BRAC process. One of the largest was the landfill on the Presidio. Located in the hills of the installation’s interior, the landfill dated from the early twentieth century and was filled with the debris of the 11th Cavalry and 76th Field Artillery. Erosion had deteriorated the site, 43 BRAC was involved in the survey and subsequent removal of several WPA paintings and murals in Stilwell Hall. See ATZP-GC, “Garrison Staff Meeting,” 16 May 1995. For a more general discussion of historic preservation issues related to Fort Ord, see U.S. Army Construction Engineering Research Laboratory, Historical and Architectural Documentation Reports for Fort Ord, California, conducted for the Office of Directorate of Environmental Programs Conservation Division, Sep 1993; “Standard Preservation Covenant For Buildings and Structures” in Fort Ord Closure Report; Programmatic Agreement Among the Department of the Army, the Advisory Council on Historic Preservation, and the California State Historic Preservation Officer Regarding Base Closure and Realignment Actions At Fort Ord, California, 1994; John Isaacson, Ph.D., Prehistoric Archaeological Survey of Fort Ord, Monterey County, California, n.d.; Lucy A. Whalley, Ph.D., Consultation with Native Americans Groups Concerning Properties of Cultural Significance at Fort Ord, n.d. See also National Register of Historic Places Inventory nomination forms for Stilwell Hall, East Garrison Mess Hall Complex, Whitcher Cemetery, and Martinez Hall, nominations not completed. 44 Joseph H. Plunkett to Cherilyn Widell, SHPO, 28 Sep 1994; Memorandum for Director, Directorate of Public Works, Director, Directorate of Base Realignment and Closure, Director, Directorate of Community Activities, regarding National Historic Preservation Act Compliance, 1995; Widell to Mettee-McCutcheon, 24 Jan 1995.
however, and its contents were slowly being exposed and washed down the hillside into New Monterey and the groundwater. In response, DENR oversaw the placement of a clay cap over the site to prevent more deterioration. Construction began in early 1995 and cost $2 million.45

Epilogue

By the end of December 1995, DLIFLC & POM was a very different installation than it had been in January 1994. No longer a tenant of Fort Ord, DLIFLC continued its mission of language instruction with the support of a garrison and a variety of directorates, branches, and offices. COL Sobiechevsky’s command included the Presidio of Monterey, the Presidio of Monterey Annex, and the former Silas B. Hays Hospital. Sobiechevsky’s garrison commander, COL Mettee-McCutcheon, administered the garrison and was a key player in the BRAC process.

The transfer of Fort Ord’s lands to new owners through the BRAC process was more complicated and took much longer than anyone had imagined. The environmental remediation necessary for transfer involved several major issues, including ordnance and groundwater contamination. This cleanup would take decades to complete. Moreover, planning for the reuse of the installation was contentious as advocates for development clashed with those who opposed growth.

However, when the different parties involved came to an agreement, and when environmental concerns had been addressed, transfer happened quickly. The results could be seen throughout the former base. Although Fort Ord was closed, in its place was an active community of military personnel at the POM Annex. A new university, CSUMB, had opened, and UCSC had the land necessary to construct a research facility. Meanwhile, the former hospital building was home to a DFAS regional center. The City of Marina gained the former Fritzsche Army Airfield as a municipal airport. To the south, cleanup continued on thousands of acres promised to the BLM.

At the ceremony marking the opening of CSUMB, President Clinton summarized the ideals behind the process:

I am proud of the contribution that your National Government could make. I think we owed it to you, with the economic development grants, the environmental cleanup, the help for the displaced workers… You contributed to our victory in the cold war. Your Nation could not leave you out in the cold. It was the right thing to do. But you made it possible by all the things that you did here.46

