Dialog on Language Instruction
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Editor
Jiaying Howard

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Dear Readers,

Welcome to this issue of *Dialog on Language Instruction*—and what a rich issue it is. It definitely has something for everyone, whether you are interested in technology, basic course methodology, or teaching to upper levels, it is here. News, tips, and an introduction to the new Deans’ Council chair—yes, all here, too. And, if you would like to know more about how to go about publishing, there is even information about the Publications Committee, which was set up to support and educate those who are new to the publishing world.

Many thanks to those who have put in the time to prepare these articles. Many thanks as well to the reviewers and journal staff. Putting out a journal takes a lot of work. We are beholden our colleagues who are willing to volunteer their time to this endeavor.

To those watching from the wings, read these fine articles and use the information in them to improve your teaching, which is why they are being shared. Next issue, though, please think, “Now it is my turn to share.” We all have stories and ideas. We all have experiences to share. I encourage you to take the next step toward a broad sharing of yours—what you have learned and what you do, through *Dialog on Language Instruction*.

And now, happy reading!

BETTY L. LEAVER
Provost
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 for this issue. The publication of *Dialog on Language Instruction* was made possible with their generous support.

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Empowering Learners via Technology: The Views of UEL Teachers

IVANISA FERRER
Faculty Development Support, Academic Support

The purpose of this qualitative study was to explore teachers’ views on technology integration in the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) language classroom. It used a case study approach to explore teachers’ views on factors affecting technology use at the DLIFLC and the decisions they face regarding their teaching, learners, and technology integration. Twelve teachers from the European and Latin American School (UEL) volunteered to be interviewed. The interview questions explored how teachers were using technology for instruction, how motivated they were to integrate technology in instruction, and the main strengths and weaknesses of using technology for language teaching. The findings revealed that participants were pleased with the use of technology for language education and believed that technology may help access authentic resources. Participants identified technology as an important partner in implementing preferred teaching philosophies but recognized deterrents in fully integrating technology into the curriculum. Effective technology users investigate new ways and reflect on technological use and its impact on students’ empowerment.

INTRODUCTION

The importance of technology integration to support independent language learners at the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) is compatible with findings from second language acquisition research, which indicates the need for authentic, interactive communication to improve language skills (Golonka, Bowles, Frank, Richardson, & Freynik, 2014). The use of technology in the language classroom provides interesting ways to connect students with the target language and culture and facilitates the
establishment of teaching communities that individualize learning (Chen, 2013). Providing valuable opportunities for language practice, technology empowers students to control their learning (Benson & Voller, 2014). Technology also allows language teachers to differentiate instruction and to expand the borders of the classroom, connecting learners with native speakers. Following a constructivist approach to knowledge, where the learner is engaged in authentic learning experiences and has the opportunity to interact with other learners in a customized environment, technology may take learners to new levels, fulfilling the mission of continuous learning.

Although success in learning a new language is attributed to personal factors such as aptitude and motivation, Ertmer, Ottenbreit-Leftwich, Sadik, Sendurur and Sendurur (2012) posited that teachers’ views about the relevance of technology make one of the largest impacts on learning. Technology empowers language educators and students, allowing access to communicative mediums, such as discussion boards, which promote fluid learning environments. Emphasis on technology integration to develop autonomous learners at the DLIFLC highlights the importance of understanding teachers’ views and perceptions regarding technology adoption as a rich resource for authentic language learning. Knowing how technology may be used in the classroom facilitates the learning environment.

Whereas other studies have explored factors influencing teachers’ technology integration efforts and their views on technology in different contexts (Ertmer & Ottenbreit-Leftwich, 2013; Kopcha, 2012), this study focuses on teachers’ views about the widespread adoption of technology at the DLIFLC. Data from this study provide valuable insights into how a group of teachers at the European and Latin American School (UEL) perceive technology in language learning and teaching, which could provide an empirical basis for curriculum design and future research.

This qualitative study explored teachers’ views of the role of technology in the language classroom and how those views influence technology adoption in the classroom. The teachers were from different language programs at UEL, offering a wide variety of perspectives. The study used a multiple case study approach, with data collected by interviews, to investigate teachers’ views on factors affecting technology use at UEL and their decision-making on teaching, learners, and technology integration. For the purpose of this study, the term technology refers to digital technologies, such as computers, iPad, SmartBoad and similar devices, as well as Web 2.0 tools.

The research questions guiding the study were as follows:

Q1. What are the UEL teachers’ views of the role of technology in classroom instruction?

Q2. How do the UEL teachers’ views influence technology adoption in the classroom?
LITERATURE REVIEW

Understanding teachers’ beliefs about education, including how they integrate technology, may help explain why instructional decisions are made. Beeson (2013) explained that teachers’ beliefs strongly affect and predict their behavior. Guiding the study was a conceptual framework that suggests that both teachers’ beliefs about technology and their knowledge of learners influence decision-making during course planning. Along with knowledge of technological integration, beliefs play a role in the way they integrate technology into instruction (Ertmer et al., 2010). Ertmer et al. examined technology integration through the lens of the teacher as an agent of change. Their study focused on four variables of change—knowledge, self-efficacy, pedagogical beliefs, and school culture. They stated that teachers’ beliefs must change to incorporate the notion that the use of information and communication technologies to enable student learning is necessary for effective teaching.

When reflecting on education with technology as an epistemology, teaching requires instructors to move beyond traditional models of pedagogy into new practices that emphasize a sense of community among participants (Barber, Taylor, & Buchanan, 2014). Learners become knowledgeable, skillful members of a community when performing authentic activities as part of a group. Boyle and Ravenscroft (2012) emphasized the importance of contextualized environments as the central unit for deep learning. Learners realize that others encounter the same issues they face and that helps them to refocus and recharge. Rausch and Crawford (2012) posited that, while refocusing, students adopt communities of learning to create the situations appropriate to generate new knowledge through interactions among learners, between instructors and learners, between learners and learning resources. Collaboration is vital for the development of communities that will use higher level thinking skills to acquire deeper levels of understanding. Taatila and Raij (2012) explained that teachers should provide space for students and facilitate knowledge-construction processes in relation to practical experience. In doing so, teachers and students become partners in learning, acting together, and discovering new ways of thinking.

When adults are in a classroom they need to be more than recipients of knowledge. Students need to be actively involved in the learning process to construct their own knowledge, to make sense of learning, and to apply what is learned (Chan, 2010). Instructors use technology to become facilitators of the learning process, and learners are active participants. As such, instructors’ roles change to promote opportunities for learners to expand knowledge in an active and engaged format. Instructors are mindful that students are different in terms of individual experiences and backgrounds. As the learner plays a central role in mediating and controlling learning activities, opportunities and tools should be provided to promote metacognition and reflection on their learning and self-awareness. As such, self-awareness is one of the most significant contributions
of the theory, where learners understand their role in the knowledge development process (Ohata & Fukao, 2014).

Given that individual development is dependent upon exploration of new concepts, reflections on experiences, and other learners’ ideas, students should learn from interactions. Teo (2012) observed that teachers can use various approaches to promote engaging learning experiences with technology. Although some teachers limit the use of technology for presenting subject matter, others provide students with the full experience of technology resources. He conjectured that teachers’ beliefs about teaching and learning influence their technology use for instructional purposes. Anderson, Barham, and Northcote (2013) confirmed that teachers’ use of technology is informed by their pedagogical approaches and their mastery of content. Hutchison and Reinking (2011) investigated how teachers integrate technology into instruction and how they perceive the importance of this integration. They explained that teachers develop a technology-supported pedagogy gradually, increasing the level of technology adoption the more they perceive the link between technology and the subject matter. Likewise, Guichon and Hauck (2011) posited that teachers’ beliefs about technology are changing their perceptions of language education. They confirmed that the integration of technology into teacher education courses has progressed rapidly.

Conceptual change is the replacement or reinterpretation of prior concepts that provide new perspectives for investigating and observing the world around us (Studnicki, 2012). Studnicki (2012) explained that technology is different from prior innovative tools in education, crossing social, economic, and global boundaries. Technology changes students’ perceptions and learning styles and teachers’ instructional style. Web 2.0 mobile technologies have been instrumental in supporting such changes. Cochrane (2011) reflected upon the integration and support of mobile Web 2.0 projects and how they are changing the pedagogy for education. Cochrane used several participatory action research and mobile learning projects to understand the implications and strategies for facilitating social learning environments. The results confirmed that mobile Web 2.0 support has been influential in developing new learning strategies with new pedagogical assumptions.

Like other educators, language teachers are under pressure to integrate technology and new pedagogies into their classrooms and, for these reasons, there seems to be a tendency for teachers to assimilate both technological and pedagogical innovations into existing practices rather than to adapt teaching to accommodate learning objectives. Whyte and Alexander (2014) sought the reasons for some teachers not to integrate technology by investigating attitudes and reflections. The researchers identified several connections between teachers’ technical skills and pedagogical beliefs. The study demonstrated how the classroom practice of experienced technology users evolved in terms of both the technological advantages exploited and the task-based orientation of teaching.

Saglam and Sert (2012) analyzed the perceptions of nine teachers about the work demands of using technology in the language classroom. Although the
teachers supported the role of educational technology for enhancing language instruction, they faced challenges that could only be overcome with technology training. They used technology for a multitude of purposes, such as 1) to integrate academic and linguistic skills; 2) to encourage students to construct knowledge; 3) to expose students to skills and strategies for life-long learning; 4) to provide the flexibility to cater to students’ different learning styles; 5) to find and develop teaching materials; and 6) to create a motivating environment for learning. Perhaps the most significant lesson was that, in addition to using technology to teach subject matter in an integrated way, teachers also used technology to extend the boundaries of their classes—learners had opportunities to explore the subject matter outside the classroom.

METHODS

A qualitative method was selected for this study to identify and understand essential attributes and relationships that explain the DLIFLC’s technology use from a faculty perspective. The qualitative data analysis provided ways of examining, comparing and contrasting, and interpreting emerged themes (Yin, 2009). Interviews were used to collect data. The data showed evident themes that would lead to a thorough explanation and understanding of teacher beliefs regarding the efficacious use of instructional technology, and the role the beliefs play in making decisions to incorporate technology into the curriculum. The interview questions (Appendix A) also explored teachers’ motivation in technological integration and the main strengths and weaknesses of using technology for language teaching.

The number of participants to be included in this study was a difficult decision because no upper or lower limits were considered. One participant would be sufficient for a case study as posited by Yin (2009). As twelve teachers from the European and Latin American School (UEL) volunteered to participate, all of them were interviewed. Consequently, a cross case analysis was appropriate to explore how the cases compare.

Participants

The population for this study consisted of language educators who teach foreign languages to military personnel and students sponsored by government agencies. More than 1,700 teachers teach two dozen languages to 3,500 military students at the DLIFLC. Foreign language teachers are a diverse group of educators from various cultural backgrounds.

Twelve teachers from the European and Latin American School (Spanish, French, German, Hebrew, Serbian-Croatian, Russian, and Portuguese) volunteered to participate in the case study. The research questions guided the decision to include twelve case studies. Given Yin’s assumption, this case study used saturation to determine when the number of case studies had exhausted the uniqueness of the data collected.
Materials/Instruments

Interviews were conducted to understand how technology was used in the UEL environment. The interviews were semi-structured to ensure that participants discussed key issues and were encouraged to make open-ended comments on relevant issues. The interview protocol was developed by the researcher and pilot tested for accuracy, understandability, and flow in order to increase reliability. To ensure content and construct validity, face-to-face interview protocol and questions underwent expert review and field-testing with non-research participants. The researcher invited three teachers from the UEL to preview the interview questions protocol. As qualitative research increases the chances that a researcher’s personal biases could affect results (Stake, 1995), the researcher made her motivations known so that her reasons in interpreting teachers’ perceptions of technology in language education could be understood.

Data Collection, Processing and Analysis

A multiple case study methodology was used. Semi-structured interviews, scheduled according to participants’ availability, were conducted in person. Interviews were digitally recorded, without video recording. Once responses were transcribed, the researcher reviewed all data to obtain a general sense of the information and to reflect on overall meaning. The information from the interviews was coded through a systematic process of analyzing textual data with Nvivo (2014).

To maintain validity and reliability, this study adhered to the following principles (Yin, 2009): 1) it used multiple sources of evidence to develop converging lines of inquiry aimed at collaborating the same fact or phenomenon; 2) it used a case study database—a formal database consisting of notes and interviews, so that other investigators could review the evidence directly and not be limited to the written case study report—connecting pertinent issues, through adequate citations, to specific evidence; and 3) it maintained a chain of evidence ensuring facts of the case receive the necessary attention and that no piece of evidence, either through carelessness or bias, failed to be considered. To maintain the chain of evidence, the initial research questions were related to the case study protocol and the research protocol was associated with the data collection method. A cross-case analysis explored how the twelve cases compared, again building the evidence base for the current phenomenon, as suggested by Yin (2009).
RESULTS

Although demographic information of the participants was not necessary to answer the research questions, this knowledge would give readers a more comprehensive understanding of their responses and perceptions. The data were collected via questionnaire. Table 1 shows the demographic characteristics of each participant interviewed, as follows: a) Age; b) Highest Level of Education; and c) Years of Teaching Experience. BA stands for Bachelor of Arts, MA for Master of Arts, and PhD for Doctor of Philosophy.

Table 1
Participant Demographics (n =12)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Highest Degree</th>
<th>Years of Teaching</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>50+</td>
<td>MA</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>30-39</td>
<td>PhD</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>40-49</td>
<td>BA</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>50+</td>
<td>PhD</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>50+</td>
<td>MA</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>50+</td>
<td>MA</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>30-39</td>
<td>MA</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H</td>
<td>50+</td>
<td>MA</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>MA</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J</td>
<td>40-49</td>
<td>BA</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K</td>
<td>40-49</td>
<td>MA</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L</td>
<td>40-49</td>
<td>BA</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 displays the key themes participants discussed in regards to teachers’ views of the role of technology in classroom instruction. Participant frequency is the number of participants that mentioned the theme. Overall frequency is the total number of mentions of a theme by all participants. Highest frequency is the highest number of mentions by a single participant. Accessibility of resources and the perception that technology is a tool were the most cited themes, with participant frequencies of 12, overall frequency of 37, and highest frequency of 6 and 7, respectively.
Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key Themes</th>
<th>Participant Frequency</th>
<th>Overall Frequency</th>
<th>Highest Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Technology is a tool</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accessibility of resources</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of reliability</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students’ engagement (positive or negative)</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students’ expectations</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Role of Technology in Instruction

All teachers in the case study perceived the ability to find materials easily (Key Theme: Accessibility of Resources) and its usefulness to access authentic materials as the main benefits of technology for language teaching. Participant A affirmed that technology is a great resource that has helped language learning tremendously. However, she also discussed the negatives because technology integration in the language classroom may be a distraction for learners. Similarly, Participant C disliked the use of technology for the purpose of including it in a lesson because she likes to work with pen and paper as well. Participant F agreed that technology should be used with the purpose of helping students learn, not just for the sake of using technology.

One of the most prevalent reasons teachers used technology for instruction is the assumption that they need to meet students’ expectations regarding technology integration. Some teachers pondered the way technology is being used for language education, and wondered if it is evolving too fast and becoming increasingly complicated. However, teachers understand that technology has a role in language education, even if it generates additional inconveniences for them.

Participant B explained that technology could affect students’ engagement in positive and negative ways. Technology enables students to find resources on the Internet that could promote engagement. Using technology in class could make the lesson more student-centered where students would be more engaged with the language. Likewise, Participant H explained that it is important for teachers to select materials appropriate for skill levels and interest to further their engagement. Participant F mentioned that a positive experience occurs when students are engaged, feel in control, and understand the technology being used.

Among the eight participants that cited engagement with technology as a justification for technology adoption, five cited positive engagement with technology as an enabler of technology integration. Those participants mentioned the advantage of using SMART technologies, a popular collaborative
learning software, to present lessons. Participants revealed that *SmartBoard* was used to present materials and *SMART Notebook* to conduct grammar or vocabulary exercises. Likewise, *Linoit* and *Google Maps* were two of the most-mentioned applications used by teachers. Three participants, however, held that negative engagement with technology was a deterrent to technology integration. Students could get distracted when directed to online searches. The lack of technology reliability was also identified as discouraging. They explained that spending limited time on developing additional resources (as backup in case of a technology breakdown) was not motivating, especially if students still have negative engagement with the technology.

All teachers participating in this study agreed that technology offers additional tools that may help them achieve teaching objectives. However, an overdependence on technology is common, which could be a disadvantage. Participant H believed that besides authentic resources for all skills, the use of technology provides rich environments for immersion and gives students cultural experiences. In addition, Participant I added that technology, a useful and fun tool, could promote faster language acquisition when language tasks are properly developed. Meanwhile, participants noted that technology does not always work, and a backup plan is needed. What is one to do when the system is down, audios cannot be played, or online searches are not functional? Participant L shared concerns about the over-dependency on technology as language teachers must access authentic resources. The increased availability of online resources provided new opportunities for self-directed learning but might generate over-dependency because of easy access.

Participants’ comments regarding the role of technology in classroom instruction indicated four major themes (technology viewed as a tool, accessibility of resources, lack of reliability, and students’ engagement) and one minor theme (students’ expectations). Figure 1 represents the cross-case data, identifying the themes raised by the participants.

![Figure 1](attachment:image.png)

*Figure 1*

*Key Themes Regarding the Role of Technology in Instruction*
Table 3 displays the key themes in teachers’ views influencing technology adoption, including participant, overall, and highest frequencies. Participants showed confidence in technology as a support for their preferred teaching philosophies and methods. The theme cited most was student-centered instruction, with a participant frequency of 12, overall frequency of 34, and highest frequency of 7.

Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key Themes</th>
<th>Participant Frequency</th>
<th>Overall Frequency</th>
<th>Highest Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Student-centered classroom</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students in control/in charge of learning</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reaching higher levels</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task-based instruction</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communicative method</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Technology Adoption and Teaching Philosophies

Teachers identified task-based instruction, information gap activities, and the communicative approach as language teaching philosophies. They regarded technology as an important partner in implementing teaching philosophies and methods. Participant H believed that technology is an effective tool to support a communicative approach of teaching.

Technology can help because so much of the target language culture is accessible at once to students. For example, I could give students a task, an assignment that they need to use their iPad, to do some research on the Internet to look for information. After their research I could ask them to share that information with colleagues. In that sense, technology is very, very helpful for language teaching and learning.

Among the twelve participants who mentioned student-centered classroom as a justification for technology adoption, three cited both task-based instruction and communicative method as enablers of technology integration. They stated that technology was helpful to promote student-centered environments and to increase student autonomy. Participants also held that information gap activities, assisted by radio broadcasts or SCOLA, encouraged production of language. Student-centered learning begins when students develop effective strategies to pursue and improve learning. To develop metacognitive knowledge, teachers may ask students to write about their learning processes on wikis and blogs. This self-reflection is an important component of learning how
to learn. For teachers, it means establishing objectives that help learners define personal goals and to acquire learning independence.

Participant F agreed that technology could offer tools and materials that allow students to take charge of their learning, to be engaged in lessons, and to achieve higher levels of language proficiency. Participant D also agreed that the Internet might help students acquire background knowledge, an important component of achieving higher levels of thinking and language proficiency. However, participants had reservations about the relationship between higher-level thinking and proficiency. They observed that what prevents students from achieving a higher level of proficiency is not necessarily the lack of higher-level thinking but limited vocabulary.

The participants’ views on technology adoption indicated four major themes (Student-centered classroom, Students in control of learning, Reaching higher levels, and Task based-instruction) and one minor theme (Communicative method). Figure 2 represents the cross-case data, identifying the themes raised by the participants.

![Figure 2](image)

*Key Themes Regarding Teachers’ Views of Technology Adoption*

**DISCUSSION**

The objective of this qualitative approach was to provide elements that would lead to a thorough explanation and understanding of teachers’ views of the use of technology and the role these views play in making decisions on incorporating this tool into the curriculum. The first research question addressed teachers’ perceptions of technology use for language education. Results aligned to current research on technology for language instruction. Researchers have demonstrated that teachers recognize that they could rely on technology to communicate in meaningful ways with digital natives—those born or brought up during the age of digital technology and therefore familiar with computers and the Internet from an early age (Merç, 2015; Richards, 2014). As the world
becomes more technologically focused, teachers felt that they should include more technology in their lessons, from computers to Web 2.0 tools, to meet student expectations and to increase student motivation. Critical to the maintenance of motivation were their relationships with the course material, with other students, and with the instructor. Teachers acknowledged the importance of technology for the development of instruction, which could promote student engagement and motivation. Despite teachers’ objectives to promote positive engagement and language acquisition, negative engagement could happen—students may become distracted when researching topics online.

Technology allows teachers and learners to locate authentic resources easily. Classes are enhanced when materials are quickly found and updated. All teachers in this study perceived the ability to find authentic online resources as the main benefit of technology for language teaching. The Internet plays a significant role in validating a wider range of resources.

