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Reaching High Levels: ILR 3 and Above

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PROVOST'S MESSAGE

Welcome to the current issue of *Dialogue on Language Instruction*!

You may notice that this issue differs from previous issues; that is, it features only one topic. The topic, reaching ILR 3, 3+, and 4 — and yes, we have achieved those levels in the intermediate and advanced courses in Category I, III, and IV languages as well as in attenuated courses at Language Training Detachment (LTD) sites (where Category II languages are not taught.). Every language taught at Continuing Education (CE) has delivered several graduates who have attained Level 3+, and nearly all the language departments have delivered students at ILR 4.

The reason for focusing on this topic is that one must achieve ILR Levels 2 and 2+ prior to progressing to higher levels. What we have learned about guiding students who may start at very low proficiency levels, and then move on to near-native fluency, as well as what we have gathered about time constraints (i.e., taking students in post-DLPT programs from ILR 1+ to IRL 3 in six to seven weeks) may significantly assist us in the transformation of our initial acquisition classrooms.

Therefore, you will probably notice that the articles in this volume are highly pragmatic. The authors do not focus on theory and research about how to achieve the highest levels. Rather, they share one team's instructional techniques for you to emulate.

So, happy reading! If these articles stimulate new applications, ideas, experimentation, and research, that will be wonderful!

Go forth and share them with others!

BETTY L LEAVER
Provost

Bumps on the Road to Near-native Proficiency

BETTY L LEAVER
Provost

INTRODUCTION

It is common knowledge that it takes a *long* time to reach near-native proficiency. How long? Other than general time-on-task research that shows the longer one spends on task, the better one gets, little data has been gathered on this aspect of language learning at the higher proficiency levels. In 2002, an American colleague, Sabine Atwell, and I conducted an extensive set of interviews, supported by a comprehensive 36-page survey of 66 American users of various foreign languages who had been tested at the near-native levels (Level 4 and higher on the ILR scale) (Leaver & Atwell, 2002). Later, Dr. Rajai Al-Khanji at the University of Jordan, Dr. Amal Jasser at the Jordan University of Science and Technology, and I surveyed 68 students considered to be at the near-native level in English-language writing (Al-Khanji, Jasser, & Leaver, 2005). That number was reduced to 43 once they were tested, and we were able to compare the responses of those who were close but had not made it all the way to near-native proficiency with the responses of those who had. In all cases, we asked about length of study. In the first instance, the average length of study from rank beginner to near-native language user was 17 years; in the second instance, 12 years. I would point out that the individuals in the first study were older and considered themselves still learning. In some cases, they had to estimate when they had reached the level at which they had tested, which likely explains the difference in average years.

Why does it take so long? Must it take this long? What are those "bumps" on the road to near-native proficiency that increase the time on task that individuals have reported? That question is the essence of this paper. The proposed "answers" are culled from the responses received on both research studies. They include, but certainly are not limited to, availability of resources and opportunities, language attrition, language fossilization, domainization, language change, and cultural approaches to error acceptance and correction.

AVAILABILITY OF RESOURCES AND OPPORTUNITIES

A surprising finding when first it appeared, it is now a given in the literature on the development of high levels of foreign language proficiency that there is no clear guide to reaching near-native proficiency, that there are as many paths as there are students (Leaver, 2003a; Mueller, 2003). In fact, in the case of bilingual and trilingual learners, there is rarely consistency even between how L2 was learned and how L3 was learned (Leaver, 2003a). The primary reason for this had little to do with desires, plans, methodologies, or learning styles, but rather was far more pragmatic and based on the way personal lives and careers had unfolded. This natural phenomenon affected such issues as study abroad, language practice, and direct instruction.

Study abroad. We know, for example, that without time in a country where the language is spoken as the primary language, or as lingua franca, learners rarely develop sufficient sociocultural and sociolinguistic competence to reach the highest levels (Leaver, 2003a). We also have some evidence of the "best" time to study abroad initially in terms of the greatest proficiency gain for the least amount of time, and that is somewhere around Level 1+ or 2 proficiency (Brecht, Davidson, & Ginsburg, 1993). There are many reasons why we might not see faster progress at higher proficiency levels, including the normal learning curve that says it takes geometrically a longer period of time, to achieve ILR Level 3 than it does to achieve ILR Level 2, and so forth. Progress made within a level might not show up in the limited amount of time available in a study abroad program. Learners, however, reported that they often could not choose the timing of study abroad (or, even better for acquiring higher level skills, work abroad) because (1) there were times when they could leave their families or work and times when they could not or times when they could take their families or could not, (2) the programs for which they qualified were available only at specific times, (3) qualifying for a particular program was not always guaranteed, and, with some languages, (4) the political relationship between the USA and the country of study abroad took broad swings that sometimes did not allow travel, study, or work there and sometimes did.

Language practice. Opportunities to practice language, especially on topics more sophisticated than extending greetings, ordering meals, and making purchases, are critical to the development of higher-level skills. Whereas nearly all respondents in the cited studies noted that they extensively supplemented (and sometimes, for lack of resources, supplanted) native speaker interactive input with copious reading, with one person even categorizing herself a "promiscuous" reader, those respondents who had greater opportunities for practice improved more rapidly. The "bumps" came when opportunities vanished periodically. This was often unpredictable and directly related to learners' life events and career requirements. For different learners, the timing and amounts of availability differed along the path to Level 4. With multilingual language learners, the opportunities for practice in their languages were often necessarily in complementary distribution. Émigré communities abroad or at home help, but they do not completely fill the gap of the in-country interactions needed to develop and maintain high levels of proficiency.

Direct instruction. Not all respondents received direct instruction after ILR Level 3 had been achieved, and not all respondents felt a need for it. However, all of those who had received classroom instruction at higher levels valued it, and 75% of those who did not receive it indicated that classroom instruction at a higher level would have led them to Level 4 faster. Research has confirmed this. On average, learners with six months or more of targeted classroom instruction at the upper levels of proficiency and at least two years of in-country experience were able to shorten the average time-on-task for acquiring near-native proficiency from 17 years to five, including the time spent at lower levels of proficiency. When interviewed, respondents pointed out a number of advantages of direct instruction; i.e., aspects of language acquisition where teacher assistance is essential or highly helpful, as follows: 1) accent recognition and reduction; 2) fossilization recognition and reduction; 3) development of sociocultural and sociolinguistic sensitivity; and 4) the accurate building of grammatical categories not found in their native languages (e.g., the understanding and "feeling" verbal aspect for American speakers of Russian or metaphoric language use for American speakers of Arabic).

As of the writing of this article, nearly a decade has passed since the conduct of the two studies cited. In that time, the lessons learned have been methodically applied, sometimes experimentally, to the teaching of upper level courses in DLI's intermediate and advanced classes. As a result, students can hope to achieve ILR Levels 3+ and 4 while in training. This is an emerging phenomenon; however, most classes now graduate one or more students at these levels, shortening even further the amount of time on task needed to become linguistically near-native, given that the duration of the intermediate and advanced course ranges from 18 weeks for a Category I language to 47 weeks for a Category IV language or a course in interpretation [Defense Threat Reduction Agency's (DTRA) Russian language course].

LANGUAGE ATTRITION

Life and career paths that veered from intensive language use over time may lead to language attrition, particularly among those whose full-time job did not involve the consistent use of 1-2 languages; i.e., non-interpreters/translators. Lawyers, for example, who had to use Spanish with clients fared better than business consultants who provided advice to business abroad. Some respondents who had a good understanding of the ILR scale reported that their tested Level 4 proficiency dropped as low as 0+ or 1 in their assessment. However, when they knew that they would need to use the language, it often took less than a week of full-time study to recoup their skills at the ILR Level 3. Their assessments match my experience as well as that of diplomats with whom I worked at the Foreign

Service Institute in the 1980s. Former Level 4 speakers of Russian who had been assigned to embassies worldwide and subsequently reassigned to Russia would come to class barely able to compose a sentence. Knowing from anecdotal experience how quickly Level 4 revives itself with direct instruction, we rarely planned more than five hours of instruction a week for 1-3 months, and the student usually left at Level 3. (I would note that we found lower levels of proficiency eroded permanently and to revive language that had not been assessed at least at Level 3 usually meant that study had to begin anew. Lt. Col. Samuel Shearel of the Naval Postgraduate School amply demonstrated such attrition in his 2013 study.

LANGUAGE FOSSILIZATION

In the forward-march phase of high-proficiency foreign-language acquisition, language fossilization, which, counter-intuitively speaking, *can* occur in a classroom when students' interlanguage develops faulty categories and concepts, is one of the biggest bumps. For students who have spent much time abroad, fossilized error can become entrenched. This is the reason direct instruction is needed or at least highly helpful. Teachers need to replace bad habits with good, a task no less arduous than giving up tobacco. Generally, fossilization requires drilling – it warrants natural "drilling" (i.e., repetition of language used incorrectly) to inculcate the entrenched error in the first place. Most teachers working at the upper levels of proficiency study agree (Shekhtman, 2003). Research (Leaver & Atwell, 2002) supports anecdotal experience: without *meaningful* drilling (i.e., contextualized, personalized, presented to self-aware learners), automatization of correct forms will take months or years, if it ever occurs at all.

In addition to fossilization of errors in grammar and vocabulary choice, another form of fossilization occurs on the way to the ILR 4: fossilization of language simplicity; i.e., the lack of development of language sophistication and synonymy in expression. Once students have learned one, usually simpler, way of expressing an idea, they often feel uncompelled to express that idea in a more sophisticated way, expected of someone with greater erudition. They fossilize into a "comfort zone," typically around Level 3. Again, direct instruction is often required to de-fossilize these students. Here, work in genre study, development of sociolinguistic understanding and production of a range of registers appropriate to a range of situations, and practice in embellishing and simplifying texts can nudge students out of their comfort zones.

DOMAINIZATION

Many of the respondents in the first study mentioned at the beginning of this paper (Leaver & Atwell, 2002) worked in fields where they used foreign language skills for accomplishing tasks (e.g., lawyers, consultants, businessmen); hence, the large percentage of those reporting a high level of instrumental, rather than integrative, motivation [the reverse of Gardner's finding for successful beginning language students (Gardner and Lambert, 1972)] (Leaver, 2003b). As a result, they frequently reported the phenomenon where they were very fluent in the areas in which they worked: in law, social sciences, or the physical sciences. However, they were unable to communicate as fluently in other domains.

There were also, of course, interpreters, translators, and language teachers in the mix. They reported a similar effect although not experienced quite as narrowly. They were able to discuss topics such as literature, culture, and linguistics more comfortably and with greater erudition than topics related to business, social science, and law.

This might simply be a fact of life where one cannot easily hop over the bump. After all, we all have chosen domains in which to work, and, even in our native language, we are more erudite when we speak about topics related to those domains than when we are forced into discussions of topics about which we rarely read and in which we are hardly interested.

LANGUAGE CHANGE

Unfortunately for language learners, languages are dynamic, not static, realities. The way people speak in 2010 in any country differs considerably from the way they spoke in 1910. Not only does new vocabulary match new phenomena, gadgets, and lifestyles, but slang changes with each generation. Émigrés from the Soviet Union can be tremendously out of touch with developments in contemporary Russia. In such cases, even extensive interaction with émigré communities is not helpful because they have also lost touch with the language. Only renewed exposure for extended periods or extensive reading and television viewing may help them stay abreast. Proficiency in language, unlike that in science, does not remain "achieved", once acquired.

CULTURAL APPROACHES TO ERROR ACCEPTANCE AND CORRECTION

To continue improving one's language and to avoid fossilization, correction is needed. Few learners are sufficiently self-aware or linguistically aware enough to recognize their own errors once they reach a professional level of proficiency (ILR-3), where they easily fit into any conversation or even any formal interaction. The discourse structure of some languages (those that repeat a phrase in confirming, questioning, or expanding on an utterance) allows for natural error correction if a learner is listening well. However, many languages, English being one of them, are not so structured. The problem with Level 3 proficiency is that it is good enough, and good enough means that few people will take the time to correct or explain errors in the learner's speech or writing. This may explain why many Level 3 speakers proclaim that they are often mistaken for natives — obviously, they are not. It is just that their errors have not been brought to their attention. This dearth of correction, however, is a bump, a big one, because it keeps students comfortably, happily, and even proudly, functioning at the lower 3-level proficiency.

CONCLUSION

Of course, these are not all the bumps that students will encounter. Given that every student will travel his or her own path, each will encounter a different set of bumps. The ones presented above are those that have been reported in one study or another as common in nearly all learners.

Moreover, no paper on this topic can end without stating the obvious: more research is needed on this topic. Nowhere, perhaps, is that statement more appropriate than in the upper levels of foreign language proficiency where the number of research studies can be listed on a half sheet of paper, or less. Hopefully, language educators, being interested and experienced in teaching at these levels, will undertake a range of studies and action research projects that will inform all of us in ways that we can use to smooth out the bumps and reduce the amount of time on task required to reach the near-native level.

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Shifting Learner Strategies and Teaching Practices to Reach Higher Levels of Proficiency

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An elementary school teacher who suddenly finds herself having to teach high school seniors needs to adjust her methods in some fundamental ways because teenagers think and learn differently from young children. Similarly, foreign language learners who have reached what ACTFL calls the "advanced level" (ILR 2 to 2+) and endeavor to reach even higher levels of proficiency need to be supported in special ways that differ from what is appropriate at lower levels. For adult language learners to reach ILR level 3 and beyond in an instructed foreign language setting, it is necessary for both learners and teachers to shift gears: learners need to develop greater metalinguistic and metacognitive awareness and adopt more efficient learning strategies, and teachers need to provide them with challenging tasks, carefully calibrated interventions, and individualized practice based on periodic diagnostic assessments. As learners climb the proficiency ladder, the distance from one step to the next gets increasingly larger. It is exponentially more difficult and time consuming to go from level 3 to level 4 than it is to reach level 3 from level 2, and the challenges facing teachers are correspondingly greater as well. Level 2 is the point where many learners are "stuck," especially those who previously completed an intensive language course at a US government school and subsequently enroll in a "post-Basic" program of some sort to regain, maintain, or improve their language skills. Teachers selected to teach such students—and those who teach at this level generally—must be highly skilled, which often means they require special training. Although relatively few learners advance beyond level 3, it is advisable to act as if all "post-Basic" students would eventually do so, in part because this might motivate learners to persevere and encourage teachers to keep developing their professional skills. Learners should be set on a course that could take them from level 2+ to 4+.

INTRODUCTION

In her seminal study of the “Good Language Learner” Rubin (1975) indicated that future research might explore how successful language learners “use different strategies at different points in time in the learning process.” Researchers have since documented that strategy training leads to gains in communicative competence (Chamot, 2005) and that successful learners vary and modify their strategies as they advance on the proficiency ladder (Leaver & Shekhtman, 2002). Efficient strategy use is one significant learner attribute among those who reach the superior and distinguished levels (Leaver 2003a). Only teachers who are highly successful language learners themselves and combine personal learning experience with professional knowledge of what works to reach the highest levels, both in terms of learner attributes and teacher interventions, are ideally suited to teach learners at the L2/L3 threshold and beyond.

In practice, not all learners know how to learn, and not all teachers know how to help their students learn effectively. Students may be handicapped by, among other things, arrested strategic competence; change-resistant interlanguage; failure to control basic phonetic, morphological, and syntactic features; lack of cultural knowledge and sensitivity; lack of a broad vocabulary; and lack of pragmatic awareness and/or pragmatic ability. A major problem with level 2 learners is that they may easily overestimate their language skills and not realize how far they have to go to reach *general professional proficiency*, the level that the US government has set as the standard for some jobs. A closely related problem is that many teachers appear to have become accustomed to their students’ inadequacies and seem satisfied by their performance when they, for example, can read simple authentic texts, understand the main points of more complex texts by guessing, carry on conversations about everyday topics, and understand native speakers in routine social situations. Instead of letting their students tread water, teachers need to push them, for instance to develop the ability to read a variety of prose without using a dictionary, to understand discussions of ideas and opinions, to converse about abstract topics, and to speak without making errors that interfere with communication. Even teachers who can envision these higher goals may not know how to get students there.

