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When I look at the collection of articles and other contributions for this issue of *Dialog on Language Instruction*, my first reaction is to say, “I am impressed.” Such a great range of all the best things in teaching foreign languages today – very cutting edge. I would encourage the authors to take their contributions to the external world through expansion and publication in the leading foreign language journals. All these topics can contribute indeed to the national dialog.

I would also encourage others at DLI to consider sharing their ideas for effective teaching, especially at the upper levels of proficiency. We are reaching a point in the history of the DLI where there is not a lot “out there” that we can go to for edification (although there is some, and we should all stay current). More or equally important to our ability to meet our new goals is to share ideas with one another. The pages of this journal are the ideal place to do so.

**BETTY L LEAVER**

*Provost*
The main idea that I want to state, respected readers, is that the most effective way to teach speaking foreign languages has nothing to do with foreign languages. It is connected with a different subject – verbal communication. We need to teach communication. Since communication cannot proceed without language, we begin by focusing on language itself. Thus, if we want to be effective in teaching a foreign language, we have to make language secondary, not primary. The first, the primary goal of our teaching, is communication.

METHODS

Teachers of foreign languages use various methods. Some well-known classifications of these methods are presented in Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching (Richards & Rogers, 1986), Principles of Language Learning and Teaching (Brown, 1994), Mora Modules (Mora, 2015), and Developing Professional-level Language Proficiency (Leaver & Shekhtman, 2002). Leaver and Shekhtman (2002) classify teaching methods used in second language acquisition into four main approaches: Grammar-Translation, Structural, Cognitive, and Communicative.

Each method helps prepare students to participate in some form of verbal communication. However, if we consider the contents and approaches, we will see that these methods’ proximity to verbal communication differ markedly from one another.

The Grammar-Translation Approach

As can be seen from its name, grammar is the primary focus of this approach. The language used in the classroom is the students’ native language. Vocabulary is memorized, often from advanced texts, and much of that vocabulary is not useful to students. Consequently, students know how to read complicated texts but cannot use the language for simple spoken communication. Little attention is paid to pronunciation. The central activity of the grammar-translation approach is translation back and forth between the target language and the native language. Precision in translation and the ability to apply and
analyze grammatical rules are highly regarded. Placing so much importance on grammar and the analysis of texts results in learning more about the language than the language itself.

The Structural Approach

The structural approach is closer to spoken communication than grammar-translation. The best-known methods of the structural approach are the direct method and audio-lingual method. Language is presented in a natural way through listening, speaking, reading and writing. Grammar is taught inductively by situation; language structure is memorized through pattern drills; vocabulary is strictly controlled and learned in context; pronunciation is emphasized; and audio-visual technology is used extensively via slide projectors, tape recorders, and language laboratories. Teaching is executed orally through the target language and teachers are either native speakers or are extremely fluent in the target language. Language input is provided in dialogue and monologue forms.

The Cognitive Approach

The cognitive approach also pays serious attention to spoken communication, although the development of students' speaking abilities is preceded by visual or listening stages and explicit grammar explanations accompanied by multiple examples to facilitate understanding. The most typical of these approaches is the Silent Way, which encourages real talking after a period during which students develop an understanding of the target language material. The important goal of the cognitive approach is to develop automaticity through extensive practice of language skills. Often this practice is organized so as to progress from highly structured to more open-ended activities.

The Communicative Approach

The closest style to verbal communication is the communicative approach. In this approach spoken communication is a must and the need to teach communicative competence, i.e., the ability to use the target language effectively and appropriately, is stressed. Language is learned through interaction between teachers and students and among students themselves. It emphasizes creative role-playing, simulations, surveys, projects, and plays to produce spontaneity and improvisation. Grammatical rules and structures that are more functional in a discourse are emphasized. Drills become a starting point of meaningful conversation. This approach allows students to talk and express themselves in spite of grammatical errors. Constant correction is unnecessary and even counter-productive. The syllabus is oriented towards the students' needs; vocabulary and subjects are chosen with regard to the interests and requirements of the students. The communicative approach has a strong emphasis on functional, usable language, because students may use it either in a
foreign country or in the émigré community. Teachers using the communicative approach seek to use authentic resources. They employ textbooks only as a tool for developing speech.