Interview results indicated that some teachers perceived technology as a way of expanding the classroom. Using various applications such as Skype and FaceTime, students may connect with native speakers around the world. Lockley (2011) claimed that using technology made it possible for language learners to engage in active interaction with beneficial outcomes. One way to expand classroom time is by exploring the Sakai environment. Sakai, used by the DLIFLC since 2011, is an open source class management system that enhances teaching, learning, collaboration, and research. Teachers mentioned that Sakai allows students to interact with classmates via wikis, blogs, and discussion boards after class.

Although technology is an effective tool of implementing constructive strategies, teachers in this study commented that technology should always take a back seat to pedagogical goals and learning objectives. Teachers are the ones responsible for using the technology to design lessons. Technology does not teach, teachers do. As current technologies challenge users’ basic computing skills to survive in this technological environment, participant comments that technology could not replace teachers hinted some teacher uneasiness about competing with technology resources.

The second research question focused on gathering teachers’ views of the value of technology for language education. As a tool, technology allows for efficient customized instruction (Leer & Ivanov, 2013). Instructors’ role changes to promote opportunities for learners to expand their knowledge in an active and engaged format. As the learner plays a central role in mediating and controlling learning activities, opportunities and tools should be provided to promote metacognition—the reflection on learning and awareness. Self-awareness is one of the most significant contributions of the learning process, where learners are aware of their role in the knowledge construction process. From that perspective, constructivism as a philosophy should not compete with other values or technologies.

Sabzian, Gilakjani, and Sodouri (2013) found a positive correlation between the amount and frequency of technology use and learner-centered
pedagogy. Considering constructivist principles, the researchers explained that technology appears to change how instruction is implemented, without restricting existing traditional approaches. From this perspective, participants in this study would have recognized the relationship between technology use and constructivist teaching activities, as such a relationship is beneficial for transitioning from traditional to learner-centered approaches. However, some participants did not confirm that technology supports student-centered approaches. Qasem (2015) had similar findings in his study—no correlation between beliefs in student-centeredness and teacher technology integration practices was observed. Qasem’s study indicated that teacher beliefs might not be what drive teacher actions, but other factors, such as their knowledge of technology, might be.

In an active setting that encourages meaningful interactions with peers, course materials, and teachers, learners understand what and why they are learning. Mindful that techniques and methods should be individualized due to the enormous differences among learners, teachers maximize student engagement and reflection opportunities to increase learner autonomy. Because adult experience forms the self-concept, caution neither ignores nor devalues these experiences. Participants agreed that student-centered environments, where learners engage independently with materials at their own pace, promote language learning.

Foreign language education at the DLIFLC facilitates learning with authentic and relevant information, and the use of technology ensures instructional consistency among programs and languages. Higher-level thinking skills are necessary for students as language is used to critique, evaluate, and synthesize, not merely to memorize. West, Jones and Semon (2012) suggested that teachers are vital in designing learning environments that support knowledge creation when they plan courses that encourage critical thinking. Likewise, Koc (2012) explained that today’s technological advances assist learners with collaborative projects; negotiate course concepts and meaning while developing higher-level thinking skills. Participants acknowledged the importance of developing structured tasks that follow determined language objectives.

CONCLUSION

Due to constant challenges to meet higher levels of language proficiency, teachers search for new ways to help students reach learning objectives. In response to these challenges, participants identified technology as an important platform to access meaningful target language materials that assist learners to improve language proficiency. Participants showed confidence in using technology to implement teaching philosophies that lead to learner autonomy and support student-centered environments. Lai (2015) confirmed that teachers’ encouragement and support in regard to technology may influence how
students use it in quantitative and qualitative learning inside and outside the classroom.

Language teachers at the UEL have taken advantage of available technology to maximize student language learning. The focus of the classroom has shifted from teachers’ teaching to learners’ learning, from students as passive recipients of information to active creators of knowledge. This shift requires teachers not only to have the knowledge of the subject matter but also the competence to create effective learning environments. Technology competencies are important for teachers because effective integration cannot occur without such knowledge and skills. As technology advances exponentially, teachers sometime feel overwhelmed by new technologies in language classrooms. Nevertheless, the active engagement of students in the learning process using available technology tools allows learners to co-construct knowledge. The role of the instructor in a constructivist environment changes from that of transmitter of content to that of a facilitator of knowledge, making individualized learning and tailored instruction happen.

Qualitative research shares similarities with craftsmanship where researchers constantly make local and context-dependent decisions regarding the progress of a project (Gringeri, Barusch, & Cambron, 2013). In the social sciences, qualitative researchers have struggled with the meanings of terms such as reliability, objectivity, and validity, using a perspective that requires understanding of the interactive dimension of social inquiry (Barusch, Gringeri, & George, 2011). Buchbinder (2011) explained that there have been many efforts to deal with the uniqueness of validity in qualitative research. However, complete objectivity in any study, including case studies, is all but impossible (Merriam, 1998). Case studies, by design, have limited generalizing potential.

A limitation of this study was that qualitative data collection and analysis are subjective in nature. To mitigate this limitation, a structured data collection and analysis plan was followed to generate a database that could be reviewed by other researchers to increase the reliability of the study (Yin, 2009). The current study has followed these principles in its research design and implementation.

Also lacking from the study were the views of the administration, whose leadership might influence 1) the views of teachers on how to incorporate different technologies into the curricula; and 2) the views of students whose interests and needs might affect the integration of technology. The impact of these different stakeholders’ views on technology integration in the DLIFLC language classroom should be further examined through future research.
REFERENCES


APPENDIX A

INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

1. What are the main strengths of using technology for language teaching and learning?
2. What are the main weaknesses of using technology for language teaching and learning?
3. What do you believe is the role of technology in your classroom? Please give examples.
4. How do you feel when you must change a lesson to integrate more technology? Why?
5. When you integrate more technology in the classroom do you feel that you are still in control of the lesson or that your students are in control? Why? Please explain.
6. How does technology integration affect students’ engagement?
7. How do you plan for the integration of technology? How do you think that the type of integration affects instruction?
8. How do you decide when it is appropriate to use technology in your lessons? Please give examples.
9. Describe your pedagogy. Does it affect the way you use technology?
10. In your classroom, which activities integrate the use of technology? How do they involve higher-level thinking?
11. How can teachers be motivated to integrate more technology into their classrooms?
12. How often do you use technology in the classroom? Please explain how technology is used in your classroom.
13. What are the technology tools you normally use for language teaching?
14. How comfortable are you with using technology for language teaching? Please explain.
15. Do you have anything else you would like to share about your use of technology or how you perceive technology for instruction?
Reassessing Foreign Language Classroom Communication Patterns: A Review of the Literature

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Keywords: communication patterns, interactional competence, Initiation-Responses-Follow-up (IRF), Initiative-Response-Evaluation (IRE), discourse patterns, High-Leverage Language Teaching Practices (HLTP).

The professional community of language educators sees it as a priority to reform and improve second language instruction, to map effective classroom practices, and to redefine teaching and learning goals for students’ smooth transition from the classroom to the field (Davin & Troyan, 2015; Müller, 2013; Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000). In 2007, the Modern Language Association (MLA) Ad Hoc Committee on Foreign Languages published a widely discussed report that offered thought-provoking suggestions for the reformation of language programs and language teaching philosophies at North American colleges and universities (Müller, 2013). According to the MLA report, the committee was charged with examining the language crisis that occurred as a result of 9/11, and with considering the effects of this crisis on the teaching of foreign languages in colleges and universities (MLA, 2007). The tragic event exposed the country’s language shortfalls, including the shortage of personnel with needed high-level language skills to protect the nation. Not only has academia addressed the 9/11 language crisis, the U.S. government has also raised numerous concerns about the importance of foreign languages to U.S. national security and the economy. In fact, the Committee of Homeland Security and Governmental Affairs of the U.S. Senate held over ten hearings after 9/11 to emphasize the need to build the Federal government’s foreign language capability and to improve the nation’s language capacity (Senate Hearing, 2012). In the same spirit, the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign
Languages (ACTFL), the National Federation of Modern Language Teachers’ Association (NFMLTA), and the Modern Language Journal (MLJ) announced the Research Priorities Project, aimed at supporting empirical research on six priority areas that are critical to improving foreign language education (ACTFL, 2015). One of the key areas is classroom discourse, which includes interactional practices and dialogue inquires.

**COMMON COMMUNICATION PATTERNS**

With a move to a student-centered classroom discourse, there is a need for foreign language (FL) educators to reassess the traditional classroom discourse patterns. The typical pattern that we are used to in a foreign language classroom is an Initiation-Response-Evaluation (IRE) pattern. IRE has three phases:

1. Teacher’s initiation of an interaction
2. Student’s response to the interaction
3. Teacher’s evaluation of provided response

Thus, students are typically responsible for the second interaction and their role is partially determined by the teacher’s decision on the amount and the content of participation within a given interaction (Thoms, 2012). Research has shown that not only does IRE classroom pattern limit students from using their higher-order thinking skills, such as critical thinking, analysis, and problem solving, but also leads to asymmetrical teacher-student participation (Thoms, 2012; Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000).

Another common communication pattern that is well known and practiced is an Initiation-Responses-Follow-up (IRF) pattern where the communication takes place as long as there is a desire to talk about a given topic (Miao & Heining-Boynton, 2011; Thoms, 2012). This pattern is widely used in classroom settings because it can include multiple participants (Miao & Heining-Boynton, 2011). In addition to the IRF pattern, literature suggests Response-to-Intervention (RTI) as a communication pattern where the focus is more on the student’s learning experience as well as on the teacher’s self-assessment (Miao & Heining-Boynton, 2011). Combing IRF and RTI in the classroom setting has proven to yield positive results in instructional delivery and students’ performance (Miao & Heining-Boynton, 2011), as it moves the classroom discourse into High-Leverage Language Teaching Practices (HLTP). HLTP is defined as a “core set of teaching practices that, when executed proficiently by accomplished novice teachers, are said to promote higher gains in student learning over other teaching practices” (Hlas & Hlas, 2012, p. S76). This paper will further explore the components and classroom applications of HLTP.
HIGH-LEVERAGE LANGUAGE TEACHING PRACTICES (HLTP)

In various spheres of education, researchers have focused their attention to the development of language skills through High-Leverage Language Teaching Practices (HLTP). Although the research on HLTP and the practice-based approach to foreign language is still in its infancy (Davin & Troyan, 2015), several useful ideas are being offered for teacher consideration in accordance with students’ current working levels of the target language (TL).

Types of HLTP Questions

Researchers have discussed the types and levels of questions and subsequent responses that teachers use in classroom discourse to encourage students’ production of extended discourse. Pryde (2014) suggests teachers elaborate on the initial student’s response to the question by sharing details, feelings, or possibly an anecdote; by concluding the conversation with a summary statement; or by posing a question that invites continued conversation. In order to change the classroom discourse, David and Troyan (2015) mention the use of questions that move from yes/no forced-choice to an open-ended progression from easy to more difficult questions, use of questions that are varied and include a balance of different question types, use of follow-up questions to elicit elaborations, use of a variety of response types to students’ utterances, and rephrasing or downgrading of a question upon student confusion, among other micro-practices. The goal of HLTP question design is building and assessing student understanding (David & Troyan, 2015).

Types of HLTP Discussions

Another highly effective High-Leverage Language Teaching Practice (HLTP) is setting up and leading open-ended whole-class and group discussions. Kearney (2015) emphasizes the necessity of elaborate preparation and careful facilitation of the process, so that teachers can interpret and shape the flow of talk and action in the classroom in ways that promote and enhance student learning (Kearney, 2015). She stresses that regardless of the content focus, leading a group discussion requires intentional micro-practices on the part of the teacher to elicit, support, and sustain students’ contributions in ways that not only focus on meaningful content, but also are sensitive to learners’ developing linguistic proficiency and cultural competence. Kearney (2015) warns, however, against dogmatic adherence to a fixed sequence of teaching behaviors, advocating instead the development of individualized repertoires that could be called into action in the classroom when needed. Researchers describe in detail the most important structural parts of the preparation and facilitation process, which include the following:
• Pre-discussion micro-practices: guiding student participation, previewing relevant structures and terminology
• During-discussion practices: launching the discussion, eliciting and scaffolding student contributions, loosening discourse control, and accepting student-initiated topics
• Practices for closing the discussion

When it is time to launch a discussion, researchers have made several important points. First, the teacher downplays any anxiety students may have about speaking the TL in public, i.e. in front of the whole class or group. Second, the teacher sets clear expectations regarding participation and the language produced as using more than one-word answers and simple phrases. Third, the teacher alerts individual students to the forms that may be needed by referencing the grammar that has been previewed and reflected in the guiding questions, for which students have ostensibly made notes as part of their assigned homework. Finally, the teacher should remind students, in the TL, about the norms of participation and language use (Davin & Troyan, 2015; Hlas & Hlas, 2012; Kearny, 2015).

The teacher launches and facilitates the discussion by focused and guided questioning; the list of such questions may be prepared in advance. As the discussion unfolds, the teacher increasingly manages contingencies, including unexpected topics and opinions from students, and maintains coherence and direction in the conversation, while also following up on and scaffolding student contributions in ways that are sensitive to the students’ developing and uneven levels of linguistic proficiency. Kearny (2015) stresses the importance of using clarification and probing questions, tailoring them to students’ proficiency levels and sometimes facilitating the linguistic realization of the student’s ideas by providing the forms the student needs and the space to speak at greater length. The following techniques are specifically emphasized:

• Asking a chain of probing questions to keep students talking
• Echoing students’ statements to aid their extended and more elaborate speech
• Providing linguistic scaffolds through clarification requests, provision of alternate terms, recasts, etc.

It is also necessary to practice accepting student-initiated topics. In doing so, the teacher cedes traditional teacher-led talk in favor of student-led discourse. This opens space for students to develop the ability to speak more spontaneously in the second language, a marker of proficiency in interpersonal communication. However, it is also necessary, especially at the final stages of the discussion, for the teacher to broaden the scope of a discussion to a more overarching and reflective commentary. Students may use some details of their own lives and experiences, but in the teaching context of the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC), it is especially important to teach
students to talk about higher-level topics, i.e., society-level topics, to go beyond themselves and to engage them in analytical activities. Successful teachers do not expect students to possess the knowledge and skills that would be needed to express their thoughts extemporaneously, at least not without numerous supports, both planned and spontaneous, provided by the teacher (Kearny, 2015; Tecedor, 2016). Rather, teachers create and require students to complete specific pre-discussion tasks, use specific strategies to launch the discussion, extend the discussion by ceding the floor or by asking probing questions, and finally close the discussion. Kearny (2015) concludes that effective teachers shape classroom discourse in deliberate ways and intentionally structure opportunities for student learning.

**Interactional Competence (IC) in HLTP**

Tecedor (2016) suggests another effective idea to boost learners’ development and help them achieve a higher level of communicative competence. Tecedor concentrates on interactional competence (IC), a component of communicative competence. Following Young (2011), she defines IC as the knowledge of and the ability to utilize the interactional resources necessary to participate in discourse according to the conventions established in the speech community (Tecedor, 2016). Whereas previous studies mostly concentrated on the importance of immersion, meaningful social activities, and tutoring sessions for intermediate and advanced foreign language learners, Tecedor (2016) stresses that beginner learners can benefit from instructional peer-to-peer conversations and equal-power conversations in an institutionalized setting (i.e., the foreign language classroom) for an institutional (e.g., pedagogical or assessment) purpose.

Conversation with a peer of a similar proficiency level requires alignment as learners work to create a sphere of mutual understanding. This allows the learners to test different options from their linguistic repertoire and to learn not only from their own attempts, but also from those of their interlocutors. Tecedor (2016) uses the term *co-construction* following Jacoby & Ochs (1995) and Kramsch (1986), because all of the participants share responsibility for the outcome. Successful performance in a conversation depends on each participant’s ability to interpret, react to, and anticipate the interventions of the other(s) and modify their planned course of action when needed (Kearny, 2015; Tecedor, 2016). A similar target language (TL) level of participants ensures that there will not be an asymmetrical distribution of power, which is standard for the architecture of interaction in a classroom where one speaker typically controls all aspects of conversations (Kramsch, 1985; Kerney, 2015; Tecedor, 2016). Having defined the term *interactional resources* as a set of conversational mechanisms that participants bring to the interaction to construct a discursive practice, Tecedor (2016) lists some of the interactional resources, such as rhetorical scripts, lexis and syntactic pattern turn-taking, topic management, sequential organization of talk, means for signaling boundaries
within the practice, nonverbal factors—and adds alignment to this list. Tecedor (2016) devotes most of her article to this most recent addition to the inventory of interactional resources. According to Atkinson, Churchill, Nushino, and Okada (2007) and Nofsinger (1991), participants in the conversation keep alternating between the roles of a speaker and a listener, and the set of conversational devices they use to position themselves with respect to their interlocutor’s message is called an alignment. At one end of the spectrum, there are alignment moves that indicate mere reception of a partner’s message. At the other end, there are assessments, which require an expression of one’s position regarding the partner’s message or one’s own previous message. Some other researchers have also identified such alignment moves as collaborative contributions and collaborative completions, the latter requiring a listener to adopt the interlocutor’s viewpoint and predict his/her next move.

CONCLUSION

Scholars observe that the implications of the above findings for foreign language learning are significant because repeated engagement in an interactional practice provides the linguistic, social, and pedagogical affordances learners need to develop the interactional skills that will serve them well, not only to build confidence and competence in the classroom learning context, but also in the world outside the classroom (Davin & Troyan, 2015; Kearny, 2015; Tecedor, 2016). The research on effective high-leverage communication patterns in a foreign language classroom setting is still fresh and does not give us concrete answers as to which communication patterns are most effective. However, it is clear that there is a need to reassess traditional Initiation-Response-Evaluation (IRE) and Initiation-Response-Follow-up (IRF) classroom patterns in order to increase students’ discourse and to improve the quality of instructional delivery, thus addressing an urgent need in the U.S. to produce high-level linguists (Senate Hearing, 2012). There is a need for further research in types of high-leverage teaching practices (HLTPs) and how they can be effectively implemented in a foreign language classroom setting.
REFERENCES


Approaches to Meeting the Needs of Spanish-speaking Learners of Portuguese

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Many military and government language students faced with the task of learning Portuguese have at least some degree of proficiency in Spanish, a very closely related language. The close relationship between the target language and a language already known by the learner has implications for approaches to both learning and teaching. This article reviews research on teaching Portuguese to Spanish speakers in the context of higher education as well as relevant research on third and multiple language acquisition. Key conclusions from the literature are considered from the Defense Language Program perspective and suggestions are made for enhancing the efficiency and effectiveness of Portuguese language programs, which may also be applicable to other “conversion” programs involving closely-related language or dialect pairs.

INTRODUCTION

The Portuguese language has been taught by the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) in Monterey, CA for several decades, and although the Portuguese Basic Course is no longer offered at the DLIFLC, Portuguese instruction is conducted and/or supported at several Language Training Detachments in other Department of Defense installations in addition to the DLI-Washington Office. However, the author suggests that the ideas presented in this article may also be of interest to teachers of other languages whose students also possess knowledge of another closely-related language or dialect. Portuguese is a major world language, with more than 208 million speakers, according to Ethnologue (Portuguese, 2016) and is taught fairly widely as a foreign language in various educational contexts including K-12 and university programs. Spanish (a very closely related language) is
widely spoken in the United States as a first language (L1) or heritage language (HL), and commonly studied as a second language (L2). Due to these factors, it is common for adult learners of Portuguese to have some level of proficiency in Spanish when they begin studying Portuguese. This situation has resulted in a body of research which has examined how the needs of Spanish speakers differ from those of English-only speakers in the Portuguese language classroom.

Given the geographic proximity of the Spanish and Portuguese languages in the Americas and in Europe, not to mention the typological proximity of these two Ibero-Romance languages, it should be of little surprise to anyone that instruction in Portuguese is often sought out by or prescribed to those whose interests in the Hispanic and Lusophone worlds intersect. According to Colonel Berrier (2016), U.S. Army Latin American Foreign Area Officers are required to maintain a proficiency of 2/2 or better in Spanish (limited working proficiency as measured on the Interagency Language Roundtable scale) for listening and reading, respectively, as their Primary Control Language. This means all who are assigned to learn Portuguese as a Secondary Control Language will already have this skill. As the literature review will affirm, learning Portuguese as an adult is inevitably a very different experience for those approaching acquisition as English-only speakers and those who have existing proficiency in a closely related language like Spanish. In this article, the author seeks to draw attention to the research which informs effective and efficient approaches to teaching Portuguese to Spanish speakers. Some suggestions will also be made for developing and administering Portuguese language programs and, by extension, building and maintaining this linguistic capacity across the Federal Government and Department of Defense.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Johnson (2004) poses the question in his publication “What is a Spanish speaker?” in the context of teaching Portuguese to learners categorized as such. In the present article, the author will echo Johnson’s affirmation that the Portuguese-for-Spanish-speakers classroom frequently contains three distinct sets of Spanish speakers: native Spanish speakers, heritage language Spanish speakers, and second language Spanish speakers. These groups can be defined not only by their background with the Spanish language, but also by the types of linguistic errors they make in their Portuguese interlanguage. Johnson concludes that “[f]rom a pedagogical standpoint, it could be the case that not enough attention is being paid to the needs of certain learners owing to a possibly flawed assumption of homogeneous competence among learners” (p. 63), and suggests that in this case “teachers and program directors will likely want to design materials, courses and methods accordingly, so as to better meet the needs of different groups of learners gathered under the same roof (p. 63).” The present author’s intention is to address some of those concerns here as applicable within the Defense Language Program context.
Several studies have been published which shed light on the complex range of considerations that educators face when approaching the mission of teaching Portuguese to Spanish-speakers. Many of these are included in the edited volume—Portuguese for Spanish Speakers: Selected Articles Written in Portuguese and English (Simões, Carvalho, & Wiedemann, 2004), published as the result of the Symposium on Portuguese for Spanish Speakers: Acquisition and Teaching, held at the University of Arizona. Aside from the authors who contributed to this volume, Jordan (1991), Amaro and Rothman (2010), Rothman, Amaro and de Bot (2013), and Bateman and de Almeida Oliveira (2014) have published studies directly related to the subject.