Teachers at this threshold must take a leap and shift their instructional approach, though not necessarily their methodology. If they are comfortable with the currently widespread eclecticism that combines communicative, proficiency-oriented, task-based, content-based, and learner-centered methods, they may only have to readjust some of the component parts. The shift in emphasis that is called for at this juncture entails increased emphasis on the following: diagnostic assessment; strategy instruction that is integrated into the curriculum; explicit instruction of linguistic features combined with form-focused practice; tasks involving all skills, including writing; development of sociolinguistic, sociocultural, and discourse competence; and inclusion of job-related content.

LEARNER STRATEGIES AND STRATEGY INSTRUCTION

Students entering post-Basic L2 training may previously have received little or no strategy instruction. Regardless of students' prior exposure, course length (from four weeks to six months) and delivery mode (full or part-time, in the field, school, or online), it is advisable to provide some strategy instruction and integrate it into the program. By the time they have reached level 2, learners generally have strong opinions about what works for them and how they want to be taught. For this reason metacognition needs to be developed, because without metacognitive awareness they may not be able to stop using ineffective or counterproductive strategies and try more effective ones. It has been pointed out that in order to have metacognitively aware learners, we must have metacognitively aware teachers (Anderson, 2008). Although some teachers may acquire the necessary professional skills on their own, strategy instruction is best implemented through teacher training (Rubin, Chamot, Harris, & Anderson, 2010). At the Defense Language Institute, "Academic Specialists" play an important role in this regard.[1] In addition, having a certain percentage of teachers in a department certified as Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI) testers and/or Diagnostic Assessment (DA) specialists tends to raise the professionalism and effectiveness of the whole department.[2]

Learning Styles and Learner Strategies

Diagnostic assessment (DA), designed to help learners improve proficiency in all four skills, is helpful at all levels but indispensable at high levels (Cohen, 2003). Because it is important to know as much as possible about how individual learners learn, the DA process includes an assessment of students' learning styles and learning strategies. The latter are techniques, employed consciously with varying degrees of deliberateness, to make the learning process more effective, less onerous, or more enjoyable. Learning styles, by comparison, are for the most part not a matter of choice but deeply held preferences and stable individual traits. Learners who are aware of their learning styles are in a good position to select appropriate learner strategies, cooperate more flexibly with their fellow students, and adjust to their teachers' teaching style. Teachers who are aware of their own as well as their students' learning styles may be better able to meet individual students' needs, to reflect on and vary their teaching style, and to manage the process of teaching a number of distinctly different students enrolled in the same class.

Someone's learning style is a unique combination of sensory preferences (visual, auditory, kinesthetic, tactile), cognitive style (e.g., random vs. sequential, holistic vs. atomistic), and personality traits (e.g., introverted vs. extraverted, judging vs. perceiving). Although there are a number of cognitive style instruments and personality tests available (Cohen, 2003; Nel, 2008), some US government schools make good use of *The Ehrman and Leaver Learning Styles Questionnaire* (referred to below by its earlier name E&L Construct) and the *Myers-Briggs Type Indicator* (MBTI). Used in combination, these two assessment tools reveal comprehensive information that can significantly aid the quest for level 3 (Leaver, 2003b).

Cognitive style consists of a number of variables that are bipolar but not dichotomous, for instance, impulsive vs. reflective. A learner can be impulsive at times and reflective at other times but have a strong or weak overall preference for one pole or the other. Impulsiveness and reflectiveness are not mutually exclusive. The E&L Construct has ten bipolar categories, or subscales, and combines them in two overarching style categories, synopsis and ectasis. Synoptic learners approach phenomena in a holistic manner and rely on intuition and subconscious control. Ectenic learners process information atomistically and exercise conscious control over their learning. The synoptic styles are field sensitive, field independent, leveling, global, impulsive, synthetic, analogue, concrete, random, and inductive. The ectenic styles are field insensitive, field dependent, sharpener, particular, reflective, analytic, digital, abstract, sequential, and deductive.

The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI), a widely used personality test, sorts psychological differences into four dichotomous pairs: Extraversion vs. Introversion, Sensing vs. Intuition, Thinking vs. Feeling, and Judging vs. Perceiving. There are sixteen possible combinations, and thus there are sixteen personality types, expressed by abbreviations of four letters. INTJ, for instance, stands for introverted-intuitive-thinking-judging, and ESFP is extraverted-sensing-feeling-perceiving.

A person's cognitive style and personality type are complex and multidimensional, as indicated by the fact that one's preference on each L&E subscale and on each MBTI axis may be more or less pronounced. This means that each student in a language class is bound to have a profile unlike that of every other student (though there will be commonalities).

A learning strategy is a procedure that learners use, deliberately or habitually, to help them learn. Also known as learner strategy, the term can refer to any step, action, behavior, or technique that language learners use to facilitate or improve learning. Motivated, successful language learners employ a variety of strategies to make learning easier and more effective, whether they have been instructed in strategy use or not. Since Rubin's seminal paper on the "good learner" (1975), researchers and educators have endeavored to teach less successful learners what the "good learners" do in the hope that more learners would improve their proficiency. Rubin investigated learner strategies by observing and videotaping classroom behavior, although many strategies are not observable because they are internal, mental processes. Other methods for identifying learners' strategies that have been developed since then include self-report procedures such as questionnaires, interviews, journals, and think-aloud protocols (Chamot, 2005).

One widely accepted taxonomy of learner strategies (Oxford, 1990) distinguishes six main types: memory strategies, cognitive strategies, compensation strategies, metacognitive strategies, affective strategies, and social strategies.

- Memory strategies help learners store and retrieve information.
- Cognitive strategies are the largest group (15) and deal with perceiving, understanding, reasoning, and analyzing.
- Compensation strategies are stratagems by which learners compensate for gaps in their knowledge so they may continue conversing in the language.
- Metacognitive strategies involve “cognition about cognition” or self-reflection: learners focus on their learning processes and plan, manage, and evaluate their progress.
- Affective strategies are used by learners to monitor and control their emotions, attitudes, and motivation.
- Social strategies help students learn by interacting with others.

Each of these six types has sub-types and contains between six and fifteen strategies, with a total of 62 named strategies (though there is no finite number). Every strategy is given a mnemonically significant name. Although several other classification schemes, generally developed for research purposes, exist, Oxford’s nomenclature lends itself well to strategy instruction in the classroom. Some teachers may prefer, however, to select strategy labels from among several taxonomies. In fact, it may be useful for learners to develop their own terminology that is easy for them to remember, especially if strategy instruction is given in the target language.

Based on their learning style, students normally gravitate towards certain strategies. Extraverts may favor social strategies in most situations, and introverts may show preference for affective strategies. Whereas thinkers may like cognitive as well as metacognitive strategies, feelers may underutilize the former and shun the latter. Ectenic learners gravitate towards cognitive strategies like reasoning and analyzing but synoptic learners may rely heavily on compensation strategies. Learners will typically vary their strategies in response to a task and its perceived difficulty or relevance, and their choice of a given strategy is further influenced by a number of variables, among them style preference, motivation, aptitude, proficiency level, and the context in which learning takes place (Cohen, 2003). Improved learning is not so much dependent on the number of strategies that a learner utilizes as on how effectively they are employed; i.e., it is a matter of strategic competence.

In the classroom, teachers will need to pay particular attention to how strategies align with learning styles. In the process of choosing a strategy or a combination of strategies for a task, learners may also tweak their learning style. They should always capitalize on their strengths, but sometimes they need to get out of their comfort zone and stretch their style. An extenic learner, for instance, who is highly reflective might try more spontaneity in order to improve fluency, or a synoptic learner who is content with getting the big picture might attempt to be particular and focus on morphology.

In situations where two learners with radically different learning styles cannot equally benefit from a teacher whose approach matches the style of one learner and clashes with that of the other one, it can be useful to do four-handed teaching (having two teachers in the classroom at the same time), or assign one to another teacher.

The Role of Metacognition

Metacognition, which is usually defined as thinking about thinking, is the basis for developing learner strategies. It refers to how learners think about their learning processes; and this includes reflecting on learning style and learning strategies. High metacognitive awareness is central to achieving high levels of proficiency.

Metacognition consists of five components: (1) preparing and planning for learning; (2) selecting and using strategies; (3) monitoring learning; (4) orchestrating strategies; and (5) evaluating learning (Anderson, 2008). Oxford (1990) distinguishes three main metacognitive strategies and eleven subordinate strategies, all of which are teachable. At higher levels, however, it seems that metacognitive awareness emerges as an over-arching strategy by which learners orchestrate all learning strategies. Learners who had achieved native-like proficiency reported using metacognitive strategies more than any others and considered them the most important (Leaver, 2003a).

The Role of Metalinguistic Awareness

Metalinguistic awareness plays a role in language learning that is similar to that of metacognition in that both involve attentiveness to language and language use. When learning to read and write, first-graders develop metalinguistic awareness that reflects the phonological system of their language and its writing system (Nagy & Anderson, 1995). Bilingual children with good metalinguistic awareness can transfer skills and knowledge learned in one language to the next. Metalinguistic awareness does not develop uniformly in children, and many children require instruction in it.

Many adults seem to be unaware of how language works. Surprisingly, even some who have completed a language course with a level 2 proficiency rating in one or more skills appear to have limited metalinguistic awareness. They may fail to recognize salient morphological features, be unable to analyze syntactical patterns, lack a metalanguage to talk about language, or have little understanding of linguistic concepts. To help such learners reach level 3, teachers are well advised to help them view language as a fascinating and intelligible system that allows them to communicate and express themselves. If learners begin to think about language and learn to speak about language using linguistic terminology, they may improve language skills significantly.

In situations where the teachers are native speakers of the language they teach, it has been shown that learners benefit from occasional or periodic L2 instruction by native speakers of their L1.[3] If the latter are trained in Second Language Acquisition, they are particularly apt at helping learners' metalinguistic awareness.

Strategy Instruction

The goal of strategy instruction is to acquaint learners with a broad array of strategy options and give them an opportunity to use strategies effectively by selecting those that are appropriate for a given task and are more or less consistent with their individual learning styles. A more far-reaching goal is to help learners be more self-directed and autonomous.

Depending on organizational contexts and available resources, strategy instruction can be integrated into the curriculum or delivered separately by specialists, but it seems to be most effective if it is fully integrated into the course of instruction and taught by regular teachers. Most current models of strategy instruction share the following features: (1) students' current strategy use is identified by a variety of means; (2) teachers demonstrate and model new strategies; (3) students are given multiple opportunities to practice; (4) students evaluate how well a strategy has worked; (5) students choose a strategy for a task; and (6) students transfer strategies to new tasks (Cohen, 2003; Chamot, 2008). To raise adult learners' awareness, a number of techniques have been developed, such as "think alouds," questionnaires, focus groups, and journals (Rubin, Chamot, Harris, & Anderson 2010).

Given the wide range of learning styles teachers commonly encounter in a given classroom, it would be counterproductive to have all students adopt the same strategies. Although teachers may introduce all strategy types, their main task is helping students to identify strategies that work well for them, including those not aligned with learning styles.

With adult learners at level 2, the two main priorities are to strengthen metacognitive strategies and to stop using strategies helpful at low levels but ineffective at this level, particularly compensation strategies. The latter allow learners to make up for, or even cover up, limitations in their language ability and continue with the task or activity. Compensation strategies, such as using mime or gestures, coining words, and using a circumlocution or synonym, are indeed very useful for beginners and favored by extraverts and synoptic learners; and although they may facilitate fluency, they do so at the expense of accuracy and pragmatic correctness, which are necessary at higher levels. Other strategies that learners may have to discontinue at this juncture are "guessing intelligently" and "getting the idea quickly," typically favored by synoptic learners, which let learners overlook what is unknown, because now they need strategies to focus their attention on what is unknown or unclear. It should be noted, however, that some strategies can undergo a qualitative change when used at higher levels. "Guessing intelligently," for instance, might be employed by distinguished-level learners to understand fine sociolinguistic nuances.

Aiming for Level 3

A learner may fail to progress beyond level 2 in spite of sufficient exposure and time on task for any number of reasons, among them flawed instruction, a clash between the teacher's approach and the learner's own learning style, lack of motivation, anxiety, inability or unwillingness to take risks, ineffective use of learning strategies, and fossilization.

Fossilization is a particularly intractable problem and requires much effort on the part of teachers and students. Ehrman (2002) distinguishes five varieties of fossilization: (1) functional, (2) instruction-fostered, (3) domain restriction, (4) affective, and (5) arrested strategic development. In addition, she mentions a kind of cognitive fossilization that stems from strongly held learner beliefs about their preferred method of language instruction. Although Ehrman was concerned with learners in "Beyond Three" programs, much of her characterization seems applicable to students who are fossilized at level 2. Whatever the etiology, some of Ehrman's remedies seem appropriate for this level as well: individualized instruction focused on grammar and discourse structures, with students' attention directed towards what is not known; focus on the relations between form, meaning, and context; encouragement for learners' self-efficacy; and diagnostic assessments, and learners' self-assessments.

In the author's experience, it also seems advisable to teach some level 4 elements, such as comprehension of dialect and nonstandard speech, and transcription is a valuable means of doing this. To emphasize the need for accuracy, it is useful to have students practice writing in the target language or do translations from L1 to L2.

CONCLUSION:
RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT AND FACULTY TRAINING

Implementing strategy instruction in a learner-centered environment requires a highly skilled faculty, especially with adult students aiming for General Professional Proficiency. At the institutional level, it takes a strong commitment to resource development and teacher training.

To match the individual needs of each learner, a school must have plentiful resources for use inside and outside the classroom, including multimedia, authentic materials, reference materials, language learning materials, and job-relevant content materials. Students should have intensive practice with focused feedback, as well as opportunities for immersion and independent study (Jackson, 2004).

Some teachers find it difficult to implement strategy instruction and learner-centered teaching for a variety of reasons, including curriculum constraints, teaching style, educational philosophy, lack of resources, and lack of experience. To overcome such constraints, teachers must be given training and professional development opportunities. Faculty development of teachers involved in post-Basic courses for level 2 students should include lessons from programs that take learners to near-native proficiency (Leaver & Shekhtman, 2002). It also seems that an experimental approach to faculty development may be necessary that lets teachers discover, practice, and evaluate their own strategies and approaches, just as they take their students through a similar process (Rubin, Chamot, Harris, & Anderson 2010). There is a commitment to do this at Department of Defense schools.

NOTES

1. Academic Specialists at the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center are non-supervisory facilitators, attached to the various language schools and departments, who mentor individual teachers, coach small teaching teams, conduct or organize workshops, facilitate peer mentoring, and assist with curriculum and materials development.
2. In the author's department there were seven trained Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI) testers and four Diagnostic Assessment (DA) certified faculty among its fifteen teachers.
3. At Department of Defense schools, teachers who are native English speakers include most Military Language Instructors, who also teach job-specific content.

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Ensuring Reading Depth and Accelerating Reading Speed at Near-native Levels of Proficiency

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In training adult foreign language learners to read with the depth and speed approaching those of natives, it was noted that these learners' difficulties with passages that are rated above ILR level 3 often stem from the tendency to focus on ideas that are nearby in a discourse for local coherence, to the point of overlooking distal connections, necessitating frequent re-reading or resulting in the reduced ability to follow inferences. To treat this tendency, the Layered Funnels processing procedures were developed as a way to improve working memory utilization and enhance learners' reading comprehension, particularly in near-native levels of proficiency. By enabling learners to more efficiently encapsulate turns of thought within lengthy discourse, the Layered Funnels processing procedures help reveal the sophisticated interplay amongst multiple ideas and outside references to the learner, as well as reduce the need to re-read, in effect increasing both reading depth and speed.

INTRODUCTION

In the course of training adult foreign language learners to read with the depth and speed approaching those of the native individuals, it was found that commonality exists among learners' difficulties in meeting the expectations outlined for level 3+ and above in the Interagency Language Roundtable reading skill level descriptions. Specifically, it was noted that learners have a tendency to hyperfocus on ideas that are nearby in a discourse for local coherence, to the point of overlooking distal connections, necessitating frequent re-reading or resulting in reduced ability to follow the inferences. In the process of searching for and developing treatments for this tendency, through a combination of diagnostic assessment, tests and quizzes, learners' journals, teaching journals, etc., it was found that in trying to understand the current passage segment or paragraph, learners forget some or much of preceding essential contents. This adds to the difficulty of tracking an author's turns of thought, and is particularly detrimental when reading higher-level passages, where the author's message is conveyed through lengthy discourse as well as sophisticated literary styles. To ensure comprehension, some learners must reread earlier passage segments, but this seems to be of limited help. This necessitated an examination of the utilization of working memory, and how learners may improve overall reading depth and speed through strategic improvements.