We clearly see that the communicative approach uses many elements of spoken communication and differs from the other methods in its ability to teach speaking skills. Nevertheless, the above-mentioned methods, including communicative method, assign primary importance to elements of the language: grammar, structure, phonetics, vocabulary, and syntax. In other words, the main goal of all these approaches is to teach language, and only occasionally teach communication. This prompts the following question: “Why doesn’t the communicative approach teach on the basis of communication?"

Communicative approaches – including the Natural Approach, Cooperative Language Learning, Content-based Teaching, and Task-based Teaching – emphasize negotiation of meaning, social contexts of learning, interaction among students, information gap activities, cooperative learning, and role-playing. Grammar is an important part tied to the communicative topics in the curriculum. Language is not studied for the sake of language but for true communication. The main principle of communicative teaching is to learn a language by using it to communicate.

The fact that the communicative approach declares the interaction between teachers and students and among students as its key does not mean that it connects interaction with the core elements of verbal communication. Communicative approaches use only superficial, non-essential elements of verbal communication or speech. It is similar to saying that we teach philosophy because we have used some philosophical stories, or we teach the principles of mathematics because we have presented the biographies of famous mathematicians. The fact that we use role-playing, dialogues, monologues, cooperative learning, and negotiations in our teaching does not mean that we connect language teaching to the essential principals of communication. The absence of this connection not only reduces the effectiveness of language teaching but also neglects the important part of foreign language training, that is, how to effectively use language in communication with native speakers.

FLUENCY AND CONVERSATION CONTROL

What does it mean – to teach language on the basis of verbal communication? We know that verbal communication is information exchange between individuals using speech. Speech is the main instrument of verbal communication. Subsequently, to teach a language based on verbal communication is to teach it on the basis of speech components and speech manifestations – using components and manifestations of native speakers’ speech as templates for students and foreigners.

What are the main manifestations of native speakers’ speech? They are fluency and conversation control. These are our objectives in teaching foreign languages – these are what students have to achieve. All language exercises must enable fluency and the capability of controlling the conversation. To make
these exercises efficient we need to understand what constitutes fluency and conversation control.

**Elements of Fluency**

Fluency means that the interlocutor speaks fast, readily, spontaneously, and effortlessly. The first element of fluency is the ability to generate and expand the speech. The second element is readiness – the ability to speak on any topic. The third is automaticity – the ability to express what without paying attention to how. The fourth is the ability to simplify and complicate the speech, and the fifth is naturalness, which is expressed by different discourse markers including exclamations, repetitions, pause fillers, parenthetical devices, rhetorical questions, and synonymous appositions.

**Elements of Conversation Control**

Conversation control means that the interlocutor can effortlessly manage his or her participation in a group communication with other interlocutors. The first element of conversation control is a complete command of the language interrogative system. The second is effective comprehension. The third is a mastery of socio-linguistic devices: idioms, allusions, and inferences. The fourth is the management of socio-cultural materials: styles, genres, and jargons.

**SPECIAL COMMUNICATION EXERCISES (SCE)**

There is only one way to teach students to communicate as native speakers do – through Special Communication Exercises (SCE). These exercises are divided according to the main manifestations of the native speakers’ speech. Some examples of the exercises are provided later in this section.

**Exercises to Develop Fluency**

The first group of exercises helps students gain the ability to maintain verbal contact by giving as long an answer as possible to any question of a native speaker. It teaches them to hold the speech, to produce an unlimited amount of speech, and to control the amount and length of their speech.

The essence of the second group of exercises is to prepare students for all possible questions they may receive from native speakers. These types of exercises are often called islands. An island is a short text (its length depends on an individual’s memory), which students have learned by heart. The exercises have a lexical-grammar function because they contain vocabulary and grammar patterns that students can pull out and use in other contexts. They also have communicative function – preparing for a conversation with a native speaker.