When approaching the teaching of Portuguese to Spanish speakers, it must be recognized that there is a high degree of mutual intelligibility between the two languages. Jensen (1989) has reported Spanish and Portuguese to be 50% to 60% mutually intelligible on a test of passive listening to electronically recorded voices, but recognizes that results may differ in a face-to-face conversational setting. Elsewhere, Spanish speakers with no previous knowledge of Portuguese have been estimated to understand around 50% of spoken Portuguese and up to 94% of written academic texts in Portuguese (Carvalho, Freire & Silva, 2010). This means that our Spanish-speaking students will be able to comprehend more complex, higher level texts (to include authentic written and audio passages) early on in their efforts to acquire Portuguese than will their English-only speaking counterparts. It also suggests that simple, simplified, or lower level texts such as those in the introductory chapters of many commercial Portuguese textbooks not written with Spanish speakers in mind may not be adequate to challenge or fully engage students who are proficient in Spanish.

In the L2 teaching field, it is generally recognized that the receptive skills (reading and listening) tend to surpass the productive skills (writing and speaking) (Davies, 1976; Richards, 2015). With respect to structural accuracy and precision, this can certainly be said of the Spanish speaker beginning to study Portuguese. That is to say, Spanish speakers with no prior experience with the Portuguese language can demonstrate significant reading and listening proficiency in Portuguese upon their initial encounters with the language although they are not yet able to accurately produce or pronounce it. The same cannot be said of English-only speakers encountering Portuguese for the first time. Due to the mutual intelligibility of the two languages, the Spanish-speaking student may encounter little to no difficulty in completing the information gap or other learning activities in the classroom which require communication among students or between the student and the instructor, even before much, if any, productive control of the target language vocabulary and grammar is acquired. For this reason, Carvalho and Silva (2008) suggest that these closely related languages pose a difficulty for purely communicative methods of instruction. The strong tendency for negative transfer (errors in the interlanguage which can be traced to inference from previously acquired languages) has been highlighted by Carvalho, Freire, and Silva (2010).
Scaramucci and Rodrigues (2004) and Almeida Filho (2004) refer to the likelihood of fossilization if insufficient attention is given to form in the Portuguese for Spanish-speakers classroom. This observation has been attributed to the learners’ unawareness of the interference from, or the influence of, Spanish in their Portuguese interlanguage and to the fact that deviations from the target language do not necessarily result in barriers to communication. This, in turn, may lead to accommodation and eventually fossilization (Scaramucci & Rodrigues, 2004, p. 166). In fact, the need to emphasize grammatical accuracy or metalinguistic awareness in general is a common theme across the works cited in the present article.

The role of metalinguistic awareness in the acquisition of Portuguese by L2 speakers of Spanish and native Spanish speakers has been explored by several researchers. Carvalho and da Silva (2008), adopting Schmidt’s noticing hypothesis, investigated the role of attention in the exercise of control over the crosslinguistic transfer of knowledge between Spanish and Portuguese. “Schmidt (1986, 1990) proposed that for learners to acquire new forms from input (language they hear), it is necessary for them to notice such forms in the input” (Richards, 2015, para. 5). In Carvalho, Freire, and da Silva’s 2010 study, “native speakers of English who learned Spanish in the classroom had higher levels of metalinguistic awareness than did Spanish-English bilinguals who learned both English and Spanish naturalistically; they also outperformed the latter in their acquisition of Portuguese as their L3 because native Spanish speakers more frequently attempted to apply Spanish grammatical rules to Portuguese” (p. 72). The implication here is that native English-speakers who acquired Spanish as adults tend to consciously apply their explicit knowledge of grammar to the task of learning Portuguese whereas native Spanish-speakers exhibit a preference for applying intuitive knowledge, in the form of analogy and generalization, to the same task (Carvalho & da Silva, 2008).

The notion of noticing in the context of second language acquisition (SLA) was defined by Robinson as “detection with awareness and rehearsal in short-term memory” (1995, p. 318). He affirms that “[in] the domain of grammatical knowledge, familiarity with the basic metalinguistic principles for describing structural patterns and structural analogies would probably aid hypothesis testing by directing attention to relevant features of the input to be noticed (p. 320).” Ironically, the high degree of mutual intelligibility between Spanish and Portuguese which allows Spanish-speakers to develop comprehension of Portuguese may be detrimental to their ability to focus attention on structural differences between the languages (found at the phonetic, phonological, morphological, syntactic, and other dimensions of linguistic organization) in such a way that their observations can be translated into rules or patterns applied to the task of producing speech or text in the TL. Furthermore, fossilization in the development of one’s interlanguage may be more likely to occur if learners feel satisfied with their ability to communicate with TL interlocutors, and see no reason to continue improving grammatical accuracy (Carvalho & Silva, 2008; Leaver, 2003).
Having highlighted some of the salient challenges for the teacher and learner in the Portuguese-for-Spanish-speakers context, let us review some observations about the subgroup of heritage speakers of Spanish in order to highlight what makes them unique as Portuguese learners when compared to native Spanish-speaking as well as L2 Spanish-speaking Portuguese learners. Heritage speakers of a language are generally characterized as bilinguals who grew up in families with one or more immigrant parents or caretakers and who are learning or have learned the ethnolinguistic minority language in question primarily within the context of family and/or the greater ethnolinguistic minority community. These speakers are exposed to and acquire the ethnolinguistic majority language from an early age via formal schooling and their participation in the ethnolinguistic majority speech community (Montrul, 2011; Hedgecock & Lefkowitz, 2016; Silva, 2011; Yanguas, 2010). It should also be kept in mind that there is a great range of variety in heritage language (HL) proficiency among heritage speakers, and although there are certain shared characteristics, heritage speakers cannot be treated as a homogenous group (Montrul, 2011).

With respect to HL Spanish speakers in the United States, many heritage varieties of Spanish may also be present in any given learning context, further necessitating a consciousness of individual differences between heritage learners’ linguistic backgrounds.

The vast majority of heritage speakers fail to acquire full native competency in their home language (Montrul, 2011). For HL Spanish speakers several specific linguistic tendencies have been identified in the literature. These include the omission of the preposition a of dative experiencers with gustar-type verbs, the confusion of aspectual distinctions between perfective and imperfective forms, poor control of the subjunctive mood in both the present and past tenses and errors in inflectional morphology especially with respect to overt marking of gender and number (Montrul, 2011). These tendencies represent a linguistic background and perspective which are distinct from those of native Spanish speakers as well as those of L2 Spanish speakers, and which are likely to have an effect on the development of the learners’ Portuguese interlanguage.

Heritage learners of Spanish frequently share Spanish language classrooms with their native English-speaking colleagues throughout the United States, but several important differences in needs, perceptions and expectations between these groups have been identified. When compared with L2 Spanish learners, HL Spanish learners excel in oral proficiency, but struggle more with metalinguistic terminology and grammatical accuracy in written tasks. Heritage learners report reading and writing skills which are weaker than their oral-aural skills, whereas the opposite is generally true of L2 learners. Due to this, HL Spanish learners report a greater desire to improve their Spanish writing skills, whereas L2 Spanish learners are more focused on improving their speaking skills (Hedgecock & Lefkowitz, 2016). Heritage speakers are often familiar with the colloquial spoken registers, but may have little to no experience with formal or written registers (Montrul, 2013). It is clear that in the Spanish language classroom, HL Spanish speakers and L2 Spanish speakers have different needs.
and approach their learning in different ways. They may even interact differently with instructional materials, as suggested by a study of HL and L2 Portuguese learners (Silva, 2011). It is reasonable to assume that such differences in experience and perspective play a significant role in how HL Spanish Speakers approach learning Portuguese as a third language, much as they do when these learners study Spanish.

Let us now return to the question of the HL Spanish speaker in the Portuguese-for-Spanish-speakers classroom. The author would argue that this group of learners is indeed a third and distinct group with needs that differ from both the L2 Spanish speakers and the native speakers of Spanish with whom they may share their Portuguese classroom. Studies by Jordan (1991) and Carvalho, Freire, and da Silva (2010) have made the case that an emphasis on contrastive analysis of Spanish and Portuguese grammar and metalinguistic awareness in general are important for minimizing early fossilization of the Portuguese interlanguage of Spanish speakers. It has also been demonstrated that heritage speakers of Spanish are less confident with metalinguistic terminology and an explicit understanding of Spanish grammar than their native English-speaking colleagues (Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 2016; Montrul, 2013). They have also shown a weaker command of Spanish grammar than their native Spanish-speaking counterparts (Montrul, 2011, 2013). Despite their readiness to comprehend authentic Portuguese-language speech and texts early in their efforts to acquire Portuguese, heritage learners may be at a distinct disadvantage with respect to metalinguistic knowledge in comparison to their native English-speaking and native Spanish-speaking classmates. They may be prone to greater anxiety when faced with written tasks and may be more prone to early fossilization.

Given the evolving demographics of the United States, we should expect more heritage speakers of Spanish to enter into military or civil service. Their Spanish language skills may place them among the most desirable candidates for assignments that require Portuguese language skills. It follows that the needs of this group of learners deserve special consideration.

DISCUSSION

With this goal in mind, the author offers the following suggestions. First of all, Portuguese instructors need to be equipped with sufficient information about their students’ linguistic backgrounds and differentiate instruction accordingly. This may require linguistic background surveys, language proficiency scores, or a combination of both, such as a comprehensive diagnostic assessment. Courses should be planned using flexible syllabus design, in which there is room for much of the specific course content and many of the milestones to be negotiated between the teacher and the learners to enable greater engagement for all learners. Teachers and learners should work together to develop a learning plan, or a learning contract, which addresses the learners’ individual needs and objectives, focusing on the learning process rather than on
specific course content (Ismail & Yusof, 2012; Kelm, 2004). “The learning contract is a formal, written agreement negotiated between the learner and the lecturer about what the learner will learn and how that learning will be measured” (Ismail & Yusof, 2012, p. 453). This approach would also require that Portuguese instructors in this context have a certain level of knowledge of Spanish linguistics in order to guide learners through the process of comparative linguistic analysis, and help them navigate sociolinguistic tensions, such as perceptions of aesthetics or “correctness” among Spanish varieties, that may arise between different groups of Spanish-speakers in the classroom (Lokensgard, 2004; Santos & Silva, 2004).

One possibility would be a syllabus that designates a certain number of learning tasks to be completed, each culminating in a product. The teacher will work with each learner, taking into consideration the individual’s linguistic background, to sketch out a series of tasks. The nature of the tasks will be tailored to the learner’s goals, abilities, and linguistic needs as they apply to his or her career or life in general. Each task should be of personal interest to the learners, who should feel that they have ownership of the direction in which the course will take them.

The learner will meet regularly with the instructor to practice the language elements useful for completing the task (such as vocabulary, pertinent grammatical structures, pronunciation, etc.) and to get feedback on components of the task as they are completed. This is where the teacher’s understanding of the learner’s linguistic background is key. HL Spanish speakers, for example, may need additional support in developing explicit knowledge of Spanish grammar and grammar terminology in order to analyze and compare structural differences between Spanish and Portuguese, facilitating their ability to notice these differences in the TL input. L2 Spanish speakers, on the other hand, may be eager to jump into an in-depth conversation about how particular language structures differ between Spanish and Portuguese, putting metalinguistic knowledge into practice. The final product for each learning task, serving as evidence that each learning objective has been achieved, may be written work, a presentation, or other tangible demonstration previously agreed upon (Ismail & Yusof, 2012). Whenever feasible, the product should also be authentic (or approximate authenticity) in the sense that it is something the learner will or can use on or off the job. The specific criteria for assessing the product can be established at the onset of the task in a rubric or checklist, which can be revisited and revised if necessary when the learner and teacher meet. If necessary, the rubric may also be a document by which all students in a cohort are evaluated with the same degree of rigor despite variances in their particular assignments. Periodic self-assessments may also be used to cultivate the learner’s awareness of how his or her own learning is progressing, and how to adjust learning strategies as needed.

Class time may be used in a variety of ways. The teacher can meet individually with some students while others use TL resources to develop individual products. When appropriate, the teacher can also take advantage of
the classroom setting to present linguistic and cultural concepts of use to all and to facilitate group activities in which the learners practice communicating with each other in the TL. Although the teacher plays a central role in facilitating the class, and guiding each learner individually, the emphasis is on helping each learner develop greater autonomy as a lifelong learner.

Finally, the author argues that the value of a strict target-language-only policy for the classroom should be carefully considered in this case. A Portuguese-for-Spanish-speakers classroom in the United States implies that the learning objective is not bilingualism, but rather multilingualism. Jessner (2008) affirms in his work on Dynamic Systems Theory and multilingualism, that there are qualitative differences between L2 and L3 learning, and concludes that a definition of multilingual proficiency would have to include both cross-linguistic awareness and metalinguistic awareness, neither of which is actively facilitated for Portuguese learners if English and Spanish are both ignored or strictly barred from use in the classroom. In the case of Spanish-speakers learning Portuguese, the learner may be well prepared to interpret high-level texts or passages in the TL, but ill-equipped to communicate his or her analysis accurately in the TL. The learner may hesitate, or even neglect, to ask questions about the language if feeling unequipped to form the question in Portuguese. This is an opportunity for the learner to develop awareness of how his or her skills in Spanish and Portuguese differ at this particular stage of learning, as well as an opportunity to build cross-linguistic and metalinguistic awareness as the teacher works with the learner to increase accuracy in the TL. This may require explicit reference to, and analysis of, elements of Spanish and/or English which differ from those of Portuguese. The strategic use of Spanish and/or English may be instrumental at times for bridging the gap between receptive and productive language skills.

Regarding language training requirements, those charged with defining requirements and programming for them should be aware that a one-size-fits-all approach to teaching Portuguese is detrimental. Not only can Spanish speakers benefit from a different approach to learning Portuguese, studies show they are also able to achieve a given level of proficiency faster than their monolingual English-speaking counterparts (Carvalho, Freire & da Silva, 2010, p. 71). Because many Portuguese learners in military and civil service come with significant proficiency in Spanish, providing shorter, more accelerated courses for these learners could represent significant cost savings, and may even produce more desirable results. Those learners who come to the Portuguese classroom as monolingual English speakers may also benefit from being part of a student cohort in which their classmates have learning needs similar to their own. Class size may also be an important consideration, as a smaller student-to-teacher ratio in foreign language classrooms has been shown to enhance performance in listening, reading, and speaking skills, due to increased opportunities for communication (Yi, 2008). In a highly tailored program of instruction like the one proposed above, the increased opportunity to communicate in the TL may have considerable impact. The author also advocates that language programs
and schools offering Portuguese provide professional development resources to their instructors to ensure they are equipped to understand and appreciate the diverse linguistic backgrounds of their students and, therefore, be prepared to develop effective learning plans for and with them.

CONCLUSION

The author has made the case that learners of a target language closely related to a language in which they are already proficient (be it as a native speaker, HL speaker or L2 speaker) approach learning the TL from different perspectives than those who do not know a closely related language. This was exemplified through a review of research dealing with the teaching of Portuguese to Spanish speakers. He then made suggestions for effectively differentiating instruction for Spanish speakers in the Portuguese-for-Spanish-speakers classroom, which may be adapted to the teaching of other closely related language pairs. One proposed model of flexible, tailored course design was described. It incorporates an individual learning contract with project-based instruction, where the teacher functions as a linguistic resource and mentor for developing autonomy as lifelong foreign language learners.

NOTE

1. Although the author recognizes that English may not be the only language spoken by non-Spanish speakers who study Portuguese in the North American context, the term English-only speakers is used here to avoid confusion when differentiating between learners of Portuguese who have knowledge of Spanish and those who do not. The term L2 Spanish speakers refers to native English speakers who have learned Spanish, unless otherwise specified.
REFERENCES


Emotional intelligence (EI) in the workplace is pivotal in the development of today’s professional. Once mastered, it facilitates listening and observation as well as the development of personal and social competence, leading to heightened self-awareness, which may apply to any work environment. In the world language teaching arena, EI helps the language teacher with issues like teacher-learner cultural barriers, language learning difficulties, classroom dynamics, and social and emotional issues that arise in the classroom. Emotionally intelligent teachers can negotiate and manage classroom dynamics, leveraging emotions, erudition, and teaching skills to enhance positive communication and cultural understanding. Ultimately, the teacher is able to advise learners to achieve higher proficiency levels, cultural awareness, and professional success as linguists, translators, and scholars. EI, however, must be sustained throughout the language learning experience via supportive strategies that focus on the learner’s EI as well as the teacher’s. This paper examines the role of EI in the world language classroom ecosystem where teachers and learners collaborate, using emotional understanding and agility, and overall group-level EI. It provides an EI classroom ecosystem model to help teachers improve the EI in the classroom, thereby improving the world language experience.

**Keywords:** emotional intelligence, world language, cultural awareness, language learning, language teaching, emotional agility, classroom ecosystem
INTRODUCTION

Pedagogical research has emphasized the cognitive and pedagogical teaching style in the language classroom. Unfortunately, the literature addressing emotionally intelligent interactions between teacher and learner is sparse. The learner’s Emotional Intelligence (EI), as well as that of the teacher, creates a dynamic interpersonal interplay that has an impact on linguistic proficiency and cultural awareness as well as long-term language retention.

The traditional Emotional Intelligence Model, developed by Goleman (1995) and refined by Bradberry and Greaves (2009), presents a view of the individual that focuses on self-awareness and regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skills. This model is the foundation for emotionally intelligent interpersonal interactions (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009). The traditional EI model, however, is incomplete when considering the critical emotional dynamics of intercultural world language learning classroom interactions. Other areas that make EI incomplete are learner attitudes and personality, and teacher-learner interpersonal cultural learning dynamics that affect learner learning, retention, classroom satisfaction, and substantive participation in class.

The world language classroom’s purpose is to teach the target language as well as the culture with which it is associated. This is coupled with the overarching goals (Elias, Arnold, & Hussey, 2003) of helping learners to develop emotional and academic skills. Emotions tend to be ignored in the educational process even though educators have long known of the interrelationship between academic achievement, success in life, and EI (Velsor, 2009).

This paper discusses the role of emotional intelligence in the world languages classroom ecosystem, where the ultimate aim is to produce learners at higher-levels of proficiency who can function professionally in an emotionally agile manner. It includes a brief review of the literature, examines the role of emotional intelligence in the learner emotional ecosystem, and in the world languages classroom ecosystem. We chose ecosystem because it describes a complex, interactive system of connected entities, appropriate for a dynamic classroom setting.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Emotional intelligence is the ability to perceive, acknowledge, access, and generate one’s emotions to assist one’s thoughts and actions with the understanding that self-regulated emotions promote emotional and intellectual growth (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). The concept of EI stems from the disciplines of sociology and psychology in 1964 when Beldoch developed the concept of emotional expression and analogized emotional sensitivity to intelligence. “Awareness of one’s own emotional sensitivity or insensitivity probably is an important aspect of interpersonal adjustment” (p. 129). His research initially demonstrated the power of emotional sensitivity, but further research did not
occur for another two decades.

The concept was revived in a doctoral dissertation in 1985 when the term *Emotional Intelligence* was coined. In that dissertation, Payne (1985) asserted that “many of the problems facing society today are the direct result of emotional ignorance: depression, addiction, illness, religious conflict, violence and war” (p. 1). He developed a guidebook that addressed problems and offered solutions to them. Problems, he averred, can be solved by the following: “(1) raising important issues and questions about emotion; (2) providing a language and framework to enable us to examine and talk about the issues and questions raised; and (3) providing concepts, methods and tools for developing emotional intelligence” (p. 2).

Payne’s work was foundational to the concept of EI in the early 1990s; however, much of the literature ascribes the coining of the term EI to Salovey and Mayer, whose seminal paper in 1990 rested on the foundations of the concept of social intelligence. Social intelligence was defined by Thorndike (1920) as “the ability to understand and manage men and women, boys and girls—to act wisely in human relations” (p.228). Salovey and Mayer (1990) described EI as a subset of social intelligence, defining it as “the ability to monitor one’s own and other’s feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one’s thinking and actions” (p. 189).