WORKING MEMORY

Working memory is used both for temporary storage and processing of representational elements, which can denote a word, phrase, proposition, grammatical structure, object in the external world, thematic structure, etc. (Just & Carpenter, 1992). Drewnowski and Healy (1977) noted that this flexibility is clearly visible in reading, as familiar word sequences, such as those composed with high-frequency function words, may be read in units larger than the word. Not only does the native individual read with flexibility, but also with automaticity in utilization of function word and collocations. For example, in the native individual, there is a tendency to fixate on 83% of the content words and 38% of the function words (Carpenter & Just, 1983). Staub and Rayner (2007) also affirmed earlier findings (Rayner & Duffy, 1988) that function words are skipped more than half of the time. Starr and Rayner (2001) pointed out that this skipping pattern in natives is indicative of reading occurring not just at the currently fixated (foveal) region in the sentence, but also at the next few words (parafoveal) as well. One possible interpretation of this phenomenon is facility and automaticity in syntactic structure utilization. This skipping pattern by natives, however, should not be interpreted in the same way as the skipping pattern noted in second language (L2) learners.

Felder, Roberts, and Marinis (2003) observed that, unlike natives who readily utilize syntactic structures, L2 learners seem to make use of lexical but not of syntactic information to resolve ambiguities. Clahsen and Felser (2006) hypothesized that this "skipping" of available syntactic information shows an L2 learner preference for direct mapping from surface form to interpretation, or "Shallow Structures." Given that comprehension of passages rated at ILR level 3+ requires the ability to "comprehend a considerable range of intentionally complex structures" (ILR Skill Level Descriptions for Reading, n.d., para. 12), the L2 learner striving to exceed ILR level 3 would need to divert working memory resources to avoid interpreting intentionally complex structures erroneously as shallow-structures. This is one possible reason why, compared to the native individual, the L2 reader's working memory resources may be less available for other crucial processing requirements such as the processing of inferences.

The processing of inferences, which heavily taxes the working memory, is critical for foreign language reading comprehension (Walter, 2004; Ardila, 2003; Miyake & Friedman, 1998; Horiba, 1996; Hammadou, 1991; Daneman & Carpenter, 1980). Similarly, Singer (1994) affirmed that there is extensive evidence to support the belief that the ability to connect inferences and preserve text coherence, whether the ideas are near or distant from each other, is crucial for comprehension of the discourse. As the reading passage's level approaches ILR level 4, the L2 learner reading in a non-native language must contend with features such as unpredictable turns of thought, nuance and subtlety (ILR Skill Level Descriptions for Reading, n.d., para. 13). These features are typically not at the word or phrase-level but are ideas spanning a considerable length, requiring distal connections and extensive inference processing. This presents a particular challenge for the L2 learner. Unlike the native individual whose automaticity and flexibility allow much of the working memory to focus on the idea-level, the L2 learner reading a non-native passage would also need more plausibility checks at the word or phrase-level, before being able to proceed to the idea-level. If the reading process may be likened to navigating a maze, the L2 learner's frequent word or phrase-level plausibility checks may be likened to a reliance on Boolean logic to navigate the maze in a turn-by-turn way, without knowledge and proper consideration of the spatial relationship between the entry and exit points. Should the L2 reader discover that he/she is going in the wrong direction, the individual would need to recollect each turn taken so far in order to hypothesize the plausible exit direction. In contrast, being able to step back and consider the passage at the idea-level could be likened to having an awareness of the spatial relations between the entry and exit points. The reader, knowing the general direction of the exit point, would have a better idea of where the maze's designer may be going with the next sets of unpredictable turns.

There is a corresponding increase in both breadth and depth of requisite content knowledge as the reading skill level rises (ILR Skill Level Descriptions for Reading, n.d.), which further taxes L2 learners' working memory. Learners striving for ILR level 4 are expected to discern interplay among multiple sophisticated references (ILR Skill Level Descriptions for Reading, n.d., para. 13), which also involves the working memory. It is, therefore, understandable that resolution of ambiguity in the L2 is delayed relative to resolution of ambiguity in the L1 (Clahsen & Felser, 2006). It is reasonable to assume that L2 learners have less working memory remaining for determination of distal coherence, but may default to searching for local coherence and shallow-structure processing.

LAYERED FUNNELS

In searching for a treatment for L2 learners' distal coherence tracking deficit, one should consider that memory for the meaning of sentences is more robust than memory for their form (Fletcher, 1994). After trying multiple alternatives, the author of this paper determined that the optimal treatment strategy, especially for high-level reading, should enhance both learners' focus on meaning and their facility with coherence tracking throughout high-level discourse. This calls for a strategy capable of both reducing lengthy discourse into essential meaning encapsulations and facilitating ongoing processing, thereby revealing the sophisticated interplay amongst multiple ideas and outside references to the learner. The author designed the *Layered Funnels* processing procedures for these purposes.

In *Layered Funnels* processing, reader begins by identifying or formulating the focus sentence of each paragraph, such that the focus sentence meets three conditions:

- Sums up this paragraph
- Links this paragraph with the preceding one
- Leads this paragraph into the next one

The following illustration is a visualization of the *Layered Funnels* processing procedures:

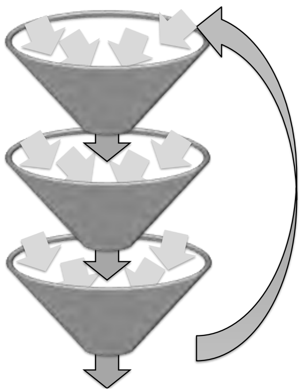

Figure 1: *Layered Funnels Processing*

As the L2 learner processes a passage, instead of forming a separate and distinct encapsulation that may eject previously formed encapsulations from the learner's working memory, the *Layered Funnels* procedures aid the emergence of a new combined encapsulation at the paragraph level in the form of a focus sentence. The new focus sentence, as a data-rich encapsulation capable of representing the paragraph, is then considered alongside the preceding focus sentence. This ensures that the newly read paragraph and the previously read paragraph are jointly retained and processed. Then, as the learner engages the third paragraph, the preceding focus sentences are then considered together and further encapsulated, and so on. The *Layered Funnels* processing procedures can, therefore, help reveal inter-paragraph connections, uncovering the structure of the discourse, clarifying the author's tone or attitude toward the topic under discussion, and more.

As Van Dijk and Kintsch (1983) hypothesized, utilization of transfer schema is a possible solution to the working memory's real-time processing constraints. To increase adult foreign language learners' reading depth and speed, it is crucial to maximize the first-read effectiveness. This, for a L2 learner striving to rise to the expectations laid out for ILR Level 3+ and above, may come down to a matter of what can be understood and what could be recalled amongst those that had been understood. For learners whose graduation requirements include high-stakes lengthy summative assessments, working memory utilization is of even greater importance. Rai, Loschky, Harris, Peck and Cook (2011) examined the roles of working memory capacity and stress in foreign language inferential processing during reading comprehension, and confirmed the value of enhanced working memory utilization and the importance of reduction of stress. Without applicable and well-rehearsed strategies, stress may exacerbate learners' difficulties in comprehending the foreign language text through lengthening the amount of time needed for processing inferences.

CONCLUSION

Because working memory utilization is a factor for L2 learners striving to go beyond ILR level 3 in reading comprehension, it would benefit them to develop representational strategies that extend the effectiveness of the working memory by intensifying the encapsulation of read contents. This could reduce the likelihood of earlier-read elements from being dislodged from working memory by the process of successive integration of new information, and reduce the need for the learner to re-read. Such encapsulation strategies could, therefore, allow the reader to more readily and more quickly follow the discourse and appreciate how the writer expressed the point. The *Layered Funnels* processing procedures are developed for this purpose, to help the learner utilize paragraph-level encapsulations in the ongoing processing of inter-paragraph relationships. It is a possible solution for enhancing reading depth through revealing and tying together passage elements otherwise invisible to L2 learners and for improving overall reading speed by reducing the need to reread.

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Reconstructing High-level Speech Acts in the Foreign Language Classroom

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Research coupled with experience has shown that language instruction that aids the Second Language Acquisition (SLA), particularly at the upper levels (native/ professional), is incomplete without the proper implementation and integration of Second Language Production (SLP). SLP, contrary to popular belief, is not a milestone of SLA but an integral part of the SLA process. This article will focus on the importance of SLP in the SLA process by discussing the significance behind teaching pragmatic competence obtained through Discourse Analysis (DA), then developing these skills through speech acts at higher levels of proficiency. Furthermore, it will explore several common professional-level speech acts at the discourse level and delve into examples of these speech acts taken from a manual created specifically for this purpose while providing analyses and research from the field.

INTRODUCTION

Second language classroom, particularly at the upper levels (native/ professional), is incomplete without the proper implementation and integration of Second Language Production (SLP). SLP is not a milestone of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) but an integral part of the process. The argument has been made that speaking the language does not play a significant role in SLA and is not even necessary, maintaining that language acquisition occurs mainly through passive learning skills such as reading and listening (Krashen, 1981). This claim is further substantiated by the contention that SLP, particularly speech, gradually emerges through a natural process. Although, this theory has proven to hold true in children's acquisition of first and second languages (L1 and L2), it differs where adult L2 learners are concerned, specifically at the advanced levels. This article outlines the hypothesis that, although language production is an ongoing process of development, emerging piecemeal, if harnessed correctly, it may be a valuable tool for L2 learners.

Combined with the proper language input methodology in the form of Discourse Analysis (DA) and the continuous practice of speech acts in the L2 within the framework of pragmatics, SLP can take its proper place as an inclusive and dominant factor in the SLA formula. Typical modern linguistic focuses such as syntax and morphology are important in SLA; however, the L2 learner, particularly when stepping foot into the domain of the higher levels (ILR 3+ and up), often lacks the foundational structure necessary for proper native/professional discourse and is unable to produce the target language at this level. This is most often not a result of syntactical error or lexical deficiency in the learner, but the intense focus and stress that these are given in the classroom in the earlier stages of learning. This is particularly true in performing speech acts.

This article will discuss the significance behind teaching pragmatic competence obtained through Discourse Analysis (DA) and the process of developing these skills through speech acts at higher levels of proficiency. Furthermore, it will explore common professional-level speech acts at the discourse level, and then investigate examples taken from a manual created specifically for this purpose while providing analyses and research from the field.

LANGUAGE: STRUCTURE VS. COMMUNICATION

Cots (1996) found “there still has not been a real change of approach to language teaching and learning. The reason for this is that, with some exceptions, the linguistic education of most of the present language teachers is still very much influenced by a structural approach, which prioritizes the study of language as an autonomous system of rules rather than as a means of communication” (p.78). Where structure has taken the spotlight and virtually all of the focus in second language education, the reason for the existence of language to begin with has been significantly depreciated (Hymes, 2001). If any progress is to be made in the development of pedagogic methodologies and curricula structures in SLA, an ideological paradigm shift needs to occur in the way we view language. In order for L2 learners to succeed as language professionals, a fundamental change has to be made in teaching strategies.

L1→L2: Square Pegs, Round Holes

Too often in SLA, L2 learners, particularly at the lower levels, are susceptible to predicating newly-found linguistic structures on a foundation of their L1. However, this is like putting square pegs in round holes. The two, more often than not, just do not fit. When this occurs it is known as *L1 Interference* (Krashen, 1981). Hall (1999) contends “interacting with others in another language involves more than knowing the appropriate syntax and lexicon. It is also, minimally, a matter of interactional competence” (p. 138). It could be argued that the knowledge of the inner-workings (e.g., lexicon, semantics, syntax, morphology) of one’s L1 significantly increases the learner’s ability to grasp the concepts of the target language and ultimately apply them to a degree. Nonetheless, when school is out and all is said and done, unless the learner knows and experiences the various structures and patterns of discourse in the L2 as it appears in native/professional-level communication, there is no hope to practice, apply, and produce. In other words, without the knowledge and experience of socio- and cultural-linguistic patterns obtained from appropriate language input, learners lean on their L1 knowledge and experience in developing the L2 (Demo, 2001). This dangerous but all-too-common habit of L1 interference, particularly in the framework of oral communicative tasks, has been found to be inappropriate and could ultimately lead to misunderstanding and miscommunication in the L2 (Demo, 2001). Studying and learning the correct speech in the target language through discourse analysis is not only an appropriate strategy for developing oral communication, but also an effective way for non-native speakers to elude common socio-cultural pitfalls (Demo, 2001; Hinkel, 1999). Typical L1 interference errors that arise during adult L2 performance are both lexical and syntactical in nature. More specifically, they appear as one-to-one translation and word order and/or sentence structure (Krashen, 1981). Over time, these mistakes transform into habits. Such bad habits become hardwired in the L2 learner enough to render error correction frustrating on the part of the instructor and nearly impossible for the learner. Ultimately, such practices impede SLA development which, in turn, forestall further progress toward the higher levels (ILR 3+ and above). This has been a prominent factor contributing to what has kept the majority of adult L2 learners from attaining such levels of oral proficiency in the L2. Although L1 interference is not the sole cause for error in adult SLP, its negative influence on the SLA process is apparent (Krashen, 1981). The SLA environment is to blame for such errors in adult L2 performance because appropriate intake is scarce and translation exercises are frequent (Krashen 1981, Krashen & Terrell, 1988). If this is truly the case, then the remedy can be deduced.

L2 INPUT THROUGH DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

The key word here is “appropriate intake”. In order to replace bad habits with good ones a sanitization/filtration of the L2 learner’s SLA slate must take place. To put it in layman’s terms, out with the bad, and in with the good. The method that this paper proposes as a sanitization/filtration process is, as previously mentioned, *Discourse Analysis* (DA). DA falls directly under the umbrella of the “appropriate intake” methodology.

DA, as defined by Demo (2001), is “the examination of language use by members of a speech community.” The processes of DA transcend the basic examination of language at the word or sentence level, rather L2 learners employ DA with the goal of dissecting authentic native language in order to shed light on all its elements at the discourse level (paragraph and beyond). DA is further characterized as the act of investigating both the “form” and “function” of language while indentifying and classifying various linguistic aspects of a particular piece of discourse (Demo, 2001). Therefore, a discourse analyst may approach discourse with the goal of gaining a further understanding of its underlying linguistic structures, while revealing its communicative purpose or function. DA can be applied to either the spoken word or the written text (Demo, 2001). For purposes of this paper I will focus on DA as it pertains to speech communication. However, performing DA on written material can serve as a valuable resource for developing oral proficiency in the L2. This will be given special consideration later in the paper.

DA continues to undertake a more active role as an SLA methodology in the assessment of linguistic performance and oral proficiency (Brown, 2004). McNamara (1996) theorizes that structural linguistics was the source of the views on language of the formative period of post-war language testing, but discourse analysis has taken its place for the assessment of oral language. From experience, I concur that this has become the case, but what other purposes can DA serve in SLA? Doukanari (1995) points out that the application of DA has been extensive with regards to native-level dialogue. Doukanari adds, however, "DA has not yet reached the level of application in SLA by L2 learners" (p.71). I propose that L2 learners can harness the powers of DA in analyzing and breaking down the language. This suggests that L2 learners become discourse analysts. Though rich and valuable lessons can be learned in real-life target-language settings, due to the difficulty and infrequency of the L2 learners' exposure to authentic discourse and native-level interactive exchanges/ communicative events in their natural environment, the teachers must bring that language to them by creating the proper immersion environment within the walls of the classroom (Demo, 2001). While this sanitization/filtration process takes place, DA acts as a gateway or segway from which L2 learners are launched into the upper echelons of SLA; no textbooks, no pre-recorded drills or short, choppy dialogs, just real language.