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<td>Accreditation Commission for Community and Junior Colleges</td>
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<td>American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages</td>
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<td>PBAC</td>
<td>Program Budget Advisory Committee</td>
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<td>PBC</td>
<td>Public Benefit Conveyance</td>
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<td>PBD</td>
<td>Program Budget Decision</td>
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<td>PCO</td>
<td>Production Coordination Office</td>
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<td>PDASD</td>
<td>Principal Deputy Assistant Secretary of Defense</td>
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<td>PEP</td>
<td>Proficiency Evaluation Project, Proficiency Enhancement Program</td>
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<td>PFS</td>
<td>Primary Functional Sponsor</td>
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<td>PG&amp;E</td>
<td>Pacific Gas and Electric</td>
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<td>PIC</td>
<td>Proficiency Improvement Course</td>
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<td>PM</td>
<td>Program Management Division</td>
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<td>Plans and Operations</td>
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<td>POI</td>
<td>Program of Instruction</td>
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<td>Presidio of Monterey</td>
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<td>POMA</td>
<td>Presidio of Monterey Annex</td>
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<td>Programs and Proponenty</td>
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<tr>
<td>PPP</td>
<td>Priority Placement Program</td>
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PRO Protocol Office
QRA Quarterly Review and Analysis
RAC Resource Advisory Committee
RASC Resource Advisory Subcommittee
RI/FS Remedial Investigation/Feasibility Study
RIF Reduction In Force
ROD Record of Decision
RSOC Regional SIGINT Operations Center
SAF Safety Office
SAV Staff Assistance Visit
SCOLA Satellite Communications for Learning
SDT Skill Development Testing
SEC Security Office
SFOR Stabilization Force
SIGINT Signals Intelligence
SJA Staff Judge Advocate
SMDR Structure Manning Decision Review
SME Subject Matter Expert
SOF Special Operations Forces
SORTS Status of Resources and Training Systems
SPT Speaking Proficiency Test
SWL European and Latin American School
SysOp Systems Operator
T2 Technology Transfer Program
TAPES Total Army Performance Evaluation System
TCOE TRADOC Communities of Excellence
TDY Temporary Duty
TF Task Force
311th TRS 311th Training Squadron [Air Force]
TI Technology Integration
TIARA Tactical Intelligence and Related Activities
TIS Translation and Interpretation Service
TM Training Management Branch
TPC Troop Command
TQM Total Quality Management
TRADOC [United States Army] Training and Doctrine Command
TRALINET TRADOC Library Network
TRAMOD Training Module
TRAP Training Requirements Arbitration Panel
TT Technology Training Branch
229th MI BN 229th Military Intelligence Battalion
UC University of California
UCSC University of California, Santa Cruz
ULTP Unified Language Testing Plan
UMN University of Minnesota
USA United States Army
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
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<tr>
<td>USAF</td>
<td>United States Air Force</td>
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<tr>
<td>USAINTS</td>
<td>United States Army Intelligence School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USAJFKSWCS</td>
<td>United States Army John F. Kennedy Special Warfare Center and School</td>
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<tr>
<td>USAREUR</td>
<td>United States Army Europe</td>
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<tr>
<td>USCG</td>
<td>United States Coast Guard</td>
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<tr>
<td>USDAS</td>
<td>United States Defense Attaché System</td>
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<td>USMC</td>
<td>United States Marine Corps</td>
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<tr>
<td>USN</td>
<td>United States Navy</td>
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<tr>
<td>UXO</td>
<td>Unexploded Ordnance</td>
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<td>VERA</td>
<td>Voluntary Early Retirement Authority</td>
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<td>VSIP</td>
<td>Voluntary Separation Incentive Pay</td>
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<td>VTT</td>
<td>Video Teletraining</td>
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<td>WASC</td>
<td>Western Association of Schools and Colleges</td>
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<td>WELA</td>
<td>West European and Latin American School</td>
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<td>WLO</td>
<td>Worldwide Language Olympics</td>
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<td>XO</td>
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†No graduates until FY 1995.

‡No graduates in FY 1995.

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1 Compiled from the *Annual Program Review, 1 Jan 1995*; and the *DLIFLC Program Summary FY 95, Dec 1995.*
Appendix II

Key Staff

Commandant/Commander

COL Ila Mettee-McCutcheon, USA  December 1995 - February 1996
COL Vladimir I Sobichevsky, USA  January 1993 - December 1995

Assistant Commandant


Garrison Commander

COL Ila Mettee-McCutcheon, USA  October 1994 - October 1996

Chief of Staff


Provost

Dr. Ray T. Clifford  June 1981 -

Associate Provost/Dean of Students


Associate Provost/Dean of Curriculum and Instruction

Dr. Martha Herzog  January 1991 - September 1998

Dean, Evaluation and Standardization

Dr. John L.D. Clark  June 1986 - December 1996

Command Sergeant Major

Bugary, CSM Thomas J.  September 1993 - April 1996

Commander, Army Troop Command

LTC Jack Dees, USA  June 1994 - July 1996
LTC James W. Berry, USA  June 1992 – June 1994
Commander, 311th Training Squadron


Officer in Charge, Naval Security Group Detachment

CDR Gus Lott, USN November 1994 - January 1997
LCDR James W. Blow, USN December 1993 - November 1994

Officer in Charge, Marine Corps Detachment


Director, DLI-Washington

MAJ Arne Curtis, USA July 1995 -
LTC John R. Martin, USA January 1995 - July 1995
MAJ Arlene K. Underwood, USA January 1993 - January 1999
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