The objective of the third group of exercises is to train students to use only automatic patterns, which help them to follow the principle of adhering to
the known. Even native speakers prefer to be close to the comfort zones of their speech. For non-native speakers adherence to the known is far more important. The students’ training begins with the development of their understanding of the nature of the grammar models. Students discover that three types of grammar models are under their control: those that they know automatically and correctly, those that they know automatically and not correctly, and the non-automatic. The automatic and correct models allow students to speak correctly and fluently, without translating their native language into a second language. The automatic and not correct models also enable students to be fluent but require more work to treat fossilized elements. Communicative problems arise when students begin to use not automatic models because these models make their speech sound strange, foreign, and incomprehensible.

The fourth group of exercises teaches students to use simplified models when they are presented with a concept that is difficult to express. The mechanism of simplifying consists of three levels of substitution: (1) substitution of a sophisticated or technical word for a simple, easy-to-use, and general word; (2) a compound or complex sentence for a simple sentence; and (3) a complex grammatical structure for an elementary grammatical structure. Simplification is needed in communication, not only when students’ language skill is insufficient for the task but also when students forget the exact word yet need to continue the communication.

The simplification exercises also teach students the opposite process – complicating and enriching their speech. Complication exercises are necessary for building linguistic competence by improving grammatical accuracy and complexity, lexical breadth and precision, and discourse sophistication. Students are taught to replace less sophisticated and fixed forms of speech with more appropriate, refined, and sophisticated expressions. The exercises help students develop the use of metaphors, similes, hyperbole, synecdoche, personification, onomatopoeia, and the like. They also give students more flexibility and choices in grammatical constructions.

The fifth group helps students to add natural discourse markers to their speech. These include phatic functions, such as exclamations and repetitions, pause fillers, parenthetical elements, guidance questions, synonymous apposition, the use of different adverbial modifiers and cultural slang.

**Exercises to Develop Conversation Control**

The first group of these exercises addresses students’ command of the interrogative system of a given language by focusing on the speed and accuracy of posing questions. Students need to develop the ability and predilection for asking a wide range of questions, producing a great variety of question forms, and including sophisticated syntactical construction. Interrogative discourse is the main point.

Strategic input is important. Students are taught to conclude an expanded answer or a short text with a question to their interlocutors, to
eliminate pauses with the help of a question, and to change, if necessary, the topic of the conversation.

The exercises take into consideration three types of communicators: balanced, (overly) extroverted, and (overly) introverted. A balanced communicator relays an appropriate amount of information and allows time for his or her interlocutor to respond. The resultant conversation is one of equal parts of talking and listening, with each partner sharing similar amounts of information, ideas, and/or opinions. An extrovert tends to dominate the conversation, and an introvert is not an equal partner in the exchange of information. Being a good listener, an introvert is perfectly happy to listen and let others do the talking. The communicator types define the nature of conversation controlling exercises. Some exercises teach students to be a well-balanced communicator – knowing when to speak and when to listen. Some teach them how to deal with a passive communicator or control an extroverted communicator. Students are also trained how to survive in a language environment when they communicate with more than one native speaker.

The second type of conversation controlling exercises focuses on comprehension and teaches students how to improve their understanding of native speakers’ speech. These exercises are divided into two groups. The first group teaches students to get the gist of what is being said, allowing them to keep up with the main idea despite missing the details. Students are trained to pay no attention to unknown elements and at the same time not to miss any familiar elements of a native speaker’s speech. These skills are especially useful when the communication cannot be interrupted. The second group trains students to understand the details of what is being said by a native speaker.

The third type of exercises is most important for advanced students, which familiarizes them with idioms, allusions, inferences, and jargons. The exercises also train students to tailor their language to situations and audience (registers) and focus on the semantic differences between their native and target languages.

**Exemplary Exercises**

**Generation**

- *Are you an American?*  This exercise shows how to provide an expanded answer to a question asked by a native speaker (NS) of Russian.

  NS:  Are you an American?

  Student: Yes, I am an American. I live in Philadelphia. It is a large city. It is located on the East Coast of the United States, between New York and Washington. I came to Moscow only two days ago, but I have already seen the Kremlin and the Red Square. Moscow is a beautiful city. Have you been to America?
• **Russian economy.** The instructor writes the following sentence on the board: *The economy of Russia is experiencing great difficulties.* The instructor points out to students that (1) they can expand three elements of this sentence: economy, Russia, and difficulties; and (2) there is a chain reaction to the expansion: each element in the resultant sentences can be further expanded virtually *ad infinitum.*

• **Who can talk the longest?** In this timed competitive exercise students compete to see who can speak on a particular topic longer.