Conducting DA on Real Language: A Discussion on Authentic Materials

Real language suggests "authentic materials", defined as language resources from the real world. So, if DA acts as the "intake" aspect of this approach, then authentic materials define the appropriate element of said approach. Appropriate authentic materials, particularly audio-visual resources, can include but are not limited to movies, news broadcasts, dialogs, interviews, and speeches. The objective is to acquire unadulterated audio or audio-visual resources in the original form in which they were produced for SLA purposes (Nunan, 1989; Waltermire, 2008). The use of non-authentic, prefabricated materials in the class has been and continues to be more common, particularly at the lower-echelons of L2 learning (Waltermire, 2008), but this need not be the case. Utilizing authentic audio/video resources to conduct DA on high-level speech acts in a compendious pedagogical framework is key to obtaining not only a general comprehension of speech acts and subject matter, but also, and perhaps more importantly, in acquiring specific linguistic and socio-cultural elements therein. Consequently, understanding these socio-cultural intricacies fosters metalinguistical awareness, an intrinsic ability necessary to perform high-level discourse in the target language. Furthermore, the L2 learner is provided a source from which to mirror the language, its accents, mannerisms, and other important characteristics associated with oral communication. Other possible aspects to consider are the personalities and mentalities of the native speakers involved in the particular speech acts. In addition to general linguistic and semantic comprehension, this factor impacts reading between the lines during an interactive exchange. Accordingly, Waltermire (2008) suggests that constant exposure to authentic material allows the L2 learners to "gradually adjust their production/comprehension to more accurately reflect that of native speakers" (p. 2), thereby narrowing the gap between their discourse and that of native speakers in terms of both linguistic quality and socio-cultural authenticity. Similarly, small children require "intake" of their L1. If children, for instance, did not have models to mimic speech, then it is fair to conclude that the extent of their spoken language would be merely incomprehensible sounds. In such a case, much civility would be lost and an inevitable failure in communication with others would take place. Through analysis of the authentic discourse brought into the class by the instructor, L2 learners will have more opportunities to detect, evaluate, and absorb valuable discourse features found in higher level speech acts such as intonation, speech rate, and stress. With the guidance of the instructor, learners can then reflect what they have analyzed and learned by reproducing the native discourse and ultimately producing their own native-like or professional-level speech acts (Waltermire, 2008). This leads us to the next, which is appropriate output.

Attaining Communicative Competence through a Pragmatic Approach

As the L2 learners become discourse analysts they begin to acquire specific communicative skills and/or competencies in addition to *linguistic competence*, which is defined as the understanding and ability to apply linguistic structures within a language (Hymes, 2001), whereas *communicative competence* considers other elements of language. For example, in Uso-Juan and Martinez-Flor (2006) contrasting Hymes' and Chomsky's varying theories behind this term, communicative competence is "a dynamic social concept based on the negotiation of meaning between two or more speakers" (p. 41). Additionally, under the expansive umbrella of communicative competence there are other connate elements whose integration and application in the SLA process are similarly significant. *Pragmatics*, according to Crystal (2003), is "the study of language from the point of view of users, especially of the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language as social interaction and the effects their use of language has on other participants in the act of communication" (p. 363). Through this process the L2 learners acquire certain skills necessary for navigating the upper echelons of discourse in the target language. Those possessing *pragmatic ability* are able to cope with the meaning of what has been communicated in an utterance or speech act and interpret intent (Yule, 1996). In essence, pragmatic ability applies pragmatics in the scope of oral communication with regards to comprehension. Such a skill in L2 must be acquired, nurtured, and developed with the goal of making it second nature. Having reached this point in the SLA process the learners will have the opportunity to develop what Uso-Juan and Martinez-Flor (2006) refer to as *pragmatic competence*. Pragmatic competence allows L2 learners to apply what they have learned from the DA (deconstructive element) and reformulate through SLP (reconstructive element) the target-language patterns in high-level oral discourse appropriately and grammatically, keeping in mind the social variables that qualify a speech act as appropriate (pp. 41-42). In other words, applying pragmatics within the framework of appropriate oral communication in terms of *both* comprehension *and* production is the by-product of *pragmatic competence*. This important element of language takes into account both the communicative and social dimensions of its use. However, what does that tell us about SLP and the role it plays in the SLA process? Now that the L2 learners have been exposed to the authentic high-level discourse of the target language and have thoroughly analyzed it, they are prepared and armed with pragmatic ability/competence; with proper guidance from the instructor they are able to reconstruct and replicate the different linguistic, sociolinguistic, and strategic patterns in authentic speech. This pedagogical approach within the framework of pragmatics allows the learners to reproduce speech acts in the L2 at or near the level at which the analyzed discourse was conducted.

SECOND LANGUAGE PRODUCTION (SLP): SPEECH ACTS

What is the significance of duplicating another's discourse or speech? I will answer the question with another question. How do children develop their linguistic abilities? The language that children learn first is the spoken word. They simply copy verbally what they hear. At first they get sounds mixed up, leave some consonants and vowels out all together, or add some of their own. However, with the help and guidance from their parents, children pick up the language used by those around them. Of course, this is an ideal situation where the child is immersed in both the society and culture of the language, equipped with ever-developing sponge-like mental faculties, capable of seemingly effortless linguistic growth. Under somewhat different circumstances and with the help and guidance of the instructor, adult L2 learners *can* successfully navigate this process and develop the competencies necessary to autonomously replicate the target language at any level.

As the language begins to unfold before them, the L2 learners are prepared to make the transition from L2 input to L2 output. This requires them to switch from the "developmental" mode to a "production" mode. The "production" phase of the process also moonlights as development because the L2 learners continue to learn, mature, and progress in both pragmatic ability and communicative competence. A Russian proverb puts it best by stating "Repetition is the mother of learning." This allows for the forming of good habits and memorizing of rules, patterns, and key elements found in discourse at the higher levels. Repetition in foreign language learning is "a natural element of non-pedagogic oral discourse" which fosters the development of speech processing, psycholinguistics, and sociolinguistics (Bygate, 2006, p.160). The best way is to conduct speech acts in natural settings.

Speaking the target language, a form of SLP, is an important and key activity in which the L2 learner can participate throughout the SLA process. Engaging the learners in oral communicative activities or speech acts is a prime method in not only maintaining but accelerating growth and cementing knowledge in the target language. Nonetheless, this requires an understanding of how not only linguistics but also pragmatics fits in with SLP. Spoken discourse is the direct result of "dynamic interrelation between speakers and hearers" (Martinez-Flor, Uso-Juan, & Soler, 2006, p.139). Martinez-Flor et al. dissect the complex formula of speaking by qualifying it as the process of piecing together meaning while taking into consideration various social, cultural, and contextual elements of the communicative event. This process is of the utmost importance in both the transmission and receipt of one's message with linguistic and pragmatic competence and appropriateness.

Content Focus vs. Language Focus

Many SLA professionals concur with the rationale that the focus of teaching speech acts at higher levels of L2 proficiency, as reflected in the form of "role-playing" and "acting out" speech acts that were previously scrutinized by the L2 learners during DA, should be, in essence, the practice and repetition of pragmatic skills (Martinez-Flor & Uso-Juan, 2006). I propose that, although this is the correct process to follow, speech acts should be conducted not as "skits", but as real-life scenarios, where the focal point is the *context* in which the language is applied and *neither* pragmatic competence skills nor grammar. This is different from traditional SLA classroom practices where the target language and all the grammatical elements and linguistic theories that it entails are the center. Although these elements are important, they are merely the tools by which the L2 can be harnessed, and discourse is the natural framework in which the language can come alive and flourish, particularly in advanced-level classrooms. Stryker and Leaver (1997) contend, "Content-based foreign language instruction…encourages students to learn a new language by…actually *using* that language, from the very first class, as a real means of communication" (p.3). Thus, the pragmatic skills and language are practiced in the most natural climate where the learners are not focusing on syntax or lexicon but using the language as an instrument of communication. The axis around which the communicative event rotates in the upper-echelons of L2 learning is the content. All of the other elements are simply a means to an end. On the way, the real learning takes place. In these moments the language and all of these skills are cemented into place. Each time they are used in such a manner they become more and more natural until they ultimately become second nature. At this stage in the process the L2 learners are becoming almost exclusively involved in SLP. I understand that this notion may seem contrary to earlier arguments made in this paper, specifically concerning the significance of pragmatic competence /ability. However, having said that, this phase of the process requires the pragmatic experience obtained from the DA to be transformed from *knowledge* into *competence*, and to be utilized as a tool in carrying out communicative speech acts. So, from knowledge to competence the L2 learner is transformed into an L2 professional. Nonetheless, I would add that the learner must make the extra effort to use these newly learned skills. At first the skills may not come as naturally as hoped, and need to be practiced and honed. This can be accomplished on their own out of classroom. Pedagogically speaking, repetition really is the mother of learning. Therefore, practice must be factored in as a necessity. Stryker and Leaver (1997) maintain that the chief objective of content-based instruction (CBI) is enabling the L2 learners to go out on their own and learn, independent of the structure that the classroom environment provides (p.3). Give a man a fish and feed him for a day. Teach a man to fish and feed him for a lifetime.

The "Manual"

The pragmatic components of discourse at the higher levels of L2 proficiency - pragmalinguistic, " the knowledge of pragmatic conventions for performing acceptable language functions" and sociopragmatic, "the knowledge of the sociolinguistic conventions for performing language functions appropriately in a given context**"** (Martinez-Flor & Uso-Juan, 2006, pp. 41-42) are, according to Hall (1999), developed by two classroom activities. Hall contends that 1) "guided practice" of interactive communicative activities such as speech acts and 2) "the systematic study" of said activities are the keystone that supports the L2 learner throughout the SLA process and sustains them in SLP (p. 138).

The periodic practice of communication skills in the classroom is not enough to satisfy the requirements for reaching higher levels of oral proficiency. The Shekhtman Method of Communicative Learning (SMCL) focuses on not just practicing speaking tactics or Communicative Management Devices (CMDs) but specifically integrating them as the course curriculum. The objective is not just giving students a small but due role to play in the curriculum. Shekhtman's method identifies and focuses on the most dominant and important, yet the most neglected skill inside the walls of the SLA classroom, specifically authentic language use (Leaver, Shekhtman, Lord, Kuznetzova, & Ovtcharenko, 2002). Interactive exchanges, depending on the level at which they are performed, can take on varying lengths, depths, and styles; so what speech acts are appropriate for high-level discourse? The unpublished manual titled "Supplemental Materials for Designing Higher-Level Language Proficiency Tasks" developed originally in Russian by the Russian Department in Continuing Education at DLIFLC (Poklonskaya, Sabia, Shekhtman, & Sibrina, 2007) was created with a very specific purpose in mind: to teach high-level speech acts and communication skills. It is a guide to break down high-level discourse into speech acts and utterances that are easy to study and apply. It has been utilized both in the classroom and in personal study for DA and SLP, specifically in deconstructing and reconstructing speech acts at the professional/native level. With a little socio- and cultural-linguistic tweaking the manual was then translated and transposed into Arabic for the Arabic Department (Khalidi, Abdulrahim, & Viens, 2008) under the title *High-level Language Communication Skills*, and finally into English (Viens, 2008) as a key and guide for both teachers and students.

This manual provides an inside-look into a compilation of various high-level speech acts: dialogues, negotiations, speeches, general meetings, debates, discussion panels, interviews, roundtable discussions, forums, briefings, and public presentations. The manual is divided into chapters, each focusing on a specific type of speech act. Due to the socio-linguistic similarities linking the speech acts, they are divided accordingly into sub-units. For example, the chapter on Public Presentations considers the following:

- Public Speeches
- Press Conferences
- Lectures
- Sessions (Debate, Negotiation, Dialogue)
- Briefings/Seminars

Each chapter consists of three main elements: the introduction, the main body, and the conclusion. Whereas each chapter begins with an explanation of the particular CMD/speech act, the following is a schematic of specific socio-linguistically sound and pragmatically appropriate utterances. These utterances appear in the form of phrases, expressions (idiomatic and non-idiomatic), colloquialisms, statements, questions, answers, arguments, rebuttals, proverbs, and slang in some cases. The utterances are pragmatic building blocks which, in the skilled hands of a communicative architect, can become a SLP masterpiece. Furthermore, its socio-cultural elements are key in arming the L2 learner for real-life scenarios. L2 learners rehearse and mimic these communicative elements, similar to the preparation of an actor getting ready for a play. The actor does not simply memorize the lines, but creates an appropriate character based on the setting, mood, and moment: taking what originated on paper and turning it into something real, tangible, and believable. The actor accomplishes the task by studying and researching real-life situations and people. The manual favors neither official nor unofficial language use; it utilizes any and all words or word-combinations that are culturally and socially appropriate for the circumstances without prejudice and irrespective of "level". After all, "high-level" discourse consists of multiple key components, the first of which would be the use of low-frequency lexicon. Another significant element would be the length of discourse; the longer the discourse, the higher the level. Other factors may include the depth of the discourse, which includes the topic and content; rate of speech — the speed at which is the discourse is produced; and fluency, accuracy, and accent of speech. The manual takes all of these into consideration. The proper implementation of these parameters rests on the shoulders of the L2 learner. Acting as a handbook, the manual was designed with adequate flexibility, rendering it easy to use at any level and in a variety of settings. Its pliability facilitates the instructor in designing tasks or lessons, by raising or lowering the level of the tasks to match the learners' capabilities.

Another key component that has been factored into the manuals is a definition of the speech acts. What the speech acts entail as well as where, when, why, and how they are carried out are some of the questions answered in the introductory paragraph preceding the communication tasks/activities. This introduction helps set the stage for the L2 learners in grasping not only the content that follows, but preparing them for the real-life application of the communicative tasks therein. The L2 learners can use this as a guideline to conduct their own mock interactive communication activities. For example, as a student studying advanced Arabic, I had the opportunity to not only transpose and adapt the manual for its use in future Arabic courses, but also to prepare and conduct a number of different speech tasks. Public presentations, speeches, briefs, demonstrations, and roundtable discussions are just a few of the various types of communicative tasks in which I participated. Learners had the responsibility to carry out each phase of the process, including choosing a topic, preparing sources, data, materials, and studying all of the linguistic elements necessary for the communicative tasks. Without the proper language preparation where the L2 learner considers all of the socio- and cultural-linguistic, pragmatic, syntactic, lexical, and grammatical structures, he/she would not be able to perform at the requisite discourse level or reap the benefits from the activity. For this type of resource (the manual) to have an impact, the L2 learners should follow the process from beginning to end, utilizing it throughout. The simplified outline below features the 5-step DA→SLP process discussed in this paper. The manual can be used during any and all of the steps in the process).

1. Conduct DA of authentic high-level discourse;
2. Study and discuss DA findings;
3. Prepare for speech act, i.e. data, resources, language etc.;
4. Perform SLP (practice discourse through speeches, presentations, debates etc.); and
5. Evaluate speech act performance.

Step 5 of the process is the assessment phase. Here the manual can be used as a resource for both learners and instructors to compare and contrast the discourse produced by the learners during Step 4. Once course corrections are made the learners can be recycled through the process again. Thus, it is a constant learning cycle. This filtration/sanitization process, as discussed earlier, acts as a strain that filters bad habits, supplanting them with those approximating native speech patterns.

A PERSONAL TOUCH: MY APPROACH

In addition to this particular resource (the manual), L2 learners are encouraged to take note of any and all other linguistic, sociolinguistic, pragmatic, idiomatic, and grammatical structures and patterns that cross their paths. In fact, this is an invaluable habit that I developed while working as a missionary in Russia and later studying Ukrainian, Uzbek, and Arabic. I always carried a pocket-sized notepad, and, at every opportunity or free moment, I would jot down a new element of the language for later study — scribble words, phrases, expressions, idioms, proverbs, slang, poems, and biblical verses. I made notes of foreign ideas, mentalities, thought processes, stereotypes, facial expressions, rate of speech, intonation, stress, and hand gestures that the native speakers used. In order to successfully navigate through the SLA and SLP processes, these seemed appropriate. Learning a new language was such a daunting task that I could see no other way around it. I had decided that it was sink or swim; go all out or not even make an attempt. This is the mentality that I have adapted, and the foundation upon which I have based all of my SLA and SLP principles and practices.

Real-World Application: OPI, The Real Test

Even though the L2 learner must always be striving for overall L2 proficiency, specific objectives should also be considered. It is widely contested that an L2 learner cannot specifically prepare for proficiency-based exams; but in fact, the methodologies presented in this paper can be dually classified as both proficiency-based (global language learning) and goal-oriented. Over the years, I, like many others in this field, have taken the Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI). During the OPI the examiner pushes the examinee to maneuver through various communicative tasks (or speech acts). The higher the proficiency levels the more difficult and complex the speech acts are. For instance, during OPIs I was required to debate an issue, negotiate a circumstance, maintain a point of view, solve a problem and give an impromptu speech. On the two occasions that I was asked to give an impromptu speech, I was able to tap into the vast store of discourse elements previously learned, practiced, and perfected through the DA→SLP process. That was the beauty of gaining a mastery over discourse in the L2. It gave me the ability to predict possible scenarios and communicative tasks required on any given occasion, not just in tests. In the end, all that remained was to factor in the proper lexical components specific to each of the subjects, which, thanks to CBI, was relatively simple. The process proved itself and proved itself well.