This definition became the core of the expanding socio-psychological concept further elucidated in the works of Goleman (1995, 1998). Goleman took EI into the mainstream through his definitive model and comprehensive work in his bestselling books in 1995 and 1998. Goleman not only developed the concept of EI but placed it into a sociological framework that generated both worldwide acclaim and social-scientific criticism. By unifying emotion and reason, Goleman (1995) argued that the human mind is an emotional one and its emotions are evolutionary in nature, passed down through distant ancestors and well-rooted in neurological physiology. As humanity’s intelligence quotient rises, its EI decreases, resulting in serious deficits in job performance and ultimately in life performance (Goleman, 1998).

Criticism of Goleman and subsequent EI models and concepts revolves around the models’ loosely defined and abstract qualities as well as the blurred definition of EI and personality constructs. Further criticism has developed over the difficulty of obtaining concrete measures and the nebulous outcomes of the measures of EI (Conte, 2005). Nevertheless, despite its many critics, EI has become, thanks to Goleman and others, popular in socio-psychological and organizational behavioral arenas.

The latest EI model—2.0, based on Goleman’s model and developed by Bradberry and Greaves (2009), is more accessible and usable to the average person. Bradberry and Greaves assert that the concept of EI is misunderstood and misused, rendering it inviable in an organizational environment. Of the five core feelings (happiness, sadness, fear, anger and shame), only 36% of respondents can accurately describe and identify them in real time. They emphasize that our first reaction to anything is an emotional one, because our
brains are hardwired to make us emotional beings. The authors believe that by approaching our lives, life events, and daily challenges with this emotional reality in mind, emotionally triggered events may be managed, and then rendered into productive events to shape our world (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009).

The Goleman, Bradberry and Greaves EI models, adopted by many areas and disciplines, have been used successfully in teaching, learning, and researching. However, there is a dearth of research in EI and world language learning, particularly with respect to cultural differences between learners and teachers and in the teacher-learner emotional interactions in the dynamic language learning environment. Current literature features but few studies in language teaching and learning in a world language classroom. Fewer still approach the emotionally intelligent interaction of learners and teachers. This paper addresses EI and its role in the world language classroom ecosystem that incorporates both learner emotional and teacher facilitative ecosystems.

THE ROLE OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE IN THE LEARNER EMOTIONAL ECOSYSTEM

Teachers with an awareness of EI focus on learner emotions, personalities, and motivations. EI facilitates a constructive emotional connection between the teacher and the learner, fostering a positive, learner-centric atmosphere that embodies trust, rapport, and open communications in the classroom. In essence, EI assists the teacher to promote academic achievement, improved social relations, and stronger engagement with the learner. It also helps teachers be positively perceived and more trusted by the learners. This leads to the psychological well-being of the individual learners and groups.

Motivating someone to learn a language and bridge cultural gaps to promote understanding and rapport with learners will always be challenges for teachers. In the past, teachers with high intelligence quotients (IQs) were considered to be the most intelligent agents to teach their respective subjects. However, research has demonstrated that EI, more than IQ, is a key factor in global classroom and leadership success (Goleman, 1996). EI affects how teachers manage classroom behavior, navigate social complexities, and make personal decisions to achieve positive results in the classroom. This approach differs from the traditional and exclusive use of pedagogy by teachers with high IQs and subject matter expertise to cultivate learner success.

Pedagogical factors deal with the theory and practice of education—the study and practice of how to effectively teach. However, a learner’s emotions may not be in alignment with the pedagogy, resulting in a learning gap. Learning gaps may be the result of social, ethnic, and cultural barriers, as well as learner attitudes, motivation, and emotions. Social barriers may include issues such as family situations, regional upbringings, and evolving interpersonal structures. Both social and cultural barriers exist among learners, between the teacher and the learner, and between the learners as a group and as individuals,
prompted by unpredictable internal and external social and emotional factors.

Figure 1
Learner Emotional Ecosystem

Key areas in fostering classroom EI are learners’ emotions, personality types, self-esteem, and self-efficacy. These learner personal factors in the world language classroom may be viewed as the Learner Emotional Ecosystem (see Figure 1). These must be identified, acknowledged, and facilitated by the teacher on a regular basis to guide the learner toward improved and sustained EI in both language learning and cultural awareness. Learner emotions, self-esteem, and self-efficacy have a significant relationship upon EI, whereas learner personality types may or may not be related to the learner’s EI. Although it is vital for the teacher to understand the complex dynamics of personality types, he or she should not be distracted by personality types as indicators of learner emotional intelligence. The teacher must focus on the learner’s holistic combination of emotions, self-esteem, self-efficacy and personality type.

Learner Emotions

Learner emotions, a central factor in classroom performance, may get in the way of language learning when learners are unable to speak about emotional issues. This emotional barrier may be a function of differing socio-economic, cultural, and ethnic backgrounds. Learning may be hampered by behavior and emotional problems that arise from negative classroom environmental conditions often caused by teachers who have less than optimal EI. This can be augmented in many respects by differing culture and ethnicity. Even in classrooms where learners and teachers are from the same country, upbringings and sociological dissimilarities, such as ways of thinking, language
accents, ways of living, and regional sociocultural variations, may influence EI interactions.

In a major study, Shao, Ji, & Yi, (2013) asserted that learners with well-developed EI performed better in language tests than did those with low EI and, correspondingly, those with less anxiety scored significantly better. Shao et al. surveyed more than 500 Chinese students at three universities, correlating EI with the anxiety associated with learning English. It identified moderate to strong associations between the learners’ EI levels and language-learning anxiety. The language-learning anxiety had a “significant and partial mediating effect on EI” (p. 917) in predicting the relationship between learner EI and self-rated language proficiency achievement. The study’s conclusion suggested that negative emotions (anger, anxiety, stress, and fear) reduce language learning potential and capacity (Shao et al., 2013).

Learners and teachers experience emotional cycles when learning/teaching a language, evoking an evolving relationship between learners and teachers. This process is a greater challenge for the teachers because they need to understand and manage their and learners’ EI throughout the course. The causes of learner emotional issues are numerous; among these are situations involving family and relationships. These emotions may elicit reactions and interactions in the learner and may be culturally unfamiliar to the teacher, resulting in interpersonal dynamics that are counterproductive to effective language learning and teaching.

The combination of learner EI and emotions may also create a cumulative group EI that affects language learning. Understanding the group dynamic at each stage of language learning helps the teacher gauge the group’s EI and leverage individual and group EI, which is crucial to effective language teaching and learning.

**Learner Personality Type and Emotional Intelligence**

The personality of a learner is considered a decisive factor in acquiring second language proficiency (Gass & Selinker, 2008). Learners exhibit varying degrees of emotional development and maturity. Each learner has distinct personality types and traits, such as **extraversion** (outward-turning) and **introversion** (inward-turning). Various classroom personalities may cause stress, anxiety, and negativity, especially in those with low EI. Personality may also affect learners with high EI, manifesting in interpersonal effects, ranging from annoyance to avoidance.

Although personality type and EL are not always correlated, teacher knowledge and understanding of learner personality type is key to helping the learner develop EI. Thompson (2006) conducted extensive research into the Myers-Briggs personality types and EI. His findings indicate that of the five personality types with the highest EI scores, three were **Feeling** and two were **Thinking** types. Similarly, of the five personality types with lower EI scores, three were **Feeling** and two were **Thinking** types. This indicates that there is no
correlation between EI and *Feeling* personality types. His research did reveal, however, that those with higher EI tended to be in the *Extrovert* personality category.

Murphy (2006) replicated Thompson’s study and found low correlation between high EI and the Myers-Briggs *Feeling* personality trait. However, she found a correlation between high EI and the *Dominant Intuition* personality trait. Additionally, Pearman (2006) posited that mental functions related to personality are related to emotion, and that *Feeling* should not be isolated as it is not a dominant factor but rather one of the many personality factors involved in EI.

These findings indicate that characteristics of a specific personality type may not correlate strongly with an individual’s EI, even though it is traditionally thought that people with strong *Feeling* traits are more open to emotions. Learners with elevated levels of *Feeling* traits may not have the highest or lowest EI. The teacher must be cognizant of the lack of a strong correlation between *Feeling* and EI—they do not always match. Understanding learner personality types is helpful for teachers, but personality types are not the sole indicator of a student’s emotional intelligence.

**Learner Personality Type and Perceptions of World Cultures**

Personality type may be related to learners’ perception of world cultures. Piatkowska (2012) conducted a study of the relationship between language learners’ personality types and their perception of both the target language culture and other cultures. According to Piatkowska (2012), “world language learning and teaching involves not only developing linguistic proficiency but also fostering in learners cultural awareness, which also includes shaping their attitudes towards other cultures…[which is] increasingly essential in light of intercultural communicative competence” (p. 375). The study revealed that a learner’s personality can influence his or her perception of cultures. Learners with *Feeling, Introversion,* and *Intuition* personality traits show positive attitudes toward the target and non-target cultures. Those participating in the study focused on cultural features that aligned with their personality dimensions. Interestingly, however, in non-target language cultures, learners tended to exhibit stereotypes consistent with their personality traits, more so than with the target culture (Piatkowska, 2012).

Piatkowska’s study was relatively small, consisting of 156 undergraduates in their first year of language studies, but it made several key observations. Personality type, although not a strong predictive factor of EI levels, may be a factor in cultural identification and awareness. This is a critical issue, as learners with teachers from a different culture are constantly exposed to the culture directly or indirectly. With a teacher as a native speaker of the target language, the cultural exposure is more significant than it would be as the result of a lesson as part of a curriculum. The overall result is that a learner’s personality may, directly or indirectly, affect the awareness and reception of the
target culture. This helps teachers to be more aware of the learner’s perception, attitude, awareness, and openness of cultures.

**Learner Emotional Intelligence, Self-Efficacy and Self-Esteem**

Learner self-esteem and self-efficacy may be vital determinants in the success of studying world languages. Self-efficacy allows one to organize and achieve specific courses of action necessary for the attainment of one’s academic achievement (Bandura, 1993). Adeoye and Emeke (2010) studied EI and self-efficacy as determinants in world language success over a decade, with learners enrolled in two major public schools in Nigeria. The results indicated that learners exposed to EI training performed better on world language achievement tests than those exposed to self-efficacy training, and both groups performed better than the control group that received neither. The authors indicate that the primary reason for the greater success of EI trained learners is that EI training, as well as the concept of EI itself, is more focused on the skills of self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management. They emphasized the self-awareness factor of EI as one of the more critical components of EI helping learners perform well in the world language classroom.

Self-efficacy, although determined not to be as important a factor in the success of world language achievement tests, is still a vital factor in learner success in world language learning. It should be considered a complement to, rather than a competitor of, EI in the goals of learner achievement. Adeoye and Emeke (2010) noted that self-efficacy is a critical factor in how a learner behaves and thinks and is motivated in academic performance and achievement. The combination of EI and self-efficacy is the ultimate key to world language learning success. Training, fostering, and developing EI and self-efficacy may enhance learner achievement. The world language teacher, therefore, must encourage the partnership between learner EI and self-efficacy to facilitate learners’ language learning success.

In addition to self-efficacy, learner self-esteem is also a contributing emotional factor in academic success. Khan, Saleem, Tahir, and Nadeem (2012) asserted that both EI and self-esteem are the “new and revolutionary approaches in the teaching-learning context” (p.56). Self-esteem is centered on an individual sense of competence, self-acceptance, and a positive attitude towards self (Zimbardo & Gerrig, 2008), whereas EI is focused on the overall self, social awareness, and relationship management of the individual. The research of Khan et al. (2012) demonstrates that learners with healthy emotions and EI, as well as high self-esteem, have stronger academic outcomes than those with low self-esteem and low EI, indicating that academic achievement is positively correlated to both EI and self-esteem. A learner with high self-esteem may not have high EI, and vice versa. The two must correlate positively for optimal academic achievement. Attaining a positive correlation may take time, but the world language teacher can guide the learner to both personal and academic success.
Conclusions: Emotional Intelligence, EI Support Factors, and Learners

The pedagogical implication of learner EI, personality types, self-efficacy, and self-esteem, along with overall learner emotions is significant. A positive classroom is run with sensitivity and respect for the diversity of cultures within it. Although learner personality types are not in the purview of EI, understanding them enables the teacher to understand learners. Through the understanding of learner emotions, personality type, self-efficacy, and self-esteem, the emotionally intelligent teacher may assist learners in developing EI across cultural lines, forming a mutually trusting and emotional expressive professional relationship, and fostering both language learning and cultural awareness and appreciation. Coupled with sound language learning approaches, the development of EI utilizes the whole person concept in a positive holistic manner, facilitating long-term language learning, competency, and success in the classroom and in professional careers.

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND THE TEACHER FACILITATIVE ECOSYSTEM

Many practitioners assert that the teacher is the most critical factor in the world languages classroom in determining the success of the learner. The teacher is the classroom leader, mentor, and facilitator. In addition to language skills and teaching styles, the EI of the teacher is vital, as the teacher facilitates language learning and emotional intelligence in the classroom. In a major Iranian study of world language learners, Ghanadi and Ketabi (2014) discovered that EI “yields positive and significant relationships with the learners’ beliefs about language learning… [and that] emotions are intertwined in the teachers’ instructional responses and learner beliefs and actions” (p.521).

The world language classroom may be considered a social learning ecosystem. The interwoven relationship between teachers and learners that Ghanadi and Ketabi (2014) discussed is a useful construct in the world language learning ecosystem. Being logically and structurally enmeshed, the teacher-learner relationship over time becomes symbiotic, characterized by social, emotional, and pedagogical interactions. The EI of the teacher is key to developing the classroom ecosystem. A teacher with a high EI creates a positive facilitative classroom ecosystem. A high EI enables the teacher to identify, develop, and facilitate the EI in the learner.
As depicted in Figure 2, the teacher must have high EI and socio-cognitive skills—such emotional and social traits enable the teacher to be a classroom leader, a facilitator of EI, a cultural role model, and a constructive facilitator of the classroom ecosystem. The teacher manages emotional and pedagogical issues comprising a world language learning ecosystem and transforms them into a unified language teaching model. The model, developed in the next section, is based on the concepts of emotional agility, classroom pragmatism, classroom humanism, trust and civility, cultural sensitivity, and group EI.

The teacher must be an emotionally intelligent leader, well versed in the sociological and psychological implications of EI, helping learners develop EI in the classroom. Teachers can improve the EI of the learners and instill proper pedagogy at the same time, providing a holistic world language learning classroom that is supportive, culturally sensitive, and academically rigorous.

**Teachers as Emotionally Intelligent Leaders**

A teacher’s EI is essential to the success of being a classroom leader. All effective leaders share well developed EI (Goleman, 1996). Goleman stated that whereas intelligence quotient (IQ) and technical skills are important, these skills are threshold capabilities. In essence, this means that technical skills are important, but to be a great leader, EI is the key. Without EI, a person may have world class training, an analytical mind, and bountiful ideas, but fall short as a leader (Goleman, 2016).

Learners studying a world language seek teachers who connect with them, with whom they can build rapport and trust. They also seek a positive language learning environment where teachers work with them constructively.
According to Suaromana (2012), students need EI between the teacher and themselves in the classroom or at a more personal level.

Teaching, being a stressful occupation, “involves daily work based on social interactions where the teacher must make great effort to regulate not only his or her own emotions, but also those of learners” (Joshith, 2012, p. 54). As such, teachers must be aware of their EI and attempt to enhance it. As a consequence, they may overcome stress and burnout in the classroom that may diminish EI.

EI may be acquired through training and education, as well as experience. In a study by Dolev and Leshem (2016), teachers were given EI training after taking a standardized EI assessment. The participants reported “enhanced awareness of EI” (p. 83) and described a “growing awareness of their emotions and thoughts underlying them” (p. 83). The participants also demonstrated positive shifts in EI after the training in both emotional self-awareness and awareness of learners’ emotions and EI competencies. This motivated the teachers to change the way they viewed and interacted with learners on an emotional level. The training also helped them “become more attuned to emotional situations in the classroom and more often addressed them, which contributed to better classroom management and improved climate” (Dolev and Leshem, 2012, p. 84).

Teachers benefit from EI training as much as learners do. Through emotional regulation and self-awareness, teachers can manage the classroom ecosystem and provide dynamic emotional leadership models. They know how to act and react to students’ problems such as lack of motivation, maximize learning potential, and manage challenging social situations in the classroom. Teachers must continually work on and maintain their EI skills. This is where teacher mentors can help. Through the positive mentorship of those who are proficient in EI skills, the teacher gains real world experience and knowledge in the application of EI in the classroom. Institutions should have an EI component in their teacher training and professional development programs.

The mood of the teacher affects the entire class. Teachers’ self-awareness, empathy, and rapport have definitive links to their performance. Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee (2001) asserted that EI “travels through an organization like electricity over telephone wires” (p. 44). The inspirational teacher-leader understands that emotional leadership is more than flashing a smile in the classroom; that is to say, the teacher-leader understands the impact of his or her emotions on others, adapts communication style through self-discovery and reflective analysis, adjusts his or her behavior and leadership emotions accordingly to reflect positive emotions and positive emotional interactions with everyone in the organization (Goleman et al., 2001). Disciplined study and training in EI, combined with use of EI inside and outside of the classroom enables the teacher to manage the classroom ecosystem with the goal of developing world language abilities and emotional intelligence.
Teachers as Emotional Intelligence Facilitators

Facilitating EI in the academic environment positively affects learners’ academic achievement for a lifetime (Caruso, Mayer, and Salovey, 2002). The optimal world language classroom is one in which an emotionally intelligent teacher facilitates a positive classroom environment and influences learners to acquire EI. The teacher must recognize its signs and intervene at appropriate intervals (Sucaromana, 2012).

According to Washington, Okoro, and Okoro (2013), EI predicted communication competency. As communication is paramount in the world language learning setting, teachers can instill communication skills, both in the students’ native language and target language, by helping them become more “self-aware, insightful regarding the motivation of others, more able to cope with emotional dilemmas in life, more empathetic towards their peers, more socially adept, and able to solve problems and reduce conflict” (Joshith, 2012, p. 56). Communication skills, central to language learning, help students achieve high performance in foreign language. Good communication subsequently enhances EI, as communication is a major component of interpersonal relationships and relationship management. Strong EI, coupled with sound communication skills may translate into overall language learning achievement. According to a study by Khan (2014), teachers that use a facilitative, mentoring approach help learners achieve optimal performance and become emotionally attached to the subject matter where deep learning of content occurs. The teacher must leverage his or her own EI to benefit the learners, both as a role model and a facilitator.

Emotional Intelligence and the Cultural Sensitivity of Teachers

Representing cultures and cultural norms that differ from that of the learners’, teachers’ level of EI is vital to the functioning of the social ecosystem in the world language classroom. Intercultural sensitivity, interpersonal communication competence, and knowledge of human diversity are the keys to success. EI is needed to understand intercultural awareness and appreciate diversity (Washington et al., 2013). Teachers need to cultivate cultural awareness and sensitivity in the classroom. However, some language teachers have negative attitudes toward the teaching of culture in the language classroom, viewing culture in the domain of anthropology rather than world language acquisition (Furstenberg, 2010). Thus, teachers may not share their own cultural norms and ideals with the learners. This lack of cultural exposure is detrimental to world language learning. Teachers may also have interpersonal issues with learners due to cultural bias or the lack of cultural understanding, leading to roadblocks in language learning and a lost opportunity for real-world culture learning and appreciation. Culture should be embraced in the world language classroom and integrated as a part of the language learning experience.
Training in EI is a positive step toward helping teachers understand the covalent bond between language and culture. Humans do not live in a vacuum; their culture is embedded in their language and in life in general. Separating them is unnatural. Through emotional and cultural awareness, teachers can see the social and academic value of cultural learning. They will then utilize cultural learning in their classroom to ensure that learners gain a holistic view of the target language.

Conclusions: Emotional Intelligence and the Teacher

The optimal role of the teacher in the world language classroom is to act as an instructor of the language and the culture through appropriate pedagogy and the facilitation of EI. The emotionally intelligent teacher, properly trained in the skills of EI, is able to create a culturally sensitive learning environment. Academic achievement, communication competency, and cultural awareness and sensitivity are elevated through EI.

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE IN THE WORLD LANGUAGE CLASSROOM ECOSYSTEM

To optimize performance in the world languages classroom, in addition to sound pedagogy, the classroom must be a place where learners and teachers may evolve in a mutually beneficial manner. The language classroom can be seen as a cultural, academic, and emotional ecosystem where each factor builds and grows upon the other until observable systems develop and evolve. Examples of such systems are interpersonal communication systems, cultural nuance and interactive systems, language learning systems, dynamic emotional systems, and many more. These systems revolve around the overall emotional agility of the group members, the pragmatism of the group as a whole, the atmosphere of civility and interpersonal trust, as well as the EI of the learners and the teachers.

