Dialog on Language Instruction

Editor
Jiaying Howard

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Here at the Defense Language Institute, we rarely state the entire name of the E&L, the basic instrument of the Diagnostic Assessment and the core of diagnostically oriented teaching. It has become known worldwide, where it is in widespread use by universities, private educational organizations, and U.S. government agencies, simply by the initials E & L. In fact, most users of the instrument are unlikely aware that the E and the L actually stand for something (or, perhaps, they wonder, then, not being able to guess, stop wondering and just use the initials.) There may be instructors at DLI, as well, who are unaware that the E stands for Ehrman and the L for Leaver.

The story behind the making of the E&L is known, for the most part, only to its authors. It dates from the early 1990s, but the validation of the E&L took much on-and-off work, culminating in copyrighting of the instrument only in 2002. On the first anniversary of Dr. Madeline Ehrman’s death, it seems appropriate to finally share that history.

That history began in the year 1990, when Dr. Rebecca Oxford released her questionnaire, the Style Orientation Scale (SOS) (Oxford, 1990), long in use at the DLI and elsewhere. The SOS tested some of the same categories as the E&L later proposed, as among which were global and analytic tendencies. The SOS, like similar instruments (Messick & Associates, 1976), treated global tendencies as the antithesis of analytic tendencies.

Ehrman and Leaver, however, found a disconnect. They had both observed global and analytic tendencies in several of the teachers and students with whom they had interacted in the United States and elsewhere. Additionally, they had experienced the co-existence of the global and analytic styles in themselves. In the case of Dr. Ehrman, she had perceived the co-
existence of these supposedly opposing styles in herself, and in the case of Leaver, she had perceived them in one of her sons.

This apparent contradiction in the concept of styles as either a continuum (more typical presentation) or as a bipolar phenomenon prompted Ehrman and Leaver to analyze the discrete components of globality and analysis. In so doing, they discovered a complexity that confused the understanding of these two styles. Convinced that the polarities in a style continuum should be posited simply and unambiguously, they proposed that there were actually two continua hidden in the global-analytic dichotomy, and that global-analytic was not a dichotomy at all but a conflation of the two continua. There, they suggested, using what was then a popular learning style construct, left-brain orientation vs. right-brain orientation, that globality was the far right pole of one continuum and analysis the far left pole of a different continuum, as indicated in the following diagram.

```
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Global</th>
<th>X</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>X</td>
<td>Analytic</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
```

Or, if one were to consider these two learning styles somewhat more closely related, the diagram might be configured as

```
| Global | Analytic |
```

In this model, globality, and its opposite, yet to be defined, referred to the gestalt of a concept, idea, image, or construct and the manner and how the learner perceived it in the initial intake/comprehension phase of the learning process. Thus, a learner might perceive an idea in its entirety as a holistic concept or image, seeing the whole forest, so to speak, with the opposite approach, yet unidentified, a matter of perceiving a concept in an atomistic manner, seeing the individual trees, so to speak. The atomistic pole they ultimately labeled particular, meaning composed of particles, though neither was ever satisfied with that label of the wide variety of meaning of the word. That is to say, the global learner sees the world as a unified whole, but the particular learner sees it as a fragmentary one.

Similarly, analysis and its opposite, yet to be defined, referred to the composite pieces of a concept, idea, image, or construct and how the learner manipulated them in the productive phase of the learning process. Thus, an analytic learner breaks down an idea into its composite parts. Along this continuum, the differences have nothing to do with what one sees (forest or trees) but rather with what one does to create deeper connections, better understandings, and the mastery of new ideas; i.e. the kind of practice and rehearsal needed in order to remember and to create, the former being easier for the analytic learner, and the latter easier for what Ehrman and Leaver
ultimately labeled the synthetic learner. The synthetic learner does not disassemble the whole, but assembles pieces into a an entirely new whole, in accordance with the learning task at hand.

Thus, the ultimate diagrams that can be used to describe these two continua or four quadrants of a learning profile would look like the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Global</th>
<th>Particular</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Synthetic</td>
<td>Analytic</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

or

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Particular</th>
<th>Global</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Analytic</td>
<td>Synthetic</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In which all diagonal and top-bottom variants are found among students: particular-synthetic (diagonal); particular-analytic (top-bottom); global-analytic (diagonal); and global-synthetic (top-bottom), with the top-bottom combinations more frequently found than the diagonal.

Whereas analysis might seem to be more natural for a particular (atomistic) learner—and there is a certain level of correlation between the two styles, a global learner can also be a particular learner. In this case, a new concept would be understood/perceived initially as a whole but in order to master the concept, the actions taken would revolve around pulling the concept apart, or disassembling it. The global-analytic learner tends to be a sharpen and a metaphoric learner, a positive combination of learning styles for language students.

There is also a correlation between a synthetic learner and a global learner, but a synthetic learner can also be particular. The synthetic-global learner has obvious strengths outside of language learning, often tolerating the ambiguity that accompanies human speech, especially in the form of a new (to the learner) language and therefore able to handle authentic materials with some ease even from the first day proceeding at a swifter speed than counterparts. However, this advantage disappears as the need for attention to detail, particularly grammatical accuracy, appears, and the synthetic-global learner then plateaus. Traditional classrooms (characterized by inauthentic language, decontextualized vocabulary, and traditional forms of drills, multiple choice, fill-in, and other such unnatural activities that are quite comfortable for analytic-particular students, may handicap synthetic-global students, depriving them of the authentic environment in which they tend to flourish.

Given the intercorrelations and some shared core elements, Ehrman and Leaver suggested that rather than two unrelated dimensions, the particular-global and analytic-synthetic were intertwined, interrelated dimensions that, when taken together, identified specific inclinations in foreign language study.
To wit,

- Particular-analytic students, having limited strategies associated with the bigger picture of language as a communication of ideas, intents, and content, tend to focus on grammar and vocabulary as discrete items. This tendency, together with a strong memory, can propel them achieving high scores on tests delivered in traditional formats, e.g., single-word translation; reproduction of grammatical forms in isolation or in limited, inauthentic contexts; and simple, single-sentence translations. They tend to struggle with authentic texts, especially in gisting them or understanding the main idea and discourse style, producing integrated discourse of at least paragraph length, and using language as a tool for communication. They prefer that teachers limit instruction, practice, and tests at a level and in a format that is conducive to rote memorization. As a result, they generally move slowly until they reach, typically with much difficulty, a professional level of proficiency, at which their ability to focus on details helps them in discerning the essence of the structure of a communication.

- Global-synthetic students have the opposing strengths and weaknesses. They are fascinated by authentic texts and can usually, even in early stages of study, determine the gist (even gleefully making one up that may or may not approach accuracy of meaning). On the other hand, they struggle with accuracy, miss the details in grammar and lexica, and overgeneralize lexical formation and structural form. Traditional forms of practicing and testing (multiple choice, fill-ins, matching, single-sentence translation) focus on their weakness and neither excite them nor show what they are capable of doing with the language, which they perceive from the beginning as a form of communication. They fare much better with contextualized practice and alternative forms of assessment, such as portfolios, presentation, and papers. When given authentic materials and authentic tasks, they move rapidly forward, especially in immersion environments. Where they slow down is at the upper levels of proficiency where accuracy is needed; up until this point, they generally pay scant attention to accuracy, confident that they are getting their message across and that they are understanding correctly.

- Particular-synthetic students were rare in the experience of Ehrman and Leaver although a few did exist. These students, oddly, are able to build new concepts while failing to see the big picture. Generally, being able to see the big picture and build a new picture go together hand in glove, but not with these students, who exhibit some unique learning difficulties, requiring early intervention by the instructor.
Global-analytic students were also rare in the experience of Ehrman and Leaver but represented a subset of learners who early on exhibited metacognitive strategies and well-developed approaches to learner autonomy. They were able to access all four quadrants of the perception-production grid (above) and could glean global meaning and produce communicative utterances while still noticing the important details that allowed them to acquire vocabulary and grammar accurately and quickly. Although they did not particularly like traditional forms of testing, considering them annoying and meaningless, most global-analytic students were able to handle them well.

Having delineated the core elements of the perception-production grid and their interrelationship, Ehrman and Leaver, intrigued by these intersections, examined a broad swath of extant proposed learning styles and determined that most of the learning styles tested fell into continua that moved from highly ectenic to highly synoptic. The terms were proposed by Ehrman and Leaver to indicate a pole that caused learners to pull apart, delineate, disassemble, and otherwise extend a concept, idea, or even grammatical or lexical form consciously and atomistically. The other pole (synoptic) they posted as a more holistic and osmotic, or unconscious, form of learning, characterized by synopsizing whatever they were processing. The word, synopsis, existed in English with a meaning similar to that proposed by the learning style model of Ehrman and Leaver and was adopted for the name of the osmotic, holistic pole. There being no antonyms in English for the words, synopsis and synoptic, Ehrman and Leaver imported into English and adopted the antonyms that exist in Greek, the language from which synopsis and synoptic are derived: ectasis and ectenic. These words identify a pole that represents conscious learning through efforts to pull apart and extend the elements of the basic information learned.

Of the learning styles identified in the late 1990s, many fell neatly into the synoptic-ectenic overarching category. A precedent existed for grouping learning styles into two sets of essentially opposite groupings, the American Council of Teachers of Russia (ACTR) Learning Styles Assessment Tool (ALSAT) developed by Leaver and Leaver in 1993 and adopted by many Russian educational institutions, the Ministry of Education, and Ministry of Higher Education of Russia, and various American educational organizations, among them the American Council for International Education (Leaver, Ehrman, & Lekic, 2004).

Based on this earlier work and using descriptions of ten extant styles, Ehrman and Leaver posited that the majority (if not all) of style descriptions in use in 2000-2002, when the E&L scale was being finalized, would fall into continua paralleling the synoptic-ectenic continuum and proposed the following line-up, based on what would seem to be pure logic:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Synoptic Style</th>
<th>Ectenic Style</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Leveling</td>
<td>Sharpening</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impulsive</td>
<td>Reflective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analogue</td>
<td>Digital</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Global</td>
<td>Particular</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Synthetic</td>
<td>Analytic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inductive</td>
<td>Deductive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Field Sensitivity</td>
<td>Field Insensitive</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Field Dependence**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Random</th>
<th>Sequential</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Concrete</td>
<td>Abstract</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The continua were defined as follows:

1. **Leveling/Sharpening dimension**
   - Levelers find similarities among objects and ideas.
   - Sharpeners find differences among objects and ideas.

2. **Impulsive/Reflective dimension**
   - Impulsives respond immediately, often before thinking.
   - Reflectives respond later, after thinking.

3. **Analogue/Digital dimension**
   - Analogue learners are able to see the world metaphorically.
   - Digital learners see the world and process thought literally.

4. **Global/Particular dimension**
   - Global learners see the big picture, the “forest.”
   - Particular learners see the pieces, the “trees.”

5. **Synthetic/Analytic dimension**
   - Synthetic learners use the pieces of given information to build a new picture or thought.

6. **Inductive/Deductive dimension**
   - Inductive learners go from example to rule; they like to figure out things for themselves.
   - Deductive learners from rule to example; they like things explained.

7. **Field Sensitivity/Field Insensitive dimension**
   - Field sensitive learners can easily use context to determine meaning.
   - Field insensitive learners do not look to context to determine meaning.

8. **Field Dependence/Field Independence dimension**
   - Field dependent learners process background information together with salient/key information.
   - Field independent learners process key/salient information independent of context.

9. **Random/Sequential dimension**
Random learners want to organize new information in their own way. Sequential learners want their teachers and textbooks to organize new information for them.

Concrete/Abstract dimension

Concrete learners understand better when they apply concepts to real life. Abstract learners

Ehrman and Leaver placed the attributes, random-sequential and concrete-random, below the line because they expected to find weak correlations, which was the case. The remaining styles showed strong correlations, as expected, with one exception. In studies of more than 1,300 students at the Foreign Service Institute, the correlations of field dependence and field independence ran contrary to what Ehrman and Leaver posited. Indeed, field independence consistently correlated highly with synoptic traits and field dependence with ectenic ones, and so Ehrman and Leaver revised the proposed scale to reflect the results of the correlational studies, which yielded a final grouping of learning styles, as follows:

**Synoptic styles:** leveling, impulsive, analogue, global, synthetic, inductive, field sensitive, field independent, random, concrete

**Ectenic styles:** sharpening, reflective, digital, particular, analytic, deductive, field insensitive, field dependent, sequential, abstract

Following the research at the Foreign Service Institute, Leaver and Ehrman filed copyright for the scale with the Library of Congress and subsequently made the scale available for public use, with the only requirement/request being that anyone translating the scale into a foreign language for use in another country get permission first from the authors, who wanted to ensure that the translation was not a literal one but rather one that would produce a culture-appropriate instrument that could be validated. The Foreign Service Institute’s Division of Research, Evaluation, and Development began immediate training of faculty and students in the use of the E&L, which continues today.

Shortly thereafter and also continuing until this day, citations of the theory, constructs, and even the significance of some of the content began appearing in well-known journals and publications of prominent authors in the various fields associated with second language acquisition. These citations resulted from presentations made by Ehrman and Leaver throughout the late 1990s, as well as through the liberal sharing of the instrument with those seeking to validate it.

In time, its use spread to academic institutions beyond the USA and, then, in other countries, including Russia, China, Ukraine, Belarus, Georgia, Brazil, Turkey, Poland, and Japan. In many cases, it replaced the earlier
ALSAT and SOS, and a number of graduate dissertations have focused on validation and reliability studies of the E&L Construct for various kinds of learners—university, government, and K-12 students; and students in foreign countries. The Defense Language Institute adopted the E&L Construct as its primary learning styles instrument relatively late, around 2007 in the intermediate and advanced courses and three or four years later in the basic courses. The use of the E&L Construct at the DLI has been closely associated with the development of diagnostically oriented approaches to instruction.

There are indeed other instruments available for use, and some have been used at the DLI. However, the SOS and E&L Construct are the only ones developed specifically for use with foreign language students.

In conclusion, the E&L can help students and teachers determine the best way to go about studying and teaching for each student. It provides more specific information about individual cognitive processing than did previous learning style tools. One important aspect of the E&L Cognitive Style Instrument should be pointed out: the instrument looks at cognitive styles only (perception of information, acquisition of information, processing of information, and processing of information). Full diagnostically oriented instruction requires the use of other instruments that provide additional kinds of information, e.g. personality types, sensory preferences, and motivational questionnaires.

As this article is a tribute to Dr. Madeline Ehrman on the first anniversary of her death, I would like to point out that she was always eager to receive feedback on experiences with the E&L Cognitive Styles Instrument. She would certainly be happy to know that feedback has continued in the form of presentations and articles, some of those associated with the DLI. I would encourage all faculty to keep this dialogue open among themselves, now that Ehrman has passed the baton to the next generation. Articles published on this topic by DLI faculty and shared with me will certainly be included in future reference lists, as appropriate.
REFERENCES

Literature Cited


Representative References in the Literature to the E&L Cognitive Styles Instrument


Using Target Language Resources for High-level Speaking Tasks

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JOY BOLADO
MYLENE SICAT
Asian School I, Undergraduate Education

In this paper, the authors explore how content and linguistic knowledge gained through reading target language resources facilitate students’ speaking performance in the short term. Students’ speech samples on an abstract topic before and after conducting the resourcing activity were analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively—in terms of complexity, accuracy, and fluency (CAF). The results of the study revealed that the provision of target language resources prior to the speaking task enabled students to use linguistic and content information in the resource material, resulting in a more lexically diverse and content-relevant oral discourse. However, such enhanced linguistic and content knowledge gained from the target language resources did not improve the overall quality of speech in the short term. Based on the results, the authors provide pedagogical suggestions on ways to incorporate reading or listening resources to speaking lessons to effectively push students to a higher level of oral proficiency.

INTRODUCTION

Language schools in the Undergraduate Education (UGE) Division at the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) face the challenge of raising the graduation proficiency goal to Level 2+ for reading and listening on the Interagency Language Roundtable (ILR) scale, measured by the Defense Language Proficiency Test (DLPT), and Level 2 for speaking,
assessed by the Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI). To reach this goal, approaches proven effective in the Intermediate and Advanced language programs have been integrated into the basic school curricula. Examples include the Diagnostic Assessment (DA) and the Recall Protocol (RP), which have been implemented across language schools as formative assessment tools for monitoring students’ progress throughout the course. Additionally, Outside the Continental United States (OCONUS) immersion programs have been expanded to allow more students to learn and practice the target language in real-life settings. Moreover, faculty development on instructional topics has kept the teaching staff up to date with current approaches, enabling each to become a “Renaissance person adept in teaching, curriculum development, assessment, and professional development” (Leaver & Campbell, 2015, p. 18).

Accordingly, there has been a heightened awareness of teaching speaking to higher levels. Reaching higher levels in speaking is a difficult process that requires extra mental effort. While speaking, learners are cognitively challenged—they need to be in full control of the form and the meaning of the target language. They are pushed to stretch their existing target language repertoire to achieve communication goals (Swain, 1995). Along with the cognitive challenges inherent in mastering the speaking skills, factors such as time and contextual constraints pose additional challenges. For example, the duration of language programs at the DLIFLC ranges from 24 weeks (for Category 1 languages) to 64 weeks (for Category 4 languages). In this short time frame, students are expected to achieve a proficiency level of 2 in speaking with limited exposure to the target language outside the classroom.

Despite such cognitive, time, and contextual constraints, more than 80% of the students in the Tagalog Language Program have achieved a proficiency level of 2 in the Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI) since fiscal year 2011. This suggests that pushing students to the next higher level (level 2+) in speaking for Category 1-3 languages is not as unrealistic as initially thought, given the provision of appropriate instructional methods and strategies. This paper explores one instructional option in teaching speaking and its pedagogical implications in helping students reach higher oral proficiency levels.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Three Common Indicators of Speaking Performance: Complexity, Accuracy, Fluency (CAF)

What then are the factors that contribute to speaking performance? In the second (L2) and foreign language (FL) acquisition literature, researchers have identified complexity, accuracy, and fluency (CAF) as the three main indicators of the learner’s oral performance (Housen & Kuiken, 2009). Complexity refers to the extent to which the language produced in performing a task is elaborated and varied (Ellis, 2003, p. 340). It relates to the speaker’s ability to manage successfully the cognitive and linguistic complexities of the
assigned tasks—to process challenging speaking tasks using sophisticated structures and vocabulary (DeKeyser, 2008; Williams & Evans, 1998; Wolfe-Quintero, Inagaki, & Kim, 1998). Accuracy relates to the degree to which learners produce error-free speech—speak correctly. Accuracy is known to be a relatively consistent construct (Housen & Kuiken, 2009) and the topic of accuracy in speaking has been studied extensively in conjunction with studies on corrective feedback (e.g., DeKeyser, 1993; Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006; Lyster, 2001; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002) and defossilization (Johnson, 1992; Han, 2004; Trillo, 2002). Fluency refers to the ability to process the second language with “native like rapidity” (Lennon, 1990, p. 390)—speak naturally and effortlessly—without speech dysfluency markers (e.g., functionless repetitions, self-corrections, and false starts) (Wolfe-Quintero et al., 1998, p. 14). Whereas complexity and accuracy relate to the knowledge of a second/foreign language, fluency relates to control over the language as reflected in the speed and ease with which the learner accesses relevant L2 information to communicate meanings (Housen & Kuiken, 2009).

These three performance variables—complexity, accuracy, fluency—were also stated implicitly in the ILR speaking skill level descriptions in which level 2+ speakers were described as those who “show considerable ability to communicate effectively on topics relating to particular interests and special fields of competence (fluency and complexity)... in structural precision or vocabulary (accuracy)” (See www.govtflr.org). In sum, CAF is a “dynamic and interrelated set of constantly changing subsystems” (Housen & Kuiken, 2009, p. 468), and deficiency in one or more of the proficiency constructs above may affect the overall quality of speaking.