Adaptation and Survival vs. Pedagogy and Learning

The main issue is not necessarily the way in which language is taught in the classroom, but the way in which we see language. When viewed in the correct light, SLA strategies and methodologies will work themselves out as you can see in this paper. The quality of language learning and instruction depends on how language is perceived. Verschueren (1987) poses the question: What and how does language contribute to human survival in smaller and larger communities, individuals and day-to-day situations? His inquiry suggests that the application of language in real life, as it pushes social, cultural, psychological, physical, and linguistic boundaries, defines mankind as a whole. Thus, language becomes a tool for survival and not merely an instrument of communication. With this in mind, the teaching and learning an L2 takes on a whole new meaning. For the sake of illustration, here is a scenario:

Place Guy-A and Guy-B in a foreign country for six months without any knowledge or prior training in the local language or customs. Guy-A gets a nice hotel room, is provided with food and a daily guided-tour of the local sites. Guy-B, however, must fend for himself: find food, shelter, employment, etc. Who will pick up or learn the language faster and more proficiently by the end of the six months? All things being equal, Guy-B would, without a doubt. How does this mentality and ideology translate into the SLA process inside the classroom? Pedagogically speaking, the scope of both language and communication gets exponentially larger (Cots, 1996, pp.78-79). According to Cots, when language becomes a means of adaptation and survival, the learners find a new motivation to learn and the teachers to teach.

CONCLUSION

SLA and SLP are ultimately inseparable. In order to successfully navigate the SLA process, receiving the most benefits in all of the skill sets (L/R/S/W) SLP must take place. It must be performed every step throughout the SLA process. If taken seriously and carried out in proper order, this methodology can and will significantly enhance the L2 learner's abilities with regards to communicative competence and oral proficiency in the target language. Virtually, there is no end to the application and integration of the SLA principles discussed in this paper.

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APPENDIX

Contained within the manuals' pages are scores of high-level lexicon and phraseologies. Below is an excerpt taken from both the English and Arabic manuals. You will notice that the Arabic has been placed below its English counterpart for purposes of this article. The actual manuals are not bilingual in that they do not display both languages side-by-side.

1. The truth is born through argument/debate.

من خلال الجدال تولد الحقيقة .

2. Because this is a give-and-take process, we all just need to take a deep breath and bring it down a notch. (Literally, due to the need to convince and be convinced…)

الحاجة الى الاقناع والاقتناع تتطلب منا جميعا طول النفس وهدوء النبرة.

3. Great idea!

فكرة رائعة!

4. Your sticking to the core of the issue/staying on topic is key if you are looking to convince me.

التزام بجوهر الموضوع ضروري ان كنت تريد اقناعي.

5. Please, just answer with a "yes" or "no", your maneuvering here is useless.

اجب من فضلك بنعم ام لا لان المناورة هنا لا تجدي.

6. What do you think of that idea?

ما رايك بهده الفكرة (فكرتي)؟

7. Now you're trying to distort my words (the facts).

انك تحاول تشويه كلمتي (الحقائق). .

8. What's right is right/the truth is above all else, and we hope that you will accept this logic from us.

كما نقول الحق نعلو ولا يعلو عليه لدى فمن المامول قبول المنطق منا جميعا... .

9. The truth remains true/It is what it is.

ان الحقيقة تبقى حقيقة. .

10. The truth is clear as day/crystal clear.

الحقيقة واضحة وضوح الشمس. .

11. You can't have smoke without fire/Where there is smoke there is fire.

ليس هناك دخان بدون نيران. .

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Advanced Course Design for Reaching Level 3 and Above: A Backward Design Approach

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To help students reach higher levels of proficiency in a foreign language, many educators believe that different sets of language learning skills at the basic level learning should be provided for the learners. Consequently, a well-designed curriculum reflecting such skills is an essential resource in helping students to achieve higher levels of proficiency. This paper discusses the underlying principles of how Advanced North Korean Dialect Materials (ANKDM) was designed and created. The design process has been adapted from Backward Design (Wiggins & McTighe, 1998) and the project started with the end in mind—the desired results (goals or standards). It then derives the curriculum from the evidence of learning (performance) called for by Final Learning Objectives and General Proficiency standards and the teaching needed to equip students to perform. The paper finally discusses what and how the variety of components is incorporated into the curriculum, so that learners can effectively gain higher proficiency skills. Accordingly, the texts used in these materials are carefully selected to represent projective and evaluative text modes, non-standard linguistic features, and a high level of cultural references; ultimately, students learn to read and listen between and beyond the lines and to grasp the author's intentions and purposes at Level 3 and higher. These materials, once integrated into meaningful tasks and projects, will guide students in learning a variety of subject matter as well as linguistic elements relevant to North Korea.

INTRODUCTION

Recently, the demand has risen for language learners to reach higher than the normal proficiency range they would acquire from taking a few college language courses. Professional linguists in government are also expected to extend their skills toward non-standard versions of a language. For Korean language learners, the need of understanding the North Korean dialect has risen, and so has the need for a curriculum that would help learners of Korean further enhance their understanding of the North Korean dialect. The Directorate of Continuing Education, Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) launched the Advanced North Korean Dialect Materials (ANKDM) development project in August 2009 and completed it in October 2010. ANKDM was developed to provide optimal learning environments in which students could achieve higher levels of proficiency (Level 3 and above) in Korean.

The underlying principles of the design process of ANKDM is adapted from Backward Design (Wiggins & McTighe, 2000) and the project started with the end in mind—the desired results (goals or standards). The team then derived the curriculum from the evidence of learning (performances) called for by Final Learning Objectives and General Proficiency standards. Featured in these materials are linguistic differences that have developed over half a century during the division of South and North Korea, along with historical and socio-cultural references used in North Korea today. Traditionally, individuals through years of work experience acquired these deeper layers of understanding of the language; ANKDM has the potential to provide that same understanding to a larger group of people in a shorter length of time.

So that students/learners can effectively gain these higher proficiency skills, the activities are carefully designed to incorporate higher order thinking skills, i.e. analysis, synthesis, and evaluation, rather than memorization, comprehension and application (Haynes, 2010). At the same time, the texts used in these materials are also carefully selected to represent projective and evaluative text modes, non-standard linguistic features, and a high level of cultural references.

ANKDM materials are composed of 42 Units, which are sorted first by ILR levels from 2 to 4. They are also sorted by ten FLO (Final Learning Objectives) topics: culture and society; economy and politics; geography and environment; military and security; science and technology. These units are comprised of interactive, online content-based instructional materials that provide learners with cultural and regional information about North Korea. At the same time, a variety of linguistic activities lead to understanding and acquiring the lexical, grammatical, orthographical, phonological, semantic, and sociolinguistic differences between the dialect and standard Korean.

LITERATURE REVIEW: EXAMPLES OF BACKWARD CURRICULUM DESIGN

As stated above, the underlying principle of the entire design process of the ANKDM is from Backward Design. McTighe and Wiggins (1998) introduced the term “backward design” to curriculum design in *Understanding by Design*. The key feature is that the curriculum should start by looking at the outcomes first, use performance assessments to collect evidence of learning, and finally the development of instructional activities and materials to show the evidence. “One starts with the end - the desired results (goals or standards) - and then derives the curriculum from the evidence of learning (performances) called for by the standard and the teaching needed to equip students to perform” (Wiggins & McTighe, 2000, p. 8).

The primary starting point is to identify and become familiar with the standards and outcomes for the specified level; the second part of curriculum planning is finding appropriate assessments. It can be difficult for “traditional” educators to switch to this model because it is hard to conceptualize an assessment before deciding which lessons should be taught and what instruction should be delivered. The idea is that the assessments, both formative and summative, should meet the goals initially identified. The last step is to plan for the syllabus design and curriculum development.

Buehl (2000) has noted three points as the advantages of backward design: students are not as likely to become so lost in the factual details that they miss the point of studying the original topic, that is, instruction looks toward global understanding and not just daily activities; daily lessons are constructed with a focus on what the overall "gain" is to be; assessment is designed before lesson planning so that instruction drives students toward what they exactly need to know.

One of the examples is Shumway and Berrett’s (2004) application of the backward design model to support changing or improving the attitudes of pre-service teachers towards teaching. As a result, these pre-service teachers became more excited about their teaching and better prepared as student teachers through the process of learning, experiencing, and applying the backward design.

Childre, Sands, and Pope (2009) cited examples of backward design for improving learning at elementary and high schools. The research targeted the depth of understanding for all learners, including students with special needs. The implementation of backward design corrected the flaw in traditional instructional approaches that had failed to engage disabled students. The backward design was found to provide meaning and relevance to all students.

THE BACKWARD DESIGN PROCESS

The backward curriculum design process centers on the idea that the course and activity should begin by identifying desired learning objectives and results and then work “backwards” to develop assessments, instruction and, finally, content. This approach differs from a traditional curriculum design approach that begins with defining the topics and content that will be covered, followed by the development of assessments to measure if the objectives have been met.

Typically three stages occur: identifying the results and outcomes desired; determining acceptable levels of evidence that demonstrate the desired results have been achieved; lastly, designing activities that will result in the desired outcomes. ANKDM curriculum design follows the three stages of the backward design principle, as follows.

Stage 1:Identify Desired Learning Outcomes

In this stage, the project team considers the learning that should be retained over the long term. Rather than describing “material worth covering,” desired outcomes should first define learning objectives and outcomes. For ANKDM materials, the clear final objectives in terms of proficiency gains will have students reach Level 3 and above in Korean proficiency while acquiring cultural and area knowledge about North Korea in various topical areas discussed in Final Learning Objectives. According to Interagency Language Roundtable (ILR) level descriptions, Level 3 linguists are characterized by “having effective understanding of all speech in a standard dialect and Level 3+ and above can “understand native speakers talking quickly, using nonstandard dialect.” Thus, Level 3 and above Standard Korean learners should be able to understand the non-standard North Korean Dialect.[1]

The following ILR level descriptions are quoted here to show the clear objectives and expected student outcomes of ANKDM.[2]

> Reading 3 (General Professional Proficiency): Able to read within a normal range of speed and with almost complete comprehension a variety of authentic prose material on unfamiliar subjects. Reading ability is not dependent on subject matter knowledge, although it is not expected that the individual can comprehend thoroughly subject matter which is highly dependent on cultural knowledge or which is outside his/her general experience and not accompanied by explanation. Text-types include news stories similar to wire service reports or international news items in major periodicals, routine correspondence, general reports, and technical material in his/her professional field; all of these may include hypothesis, argumentation and supported opinions. Misreading rare. Almost always able to interpret material correctly, relate ideas and "read between the lines," (that is, understand the writers' implicit intents in text of the above types). Can get the gist of more sophisticated texts, but may be unable to detect or understand subtlety and nuance. Rarely has to pause over or reread general vocabulary. However, may experience some difficulty with unusually complex structure and low frequency idioms.

> Listening 3 (General Professional Proficiency) Able to understand the essentials of all speech in a standard dialect including technical discussions within a special field. Has effective understanding of face-to-face speech, delivered with normal clarity and speed in a standard dialect on general topics and areas of special interest; understands hypothesizing and supported opinions. Has broad enough vocabulary that rarely has to ask for paraphrasing or explanation. Can follow accurately the essentials of conversations between educated native speakers, reasonably clear telephone calls, radio broadcasts, news stories similar to wire service reports, oral reports, some oral technical reports and public addresses on non-technical subjects; can understand without difficulty all forms of standard speech

> concerning a special professional field. Does not understand native speakers if they speak very quickly or use some slang or dialect. Can often detect emotional overtones. Can understand implications.

Other learning objectives in ANKDM are content objectives of area and culture of North Korea. Students are expected to acquire and know: culture and society, economy and politics, geography and environment, military and security, and science and technology.[3]

Stage 2. Determine What Constitutes Acceptable Evidence of Competency via Assessment

The second part of curriculum planning with backward design is designing appropriate assessments by determining what constitutes acceptable evidence of competency in students' learning outcomes. In this stage, the project team defines what forms of evidence will demonstrate that a student has acquired the knowledge, understanding, and/or skill necessary to answer the essential questions. It is likely that "traditional" educators would find this process difficult because it is hard to conceptualize an assessment before deciding on lesson and instructional content. The idea is to create assessments that meet the initially identified goals. In this case, it is fortunate that the major assessment tools used for measuring proficiency outcomes are already in place for the language programs at the Defense Language Institute. Additionally, the project team determines and develops unit-level content assessment evaluations. For each unit level, the evaluation is planned and designed to measure the students' competence in the content of each unit, as well as linguistic acquisition of North Korean vocabulary and grammatical items in comparison with standard Korean. It is recommended that teachers provide students with ongoing formative feedback when implementing the materials in their classroom teaching.

Stage 3. Plan Learning Experiences and Instruction

In this stage, the project team determines what sequence of learning experiences would equip students to develop and demonstrate the desired understanding. They created instructional materials based on pedagogical considerations mentioned above. When determining the curriculum and syllabus design, the six different syllabus models were considered: structural, notional/functional, situational/thematic, skill-based, content based and task-based (Reilly,1988). The team considered: What is taught? In what order is it taught? What theories and principles of the language teaching are applied? What theory of learning is applied? What are the objectives or purposes of teaching a language?

According to the most common types of syllabus design mentioned above, the ANKDM project team selected content-based and task-based as the dominant designs. Although the other common syllabus types were not used by

ANKDM, some elements were incorporated in certain areas. Reilly (1988), after discussing the six different types of language teaching syllabi, states that although the discussion treats the syllabi as though each occurred "purely" in practice, these types rarely occur independently of each other. Almost all language teaching syllabi combine two or more types. For a given course, one type of syllabus usually dominates, but combines with others. Furthermore, various types of syllabi are not entirely distinct from one another. For example, the distinction between skill-based and task-based syllabi may be minimal. In such cases, the distinguishing factor is often the way in which the instructional content is used in the classroom.

PEDAGOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Content-based Instruction: ANKDM is essentially a content-based instructional module, which focuses on a variety of subjects that teach students to understand various aspects of North Korean society. The project team incorporated 42 different, but relevant, subjects that fall into varying sub-categories of the Final Learning Objectives. Educational psychologists notice that one effective way of learning a language is through topics that students are passionate about. This is especially true for adult learners and for higher-level language learners. Hence, rather than simply offering grammar, reading, listening and comprehension skills in the classroom, ANKDM offers students topical subject matter that closely relates to their job in the field. It is commonly agreed that in its best form, language lessons in Content-based Instruction are integrated with stimulating content. The students focus more on the subject matter rather than the language learning process itself. Students successfully learn complex skills by engaging in challenging and informative activities. When students are engaged in and motivated by the materials they use, they make greater connections to life situations, and learning can become a fun and easy activity, with information retained for a longer period of time.

Task/Project-based Instruction: ANKDM also incorporates task-based instructional design by focusing on the use of authentic language through meaningful tasks. Furthermore, in developing ANKDM, the project team extends the design to Project Based Instruction beyond common daily tasks that are often found in basic level language materials. Project-based Instruction provides complex tasks based on challenging questions or problems that involve students' abilities in problem solving, decision making, investigation, and reflection. It allows students to work in groups or on their own, and encourages them to develop ideas and realistic solutions. Students take these problems and solutions and apply them to real life situations with these projects. Project-based learning in the classroom prepares students for real-life situations. Students are able to develop their creative-thinking skills in designing original solutions to these real-world problems.

Higher Order Thinking Skills: With content, task, and project based instructional design, the learning activities in ANKDM are naturally designed to incorporate higher order thinking skills, such as analysis, synthesis, and evaluation skills. One of the most critical elements that the project team has stressed in these learning materials is that students must learn to read and listen to North Korean materials with a critical mind. The North Korean government produced these materials for propaganda purposes, and so the authors of these instructional units found it necessary to counterbalance and contrast those ideological claims and attitudes with articles and information from South Korean and American media sources, which provide the viewpoints and perspective of democratic nations.