A classroom ecosystem is a living system, a community, where entities interact in a symbiotic manner. Here, learners and teachers work together with the common objective of learning. In a living biological system, the interactions of the organisms in their networks are characteristic of the system, and the quality and duration of these interactions determine the overall strength and longevity of the ecosystem. The common bond in the system is the interactions of the ecosystem members.

The emotionally intelligent world language classroom has its foundation centered on several key concepts that foster the emotional ecosystem of learning and communication: emotional agility, pragmatism and humanism, positive social constructs such as trust and civility, as well as group EI. Through the interactions of these key elements, increased EI may enhance performance and achievement. The ultimate goal is to have the entire group engaging in emotionally intelligent behaviors and communications. The result is a
community of support, cultural understanding and awareness, and supportive learning among the learners and between the learners and the teacher.

**Emotional Agility**

According to David and Congleton (2013), many organizations believe that thoughts and feelings, especially negative ones, have no business in the workplace—everyone should be happy and cheerful; leaders, such as teachers, should project confidence and suppress negative emotions at all times. However, this belief goes against basic biology and biological systems: all humans who are healthy have thoughts that include criticism, doubt, and fear (David & Congleton, 2013). This aligns with the research of Shao, Ji, and Yu (2013), who have documented that negative emotions such as anger, anxiety, stress, and fear are a natural part of a learner’s emotional state. David and Congleton (2013), note that people stumble “not because they have undesirable thoughts and feelings—that’s inevitable—but because they get hooked by them, like a fish caught on a line” (p. 126). The aim for an emotionally intelligent world language learning ecosystem is to have learners and teachers avoid the fishhook and become resilient in their emotions. This can be achieved through emotional agility where the emotions that Shao et al. (2013) posited are challenged and overcome.

Learners can develop emotional agility as part of their EI. Emotional agility has been an underlying component of EI since its inception, yet it has not been formally applied and named until fairly recently. In fact, the original work that featured the concept of EI (Beldoch, 1964) encompassed emotional agility in its premise and constructs. The recent advent of the concept of mindfulness, however, illuminates the need for individuals to address and manage their inner emotions rather than suppress them. According to David and Congleton (2013), emotional agility is approaching inner thoughts and feelings in a mindful manner, which is both values driven and productive. This is essentially the management of emotions to ensure that stress and errors are reduced whereas productivity and innovation are elevated.

Negative emotions, stress, and anxiety can be high in the world language classroom. Teachers should not only understand them but also know how to deal with them. Fostering emotional agility in the learners and themselves begins with the acknowledgement that negative emotions are real; they are present in the classroom, and they are biologically and socially natural as part of human nature. Once the negative emotions are acknowledged, the teacher and the learner can work together to get them under control. This can be accomplished through mindful contemplation of the origins, examination of personal values and how the negative emotions fit in the value structure, and determination of ways to deal with negative thoughts and emotions.

Emotional agility promulgates a sense of control in the learner—the learner can have and demonstrate emotions in the classroom, albeit in an emotionally intelligent manner, that respects other members in the group. The
emotionally intelligent teacher must be the guide in the development of emotional agility through mentoring, counseling, mutual trust, and empathy. The teacher must also encourage the learners to germinate their emotional agility and perfect it over time, making it a valuable tool for productivity in the world language classroom ecosystem.

**Classroom Pragmatism and Humanism**

In the world languages classroom, intellect and emotionally oriented ideas and forms merge to shape a productive and positive environment. In this ecosystem the concept of pragmatism is central. A pragmatist, in general, believes that everything should be tested through experience; an idea is true if it works and can be verified, validated, and corroborated. Otherwise, the idea is systematically abandoned (Aggarwal, 2002). Pragmatism is defined as the “philosophy of workability which encourages us to seek out processes, and to do things which work best to help us achieve desirable ends” (Ozmon & Craver in Nwafor 2013, p. 418).

Interlanguage pragmatics focuses on describing, explaining, and evaluating the language learner’s use, perception, acquisition and retention of a second language as well as the pragmatic abilities in the world language context (Soler, 2008). According to Soler, there are many approaches to socially oriented second language learning, and each view focuses on the vital value of social interaction in second language acquisition and sociocultural awareness. The crux of all pragmatic language learning paradigms is that the social and cultural context of learning a second language must be embraced, with the learner acting as a major figure in learning, with the teacher interacting in a sociocultural facilitating role (Soler, 2008).

World language teachers, the human element between the learner and the language of learning, can promote the concept of pragmatism in the classroom. Through pragmatic language learning, the teacher promotes pedagogical structures while sustaining the concept of truth and validity in the language learning process. The use of pragmatism gives the learner more intellectual freedom in exploring the language through self-expression, individual research, and self-learning. This freedom places the learner in a stronger contributing position in the learning process. In turn, the freedom helps cultivate the learner’s EI and emotional agility by being in a responsible, self-directed position under the guidance of a pragmatic and emotionally intelligent teacher.

Humanism takes pragmatism to a higher level. According to Nwafor and Nwogu (2014), the teacher takes the humanistic classroom to a higher interpersonal level with a mutually friendly classroom environment between the teacher and the learners. To humanize a classroom, one must “treat the situation as if it were a human being and not as if it were a thing or an object that has no feelings or thoughts…to accord human attributes to all things in the situation…[to] evoke the feeling of humaneness, i.e., a feeling tinged with compassion,
sympathy, empathy, and a consideration of others” (p. 417). Nwafor and Nwogu (2014) also asserted that humanizing the classroom imparts “desirable human qualities, values, attitudes, and interests to the learners with a view to make them acquire worthwhile qualities of human beings” (p. 418). Humanizing the classroom ecosystem therefore improves learner and teacher relations. As humanism is socially centric, it fosters stronger individual as well as group EI, resulting in a more facilitative academic environment.

EI, pragmatism, and humanism are symbiotic, acting as equal forces facilitating learning in the world language classroom ecosystem. Once these ideals are present in the classroom, with the learners experiencing autonomy and learning self-direction, with the positive humanistic support of the teacher, identifying, supporting and honing the EI of the learners will be an easier task.

**Trust and Civility**

Trust between teachers and learners and among learners is critical. According to Porath and Pearson (2013), rudeness and incivility have become rampant in many social and professional settings. The result of incivility is a lack of trust and empathy. In the world language classroom, the role of the teacher is to quell hints of incivility at their inception so that the language learning ecosystem flows harmoniously. This is not an easy task.

Porath and Pearson (2013) claimed that leaders like teachers may counter incivility by first monitoring themselves as leaders, and then by demonstrating positive social interactions with others in the organization and, finally, by fostering civility in others. This means that the teacher must be the role model for civility in the classroom, being civil not only to the learners but also to their peers and superiors in the world language department and in the academic institution. Porath and Pearson (2013) emphasized the need for the leader, here the teacher, to not only be a model for good behavior but also to teach civility, reward positive behavior, create positive classroom norms, and address and monitor behavior in the classroom. From civility and positive social interactions flow humanism and pragmatism, thus instilling a positive, civil environment toward a pragmatic, humanistic, emotionally intelligent classroom ecosystem. Negativity is a strong force that counters trust and pragmatism, disrupting positive ecosystem flow in the classroom.

**Group Emotional Intelligence**

The final critical element in the language learning ecosystem is the group EI. Whereas the focus has been on the individual EI in the last two decades, the group EI is essential for the development, sustainment, and progress of the group. This is a vital issue for the language learning classroom, especially for extensive and extended language learning programs of longer duration. The concept of group EI has been advocated by Druskat and Wolff (2001) as a positive mechanism for organizational success. Their research
demonstrated that the EI of teams, through the group focus on self-management skills and the ability to relate to one another as team members, can lead to true and productive collaboration and cooperation, enabling the teams to work at their highest potential.

The elements of team EI, which is more complex than individual EI, are personal competence, social competence, and mindfulness (Druskat & Wolff, 2001). This mindful element merges with emotional agility, as discussed previously, and is central to group EI. Any dysfunction in social or personal competence affects the mindfulness element of group EI, leading to a lack of individual and group EI as well as a lack of trust and group identity. The goal of the world language teacher is to build the group EI of the classroom. This will develop over time with proper EI facilitation. As the class approaches a sound and appropriate group EI, the teacher must act as a facilitator to keep the group EI functional. The classroom ecosystem will function optionally with a high level of group EI.

The World Language Classroom Ecosystem

The world languages classroom ecosystem thrives on social and group competence, where emotional agility and EI are intertwined with pragmatism and humanism. Through group EI, language learning and retention increase dramatically as the whole group is engaged in the classroom activities.

Figure 3
The World Language Classroom Ecosystem
Pragmatic and humanistic, the classroom ecosystem is cooperative and the teacher plays a supportive role in lieu of a central authoritative one. Thus, the classroom ecosystem becomes more self-directing and self-regulating, as the learners take more responsibility for their learning. As the class evolves and moves into more advanced learning, the ecosystem becomes more supportive of each member, facilitating stronger interpersonal bonds and correspondingly more supportive learning from each member of the group. The result is a novel way to approach EI in the culturally diverse language classroom that augments language learning while embracing the emotional side of the participants, leading to both short- and long-range language learning success.

An optimal world languages classroom ecosystem is depicted in Figure 3. The model centers the EI of both the teacher and the learner as the basis for interpersonal interactions. The emotionally intelligent classroom builds on trust, civility, and emotional agility. Pragmatism and humanism allow for student independence and responsibility and also allow the teacher to become a humanistic teacher-leader who facilitates pragmatic learning and self-discovery. In time, the symbiotic classroom relationship becomes the group EI, which is continually cultivated through the strengthening of emotional agility, trust, and civility among all members of the group. The result is a positive language learning environment where students not only acquire the language and the culture, but also the emotional intelligence to succeed in the world language and in life.

CONCLUSION

Emotional intelligence is central to the world languages classroom. It facilitates learning and teaching. EI does not exist in a vacuum; it must be supported and developed throughout the classroom experience. The factors in the world languages classroom ecosystem described above synthesize the emotionally intelligent relationship between the teacher and the learner. The ecosystem, primarily facilitated by the teacher, is designed to elevate the individual and group EI through pragmatism, humanism, emotional civility, and trust. The result is an optimal world languages classroom where every member participates and contributes with emotional agility and intelligence, so that all members may achieve full potential.

NOTE

1. For information on the Meyers-Briggs Personality Type, see http://www.myersbriggs.org/my-mbti-personality-type/mbti-basics/.
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Enhancing Socio-cultural Competency and Higher-level Reading Proficiency through Literary Chinese

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INTRODUCTION

During the academic counseling sessions conducted for students every six weeks at LTD Hawaii, many intermediate and advanced learners have shared their befuddlement and frustration with the literary Chinese elements in higher-level reading texts. Although literary Chinese was the form of written language used from antiquity through the early 20th century before it was replaced by vernacular written Chinese, modern Mandarin, in both spoken and written form, is peppered with a vast amount of vocabulary, proverbs, analogies and anecdotal references borrowed from literary Chinese (University of Cambridge, 2015). It may come as a surprise for the students, but the seamless integration of classical elements into modern Chinese is a staple of written texts, be it commentaries, editorials, book reviews, biographies, essays, or even blogs.

Moreover, the ability to read texts written in literary Chinese continues to be a defining feature of an educated person in Chinese societies (University of Cambridge, 2015). The Interagency Language Roundtable (ILR) description for level 3+ (General Professional Proficiency, Plus) includes the ability to “comprehend many sociolinguistic and cultural references” and “to read with facility, understand, and appreciate contemporary expository, technical or literary texts” (2011). The ILR description for level 4 (Advanced Professional
Proficiency) requires the ability to “understand almost all sociolinguistic and cultural references” and a reading accuracy that is often “nearly that of a well-educated native reader” (2011). Therefore, in order to help our students achieve higher-level reading proficiency, it is beneficial to equip them with some knowledge in literary Chinese. Although literary Chinese is often considered esoteric and inaccessible to non-native speakers, with the appropriate training, motivated learners with a solid working knowledge of Chinese can successfully acquire the necessary skills to understand some literary Chinese. In this paper, I would like to share my experience teaching literary Chinese to students who are at ILR level 2+ or 3 in reading.

SELECTION OF MATERIALS

I began to systematically introduce literary Chinese to students when teaching Chinese Prose, as my students requested to be exposed to classical Chinese texts. To ease students into the plethora of literary Chinese texts, a judicious selection of materials is the first and most critical step. Taking into consideration of student level, interest, and how much time was available for this initiative, I selected 《三字經》[The Three Character Classic] as the first reading text. Due to its linguistic simplicity and cultural value, The Three Character Classic serves as a gentle introduction into the world of literary texts for intermediate/advanced learners.

The Three Character Classic is one of the three most popular textbooks for initiating children into reading in ancient China. Its linguistic features and textual structure are relatively simple: each semantic unit consists of four phrases; each phrase consists of only three characters. The extensive use of rhymes and parallelism also makes it easy to read and recite. Aside from its simple syntax and pithy language, its content not only covers history, geography, and folktales, but also philosophy, ethics, and literature, serving as a rich and invaluable resource for enhancing students’ historical and socio-cultural competency while learning the art of reading literary Chinese. A Chinese saying goes, 熟讀三字經，便可知天下事 [If you know The Three Character Classic by heart, you will understand everything under the sun] (古詩文網, 2017). Once students have overcome the initial timidity in tackling literary texts, I introduced passages from other classics, such as Analects of Confucius, Mencius, The Book of Rites, and The Art of War to hone their reading skills in literary Chinese and to broaden their understanding of Chinese literature, history, and philosophy.

MAJOR DIFFERENCES BETWEEN MODERN CHINESE AND LITERARY CHINESE

Although it might be a daunting task to master the art of reading literary Chinese, there are some useful techniques to help ease students into it. There are some significant differences between modern and literary Chinese that students should keep in mind while reading classical texts.
One major difficulty is the semantic fluidity in literary Chinese, which is uncommon in modern Chinese. In literary Chinese, some characters are interchangeable whereas, in modern Chinese, these characters are differentiated in form and pronunciation and using them interchangeably would be considered typographical errors. For example, in 首孝弟，次見聞 [After instilling the values of filial piety and fraternal love in a child’s mind, he begins to cultivate his mind and broaden his scope of knowledge], the 弟 is interchangeable with 弟 in literary Chinese. 弟 in modern Chinese is pronounced as di and means younger brother, whereas 惟 is pronounced as ti and refers to the respect one holds for older siblings. If students were not aware of the correct semantic referent of this character, they would not be able to make any coherent meaning out of the phrase in literary Chinese.

Another related issue is the semantic differences in the same character in literary and modern Chinese. For example, in 日春夏，曰秋冬。此四時，運不窮 [Spring, summer, winter, and autumn. These four seasons shall never cease to be], the 窮 means to end, to cease, to reach infinity. In modern Chinese, 窮 means poor, lacking. Students need to know this fundamental difference in semantics in order to understand the correct denotation of literary Chinese. Awareness and knowledge of the different semantic layers that a single character may contain is not only crucial for understanding literary Chinese, but also essential to improve general reading proficiency as the denotation of characters in modern Mandarin frequently changes depending on its collocation and context.

When it comes to grammar, and parts of speech in particular, there are also significant differences. In literary Chinese, the way words function semantically and grammatically within a sentence is much more flexible than in modern Chinese. For example, in modern Chinese, 老 could function as a prefix of a noun or as an adjective with the meaning of old, experienced, established. However, in this phrase from Mencius: 老吾老以及人之老，幼吾幼以及人之幼 [Honor the elders from other families as we honor our own; care for the young from other families as we care for our own], 老 is used first as a verb, then as a noun.

In terms of morphology, literary Chinese is much more concise than modern Chinese. Its pithy quality stems from the fact that words in literary Chinese are often monosyllabic, whereas modern Chinese words have evolved to be bisyllabic. Compare the following two sentences with the same meaning—Isn’t it a pleasure to practice and apply what you have learned?

**Literary Chinese.** 學而時習之，不亦說乎？

**Modern Chinese.** 學習知識並且時常應用實踐所學到的知識，難道這不是件令人極其高興的事嗎？

The literary Chinese text has nine monosyllabic words out of nine whereas the modern version only has one monosyllabic word.
The use of function words is another challenging aspect in literary texts that teachers need to address, but the multitude of function words and their uses are too diverse to be explored in this paper. In regards to teaching function words, my experience indicates that adopting an inductive method helps students build confidence in their analytic and critical thinking skills as they are tasked to figure out the specific usage of certain function words in texts. Students also found it more manageable to approach function words one at a time in a familiar context instead of being simultaneously exposed to all of the different uses of a function word.

**PEDAGOGICAL ACTIVITIES**

Although students may initially need more guidance to learn how to read a literary text, the lessons can still be student-centered and interactive. For *The Three Character Classic*, students were assigned two lines each, which consist of four three-character phrases. Although the reading load seems to be light, due to the terse nature of literary Chinese, a three-character phrase, or even a single character, could contain cultural allusions and philosophical concepts that require further research, resulting in an exponential increase of the reading load. As the class was taught in a blended format—four hours of autonomous learning followed by four hours of face-to-face instruction, homework assignments were research-based tasks, which promoted learner autonomy.

Before coming to class, students had to (1) read the literary Chinese lines assigned to them as many times as it took to form a basic understanding, (2) try to figure out the meaning of the text by writing a rough draft of its modern Chinese translation, (3) read the modern translation(s) of the lines, (4) research cultural, historical, political background knowledge that is pertinent to the lines, (5) and having this background knowledge in mind, compare their own translation with the one(s) provided by the instructor, analyze and evaluate the similarities and differences, revise the modern translation that they thought is most true to its intended meaning, and (6) share their research results with peers by coming to class with critical thinking questions to stimulate class discussion.

Oftentimes, a passage yielded different modern translation versions. In that case, I asked students to compare and contrast the different versions, evaluate the advantages and disadvantages of each, synthesize their own interpretation of the original text, and justify their particular word choices. This activity helped to sharpen students’ ability to detect subtle linguistic nuances and activated students’ critical thinking skills. It was also a fun activity for pair work or group work as it allowed everyone to share opinions in a safe environment, while encouraging maximum use of the target language.

Other higher order thinking skill (HOTS) activities, such as debates and roundtable discussions, can also be easily incorporated into class activities. For instance, the very first line of *The Three Character Classic*, 人之初, 性本善 [Human beings are born with an innate goodness] opens up the perennial debate on human nature versus nurture. Given that this concept is a fundamental
cornerstone in Confucianism, with the rest of the text built upon this premise, various HOTS activities can be designed around this topic. Depending on the availability of time, students could engage in a casual on-the-spot debate or a full-blown debate with more thorough research and preparation. Alternatively, to build up their intercultural communicative competence, the same topic could be used to facilitate a roundtable discussion where students compare Western and Chinese philosophers’ views on human nature, explore the similarities and differences, and evaluate how they might have affected educational beliefs and practices in contemporary societies.

CHALLENGES FOR TEACHERS

One major challenge in teaching literary Chinese is the learners’ lack of interest or motivation. Most students in my Chinese Prose class were interested in learning to read literary texts and in learning more about Chinese history and philosophy, with one student as an exception. After introducing them to the Analects of Confucius, the student who was not motivated expressed interest in reading The Art of War because he thought it might help him better his skills at online strategy games. Finding a connection between learners’ personal interests and their topic of learning makes it easier for students to control their learning, which can lead to more positive learning outcomes. Another way to tackle this challenge is to find relevance and connections between the cultural concepts in the selected texts and current socio-cultural issues in the target language societies. Last but not least, personalizing the learning experience by finding connections and making conceptual comparisons between the texts and their own cultures and societies also helps to bridge the gap in learners’ motivation and interest.

CONCLUSION

Despite the challenges, my students found the literary Chinese lessons helpful in improving their reading skills and their general socio-cultural competence. Student feedback included several advantages of learning literary Chinese, such as broadening cultural knowledge, enhancing the ability to approach Chinese prose, improving reading skills, and understanding grammar and writing styles in literary Chinese. Training in literary Chinese texts is not only beneficial, but also essential for learners to reach a higher-level reading proficiency. In addition to a deeper semantic and grammatical knowledge of the Chinese language, students develop a higher socio-cultural competence from reading literary texts that have shaped the values and beliefs of Chinese culture and societies for thousands of years.
NOTES

1. *Literary* here is not used as *related to literature* but refers to the form of written Chinese used from the end of the Han Dynasty through the early 20th century before it was replaced by vernacular written Chinese. Strictly speaking, *classical Chinese* refers to the written language of the classical period of Chinese literature from the late Zhou dynasty (1045-256 BC) to the end of Han dynasty (206 BC-220 AD). However, these two terms are often used interchangeably in contrast to the vernacular written form of modern Mandarin.

2. In the beginning, I provided students with the modern Chinese translations, but later on, students were asked to research their own versions of the modern translations.