Complexity, accuracy, fluency have been the main dependent variables in measuring second/foreign language speaking performance (e.g., Ellis, 2008; Koizumi, 2005; Robinson, 2001; Skehan & Foster, 2012). Housen and Kuiken (2009), in their comprehensive review of the CAF research, indicated that characteristics of language tasks, learner type, and features of pedagogic intervention were the three main external factors contributing to manifestation and development of CAF. This study focuses on one external factor—pedagogic intervention—and its role in learner performance.

Content Schemata to Aid Speaking Performance

Along with CAF, content knowledge, otherwise known as content schemata (Carrell, 1983), also impacts speaking performance. The role of content schemata in second/foreign language learning has its origins in the studies of second/foreign language reading and listening comprehension (Chiang & Dunkel, 1992; Carrell & Eisterhold, 1983; Droop, Mienke, & Verhoeven, 1998; Long, 1989). Carrell & Eisterhold (1983) claimed that reading is an interactive process between the text and the reader’s prior knowledge during which prior knowledge plays a crucial role in understanding
the reading passages. Chiang & Dunkel (1992) studied the effect of topic familiarity and text modification on listening comprehension for two groups of Chinese students learning English (high intermediate vs. low intermediate). They discovered a significant correlation between the learners’ prior knowledge and comprehension/retention of information on passage-independent items, whereas no significant correlation was found on passage-dependent items.

Content schemata also help students fill the lexical gaps caused by content deficiency when they perform high-level speaking tasks. Researchers have explored various ways to incorporate target language texts into speaking lessons (Dornyei & Kormos, 1998; Kormos, 2006; Lam, 2006). Lam (2006) coined the term resourcing strategy, defined as the “strategic use of available resources in the form of suggested vocabulary provided in the task instructions” (p. 9). According to Lam, the main premise of the resourcing strategy is to have the learners comprehend, select, and utilize the suggested ideas or language structures in the resource materials to help them formulate and express ideas with relatively less effort (Lam, 2006).

The resource materials are particularly useful, when learners notice their holes—what they cannot do—at the very moment of attempting to produce the language, by providing relevant linguistic input (Swain, 1995) as well as content information. In summary, resourcing strategy can help students fill both the content and linguistic gaps, enabling them to solve the problems of what to say and how to say it (Kormos, 2006).

**Purpose of the Study**

In spite of the increasing need and importance of developing speaking proficiency for military students, speaking skills have not been emphasized as much as listening and reading skills in the classroom. With fewer hours for speaking lessons in the weekly teaching schedule, the planned speaking activities tend to be scheduled last in the lesson plan with the intent of reinforcing other skills such as vocabulary, grammar, and listening. Consequently, speaking activities are often not performed due to time constraints.

Resourcing strategy, by definition, prioritizes speaking skills and uses information from reading as additional inputs to trigger pushed output (Swain, 1985). Using available resources for speaking practice is not a new idea, and has been practiced by many instructors at the DLIFLC. However, no empirical study has been conducted to investigate the effect of target language resources on improving speaking performances. This study (1) examines the effect of resourcing strategy—use of target language resources—on students’ short-term spoken language performances; and (2) provides pedagogical suggestions based on the findings.
METHOD

Subjects

Twelve students from three Tagalog classes participated in the study in Fiscal Year (FY) 2013. There were only three new classes in FY 2013. Students participated in the study in weeks 40-42 of a 48-week Tagalog program at the DLIFLC. The approximate speaking proficiency level at the time of the study, based on face-to-face and/or Online Diagnostic Assessment, ranged from low 1+ to low 2.

Data Collection

Data were collected from the in-school Communication Strategy workshops conducted for each of the three Tagalog classes in January, February, and March 2014. The Communication Strategy workshop was to familiarize students in the 3rd semesters with useful speaking strategies in preparation for the Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI). As facilitators and researchers, the authors split into different pairs and co-conducted each of the workshops. In order to reduce possible bias in collecting and recording speech data, we ensured that researchers/facilitators were not teachers of the class that attended the workshop. The 1st iteration of the workshop for class 1 was conducted by researchers A and B; the 2nd iteration for class 2 by researchers A and C; and the 3rd iteration for class 3 by researchers A and C.

In the first hour of the workshop, we introduced various achievement communication strategies2, such as circumlocution, paraphrase, and resourcing, with samples of authentic dialogs and narratives. The second hour was practicing resourcing strategy through hands-on activities. Each student was asked to talk about the pros and cons of medical tourism in the Philippines, first without, and then with the target-language resource. Students’ speaking samples before and after the resourcing activity were collected on the same day in the following sequence.

Before the Resourcing Activity

First, we showed students the PowerPoint slide “Medical Tourism in the Philippines”; they were then asked to take turns3 in addressing its benefits and disadvantages to the Philippines.


[Getting sick is VERY EXPENSIVE these days. Medicine and
hospitalization are costly. Consulting a doctor is also expensive. But the enemy of the health sector and its employees is not only high prices but also a government project: promotion of medical tourism in the country]. (In translation)

While each student spoke, one co-facilitator typed the transcript of the speech in a word file and recorded the student’s speech on an iPad. This served the dual purposes of providing feedback and collecting data. The transcribed speeches were first used to give students immediate, tailored feedback after the workshop; the transcripts were later crosschecked against the recordings and refined for research purposes.

**During the Resourcing Activity**

Next, each student was given an authentic, Level 2+ reading passage about medical tourism with comprehension questions. The reading text was adopted from the DLI’s online resource (https://gloss.dlifc.edu/). The text was adequately challenging to students who were almost at the end of the 3rd semester. In order to reduce the cognitive loads of students’ reading a long passage within a limited time frame, we divided the entire text into four segments with corresponding comprehension questions in English (see Appendix). Students, however, were asked to answer the comprehension questions in Tagalog with the words and expressions in the passage. This was to help them organize and formulate their second speech on the topic. They were also allowed to compare and discuss answers with peers. Afterwards, students were given several minutes to read the text and their answers to make a mental note of the key information in the passage.

**After the Resourcing Activity**

Finally, students took turns talking about the benefits and disadvantages of the medical tourism again. We encouraged students to figure out how to put together their answers to produce a paragraph-level discourse on the topic by reviewing the passage and their answers. This activity allowed students to use the language from the target language resource as a communication strategy (Samuda, 2013). Again, students’ speeches were transcribed and recorded for feedback and analysis.

**Instrumentation**

We measured the speaking performance of each student before and after the resourcing activity in three performance variables—complexity, accuracy, and fluency. The complexity variable consists of two sub-categories: lexical complexity and syntactic complexity. Lexical complexity was measured by counting the number of word types and the Type Token Ratio (TTR), which was obtained by dividing the total number of different words occurring in utterance by the total number of words. A high TTR indicates a high degree of
lexical variation whereas a low TTR indicates the opposite (Thomas, 2005). Syntactic complexity was measured by identifying the number of speech units, the number of clauses, and the number of clauses per clause. Accuracy was measured by identifying the total number of error free clauses and the number of error-free clauses per clause. Lastly, fluency was measured by identifying the total number of words in each speech sample and the number of words per speech unit. These performance variables were assessed in terms of either frequency or ratio. Table 1 features CAF variables, along with categories and methods to measure each of the variables.

Table 1
Proficiency Variables, Categories of Measure, and Methods of Measure

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Complexity</th>
<th>Categories of Measure*</th>
<th>Methods of Measure (Frequency/ Ratio**)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lexical complexity</td>
<td>Number of word types***</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Type Token Ratio (TTR)</td>
<td>Ratio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Syntactic complexity</td>
<td>Number of speech units****</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number of clauses</td>
<td>Ratio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number of Clauses per unit (CU)</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Ratio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accuracy</td>
<td>Number of error-free clauses (EFC)</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number of error-free clauses per clause (EFCC)</td>
<td>Ratio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fluency</td>
<td>Number of words</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number of words per unit (WU)</td>
<td>Ratio</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Categories of measures were adapted from Daller, van Hour, & Treffers-Daller, (2003); Freed, Segalowitz, & Dewey (2004); Kormos & Denes (2004); Robinson (2001); and Yuan & Ellis (2003).

**Frequency measure refers to “a simple frequency count of a particular feature, structure, or unit” (Wolfe-Quintero et al., 1998, p.9), whereas ratio measure represents “the presence of one type of unit… as a percentage of another type of unit” (p.10).

***The total number of different words.

****Speech unit refers to AS unit (Foster, Tonkyn, & Wiggleworth, 2000), defined as “a single speaker’s utterance consisting of an independent clause, or sub-clause unit, together with any subordinate clause(s) associated with either” (Foster et al., 2000, p. 365). Consider these examples: Right now, many non-nationals are going to the Philippines in order to get their health better (unit 1) / because the hospital bills or drugs in the Philippines are cheap as compared...
to his country like United States (unit 2) / because the cost of drugs here are too expensive (unit 3).

Internal consistency among variables, i.e., number of word types, number of speech units, number of clauses, number of error-free clauses, number of words, which was measured using Cronbach’s Alpha, was high (α = 0.81). On the other hand, internal consistency among ratio measures, i.e., Type Token Ratio, number of clauses per unit, error-free clauses per clause, and number of words per unit was low (α = 0.19). The ratio measures may not be appropriate for the current data, as the sample size was too small and the data severely skewed.

Once performance variables and categories of measures were defined, the researchers reviewed and refined the transcribed speech samples to ensure accuracy. During this process, the speech samples of three students that were partially recorded or recorded with poor sound quality were excluded from analysis. Therefore, complete sets of transcribed speech samples of nine students—before and after the resourcing activities—were coded for quantitative and qualitative analysis. Each researcher first worked independently to acquire quantitative information on the nine categories of measure (see Table 1) for performance variables. Then, the three researchers met multiple times to decide a complete set of quantitative and qualitative data pools for analysis.

**Data Analysis**

Both descriptive and inferential statistics were applied using the SPSS statistical package. First, mean scores, medians, and standard deviations for complexity, accuracy, and fluency were computed. Second, before the inferential statistical analysis, the normality for the data was examined by using the Histogram in SPSS. As the sample size was too small and most variables showed a skewed or bimodal distribution, a nonparametric Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test was conducted in lieu of the parametric paired t-test in order to find out if there were significant changes in performance variables before and after the resourcing activity. The significance of the results was tested by calculating the $z$ and $p$ values, and the results of the nonparametric statistics were interpreted at a significance level of $p < .05$.

When quantitative data analyses were completed, each researcher reviewed the students’ speech data again, focusing on language use, organization, and content that were difficult to capture by quantitative analysis alone. Again, researchers worked individually and identified recurring themes. Afterwards, multiple meetings and discussions were held to develop a consensus in data interpretation, in an attempt to reduce researcher bias and to illuminate blind spots in data interpretation through analyst triangulation—using multiple analysts to review the findings (Denzin, 1978).
RESULTS

The research question was: How does the use of the target language resource help students improve speaking performance in the short term? Table 2 shows that there was a significant change in the median scores of some complexity and fluency variables—number of word types, number of units, number of clauses, number of words, whereas no noticeable changes were observed in the median scores for accuracy variables. The mean score for error-free clause per clause (EFCC) was lower than the standard deviation, indicating that the data for this variable were severely skewed, thus impacting reliability.

Table 2
Means, Medians, and Standard Deviation (SD) of Proficiency Variables before and after the Resourcing Activity (n=9)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Complexity</th>
<th>Before</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>After</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Median</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Median</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Lexical complexity</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of word types</td>
<td>39.44</td>
<td>39.00</td>
<td>7.23</td>
<td>56.33</td>
<td>53.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type Token Ratio (TTR)</td>
<td>68.11</td>
<td>66.00</td>
<td>6.77</td>
<td>64.44</td>
<td>62.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Syntactic complexity</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of units</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>5.78</td>
<td>6.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of clauses</td>
<td>7.11</td>
<td>7.00</td>
<td>2.26</td>
<td>10.11</td>
<td>10.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clauses per unit (CU)</td>
<td>2.27</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>1.89</td>
<td>1.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Accuracy</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error-free clause (EFC)</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>2.37</td>
<td>5.89</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFC per clause (EFCC)</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>1.83</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>0.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fluency</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of words</td>
<td>58.33</td>
<td>61.00</td>
<td>11.75</td>
<td>91.00</td>
<td>80.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Words per unit (WU)</td>
<td>18.67</td>
<td>20.00</td>
<td>6.40</td>
<td>14.56</td>
<td>15.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In order to identify whether the changes in the median scores in some sets of performance variables before and after the resourcing activity were statistically significant, a Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test was conducted and the results were as follows (see Table 3):
Table 3
Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test for Proficiency Variables before and after the 
Resourcing Activity (n=9)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Complexity</th>
<th>Positive</th>
<th>Negative</th>
<th>z</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Linguistic complexity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of word types</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>-2.668</td>
<td>0.008*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of Token Ratio (TTR)</td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>6.10</td>
<td>-0.949</td>
<td>0.342</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Syntactic complexity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of units</td>
<td>4.50</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>-2.555</td>
<td>0.011*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of clauses</td>
<td>4.75</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>-1.474</td>
<td>0.141</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clauses per unit (CU)</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>6.00</td>
<td>-0.890</td>
<td>0.373</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accuracy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error-free clauses (EFC)</td>
<td>4.83</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>-1.562</td>
<td>0.118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFCs per clause (EFCC)</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>4.75</td>
<td>-0.847</td>
<td>0.397</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fluency</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of words</td>
<td>5.50</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>-2.549</td>
<td>0.011*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Words per unit (WU)</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>4.60</td>
<td>-1.527</td>
<td>0.127</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05

Results of the Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test revealed that there were statistically significant changes in two of the complexity variables, such as number of word types ($z = -2.668, p = 0.008$) and number of units ($z = -2.555, p = 0.011$); in one fluency variable—number of words ($z = -2.549, p = 0.011$). However, no statistically significant changes were observed in any of the accuracy variables. The results seem to indicate that target language resources stimulated significant increase in the type/number of vocabulary and the number of syntactic speech units. On the other hand, the use of target language resources did not seem to improve accuracy of speech in the short term. Accuracy variables showed that the students made a similar number of, or slightly more, errors after the resourcing activity. Similar results were found in most performance variables that were measured by ratio, e.g., Type Token Ratio, number of clauses per unit, error-free clauses per clause, and number of words per unit.

To explore further how the increased number of words after the resourcing activity affected the overall quality of speech, researchers conducted additional content analysis and noted the following patterns displayed in Table 4.
Table 4  
Language and Content of Speech Samples before and after the Resourcing Activity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Before Resourcing</th>
<th>After Resourcing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Language</strong></td>
<td>Limited or incorrect use of words and grammar (see Excerpt 1)</td>
<td>Enhanced vocabulary (see Excerpt 4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Incomplete and incomprehensible sentence segments (see Excerpt 2)</td>
<td>Use communication strategies, e.g., use of superordinate, circumlocution, and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>paraphrase (see Excerpt 5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Content</strong></td>
<td>Inaccurate content in fragmented discourse (see Excerpt 3)</td>
<td>Provide more accurate details on the topic using topic-specific vocabulary (see Excerpt 6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Richer but disorganized contents in run-on sentences (see Excerpt 7)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As seen in Table 4, enhanced vocabulary and content knowledge after the resourcing activity allowed students to provide more accurate details on the topic by using topic-specific words and some communication strategies—e.g., the use of superordinate, paraphrase, and circumlocution. Improved vocabulary and content further helped students produce longer, paragraph-level discourse—albeit in a slightly haphazard manner. In the second speech, some also used more diversified grammatical features, such as suffixes, infixes, and prefixes, in the root word/markers. However, incorrect use of these grammatical features did not convey the intended message, leading to a communication breakdown. For example, incorrect use of the article *a* and *the*, markers, prefixes, infixes, or suffixes changed the meaning of the content. The following excerpts show some key characteristics of speech samples before and after the resourcing activity.

**Before the Resourcing Activity**

*Excerpt 1*  
…Gaya ng Pilipinas medyo mabuti ang medical **dahil sa** syudad doon.  
*Like the Philippines, medical treatment is sort of good because of the city there...*
In this example of the incorrect use of words, the student used the cohesive device *dahil sa* [because of] to create a cause and effect relationship between two unrelated concepts of *mabuti ang medical* and *syudad doon* [good medical treatment and city there].

**Excerpt 2**

… ang bagay na ginawa nila ay… naghahanap para sa… iba’t ibang bagay sa pamamagitan ng pananaliksik upang ibigay ang mas magandang buhay para sa mga mamamayan doon sa Pilipinas.

[...the thing that they did is... looking for... different things through research in order to give better life for the people there in the Philippines.]

The sentence is vague and hard to understand. The student had phrases in mind but did not have the key words or phrases to get his point across. There was no logical and conceptual connection between phrases but only random words strung together.

**Excerpt 3**

Teka po… gaya ng proseso gaya ng makabagong gamitin. Kailangan ng mga doctor ang mas pagsasanay kasya sa mga doctor sa Philippines.

[...Just a minute, just like the process just like modern to use. The doctors need more training suited for the doctors in the Philippines.]

Here, the student first seemed to talk about medical equipment in relation to medical tourism. Because he missed key words, the sentence was incomplete. Then he suddenly transitioned to discuss training doctors, which was not relevant to the topic. It was hard to find any logical transition from the first utterance to the next—making the entire discourse incomprehensible.

**After the Resourcing Activity**

**Excerpt 4**

...nakakasigla ang bagong industriya sa Pilipinas ng turismong medikal...

[...the new industry of medical tourism in the Philippines is *invigorating*...]

The student came up with a word *nakakasigla* [invigorating] in reference to some related words *masaklap* [painful to one’s feeling] and *enganyo* [motivate] from the reading.

**Excerpt 5**

Mabuti iyan para sa *infrastruktura* ng Pilipinas.

[This is good for the *infrastructure* of the Philippines.]
The student used a superordinate *infrastruktura* [infrastructure] when referring to hospital/facilities.

**Excerpt 6**

The student used a superordinate *infrastruktura* [infrastructure] when referring to hospital/facilities.

**Excerpt 7**

Kung ginagawa nila ito, may **posibilidad na pwede sila mag-employ ng mga maraming nurse, doctor manggagawang pangkalusugan sa bansa nila upang ibigay ang mas maganda kalusugan para sa kanilang mamamayan.**

*[If they are doing this, there’s a possibility that they can employ more nurses, doctors and health practitioners in their country in order to give a better health for their people]*.

The sections highlighted in bold showed the student used key terms, vocabulary words, and contents from the reading text to make his point.

**Excerpt 7**

At pati rin kung lalaki ang isdustriya ngayon, siguro hindi aalis ang mga Pilipino o hindi **mangingiba’t-ibang bansa ang** mga Pilipino dahil magkakaroon sila ng maraming trabaho sa ospital at industriya ng gamot pero ang **masaklap**....dahil sa mas mataas na presyo ng gamot sa Pilipinas dahil... para sa pagkita ng mga duktor at dalubhasa ng gamot hindi abot kayaiyon para sa mga mahihirap at ahh wala silang ospital na napupuntahan o **abot-kaya** para sa kanila pero siguro, gagawin ng gubyerno, **tutuparan** ng gubyerno ang bagong batas upang galingan ang industriya ngayon.