Use of High-level Texts: The texts used in ANKDM are carefully selected to incorporate students' use of higher-level language skills, as well as projective and evaluative text modes.

The major sources for listening and reading texts in ANKDM are *Rodong Shinmoon* (*Newspaper of the Workers*, the official newspaper of the Central Committee of the Workers' Party of North Korea) and *Chosun Choongang Thonshin* (Korean Central News Agency, the state news agency of North Korea). The editorials and news commentaries from these sources best fit the characteristics of Evaluative and/or Projective modes as defined by Child (1999); namely, the texts are characterized by an emphasis on the transmission of facts, and as such texts are shifted to a perspective in which facts are selected and used to develop points of view. This idea is particularly relevant to these source materials, as they have been "pressed into service" to defend past or projected policies of the North Korean regime.

Some examples of Evaluative and Projective Mode Texts are provided below:

- An editorial from *Rodong* Newspaper, ("The history of friendly relations between China and North Korea will continue to flow".) In this editorial, the writer responds to the facts and situation concerning the continued friendly diplomatic relations between those two nations, with the writer's own analysis of the factors, as well as a justification that future relations between the two nations must be friendly.[4]
- A broadcast from *Korean Central News Agency*, (Joint Statement by DPRK Political Parties). In this statement, the authors includes their own analyses and evaluation in an evincing tone that contains a high level of abstraction and nuance, which are characteristic of higher level texts.

Resources for cultural literacy and high-level cultural references are also included; because the two Koreas have been divided for more than 50 years, many cultural references found in North Korean texts are not immediately comprehensible to South Korean native speakers. In ANKDM, such high-level cultural references are introduced, and explained in *Dowummal* (*Teacher's Guide*) and *Chamgojang* (*References*).

At the same time, examples of high-level cultural reference are incorporated in the learning activities as the following:

- *'Songun'* or Military-First Policy prioritizes the Korean People's Army in the affairs of state and allocates national resources to the army first, before the populace. This policy has played many roles, especially in "Military First Politics," serving as a political system, in "a line of Military First Economic Construction," acting as an economic system, and "Military First Ideology," making it the new guiding ideology of North Korea.
- '*Juche'* or Idea of Self Reliance is the official state ideology of North Korea (Democratic People's Republic of Korea). It teaches that "man is the master of everything and decides everything," and that the North Korean people are the masters of Korea's revolution. Juche is a component of North Korea's political system. Literally meaning "main body" or "subject," it has also been translated in North Korean sources as "independent stand" and the "spirit of self-reliance."

Non-standard linguistics features were also the focus of several of the activities to show the variation in language, thus illustrating the variety of linguistic differences between South and the North Korea as featured in ANKDM. In order for students to gain higher-level proficiency, it is imperative that they gain greater accuracy not only in forms with standard linguistic elements, but also in non-standard, dialectal, and linguistic features. Many idiomatic expressions that originated from within the ideological propaganda provide abundant sociolinguistic features of the dialect and provide students with critical strategies for comprehending the different nuances and reading "between the lines."

Skills integration with a focus on receptive skills in the North Korean dialect was also featured. Moreover, students are occasionally asked to use North Korean orthography, pronunciation, grammar patterns, and lexical items in their productive skills, (speaking and writing), although they may not actually need to speak or write the dialect while working in their respective fields. The ANKDM team includes these exercises because language learning takes place most effectively when all four language skills are integrated.

STRUCTURE OF EACH UNIT

Each learning unit consists of five major procedural phases of brainstorming, pre-activity, main activity, wrap-up activity, and a unit quiz. The rationale for these phases is based on the principle that acquisition begins with the receptive skill domains of listening and reading and happens most effectively as a result of meaningful tasks based on the input provided in authentic texts. Learners are guided to integrate other productive skills later in the process. Simultaneously, learners are given a chance to begin with schemata-building to associate the known with the new, expected information, and gradually move toward the higher levels by going through each phase. The following five phases comprise each learning unit.

- Brainstorming: In this stage, students (with the instructor) share what they already know and how they can relate it to the new unit being introduced. In other words, this is a stage of schemata-building where students' attention is drawn toward organizing their thoughts and knowledge and providing a framework for better understanding of the unit materials.
- Pre Activity: Here, students are introduced to texts that outline the foundational basics before they engage in more challenging learning activities on the main activity pages. So that students can reach the unit's target proficiency of Levels 3 and above (as seen in the main activity), the pre-activity introduces the students to materials from proficiency levels below 3.
- Main Activity: In this stage, students are introduced to the target proficiency level of the learning unit. They are introduced to both reading and listening activities of the target proficiency level and are urged to actively engage them to maintain their own proficiency at these same levels.
- Wrap-up Activity: In this portion of the unit, students are asked to summarize what they have learned throughout the entire unit by organizing newly gained information, analyzing and synthesizing this knowledge, and presenting these in productive skills of writing and speaking. The language they use in these productive skills would be standard Korean, unless they are asked to use North Korean.
- Unit Quiz: A unit quiz is a simple assessment tool provided at the end of each learning unit to briefly check whether the student has acquired the main content and linguistic elements introduced in the learning unit.

CONCLUSION

In order for language learners to reach higher levels of proficiency, a well-designed curriculum is essential. The backward design model was adapted when the advanced North Korean instructional Materials were designed. In the process of developing the ANKDM project at DLIFLC, the principles of backward design were implemented to meet the needs of language learners and teachers targeting higher levels with the end goals in mind. Although the development project incorporated users feedback based on pilot teaching in the final revision process, the process is not included here. Although we have completed the curriculum development, further study is needed to confirm its impact on the increase of student proficiency at higher levels.

NOTES

1. It is meant that “North Korean Dialect” refers to North Korea’s Standard Language, in contrast to the Standard Korean Language being used in South Korea. North Koreans refer to their Standard Language as the "Cultured Language" (*Munhwa-eo*), which is mainly the regional dialect of *Pyeongyang*, the capital city of North Korea. North Korean sources vilify the Standard Language of South Korea as "coquettish" and "decadent," corrupted by English and Japanese loanwords, and full of nasal twangs. In any case, the term “dialect” is used here simply to indicate that North Korean variation of the Korean Language while students’ primary foreign language is South Korean Standard Language. (Kang 2008).
2. It should be noted here that only receptive skills, “reading” and “listening” are the main focus in ANKDM. In other words, students are expected to understand authentic passages of North Korean in written and spoken forms but are not expected to “speak.”
3. The major content areas are specified in Final Learning Objectives (FLO) in DLI.
4. Note that the examples provided here are originally Korean texts, but are translated into English for the general readers.

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Developing Professional Proficiency: A Monterey Model

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The expansion of global communications has impacted foreign language education in the United States. Educators have been exploring different ways to help students reach higher language proficiency. This article describes an innovative approach for developing professional working proficiency at the Monterey Institute of International Studies (MIIS). The term "Monterey Model" is used to refer to this multi-lingual, multi-disciplinary, and content-based approach. The Monterey Model course offers several concurrent sections in various languages intertwined with periodical plenary sessions in which all languages are spoken, and advanced translation and interpretation students provide simultaneous interpretation. Various formats of the Monterey Model are discussed, and a Japanese language class in session is used to illustrate this experiment. The experiment validated some established principles of content-based language instruction. While the content density and intricacy of a graduate-level course offered language stimulants to students, the integration of language and content accelerated content learning when students gained access to more diverse foreign information sources through the use of foreign languages, which, in turn, enhanced their language proficiency as they engaged in practical, authentic, and functional use of the language for meaningful purposes. In the process, students became motivated to learn the target language because they could see the relevance to their academic and professional goals. The Monterey Model is an example of helping students to reach professional proficiency, which enables them to function effectively in multilingual and multicultural environments.

INTRODUCTION

Historically, researchers in second language acquisition (SLA) have focused on learners at lower levels because few students surpassed the advanced level defined by the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) Proficiency Guidelines (2012) or Level 2 in the Interagency Language Roundtable (ILR) Skill Level Descriptions (n.d.). In recent years, American universities have responded to the demand for linguists due to the expansion of global communications by graduating more students at higher levels of language proficiency. This article describes an innovative program at the Monterey Institute of International Studies (MIIS) that develops professional proficiency by integrating high-level language study with graduate-level course content. The term "Monterey Model" refers to this multilingual, multidisciplinary, and content-based instructional approach, which engages learners in practical, authentic, and functional use of the language for meaningful purposes, with an added dimension of comparative studies. There are various versions of the Monterey Model, but commonality involves offering several concurrent sections of the same course in different languages intertwined with periodical plenary sessions in which all languages are spoken, and advanced translation and interpretation students provide simultaneous interpretation. The experience of a Japanese language class in session demonstrates the way the Monterey Model works in practice.

MIIS consists of the Graduate School of International Policy and Management (GSIPM) and the Graduate School of Translation, Interpretation, and Language Education (GSTILE). These programs train learners to grasp necessary content knowledge, improve foreign language proficiency, and raise cultural understanding, sufficient to function in professions in international venues. The school’s admission requirements include defined levels of proficiency in a foreign language. The Interpretation, Translation, and Language Education program stipulates foreign language proficiency at or above Advanced High (ILR Level 2+ and above) and the International Policy and Management programs designate ranges from Novice High to Superior (between ILR Levels 0+ and 3). Students at various levels frequently find themselves grouped into the same class. Subsequently, many language professors have become experienced facilitators, relying on student-centered learning such as tasks and projects to address diverse learning needs. Because of the international focus in MIIS’s graduate programs, overseas professional experiences and knowledge in a foreign language are favorably considered in the hiring of content professors in international policy studies and management. For MIIS faculty, using a foreign language in work and research is the norm. In view of the Institute’s mission, the faculty agrees that an integrated language and content curriculum will accelerate linguistic and content mastery.

The International emphasis also attracts students who have studied, worked, or travelled abroad. Once enrolled in a graduate program, a student takes four to five courses a semester, including a language course that meets four hours a week. In other words, real learning takes place out of class: students read, write, conduct research, and work on projects independently. In this regard, students are ready for content-based language classes at high levels because they have the ability to conduct independent learning; Leaver and Shekhtman (2002) note that a significant difference between teaching language at the superior and the lower levels is the focus on developing and refining learners' capacity for independent learning.

THE MONTEREY MODEL

Principles in Course Design

Monterey Model courses follow principles of content-based instruction (CBI), which leads to improved long-term retention because it subsumes new information into the learner's existing knowledge and background, and creates stronger associative links resulting in retention (Brown, 2007). Grabe and Stoller (1997) state that the most influential theories to support content-based second language instruction include Krashen's comprehensible input hypothesis: language acquisition takes place when a message being transmitted is understood. Therefore, "language is best taught when it is being used to transmit messages, not when it is explicitly taught for conscious learning" (Krashen, 1983, p. 55). For many, language is learned because it provides access to content (Snow, Met, & Genesee, 1992). Stryker and Leaver (1997) state that content-based foreign language instruction encourages students to learn a new language by actually using that language, from the very first class, as a real means of communication. Learners' focus is on accessing and communicating content information, not on learning the lexicon and syntax of a language. Storller (2008) observes that CBI has strong occupational, vocational, or academic orientations, emphasizing the linguistic, cognitive, and metacognitive skills as well as content learning that students need to succeed in future professions or occupations. The CBI approach corresponds to the educational objectives at MIIS — training students to work on, not merely know about, the most critical issues of our time.

MIIS language faculty has been modifying course content and teaching approaches since the 1980s to meet the language learning needs of superior-level learners. They see it as a necessary step to establish a closer link between language and content learning because the content density and intricacy of a graduate-level course offer language stimulants to students. Such intellectual challenges are a primary incentive for language learning. At higher levels of language proficiency, students are able to access more country-specific and complex information through foreign language sources, which increases the breadth and depth of content learning. Cummins (1992) proposes a distinction between two levels of language proficiency: surface-level basic interpersonal communicative skills (BICS) and the deeper level of cognitive/academic language proficiency (CALP). The following diagram illustrates the distinction:

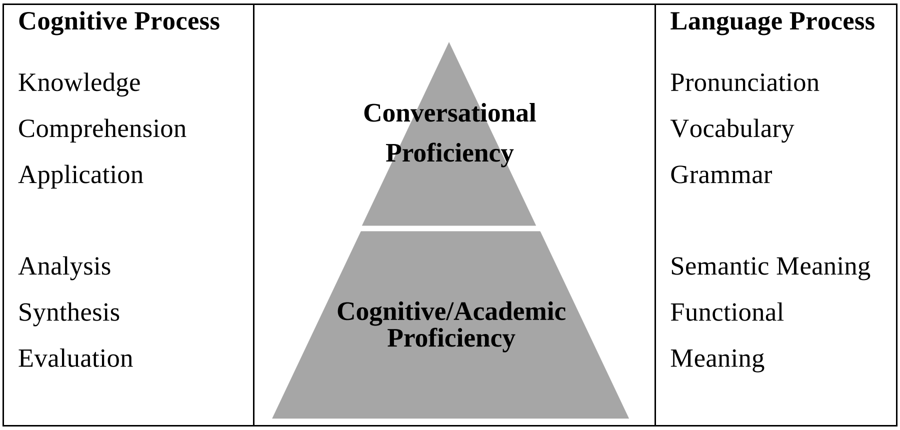

Figure 1: *Cognitive and Language Process for BICS and CALP (Cummins, 1992, p. 18).*

In developing CALP, the presentation of coherent and meaningful information is required to generate deeper processing, which results in better learning. Because it takes much longer to develop CALP than BICS, most minority school children as well as international students in universities start to take content courses before CALP is fully developed. CALP is best taught within a framework that manipulates more complex and authentic content because acquiring CALP requires developing more complex language abilities. Oller (1993) proposes, "content-based instruction aims at eliminating the artificial separation between language instruction and subject matter classes which exits in most educational settings" (p. 137). Content mastery and linguistic mastery, assumed by some to be strictly sequential, can be synergistic. Shaw (1997) summarizes, MIIS "… has selected CBI as one significant basis of its approach, embracing a philosophy which suggests that the advanced level language learner can best proceed to even higher levels of proficiency by addressing the language as a means of communicating ideas rather than as an object of study. Practice is provided in all four skill areas and learning is boosted by the interest and motivation generated by the subject matter. In terms of pedagogy and of syllabus design, this is a broad educational approach where language study is allowed to feed into the curricular mainstream rather than being dammed into grammatical or literary backwaters" (p. 262).

With regard to course design, language professors want to ensure a strong language-learning component because comprehensible input alone does not provide all that is needed for developing near-native proficiency. They decide to adopt an approach based on Swain's output hypothesis: a more balanced instruction combining language and content with an explicit focus on relevant and contextually appropriate language forms. Swain points out that teaching grammar lessons out of context, as paradigms to be rehearsed and memorized, is insufficient (Swain, 1998; Swain & Lapkin, 2001). Long and

Robinson (1998) propose that a most effective language teaching approach is to focus on form at the analytic level and employ a nonlinguistic unit of analysis, such as a task. Forms, together with their meanings and functions, are studied in context. Pedagogical tasks are designed, without specific linguistic focus, as successively more complex approximations to tasks in the real world.

Relying on pedagogical tasks to achieve learning goals promotes negotiation of meaning (Bygate, Skehan, & Swain, 2001). Lantolf and Appel (1994) observe that in Vygotsky's notions of language acquisition, negotiation in the *Zone of Proximal Development* (ZPD), the use of *private speech*, and student appropriation of learning tasks are vital to language acquisition. ZPD refers to the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under guidance or in cooperation with more capable peers. Appropriation describes the phenomenon that at first our activity is organized and regulated by others, but eventually we organize and regulate our own activity through the appropriation of the regulatory means employed by others. The content and language complexity in a CBI course leads to multifaceted learning activities, requiring students to employ many aspects and layers of knowledge and skills, thus creating excellent "appropriation" opportunities that promote language acquisition. A task/project-based course also exemplifies *Teaching for Understanding* (TfU), a framework developed by faculty members at the Harvard Graduate School of Education that stresses in-depth learning with a performance view of understanding: If students "understand" a topic, they can not only reproduce knowledge, but also use it in unscripted ways (Harvard University, 2010).