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Integrating Film-Dubbing Activities with EDpuzzle

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Regarding the development of speaking skills, Krashan’s input hypothesis states that speaking fluency “cannot be taught directly. Rather, it emerges over time, on its own” (Krashan, 2003, p.29). This view suggests that an effective way to teach speaking is to provide comprehensible input, knowing that a learner will begin to speak when ready. The time when the learner starts to speak varies greatly from person to person. Speaking in its early stage is generally not grammatically accurate. Accuracy develops “over time as the acquirer hears and understands more input” (Krashan, 2003, p.29).

In a narrower context, foreign language (FL) learners at the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) did not concern themselves with speaking in the past because of the pressure to successfully test in the passive skills of listening and reading on the Defense Language Proficiency Test (DLPT). However, this has changed in the last decade as more emphasis has been placed on developing speaking skills. Speaking does, in fact, play a key role in the FL learning process. Motivating students to speak a FL and to meet the new DLI graduation requirement of level 2+ in listening, 2+ in reading, and 2 in speaking—based on the Interagency Language Roundtable (ILR) scale—requires more effort not only on the part of students, but also of teachers. Teachers are tasked to identify and use creative approaches and strategies to teach speaking.

This paper shares a successful experience of using film-dubbing, a valuable supplementary approach that serves communicative purposes using authentic material. Four projects are described in which students from various Arabic dialect classes dubbed their voices with the app EDpuzzle. Our experience shows that film-dubbing helps students connect textbooks and language learning materials to real-world activities and life experiences. Through such engaging learning activities, teachers not only motivate students to speak the FL, but also help them to improve pronunciation and review and expand what they have learned in class.

WHY FILM-DUBBING?

Researchers have identified film-dubbing as a great way to motivate students to speak the FL. Film-dubbing is an effective teaching technique, which can increase the students’ creativity and engagement in the classroom (Chiu,
The results of Chiu and Yaqin’s separate studies show that film-dubbing, as a teaching technique, improves students’ speaking ability, which was demonstrated by the students’ oral test scores (Chiu, 2012; Yaqin, 2013). In addition, students responded positively to a questionnaire of using film-dubbing in teaching speaking (Yaqin, 2013). Authentic video clips can be used for film-dubbing when learners dub their voices over muted characters. This activity offers a unique opportunity for imitating the foreign language pronunciation and intonation within a contextualized scenario. Film-dubbing is versatile. For example, teachers may give students a short muted video clip and have students write a script to match the video/audio. Students can later dub their voices back onto the video using EDpuzzle. Soundtrack dubbing provides a rich source of activities in all language skill areas: listening, reading, writing, and speaking. Integrating film-dubbing with EDpuzzle offers authentic and contextualized scenarios that give students opportunities to improve speaking fluency and build linguistic competence. I will discuss EDpuzzle in more detail, which was used in the Levantine and Iraqi Dialect courses at the Westgate Learning Complex (WLC) Language Training Detachment (LTD) in Augusta, Georgia.

**FILM DUBBING ACTIVITIES WITH EDPUZZLE**

EDpuzzle, a web-based resource, does not require downloading any software. EDpuzzle allows users to easily search for videos on different websites, select the videos they desire, upload them, and turn them into interactive activities. In addition, users can customize the videos by editing, cropping, recording audio, adding narration (dubbing), and embedding different types of questions at specific points. With EDpuzzle, teachers can transform online videos from passive learning platforms into engaging activities by 1) adding audio and text comments, 2) adding open-ended questions, 3) adding multiple-choice questions, or 4) replacing the existing audio track with teachers’ voices. EDpuzzle also allows teachers to embed assessment in videos to measure learners’ higher-order thinking skills such as analysis, critique, manipulating the content flow, and drawing valuable conclusions. Moreover, EDpuzzle offers a space for a community of teachers to share their creations.

Teachers can turn this robust tool over to students, enabling them to find high-quality videos and customize them in a way that demonstrates their learning (Kapuler, 2014). EDpuzzle helps students to create their own videos that are as expressive and natural as the original through clear enunciation, the adding of sound effects, and dramatic intonation. Such dubbing activities enhance students’ engagement and learning (Kapuler, 2014). The process of the students’ dubbing their voices over various FL videos on myriad topics engages and motivates them to stretch and reach higher levels of speaking proficiency by imitating native speakers, utilizing and expanding what they have learned, thereby enhancing their learning experience. Furthermore, students have the
opportunity to practice and improve intonation, inflexion, and pronunciation in the target language.

Film-dubbing changes a passive activity of viewing television or online videos with no specific goals or tasks to an active activity with goals and objectives. The ability to isolate the most important aspects of a video and the spoken language therein requires students to analyze, to truly comprehend the materials, and to replicate or create language, making language learning more powerful and relevant.

STUDENTS’ FILM DUBBING PROJECTS

My colleagues and I have asked students to finish several film dubbing projects. For each of the four projects described below, we have noticed improvement in students’ cultural knowledge, skills in parsing and predicting proverb use, and the ability to imitate native pronunciation. As illustrated by the examples, film-dubbing can be used with various types of programs and students.

1. In a 4-week Intermediate Levantine Dialect (LD) course, students watched ten episodes of *Al-Tagriba Al-Falestinia* (التغريبة الفلسطينية), a Palestinian series with historical and cultural references. Students discussed each episode by answering questions related to the content, questions ranging from the main ideas, supporting details, and implications to the author’s attitude and intention. The teacher divided the students into three groups. Each group chose a 3-5 minute clip from the series and dubbed the clip with their voices. Students wrote a script for the clip, provided idiomatic translation, and recorded it in EDPuzzle. This project helped to improve students’ pronunciation and cultural knowledge. Students had fun while learning about the culture.

2. In an 8-week Basic Levantine Dialect course, students were divided into small groups to complete the final class project. The project consisted of three phases: 1) to choose a short cartoon story from YouTube in any language, 2) to write the script in LD and provide an idiomatic translation, and, 3) to dub it in student voices. Each group completed one short story in EDPuzzle. The teacher provided assistance to students by responding to questions about the script and pronunciation. This project helped to enhance students’ pronunciation and reading, listening, and writing skills in LD.

3. In a 4-week Advanced Levantine Dialect course, students completed a project on idiomatic phrases and proverbs. The teacher provided references for students to search for short video clips on proverbs with the explanations in LD. Each student chose three proverbs, wrote out the script to explain the proverbs, and then dubbed the video in his/her voice via EDPuzzle. This project gave students the opportunity to develop their critical thinking skills and their understanding of the FL.
4. In a 4-week Advanced Iraqi Dialect course, the teacher provided three groups of students different 2-3 minute muted video clips. Each group of three students created their own storyline and wrote the script. The task of creating a dialog for a scenario required students not only to use the lexicon and grammar learned from the course materials, but also to expand vocabulary and grammatical structures appropriate to the context.

STUDENT FEEDBACK

After completing the project, students noted that they had benefitted from the film-dubbing activities. One student said, “I learned many new things about culture that I had not known before in the Palestinian Dialect series: Al-Tagriba Al Palestinia.” Another commented: “Dubbing our voices over some video clips helped me improve my pronunciation, accent, and enhance my cultural knowledge.” Still others noted: “I wish we could practice such film-dubbing activities in every class because these purpose-driven activities enhanced my critical thinking and speaking skills” and “I had hard time in the past pronouncing and differentiating between the similar letters in Arabic such as H and Kh (ٍ & ح) ; (الهاش), (الضبيعة) but film-dubbing activities helped me in that.”

CONCLUSION

Film dubbing can be a great method to motivate students to speak the FL, improve their pronunciation and accent, and enhance their cultural knowledge. Students enjoyed the film-dubbing activities. Their feedback displayed a positive perception of the progress they had made and encouraging attitudes toward the project, despite having encountered challenges throughout it. The feedback indicated to teachers that there are significant benefits of utilizing film-dubbing in the FL classroom. Based on my experience, I would highly recommend using film-dubbing activities to improve learners’ speaking proficiency and push them to higher levels. For further understanding of the benefits, empirical studies are needed to verify the relationship between film-dubbing and language proficiency represented by test scores, such as DLPT scores.

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Five Suggestions for Improving the Delivery of the Introduction to Language Studies Course

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BACKGROUND

Introduction to Language Studies (ILS) is a one-week, non-credit, foreign language preparatory course that all incoming students attend before beginning their foreign language studies at the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC). Its current format consists of four days (28 hours) of face-to-face instruction, followed a few weeks later by a three-hour online module, and concluding with a final seven-hour day of face-to-face instruction. It evolved from the SMART (Student Motivation and Retention Training) Program that was developed by the Air Force for their students. Based on a reduction of student attrition found by the Air Force, ILS was mandated by TRADOC, thereby lengthening the formal language training for all DLI students by one week beginning in October of 2006 (Binkley, 2010; Binkley, 2013). The 63-week Category IV languages are therefore listed in the DLIFLC General Catalog as 64 weeks, Category III languages as 48 weeks, and so on (Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center, n.d.).

In its early years, SMART/ILS was mainly taught by MLIs, but over time the task fell increasingly to civilians who had different educational and professional experience. Some were former military linguists and/or former MLIs, some were foreign/second language teachers, and some were academics with backgrounds in applied linguistics or second language acquisition (SLA).
Upon the dissolution of the Language Science and Technology Directorate and the downsizing of the support organizations (mainly Faculty Development, Curriculum Development, and the Student Learning Center) in early 2014, the task of teaching ILS was transferred from the former Student Learning Center (SLC), now Student Learning Services (SLS), to the Undergraduate Education (UGE) schools. Contemporaneous with this reorganization was an SLC curriculum revision project resulting in ILS becoming more abstract and theory-based than it had been in the past (see, for example, feedback provided in the report by the Chairs’ Council, 2014). The transition was challenging for all involved. SLC personnel considered themselves teachers, but had no students after the revision. UGE teachers were hired to teach the target language, but they were expected to also teach the abstract concepts of SLA in English. Both parties were put into uncomfortable roles.

Since the initial Air Force study that justified SMART to the U.S. Army Training and Doctrine Command (TRADOC), only one study has analyzed the ILS/SMART program’s effectiveness. That study also examined the attrition rate data and concluded that ILS had no effect on student success as defined by attrition (St. Pierre, 2008). Furthermore, the ISQs and ESQs have been consistently negative, prompting red flags from headquarters and complaints from school administrators. An intervention study was conducted in 2011-2012 analyzing the effect of SLC services on a group of Persian students, and again, a positive effect of treatment could not be shown (SLC, 2011).

A number of curriculum changes have occurred over the years, which to a large extent were based on the decisions of program leadership as opposed to systematic needs assessments. St. Pierre (2008) comments that ILS “was created with and based upon subjectively determined content derived from direction by DLIFLC leaders and program managers, and not on pedagogic foundations proven to have an impact” (p. 72). The only measure of program effectiveness consistently captured has been student evaluations. However, evaluations are elicited from students after they finish each module of the course, rather than after they have had a chance to apply the information and skills they have learned in ILS toward their language studies, thus stopping at the first of the four levels of program evaluation, which has been called “reaction” (Kirkpatrick & Kirkpatrick, 2006, p. 21).

Issues pertaining to ILS, such as what its content should be, who should teach it, who should oversee the program, and how it should be delivered, continue to be debated in various corners of the Institute, including at Headquarters, the Deans’ Council, the Chairs’ Council, the Student Learning Council, the Academic Senate, faculty in the schools, and even within SLS. This paper focuses mainly on the issue of delivery. In order to bring the conversation about improving the delivery of ILS to an all-Institute forum, the authors present several suggestions for conducting the course in a manner more satisfactory to all of its stakeholders: students, teachers, Institute leadership, school administrators, and SLS personnel. The authors believe that any of the models
described below would provide improvements over the current model. Potential courses of action are listed from the most conservative to the most progressive.

1. **EVERY TEACHING TEAM SHOULD TEACH ILS TO ITS OWN INCOMING STUDENTS**

   In the fall of 2013, there were many leadership meetings and two town-hall meetings to pave the way for the imminent dissolution of the Language Science and Technology Directorate and the re-organization of the support organizations. During that period, Dr. Jielu Zhao suggested that since SLC instructors would no longer be teaching ILS, each teaching team should teach the course to its own incoming students. Upon further elucidation, Dr. Zhao reports that around 2005-2006 when he was serving as the Dean of Asian School II, he worked with various levels of leadership to provide a language studies orientation at the team level. It was conducted either as a one-week course full-time, or as a two-week course part-time while students began their language study. The content was similar to what the SLC provided: target language initiation and cultural background, introduction to the countries of the target language, and issues in second language learning. Another school, Asian III, adopted the practice as well. The project lasted six months before the teaching of ILS became centralized in the SLC (Zhao, 2017).

   Dr. Zhao admits that this model has some shortcomings, such as being overly dependent on the experience and expertise of each teaching team. A team laden with new teachers may not be as equipped to teach the course as effectively as one with more experienced teachers. Nonetheless, Dr. Zhao believes that the benefits of this model outweigh the challenges. For example, SLC may not have had experts in all DLI languages. Also, in this model, teachers get to know their students’ personalities and strengths and weaknesses even before the fast pace of the language program begins. Students’ language learning histories, learning styles, and personal interests can be used as resources to better individuate language instruction. Furthermore, with the teaching and scheduling of the course in the hands of the school and the teams, ILS could be divided into different parts, offered at different milestones during the Basic Course, and tailored to the needs of each section of students. For example, a session at the end of Semester 1 could be offered to consolidate strategies and skills already learned and practiced and to introduce new strategies and skills that will assist students for dealing with Semester 2 texts and tasks (Zhao, 2017).

2. **DISPERSE THE 30-38 HOURS OF ILS THROUGHOUT THE TIME STUDENTS ARE IN THE BASIC COURSE**

   One hour a day for the first six to eight weeks of the course could be utilized for a session on strategies, metacognition, and reflection. For example, the instructor could use the prompt “What did you learn today, and how did you
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learn it?”, drawing metacognitive awareness to strategy use. As Cohen (2011a), a leading expert in Strategy-Based Instruction (SBI), points out, “Strategy instruction by its very nature is contextualized, it can be individualized according to the needs of a particular group of learners, and it provides hands-on practice with and reinforcement of the strategies during authentic language learning tasks” (p. 150). He adds: “learners receiving strategy instruction benefit from group sharing and discussion regarding instances when particular strategies are used” (Cohen, 2011a, p. 183). Moreover, explicit strategy instruction integrated into the language curriculum allows for practice within the authentic context and has more potential for strategy learning and use (Murphy, 2008). Students would not lose class time, because the basic language courses have already been extended by one week to account for ILS. However, instead of being taught at the beginning of the course as it is now, the one-week ILS would be incorporated into the 35, 48, or 64 weeks of the Basic Courses. One hour of the regular 6-hour day, Special Assistance, or study hall during the first few weeks of the Basic Course could be utilized. Alternatively, the last five minutes of every class could be a “metacognitive moment”, using the same type of prompt. Students would be able to share strategies and experiment with new strategies learned from peers.

3. MAKE ILS A HYBRID COURSE: HALF FACE-TO-FACE, AND HALF ONLINE

A literature review commissioned for the Army Research Institute cited a Department of Education meta-analysis that “found that students who took all or part of their instruction online performed better than those in [face to face] environments” (Means, Toyama, Murphy, Bakia, & Jones, 2009 as cited in Intelligent Decision Systems, Inc., 2009, p. 3). The Means et al. meta-analysis identified over 1,000 studies conducted from 1996 to 2008 that looked at students in a variety of learning contexts (K-12, higher education, medical training, etc.), and determined that students in online learning conditions performed better than those receiving face-to-face instruction. The modest online module of ILS, serving as a pre-requisite to the final day, takes a student approximately three hours to complete. Those three hours amount to less than 10% of the 38-hour course. In the current environment, both in the field of K-16 education with the utilization of online learning tools, content, and resources such as Blackboard, MOOCs, and Khan Academy, and within DLIFLC for training and sustainment such as GLOSS, NetProf, and Web 2.0 tools, it is surprising that there has been no concerted effort to re-design a significant portion of ILS as an online course offering.

In fact, technology integrated instruction at DLIFLC has not lived up to the possibilities provided by the Mac products and the .edu network. Innovation has taken place at the teacher level, the team level, or at best the department level, but has not yet been harnessed at an institute-wide level. Former provost, Dr. Fischer, had a vision that language instruction could be conducted via
Skype, FaceTime, or other video communication applications. He recognized that not all instruction has to take place in person and not all concepts need to be explained face-to-face. By flipping the classroom, students can be provided online modular content that can be exploited from wherever they have a wireless connection. Following the principles of the flipped classroom approach, classroom time would be reserved for activities, discussion, and scaffolding that require group work and a teacher’s presence, instead of the delivery of a traditional presentation-style lecture (Bergmann & Sams, 2012).

ILS is a perfect class to experiment with flipping the classroom and putting a significant portion of the course into an online format. The curriculum is already modularized. Except for the first introductory module, none of the content has to be delivered in a specific order. The online modules can be designed in such a way that students have to spend a certain amount of time covering the content, answering comprehension and critical thinking questions, and performing content-based tasks, before proceeding to new content. Half of the course can be reserved for face-to-face class time, building on what students covered in the online modules, doing group work with peers, engaging in metacognitive and reflection activities, and utilizing the instructor’s expertise as an additional resource. Furthermore, as students progress through the basic course, they can always log into the online course to re-visit relevant content, such as vocabulary memorization or retention techniques. Additional online modules can be designed for issues relevant for more advanced students.

4. MAKE ILS 100% ONLINE

During his plenary address at the Holiday Program in 2011, Yong Zhao, internationally renowned scholar and professor in the College of Education at the University of Oregon, asserted that technology utilization in education serves at least three purposes: to carry out tasks that are boring or repetitive for teachers, to carry out tasks that can be done more efficiently than teachers can, and to carry out tasks that teachers cannot do (Zhao, 2011; Zhao, n.d.). Putting ILS online satisfies all three of these criteria. If ILS were delivered in an online format, in the long run, DLIFLC would save resources such as time, effort, and manpower. It could also serve as a model for delivering some language instruction, homework, and area studies online and promoting learner autonomy.

Many DLIFLC teachers have had difficulties dealing with the high-level SLA content of ILS. Especially challenging for them is to make the content understandable and relevant to students through interactive activities. Most DLIFLC teachers are native speakers hired to teach ready-made curricula. With the online ILS, teachers would no longer have to grapple with these issues and could even take the course along with their students so that they can become familiar with the language learning principles and skills that SLS tries to convey. In the long run, this would save time, increase efficiency, and help move DLIFLC into the modern age of Computer-Assisted Learning.
5. IMBED STRATEGY-BASED INSTRUCTION INTO DAILY LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION AND MATERIALS

The core content of ILS should be strategy training. However, strategy training does not have to be taught separately from language teaching. Instruction in context is key to a successful strategy transfer (Rubin, Chamot, Harris, & Anderson, 2013). Good teachers constantly suggest alternate strategies to students for tackling language tasks. This teaching strategy could be reinforced in course materials, including the textbooks. In the instructions for every activity, suggestions for strategy use could also be provided. Cohen (see, for example, 2007, 2011a, 2011b, 2012) has published numerous examples and provided workshops for teachers on how to teach with SBI. If ILS is imbedded into the Basic Course curricula and textbooks, the strategies would not only serve the function of learner training, but also serve as a tool for teachers to learn how to conduct SBI, thereby raising the professional expertise of the faculty.

CONCLUSION

TRADOC mandates that ILS must be taught, but without instructions on how to teach it. The authors believe that all of the models described above provide benefits that are absent from the current model. They each solve problems in the current model and answer criticisms by the various ILS stakeholders. Students can work at their own pace instead of being herded through the course in groups of up to 40. Teachers would not be burdened with having to teach unfamiliar content to students they do not know. ILS content can be tailored to a specific language or student population and delivered at different points in the Basic Course, solving course problems raised by school administrators. And finally, the Student Learning Services division could focus on curriculum improvement, teacher training, class observation, quality assurance, student advising, and workshops, rather than spending an inordinate amount of time on the administration of ILS.

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What Makes Texts Difficult to Understand? Vocabulary?

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INTRODUCTION

"Readers read for different purposes. Sometimes they read for pleasure. Sometimes they read for information. Their reason for reading impacts the way they read. They may skim or read carefully depending on why they are reading. Throughout this process, readers monitor the meaning they are constructing. When the text does not meet their purposes they may switch to another text. Readers expect what they are reading to make sense. They use a repertoire of strategies, such as rethinking, re-reading or reading on to clarify ideas, to make sure they understand what they read in order to accomplish their purposes” (National Council of Teachers of English, 2004, p. 1).

Reading is part of the curriculum at the Defence Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC). When asked “What makes a text difficult to understand?”, students usually point to the vocabulary, the memorization of the vocabulary, and other factors as follows:

- the text has many unknown words
- students cannot remember the words
the level is too high  
the topic is unfamiliar  
too many foreign words (words with Greek or Latin origin)  
the text is complicated, with various structures, punctuation marks, direct speeches, etc.  
the text has no illustrations  
students are not interested in the topic  
students have to read under time constraints  

Shoebottom (ND) noted that when students have to deal with two or more of these problems simultaneously, there is little chance they will comprehend the material. From the preceding list we can also see that vocabulary acquisition is a key factor in learning a foreign language. The more target-language words students know, the better they will read, listen, write, and speak. It is thus beneficial for teachers to know the ways students learn vocabulary, what they know and have to know about memorization and retention of vocabulary, and how much vocabulary they need to know.