• **The instructor doesn’t know.** When a question requires a lengthy answer, the instructor may roll his eyes and feign ignorance by saying: “I forgot what I wanted to say,” or “I don’t know.” A student in the class must then give a lengthy answer starting with “I know what you wanted to say.”

**Readiness**

• **The wall.** To perform this island-building exercise the instructor invites a guest, a native speaker, to the classroom. Students are told that there is a wall between the instructor and the guest and they cannot hear each other. The students, however, can hear both speakers and need to help them talk to each other. One student repeats the instructor’s speech meant for the guest and another student repeats the guest’s meant for the instructor. The instructor has the right to correct the students and guide them towards inserting sophisticated expressions into the two speakers’ dialogue.

• **The dialogue.** This exercise asks students to recount a conversation between two native speakers after listening to it. When listening to the conversation, students can write down the words and grammatical models used, stop the speakers, if necessary, for explanations and even translations of words that they do not understand. After the dialogue, students are required to give an accurate and detailed recount of the dialogue and repeat the same dialogue in pairs.

• **The island salesman.** Students are given an assignment to “sell” a particular island during an on-going conversation that has nothing to do with the island. Here students are judged on how naturally they are able to make the transition to the sales talk.

• **Monologues.** Students are asked to prepare different types of monologues. Personal:

  I am often asked what prompted me to become a diplomat. Actually, I never ran around with diplomats. Moreover, until I was seventeen, I had never even heard about diplomacy as a profession. At that time, I was introduced to one young man. At first, I decided that he was not a hero of any sort, but then I fell head over heels in love with him. It was not he but his father who I found mesmerizing. He was rapidly climbing the diplomatic ladder, and his stories simply became fixated in my head. After that, I began to test the waters, or, more accurately, to prepare the soil, to
master this profession. In a word, I am grateful to fate for giving me the opportunity to meet this guy.

Social:
I think that relations between Russia and the U.S. have traditionally been good, with the exception of the Cold War. However, that period has not spread throughout Russia, insofar as Russia did not exist then; rather, that country was the powerful and indomitable Soviet Union that was created, as sung in songs, by the free will of the people. Honestly speaking, the relationship between Russian the U.S. has never reached the level of that achieved between the U.S. and European countries. The issue is that the U.S. has had greater political, economic, and cultural contacts with Europe. Since we find ourselves perceiving strategic interests from different angles, how would you evaluate the relations between these two countries?

Automaticity

- **Transmit; don’t translate.** The instructor speaks in a student’s native language and the student translates what the instructor says into the target language, trying to use only automatic patterns to convey the instructor’s message.

- **Do you want to say that...?** When a student begins speaking about a topic and pauses or slows down to search for a word or a structure, the instructor asks: “Do you want to say that...?” and uses the automatic model that the student knows. For this, it is imperative that the instructor knows which models the student has mastered.

- **Say it in your own way...** The instructor says several sentences using models that students know yet do not actively use in their speech. The students have to say the same thing by using their automatic models.

Simplification and Complication

- **Simplify the answer.** Ask students to answer a question in a simpler way.
  Question: Is swimming popular in your country?
  The answer to be simplified: In our country swimming is enjoyed by many people, and in contrast to many sports requiring extensive skills and training, it is not limited to young or affluent people who have access to private clubs or lessons.
  Possible simplified answer: Many people in our country like swimming. Everyone has a chance to swim: old and young, rich and poor.

- **Simplify the text.** Ask students to simplify a “Decorated” text.
  Oh, yeah. No doubt about it, no doubt about it...you can surely count me in. Like most other people in America, I like – love, enjoy, relish, adore – pizza. I like piping hot, spicy, gooey pizza with lots of toppings – pepperoni, extra cheese, onions, green peppers, mushrooms, anchovies. You
might say that I’m really into pizza. But, on the other hand, do you know any people who don’t like it?