Content-based instruction varies greatly in format, ranging from giving a content course completely in a foreign language to a language course that includes a content topic for practice. Met (1999) proposes that CBI can be perceived as a continuum: a course can be content driven or language driven. It is difficult to specify the context-specific dynamics between the linguistic and the content demands and resources. "There is no simple taxonomy or classification of CBI that provides a clear-cut or universally applicable methodological set of choices;" the following chart was used to demonstrate CBI as a continuum and not an either-or choice (van Lier, 2005, p. 15).

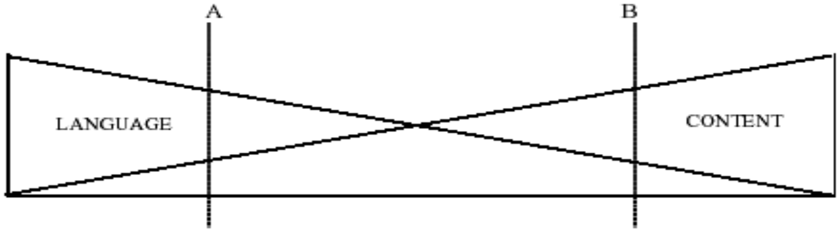

Figure 2: *Language and Content (van Lier, 2005, p.15)*

The lack of clear rules provides endless opportunities for invention. Because of the diversity among students, teachers, and available resources, each language program at MIIS is free to find appropriate techniques and materials to help learners. Regardless of differences in approaches, most CBI courses share certain common features as described by Stryker and Leaver (1997): (1) organization around a subject-matter core; (2) use of authentic language and texts, and (3) appropriateness to the needs of specific groups of students.

The Monterey Model: Mixing Various CBI Models

The most commonly-known CBI models are the three prototypes defined by Briton, Snow, and Wesche (2003): 1) *theme-based* — the language class is structured around topics or themes, with the topics forming the backbone of the course curriculum; 2) *sheltered* — content courses are taught in the target language by a content specialist. Target language learners are sheltered from native-speaking students of the language; and 3) *adjunct* — students are enrolled concurrently in two linked courses: a language course and a content course. Learners are sheltered in the language course, but integrated in the content course. In addition to the three prototypes, the MIIS faculty has developed several more. Shaw (1997) labels these additional models as follows:

(1) *Direct content model* (similar to total immersion) — the subject matter is delivered entirely in the target language, including materials, discussions, and assignments. For example, a political science professor gave the course *The Internationalization of Japan* completely in Japanese. The direct content model included some native Japanese speakers in the class, and foreign language learners were not sheltered.

(2) *Team content model* — the course is taught by a content and a language professor. They work in a team-teaching format, which maximizes learning opportunities by utilizing the combined knowledge and talents of the teaching team. All materials, interactions, and assignments are in the target language.

(3) *Subsidiary content model* — a content specialist conveys the subject matter in English. After a new topic is introduced and its scope examined, the topic is studied with greater specificity in the second language.

The “Monterey Model” contains elements from all or some of the above. It is an inter-department/disciplinary effort, involving faculty from several academic disciplines — foreign language, policy studies, business management, and/or translation and interpretation. During the planning stage, the faculty team selects a content area, negotiates, and chooses three or four topics relevant to all language teams. The course is executed through several topical modules. Language sections study a module in the target language for several weeks and then meet at a “Plenary Session” in which students use the target language to present what they have learned. Because Chinese, French, and Japanese speakers may not understand Spanish, the Spanish presentation is simultaneously translated into English, and then translated into Chinese, French, and Japanese. Advanced Translation and Interpretation students provide the interpretation as part of their practicum training.

Course Formats and Adaptability

The Monterey Model comes in various formats, easily adaptable to diverse educational settings. Below is a brief description of the five formats of the Monterey Model: they are uniform in the *plenary* + *language sections* format with some variance determined by available resources.

Format 1

Plenary with interpretation + Language sections each led by two professors (a language and a content professor)

Chinese, Japanese, and Russian students took the course *Current Issues in Non-Proliferation*, which was in Format 1. All students attended the introductory plenary when content professors gave introductory English lectures on the following topics: 1) non-proliferation of nuclear weapons; 2) biological and chemical weapons; and 3) weapons of mass destruction and anti-terrorism. After the plenary students studied the first topic for four weeks. A content and a language professor led each language section where all lectures, discussions, learning materials, and assignments were in the target language. The language professor assisted students to understand the learning materials, acquire specialized vocabulary, and prepare a presentation and a research paper, whereas the content professor gave content lectures or led class discussions. After consulting with the professors, students wrote short research papers and made oral presentations on the topic in the target language, critiqued by peers and professors. The three language sections then met in a plenary to make presentations on the first topic, which were interpreted simultaneously. This pattern was repeated for subsequent modules throughout the semester.

Format 2

Plenary with interpretation + Language sections each led by one professor (a language or a content professor)

The *Comparative Environmental Policies* course was in Format 2. It was offered several times, and each time with a different language combination, depending on the number of those enrolled and faculty availability. One offering involved five languages: Chinese, English, French, German, and Spanish. Four topics were chosen: 1) geography and natural resources; 2) agriculture and the environment; 3) air pollution and the environment; and 4) country-specific environmental policies. A content or language professor staffed each section, with language professors heading most sections, and a content professor led the English section. Obviously, the proportion of language and content learning varied among sections. To ensure basic content was covered, the course had a "common English reader" in addition to target-language readings. The sections studied each topic first before making presentations at the plenary with simultaneous interpretation.

Format 3

Plenary with interpretation + Language sections each led by a language professor

The course *International Gender Issues*, offered in Chinese, German, Japanese, and Russian was in Format 3, a joint effort between two disciplines — language studies and interpretation. The course format was the same as the previous two formats, but there was no content specialist other than guest speakers/lecturers that each language section arranged on its own.

Format 4

One End-of-Course Plenary with interpretation + Language sections each led by a language professor

Three different courses, *Building an East-Asian Community* in Chinese, *Political/Social Issues Facing Modern-day Japan* in Japanese, and *Internet and Media Conflict in Hispanic Countries* in Spanish, were offered in the same semester. Although the focus of the three courses was different, the contents overlapped to a certain extent as they examined the current social/political issues in various regions of the world. To broaden students' perspectives, a Monterey Model plenary session was added at the end of the semester, where representatives from the three courses shared their research findings in the target languages with simultaneous interpretation. Topics presented and discussed included: "Soft Power in China," "The Efficacy of Digital Protest in Nicaragua," and "Population Decline: The 'Japanese Way' in Peril."

Format 5

Plenary without interpretation + Language sections, each led by one professor (a language or a content professor)

Politics in a Post-Communist World was in format 5. It had the same format, but plenary sessions were conducted in English. Because the Interpretation Practicum course was only offered in the spring semester, no interpretation was available in the fall. The course had three language sections: Chinese, German, and Russian. A language or a content professor led each section. Students gave English presentations based on their papers written in the target language. They were challenged to translate country-specific details gathered from target language sources.

A JAPANESE LANGUAGE SECTION IN ACTION

In Spring 2012, a Monterey Model course *Human Security* was offered in English, French, Japanese, and Spanish, utilizing a hybrid of Formats 1 and 2, as previously explained. The English section was led by a content professor who specialized in this subject; the French and Spanish sections by language professors. The Japanese section, however, was divided into two sub-sections, both taught in Japanese: one by a content professor, and the other by a language professor.

Learning Objectives

The faculty team met in the previous semester to discuss the scope and topics of Human Security, the course structure and materials. It also outlined the learning objectives, taking into consideration that students had uneven exposure to human security through previous work/volunteer/travel experiences, degree program coursework, and off-campus study. Students came from Master's programs of International Policy Studies, Public Administration, Business Management, and Translation and Interpretation. Their language proficiency ranged from Advanced Low to Superior on the ACTFL scale. Several native Japanese speakers interested in the topic also took the course. Due to the discrepancies in students' content and language preparedness, the learning objectives were stated in general terms: "To introduce the concept of *human security*, its development and real-world applications, and implications for international policy through illustrative case examples." Content acquisition included the following: (1) to describe the concept of *human security*, how it differs from the traditional concept of *national security*, how it has been translated into policy at the global and national levels; (2) to analyze the human security challenges and policy responses in selective regions and countries of the world; and (3) to articulate one's views on human security issues and communicate them clearly in different modes of communication, including oral presentations, discussions, and written commentaries. Language development topics were as follows: (4) expanding specialized vocabulary and terminology on the subject; (5) reading a large amount of authentic resources in various styles with time constraints, summarizing the content and paraphrasing; (6) enhancing the ability to use the target language for professional purposes (i.e., formal presentations, roundtable discussions, panel presentations, and writing); and (7) gaining experience of working with interpreters.

Material Development

The content professor compiled a list of common readings for background information, and each section chose its own target language materials, which consisted of government documents, book chapters, and academic papers. The content professor for the Japanese section, a native Japanese speaker, selected the materials for both sub-sections. The texts varied in length between five and twenty pages and contained technical jargon, formal written expressions, and complex sentence structures. The length and complexity of the readings posed difficulty for students; the language professor developed special terminology explanations, grammar notes, and tasks and activities targeted on developing reading skills.

Learning Activities

Each language section designed the activities most suitable for the students. In the Japanese content portion, the content professor lectured and led discussions on theories and historical and current developments in the field. The language portion focused on helping students to understand the readings, learn and use specialized vocabulary, improve grammatical competence, and prepare for the plenary presentations. Students gave summaries of the assigned readings, discussed and analyzed the content, and practiced difficult linguistic points following explicit instruction. The language section also aided students to develop coping strategies for unknown language in various contexts. Below is a summary of the learning activities in the Japanese section:

Reading

- Pre-reading questions/definition of key words (schemata building; activating students' language and content background knowledge; outlining the content scope of the reading; guiding students to pay attention to the main ideas or specific information in the article);
- Oral or written summaries (classifying, paraphrasing, summarizing);
- Oral or written critiques (analyzing, synthesizing, evaluating);
- Extracting topics/numbers/facts (skimming and scanning, categorizing information, finding details, organizing facts/numbers in charts, graphs, and tables); and
- Jigsaw Reading (Due to the heavy reading load, arrangements were made to distribute the reading among students. Students were given a portion of the reading assignments to report the main points to the others).

Speaking

- Group discussions;
- Group debate (presenting and defending one's views);

- Leading class discussion (Students took turns leading a discussion on assigned readings. The "discussion leader" ensured that s/he was prepared to answer questions about the reading materials. They also took turns leading the "comparative discussion" after the plenary session, in which students exchanged views on what they had learned about other countries/regions at the plenary session.)
- Presentations (in the Japanese section and in the plenary);
- Panel discussion in the plenary (with pre-assigned roles, such as discussant or presenter);
- Role of Master of Ceremony in the plenary sessions (opening the plenary, welcoming the audience, introducing the speakers/panelists, assuring smooth proceedings, making closing remarks, and acknowledging the participants in formal language); and
- Questions and answers to the plenary presenters (preparing questions and answers for the plenary, and fielding audience questions).

Listening

- Listening to content lectures and discussions;
- Watching video materials; and
- Taking notes in lectures and in plenary sessions.

Writing

- Weekly "reaction journal" (1-2 pages in Japanese) where students jotted down thoughts and reactions to the week's readings, class discussions, lectures, plenary presentations, etc. Students were encouraged to express themselves freely;
- Writing an outline for formal speeches/presentations and preparing PowerPoint slides; and
- Writing and rewriting research papers (through multiple drafts — students were instructed to turn in paper drafts at varying times to get timely language and content feedback from peers and professors).

Grammar

- Instruct students to attend to certain advanced grammatical details, among which were particles, transition words, register and style in formal vs. informal language, paragraph structure, and academic writing conventions.

Vocabulary

- Vocabulary building (applying the association strategy to learn a group of words connected by meaning, form, or function);
- Learning vocabulary from context (comparing the same word in various contexts or different words in the same context); and
- Developing strategies and skills of analogical inference, utilizing knowledge on word root, common parts of the characters (kanji).

Public speaking

- Verbal (volume of voice, pace, speed);
- Non-verbal (eye-contact with audience, posture, gestures); and

- Use of visual aids (preparing quality PowerPoint slides — focusing on the subject, including right amount of text, using appropriate font, artwork, charts, and graphs, and incorporating sounds and videos).

Project management

- Working with interpreters (respecting interpreters as professionals, providing presentation notes to interpreters beforehand, and speaking clearly and in an appropriate pace to facilitate interpretation);
- Group work (for group presentation or project); and
- Time management.

Assessment of Learning

Instead of giving examinations to test how much content facts and language rules a student had memorized, integrated tasks with specific objectives, appropriate content, a working procedure, and a range of outcomes were assigned. The learning activities described above demonstrated what students were expected to accomplish. Major tasks such as presentations and research papers were scored; other tasks such as demonstrating understanding of the reading, leading class discussions, formulating ideas and expressing in Japanese, providing critiques, were evaluated as part of class participation and performance.

It was challenging to establish the language and content assessment criteria. In the Japanese section, the content professor evaluated content mastery, and the language professor language development. Presentations and research papers were graded twice: once by the language professor, focusing on the accuracy and appropriateness of the language, and once by the content professor concentrating on the accuracy and depth of the content analysis and evaluation. This grading procedure served the purpose of the course. Some advanced translation and interpretation students were strong in language but had limited knowledge of human security. Although their papers contained fewer grammatical errors, they occasionally misunderstood a specific content issue. The content professor was able to guide them to the appropriate information sources. Some International Policy students had formerly taken several courses related to human security but lacked the language skills to articulate facts and views. These students sought the language professor’s help and were able to complete the course assignments.

The Participants

Student. Building on learners' existing knowledge, experience, and expectations is essential in learning. Shaw (1997) outlines four key conditions for students to succeed in a CBI course: (1) background knowledge in the content area; (2) proficiency in the target language in terms of syntax, lexis, and discourse; (3) analytical and thinking skills upon which the instructor proposes to build; and (4) expectations of the learning match the course intentions. Although such well-prepared students are rare, many students reported in a midterm self-evaluation that they completed learning tasks by relying more on the stronger part of their background knowledge and skills. For instance, a student with weak language background majored in human security studies. He thought about dropping the course during the first two weeks because he could hardly keep up with the reading assignments. However, after realizing that his content knowledge almost always aided his comprehension, he decided to take the challenge. On the other hand, a translation student had strong language skills but limited experience in social sciences. She ended up spending more time on content learning. Consequently, expanding vocabulary and familiarizing with discourses in another content domain was beneficial to her training in translation and interpretation.

Faculty. The Monterey Model posed pedagogical challenges for the faculty involved. Professors developed and refined teaching methods to help students process authentic materials and accomplish learning tasks, such as using context, recycling or spiraling information, utilizing individuals' background knowledge and schemata, learning from peers, and developing coping strategies. Language faculty also faced demands in teaching a subject matter in which they had little or no background. Rather than playing the traditional role of spoon feeding knowledge to students, they switched to the role of a facilitator. As such, their focus was on exploring pedagogical techniques to make the content more accessible and the tasks more manageable to students at varied levels of proficiency. By utilizing authentic materials, guest lectures, and peer learning, they created an environment conducive for learning. As Stryker and Leaver (1997) suggest, instead of the traditional "graded texts", language teachers needed to develop "graded activities". Content professors, furnished with the content knowledge and the linguistic ability to teach in a target language, were not necessarily ready to teach a CBI course. If a professor was not familiar or unwilling to accommodate the needs of second language learners, the learning process could be overwhelming and the consequences devastating. Some content professors stated that it would be helpful if they had received some basic training in language pedagogy. Such training would require more resources. Given the current financial strain many universities face, however, the administration may not support faculty who would like to teach content in a foreign language, because such courses usually attract fewer students.

Administration. Administrative support was essential in determining how to integrate different fields into the school curricula. A major component in the implementation of Monterey Model courses was the faculty's willingness to devote time and effort to better educational practices. A reduced teaching load was sometimes made possible by grant funds. Mostly, however, it relied on faculty's dedication. Developing and teaching CBI courses were time consuming, which could affect faculty research and publication endeavors. Faculty proposed that if the administration supports innovation in foreign language teaching, it should acknowledge and reward teachers' efforts in faculty evaluation.