*[And also, if the industry will grow today, perhaps the Filipinos will not leave the country or Filipinos will not migrate because they will have many, have many jobs in the hospital and drug industry but what is painful is... because of much higher price of medicine in the Philippines because... for the earnings of the doctor and medical drug specialist, it is not affordable by the poor and ahhh...they have no hospital to go to or affordable for them but possibly, the government will do, the government will comply (implement) new law to improve the present industry]*

The student tried to use sophisticated, low-frequency words, such as **mangingiba’t-ibang bansa ang** [to migrate], **masaklap** [painful, unfortunate], **abot-kaya** [affordable], or use high-level grammar features such as **tutuparan** [will comply], which were present in the reading text. On the other hand, the speech contained too much information, which was presented in a disorganized manner in a series of lengthy, run-on sentences.

One common trait of spoken language is fragmented or run-on sentences, which are acceptable as long as speakers are able to communicate the intended messages. Excerpt 7 represents the aforementioned characteristics of the spoken language, which demonstrates the degree to which the discourse can be made incomprehensible. The student was able to provide more details on the topic using both lexical and content information gained from the
DISCUSSION & CONCLUSION

This study is an initial attempt to explore the effect of the target language resources on students’ speaking performance in the short term. We found that the target language resources provided students with immediate lexical schemata, helping them produce more linguistically elaborated and content-rich discourse in subsequent speech on the same topic after the resourcing activity. Linguistically, students seemed able to use more varieties of topic-specific and level-appropriate vocabulary, expressions, and grammar features in reference to the reading resource. Moreover, content knowledge gained from the target language resource enabled students to deliver more accurate and extended information on the topic. This finding was in accordance with Lam’s (2006) notion that resourcing strategy provided students with at least an entry into communication, enabling them to take advantage of the linguistic and content resources available to them.

On the other hand, enhanced vocabulary and content knowledge gained from the target language resources did not significantly affect accuracy, fluency, and the overall quality of speaking performance in the short term. Even though key words and phrases in the reading passages provided students with additional linguistic and content resources for speaking, the use of such parroted language, not accompanied by full comprehension and internalization, was insufficient for meaningful and organized outputs. Students’ oral performance after the resourcing activity depended on the comprehension level of the individual. For example, a student said, “Ngayon, may ospital na ang Pilipinas para sa puso, baga, at iba pang panggagamot.” [Today, the Philippines now has a medical hospital for heart, lungs, and other treatments]. The student incorporated information and topic-related words (medical hospital, heart, lungs, and other treatments) in the reading passage, but an incomplete understanding of the verb tenses caused him to produce an incorrect statement, in contrast with what was stated in the reading passage: a medical hospital will be constructed (in the future). In addition, Droop and Verhoeven (1998) noted that cultural familiarity affected reading comprehension and efficacy but that the effect was limited to linguistically simple text due to the learners’ limited language proficiency. The learners’ ability to handle the linguistic and content loads affects their performance in the speaking tasks.

The results of the study have shed some light on the question: How can an effective use of target language resources push students to a higher level of proficiency in speaking? First, instructors need to gauge student current linguistic capacity and provide the target language resources to the zone of proximal development6 (See Vygotsky, 1978). Once students have built up linguistic and content knowledge of the assigned topics through multiple
exposures to related resources and extensive comprehension activities, they
can talk about the issues through synthesizing, organizing, and producing
information in their own words. This process may take a long time for some,
but if this approach is effectively adapted to their language proficiency levels
at an early stage of language learning, students are accustomed to finding
relevant resources and using them to enrich their learning.

Limitations of this study include the short duration of the research period,
the low number of participants, and the limited number of tasks. Therefore, the
current study provides only narrow insight into the role of target language
resources in students’ speaking performance; the findings cannot be
generalized beyond the sample. More longitudinal studies that focus on micro-
level language analysis of speech samples on various topics and tasks with a
more diverse student population need to be conducted. For example, a study
that examines how students proceduralize linguistic and content knowledge
from resourcing activities in high level speaking tasks in the long term can be
a topic for future investigations. Furthermore, more sophisticated research
methods should be employed to yield better insights into the role of reading
and listening resources in the development of speaking proficiency.
NOTES

1. Being pushed in output, which is otherwise called comprehensible output (Swain, 1989, p.248-249) is parallel to the i +1 input hypothesis (Krashan, 1985). Ellis (2008) defined pushed output as “learner output that is produced with effort, (which) reflects the outer limits of their linguistic competence” (Ellis, 2008, p. 977).

2. Dornyei and Scott (1997) claimed that strategies can be used either “to convey the intended message in spite of the linguistic deficiencies by extending or manipulating the available language system” (p. 195) or “to tailor one’s message to one’s resources by altering, reducing, or completely abandoning the original content” (p. 195). The strategies that belong to the first option are termed achievement strategy, whereas the strategies that apply to the second option are termed reduction strategy (Faerch & Kasper, 1983b).

3. There was no specific guideline for taking turns. After a few minutes of preparation, the facilitators randomly designated a student or elicited a volunteer to talk about the topic. Therefore, the student who spoke first might have influenced those who spoke later. This factor was not controlled, which could be one of the limitations for the study.

4. “A term that denotes a general class under which a set of subcategories is subsumed: Child is the superordinate of girl and boy.” (www.dictionary.com). Paribakht (1985) considered it one of the communication strategies for semantic contiguity.

5. Transcription convention:
   a. [       ] indicates English translation
   b. … indicates a pause

6. The concept of Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) was developed by the Soviet psychologist and social constructivist, Lev Vygotsky (1896 - 1934), who defined ZPD as “[The] distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance, or in collaboration with more capable peers” (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86). The concept of ZPD can be applied in the DLI context, serving as a guiding principle in designing and implementing tailored instructional materials and activities to address students’ various academic needs.
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Leaver & Campbell (2015). Experience with higher levels of proficiency. In T. Brown & J. Bown (Eds.), *To advanced proficiency and beyond* (pp. 3-21). Washington, DC: Georgetown University Press.


APPENDIX

Reading Material for the Resourcing Activity

Atraksiyong Turismo: Serbisyo ng Medikal
[Tourism attraction: Medical services]
Turismong Medikal: Isang silip
[Medical Tourism: An Overview]

1. Binigyang depinisyon ng ilang eksperto sa India ang medical tourism bilang “pagbibigay ng mabisa subalit murang serbisyo ng medikal na nakaugnay sa pagpapalaganap ng industriya ng turismo.” Target nito ang mga pasyente buhat sa iba’t ibang bansa na may kakayahang maglakbay para maggamit.

[Some experts from India define medical tourism as the “provision of effective but cheap medical services in conjunction with the promotion of the tourism industry.” Its targets are patients from various countries who are able to travel for medical treatment.]

2. Kabilang sa mga inaalok na serbisyo ng medical tourism ang plastic and reconstructive surgery (pagpaparetoke), weight loss surgery (operasyon para pumayat), ophthalmology (pagpapagamot ng mata) at dentistry (pag-aayos ng ngipin).

[The services offered under medical tourism include plastic and reconstructive surgery, weight-loss surgery, ophthalmology and dentistry.]


[This industry can generate billions of dollars. In India, the government hopes to earn US$1 billion from medical tourism in 2012. India also states that if the profits of private medical institutions continue to grow, healthcare could become a $17-billion-per-year industry.]

4. Sa ganitong deklarasyon, hindi lamang ng India kundi maging ng Malaysia at Thailand, naengganyo na rin ang Pilipinas na sumakay sa karetela ng turismong medikal.

[Statements like this, not only from India, but also from Malaysia and Thailand, have prompted the Philippines to hop on the medical-tourism train.]

Note: The reading text was adopted from huups://gloss.dliflc.edu. The text is no longer available at the site.
Read #1 through #4 and answer the following questions in Tagalog:

a. What is the definition of medical tourism?

b. What prompted the Philippines to promote the medical tourism industry?

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Pilipinas at ang turismong medical [Medical Tourism in the Philippines]

5. Ayon kay Duque, magsusumikap ang gobyerno at mga pribadong ospital na gawing “new hub of wellness and medical care in Asia” (bagong lunduyan ng kagalingan at pangangalagang medikal sa Asya) ang Pilipinas.

[According to Duque, the government and private hospitals are striving to make the Philippines a “new hub of wellness and medical care in Asia.”]

6. Kaya naman ito isasagawa ng gobyerno dahil gusto nitong hikayatin ang mga doktor, nurses at iba pang manggagawang pangkalusugan sa bansa na huwag nang umalis at manatili na lamang dito. Gayundin, para hikayatin ang mga dalubhasang mediko sa labas ng bansa na bumalik sa Pilipinas para dito na lamang magbigay ng serbisyo.

[The government will implement this program because it wants to encourage doctors, nurses and other healthcare workers to stay in the country, and to encourage medical experts outside the country to come to the Philippines and provide services here.]

7. Inaasahan naman ng gobyerno na kakagatin ito ng mga dayuhan lalupa’t mas mura ang serbisyong medikal dito sa bansa kaysa sa alinmang bansa sa Europa at maging sa Estados Unidos.

[The government hopes that foreigners will buy into this, especially since medical services are cheaper here than in the United States or any country in Europe.]

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Read #5 through #7 and answer the questions in Tagalog:

c. What are the expected gains for the country if the Philippines becomes a ‘new hub of wellness and medical care in Asia’?
8. Pangunahing nilalaman ng proyekto ng gobyerno para sa medical tourism ang pagtatayo ng isang ospital na mag-aalok ng isang komprehensibong pangangalaga sa kalusugan. Tataglayin nito ang serbisyong iniaalok ng limang ospital ng gobyerno na dalubhasa sa iba’t ibang karamdaman-ang Lung Center of the Philippines, Philippine Heart Center, National Kidney and Transplant Institute, Philippine Children’s Medical Center at East Avenue Medical Center.

[The main component of the project is the construction of a hospital that will offer comprehensive healthcare. This will include the services offered by the five government hospitals specializing in various illnesses: The Lung Center of the Philippines, the Philippine Heart Center, the National Kidney and Transplant Institute, the Philippine Children’s Medical Center, and the East Avenue Medical Center.]


[This facility will be called the Philippine Centers for Specialized Healthcare, and it will serve as a destination for medical services that meet international health standards. This center will have the latest equipment for treatment and health improvement. This grandiose hospital will be built in the heart of Quezon City.]

Read #8 and #9 and answer the following question in Tagalog:

d. What medical services will the Philippine Centers for Specialized Healthcare provide?
Ang mito ng mabuting kalusugan [Myth of Good Health]

10. Paliwanag ni Dr. Eleanor Jara, isang cardiologist sa Philippine Heart Center at tagapagsalita ng KilosBayan para sa Kalusugan, “pagkakait ng mabuting kalusugan para sa mga mamamayang matagal nang pinagkakaitan ng karapatang magkaroon ng mahusay na kalusugan ang proyektong ito ng gobyerno.”

[Dr. Eleanor Jara, a cardiologist at the Philippine Heart Center and spokesperson for the People’s Health Council, said that “this government project will deny good health to people who have long been deprived of the right to have excellent health.”]


[“No Filipino will properly benefit from this government policy. Actually, the use of government medical facilities for foreigners will only worsen the unavailability of space for local patients in our public hospitals, especially if this program continues, a program whose only focus is on foreign patients who can pay,” she said.]

12. Hindi rin umano totoo na mahihikayat ng industriya ng medical tourism ang mga doktor at nars na nangibang bansa na bumalik sa Pilipinas para dito na magtrabaho dahil malinaw na pagbebenta lamang ng murang lakas-paggawa ng mga manggagamot at nars ang medical tourism na itinataguyod ng gobyerno.

[It is also not true that the medical tourism industry will encourage immigrant doctors and nurses to flock to the Philippines to work here, as the medical tourism supported by the government is obviously selling the cheap labor of doctors and nurses.]

13. Aniya pa, para mapabalik ang mga doktor na umalis para magtrabaho sa ibang bansa ay dapat ipatupad ang mga itinatakda ng batas gaya ng Magna Carta for Health Professionals at Nursing Act.
She said that to encourage the return of doctors who have left to work abroad, the provisions prescribed by law, such as the Magna Carta for Health Professionals and Nursing Act, will have to be implemented.


In addition, the government will also have to increase the health budget to stop the brain drain that is occurring in the country.

Read #10 through #14 and answer the following questions in Tagalog:

e. (#10-#12) What are the possible negative consequences if the medical tourism project is implemented in the Philippines?

f. (#13-#14) What solutions would avoid these negative consequences?
How Faculty Can Foster Autonomy Among Learners

RA'ED QASEM
Field Support, Continuing Education

The Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) is raising graduation standards from 2/2 to 2+/2+ for all languages. Success will mean a drastic change in how faculty and learners approach foreign language teaching and learning. One avenue in which the efforts of faculty and learners can converge is autonomous learning. However, most incoming students are not fully autonomous learners and, therefore, rely on teachers to help. In order for the DLIFLC faculty to take an active role in promoting learning autonomy, they need a clearer understanding of what it is, what their role in fostering it should be. This paper is a synthesis of scholarly work addressing the definition of autonomy, the characteristics of the autonomous learner, and reasons to foster autonomy. It also provides steps that DLIFLC faculty may consider in fostering autonomous learning among students.

INTRODUCTION

Similar to many instructors in the field of foreign language education, instructors at the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) experience many challenges when engaging learners. They have invested much effort and time in designing learning tasks and activities but are sometimes met with a lack of interest and engagement from the learners. Well-designed learning activities do not always yield the intended learning outcomes. Some activities require learners to use the target language in pairs or in small groups, but learners sometimes insist on using their first language. Further, despite the instructors’ frequent reminders and explanations, some learners keep
making the same mistakes and do not seem to learn from their errors. In short, some learners assume a passive role in the learning process, reluctant to develop a sense of responsibility for the outcome of their learning and choosing to rely primarily on the instructor.

In the foreign language learning field, there has been an increasing emphasis on the key role that learners play in their learning and the overall success of the educational process. Similarly, reaching advanced levels of language proficiency necessitates that learners assume more responsibility for their learning. Such emphasis is matched with a growing interest in learning autonomy, which places responsibility on the teacher to help learners develop it. Helping learners develop learning autonomy is a major requirement for successful teaching and one of the main goals of foreign language teaching because it allows the learner to share responsibility for the classroom. To be autonomous, learners need to feel responsible for their own learning and that of those with whom they interact, as well as have some choice in the what and how of the instructional content and process (Benson, 2007). Yet, fully autonomous learners are rare as “most learners do not come into the learning situation with the knowledge and skills to determine content and learning processes which will enable them to reach their objectives in learning another language” (Nunan, 1997, p. 201).

Learner autonomy is an elusive concept because it is often misconstrued as self-instruction, lacking a definition in precise and measurable terms. This is caused by a lack of agreement on its nature as some researchers argue that it is a capacity, whereas others view it as a behavior. Further, although some researchers characterize it as learner responsibility, others characterize it as learner control. Finally, there is a lack of agreement about whether the development of learner autonomy depends on corresponding teacher autonomy (Little, 2007). Thus, teachers are expected to guide the learners in this process and create a classroom culture that fosters autonomy.

It is impractical to expect instructors to promote autonomy by simply encouraging a student to become more independent or autonomous. In order for autonomous learning to occur and to bring about tangible changes, learners have to be taught how to become autonomous. They also need a classroom culture that accepts and encourages autonomous learning. Therefore, instructors are expected to play a pivotal role in equipping learners with the right skill set to become successful autonomous learners. Within the DLIFLC team teaching context, instructors are required to achieve this as part of a team, which means that in order for learners to be able to assume more responsibility towards their learning, the whole teaching team needs to be willing to gradually give up some of that responsibility.

The main purpose of this article is to present a synthesis of scholarly work addressing the definition of autonomy, the characteristics of the autonomous learner, and reasons to foster it. The article concludes with actionable steps with which DLIFLC teaching teams collectively and faculty individually can foster autonomous learning among learners. The underlying premise for this effort is that in order for teachers to help learners, they need to
have a clearer understanding of their role in advancing autonomous learning. Further, the efforts to promote autonomy hinges upon the individual teacher’s effort as well as the teaching team’s effort. The exploration process begins with dispelling some of the misconceptions of learning autonomy.

LITERATURE REVIEW

What Learner Autonomy Is Not

In order for autonomy to be fostered, there needs to be clarity about what it is and how it can be promoted. The existence of multiple definitions of learner autonomy has obscured the concept and promoted the creation of misconceptions that need to be dispelled. Such misconceptions can create confusion about what learner autonomy is, resulting in teachers having difficulty applying it in their pedagogy. There are at least four misconceptions resulting from terminological and conceptual confusion within the field (Benson, 2001).

Esch (1996) highlighted three of the four misconceptions of learner autonomy. The first, considered the most common one in foreign language education, is that autonomy is only a set of skills. This leads to the false promotion of autonomous learning as “a series of techniques to train language learning skills leading to the display of autonomous behavior” (p. 165). Second, it is false to assume that autonomous learning means “learning in isolation” (p. 167). Third, it is misleading to assume that autonomous learning gives the learner full control and diminishes the need for the teacher. In language learning, in order to promote autonomous learning, it is necessary for teachers to give learners a format to use their experiences as part of their learning. The fourth misconception, identified by Dam (2011), that could prove detrimental to fostering and encouraging autonomy among learners, is advanced by those who frequently associate the concept of learner autonomy with classroom anarchy during which learners do what they please and when they please to do it.

What Learner Autonomy Is

The most widely cited and circulated definition of learner autonomy is “the ability to take charge of one’s own learning” (Holec, 1981, p. 3). Accordingly, being an autonomous learner means that “one is able to have, and to hold the responsibility for all the decisions concerning all aspects of this learning” (Holec, 1981, p. 3). Such decisions would include setting objectives, defining the learning content, selecting learning methods and techniques, monitoring the learning progress, and evaluating the progress. In other definitions, the words ability and take charge of have often been replaced by capacity and take responsibility for.

Little (1991) defined autonomy as “a capacity for detachment, critical reflection, decision making and independent action” (p. 4). Littlewood (1996) described the notion of autonomy as “learners’ ability and willingness to make choices independently” (p. 427). Chitashvili (2007) noted that autonomy is a
“complex socio-cognitive system, manifested in different degrees of independence and control of one’s own learning process, involving capacities, abilities, attitudes, willingness, decision making, choices, planning, actions, and assessment either as a language learner or as a communicator inside or outside the classroom” (p.17). Sinclair (2000) noted that autonomy is a construct of variable degrees of capacity that has social and individual dimensions requiring awareness of the learning process as well as willingness to be responsible for one’s own learning, which can occur both inside and outside the classroom.

For the purposes of this article and the wider used across DLIFLC, the definition proposed by Littlewood (1996) seems to have the most relevance—“learners’ ability and willingness to make choices independently” (p. 427). Therefore, learning autonomy in foreign language learning, as illustrated in Figure 1, can be viewed as the learner’s ability and willingness to make and carry out choices independently in three domains: communication, learning, and personal life (Littlewood, 1996). The individual’s ability relates to them possessing the requisite knowledge about the alternatives from which choices have to be made and the necessary skills for carrying out whatever choices seem most appropriate. Finally, the individual’s willingness to make choices depends on them having both the motivation and the confidence to take responsibility for the choices required (Littlewood, 1996).

![Figure 1. Components and domains of autonomy in foreign language learning (Littlewood 1996, p.430).](attachment:image.png)

In order for autonomous learning to be promoted among foreign language learners, the special focus of the DLIFLC teachers and teaching teams should be on the first two of the three domains of autonomy domains: autonomy as a communicator and autonomy as a learner. There is a great degree of interdependence among the three domains. As learners develop more autonomy as communicators, they can make better use of learning opportunities both inside and outside the classroom. Similarly, a learner’s general autonomy as a person can be affected and will affect the specific domains of communication.
and learning. As depicted in Figure 2, autonomy in the communication domain depends on the individual’s ability to use the language creatively and appropriately to communicate meaning. In the learning domain, autonomy depends on one’s ability to engage in independent work and to employ appropriate learning strategies, both inside and outside the classroom. Finally, in the personal domain, autonomy depends on the individual’s ability to use language to express personal meanings and to create personal learning contexts outside the learning environment.