LEARNING VOCABULARY

Vocabulary Knowledge

According to Anderson and Freebody (1981), vocabulary knowledge is difficult to measure. Both vocabulary difficulty and prior knowledge have repeatedly been found to influence comprehension of a passage. Anderson and Freebody (1981) suggested three hypotheses explaining the relationships between vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension. The first, the instrumentalist hypothesis, suggests that vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension are directly related—knowing the meaning of the words in the passage enables a person to comprehend. The second, the general knowledge hypothesis, implies that vocabulary, through its relationship with general knowledge, impacts reading comprehension. In this regard, Graves (2008) observed that a large vocabulary reflects a large knowledge base and that it is the world knowledge rather than the word knowledge that accounts for the relationship between vocabulary and comprehension. Based on the general knowledge hypothesis, teaching vocabulary alone would not necessarily increase reading comprehension. The third hypothesis, the general aptitude hypothesis, proposes that vocabulary knowledge is related to reading comprehension through its relationship with general aptitude.

These three hypotheses have stated various ways that vocabulary influences reading comprehension. As a classroom instructor, I agree that prior knowledge of the subject helps, but is inadequate, to accelerate the comprehension process. Sufficient vocabulary, together with good grammar and world knowledge, will lead the reader to full comprehension.

Developing vocabulary knowledge is important. Stahl (2005) stated that vocabulary is the knowledge of words and word meanings. The knowledge
of a word not only implies a definition, but also the way that word fits into the world. Vocabulary knowledge is not something that can be fully mastered at once; it is something that expands and deepens over a lifetime. Instruction in vocabulary involves more than looking up words in a dictionary or using words in a sentence.

The most important strategy in learning words is to know their meanings. The first things we usually learn about a new word are what it means and its translation in our own language. We also have to learn the spelling, the pronunciation, the inflection (a change of the form of a word to express a grammatical function such as noun, verb, adjective, or attribute of tense, gender, case, or person), collocation (the other words often used with it), style or register (a language variety used for a particular purpose, in a particular social setting, including a sound system that combines tone with phonation), and the context in which the word is most likely to be used. When we have memorized all these and the word is in our long-term memory, we may say that we know this word like a native speaker does.

**Vocabulary Memorization and Retention**

“How can I memorize the new words and make them stay in my long-term memory?” Nearly every language learner has asked this question at one time or another. In 1885, Hermann Ebbinghaus performed a series of memory tests on himself, and then analyzed the recorded data to find the exact shape of the forgetting curve. He found that forgetting is exponential in nature. His results are widely accepted as a general theory for how we learn and retain information. According to Ebbinghaus, the more meaningful the information is, the easier it is to remember it. If new information is not relevant or valuable to the learner, it is more likely to end up in memory dump. As shown in Figure 1, the forgetting curve is a graphic way to express the concept that new information is often rapidly lost when it is not repeated; the level at which we retain information depends on the strength of our memory and the amount of time that has passed since learning.

![Figure 1: Ebbinghaus’ Forgetting Curve](Ebbinghaus, 1885)

As mentioned, the longevity of the retention of the information not only depends on the strength of the memory but also on how well the memory is
trained. There are several memory types such as short-term (limited in both capacity and duration and it acts as a filter to put information into the long-term memory), echoic (retaining mainly auditory information), episodic (emotion and contextual), and long-term memory. In order to memorize as many words as possible, the first three types of memory need to be improved so that their stockpile becomes the product of the long-term memory. Teachers can organize memory-enhancing activities (see examples below) to help students learn vocabulary.

Making Word Lists

Many students make word lists for what they have learned or will learn. Although easy to do, making lists cannot be considered a perfect approach because the lists constantly grow and may become too long. Moreover, if the words are isolated from the context and weakly related in meaning, they simply fade from memory or, at best, remain as passive vocabulary. In learning a foreign language, every effort should be made to transfer the words from the student’s passive to the active vocabulary. The most effective way is creating opportunities for students to continuously use words in context.

Learning Phrases

A good practice and a better approach for learning vocabulary is to learn a phrase, instead of a word. The advantages of this approach are 1) students can learn the correct word order from the beginning; 2) students can subconsciously learn grammar; and 3) students can learn the correct use of the word faster.

Using a Dictionary

Using a dictionary (paper or electronic) regularly expands a student’s vocabulary. Students can familiarize themselves with synonyms, antonyms, collocations, grammatical forms, and spelling. We should teach students to use dictionaries when they start learning a foreign language and when there is a need. This does not mean that we should neglect guessing strategies. Relying too much on a dictionary has the following disadvantages: 1) it is time consuming; and 2) it may debilitate analytical and guessing ability. Instead of thinking and analyzing, students may choose the easier way—looking up the unknown words in a dictionary. Furthermore, some poor-quality electronic dictionaries are not good sources for acquiring vocabulary knowledge—they may include incorrect translations and provide only one meaning of a word, which may mislead the user.

Repetition

Memorizing lists of words or phrases does not mean keeping them in the memory forever. In order for a word to become a part of our vocabulary, we have to see how it is used in different ways and use it in our speech and/or writing over time. Koprowski (2006) noted
“To avoid this lexical vanishing act, one solution offered is to follow the ‘principle of expanding rehearsal’. This idea suggests that learners review new words shortly after they are presented, and then at increasingly longer intervals. To stimulate long-term memory then, ideally, words would be reviewed 5-10 minutes after class, 24 hours later, one week later, one month later, and finally six months later. Teachers might even consider doing a quick review of words and phrases which were introduced just a short while ago in the lesson. But unless these new language items are noticed and understood on multiple occasions, they will likely fade from memory and be forgotten.” (para 1).

Another way of repeating vocabulary is to encourage students to read multiple texts about the same topic. This may expose them to the same words several times. It also allows them to store the words under certain categories, as a result of which they may be able to store the words in long-term memory. Reading more texts about the same topic also improves comprehension of specific themes.

**Implicit and Explicit Ways of Learning Words**

Vocabulary is acquired incidentally through indirect exposure to words and intentionally through word-learning strategies clearly explained by instructors. The implicit way of learning words is to draw the learner’s attention. Words can be learned through stories or newspaper articles without prior introduction of the new vocabulary. The implicit way of learning vocabulary is incidental, without deliberate memorization. It provides a much richer context because it is a connected speech. This allows the students to learn in a more subconscious, natural, and deeper way, making it easier to comprehend the words in the target language. A good example of learning words implicitly is extensive reading, which develops general reading skills and the pleasure of reading. Extensive reading, defined by Barfield (1995), is reading a large quantity of text, where reading confidence and reading fluency are prioritized.

The explicit way of learning words is to give explicit vocabulary instruction such as word definitions, synonyms, antonyms, derivatives, word associations, semantic mapping, pictures, explanation, and translation. All these vocabulary teaching techniques involve direct teaching. Beck, McKeown, and Kucan (2013) divided vocabulary into three tiers. They explain how to select words for instruction, introduce their meanings, and create engaging learning activities that promote both word knowledge and reading comprehension. According to them, Tier I words are those of everyday speech, Tier II are general academic words, and Tier III are domain-specific words. A good example of the explicit way of learning is intensive reading. According to Barfield (1995), intensive reading may be described as the practice of specific reading skills and a close linguistic study of the text with tasks.
Emotions Enhance Memory

As mentioned above, extensive reading may develop pleasure in reading, which in turn helps readers to remember words. Lampariello (2013) suggested that by being emotionally engaged with what we are reading (i.e., something that we find really interesting and that we are passionate about) will bring our long-term memory into play, allowing the words to be stored in our memory for a long time. In contrast, if we merely memorize the words, we rely primarily on our short-term memory, which does not automatically trigger long-term memory into action. When selecting teaching materials, teachers should use authentic materials as much as possible. The authenticity, the wide range of topics, and the relevance to the real world may interest students. Furthermore, by detecting students’ areas of interest, teachers may motivate and encourage them to engage in independent reading and reading for pleasure to replenish vocabulary.

Back and Forth/Two-way Translation

Frequent two-way translations, such as from the second language (L2) to native language (L1) and back to L2, reinforce the vocabulary. Although it is time-consuming, beginners may benefit from this exercise. Widdowson (2003) believed that translation can be used to present L2, not as an acquisition of new knowledge and experience, but as an extension or alternative realization of what the learner already knows. In other words, translation can be used to help students reinforce and internalize what they have already acquired. Kim and Elder (2008) revealed the methodological value of a selective and directed use of translation, particularly with respect to the development of an improved awareness of stylistic appropriateness in more advanced classes. Titford (1983) advocated the use of L1 in advanced L2 classes for two reasons. The first is that learners already have a well-developed feeling and knowledge of L1, and translation from or to L1 makes them learn L2 more analytically. The second reason is that translation, as a cognitive exercise, is well-suited to the needs of many learners.

Visualization—Creating Mental Pictures

Visualization can help students learn new words and aid in overall reading comprehension and retention. Allen (2008) noticed that visualization helps internalize the new words. The more vivid the image is, the better students can remember the word. Teachers can use pictures, videos, illustrations, and authentic objects to help students visualize and memorize words.

Vocabulary Games

Vocabulary games are an excellent informal way to check a student’s vocabulary knowledge. Interactive games with winning prizes such as award for the best translation, award for the best word puzzle, award for the best crossword (involving the words on specific topics of economy, socioculture, politics, or military) may encourage and challenge students to do their best in
vocabulary acquisition. Other popular vocabulary games are *Pictionary*, *Bingo*, and *scrabble letters* (Koprowski, 2006).

**How Many Words Shall We Teach?**

How much vocabulary should we teach for students to become skillful readers in the target language? How do we know that all the words we teach are useful to students? According to Nation and Waring (1997), the usefulness of the word depends on how often it occurs in normal use of the language. Graves (2006) wrote:

“There are far too many words to teach all of them directly, but there is a much smaller number of frequent words, which can be taught directly. Teaching 1,000 to 3,000 of the most frequent words directly, or at least ensuring that all children know these words as soon as possible, is a feasible task. Beyond those 1,000 to 3,000 words, there are simply too many words available to choose words to teach based on their frequency and systematically teach them. Instead, once students have learned the 1,000 to 3,000 most frequent words… we need to select words to teach from the material students are reading or listening to. That is, select vocabulary to teach from important words students don’t know in the material they are reading or listening to. Such instruction can teach students some important words, assist them in understanding and learning from the material they are reading or listening to, and repeatedly remind them of the importance of vocabulary” (p. 15).

Graves’ remarks can serve as a basic guideline for us to decide how many and what type of words to teach.

**CONCLUSION**

We need good, skillful readers at the DLIFLC. Skillful readers’ fluency enables them to think about phrases or sentences at once. Adams (1990) reiterated that the effortlessness of the word recognition allows skillful readers to focus their active attention on monitoring and assessing the message. Vocabulary acquisition is of vital importance in developing reading fluency and reading comprehension. As reading hours in class are limited, we need to conduct classes with a purpose. Direct instruction is an effective way of enhancing students’ awareness of what and how to learn. Teachers, through careful task designs, can assist students in accessing useful resources, select appropriate strategies, and make decisions on how to approach the reading process based on their individual strengths, needs, and learning styles.
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Reading is a fundamental skill in learning a foreign language. In the teaching context of the Defense Language Institute (DLI), one of the challenges for teachers is how to draw students’ attention to discourse structures or text structures. Texts are generally organized following certain rhetorical patterns, which are the discourse structures of the texts (Grabe, 2003). Research on reading considers discourse structure awareness as an important component of a reader’s overall comprehension abilities (Pearson & Fielding, 1991; Trabasso & Bouchard, 2002). Therefore, to help students reach higher proficiency in reading, instruction should emphasize raising students’ awareness of discourse structures.

Comprehension questions are commonly used in reading instruction to check students’ understanding of the text. The drawback of comprehension questions is that the questions guide students to process the information in a linear fashion. Students tend to focus on individual sentences in order to answer the questions. This linear focus fails to capture the overall discourse structure of the text—not noticing how one paragraph logically flows into the next or why an author chooses to include certain information in a text. In addition to comprehension questions, teachers can incorporate graphic organizers into a reading class to draw students’ attention to the discourse structure. A graphic organizer is the visual representation of knowledge, using diagrams to show the relationship between ideas and concepts (Sam & Rajan, 2013). Graphic organizers can be used to display the discourse structure and content information visually and hierarchically (Simmons, Griffin, & Kameenui, 1988).

Research in both first language (L1) and second language (L2) learning shows that graphic organizers can raise students’ awareness of discourse structures.
structure and improve general reading ability (Geva, 1983; Guri-Rosenblit, 1989; Jiang, 2012; Sam D & Rajan, 2013). For example, Geva (1983) taught first-year L1 community college students to represent text structures in node-relation flowcharts. She found that, after learning to recognize text structure through flowcharting, less skilled readers were able to transfer the skill to the new task of comprehending expository texts. In a L2 learning setting, Jiang (2012) investigated the effects of discourse structure graphic organizers on English reading comprehension in a 16-week, college-level, English as a Foreign Language (EFL) reading program. The study found that using discourse structure graphic organizers resulted in improved discourse comprehension and general reading abilities among the students.

The previously cited studies provided empirical evidence supporting the effectiveness of graphic organizers as an instructional tool. How can teachers incorporate graphic organizers in reading instruction to achieve better learning outcomes? Generally speaking, to engage students in reading, teachers need well-structured activities for three phases: pre-reading, while-reading, and post-reading. Pre-reading activities focus on the activation of students’ schemata so that they can relate the new information to their prior knowledge for better understanding of the text. While-reading activities engage students with the text by drawing their attention to the major details, the discourse structure, and the text organization. Post-reading activities guide students to reflect on the reading and help reinforce what they have learned. Graphic organizers can be used in all three instructional phases to engage students in deep learning.

**Using Graphic Organizers for Pre-reading**

Before students read a text, the teacher can ask them to brainstorm the topic of the reading passage, predicting the content of the passage. For example, if the text is a news report about an earthquake, the teacher can ask students what is most likely to be reported in such a report. They may come up with key words such as epicenter, damage, rescue work, etc. During the brainstorm, the teacher can draw the following graphic organizer on the board to show the possible relationships between the ideas proposed by students. In doing so, the teacher not only familiarizes students with the new vocabulary related to earthquakes, but also guides them to predict the discourse structure of the text (e.g., those aspects to be addressed in the text).
Using Graphic Organizers for While-reading

Instead of questions, the teacher can use a graphic organizer to check students’ comprehension of the text and raise their awareness of the discourse structure of the text. If students are used to drawing graphic organizers, the teacher can have students construct their individual graphic organizers based on their understanding of the text. After students finish reading and drawing their graphic organizers, the teacher can give students the graphic organizer that correctly displays the discourse structure of the text and have them compare and determine where their misunderstanding of the text occurred. However, if students have not had much experience in using graphic organizers, it is recommended that the teacher use a partially completed graphic organizer such as the Chinese example shown below, providing students with scaffolding and drawing their attention to the discourse structure (e.g., cause-effect). The teacher can use online diagram applications such as Lucidchart or Mindmup to create graphic organizers.
Using Graphic Organizers for Post-reading

Graphic organizers can be used in various ways for post-reading activities. After students check their graphic organizers against the correct one provided by the teacher and make corrections on their own to clarify any misunderstandings, the teacher can have students work in pairs, provide a scenario, and have them create a dialogue or an interview based on the information from the graphic organizers. For example, the teacher can have students read the news article about recent sandstorms in northern China, which describes, analyzes, and comments on the causes of sandstorms. After the reading activities, the teacher can have students work in pairs. In each pair one plays the role of an expert on China’s sandstorm issues and the other the role of a television reporter. The reporter interviews the expert on the recent sandstorms, and the causes and solutions of China’s sandstorm-related issues. Students use the information from their corrected graphic organizers for this post-reading task. The teacher can also have students review the reading passage at home by retelling the content, using the completed graphic organizers as a review guide.
As shown, graphic organizers can be used in many ways in reading instruction for better learning outcomes. Graphic organizers are particularly effective in helping students notice the discourse structure of the text. Meanwhile, the teacher also needs to draw students’ attention to important linguistic features such as complex sentences because graphic organizers may not capture the micro aspects of the text that are equally important in learning a foreign language.

REFERENCES


MEET A TEAM

The Power of Leading Together: The Deans’ Council

An interview with Dr. Mica Hall, Chair of the Deans’ Council

Editor: Dr. Hall, could you tell our readers about the Deans’ Council—who you are and what you do?

Dr. Hall: The Deans’ Council consists of the eight UGE School Deans. It supports the DLIFLC’s vision and mission by promoting academic excellence and a positive work environment. To that end, the Council provides academic and administrative recommendations to the DLIFLC’s senior leadership. Additionally, the Council provides a network for its members in relation to their job responsibilities and professional development. Council members share insights, successes, initiatives (academic and administrative) and research findings to improve the quality of undergraduate programs. Its members also share responsibility for implementing operating procedures within their schools.

Editor: Does the Deans’ Council work with deans from other directorates?

Dr. Hall: Yes. Since the UGE and Continuing Education (CE) deans have an interest in strengthening their respective academic programs, the two groups meet quarterly at the Joint Deans’ Conference. During these conferences, members explore ways to support one another, collaborate, and improve inter-program channels of communication.

Editor: What are the council chair’s principal responsibilities?

Dr. Hall: The council chair is the liaison to the senior leadership for council-related issues and represents the deans at official meetings and briefings. The council chair organizes council meetings by setting the date and agenda,
informing others of the same, and determining the location of the meeting. During meetings, the chair facilitates discussion by keeping participants focused on the topic at hand and ensuring that all have opportunities to contribute. At the end of the current chair’s term (normally in December), the new chair is selected from among a roster of volunteers. If only one steps forward and has not held the position before, that person is selected by acclamation. If two or more choose to place their names in nomination, an election by council members is held. The council chair serves a two-year, non-renewable term.

**Editor:** Why is it advantageous for the deans to participate in the Dean’s Council?

**Dr. Hall:** The organizational culture of the council is an open one, and its members are proactive in communicating with one another and with norming processes across UGE schools. The UGE deans recognize the need for standardization of processes across schools to ensure that all faculty members are treated fairly. At the same time, the composition of each school is different, and the facets of each language program vary widely, so we reserve to ourselves and our schools the right to use program management approaches tailored to meet the needs of the stakeholders in each school. We make decisions and recommendations on the basis of consensus, which sometimes requires compromise, and is often the result of robust discussion of the repercussions of our actions. We see ourselves as a cohesive team and actively work to help and support one another, as we make choices for selection panels, put together 2+ plans, compose award rubrics, and make other decisions.

**Editor:** How do the deans promote shared governance among faculty?

**Dr. Hall:** We see ourselves as partners in shared governance. We recently hosted both the Academic Senate and Chairs’ Council presidents, and discussed approaches to reaching common goals. In addition to sharing information, we encourage other entities to work with us, as our interests commonly align on a variety of topics and initiatives. We are often asked to provide feedback to the Associate Provost-UGE, Provost, and the Office of Standardization and Academic Excellence (OSAE) initiatives and are grateful for the opportunity to examine their effects upon the UGE schools and provide input. We also make suggestions for Institute-wide review processes, such as the 350-10 revision, and do everything possible to ensure the most logical and meaningful outcomes for our students, teachers, and Military Language Instructors (MLIs). The Dean of Students also works closely with the Council to reach common goals and create a positive, constructive learning environment for service members.
Editor: What are the Council’s recent major achievements?

Dr. Hall: The Council is active in responding to all requests for input from leadership and has also spearheaded several initiatives. Recently, the UGE deans established the Deans’ Team Excellence Award and the Teacher of the Quarter Award, and collaborated on standardizing our schools’ 2+ plans format. We have provided input on the term limits proposal and student of the quarter competition, as well as on the Provost’s Team Teaching Excellence Award and the AP-UGE Team Teaching Excellence Award proposal. We have also provided input on units’ pre-course work and activities and Command and Control, and participated in Strategic Planning offsite meetings. We have normed our actions for extending employment, outside hiring, and composing the documentation of internal calls for candidates. Thanks to our close collaboration for norming across the UGE schools, we have ensured that faculty members and students throughout the UGE are treated fairly.

Editor: What are the main challenges for the Deans’ Council?

Dr. Hall: Our challenges revolve around our desire to norm across schools, while retaining the ability to manage programs in ways that are best suited to the unique features of each. All the UGE deans are actively involved in discussing and solving issues before they become problems and, after robust debate, we are able to establish consensus on the matters that affect us most.

Editor: What is the future direction of the Deans’ Council?