- *What about trying it this way?* The purpose of this exercise is to encourage students to replace less sophisticated, fossilized forms of speech with more appropriate, refined, and sophisticated expressions within specified contexts.

- *Say it professionally.* The instructor first speaks on a topic in general terms and asks students to discuss the same topic as a specialist would by using specific professional-level terminology and expressions.

- *Complicate a description.* See the example below.

  Teacher: My apartment is located in a nine-story building that was built many years ago. It is a rather handsome building.

  Student: My apartment is in a nine-story building with unique, classic architecture in the downtown area, close to the theater and nightclub district. The architectural details include enormous exterior columns and even gargoyles. Inside, the high ceilings, elaborate moldings, and arched windows result in an elegance that recalls a bygone era.

*Naturalness*

- *Repeat using synonyms.* One student listens to another and then repeats his or her speech by using synonymous expressions.

- *Don't be a loser.* This exercise is a dialogue between two students. The loser in the game is the one who produces the bare and unembellished sentence.

**MEMORIZATION OF LANGUAGE MATERIALS**

Special Communicative Exercises are not language exercises. The goal is not linguistic but communicative, and the objective is to make communicative performance of the non-native speaker closer to that of a native speaker. But at the same time the implementation of SCE relies on memorization of lexical-grammar materials. So, how can we help students memorize the language materials? There are three instruments: grammar formulization, memorization techniques, and adjustments to students’ learning styles.

**Grammar Formularization**

Grammar formulization turns variations into singularities, the complex into the simple, and many elements into few, which helps memorization. In addition, it also makes it easier to tailor materials to a student’s proficiency level because materials can be presented in more or less complicated ways. To make the concept of formulization clear to students, a teacher may ask them how many nouns they think there are in a foreign language. Students are likely to say that there are 10,000 or 100,000. The answer is not important. The important thing is for students to realize that there are
many nouns in the foreign language. At that point, the teacher can point out that thinking about the number of nouns is thinking only one part of the language – meaning. There is another part of the language – the lexical-grammatical form.

Each language is based upon a linguistic system; knowing the underlying system rather than the surface phenomenon simplifies the understanding of the language because a smaller number of models can (re)present the full range of the language, whether that is nouns, verbs, or any other part of speech. These underlying concepts and structures generate variations and increase the richness of a language. It is easier to work with a few models than with hundreds. For example, in Russian, there are nine basic declension types divided into three genders. If students have internalized the declension of these nine words, they know how to decline thousands of words. The same approach can be used with any part of a speech even if the element is complex and sophisticated.

Formularization has two elements. The first is finding and defining the formula, i.e., a specific linguistic unit whose contents are paralleled in many other linguistic units. An example of such a unit is the nine Russian nouns. The second is hanging a new lexical item onto a familiar grammatical formula that is in the student’s memory. Let us say that the student needs to operate with a new word шланг (“shlang” – hose). The student makes a mistake when the word is put in the accusative case. The teacher may ask: “What is шланг?” If the student begins to explain that шланг is something like a flexible tube for conveying liquids under pressure, the instructor reminds the student that шланг is like стол (“stol” is the word from the formula) and that стол and шланг are both masculine nouns. The student will be able to correct the mistake if he controls the formula.

Formularization replaces the teaching of grammar rules with presenting generative models. Thereafter, in case of error, the teacher can simply ask a student to repeat the formula that he or she knows. The student, even without repeating the formula, immediately recalls it and corrects the error. Linguistic formularization is the foundation for creating mental efficiency in memory use. Without formularization it is extremely difficult to attain good results in teaching a student a foreign language.

Memorization Techniques

A teacher can help students memorize foreign language materials through different memorization exercises, such as repetition, substitution, and reconstruction. Teachers can ask questions based on a memorized model, present models in speech, use memorization cards with selected materials, and put difficult-to-memorize linguistic units among known or easy units. Students should be trained to track their mistakes, adjust the pace of speaking to control possible mistakes, attach different colors to units to be memorized, work with target units in emotional environments, and purposefully and frequently use memorized challenging units in communication. A high-quality memorization
exercise fully controls the attention of a student. The quality of an exercise is
determined by organization and variation.