![Diagram showing the relationship between autonomy as a communicator, learning strategies, motivation, confidence, knowledge, skills, independent work, and creation of personal learning contexts.](image)

Figure 2. A framework for developing autonomy in foreign language learning (Littlewood 1996, p.432).

It is vital that autonomous learning be considered within the light of ability and willingness. A learner may possess the ability to make independent choices but lack willingness due to restrictions in the learning environment. Equally, though willing, a learner may not exercise independent choices if they lack the necessary ability to do so. Therefore, as Littlewood (1996) proposed, “the more knowledge and skills the learners possess, the more confident they are likely to feel when asked to perform independently; the more confident they feel, the more they are likely to be able to mobilize their knowledge and skills in order to perform effectively; and so on” (p. 428).
The Characteristics of Autonomous Learners

The various definitions of autonomous learning suggest that autonomous learners are most likely to take active roles in the learning process by seeking out learning opportunities for themselves rather than relying completely on the instructor. Little (2003) noted that autonomous learners possess a clearer understanding of the purpose of learning; accept responsibility for their learning; participate in the setting of learning goals; take the initiative in planning and carrying out learning tasks; and frequently review their learning to evaluate its effectiveness. Furthermore, research suggests that autonomous learning is obviously learner-centered. According to Dickinson (1993), autonomous learners understand clearly what is being taught as it relates to pedagogical choices and are able to formulate individualized learning objectives; employ and monitor learning strategies appropriately; and monitor their own learning. Chan (2001) noted that autonomous learners take the initiative and make use of every opportunity to improve their learning. Also, they are highly motivated, goal-oriented, well-organized, hardworking, enthusiastic about learning, flexible, active, and willing to ask questions. Holden (2002) noted that autonomous learners are “both cognitively and metacognitively aware of their role in the learning process, seek to create their own opportunities to learn, monitor their learning, and actively attempt to manage their learning in and out of the classroom.” (p.18). Dam (1995) identified the autonomous learner as:

An active participant in the social processes of classroom learning….An active interpreter of new information in terms of what s/he already and uniquely knows…knows how to learn and can use this knowledge in any learning situation s/he may encounter at any stage in his/her life. (p. 102)

DISCUSSION

Why the DLIFLC Teachers Should Foster Learner Autonomy

Scholarly works point out the specific benefits of fostering learner autonomy in language education. According to Dam (2011), apart from autonomous learners developing high communicative proficiency and being prepared for lifelong learning, they also develop enhanced self-esteem; learn how to learn and accept responsibility; and gain social competence by experiencing social forms of learning. Such benefits of fostering autonomous learning are echoed by other scholars. Learning autonomy is believed to (a) impact the effectiveness of the instruction and learning processes; (b) enhance learner motivation; (c) increase learning gains; (d) shift teaching methodology and approaches; (e) produce responsible citizens; and (f) positively influence weaker students.
Little (1991) argued that as autonomous learners engage in the decision-making process, “learning [becomes] more focused and purposeful and thus more effective both immediately and in the longer term” (p. 8). Fostering and promoting autonomy is more likely to result in enhanced motivation for the learners. Research supports the claim that “increasing the level of learner control will increase the level of self-determination, thereby increasing overall motivation in the development of learner autonomy” (Chan 2001, p. 506). Learning autonomy also plays a key role in raising learning outcomes in general (Holec, 1981) and in foreign language learning in particular (Lo, 2010).

Littlewood (1996) noted that the presence of autonomous learners minimizes teacher-centered structures and promotes student-centered learning and instruction, which is a positive goal for teachers at the DLIFLC. Little (1991) argued that learning autonomy promotes more responsible citizens. When learners are autonomous, it is more likely that they will be more responsible in other areas and be more useful and effective members of society. Finally, the results of practical experiments (Lacey, 2007) indicated that autonomous language learning and teaching is especially beneficial for the weaker learners. Fostering autonomy among weaker students is most likely to increase confidence and minimize anxiety and negative feelings about learning, which helps students achieve higher scores on the exams.

**How the DLIFLC Teachers Can Foster Learner Autonomy**

At this juncture, it should be reiterated that autonomous learning does not mean learning without a teacher. According to Holec (1981), two conditions are necessary for autonomous learning to take place. The first is that the learners must take charge of their learning. The second is the existence of a learning structure in which they can exercise the possibility of taking charge of their learning. The learning structure needs to be built on three principles: Learner involvement, learner reflection, and target language use (Little, 2009). Autonomous learning is improbable without the active participation of a teacher who intentionally and persistently promotes and fosters learner autonomy. In addition to creating learning structures that support autonomy, teachers can actively influence it by providing learners with the skills and knowledge that enhance their ability as communicators, learners and, subsequently, as individuals. The following is a synthesis of what most researchers suggest that teachers take to promote autonomy in their classrooms. These are course design, classroom culture creation, and explicit instruction of reflection.

First, instructors within a teaching team should agree on promoting autonomous learning and create a course that incorporates autonomy into language learning. In such a course, an important goal is progressive and gradual transfer of responsibility for decision-making and learning from instructors to learners. In order for such courses to be successful, they need to reflect learners’ goals; promote reflection on learning; incorporate strategies proven to facilitate learning; and include tasks that either replicate real-world communicative tasks or provide rehearsal for such tasks (Cotterall, 2000).
Second, similar to starting a lesson with a clear objective, the process of promoting autonomy requires a drastic shift in instructor and learner roles. In many cases, teachers report that students are unwilling to take a more active role and may be disappointed that their efforts were unsuccessful (Reinders, 2010). The process requires learners do more in the classroom while teachers do less. The expectation for learners to guide their learning is a new concept to students. This may cause students to criticize instructors for not doing their job. In order to avoid criticism in the teacher evaluation, such as the End of Program Student Questionnaire (ESQ) or Interim Student Questionnaire (ISQ), it is crucial for every teacher and the teaching team to start with a clear rationale. This should be communicated clearly to learners so that they understand the aim, the reasons, and their role in the process. The team leader and the team are encouraged to begin this discussion with students as soon as possible. If the whole team agrees on common guidelines for managing the classroom, these expectations can be communicated as the modus operandi for the reminder of the course.

Third, individual instructors and teaching teams are encouraged to create a classroom culture where autonomy is accepted. Little (1995) argued that “while learning strategies and learner training can play an important supporting role in the development of learner autonomy, the decisive factor will always be the nature of the pedagogical dialogue” (p. 175). One way to create such a culture is to involve learners in making decisions about their own learning. Involving students in decisions—such as crafting both short and long term objectives as well as selecting the types of learning materials, class activities, and homework activities—provides them with choices and allows different approaches to foster learner autonomy (Benson, 2001). Participation of the learner should make learning more meaningful (Benson, 2001; Nunan, 1997). Additionally, by granting learners freedom to select the materials and learning activities, they are given greater opportunities “to access and use resources in their contexts, to carry their learning and to develop strategies for taking greater responsibility for their learning” (White, 2003, p. 34). Based on experience and proven success, Dam (2000) describes this environment as one in which the teachers combine knowledge about language learning with the learners’ knowledge about themselves. More explicitly, according to Dam, a learning-centered environment is one in which the learners are

- given the possibility of being consciously involved in their own learning; and
- expected to be actively engaged in their own learning and thus made aware of the different elements involved in the learning process—an awareness for use in other contexts (p.20).

Fourth, teachers should include explicit instruction for (a) communication strategies, (b) learning strategies, and (c) reflection. In keeping with our previous definition, autonomy in the communication domain depends on the individual’s ability to use the language creatively and appropriately to communicate meaning. One way the instructor can influence this is by aiding
the learners in developing communication strategies that they can use to overcome communication problems caused by a lack of linguistic resources. Such strategies may include circumlocution, semantic avoidance, word coinage, language switch, asking for clarification, non-verbal strategies, and avoidance.

In addition to learning communication strategies, learners need to be aware of their learning styles and strategies. Instructors can train learners to identify their own preferred learning styles and strategies. As learning strategies are the thoughts and actions in which learners engage, deliberately or not, to learn new information, the aim of teaching learning strategies is to help students control how they learn so that they can be efficient, motivated, and independent language learners (Barnhardt, Chamot, El-Dinary, & Robbins, 1999). To succeed in language learning, learners need to develop metacognition or metacognitive awareness, which is awareness of thinking processes and cognizance of the strategies that lead to learning success. It leads to self-regulation and allows learners to recognize how they learn best by understanding the similarity between the current learning task and previous ones, identifying the strategies they require for successful learning, and anticipating success. As Barnes (1976) pointed out “to learn is to develop relationships between what the learner knows already and the new knowledge presented to him, and this can only be done by the learner himself.” (p. 81).

As reflection is paramount to developing autonomy, instructors should promote self-assessment and encourage students to maintain records of their own progress. These records can be utilized by the learner to identify strengths and weaknesses and, with the help of the instructor, develop ways to capitalize on strengths and remedy weaknesses. The premise and practice of self-assessment requires learners to assess how much they have learned, and how much more they need from learning environments (Benson, 2001).

Fifth, teachers should diversify instruction to include (a) cooperative learning, (b) learning activities outside the classroom, and (c) division of learning-instruction time. Since learner autonomy is not learning in isolation, it can and should be fostered through cooperative learning within the classroom by allowing learners to be responsible for their learning via working with peers or teachers (Benson, 2001). In such a context, there is a clear shift from teaching to learning. The teacher focuses less on how to best teach and more on how to best support learners as they learn (Dam, 2011). Moreover, the teacher should also design learning activities that afford learners the opportunity to actively engage.

The teacher may consider dividing the teaching/learning sequence into teacher’s time, learners’ time, and together time (Dam, 2011). The teacher’s time, which could be utilized for introducing new learning content or reviewing previous learning, will be shortened as learner’s time increases. In order for that to happen, learners need to be ready to manage their own learning and take control of it. The together time could be reserved for activities that involve whole-class activities such as presentations, reflections and evaluations (Dam, 2011).
Work on learner autonomy in language learning focuses not only on classroom practice but also on out-of-class learning (Benson, 2009). Teachers are encouraged to promote learner autonomy through both in-class and out-of-class activities. This can be achieved through experiential learning and project work (Littlewood, 1996), which may use the wider community as a context for learning. In this manner, teachers can increase the learner’s willingness and ability to create personal learning contexts. Instructors may also utilize homework to expand out-of-class learning. Rather than assigning homework consisting of exercises for drilling, instructors could assign carefully-structured tasks that require students to practice the language on their own terms.

Before the DLIFLC instructors engage in autonomous learning, two issues need to be addressed. First, instructors and teaching teams are encouraged to increase their own knowledge of autonomy; to reflect upon their own learning to determine if they have been autonomous; and to grow as autonomous learners. There is ample evidence to suggest that teachers who are not autonomous language learners may negatively influence such development in their students (Balcikanli, 2010). Little (2007) argued that teachers should have personal experience as an autonomous learner in order to foster it among learners. In addition to reviewing published literature on autonomy in general and autonomy in foreign language education in particular, there are multiple surveys that help a teacher gauge degrees of autonomy. A short survey has been developed by Macaskill and Taylor (2010) (see Appendix). This psychometrically sound survey measures how autonomous individuals are as learners. Though the survey was developed as a resource for educational researchers, it lends itself well to revealing the degree and levels of autonomy. With this survey, instructors can immediately determine learners’ as well as their own level of autonomous learning.

Second, teachers are encouraged to brush up on needs analysis, learning strategies, linguistic analysis, goal setting, task design, assessment, and material selection and preparation (Dickinson, 1987). Knowledge of learning strategies allows them to advise learners about the best ways to go about learning and to recommend alternatives to those having difficulties. Knowledge of needs’ analysis is essential to help learners identify and describe their learning needs. Afterwards, these needs can be broken into achievable objectives which require instructors to aid learners in setting goals. When instructors grasp linguistic analysis they may help learners identify the key learning points in authentic texts relevant to learners with specific language requirements. The instructor needs to also be well-versed in material selection and preparation to help the learner find appropriate materials. Similarly, material preparation is essential in order to adapt published and in-house materials for self-instruction. Finally, knowledge of assessment is critical in order to educate learners how to assess their own proficiency and develop self-assessment techniques.
CONCLUSION

Learner autonomy has emerged as a central issue in recent developments of foreign language education. A greater emphasis is placed on the role of teachers to foster autonomous learning among students. The nebulous nature of autonomy contributes to the teachers’ struggle with ways to promote it. In general, fostering learner autonomy means encouraging students “to determine the objectives, to define the contents and progressions, to select methods and techniques to be used, to monitor the procedures of acquisition and to evaluate what has been acquired” (Holec, 1981, p. 3). Through this process, the autonomous learner takes on a greater role in planning, pacing, monitoring, and evaluating their learning.

This paper has suggested ways by which the DLIFLC instructors may promote autonomous learning in classrooms. Learners will not become autonomous without the knowledge, skills, and attitudes to play an active role in the planning, implementation, and evaluation of their own learning. The steps adumbrated here offer specificity. Moreover, the DLIFLC instructors need to assess their own autonomous learning and become familiar with autonomous learning levels. Instructors’ better understanding of autonomous learning enables them to provide an environment that helps students identify, develop, and improve their level of autonomous learning.
REFERENCES


APPENDIX

The short survey on learning autonomy, containing 12 items, has been developed by Macaskill and Taylor (2010). The respondent rates the items listed below on a 5-point Likert scale, where 1 = very like me; 5 = not at all like me.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Please rate how each statement describes you.</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
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<tr>
<td>I enjoy new learning experiences.</td>
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<td>I am open to new ways of doing familiar things.</td>
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<td>I enjoy a challenge.</td>
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<td>I enjoy finding information about new topics on my own.</td>
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<td>Even when tasks are difficult I try to stick with them.</td>
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<td>I tend to be motivated to work by assessment deadlines.</td>
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<td>I take responsibility for my learning experiences.</td>
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<td>My time management is good.</td>
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<td>I am good at meeting deadlines.</td>
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<td>I plan my time for study effectively.</td>
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<td>I frequently find excuses for not getting down to work.</td>
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<td>I am happy working on my own.</td>
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Teaching Dialect in L2 Education to Achieve Higher Levels of Proficiency: The Case of the North Korean Dialect at the DLIFLC

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1. INTRODUCTION

In this paper I first explain why understanding second language (L2) dialect varieties is critical for developing sociolinguistic competence in reaching higher levels of proficiency, and then discuss L2 comprehension of non-standard dialects with a literature review of learning settings and familiarity. This is followed by an examination of when to integrate dialects into foreign language programs and how to teach them. Finally, my experience in teaching and developing a North Korean dialect course at the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC), including classroom activities well received by my students, illustrate the pedagogical implications for teaching dialects in L2 education.

2. REACHING HIGHER LEVELS AND LEARNING NON-STANDARD DIALECTS

One feature of a higher-level speaker—e.g., Interagency Language Roundtable (ILR) level 3 and above—is to understand dialect diversity. Wolfram (1998) defines the term dialect as, “any regional, social, or ethnic variety of a language,” with an explanation that “the language differences associated with dialect may occur on any level of language including pronunciation, grammatical, semantic, and language use differences” (p.107). This paper uses the term standard dialect to refer to a standard language, which is viewed as one of various dialects in a society, following Eisenstein’s
definition: “a standard dialect is one that has gained acceptance by a community of users as the prestige style of that language” (1983, p.10). Accordingly, a *non-standard dialect* is a dialect that has not gained prestige in a society.

Languages have dialects, whether regional or/and social; therefore competence in understanding L2 language variation is critical for the learner to achieve an advanced level of foreign language proficiency. However, L2 learners, especially classroom language learners, are challenged in comprehending foreign language variations. Kubler (2002) argues that if educated native speakers can understand most of the dialects of the language, then non-native learners of that language who wish to attain native-like proficiency should possess a comparable ability. In a similar vein, Bayley and Regan (2004) insist that knowledge of variation is part of a L2 speaker’s sociolinguistic competence, so L2 learners need to acquire native-speaker patterns of variation to become fully proficient in the target language (p. 325). According to Bachman (1990), sociolinguistic competence is “the sensitivity to, or control of the conventions of language use that are determined by the features of the specific language use context; it enables us to perform language functions in ways that are appropriate to that context” (p. 94). This sociolinguistic competence includes sensitivity to dialect and register, naturalness (native-like use of language), and the ability to interpret cultural references (Bachman, 1990). The notion of “sensitivity to dialect” is also addressed in the ILR Guidelines. ILR is a real-world language ability rating scale that has been used in the U.S. federal services. The ILR description illustrates the difference between Level 3 (ILR-General Professional Proficiency) and above Level 3 in terms of comprehension of dialects. Level 3 does not require comprehension of dialect, but Levels 3+ and 4 (Advanced Professional Proficiency) require such an understanding (Interagency Language Roundtable, 2015). In fact, there is a high potential for L2 learners to interact with native dialect speakers if they are in the target country. Nevertheless, the foreign language education field has traditionally focused on teaching a standard dialect. Kubler (2003) points out that this could be due to instructors’ insufficient understanding of the importance of listening comprehension of dialects. Some language instructors consider teaching non-standard dialects unnecessary or even incorrect, such that L2 learners have difficulty in comprehending dialects when encountering them.

3. L2 COMPREHENSION OF NON-STANDARD DIALECTS

A dialect is a subordinate speech of a language. There are regional dialects such as Southern English, which differs from the standard variety of American English. Then there is dialect-influenced non-standard speech, in cases where a speaker has learned the standard speech in school but speaks the language with influence from their native tongue, as with speakers of Hispanic English (Kubler, 2003). For this reason, some linguists call dialect-influenced
non-standard speech ethnic dialect (Major, Fitzmaurice, Bunta, & Balasubramanian, 2005). There is also social dialect, or sociolect, that is used by a particular social class or group within a society, such as working-class New York English (Wardhaugh, 2010).

When it comes to L2 comprehension of non-standard dialects, the learning setting is crucial. Learners in a naturalistic environment with regular contact with native speakers readily acquire the non-standard vernacular speech patterns compared to learners in all other learning settings, such as the immersion classroom and the traditional classroom (Regan, 2013). Study abroad is a mixture of classroom and naturalistic environments, so that it is an ideal setting for L2 learners to acquire a given variety of the target language (Regan, 2013). In line with this, a comparison by Regan, Howard, and Lemée (2009) between the Canadian immersion learners of French and Irish learners of French who spent a year abroad demonstrated that year-abroad learners acquire more sociolinguistic variation than immersion learners regarding the informal deletion of ne (part of the negative structure) in oral language. This implies that greater contact of a given variety of the target language will result in a better sociolinguistic competence by L2 learners. In this context, classroom L2 learners may have the least sociolinguistic competence in terms of learning non-standard dialects compared with learners in other learning settings.

As mentioned above, familiarity with a given variety of the target language has an important role in L2 learners’ comprehension (Fox, 2002; Major, Fitzmaurice, Bunta, & Balasubramanian, 2005). However, in general, it is widely believed by both foreign language instructors and L2 learners that comprehending non-standard varieties is harder than the standard dialect, because L2 learners are not familiar with the variations. Dialects have a significant effect on listening comprehension because of phonological factors and speech rates. Major, et al. (2005) examined ESL students’ listening comprehension for four dialects of English (African-American, Australian, subcontinetal Indian, and southern American) compared with standard variety of English. They found that ESL students understood more Standard American English and the regional dialect that they had been exposed to than other ethnic and international dialects of English. This implies that L2 learners can comprehend a given dialectal variation better through exposure.