Dr. Hall: As we move toward our 2+ goals, we shall focus on maintaining viability across all schools, ensuring success by avoiding a “cookie cutter” approach. We shall increase student and faculty motivation by sharing best practices gleaned from UGE schools and other directorates across the DLIFLC. We have engaged in reach-back activities and teacher exchanges with Continuing Education as well as with organizations outside the DLIFLC. We plan continued collaboration with the Faculty Development Support (FDS), the Curriculum Support (CS), and other organizations that will help the UGE reach its goals.
NEWS AND EVENTS

*News and Events* welcomes readers’ contributions. We are interested in (but not limited to) reports about conferences, official trips, official visitors, special events, training opportunities, major projects, and news items.

**Hawaii LTD Holds Seminar on Level 3 and Above**

TATJANA MITROVIC  
*LTD- Hawaii, Extension Program, Continuing Education*

The Hawaii Language Training Detachment (LTD) hosted a *Seminar on Level 3 and Above* on December 14-15, 2017 for over 50 colleagues from the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) in Monterey, the National Cryptologic School (NCS), the Intelligence Language Division (ILD), and the University of Hawaii (UH). Twenty-two Hawaii LTD faculty shared their best practices in teaching and material development for higher levels. They also displayed 28 *ibooks* lessons, featuring a spectrum of themes on meaningful integration of technology, open architecture curriculum, developing socio-cultural competency, and promoting student autonomy.

Participants received *iPads* for use during the Seminar, which not only gave them easy access to all of the presentations, but also enabled them to experience how technology is used in Hawaii LTD. Col. Logeman, Assistant Commandant of DLIFLC, Dr. Leaver, Provost of DLIFLC, and Ms. Mackey, Dean of the College of Language and Area Studies at NCS, delivered opening remarks; Directors of the Hawaii Language Center (HLC) and the LTD also gave briefs. The opening ceremony was crowned with a short demonstration of hologram technology, showcasing cutting-edge, innovative technology use in language teaching.

Four major themes dominated the Seminar: 1) socio-cultural competency, 2) autonomous learning, 3) open architecture curriculum, and 4) integration of mobile technology in advanced curriculum design. Below are the highlights of some presentations:

On socio-cultural competency, Ms. Si Yen Lee and Dr. Jisook Kim presented “Building deeper understanding of target culture and colloquial language through TV dramas, movies and web-toons”. They demonstrated the
underlying pedagogy of developing a two-week Intermediate Colloquial Korean course based on an open architecture curriculum and a flipped classroom approach. One purpose of the course is to help students deepen their knowledge of South Korean and North Korean colloquial discourse. Presenters showed examples of exposing students to diverse registers according to profession, relationship, gender, and age and conducting in-depth discourse analysis. By analyzing and evaluating the norms, conventions, and values reflected in Korean soap operas, movies, web-toons, and talk shows, students develop both socio-cultural and language competency.

In their presentation of “Developing socio-cultural competency through media”, Dr. Yu Wen Wei and Ms. Yali Chen focused on the use of TV commercials and social media to help students develop cross-cultural understanding. They outlined the specific skills that students need to develop in order to reach the Interagency Language Roundtable (ILR) criteria for Professional and Advanced Professional Intercultural Communication Competence. The presenters reviewed literature on the benefits of using commercials in learning a second language. They also showed an example of using a Chinese TV commercial to promote socio-cultural competency at different stages of learning based on the theoretical framework of the Intercultural Development Continuum.

Addressing the theme of autonomous learning, Ms. Xuefei Chen, in her presentation of “Teacher as an advisor—Creating a more influential learning experience”, promoted the concept that in an ideal classroom environment the teacher steps back, observes, and advises. The application of a redesigned Literature Circle format, along with the integration of technology, allows and encourages students to take charge of their own learning. In accordance with their interests and abilities, students assumed the roles of language experts and analysts, such as the Content Master, the Context Wizard, the Sociocultural Expert, and the Scenarist/Writer. Acting as an advisor, the teacher stepped back, observed students, assisted them by sharing knowledge and experience, and provided formative assessment. Dr. Yi Long’s presentation, “Learning by teaching: Promoting learner autonomy to reach higher levels of proficiency”, explored how a student-led format resulted in autonomous learning both at the individual and the class level.

Regarding integration of mobile technology, Mr. Yugang Zhou and Ms. Ling Robben presented “Integration of travel documentaries and interactive mobile technology apps and widgets”. Authentic travel documentaries provide language learners insight into the target language and culture. Presenters showed an example of a Chinese documentary with embedded widgets and apps that, like a miniature encyclopedia, encompasses the target country’s history, politics, culture, geology, music, military, society, economy, etc., involving students in an immersion-like learning experience.

At the end of the two-day seminar, participants felt that this sharing of innovative teaching practices was just the beginning of a continuing exchange of ideas and innovations between the Undergraduate and the Continuing Education
Directorates. Visitors’ comments on Lino showed that they appreciated the passion, enthusiasm, and professionalism displayed by the instructors and support staff at the Hawaii LTD.

**Academic Support Directorate Holds In-house Professional Development Forum**

RAVINDER S. SINGH  
KALYN SHUBNELL  
TARA SCHENDEL  
IVANISA FERRER  
REBECCA RAMOS  
*Academic Support*

On December 9th, 2016, the Faculty Advisory Council (FAC) of the Academic Support Directorate (ASD, also referred to as APAS), held a half-day Professional Development Forum at the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center’s (DLIFLC) Corruz Hall. The event was organized by the FAC Professional Development Committee, chaired by Ms. Tara Schendel, along with members Dr. Ivanisa Ferrer, Ms. Rebecca Ramos, Ms. Kalyn Shubnell, and Dr. Ravinder S. Singh. This event differed from training events normally conducted at the DLIFLC. Rather than organizing the event in a conference format, the committee chose to use a more informal approach in which discussion sessions were facilitated. Topics included project management, professional development, and publishing.

The opening plenary, presented by Ms. Ramos and Ms. Shubnell, included leadership styles and the most popular styles found at DLIFLC. In an effort to break the ice and start a discussion about leadership, participants were given a quick quiz to discover their leadership personalities. Much to everyone’s amusement, an overwhelming majority of participants used a cooperative, communicative, and social leadership style, whereas the minority group came out as being great information gatherers and strategic thinkers—not surprising for an academic support organization. This plenary created an energetic atmosphere and set the tone for a collegial morning of sharing and learning.

Dr. Ferrer facilitated an interactive discussion on using agile methodology in project management. Participants, playing different roles on teams, were asked to use K’NEX building sets to construct previously designed transport vehicles with limited time and shared resources. The session illustrated the power of experiential learning. After the activity, participants reflected on the experience and how their roles affected the way they worked on the team.
They were then able to share what they learned and suggest what they could have done differently. This activity gave participants the opportunity to discuss the application of agile methodology in the DLI setting.

Ms. Ramos and Ms. Schendel hosted a discussion on development and training opportunities that are easy to access, such as leadership training through the Army and Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCs), and suggested books and readings on some current ideas and theories about creativity, management, and leadership.

Dr. Singh and Ms. Shubnell invited Dr. Jiaying Howard, editor of DLIIFLC’s academic journals, to lead a discussion on identifying worthy topics, finding the right journal and audience for the topic, and publishing opportunities at DLI. Participants who needed help brainstorming topics found this discussion group very helpful.

During three 15-minute breaks, participants had the choice of mingling or watching thought-provoking videos on “Helpfulness and Human Capital” with Margaret Hefferman, “Time Management and Creative People” with John Cleese, and “The Psychology of Self-motivation” with Scott Geller. The day ended with a game of trivia focused on the topics of the day and special prizes for the winning trivia team.

FAC, a representative body of faculty, advises leadership in the areas of academics, morale, and professional development. In addition, FACs serve as a means of communication between management and faculty, serving on screening and interview panels for leadership positions and establishing committees to work on issues in need of attention. Every school and directorate has a FAC.

The ASD FAC was formed in June 2015, as a result of the reorganization of DLI’s academic support organizations. One of the first acts of its executive board was to survey the faculty of the newly-formed directorate about its interests and needs. The survey results indicated that ASD’s employees wanted training more closely aligned to their specific duties and needs in addition to foreign language teaching methodology and second language acquisition. Whereas the Faculty Support Division’s focus is training and developing classroom teachers, ASD, a diverse organization, needs training in a more varied array of functions—best business practices, instructional design, project management, strategic planning, pedagogical and workplace applications of technology, and teacher training.

Identifying appropriate training and obtaining funding can be a challenge, but the Army has a vast array of offerings that DLI employees often overlook, and the Institute itself has a diverse knowledge and talent pool that can and should be leveraged. Ms. Schendel, the ASD Professional Development Committee Chair, noted that the real problem is not the lack of training opportunities, but what to choose and how to manage the bureaucratic hurdles to obtain it. With that thought in mind, the ASD FAC, with support from the senior management, conducted this in-house professional development forum. The idea originated with the Professional Development Committee, first chaired by Dr.
Mirzaei and then by Ms. Schendel. Ms. Schendel produced the initial outline for the informal conference. The other committee members played key roles in organizing, advertising, and facilitating the event attended voluntarily by over one-third of the Directorate.

Evaluations from participants were overwhelmingly positive. We hope this event will serve as a start of a series of events during which ASD faculty and staff can share their expertise, leading to improved knowledge and skills, as well as heightened support for the instructional mission of the DLIFLC.

Publication Support and Mentor Committee:
New Mentors on Board

JIAYING HOWARD
Academic Journals, Academic Support

The Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) Publication Support and Mentor Committee, a forum for faculty to exchange ideas about academic publishing, matches a writer with a mentor on a one-to-one basis when needed. In doing so, the mentor may systematically review the writer’s work in progress and offer timely, cogent advice.

As there has been a robust increase in faculty requests for mentors, the Committee has expanded the mentor program by bringing on board eight new mentors—Dr. Henry-Simon Blanc-Hoang (PhD, University of Florida), Dr. Ani Derderian (PhD, Washington State University), Dr. Fengning Du (EdD, University of Georgia), Dr. Georgette Jabbour (PhD, University of Birmingham, UK), Dr. Jean Ryu (PhD, University of Kansas), Dr. Peter Silzer (PhD, Australian National University), Dr. Bahman Solati (PhD, University of Manchester); and Dr. Jing Zhang (PhD, New Mexico State University). Each of the new mentors has a track record of academic publications, bringing tremendous knowledge and expertise to the mentor program. The new mentors’ expertise covers many fields of study, including language education, discourse analysis, use of corpora in teaching, self-directed learning, teacher development, instructional leadership, learner variables, learner motivation, educational technology, bilingual education, linguistics, literature, statistics, and research design.

The new mentors will work with authors on a voluntary basis. The Committee appreciates their generous support in bringing faculty academic publishing to a new height.
Quick Tips welcomes readers’ contributions. We are particularly interested in previously unpublished, novel or innovative, easy to follow ideas for use in the language classroom or in any aspect of foreign language teaching, such as technology tips, useful classroom activities, and learner training tips.

**Grammar Time: Five Simple Tips for Teaching**

DAVID KRALL  
*Faculty Development Support, Academic Support*

Practice is a key element to helping students understand and use grammar structures. Although basic exercises are a valuable part of practice, students benefit when the type of practice is varied to challenge their ability to use grammar creatively. The following straightforward tips are based on an entire lesson about English sentence structure, but each idea can be used independently, and is adaptable to other languages. These ideas are deliberately simple because that aids comprehension and practice. Finally, if there is interest in a teaching demonstration, the author is available.

1. **Introduction to basic sentence structures (5 to 10 minutes).** This can be done in class, as described below, but the night before students can also be assigned to research the sentence structures and create their own simple examples of each. If students are too busy to do that, here is how the structures can be introduced during class.
   a. Write an example such as this on the board: “Birds migrate.” Ask students if that is a sentence. Many will say yes because it contains a subject and a verb. Write “S” over the subject and “V” over the verb and state that this is the most basic example of sentence structure.
   b. Next, write a sentence such as, “I gave food.” Ask which word is the verb. Label it. Then ask who or what gave the food. Label the subject. Finally, ask what was given. Before labeling this structure, ask for its name. Some students will know, but if they do not, ask what questions it answers (which are, what or whom received the action of the verb). Label it DO for direct object.
c. Pause for a moment and ask students what patterns and word functions they see in each example. If they need help, ask about the order and the function of each word in the sentences (not just its part of speech, but its role in the sentence). Then ask what sentence structure is. Here is a useful definition that can be used as a guide: Sentence structure is the pattern or blueprint of a sentence, and the pattern helps to determine the function of each word.

d. Continue with the remaining three sentence structures:
   - S-V-IO-DO (ex: I gave him the keys.)
   - S-V-DO-OC (I consider Truman a great President.)
   - S-V-SC (She is an engineer.)

2. Essay writing (15 - 20 minutes). Leave the five examples from step 1 on the board as a reference. Organize students in groups. Optional idea: Think of sentences that would be easily mislabeled, give examples, and tells students to avoid writing similar ones. Each student in a group has to contribute to an essay that ultimately incorporates all five sentence structures. For example, the first student writes an S-V sentence and hands the paper to the next person, who writes an S-V-DO-OC sentence based on the first sentence. Students should not label the structure of the sentences. As students are working, monitor progress and quality, and guide them with questions if necessary. When everyone is done students can exchange papers and label the structure of the sentences or, individuals can read a sentence out loud and ask a classmate to state the sentence structure. Regardless of which method is used, monitor the quality of the students’ answers.

3. Individual practice (15 minutes in class). The following activity can be assigned as homework, or done in class. Each student can complete a handout with ten individual sentences by labeling the structure of each sentence. At the top of the handout there should be clear examples to follow. Consider including examples of sentences that students often mislabel, such as “My father gave the car to me” (S-V-DO-Prepositional Phrase). Students often think the prepositional phrase is a direct object or an indirect object, but prepositional phrases never act as either of those.

4. Authentic news article (10 to 20 minutes, depending on the length of the article). Pairs label the structure of selected parts of the sentences in an authentic article. For example, they label which part of the sentence structure the underlined words represent: “President Obama gave his farewell speech at 10 a.m. He was composed during most of the talk, but became emotional when talking about his daughters.”

5. Video/audio practice (15 minutes). This is the hard part. It can only be done after students have considerable practice with identifying and using sentence structure (such as the previous four steps). Play an authentic audio or video clip. Pause after specific lines and call on a student to state the structure of the line just heard. If they have had enough practice, students will be able to do this well.
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.

Transform Classroom with iPad and Apps

JISOOK KIM
JOOHEE JEROME
TATJANA MITROVIC
LTD-Hawaii, Extension Program, Continuing Education

Teachers at the Language Training Detachment in Hawaii (LTD-Hawaii) have been trying to find ways to provide a better mobile learning environment through iPad. This paper shows how various apps have been used to modify activities and tasks in order to utilize students’ higher-level thinking skills, promote student autonomy, create a learner-centered classroom, and enhance students’ socio-cultural competency. With iPads and apps, such as iBooks (E-textbook) and Linoit, students can effortlessly access the immense target language and culture resources.

The iBooks App

Using the iBooks Author, a free authoring app, teachers have created an iBooks textbook—E-textbook, which allows learners to preview and review reading and listening materials. Students can flip through the book by simply sliding a finger along the bottom of the screen, highlight text, take notes, find definitions in the glossary, and search for related content, websites, and blogs. The widgets—parts of the iBooks Authors—allow teachers to create activities that engage learners in developing higher-level thinking skills. The following are some examples of how the widgets are utilized.
The NOTE Feature

The Note feature on iBooks enables students to easily check words by using Look Up and Search Web (see Figure 1). The notes created by students are automatically saved to flashcards for later use. Rather than memorizing the words assigned by teachers, students can prioritize and choose the content for their learning. They can also easily link related information, websites, and blogs for further exploration.

Figure 1
Screenshot of iBooks ‘Note’ Feature
The REVEAL Widget

Instead of showing the entire passage to students at once, teachers can hide parts of the passage and gradually reveal the hidden text. For example, teachers can show only the title and ask students to guess what the passage is about, and then reveal some parts and ask students to guess, predict, analyze, and synthesize the content, the text flow, important grammar patterns, and idiomatic expressions (see Figure 2). The Reveal widget is available free at the website: http://bookry.com.

Figure 2
Screenshot of iBooks Widget, ‘Reveal’ from Bookry.com

The PAIR-MATCHING Widget

Teachers can put paragraphs in a mixed order and have students rearrange the paragraphs into a proper sequence (see Figure 3). This activity requires students to think logically, analyze and synthesize the passage. For example, teachers mix the paragraphs from several articles about the pros and cons of artificially prolonged human life. Students are asked to analyze the content of each paragraph and decide whether the paragraph discusses the pros or cons, and then place the paragraphs in a logical sequence to make two articles—one on the pros and the other on the cons of artificially prolonged human life.
The Linoit App

*Linoit*, an open app from linoit.com, allows information sharing via posting ideas, texts, links, and pictures in a common place (see Figure 4). For example, after one group of students writes a text and posts it as a sticky note, other groups can write comments on the note. This app allows all students, including introverted and reflective ones who do not feel comfortable speaking on the spot, to participate in learning activities.
The Comic Maker App

The Comic Maker App is for creating storyboards. Learners can create visually interesting comic strips using characters and backgrounds provided by the website, take photos, and insert talk and thought balloons (see Figure 5).

Figure 5
Screenshot of the “Comic Maker” App

In conclusion, with the various apps and the iPads, teachers at the LTD Hawaii have transformed the classroom. Starting from the simple conversion of a word or a PDF file into an iBook, teachers have gradually added activities and tasks, leading to a more engaging and interactive learning environment.
## UPCOMING EVENTS

### 2017

#### MAY

**May 16-18**  
*Computer-Assisted Language Instruction Consortium (CALICO)* Annual Conference. Flagstaff, AZ  
Information: calico.org

**May 28-June 2**  
*NAFSA: Association of International Educators* Annual Conference and Expo, Los Angeles, CA  
Information: www.nafsa.org

#### JUNE

**June 15-17**  
*International Society for Language Studies (ISLS)*  
Honolulu, HI  
Information: www.isls.co/index.html

#### JULY

**July 6-9**  
*American Association of Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese (AATSP)* Annual Conference, Chicago, IL  
Information: http://www.aatsp.org

**July 16-19**  
*American Association of Teachers of French (AATF)* 2017 conference, St Louis, MO  
Information: www.frenchteachers.org

**July 14-19**  
*California Language Teachers’ Association (CLTA)* summer seminar, Santa Barbara, CA  
Information: cita.net

#### NOVEMBER

**November 18-21**  
*Middle East Studies Association (MESA)* Annual Meeting, Washington, DC  
Information: mesana.org/annual-meeting/upcoming.html
November 17-19  American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages
Annual Convention (ACTFL), Nashville, TN
Information: www.actfl.org

November 17-19  Chinese Language Teachers Association (CLTA) Annual
Conference, Nashville, TN
Information: clta-us.org

November 17-19  American Association of Teachers of German (AATG)
Annual Conference, Nashville, TN
Information: www.aatg.org.

November 17-19  American Association of Teachers of Japanese (AATJ) Fall
Conference, Nashville, TN
Information: www.aatj.org

2018

JANUARY

January 4-7  Modern Language Association (MLA) Convention, New
York City, NY
Information: www.mla.org/convention

January 4-7  Linguistic Society of American (LSA) Annual Meeting,
Salt Lake City, UT
Information: www.linguisticsociety.org

FEBRUARY

February 1-4  American Association of Teachers of Slavic and East
European Languages (AATSEEL), Washington, DC
Information: www.aatseel.org

MARCH

March 15-17  Southern Conference on Language Teaching (SCOLT)
Annual Conference, Atlanta, GA
Information: www.scolt.org

March 24-27  American Association for Applied Linguistics (AAAL),
Chicago, IL
Information: www.aaal.org

March 27-30  Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages
(TESOL) International Convention, Chicago, IL
Information: www.tesol.org
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
Guidelines for Manuscript Preparation

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.

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>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Cover Page       | 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:  
Foster Learner Autonomy in Project-based Learning
JANE, DOE
Assistant Professor
Persian-Farsi School, UGE
jane.doe@dliflc.edu
831-242-3333 |
| Abstract         | 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. |
| Introduction     | State the objectives, hypothesis, and research design. Provide adequate background information, but avoid a detailed literature survey or a summary of the results. |
| Literature Review| 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. |
**Method**

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.

**Participants.** Identify the number and type of participants. Indicate how they were selected. Provide major demographic characteristics.

**Materials.** Briefly describe the materials used and their function in the experiment.

**Procedure.** Describe each step in conducting the research, including the instructions to the participants, the formation of the groups, and the specific experimental manipulations.

**Results**

State the results and describe them to justify the findings. Mention all relevant results, including those that run counter to the hypothesis.

**Discussion**

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.

**Conclusion**

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.

**Acknowledgments**

Identify those colleagues who may have contributed to the study and assisted you in preparing the manuscript.

**Notes**

Use sparingly. Number them consecutively throughout the article. They should be listed on a separate page, which is to be entitled *Notes*.

**References**

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.

**Appendix**

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.
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. 110-114): *Information for Contributors*. 