A good organization of memorization exercise is reflected in its clear
goals and unambiguous instructions. The teacher needs to ensure that students
understand the instructions. It is also important to inform students what is
expected from the exercise. An exercise is well organized when the student, not
the teacher, does the work. The exercises should be fun, which helps maintain
students’ attention. The speed and competitiveness of the exercises, in the form
of songs, music, games, and films, contribute to the fun. Exercises should be in
manageable length and complexity. This means that the teacher should not
overload students with more information than they can handle. It also means that
the teacher can divide the material into smaller pieces so as to make it easier for
memorization. Feedback on performance is of vital importance. Teachers need
to show students what has been accomplished.

Regarding variation, here are some examples of learning an expression:

1. The student repeats an expression until the instructor asks him or her to
   stop.

2. Every expression is numbered. When the instructor says “one,” the
   student repeats the first expression. When the instructor says “two,” the
   student repeats the second one, and so on.

3. The instructor writes new expressions on the board, and then erases
   them, but the student should nonetheless read the now-invisible words.

4. The instructor draws a button next to each expression on the board. The
   student first reads the expression when the teacher “presses” the button.
   After that, the instructor erases the words but continues to press the
   button, so that the student will say the expression that he or she can no
   longer see.

5. This drill works like a meat grinder. The instructor gives an expression
   and students take turns repeating it. The instructor continues throwing
   new expressions into the meat grinder.

6. Ask students to forget an expression that is difficult for them and then
   ask them to recall which expression they have forgotten.

7. The instructor starts an expression, stops in the middle, and asks a
   student to finish it.

8. The instructor asks a student to translate an expression from English to
   the target language.

9. The instructor organizes a contest among students. Whoever translates
   the expression fastest wins the game.

10. The instructor uses an expression in his or her speech and asks a
    student to repeat everything that the instructor says. In doing so, the
    instructor continuously changes the speed of his or her speech.

11. Give students parts of an expression and ask students to replace these
    parts with new lexical items.

12. The instructor prepares a set of cards, each featuring the English
    translation of several expressions. Students randomly select a card,
choose an expression on the card, read it, and translate it into the target language. The student wins the card if he or she translates the expression correctly.

13. The teacher gives students a word and the students must use an expression that contains this word.

Students’ Learning Styles

Success in learning a foreign language depends not only on presentation of the materials and a teacher’s experience, but also on students’ personal efforts in memorizing language materials. There are two things that students should have under their belt, which will accelerate their progress. The first is the awareness of his or her learning style, and the second is the efficient use of mnemonic devices.

There are three basic categories of learning styles: perceptual, cognitive, and psychological. Each is divided into subcategories. Perceptual style is typical for visual, auditory, and motor learning students. Cognitive style is based on left-brain and right-brain learning, and ectasis/synopsis approaches. Psychological style deals with extroverts and introverts, intuitive and sensing, feeling and thinking, and judging and perceiving.

Visual learners take in new information by reading, watching, and writing. A visual learner may ask the teacher: “How do you spell it?” or “Would you please write it on the board?” A visual learner frequently wants the texts of oral activities and the scripts of films, whereas an auditory learner rarely writes anything down and is good at repeating what he or she hears. Motor learning involves understanding information and remembering it through the use of muscles. Activities like taking notes, drawing pictures in response to visual or auditory input, writing essays, and computer-based instruction provide certain advantages for motor learners.

Left-hemisphere-dominant learners need to recognize that their brain preference is marked by strong language learning monitors. Their extremely high monitoring of mistakes can get in the way of producing the language that they are capable of producing. The strong yet very critical monitor reverses their ability to show off what they know. That is why these students need to relax the high standards and reduce the strict monitoring. Right-hemisphere-dominant students need to work on building monitors because they do not intuitively monitor their own speech. They should learn to analyze rather than guess from the context to avoid jumping to incorrect conclusions. Ectenic learners like to analyze; they learn by pulling texts apart. They notice the minor details that differentiate among lexical items and grammatical expressions. These learners usually want to see the syllabus in advance that lays out each step of the program, so they have a minute to psychologically prepare for the class. They tend to produce accurate and measured language. When working with ectenic learners, teachers need to help them improve fluency. Synoptic learners, on the other hand, prefer to synthesize. They learn by doing – writing their own texts and experimenting with discourse and lexical forms. They are weak at noticing
details. If synoptic students are asked to refine their use of vocabulary, grammar, discourse, and content or to distinguish among genres and writing styles, the instructor must deliberately assist them in defining the differences.