In the case of Korean, it has geographical dialectal variations and socio-political dialectal differences between South and North Korea due mainly to their different politico-ideological systems. However, Korean dialectal variations have great intelligibility among native speakers from different regions of the two Koreas (Sohn, 1999). Despite this intelligibility, Korean dialectal variations seem to be harder for L2 learners to comprehend than the standard South Korean (hereafter SK) variety because, in the United States, the teaching of Korean as a foreign language primarily means teaching the standard SK. In my teaching experience, non-heritage adult learners in the U.S, including those at the advanced level, have a harder time understanding
Korean regional dialects than the SK even when the levels of the materials are similar. Not surprisingly, this is because the students are not familiar with the non-standard Korean varieties. For instance, the word for vegetables in South Korean is *chayo*¹, but *namsay* in North Korean. L2 students who have never been exposed to the North Korean word have a hard time comprehending it.

4. WHEN AND HOW TO TEACH DIALECTS

Among linguists who believe teaching and learning L2 varieties are needed, there are two arguments regarding when to teach non-standard varieties. One is to expose L2 learners to language varieties at the early stage of learning, and the other at above the intermediate level. Haddad (2006) argues that learners of Arabic should be exposed to a dialect early on, if the learners require face-to-face communication with native speakers. Arabic is a diglossic language, meaning that the standard Arabic variety is mainly used in education, written texts, or mass media but not used in everyday interactions in which a dialect is used among native speakers. Therefore, besides knowledge of the standard variety, learning a dialect of Arabic is critical for communication. Adger (1997) also insists that English language learners need accurate sociolinguistic information about dialect differences that they hear in the target community, because ESL students are likely to interact with vernacular U.S. dialect speakers in the U.S.

On the other hand, Leaver and Shekhtman (2002) maintain that students must focus on the standard features of a language at lower levels of proficiency, and sensitivity to dialect and register can only be developed on the basis of understanding the standard variety. Kubler (2003) also notes that L2 learners should begin with occasional exposure to non-standard varieties before they reach Level 2 (ILR scale-Limited Working Proficiency). He argues that exposure to dialects earlier than that may cause confusion in learning the standard dialect. When learners attain Level 3 or in conjunction with a study abroad setting, they should receive detailed instruction in listening comprehension of dialects.

In terms of teaching dialects in general, the practical goal is developing receptive competence such as listening comprehension in non-standard dialects to which L2 learners will be exposed (Eisenstein, 1983). This objective is found in programs with a specific purpose, such as training American diplomats who need to understand regional dialects of the target society where they are assigned. For instance, the objectives of the Chinese Dialect Familiarization Course for American diplomats who communicate with speakers of non-standard Chinese dialects in China, Hong Kong, and Taiwan are listening comprehension in varieties of Mandarin, not speaking proficiency (Kubler, 2003). The course improves learners’ listening comprehension of non-standard dialects through discovering how a dialect differs from the standard variety.
Although many focus on what non-standard dialects differ from the standard dialect, Fox’s pedagogical norms for listening comprehension in teaching French varieties show a different view regarding instructional emphasis (Fox, 2002). She stresses that language varieties must be approached through common features rather than distinctive aspects. In other words, the varieties are not seen as deviations from the standard one but as variable realizations of it. Fox (2002) suggests that aspects of a dialect, in contrast with those of the standard variety, are to be introduced based on their frequency, as the course progresses.

5. A CASE STUDY OF THE NORTH KOREAN DIALECT AT DLIFLC

In 2010 the DLIFLC initiated the North Korean (hereafter NK) dialect teaching and learning for national security purposes. The NK dialect in this paper refers to North Korea’s standard variety—Culture Language, that is, Pyongan-based dialect (munhwae), distinct from South Korea’s Seoul-based standard variety (phyocwune). The NK dialect has become a part of the Defense Language Proficiency Test (DLPT) 5, which was developed by the DLIFLC to measure foreign language proficiency in reading and listening, using ILR Skill Level Descriptions (from level 0+ through 4). All the DLIFLC students take it at the end of their course.

Instead of learning dialects in the target community for the purpose of communication with native dialect speakers, learning the NK dialect at the DLIFLC focuses on the receptive skill domains of listening and reading. The NK dialect is introduced at the intermediate level and continues to the advanced level. It is emphasized more at the advanced level, because understanding NK materials is critical for reaching higher-level linguistic competence.

The NK dialect is a regional and socio-political dialect that has diverged from its SK counterpart as a result of North Korea’s socialist ideology and the physical reality of Korea’s division since 1945. One of the challenges for the instructors is that the NK dialect education has to deal with not only regional varieties but also the socio-political dialect aspects. These characteristics are reflected in the Advanced North Korean Dialect Materials (hereafter ANKDM) developed by the DLIFLC in 2010. One of the learning objectives in ANKDM is to acquire area and cultural content of North Korea in addition to reading and listening proficiency. To this end, high-level cultural references, such as the ideology of Self Reliance (the state ideology of North Korea) is incorporated in the learning activities (Kang, 2014).

In my development for the post-basic course “Introduction to North Korean Society” at the Language Training Detachment (LTD)-Hawaii in the Directorate of Continuing Education at the DLIFLC in 2015, I also integrated learning about the North Korean state ideology through the use of authentic NK materials. This was a two-week program (80 hours of instruction)
designed to increase students’ global linguistic, sociolinguistic, and intercultural competence. In this hybrid course, students had four hours of classroom instruction and four hours of directed study via the Learning Management System—Blackboard©. The curriculum was content-based and covered the topics of North Korean language, society, culture, women, education, economy, politics, military and security, and healthcare. Materials, ranging from ILR Level 2+ to 4, aimed to teach L2 learners various topics in an area-study approach, in addition to the linguistic features of the NK language relative to that of South Korea. Most students at LTD-Hawaii enroll in a foreign language-training course as part of their mandatory language training. Students are U.S. military linguists and graduates of the Directorate of Undergraduate Education (UGE) at DLIFLC. Students who took this course must be at ILR 2+ (reading) / 2+ (listening) or above. The objectives of the NK course were to enable students to transcribe, translate, summarize, and analyze NK texts at the level 2+ or higher. They were required to complete an oral presentation and a research essay comparing and contrasting certain societal issues in the two Koreas and the US.

I taught the course at the LTD-Hawaii, where teachers do not use a published curriculum as in UGE but create materials based on a syllabus. Upon completion of the North Korean course, I found that students comprehended NK texts better with a grounded understanding of North Korea’s ideology, which is embedded in almost all NK texts, especially those produced by the state. When evaluating the course, many students commented that the course was very helpful, because it provided them an overview of the “North Korean way of thinking.” Students were challenged to understand the state-run media, with unexpected views that differ from the perspective of their native culture. For instance, when a North Korean elementary school student was interviewed by a state-run television reporter, the listeners who grew up in the US did not expect that the elementary school student studied and practiced sports to please the beloved leader of the state. Students began to understand the core aspects of North Korean state ideology, such as the role of its state leader and how it affects the people’s belief systems. Educating cross-cultural differences in a foreign language classroom is crucial for developing intercultural communicative competence.

One effective way to facilitate learner understanding of cultural differences is to make students aware of their own cultural framework, and then, by comparison, have them explore and establish new perspectives of the target culture through authentic materials (Galloway, 1992). For instance, when teaching North Korean education through a news story about a North Korean student who won an international mathematics contest, the lesson plan included the following:

1. the teacher introducing the topic of North Korean education;
2. the students guessing the content of a news story;
3. the students comprehending the content of the news in the NK media;
4. checking comprehension, by having the teacher asking students to compare the differences between North Korea’s and their native cultures on a similar topic; and

5. the students discussing why and how these differences were produced and what possible perspectives or ideology might be reflected in the communicative patterns in the NK texts in comparison with the student’s native culture.

Besides activities for intercultural competence, linguistic activities were conducted and included acquiring NK vocabulary, pronunciation, grammatical patterns, orthography, semantics, and sociolinguistic features, in comparison with the SK standard dialect. In terms of differing linguistic features between the two Korean dialects, many students noticed lexical differences due to the autonomous language policies of the two Koreas. Both the South and North Korean governments have carried out lexical purification movements. North Korea’s language movement, which proceeded systemically and successfully under strong state control, preferred “pure” Korean words to Sino-Korean or loan words from Japan and the West; South Korea’s language refinement effort was carried out with limited success. This has resulted in the divergence in the two Korean dialects.

Therefore, instructors first need to focus on teaching NK vocabulary, including the preference for “pure” native Korean words. For instance, one activity of comparing lexicon and culture was to use both authentic SK and NK media materials that introduce sociocultural aspects of North Korea, such as its education system, holiday culture, or weather. The activity helped students to learn the linguistic divergence as well as common features between the two. In this activity, students learned the refined “pure” native NK words versus loan words, such as khunnwul (flood) in comparison to the SK counterpart, hongswu (flood), which is a Sino-Korean loan word.

Another classroom activity for learning NK vocabulary allowed students to find the meaning of the dialect words while listening to or reading authentic media materials by using textual clues and converting these words into standard SK speech. For instance, a SK broadcast reported on the NK educational system by interviewing a North Korean elementary school student. The student answered a question regarding his resolutions: “I will follow the teacher’s instruction, study hard, and receive five points on the tests.” In this statement, five points (a perfect score in the North Korean educational system) is different from South Korea’s practice, which is 100 points (100%). Most L2 students were able to guess the meaning of five points in context by using textual clues.

The NK dialect to the SK standard variety conversion practice was also effective in learning the NK dialect. This practice is exemplified below. Learners were required to convert the underlined vocabulary into the SK standard form. This example is a NK speaker explaining why she became a teacher.

55
Lee

One of the reasons that I hoped to become a teacher was that I liked to play being a teacher when I was a little child. The other reason was that the teacher who taught [English] speaking at my college was a model teacher for all of our instructors. The [English] teacher once asked me if I wanted to become a teacher after graduation, so I answered “yes, I do,” and the teacher was very happy to hear that.) (Choson Sinbo, 2014, author’s translation).

In teaching, the semantic changes in common vocabulary as a result of North Korea’s unique socialist ideology was also presented as sociolinguistic background knowledge. For example, epei means parents in SK, but it also refers to the leader in North Korea in the sense that the leader gives sociopolitical life to the people.

Second, another sociolinguistic feature, the stylistic variations between the two Koreas’ languages, similar to the variations of English in Western societies, is worth examining in class. In Western societies, as in South Korea, the tendency is to use a compact sentence style when presenting news, whereas sentences in NK news media tend to be lengthy and opinionated. L2 learners need to learn strategies of comprehending the main idea. For instance, understanding the typical style or rhetoric of the NK mass media, such as the admiration for leaders and hatred for enemies, would help L2 learners better comprehend NK texts. A classroom activity related to this was to locate modifying words for the leaders and the enemies and to discover the message of the discourse. When the NK media discusses North Korea’s current leader, the name is usually preceded by lengthy official titles. Students need to decode the long titles as a collocation with the leader(s). Following the name(s) of the leader(s), a quotation from the leader is often introduced. After the quotation the article usually elaborates on the quotation. When students studied both NK and SK materials about the same topic, such as the inter-Korean summit, it helped them to understand the variant sociolinguistic discourse styles in the two Koreas.

Third, in terms of intonations in North Korea’s news broadcasts, emotions of excitement or hate in relation to the topic come with high-pitched intonations. This style was explained to L2 learners as a part of the NK language culture based on ideology. To illustrate the point, various NK media texts were used as learning materials, including ordinary people’s authentic
speech that does not exhibit this high-pitched intonation. Moreover, it was helpful for students to mark the intonation when listening to NK texts. They noticed the common features of the intonation among NK speakers, and then compared these to the intonation of SK speakers. Other different phonological features, such as pronunciation of the NK dialect versus the SK standard speech were also covered in class through the NK to SK conversion practice.

North Korean Cultured Language, which is similar to the SK standard speech, is mainly used in NK media. Differences in syntax and spelling between the South and North Korean languages seem to be less significant in the lexicon. Therefore, the course focused on NK specific vocabulary and the sociolinguistic features of the NK dialect, such as its language purification movement and unique discourse style, which helped L2 learners to better comprehend NK texts.

It was better to approach the NK dialect in terms of its common features with the SK standard speech rather than focusing on differences, especially in the beginning stages. After all, the NK and SK languages are variations under one monolingual umbrella. The different features of the two dialects were introduced along with sociolinguistic background knowledge as the course progressed.

6. SUMMARY AND IMPLICATION

In this paper, I discussed how understanding L2 language variation is a critical aspect of sociolinguistic competence for L2 learners to achieve higher levels of foreign language proficiency. Research shows that the more exposure L2 learners have to a given variety of the target language, the greater will be the sociolinguistic competence in that target language (Regan, 2013; Regan et al., 2009, Fox, 2002; Major et al., 2005). In terms of teaching methods, many dialect-teaching practitioners have focused on teaching the different features of non-standard dialects from the standard dialect. However, examining the case of the NK dialect course at the DLIFLC, I suggest approaching the dialect in terms of its common features with the SK standard variety rather than focusing on differences, especially at the beginning stages of instruction. The different features of the two Korean dialects need to be introduced along with sociolinguistic background knowledge as the course progresses, because the NK dialect is not only a regional but also a social dialect. I have also recommended focus areas for instructors when teaching NK materials, such as NK vocabulary and phonological features, based on the sociolinguistic aspects of the NK language and the cultural differences between North Korea and other cultures. This case study helps to identify the topics that require further empirical research.
NOTE

1. The Yale Romanization system is used in representing Korean forms in this paper.

REFERENCES


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Dialog on Language Instruction
The general structure, the choice of activities to include, and the efficiency of the instructors are critical for the viability of language immersions. This article addresses comparisons of various Language Training Detachments’ (LTDs) experiences, gives examples of activities, and offers recommendations for selecting activities for partial and full immersions of military linguists at the LTDs. Attention focuses on full immersions that take place over several days as potentially the most efficient, albeit costly, method of developing oral proficiency. The author’s suggestions may be applied to other languages taught at the DLIFLC, LTDs and, with modifications, to those at any level of proficiency. The article concludes with the assertion that the exclusively target language environment should be created and supported by the actions of an instructor throughout the immersion and that activities be pedagogically justified.

Psychologically, the difference between an immersion and a regular language class lies in the role of the target language. In a language lesson it is the object of learning, whereas during an immersion it is a verbal means to solve non-linguistic tasks such as learning subject matter and discussing real life issues. “Language immersion or simply immersion is a method of teaching
a second language in which the learner’s second language (L2) is the medium of classroom instruction. By this method, learners study math, science, and social studies, in their L2. The purpose is to foster bilingualism. In other words, to develop learners’ communicative competence or language proficiency in their L2 in addition to their first or native language (L1)” (Wikipedia, 2015).

Language teachers distinguish full or total immersion from partial immersion. Total immersion means placement in a natural or artificially created target language medium for a day or more, thereby replacing verbal communication in the native tongue with communication in the target language. In partial immersion, the students have exposure for only a few hours a day (Brondum & Stenson, 1998; Lenker & Rhodes, 2007; Pacific Policy Research Center, 2010).

Research by scholars at Georgetown University and the University of Illinois indicated that mastering a target language under the conditions of immersion or in a regular classroom took about the same amount of time (Mallet, 2012; Twombly, 2012; Immieqse, 2011). However, “only the immersion training,” according to Ullman, a professor of neuroscience, “led to full native-like brain processing of grammar. So, if you learn a foreign language as an adult, you may use native language brain processes, but you may need immersion rather than classroom exposure” (Georgetown University, 2012). As is known from psycholinguistics, the difference between the native and foreign language brain processes lies in the presence or absence of the translation phase between the immerging of the pre-linguistic idea and its lexico-grammar expansion (Hinojosa, Mendez-Bertolo, Carretle, & Poza, 2010; Rodriguez-Fornells, Schmidt, Kutas, & Munte, 2002; Dell, Change, & Griffin, 1999; Fromkin, 1971). This phase can be traced in constructing target-language phrases according to the grammar rules of the L1. Considerable practice in L2 may lead to a decrease or even obliteration of the translation phase, but that may take years. Thus, capturing native-language brain processes in the course of immersion may save the student effort and time. This quality of immersion is especially valuable for the Language Training Detachments (LTDs) due to the brevity of language courses offered by the LTDs.

Like classroom learning, an immersion’s efficiency depends on the quality of planning and execution. In an overseas immersion, poor planning and implementation do not preclude a student’s communicating with native speakers in public places; but poor planning and implementation of the artificially created language medium may be a waste of time. We need, therefore, to consider which language immersions at an LTD may prove most productive.
EXAMPLES OF IMMERSION ACTIVITIES

Partial Immersions

Reports of partial language immersion frequently mention learning several subjects in L2 for about 50% of a school day (Detroit Public Schools, 2014; Montgomery County Public Schools, 2015). It is an efficient arrangement for classroom immersion in a specialized school. Similarly, at the Special Warfare Education Group (Airborne) [SWEG(A)] at Fort Bragg, North Carolina, the High Intensity Performance Enhancing Rehearsal (HIPER), otherwise known as language marathon, is a common type of partial immersion. During a HIPER, a student moves from one station to another, with each station dedicated to a particular topic of the curriculum and, once there, talks to the instructor in the target language.

Another popular immersion activity is a role-play scenario that binds reading, listening, speaking, and writing activities to a common non-linguistic goal. The following example is a scenario that was used during a partial immersion event:

A group of six LTD students was issued written and audio materials describing the military tactical maneuvers—MOST, which took place in the Western regions of Russia. A detailed description of these maneuvers as well as activities for developing proficiency in reading, listening, writing, and speaking can be found in the textbook Russia in Transition (DLIFLC, 2001). Students played the roles of military journalists who covered the maneuvers. They had three hours to familiarize themselves with the information and get ready for the operational conference with the “editor-in-charge” (the instructor) during the fourth hour.

Each student received an individual task. Three students presented the general view of the maneuvers: one to draw the map of the locality based on the description of the text; one to indicate the locations of the military units on the map that, according to the legend, attacked the Western border of the Russian Federation, and to briefly describe the general plan of the Westerners’ offensive; and the third, to report the location of the military units of the Easterners’ forces defending the Russian border. The fourth, fifth and sixth students reported the actions of the Easterners’ artillery, anti-aircraft, and airborne units during the maneuvers.

The first student drew a map of the Kostroma River, which separated the positions of the Easterners and those of the Westerners as well as the bridge across it. Working with the first student, the second student located a tank regiment, an airfield, and an infantry unit’s camp on the western side of the bridge. They also determined the location of a village, where the Westerners’ headquarters was situated. In addition, the second student reported that the Westerners’ plan consisted of a two-stage offensive: a) bombing the opponents’ defensive line, especially artillery emplacements that could thwart tanks; and b) the attack of the tank units, followed by the infantry.
The *Westerners* also planned a secret commando operation aimed at neutralizing the mechanized artillery unit on the eastern side of the bridge. The third student, with the help of the first student, located a mechanized artillery regiment, air force units, and the infantry on the eastern side of the bridge. The third student reported that the *Easterners* expected the offensive. Therefore, their artillery troops, the anti-aircraft defense units, and the air force units stood tall. Vigilant sentinels guarded the riverbank to prevent a secret commando operation.

The fourth student reported how the sentinels captured the secret commandos of the *Westerners*. Under interrogation, commandos told the *Easterners* about the plan to neutralize the artillery units defending the bridge. In response, the commandos were ordered to signal the *Westerners* about the success of their mission. The artillerymen set automobile tires afire around their cannon in an attempt to convince the *Westerner* pilots that they had been taken out by the commandos. When the misinformed tank units of the *Westerners* started the attack, they were met by a powerful salvo. As a result, most tanks were destroyed, and the attack failed.