CONCLUSION

The Monterey Model shows how the MIIS faculty assists students to reach higher proficiency levels. The experiment has validated established principles of language education, particularly in content-based instruction. Contrary to the belief that the integration of content and language may require a sacrifice of training in linguistic skills, the Monterey Model indicates that integration promotes the growth of foreign language proficiency, the acquisition of content knowledge, and the ability for independent study. Most students who had taken a Monterey Model course commented on increased motivation in learning the target language because of relevance to academic studies and professional goals. The faculty also became more aware of using appropriate teaching techniques from this experience when the language faculty's role shifted from delivering linguistic knowledge to facilitating and advising learners in developing language competence; content faculty gained an understanding of working with students from various linguistic backgrounds. The interdisciplinary cooperation broke down barriers between disciplines. We do not claim that a Monterey Model course in and of itself can help learners to reach professional proficiency, but it may aid in that goal. In essence, the Monterey Model makes learning more relevant to the real world. The learning outcome, as well as the process, empowers students to act effectively and responsibly in multilingual and multicultural environments.

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MEET A TEAM

Aloha! High-level Learners!

*An interview with **Dr. Yi Long**, Director of the Language Training Detachment - Hawaii (LTD-HI), Extension Program, Continuing Education*

***Editor**: Many have heard about LTD but don't know the specifics of its work. Would you tell the readers about the LTD team in Hawaii?*

***Dr. Long**:* The Language Training Detachment - Hawaii (LTD-HI) is a major part of the Hawaii Learning Center (HLC). Although it is not on a military base, it offers language and technical training to Department of Defense personnel. The purpose and scope of the LTD-HI's work is to provide training that will enhance students' language skills, improve intercultural competency, and foster lifelong language learning.

LTD-HI is one of eight LTDs in the Continuing Education (CE) Division's Extension Program (EP). LTD-HI has 29 faculty members, including a director, an academic specialist, and two branch chiefs. Our instructional team comprises 15 instructors in the Chinese Branch, and 10 (seven Korean and three Tagalog) in the Multi-Language Branch. The HLC host manages 6-week courses in Chinese, Korean, Tagalog, and Tausug, focusing on overall proficiency or selected performance skills. They are equivalent to DLI course offerings such as Basic Acquisition/Conversion, Refresher/Basic Enhancement, and Intermediate and Advanced Enhancement. Examples of advanced courses from the Chinese program include *Chinese Listening Transcription/Translation*, *Chinese Editorials*, *Modern Chinese Prose*, and *Chinese Classics.* Trainings are provided by DLI, contract, and military adjunct teachers.

***Editor**: You mentioned that you have a diverse workforce. Please tell us more about your faculty.*

***Dr. Long**:* Over half of the faculty members are from DLIFLC, who transferred from Monterey to Hawaii. They have brought extensive experience and expertise gained from working in Basic Course, CE Resident Education, CE Distance Learning, Curriculum Development, and Faculty Development. Locally hired faculty members (from Hawaii and other states) have language teaching experience in academic and business settings, which adds value to the wide range of faculty expertise. Approximately 80% of the faculty members hold advanced degrees — including six with doctoral degrees. Several instructors took advantage of the Tuition Assistance program offered by DLIFLC to complete their advanced degrees.

Editor*: A quality faculty team will definitely contribute to the success of your program. Would you tell us about the unique characteristics of your LTD program? How does teaching in LTD programs differ from that in resident programs?*

Dr. Long*:* The composition and short duration of courses and the makeup of the student population make the LTD-HI experience different from DLI resident programs. HLC's six-week courses have more specific objectives, but no textbooks. All instructional materials are developed from authentic materials derived from sources such as news reports, social media, talk shows, interviews, debates, documentaries, TV dramas, movies, poetry, and so on. The reliance on authentic materials requires teachers to spend time selecting and developing materials. Teachers are also required to have familiarity with technology because all HLC classes are delivered through the e-Campus Learning Management System (LMS) — *Blackboard*. A typical class has six to eight students. Although we try to place students with the same proficiency level in a class, mixed levels are often unavoidable. In that aspect, teachers need to have the pedagogical knowledge and skills to manage mixed-level classes.

Whereas the majority of DLI Basic students prepare for their future job without fully understanding the scope of work, LTD-HI students are more aware of their occupational language needs. Additionally, not all LTD-HI students are DLI graduates. Some have bypassed DLI as native or heritage speakers; others have lived or travelled in the target-language country, attended university, participated in immersion programs, or studied independently. LTD-HI students are generally more mature. They are also more aware of learning styles and strategies, as well as teachers' teaching styles.

Editor*: Are some of your students at the ILR Level 3 or higher? What are the special challenges of teaching at higher levels?*

Dr. Long*:* Although the bulk of teaching effort helps students reach or retain service-mandated proficiency levels (L2), we also offer many courses to assist students to reach professional level (L3) and above. Some students come at L3 or above. They are often grouped with students at lower levels. One of the greatest challenges is managing mixed-level classes with heritage/native and non-native speakers. It is not easy to balance learner profiles and needs and bridge knowledge gaps. Moreover, a mismatch of student and program expectations (DLPT preparation vs. improving language skills) can be challenging.

Editor*: What measures do you take to address learner disparities?*

Dr. Long*:* We provide differentiated instruction for mixed level classes. Additionally, instructors provide individualized out-of-class assignments that target learner needs. For higher-level learners, we use the "blended learning concept" — the daily instruction consists of four hours of class instruction and four hours of directed assignments. Our experience shows that higher-level students' learning requirements are best met through four-week individualized directed study with a learning contract. Instructors design tasks that are based on adult learning principles, require higher order thinking skills (HOTS), and build up sociolinguistic, discourse, social cultural, emotional, and critical thinking competencies. They apply the concepts and strategies learned from the Post Basic Instructor Certification Program (PBICP) offered by Faculty Development (FD). Directed assignments give students the opportunities to use available tools and resources which are accessible to them even after the course ends. The blended experience trains students to be autonomous and life-long learners.

Editor*: Would you share some of your best teaching practices with readers?*

Dr. Long*:* There are many. An example is the General Professional Proficiency (GPP) Program, which employs reflective and collaborative learning and teaching. We conceived the concept in 2010, as a product of collaboration between LTD-HI and the HLC host. The first iteration started in 2011 with Chinese and Korean; now we are offering the 4^{th} iteration of the Chinese GPP.

The GPP aims at bringing students from L2+ to L3 and above through a curriculum that combines language, higher-level thinking skills, and intercultural competence. It is designed for learners who have demonstrated aptitude, intrinsic motivation, and knowledge of related skills. Selection for taking the 24-week program is based on DLPT scores, Diagnostic Assessment/Online Diagnostic Assessment (DA/ODA), an English essay, and a face-to-face interview. GPP students are trained to reflect on their learning process, focus on language production/output, and collaborate with peers and teachers. Specifically, students maintain a digital journal to record reflections on their learning. They make daily entries in English, perform self-evaluations, create learning metaphors based on idiomatic expressions to summarize their weekly learning experiences and, finally, produce a weekly essay in the target language. The students' GPP learning journal is recorded and published in a portfolio containing reflections, drafts, teachers' feedback such as corrections and encouragement, and the final revised products. Collaborative learning is created through discussion forums in *Blackboard* and creative projects—such as newsletter publication, multiple perspective teacher interviews, rap lyrics, and skits. Projects receive peer and teacher feedback and are followed up with group discussions and product revisions.

GPP instructors engage in reflective teaching practices. They maintain a Teachers' Observation Log to capture individual performances, class dynamics, and thoughts. A daily team meeting is held to discuss student progress, identify individual weaknesses, and plan individualized instruction. In this dynamic process, instructional strategies are modified, based on diagnostic assessment results, periodic academic counseling, or students' learning journals.

***Editor**: Your innovation and everyday practice reflect the faculty's dedication to student success. It also demonstrates your leadership. How do you encourage teachers to go above and beyond?*

***Dr. Long**:* The LTD-HI team has built a culture based on respect, understanding, and a high degree of professionalism. We learn from others and share our teaching expertise in bi-monthly Brown Bag meetings. We take pride in the variety and quality of foreign language educational services that we are able to provide by working collaboratively within our team and with our host and other organizations.

We acknowledge and remember the legacy of former LTD-HI colleagues who have contributed to our success. We appreciate the support from DLIFLC Monterey, including high-level leadership visits, FD academic training workshops, and informational briefings. We hope our colleagues in Monterey will have a chance to come and see how we work in paradise Hawaii. Aloha!

QUICK TIPS

Training for Professional Interpretation

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As the world is getting smaller and flatter, the need for communications across cultures and languages has never been felt stronger today. Translation and interpretation have naturally become more and more important as a tool to facilitate cross-cultural communications. Qualified interpreters are in high demand for international conferences, diplomatic talks, business meetings, court hearings, and hospitals, to name just a few, and this has led to the emergence of hundreds, if not thousands, of schools, programs and courses in different parts of the world over the past couple of decades that provide training in interpreting.

When it comes to interpreting, many people would think that anyone who speaks a foreign language can interpret. This statement may or may not be true, depending on the definition of "interpreting." Let's use the analogy of cooking. Although many can cook at home, it is quite a different matter if one wants to become a professional cook. The same is true with interpreting. To be a good and qualified interpreter, even if you are not doing it professionally, some serious training is necessary. An interpreter needs three attributes: 1) superb knowledge of the language; 2) interpretation skills; and 3) overall cultural familiarity.

The first thing an interpreter needs to learn is to listen for *meaning*, not *words*. Interpreters learn not to treat *words* on an individual basis, but in meaningful segments so that what is remembered are a few inter-related meaning units rather than single words. Interpreters learn not to take the face value of a word, but to look at the context in which the word is used in order to determine what it really means. This is easier said than done. High language proficiency is a necessity for an interpreter to navigate through words, establish logical relations among them, and build discourses that accurately convey the intended meaning.

Besides language proficiency, an interpreter needs to develop interpreting skills; among these are using short-term memory, note-taking, and the ability to shift attention among different tasks performed at the same time;

listening while taking notes; or, in simultaneous interpretation, listening, processing information, and producing output at the same time.

An interpreter needs to have basic knowledge, not necessarily expertise, in most areas. An in-depth understanding of a few selected subject domains is helpful. This is the minimum content knowledge that enables an interpreter to perform adequately.

Language, interpretation skills, and content knowledge constitute important ingredients for a successful career in interpreting. When at work, the interpreter must understand the language thoroughly and apply skills such as short-term memory, note-taking, vocabulary retrieval while at the same time relying on his/her knowledge about the subject to verify the message that is being presented. In this multi-tasking process, an interpreter often needs to use more mental resources than available in order to handle the cognitive load. To borrow an analogy that Gile (1995) used to describe the process of interpreting, human mental resources are like a bottle of wine that is shared by a few people. If one person wants to drink more, the others will have to drink less. Each task in interpreting is competing for limited mental resources. The only way for the interpreter to increase his/her capacity to handle the cognitive load is to reduce the efforts needed for a task so that mental resources can be released for more difficult tasks. To reduce the effort for doing anything, you will need to be superb at using the languages, interpretation skills, and content knowledge to the extent that the implementation becomes close to automatic. Therefore, in professional interpreter training, various exercises have been designed to help students achieve automaticity in a few key areas. Terminology retrieval, for instance, can speed up or slow down the interpretation; so do numbers, acronyms, places, and so on. With a quick and almost automatic response to vocabulary, numbers, acronyms, and linguistic structures, an interpreter's attention can be more effectively shared with multiple tasks.

Professional interpreter training in universities and colleges usually takes place at the graduate level. By then students are highly proficient in languages — one's native language and one or two foreign languages. The training lasts at least one year, and in most cases, two years. Successful graduates from interpreting schools are found working for international organizations such as the United Nations and the European Union, government agencies, and multinational companies. As a matter of fact, most of the interpreters working for the US State Department have received intensive training in interpreting, which gives them the professional skills to interpret for the secretaries of State, Defense, Commerce, chairman of Joint Chiefs of Staff, and even the president.

REFERENCE

Gile, D. (1995). *Basic concepts and models for interpreter and translator training*. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

UPCOMING EVENTS

2014

MAY

May 6-10 Computer Assisted Language Instruction Consortium (CALICO) Conference, Athens, OH. Information: www.calico.org.

May 25-30 NAFSA: Association of International Educators Annual Conference and Expo, San Diego, CA. Information: www.nafsa.org.

JUNE

June 13-15 International Society for Language Studies (ISLS) Annual Conference, Akita, Japan. Information: www.isls.co/index.html
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June 16-19 American Association of Teachers of Korean (AATK) Annual Conference, Boston, MA. Information: www.aatk.org.

JULY

July 8-11 American Association of Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese (AATSP) Annual Conference, Panama City, Panama. Information: https://aatsp.site-ym.com/.

July 19-22 American Association of Teachers of French (AATF), New Orleans, LA. Information: www.frenchteachers.org.

NOVEMBER

November 21-23 American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages Annual Convention (ACTFL), San Antonio, TX. Information: www.actfl.org.

November 21-23 American Association of Teachers of German (AATG) Annual Conference, San Antonio, TX. Information: www.aatg.org.

November 21-23 American Association of Teachers of Italian (AATI) Annual Conference, San Antonio, TX. Information: www.aati.org.

November 21-23 American Association of Teachers of Japanese (AATJ) Fall Conference, San Antonio, TX. Information: www.aatj.org.

November 21-23 Chinese Language Teachers Association (CLTA) Annual Conference, San Antonio, TX. Information: clta-us.org.

November 21-23 National Network for Early Language Learning (NNELL), San Antonio, TX. Information: www.nnell.org.

November 22-25 Middle East Studies Association (MESA) Annual Meeting, Washington, DC. Information: www.mesa.arizona.edu.

2015

JANUARY

January 8-11 Linguistic Society of American (LSA) Annual Meeting, Portland, OR. Information: www.linguisticsociety.org.

January 8-11 Modern Language Association (MLA) Convention, Vancouver, Canada. Information: www.mla.org/convention.

January 8-11 American Association of Teachers of Slavic and East European Languages (AATSEEL), Vancouver, Canada. Information: www.aatseel.org.

MARCH

March 5-7 Southern Conference on Language Teaching (SCOLT), Atlanta, GA. Information: www.scolt.org.

March 12-14 Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (CSCTFL), Minneapolis, MN. Information: www.csctfl.org.

March 21-24 American Association for Applied Linguistics (AAAL), Toronto, Canada. Information: www.aaal.org.

March 25-28 Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) International Convention, Toronto, Canada. Information: www.tesol.org.

March 26 American Association of Teachers of Japanese (AATJ) Spring Conference, Chicago, IL. Information: www.aatj.org.

APRIL

April 16-20 American Educational Research Association (AERA) Annual Meeting, Chicago, IL. Information: www.aera.net.

MAY

May 24-29, Association of International Educators (NAFSA): Boston, MA. Information: http://www.nafsa.org.

May 25-29, 25th Conference on Spanish in the United States: New York City, NY. Information: http://education.ccny.cuny.edu/sius2015/.

JUNE

June 18-20, International Society for Language Studies (ISLS) Annual Conference, Albuquerque, New Mexico. Information: www.isls.co/index.html.

JULY

July 06-31, Linguistic Society of America Linguistic Institute (LSA), Chicago, IL. Information: http://www.linguisticsociety.org.

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 spring issue and by 31 July for the fall issue.

For guidelines in the preparation of your manuscript, please refer to the next section (pp. 79-84): *Information for Contributors.*

INFORMATION FOR CONTRIBUTORS

Submission Information for Authors

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.

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 (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.

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 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 normally 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.

Correspondence

Send all inquiries and editorial correspondence by email to the Editor: *jiaying.howard@dliflc.edu.*

Guidelines for Manuscript Preparation

First, decide the column — Research Articles, Review Articles, Reviews, Faculty Forum, News and Views, Quick Tips, or Resources, for which you would prefer as the appropriate category.

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:

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.
Acknowledge-ments	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. See examples below: Benati, A. (2005). The effects of PI, TI and MOI in the acquisition of English simple past tense. *Language Teaching Research*, *9*, 67 – 113.

	Cain, K. (2012, June 29). The Negative Effects of Facebook on Communication. Social Media Today RSS. Retrieved January 3, 2013, from http://socialmediatoday.com. Lee, J. & Benati, A. (2007). *Second language processing: An analysis of theory, problems and solutions*. Continuum: London.
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 Views

Reports on conferences, official trips, official visitors, special events, new instructional techniques, training opportunities, news items, etc. Reports should not exceed 800 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.