Extroverts and introverts can work well together in a classroom if they are aware of their own personality differences. Otherwise, extroverts, who are often impulsive learners, can easily overwhelm introverts, who are often reflective learners. Small group activities benefit introverts and increase their self-confidence in using the foreign language. Teachers should look for large group environments for extroverts, where there are more dialogues, activities, and interactions, because the actions, expressions, and emotions activate the extroverts’ memorization process. Intuitive and sensing learners have different needs for the way in which material is provided and explained. Intuitive learners have gut feelings; they will sometimes disagree with a teacher who gives an explanation that does not match that feeling. They tend to be inductive learners, who like to guess from the context and engage in creative activities. Sensing learners want to see the explanation in a book. They sometimes will contradict a teacher whose presentation of a grammatical notion does not match what they have seen or heard from another source. Feeling and thinking students also have different needs. Feelers attach value to emotions and relationships. For that reason, they want to be noticed, liked, and praised for their efforts in the classroom. Thinkers, on the other hand, attach value to principles and competence. Judging and perceiving students differ in that judgers want closure and deadlines, whereas perceivers want openness and freedom.

**EFFECTIVENESS OF TEACHING**

Teaching based on the main elements of verbal communication is the most effective way to improve students' spoken language performance. The effectiveness in teaching foreign languages can be measured through the result and amount of time spent to get the result. In other words, the definition of effectiveness in teaching foreign languages becomes “a language instructor’s capability to help a student achieve the highest level of proficiency with the fewest teaching hours.”

A teacher’s capability, however, is difficult to measure. In order to compare teachers’ effectiveness and to find out which language instructor or teaching method is more effective, we first need to create the same conditions under which teachers teach: we need to have the same number of students in each group; students are similar in language aptitude, memory, motivation, and learning styles; the same class schedule applies to all classes; students live in similar conditions and share the same psychological environment. Obviously, it is impossible to achieve a perfect level of parity. Even if it were possible, other factors would come into play: individual reactions to competition, personal ambitions, interests of program administrators, just to name a few. Any of these factors can influence the results. In summary, though we can formulate a definition for effectiveness in teaching foreign languages, it is difficult to measure effectiveness in practice.
Nevertheless, teachers continue to check the effectiveness of teaching techniques. I offer myself as an example. For 23 years, I have owned a small private language school that has trained approximately 3,000 students. The clientele includes journalists, writers, teachers, linguists, diplomats, military personnel, businessmen, professionals, tourists, and traditional students. Some studied in groups between four and 12, but the majority studied on a one-to-one basis. These students allowed me to compare various methodologies.

One experiment was to examine the effectiveness of teaching through the rules of verbal communication. For this purpose, I taught two classes, each with eight students. Both classes received 60 hours of instruction. Each class consisted of two students at Interagency Language Roundtable (ILR) Level 0 (ACTFL Novice), two at ILR Level 2 (ACTFL Advanced), two at ILR Level 3 (ACTFL Superior), and two at ILR Level 4 (ACTFL Distinguished). I used the traditional teaching approach without applying any of the communication rules in Class 1, whereas in Class 2 I applied the communication rules. After 60 hours of instruction, I tested both groups. The results were as follows:

1. The two students at ILR Level 0 in Class 1 did not reach Level 1; the two at ILR Level 0 in Class 2 reached Level 1.
2. The two students at ILR Level 2 in Class 1 did not reach level 2+; the two at ILR Level 2 in Class 2 reached Level 2+.
3. The four students at ILR Levels 3 and 4 in Class 1 showed little progress on their tests; the four at ILR Levels 3 and 4 in Class 2 showed some measurable progress but the progress was insufficient for a half-point increase in proficiency.