The fifth student reported that the anti-aircraft regiment of the *Easterners*, armed with S-300 AA (anti-aircraft), surface-to-air missiles, managed to shoot down five enemy aircraft. The *Westerners*’ warheads were destroyed by the anti-aircraft missiles. The *Easterners*’ interceptors shot down eight more aircraft.

The sixth student reported on the actions of the *Easterners*’ paratroopers, who were deployed the following night to the rear of the *Westerners* and captured their headquarters. They also secured the bridge and held it to provide for the unopposed counter-offensive of the *Easterners*.

Although this scenario was designed to develop Level 2 proficiency, it may be adjusted to target any level of proficiency for use in or out of the classroom. The scenario proved interesting for the students, motivating them to participate in various activities. The only disadvantage was that, despite focusing on non-linguistic goals, it remained a role-play. In other words, the students perceived the situation to be artificial.

**One-Day Full Immersions**

The sense of role-playing disappears when students experience real-life situations, especially outside the classroom. An example is a one-day cooking immersion, frequently used by the LTD in San Antonio, Texas.

In order to conduct this immersion a kitchen in a barracks was chartered for a day. The facility selected also had a recreation room with a big dinner table, a billiard table, and a large TV with a DVD player. On the day before the immersion, the students and their instructor discussed the ingredients they would purchase to prepare their meal. Their choices were *borscht* (soup), *pelmeny* (Russian dumplings), and *sharlotka* (Russian apple pie). The immersion began with shopping for items at a grocery store. Students
bought the necessary ingredients and, to master the vocabulary, discussed their purchases with peers and the instructor. They were divided into three groups: one to prepare *borscht*; another, the *pelmeni*; and the third, the *sharlotka* and tea. Discourse was in the target language. After the food was cooked, the students and instructor ate lunch at the dinner table while exchanging funny stories in the target language. They also listened to target language songs, watched a target language movie, and played games popular in the target language country.

The cooking immersion was friendly and convivial, inspiring the students to work in teams. Without the fear of making grammatical mistakes, students felt at ease with the target language.

**Multi-day Full Immersions**

Full immersion in an artificially created target language medium usually last about a week. For example, the LTD at San Antonio, Texas, conducted a full immersion in a national park, where the school rented a recreational facility, which featured a big hall, used as a communal sleeping area for students, a kitchen/dining room, a utility room, a spacious porch, and ladies’ and men’s rooms. Showers were in the recreational facility. A nearby lake afforded opportunities for fishing and boating. The students brought a large screen TV and a laptop that could be connected to the TV as a DVD player.

The immersion started on Monday morning and ended on Friday afternoon. Students’ activities corresponded to the following schedule:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Activity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6:30</td>
<td>Getting up</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7:00</td>
<td>Morning exercise, shower</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8:00</td>
<td>Cooking, cleaning, breakfast, washing dishes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9:00</td>
<td>Excursions, riddles, wall-diary(^1) writing, cooking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12:00</td>
<td>Lunch, washing dishes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13:00</td>
<td><em>Debating Society</em>, interpreting exercise, rehearsals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14:00</td>
<td>Amateur arts, newspaper writing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16:00</td>
<td>Sports, boating, fishing</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Two instructors arrived with the students who were divided into two groups: each group had cooking or cleaning duty every other day, with the exception of the first day when all worked together. In the morning, one group prepared breakfast, and the other cleaned up. The two groups had varying activities during the day. For example, as one was writing the wall-diary and cooking lunch, the other took an excursion. In the afternoon, as one group continued with the wall-diary, the other engaged in amateur arts. In the evening, while the group on duty was cooking dinner, the other group enjoyed recreational activities.

*Debating society* meetings consisted of a competition featuring witty questions and answers. On the second day, the group that had gone on an excursion to a neighboring town composed questions to be answered by the other group the next day. An example of one the questions submitted during the *debating society* hour is as follows: *What happens if gold is put on gold?*

On the third day, the group providing answers went on an excursion to the same town to find answers to the questions. For example: *When gold is put on gold, there is the Gold Jewelry Store on Gold Street.*

A competition on the fourth day sought to determine which group solved the riddles quickest. The competing group was asked to find ten small flags that had been hidden throughout the house by the instructors. At the start, the group received a piece of paper on which the location of the first flag was indicated by the following clue: “I hid it near the thing that crawls to the other side of the spring.” That meant that a flag was hidden somewhere near the bridge over the spring close to the house. The instructions for searching for the second flag were coiled around the first flag’s handle, the third on the second’s handle, and so on. The group that found the flags in the least amount of time won.

For the *debating society* time, a ranger discussed the park’s wildlife. This was as an interpretation exercise, wherein each student took turns interpreting the ranger’s speech into the target language.

On the fifth day, excursion time was spent playing hide-and-seek. Both groups were issued walkie-talkies. One group hid somewhere in the park, and then called the other group, revealing clues of their whereabouts. The
other group would intermittently contact those in hiding in order to hone in on them.

Also on the fifth day they scheduled a rehearsal of the amateur arts concert, the repertoire of which consisted of humorous songs and poems. For example, in a popular Russia song “Life is Good, My Beautiful Marquise”, a vacationing marquise (an aristocratic lady) calls home to find out what’s going on. Her servant answers the call and tells her that life is good, except for a trifle accident. While the marquise is anxious to know more about “the trifle accident,” her servant does not tell her everything at once, providing only bits of information at a time. Eventually, the marquise learns that she has lost her fortune, her husband, her estate, and even her beloved horse, but “the rest is O.K. Life is good.”

Upon returning to school on Friday afternoon, the immersion group performed an amateur art concert for the other students, showed their wall-diaries, and shared their immersion experience. This multi-day, full immersion raised the quality of students’ speaking considerably, and this was reflected in the assessment results.

Another example is a one-week immersion conducted in September, 2012 at the SWEG(A) school in Fort Bragg, North Carolina. The immersion was based on a role-play scenario. Students of Russian and other languages participated in the immersion as separate groups. The scenario was that of a U.S. military unit establishing a base camp in Kazakhstan. Upon their arrival, the American military personnel met with local activists and discussed issues such as the U.S. military role in constructing the infrastructure around the Kazakh base. Instructors from the North Carolina State University (NCSU) created the scenario and monitored its activities from 9:00 am to 4:00 pm every day. In addition, from 5:00 pm to 6:00 pm, a program manager from the NCSU met with students to analyze their performance in English. No target language activities were planned after 4:00 pm, although students stayed overnight in the immersion camp from Monday to Friday.

Later, the OPI results for the students who participated in the immersion and those who did not were compared, indicating no significant difference, except for the Russian group. This caused the SWEG(A) administration to doubt the viability of full immersion due to the cost involved.

In contrast, the six Russian students showed that the immersion improved their speaking proficiency. The reason was that a language instructor was present for the immersion from 6:00 pm to 9:00 pm, providing three hours of target language activities. The first hour was for writing a wall-diary, the second for amateur arts, and the third for watching, and then discussing a Russian movie. The Russian group was also the only group, upon completing the immersion and returning to the school, that gave a concert for the other Russian language groups, presented the issues discussed in the wall-diary, and spoke about its immersion experience.
CONCLUSION

This brief review shows that, among activities typically used for language immersions, role-play scenarios can be efficient in partial (classroom) immersions and full (out-of-class) immersions. The HIPER activity can be useful, but its application is limited by purpose and place. Another effective activity is cooking when it accompanies other activities. Additional activities include amateur arts, preparation of a wall-diary, watching and discussing videos and movies, and playing games in the target language. The activities described in this paper can be adjusted and applied to other languages at any level of proficiency taught at LTDs.

A continuous target language medium is an integral requirement of a language immersion and the best one for developing thinking in the target language. Activities conducted in the native tongue such as the analysis of the students’ performance conducted in L1, should be avoided, because it may diminish the efficiency of immersion. The absence of an instructor during students’ leisure time is equally deleterious because the instructor is the initiator and supporter of the target language medium. The continuous presence of an instructor throughout the target language immersion is the sine qua non for success.

NOTE

1. A wall-diary is like a newsletter or daily news bulletin. For example, during the Russian language immersion in September, 2012, the students from SWEG(A), Fort Bragg, NC, issued their wall-diary Saryagash News—Saryagash was the name of the imaginary village in Kazakhstan, where, according to the legend, the events of their role-play scenario took place.

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Team teaching characterizes the foreign language programs at the Defense Language Institute (DLI). Team leaders usually prepare weekly teaching schedules based on the existing curriculum, which may be outdated and ineffective. For example, the curriculum for Semester I of the Chinese Mandarin Course has been used for twenty years, and it features outdated content, faulty grammar explanations, and ineffective exercises and homework assignments. Team leaders and teachers need to be more flexible and creative with the existing curriculum. One example is creatively expanding the existing exercises.

This paper defines exercises as all activities that enhance learning, including drills, role-plays, and tasks. We believe that effective exercises should meet four criteria: (1) the exercises serve the objectives of the lesson; (2) the exercises are motivating, interesting, engaging and personally relevant (Brinton, Snow & Wesche, 1989; Ritter, 1999); (3) the exercises involve learners in comprehending, producing, or interacting in the target language to convey meaning rather than manipulating the linguistic form (Nunan, 2004); and (4) the exercises, according to Vygotsky’s Zone of Proximal Development (Vygotsky, 1978), are challenging—slightly ahead of where the students are, but not to the extent of overwhelming them.

Whereas team leaders can make a big difference, teachers can play an even more important role because they implement the curriculum and the teaching schedule in classrooms. Teachers have the opportunity to add substance by creatively adopting the existing curriculum. The following is an example of how we modified an exercise to make it more effective.

Here is the original listening exercise from the Listening Book (Chinese Mandarin Course, Unit 2):
Please listen to this passage and write pinyin (the Chinese phonetic system) in the blanks.

张芬上个周末跟朋友一块去中国饭馆______。到了饭馆, 他们先叫了两个可乐。然后点了一只________, 因为北京烤鸭很有名。三十分分钟后, ______来了。他们开始吃烤鸭。这是他们______吃鸭子, 他们说, 不知道鸭子这么好吃。他们____以后每个月来一次。

[English translation: Zhang Fen went to a Chinese restaurant _______ with her friends last week. After they got to the restaurant, they ordered two Cokes and a __________, because Peking Duck is famous. After 30 minutes, the _______________ came. They began to eat the duck. This was their __________ to eat Peking duck. They said they didn’t know Peking duck was so delicious. They _______ they would come here once a month in the future.]

When doing this exercise, students focused on the missing words to write down the sound they heard. They were not given the opportunity to learn the meaning of the missing words. The exercise did not help them learn the vocabulary or improve their comprehensive listening ability. We considered this type of exercise ineffective.

To make better use of this exercise, we first posted several comprehension questions before listening, then had students ask and answer questions to verify their comprehension, and lastly had them retell the story. We remained flexible by choosing the appropriate activities based on student needs. In other words, teachers can decide whether they want to add one or more activities, and how much time to spend on this exercise.

Of equal importance is homework assignment, which should help students consolidate what they have studied in class. Moreover, homework should also train students to be out-of-class learners (Day & Robb, 2015). Quality homework has a good balance of review, production, and self-guided learning. We find that students are motivated when homework requires more self-guided learning and creativity. Students feel empowered, making learning decisions on which vocabulary they should study and what content they must thoroughly understand.

Therefore, we modified the exercises in the Homework Book and supplemented them with various tasks, including:

- Extensive reading
- Watch a TV series and report in class
- Watch news report on current events and report in class
- Research a current topic and give a presentation in class
- Prepare to teach a grammatical point or an aspect of culture
- Interview someone on a more complex (higher-level) topic.
These assignments gave students more autonomy in deciding what and how to learn. The following example demonstrates how we encouraged more in-depth self-learning:

Chinese proverbs are four-character phrases condensed in meaning and rich in culture and history. As a homework assignment, we asked students to prepare for teaching one proverb a week. Students studied and prepared to teach the proverb on their own. When they came to class, they taught the proverb in a way they thought was most effective. Some introduced the origin of the proverb, and then told a story using the proverb to demonstrate what they understood about it. Others acted out the proverb, and then constructed sentences to demonstrate their cultural and historical knowledge. From researching, students were able to learn the origins, stories, and meanings of the proverbs. They considered this type of homework most interesting, motivating, and meaningful for their learning.

In conclusion, to achieve the goal of 2+/2+/2, teachers must be creative when implementing the existing curriculum. Teachers’ decisions play a critical role in how classroom time is used and how students utilize their after-class time. Meaningful exercises help quality learning and teaching, making the best use of students’ time.

REFERENCES


The Flipped Approach in a Foreign Language Classroom

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The flipped approach to classroom learning is defined as an instructional approach where the delivery of content takes place outside the classroom; that is to say, in-class time is devoted to applying the content in more engaging activities.

I. THE BACKGROUND OF FLIPPING

The recognized pioneers for making the flipped approach more popular are Bergman and Sams (2012). These high school teachers recorded their lessons for students who skipped classes because of athletic activities. The videos they recorded for those students became popular with others, especially struggling students. Now, because of developments in technology, many K-12 and college classes use this flipped approach to deliver necessary content.

Because content is delivered via videos and other web-based tools, students build a content foundation on their own time, giving teachers more time to interact with students in class and to provide engaging learning activities. As a result of this increased interaction, teachers identify students’ academic needs more quickly. They can then provide differentiated and individualized instruction. Students falling behind may review flipped materials multiple times, both before and after the actual content application. Additionally, because students watch videos in advance, they can ask more individualized and more complex questions in class.

In the foreign language classroom, instructors often spend too much time explaining grammatical rules or introducing new vocabulary. When the course is flipped, students are directed instead to watch foundational lessons outside of class. Most modern languages now have online grammar lessons
available on YouTube.com, and this is especially true at the basic level. If lessons provided are not suitable, instructors can make their own videos with PowerPoint (Under Export → Create a video). By adding a microphone, the instructor can easily narrate these created videos.

II. PLANNING FOR FLIPPING

There are four major steps in planning the flipped approach: purpose, prior-to-class planning, in-class planning, and closing (Honeycutt & Garrett, 2013).

1. **Purpose:** The main purpose for each lesson should focus on the instructional outcome or what the students will be able to do at the end of the learning period, rather than what the teacher will present in class. These predetermined learning outcomes should encourage students to analyze, to evaluate, and to use language skills that they study through out-of-class presentations.

2. **Prior to class:** With the main purpose in mind, prior to class activities (i.e., out of class) should focus more on lower-order thinking skills (knowledge and comprehension). In this phase, students learn content of the lesson at home, by watching videos, memorizing new words, learning grammar, and so on. For example, beginning language students may be assigned a youtube.com video on past tense conjugation to help them recall the rules that will be practiced in class later. They may also be asked to go to quizlet.com to identify important vocabulary.

3. **In-class:** The class should begin with focusing/guided activities to engage students and determine if students have completed their assigned out-of-class activities. Asking students to generate four to five sentences using the target vocabulary or grammar would be an excellent formative assessment. After this informal assessment, students may now advance to analysis, evaluation, and creation using the language skills learned in out-of-class activities. It is the teacher’s responsibility to make this part of the flipped lesson highly engaging. For example, if the outcome is greater knowledge of and application of past tense verbs, students can be asked to evaluate their resumes or to create the optimal cover letter for applying for a certain position in a company.

4. **Closing:** When concluding a lesson, the instructor must verify that students have accomplished the lesson objective. In addition, the instructor ends the lesson by transitioning into the next lesson. For example, a teacher may assign exit-tickets or ask students to recall one or two things they learned from that lesson.
III. CAVEATS

To implement flipping successfully requires two additional instructional behaviors. First, as students are not familiar with the format, once the initial excitement fades, they may become frustrated because of the additional burden for learning that is placed upon them. To prepare for this possible concern, a good instructor will ensure that students understand the characteristics of flipped learning by highlighting the benefits of this approach. Periodically providing short surveys to gauge student satisfaction is also a good intervention. Second, instructors must always remember to check students’ out-of-class activities as class begins. Incorporating these formative assessments in the initial activity of the lesson will place the responsibility for the day’s learning on students, increasing the likelihood of their full participation.

REFERENCES


*Engage*

*Innovate*

*Apply*

*Reflect*

*Discuss*

... *Dialog on Language Instruction*
REVIEW


Reviewed by DEANNA TOVAR
Middle East School II, Undergraduate Education

_The Courage to Take Command: Leadership Lessons from a Military Trailblazer_ by J. Morganthaler is particularly relevant for leaders working in civilian or military environments or those who aspire to leadership in military organizations. I would like to begin the review with a short biography of the author, COL Jill Morganthaler, as her background is relevant to the leadership experiences she shares in the book.

Colonel Morganthaler (ret.) served in the US Army and US Army Reserve before attending the Monterey Institute of International Studies (now the Middlebury Institute of International Studies at Monterey). She received a Master of Strategic Studies from the Army War College, a Master of Arts in International Policy Studies from the Monterey Institute of International Studies, and a Bachelor of Arts from Pennsylvania State University. She served in Korea, Berlin, Bosnia, and Iraq and is the recipient of the Bronze Star and the Legion of Merit for her lifelong leadership. Her stories are real, sincere and clear, bringing home messages that are applicable and beneficial to both new and seasoned leaders. One valuable aspect of the book is that the author gives the reader specific and clear advice regarding leadership.

The book focuses on three themes: 1) there will be obstacles that will block one’s path to success; 2) in order to lead, one must have the courage to speak up and defend a position; and 3) as a leader it is one’s responsibility to look out for those we lead. COL Morganthaler describes the many “firsts” she experienced in the military—redefining women’s roles and proving that they could do more than file papers.

The author begins the book by describing her journey to overcome obstacles and offers advice to those facing similar challenges. She writes about her experiences at officer’s training in 1975 where there were 83 female cadets on a military base of 50,000 men. The first chapter, _Overcoming Obstacles_,
offers advice on facing the unknown and ensuring that as a leader one identifies every team member’s strengths. She also composes the acronym OBSTACLE, wherein each letter reminds the reader of steps to follow when facing challenges.

Chapter 2, *Not Everyone Wants You to Succeed*, discusses the importance of leaders speaking up when they witness sexism, racism, ageism or other isms in order to ensure just environments exist in workplaces and society.

In Chapter 3, *Faking It*, COL Morganthaler describes her first assignment following military intelligence school as a second lieutenant in South Korea in 1977 and how she “faked it until she made it.” According to the Harvard Business Review, there is often in business more than a decade gap between the time someone becomes a leader and the time they receive leadership training. Five tips for filling in the gap are provided, starting with 1) Provide the vision. As a leader one must communicate to the team what matters—one must show people why they are doing what they are doing and where they are going. Other tips are as follows: 2) Remember you are in it together; 3) Know your knacks; 4) Study your role models; and 5) Visualize yourself as a leader. This chapter also refers the reader to four websites that assess one’s strengths as a leader.

In Chapter 4, *Leave No One Behind*, COL Morganthaler highlights the importance of putting people before policy. “As a leader, you have a responsibility to question policies that harm people” (p. 37). She also discusses the challenge of working with individuals who have clear weaknesses and suggests that leaders must figure out how to get these people to contribute. Chapter 4 includes a section on ways to make work better for employees. Good leaders must ensure their employees are engaged in meaningful work and should strive to maximize everyone’s talents. She concludes the chapter by offering seven strategies to help leaders create positive work environments.

Chapters 5-7 provide valuable guidelines to help leaders become effective in terms of their interrelations with their direct reports. One suggestion is to develop active listening skills. The author lists seven techniques designed to help leaders improve their listening skills. *Facing Fear* is the title of Chapter 6. This chapter describes the three possible responses to fear: flight, fight, or freeze, and lists seven ways to face one’s fears. The author ends the chapter with these thoughts: “It’s important to realize that we always have a choice: we can choose to be afraid and do nothing, or we can choose to work through the fear and move forward” (p. 69). In Chapter 7, *Stand Up and Stand Out*, the author states something that women leaders may have observed or experienced, such as the difference in how people in the work environment react to men versus women in leadership positions. “I found it interesting that I was called pushy. When a man stated bluntly what he thought, he was praised for being direct. When a woman stated bluntly what she thought, she was called brusque” (p. 73). I found the author’s advice on language use interesting. Included in the various recommendations on ways to
“stand out” in the work environment, the author cautions would-be leaders to “trim their hedges” (p. 75). By this, she explains that excessive use of phrases such as “I believe, I think, or I guess” undermine the statements being made by the speaker.

In *Dealing With Bullies*, the title of Chapter 8, the author shares a number of personal anecdotes regarding how she managed to overcome working for and with bullies in the workplace. The chapter includes five steps a leader should take if someone they supervise complains of bullying. She cautions leaders that there are serious consequences for failure to address bullying in the workplace.

*You Have the Power* is the title of Chapter 9. The author indicates the ways one gives away power and gives tips for holding on to power. She humorously describes how she overcame the challenge of working with a “seagull” manager (readers will have to read the book to find out what one is) and astutely advises readers that their power can be used to remove obstacles to a team. A leader should be neither “too nice” nor “too mean,” as leaders have to make tough decisions and be willing to have frank conversations. She urges leaders to correct poor performance without denigrating the individual.

Another anecdote of special interest to me is the incident described in Chapter 10, *Surprise as a Leadership Tool*. On her deployment with the 318th Press Camp, which was the public affairs mission in Bosnia, tensions ran high in the region, and her unit travelled past villages that had been destroyed. COL Morganthaler realized that the maps they had were inaccurate, and the team was lost. Although she did not speak Serbian/Croatian, she spoke some Russian. She approached a group of civilian men drinking coffee at an outdoor cafe and asked them for directions in Russian, to which one of the men responded. She reports that although American convoys were told not to stop at public places, she made the command decision to take the risk and stop and ask for directions. She used the element of surprise to her unit’s advantage. She knew the Bosnians would not be expecting to see a female military leader. Sometimes leaders need to take chances.

COL Morganthaler not only describes her leadership experiences in the work environment, but also tips for leaders who are spouses and parents. Her advice in Chapter 11, *The Balancing Act*, includes the tip “leave work at work” —“switching gears” between work and home. It was inspiring for me to read this successful leader’s advice “…you need to balance to recharge. Do not make work-related calls or send texts after hours unless it is an emergency” (p. 124).

In Chapter 12, boldly titled *Ask for a Promotion Before You’re Ready*, Col Morganthaler offers an interesting anecdote. One of her bosses in the Army Reserve told her he had seen women wait until they were 89-90 percent qualified for a promotion, whereas their male counterparts wait until they were 20 percent ready. This chapter includes tips for how one can “toot one’s own horn.” She explains the Four S’s: self, situation, solution, and success, guiding the reader on how to apply for a promotion.
Chapter 13 is noteworthy as it addresses *How to Survive Unreasonable People*. The author describes her experience working at a media center in Iraq where Saddam Hussein’s trial was to take place. She details the experience of seeing this man during his trial and comments that one general reported to her that when he saw Saddam’s eyes he saw pure evil. COL Morganthaler also encountered evil in the workplace. She briefly discusses sociopathy and offers a suggestion regarding for dealing with people so afflicted. As dealing with poor leadership is challenging, the author describes the signs of a bad leader and lists the types of bad leaders. The chapter concludes with tips on surviving a bad boss. The section on how to ensure one does not become a bad boss discusses the importance of trust and offers ten suggestions for creating an environment of trust.

*Crisis Leadership* is the title of Chapter 14. In this chapter, the author writes about her experiences with crisis management. Building rapport and being a walk-about leader are two of the strategies for leaders who manage crisis situations. One suggestion is to establish a *Red Team*, which is a group that works independently and challenges an organization to improve its effectiveness. Also included in this chapter is the topic of “Quashing Gossip and Negativity.”

The final chapter, *Reinvention*, describes the author’s experiences upon leaving active duty and entering the U. S. Army Reserve and the civilian world. Interestingly, the author refers to her desire to study a foreign language at the Defense Language Institute so that she could become a foreign area officer. Unfortunately, her branch manager assigned her to work in communications security. She did learn Chinese however, on her own and subsequently decided to study international policy at the Monterey Institute of International Studies. The author shares her personal story of not being able to find a job and asking herself if she was a warrior or a wimp. She took a risk and chose to be a victor, not a victim. “Times are tough. I am tougher” (p. 170). She ends the book by reminding the reader of the military’s definition of leadership: “Mission First. People always.”

I thoroughly enjoyed reading the book by COL Morganthaler. The tips for leaders are to the point, and her personal stories regarding how she managed various challenging situations should resonate with male and female readers.¹ The book is particularly relevant for those working in military environments. Those in civilian settings will also find the book beneficial. The author’s use of humor and sincerity come through each chapter.

**NOTE**

1. Readers may view COL Morganthaler’s *Ted Talk* on *YouTube* to get an idea of the type of stories and advice she offers.
Protecting Human Subjects in Research Activities

An Interview with Dr. Heejong Yi, Acting Chair of the Institute Review Board (IRB) and Chair of the Scientific Review Board (SRB)

Editor: Many research activities at the institute involve students. It would help the readers if you could comment on complying with the regulations on protecting the rights, welfare, and wellbeing of human subjects when conducting research. The first question many have is which organizations at the DLIFLC provide guidance for research ethics.

Dr. Yi: Good question. Let me start with the Institute Review Board (IRB) and the Scientific Review Board (SRB); each is a component of the Human Research Protection Program (HRPP). The HRPP has three officers: an HRPP Administrative, the IRB Chair, and the SRB Chair. The HRPP, IRB, and SRB activities are overseen by an Institution Official (IO) and a Deputy Institutional Official (DIO). At the DLIFLC, the IO is the Commandant, who appoints the DIO, the HRPP officers, and the IRB and SRB members.

Editor: How long has the Human Subject Research Protection Program been operational? Why is the program important for the Institute?

Dr. Yi: The Army Human Research Protections Office (AHRPO) issued its first IRB assurance (license) to the DLIFLC in 2010. As we know, at every level of the institution, teachers, staff members, administrators, and external contract researchers conduct research; most research activities at DLIFLC are based on studies or data about human beings (e.g., students or faculty members). The AHRPO has provided assurance to 16 Institute Review Boards overseeing research activities at 45 Army and non-Army Commands. The fact that the DLIFLC has its own IRB is a major achievement. Were there no IRB at the Institute, researchers would have to rely on the IRB of another Army organization. Using an external IRB would have required longer lead-times for review, as the external IRB may not fully understand the DLI’s specific
conditions and populations. In a worse case scenario, administrative complications could discourage research activities.

Editor: It reflects the Army’s recognition of the robust research activities at the DLIFLC. You must be proud that the Institute has its own IRB.

Dr. Yi: It was several years in the making. The first generation officers of the IRB and HRPP worked hard to establish the IRB and HRPP policies, staff the initial boards with qualified members, and publish the *HRPP Policies and Procedure*, which continues to guide practice today. The first generation officers were Dr. Lett, the former director of Research and Analysis (retired); Dr. Jackson, the first SRB chair (retired); the late Dr. Crowson, the first IRB chair; and myself. The solid foundation established allows the current officers to refine the program.

Editor: Speaking of the Institute Review Board and the Scientific Review Board, can you explain the differences in their responsibilities?

Dr. Yi: The IRB’s role is to protect the rights and welfare of human subjects in research, ensuring that all human-subject research projects abide by ethical principles, which are *respect for the person*, *beneficence*, and *justice*. By comparison, the SRB’s role is to determine whether a study represents good science. In practice, the IRB relies on the SRB in validating the scientific merit of a research proposal.

Editor: Do you mean that a research proposal is first reviewed by the SRB?

Dr. Yi: That’s correct. A research proposal goes through a two-tier SRB review: first by the local SRB, and then by the Institutional SRB. The local SRB is at the school or directorate level where the researcher works. The Institutional SRB reviews only those proposals that are supported by the local SRB. After the SRB reviews the proposal, the IRB examines the research protocol, focusing on human subject protection.

Editor: What specific areas of human subject protection does the IRB check?

Dr. Yi: The IRB checks what the prospective subject population is, how the researcher plans to recruit volunteers, what the consent process is, whether there is a possible conflict of interest, what the research subjects will experience, how the data will be secured, how individual privacy is protected, and what the known risks and benefits of participation are, etc.

Editor: What happens if the IRB finds flaws in the research protocol?

Dr. Yi: The IRB conducts initial and continuing reviews of the research protocol, guides researchers in designing research that adheres to ethical principles, and provides training to reviewers, researchers, and institutional oversight officials in human research subject protection.
Editor: Do all research activities involving human subjects require an IRB review?

Dr. Yi: Those who plan to study human subjects or use human-subject data in their research must send their plans to the HRPP office and undergo the first tier of review – determination. The HRPP has several trained determination officers, who determine (1) if the given activity is truly a human-subject research project as defined by the regulations; and (2) if it is an exempted activity. Only those non-exempted human-subject research proposals require an IRB review. The IRB chair classifies the non-exempted research protocols into two categories— expedited review and full-board review. As you may guess, exempted vs. non-exempted research and expedited vs. full-board reviews depend on the degree of potential risk that a research activity imposes on research participants. For instance, data collection that identifies individual participants imposes a higher risk than one that removes identifiable personal information. Most cases I have received were in the exempted or expedited review categories. Thus, the answer for the question is yes for determination, but no for a full-board IRB review.

Editor: What are the major challenges for the IRB?

Dr. Yi: I see two major challenges. First, because the IRB and the HRPP are relatively new organizations, their work and function are not widely known. Thus, there is a great chance that faculty may not comply with the specified regulations on human research subject protection. The officers of the HRPP are doing more outreach by including faculty and staff across the institution in training activities. As a result, more faculty members are aware of the IRB and the HRPP. We plan to continue these outreach activities. The second challenge is that some think getting an IRB review is a long, painful process. In fact, we have streamlined the process of reviewing research protocols. The review is now faster and more transparent. To help faculty understand the research review process, I have prepared a brief chart.

Editor: The chart will help faculty understand the process. We will include the chart as an appendix for this interview. Dr. Yi, thank you for sharing the information on research ethics.

NOTE

1. There have been personnel changes since May 2016 when the interview was conducted.
APPENDIX

The SRB and IRB Review

A. Officially Supported Research Project (including Action Research)

If a DLI faculty member conducts research as a job-requirement, the process will be as follows:

Step 1  \textit{Local SRB Review}

The local SRB at the school/directorate reviews the SRB application and protocol documents. The review may involve a meeting with the candidate for clarification of any ambiguities in the proposal. The SRB provides guidance as needed.

Step 2  \textit{HRPP Determination}

The local SRB completes the review and forwards the packet to the HRPP for \textit{exempted} or \textit{non-exempted} determination. A determination memo is issued to the requestor upon completion.

- If the research project falls into the \textit{exempted} category (non-human subject research), the researcher(s) can start the project.
- If the research project falls into the \textit{non-exempted} category, continue to step 3.

Step 3  \textit{Institutional SRB Review}

Upon the local SRB’s concurrence, the local SRB chair forwards the packet to the Institutional SRB (I-SRB). The I-SRB meets once a month to review the research proposals.

Step 4  \textit{IRB Review}

Upon completion of the SRB review and concurrence, the IRB chair previews the protocol before the IRB review.

Step 5  \textit{IRB Review Letter}

The IRB issues an outcome letter to the principal investigator (PI). The researcher(s) may start data collection.

The review process may differ in accordance with the nature of project and the affiliation of the requestor.
### B. Unofficially Supported Research Project

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<tr>
<th>Classroom project</th>
<th>Dissertation or MA thesis</th>
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<td>Step 1 + school specific procedure (if applicable) are required but not subject to Determination, I-SRB review, or IRB review.</td>
<td>Complete SRB review (Steps 1 and 3 above) and the following additional processes.</td>
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**Site Permission**

The IRB chair submits the packet to the Commandant for a site permission letter. The permission letter should be included in the IRB review packet.

**IRB Review**

Goes through the IRB review at the university where the requestor is enrolled.

**ILAR**: Upon the IRB approvals from the affiliated university, the requestor submits the IRB approval documents to the HRPP administrator for an institutional - level administrative review (ILAR) and acquires a memo from the administrator.
NEWS AND EVENTS

The UGE schools—Asian I and II (UAA, UAB), European and Latin American (UEL), Middle East I, II, and III (UMA, UMB, UMC), Multilanguage (UML), and the Persian Farsi (UPF)—presented briefs on the status and timeline of their plans to move toward 2+/2+ academic production. The briefs began at the UPF on April 4, 2016, where the civilian and military leadership of the school shared its current plans and outlined a path toward increasing the rate of 2+/2+ results. The last in the first round of briefs ended at the Asian School I (UAA) on August 9. As planned, the briefs were informational and not decision briefs, so each school articulated its unique mission in increasing 2+/2+ results, rather than providing courses of action from which the commandant would choose.

In preparation for the briefs, the civilian and military leaders have worked vigorously to understand and distinguish facts from assumptions, both of which inform the current level of proficiency achievement at their respective schools. The informational briefs also brought together UGE school leaders and the DLIFLC senior leaders to review and analyze each program. Using the United States Army’s seven-step Military Decision Making Process (MDMP), each school has examined its students, faculty, curriculum, and resources, generating open dialogs about the planning process through mission analysis and analyses of facts and assumptions, risks and mitigations. The leadership of each school encouraged participants to consider ways to capitalize on available resources and consider further realignment of institutional support to improve results.
The briefs demonstrated open and thoughtful discussion about resources, opportunities, and challenges that we face in our pursuit of 2+/2+ rates. At COL Deppert’s urging, attendees had the opportunity to comment at each briefing, ensuring frank discussions of all aspects of the progress and challenges within each language program.

The UGE schools 2+/2+ briefs mark a starting point. The diverse needs and goals of each language program mean that although each school’s plan has unique characteristics, civilian and military personnel at each school observe and measure progress through the same lens. Despite variations, the briefs highlighted several common challenges. For example, all language programs intend to increase focus on authentic curriculum content, promoting an immersive and learner-centered learning environment. The demographic makeup of our student body must correspond with efforts to improve students’ grounding in the geopolitical and sociocultural contexts of their target language. Moreover, curriculum revisions increasingly focus on content that leads to 2+ and innovative practices that bring the digital world into the language learning environment.

Through this process, school leaders have separated tasks generated internally to achieve 2+ goals and tasks prescribed by external sources, addressing resource realignment when external demands compete with the schools’ self-determined plans. The schools’ military leadership, as full partners in developing each brief, benefited from the pedagogical considerations and discussions. In addition, first-line supervisors were also encouraged to get involved in the planning process, allowing them to see the big picture. At a recent brief, one department chair said, “We can’t stand still. We either continue to improve and enhance the program or fall behind.”

The positive tone and forward movement generated by the 2+/2+ briefs will continue, even as the first round concludes in early August. The MDMP briefs are a first step in a process, as civilian and military leaders articulate that we are serious about 2+/2+ goals for each language. In the next phase, we hope to increase input from service units and create mechanisms for increased student involvement. The continuing open communication will, as CPT Kenneth Evans, Associate Dean of the UMB, put it, “capture ideas and input from all corners, within a framework that will help us move forward with the realization of our vision.”

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

I would like to thank Dr. Mica Hall, Dr. Deanna Tovar, CPT Kenneth Evans, and Dr. Marina Cobb for their contribution to this article.
Since 2005, the Basic Courses at the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) have conducted iso-immersion (foreign language training conducted in total isolation from the English language) with a great success. The goal of iso-immersion is to help students reach higher level of language proficiency through *immersing* in the target language and culture by solving problems and completing tasks in simulated real-life scenarios that cannot be replicated in the classroom.

Currently, the Undergraduate Education (UGE) schools conduct one-day iso-immersion for students in Semester I, and two-day immersion in Semesters II and III. Whereas the one-day events are mostly held at the Presidio of Monterey (POM), the two-day events are conducted at the immersion facility at Fort Ord, where students are separated from the English-language environment. Most students who have participated in an iso-immersion event have found the immersion experience motivating and challenging. The scenario-based learning has contributed to their language acquisition and increased their knowledge of the target culture.

As the institute moves towards the new graduation requirements of 2+ in reading, 2+ in listening, and 2 in speaking on the Interagency Language Roundtable (ILR) scale, the iso-immersion format has undergone changes. In February 2016, directed by the Command Group, the UGE schools standardized the curriculum for one-day iso-immersion and added Situational Training Exercises (STX) to two-day iso-immersion. The STX focuses on military, mission-related, scenario-based activities.

The UGE schools have formed “Tiger Teams” to develop a pool of target language scenarios. By working closely with the Curriculum Support Division, school teams have standardized the curriculum for one-day events, ensuring that the scenarios are level appropriate and in accordance with the ILR guidelines, and have defined objectives and measurable outcomes. Each scenario is based on real-life situations, simulating an authentic target language community and the target culture. Students are required to follow culturally appropriate norms and behaviors while completing the tasks. In addition, teachers who play the roles of native speakers engage students in one-on-one interactions, providing ample opportunities for students to speak the target language and learn the target culture.

According to student surveys, the piloting of new scenarios has been successful. A Korean student said: “…compared to the last immersion, this one was great. There was a goal beyond just learning. We were reporters..."
trying to pin the blame on someone for a huge accident. This shaped our conversations beyond cookie cutter questions. Giving us events like this really helped us keep focused and keep the discussion going outside of the classroom, but still in Korean.”

A bigger change to the iso-immersion is the shift to the STX on Day 2. Military language instructors (MLIs) are developing scenarios with input and support from the service units. The aim of the STX is to ensure that each student interacts with the target language community by performing a series of real-world, job-related tasks. The STX increase students’ motivation and confidence in the target language, and enhance their field readiness. The Final Learning Objectives (FLO) skills (e.g., transcription, translation, and two-way interpretation) are incorporated into the STX scenarios.

Students praised the military scenarios. For example, a Chinese student commented: “[the] military portion of [the] immersion was fantastic. It was a very interesting way to engage with all factors of the job, as well as included an interesting way to engage and learn the target language… Military simulation was extremely useful and well organized.” An Egyptian student wrote that the military activities were fun and relevant and he is looking forward to the military activities in the next immersion. The students’ comments reflect the improvement in immersion scenarios designs, which is a great motivator for teachers, MLIs, and curriculum specialists who have developed and implemented these scenarios.

*Publication Workshops: Supporting Faculty in Academic Publication*

JIAYING HOWARD  
*Academic Journals, Academic Support*

Professionals and scholars contribute to field dialogs by publishing. Many would like to write but do not know where to start. The Publication Support and Mentor Committee at the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) provides a platform for faculty to share ideas on academic publishing. The committee was started in 2014 by the Provost, Dr. Leaver, to promote knowledge and information exchange in the foreign language education field, publicize the Institute’s best practices, and encourage faculty professional development.
The committee organizes quarterly workshops in which more experienced authors share tips with those who are writing or planning to write academic papers or books for publication. The workshops have attracted many participants, demonstrating the faculty’s strong commitment to enhancing knowledge in the language education field, bettering the teaching and learning practices at the institute, and continuing professional development.

During fiscal year 2016, the committee conducted seven workshops. The September 2015 workshop featured topics pursuant to obtaining permission for publications. Ms. Cutter, Director of the Public Affairs Office (PAO), described the specific requirements for authors who work for the U.S. government. Faculty who plan to publish their academic works outside of the DLI must receive clearance from the PAO. Dr. Leaver also spoke at the workshop, addressing the pros and cons of academic, commercial, and self-publishing.

Following the Faculty Development Holiday Program, the committee held two workshops in January 2016, offering advices on how to turn a presentation into a publication. Committee members, Drs. Leaver, Campbell, Franke, and Howard, shared strategies on making a paper publishable, explained the peer-review process, and provided information on publishing opportunities at the DLIFLC.

Responding to an increasing interest in academic publishing, the committee offered a series of four workshops in May and June 2016, giving in-depth information on writing and editing for academic publication. The presentations of Drs. Leaver and Howard reminded authors to consider the writing context—targeting the right audience through selecting the appropriate journals, tailoring the writing to meet the expectations of the audience, and following the discourse rules and styles in the applied linguistics field. Drs. Campbell and Franke shared their expertise on writing clearly and precisely through organization, attending to grammar and writing styles, and improving quality through careful editing.

As formal training of writing for academic publications is rare, the best way to develop academic writing skills is to start writing, and the most direct way to learn about publication is to work with an academic journal or publisher. The Institute’s Publication Support and Mentor Committee is here to assist the faculty in these matters and welcomes questions and comments about the academic publication process.
Technology Resources welcomes readers’ contributions. We are interested in brief write-ups on resources related to the foreign language education field, including hardware and software, websites, computer and mobile apps, on-line training, etc.

**RealTimeBoard: Whiteboarding on Steroids!**

SONIA ESTIMA & EDGAR ROCA  
*Faculty Development Support, Academic Support*

As faculty at the Defense Language Institute (DLI) engage in the debate over how to continuously challenge students to reach higher proficiency levels, we are constantly looking for new tools to reach those goals. One such new tool is *RealTimeBoard*, an online program that language teachers can use to foster collaboration inside and outside the classroom.

Collaborative learning requires students to work together to solve a problem. Activities that require students to justify their ideas and explain their understanding are of particular interest for language learning. Interactions that require the production of detailed explanations force the learners to clarify and reorganize ideas and, in doing so, help them solidify what they learned.

Within the framework of collaborative work, knowledge is not something that is simply transferred from one group member to another or from the teacher to the students. Rather, it is co-constructed through interactions among collaborators. Collaboration provides opportunities for peer modeling, which may be more motivating to students than reliance upon the teacher model. Finally, working with others promotes academic engagement through the added responsibility of group performance, pushing individuals to persist at difficult tasks longer than they normally would.

*RealTimeBoard* is a new platform for brainstorming, planning, organizing thoughts, reviewing and providing feedback to one another. It is a virtual blank space where collaborators can type, draw, post notes, and add pictures, videos, and documents. This is a great medium for teachers and
students to work together, from generating simple mind maps to solving complex problems.

*RealTimeBoard* offers a visual space where the user can upload content from various sources (pictures, documents, PDFs, Google Drive files, etc.). It allows users to conduct discussions in real time or asynchronously via comments or chat. Since *RealTimeBoard* is web-based, it can be used with iPads, MacBook Pros, or PCs. Educators and students are eligible for the Educational Account, free of charge, which allows an unlimited number of boards and unlimited collaborators. To apply, simply complete the form found under the *Education* tab, using your .edu email address.

Many DLI teachers have already discovered the benefits of online whiteboards and are currently using other programs such as Linoit and BaiBoard. All collaborative whiteboard programs allow teachers to set up activities to promote student interaction. The main advantage of *RealTimeBoard* is its flexibility and the variety of available tools and capabilities. Like Linoit, it allows the user to post notes and a lot more. One major feature of this program is the infinite canvas: students and collaborators will never run out of space. The same canvas can be used for an entire semester and activities and materials can be added indefinitely.

Another advantage of *RealTimeBoard* over Linoit is the freehand drawing, giving the user greater input flexibility. In addition, the program has a Presentation Mode, where users can show their work to the rest of the class and control the board. The program also offers pre-made templates for creating Venn diagrams and mind maps to help organize and visualize information.

![Screen shot of RealTimeBoard](image.jpg)

⇒ The canvas is infinite, so you never run out of space.

*Figure 1*

*Screen shot of RealTimeBoard*
RealTimeBoard also has the capability to save each canvas and export it as an image or PDF file. In addition, since the program is Cloud-based, there is no need to download or install anything. Students can collaborate by posting notes and commenting on one another’s work or they can engage in live chat.

The educational possibilities for RealtimeBoard are limited only by one’s imagination. Teachers can post authentic materials and resources and invite the students to comment, share opinions, or answer discussion questions, and then respond to one another. It can also help teachers design flipped lessons by posting pre-lesson resource materials for students prior to class time. Later in class, students discuss and use the previously provided material to create a shared product or solve a problem collectively. Alternatively, the students can research an issue or problem and then post their findings on the board. Later, students can read each other’s posts and comment synchronously or asynchronously.

For more information about RealtimeBoard, visit: http://www.slideshare.net/RealtimeBoard/realtimeboard-for-education

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**Dialog on Language Instruction**

welcomes reviews of

- books
- textbooks
- scholarly works
- dictionaries
- tests
- computer and mobile applications
- audio-visual materials
- print or non-print media on foreign language education
Lang-8: A Language Learning Tool

MIHYANG ALWILL
Asian School II, Undergraduate Education

WeSpeke, Speaky, HiNative, Tandem, and HelloTalk are commonly used language-learning tools, allowing interaction between native speakers and language learners. Lang-8 is another user-friendly language-learning exchange website. Unlike some websites catering to English learners, Lang-8 has many users who are learning languages other than English; namely, Korean, Japanese, Chinese, French, and Spanish. Lang-8 is a virtual community where foreign language learners share language talents and exchange their native language expertise, helping one another in language learning. There are more than 750,000 Lang-8 users from more than 190 countries (Lang-8, 2014). In Lang-8, once a language learner posts an entry (a simple sentence, a journal entry, an essay, etc.) in the target language, a native speaker of that language, who is also a learner of another language, provides feedback. All users can correct one another’s language entry, and have their own posts in the target language corrected. They may also chat in a group or an individual chat room.

My student J has used Lang-8. His experience demonstrates how Lang-8 works. J was learning Unit 6 – The three-semester Korean Basic course uses an eighteen-unit textbook series in accordance with the following schedule: Units 1 to 7 for the 1st semester; Units 8 to 14 for the 2nd semester; and Units 15 to 18 for the 3rd semester. J posted two articles, the first about how he spent last Christmas with his family; and the second, about his spending habits relevant to the lesson topic (see Figure 1).
Here is the English translation of J’s first post.

Every Christmas, I get up early and I and my siblings wait until my parents wake up. While waiting, my sister prepares breakfast. When my parents wake up, we eat breakfast and we receive and give presents. And then, we use the new presents until afternoon…

Figure 2 shows the comments about J’s writing. If there are mistakes, a native speaker writes the correct sentence underneath the problematic sentence, which is indicated by a checkmark, inserted at the beginning of the sentence.
A native Korean speaker corrected words and phrases in J’s writing, added an honorific marker 시 to the verbal phrase “wake up”, changed the word order from “receive and give presents” to “give and receive presents”, taught J to write in the Korean way of dropping the subject when it is understood from the context, and inserted a topic marker 는. J also learned the appropriate register through another Lang-8 user comment: In Korea, we use polite forms for our parents. Usually, Korean people speak more specifically about their siblings, such as my sister. In summary, the feedback J got included choice of words, the use of markers (for the subject, the object, the topic), word order, and the register.

J has posted written homework, lesson summaries, and what he wants to say in Lang-8. He believes it is the best way to learn. J is one of the top students in class and his writing is above the Semester One level. This example shows that language learners can benefit from language-exchange network, which facilitates peer-to-peer learning, allows learners to focus on their needs, and provides opportunities to interact with native speakers.

**REFERENCE**

## UPCOMING EVENTS

### 2016

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DATE</th>
<th>EVENT</th>
<th>LOCATION</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>November 17-20</td>
<td>Middle East Studies Association (MESA) Annual Meeting, Boston, MA.</td>
<td></td>
<td>mesana.org/annual-meeting/upcoming.html</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>November 18-20</td>
<td>American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages Annual Convention (ACTFL), Boston, MA.</td>
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<td><a href="http://www.actfl.org">www.actfl.org</a></td>
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<tr>
<td>November 18-20</td>
<td>Chinese Language Teachers Association (CLTA) Annual Conference, Boston, MA.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>November 18-20</td>
<td>American Association of Teachers of Japanese (AATJ) Fall Conference, Boston, MA.</td>
<td></td>
<td><a href="http://www.aatj.org">www.aatj.org</a></td>
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### 2017

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<tr>
<td>January 5-8</td>
<td>Linguistic Society of American (LSA) Annual Meeting, Austin, TX.</td>
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<td><a href="http://www.linguisticsociety.org">www.linguisticsociety.org</a></td>
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<tr>
<td>January 5-8</td>
<td>Modern Language Association (MLA) Convention, Philadelphia, PA.</td>
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<td><a href="http://www.mla.org/convention">www.mla.org/convention</a></td>
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</table>
### FEBRUARY

**February 2-5**  
American Association of Teachers of Slavic and East European Languages (AATSEEL), San Francisco, CA.  
Information: [www.aatseel.org](http://www.aatseel.org)

**February 16-19**  
California Language Teachers’ Association Annual Conference, Monterey, CA.  
Information: [http://clta.net/future-conferences/](http://clta.net/future-conferences/)

**February 26-27**  
19th International Conference on Linguistics, Language Teaching and Learning, Barcelona, Spain.  
Information: [www.waset.org/conference/2017/02/barcelona/ICLLTL/home](http://www.waset.org/conference/2017/02/barcelona/ICLLTL/home)

### MARCH

**March 9-11**  
Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (CSCTFL), Chicago, IL.  
Information: [www.csctfl.org](http://www.csctfl.org)

**March 16-18**  
Southern Conference on Language Teaching (SCOLT), Orlando, FL.  
Information: [www.scolt.org](http://www.scolt.org)

**March 18-21**  
American Association for Applied Linguistics (AAAL), Portland, OR.  
Information: [www.aaal.org](http://www.aaal.org)

**March 21-24**  
Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) International Convention, Seattle, WA.  
Information: [www.tesol.org](http://www.tesol.org)

### APRIL

**April 27 – May 1**  
Information: [www.aera.net](http://www.aera.net)

### MAY

**May 16-18**  
Computer-Assisted Language Instruction Consortium (CALICO) annual conference. Flagstaff, AZ.  
Information: [calico.org](http://calico.org)

**May 28-June 2**  
NAFSA: Association of International Educators Annual Conference and Expo, Los Angeles, CA.  
Information: [www.nafsa.org](http://www.nafsa.org)
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<tr>
<td>JUNE</td>
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<tr>
<td>June 15-17</td>
<td>International Society for Language Studies (ISLS) Annual Conference, Honolulu, HI.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Information: <a href="http://www.isls.co/index.html">www.isls.co/index.html</a></td>
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<td>JULY</td>
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<td>July 16-19</td>
<td>American Association of Teachers of French (AATF) 2016 conference, St Louis, MO.</td>
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<td>Information: <a href="http://www.frenchteachers.org">www.frenchteachers.org</a></td>
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</table>
INFORMATION FOR CONTRIBUTORS

Submission Information

Aims and Scope

The publication of this internal academic journal is to increase and share professional knowledge and information among Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) faculty and staff, as well as to promote professional communication within the Defense Language Program.

*Dialog on Language Instruction* is a refereed journal devoted to applied research into all aspects of innovation in language learning and teaching. It publishes research articles, review articles, and book/materials reviews. The community-oriented columns – Faculty Forum, News and Views, Quick Tips, and Resources – provide a platform for faculty and staff to exchange professional information, ideas, and views. *Dialog on Language Instruction* prefers its contributors to provide articles that have a sound theoretical base with a visible practical application which can be generalized.

Submission Requirement

*Dialog on Language Instruction* publishes only original works that have not been previously published elsewhere and that are not under consideration by other publications. Reprints may be considered, under special circumstances, with the consent of the author(s) and/or publisher.

Send all submissions electronically to the Editor: jiaying.howard@dliflc.edu.

Review Process

Manuscripts will be acknowledged by the editor upon receipt and subsequently screened and sent out for peer review. Authors will be informed about the status of the article once the peer reviews have been received and processed. Reviewer comments will be shared with the authors.

Accepted Manuscripts: Once an article has been accepted for publication, the author will receive further instructions regarding the submission of the final copy.
Rejected Manuscripts: Manuscripts may be rejected for the following reasons:

- Inappropriate/unsuitable topic for DLIFLC;
- Lack of purpose or significance;
- Lack of originality and novelty;
- Flaws in study/research design/methods;
- Irrelevance to contemporary research/dialogs in the foreign language education profession;
- Poor organization of material;
- Deficiencies in writing; and
- Inadequate manuscript preparation.

Once the editor notifies the author that the manuscript is unacceptable, that ends the review process.

In some cases, an author whose manuscript has been rejected may decide to revise it and resubmit. However, as the quality of the revision is unpredictable, no promise may be made by this publication pursuant to reconsideration.

Specifications for Manuscripts

Prepare the manuscripts in accordance with the following requirements:

- Follow APA style (the 6th Edition) – the style set by the American Psychological Association;
- Do not exceed 6,000 words for research articles (not including reference, appendix, etc.);
- Use double spacing, with margins of one inch on four sides;
- Use Times New Roman font, size 12;
- Number pages consecutively;
- In black and white only, including tables and graphics;
- Create graphics and tables in a Microsoft Office application (Word, PowerPoint, Excel);
- Provide graphics and tables no more than 4.5” in width;
- Do not use the footnotes and endnotes function in MS Word. Insert a number formatted in superscript following a punctuation mark. Type notes on a separate page. Center the word “Notes” at the top of the page. Indent five spaces on the first line of each sequentially-numbered note; and
- Keep the layout of the text as simple as possible.

Correspondence

Contact the Editor: jiaying.howard@dliflc.edu
First, decide for which column you would like to write: Research Articles, Review Articles, Reviews, Faculty Forum, News and Reports, Quick Tips, or Resources. Refer to the following pages for the specific requirement of each type of article.

**Guidelines for Manuscript Preparation**

**Research Articles**

Divide your manuscript into the following sections, and in this order:

1. Title and Author Information
2. Abstract
3. Body of the text, including:
   - Acknowledgements (optional)
   - Notes (optional)
   - References
   - Tables and figures (optional)
   - Appendixes (optional)

Ensure that your article has the following structure:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Content</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cover Page</strong></td>
<td>Type the title of the article and the author’s name, position, school/department/office, contact information on a separate page to ensure anonymity in the review process. See the example below:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Foster Learner Autonomy in Project-based Learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>JANE, DOE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Assistant Professor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Persian-Farsi School, UGE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><a href="mailto:jane.doe@dliflc.edu">jane.doe@dliflc.edu</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>831-242-3333</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Abstract</strong></td>
<td>Briefly state the purpose of the study, the principal results, and major conclusions in a concise and factual abstract of no more than 300 words.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Introduction</strong></td>
<td>State the objectives, hypothesis, and research design. Provide adequate background information, but avoid a detailed literature survey or a summary of the results.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Literature Review</strong></td>
<td>Discuss the work that has had a direct impact on your study. Cite only research pertinent to a specific issue and avoid references with only tangential or general significance. Emphasize pertinent findings and relevant methodological issues. Provide the logical continuity between previous and present work.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Section</td>
<td>Description</td>
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<td>---------------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Method</strong></td>
<td>State the hypothesis of your study. Describe how you conducted the study. Give a brief synopsis of the methodology. Provide sufficient detail to allow the work to be replicated. You may develop the subsections pertaining to the participants, the materials, and the procedure.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Participants</strong></td>
<td>Identify the number and type of participants. Indicate how they were selected. Provide major demographic characteristics.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Materials</strong></td>
<td>Briefly describe the materials used and their function in the experiment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Procedure</strong></td>
<td>Describe each step in conducting the research, including the instructions to the participants, the formation of the groups, and the specific experimental manipulations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Results</strong></td>
<td>State the results and describe them to justify the findings. Mention all relevant results, including those that run counter to the hypothesis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Discussion</strong></td>
<td>Explore the significance of the results of the work, but do not repeat them. A combined Results and Discussion section is often appropriate. Avoid extensive citations and discussion of published literature.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Conclusion</strong></td>
<td>Describe the contribution of the study to the field. Identify conclusions and theoretical implications that can be drawn from your study. Do not simply repeat earlier sections.</td>
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<td><strong>Acknowledgments</strong></td>
<td>Identify those colleagues who may have contributed to the study and assisted you in preparing the manuscript.</td>
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<td><strong>Notes</strong></td>
<td>Use sparingly. Number them consecutively throughout the article. They should be listed on a separate page, which is to be entitled Notes.</td>
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<td><strong>References</strong></td>
<td>Submit on a separate page with the heading: References. References should be arranged first alphabetically, and then sorted chronologically if necessary. More than one reference from the same author(s) in the same year must be identified by the letter ‘a’, ‘b’, ‘c’, etc., placed after the year of publication.</td>
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<td><strong>Appendix</strong></td>
<td>Place detailed information (such as a sample of a questionnaire, a table, or a list) that would be distracting to read in the main body of the article.</td>
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Review Articles

It should describe, discuss, and evaluate several publications that fall into a topical category in foreign language education. The relative significance of the publications in the context of teaching realms should be pointed out. A review article should not exceed 6,000 words.

Reviews

Reviews of books, textbooks, scholarly works, dictionaries, tests, computer software, audio-visual materials, and other print or non-print materials on foreign language education will be considered for publication. Give a clear but brief statement of the work’s content and a critical assessment of its contribution to the profession. State both positive and negative aspects of the work(s). Keep quotations short. Do not send reviews that are merely descriptive. Reviews should not exceed 2,000 words.

Faculty Forum

This section provides an opportunity for faculty, through brief articles, to share ideas and exchange views on innovative foreign language education practices, or to comment on articles in previous issues or on matters of general academic interest. Forum articles should not exceed 2,000 words.

News and Events

Reports on conferences, official trips, official visitors, special events, new instructional techniques, training opportunities, news items, etc. Reports should not exceed 1,000 words.

Quick Tips

Previously unpublished, original or innovative, easy to follow ideas for use in the language classroom or in any aspect of foreign language learning and teaching, such as technology tips, useful classroom activities, learner training tips, etc. (Examples include: Five strategies for a positive learning environment; Using iPad to develop instructional video; Four effective strategies for improving listening – tips that your colleagues can easily adapt to their classrooms). Tips should not exceed 800 words.

Resources

Brief write-ups on resources related to the foreign language education field, such as books, audio/video materials, tests, research reports, websites, computer and mobile apps, etc. Write-ups should not exceed 800 words.
CALL FOR PAPERS

*Dialog on Language Instruction* is an occasional, internal publication of the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) and part of its professional development program. It provides a forum for faculty and staff at DLIFLC to exchange professional information. *Dialog* encourages submission of articles, reviews, forum articles, brief news items, quick tips, or resources.

**Deadline:** Submissions are welcome at any point. Manuscripts received by [31 January](#) will be considered for the fall issue and by [31 July](#) for the spring issue.

For guidelines in the preparation of your manuscript, please refer to the previous section (pp. 98-102): *Information for Contributors.*
THANK YOU

*Dialog on Language Instruction* relies on peer review for quality and suitability to the journal’s aims and scope. Special thanks go to the colleagues listed below, who volunteered their time and expertise to serve as reviewers and consultants in fiscal year 2016. The publication of *Dialog on Language Instruction* was made possible with their generous support.

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