In sum, the effectiveness of teaching speaking is explained by the fact that we teach how to communicate with native speakers, implementing the principles and manifestations of their speech. In this approach language is not separated from communication; rather, it accompanies communication. This is where the effectiveness of teaching speaking grows, and this is why students who are taught the communication rules demonstrate higher levels of proficiency and better ability to communicate successfully with native speakers. These students can easily hold speech in memory, expand on many topics, simplify language to express complex thoughts, make their language live and natural, have automatic control of the language, and brilliantly demonstrate comprehension techniques.
REFERENCES


Listening effectiveness is vital for foreign language students. They need to use critical thinking to interpret different types of messages. A way to help students enhance their listening in a foreign language may be to identify their listening styles and the listening effectiveness skills that they use when listening. This descriptive quantitative research study was based on a dual-process theory framework that informs listening styles and listening effectiveness for adult learners in a second-language Spanish course. The study included students (n = 52) from the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center. This research revealed that all the student respondents believed that they were good listeners and that almost half of the students used complex listening behavior during listening.

INTRODUCTION

The European and Latin American School (UEL) is one of the eight undergraduate schools at the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC), with a core mission of language acquisition. Critical listening is an important component of the second language (L2) acquisition (Goss, 1982). The listener needs to use cognitive strategies involving deductive reasoning (critical listening) when making inferences, judgments, and evaluations of speakers and messages (Oxford, 1990). Second language learners need to develop listening comprehension to be more effective listeners. They need to learn more from conversations by making a conscious effort of concentrating while listening (Thomas, 2000). “Effective listening provides the students with valuable long-term benefits: competence, confidence, and productivity in their academic, personal, and professional lives” (Thompson, Leintz, Nevers, & Witkowski, 2004, p. 239). The purpose of this quantitative descriptive study was to learn which listening styles from the Listening Styles Inventory (LSI) and which listening effectiveness skills from the Hearing, Understanding, Remembering, Interpreting, Evaluating, and Responding
LITERATURE REVIEW

Conceptual Foundation: Dual-process Theory

Dual-process theory, the conceptual framework for this research – comprising the elaboration likelihood model (Petty & Cacciopo, 1981), the heuristic-systematic model (Chaiken, 1980), and attitude change theory (Hovland, Janis & Kelley, 1953) – has its historical roots in the writings of William James and Sigmund Freud. Dual drive theories began with “Freud and other psychoanalysts [who] introduced the world to the notion of an unconscious mind motivating our behavior with a combination of innate drives and repressed emotions as well as a conscious mind prone to rationalization and self-deception” (Evans, 2008, p. 258). Some may even argue that dual-drive process theory goes back to ancient times, when Plato claimed that the soul was divided into three parts: reason, spirit, and appetite (Bloom, 1968).

William James believes that reasoning takes the form of two different modes of thought. “James regarded reasoning as an experiential associative type of thinking, as well as a separate analytical deliberate mode” (Osman, 2004, p. 1). James considered that associative thinking came from our store of past experiences, describing it as “only reproductive,” and that the analytical mode was used for “unprecedented situations,” which required “true reasoning” (Osman, 2004, p. 1).

Freud holds that the human mind is composed of two systems: one conscious, the other unconscious. The two systems operate in different modes – primary process and secondary process – the former associative and the latter logical. “The contents of the unconscious were inaccessible to the conscious mind and that the unconscious system was a source of motivation and mental conflict. Most modern dual-process theorists agree with these tenets” (Frankish, 2010, p. 915).

“Theories posting dual cognitive systems have become popular in cognitive and social psychology” (Evans, 2006, p. 202). Such theories “provide an excellent organizing framework for explaining when and why certain variables impact our tendency to attend to and process ... persuasive communication” (Bodie, 2009, p. 96). They are “rapid, automatic and effortless on one hand [and] are contrasted with those that are slow, sequential and controlled on the other” (Evans, 2006, p. 202).

Dual-drive system theories are based on the hypothesis that mental development is dependent on social judgments and behavior, which can function either automatically or in a managed process (Gawronski & Creighton, 2011). These theories have various names: heuristic-systematic (Chen & Chaiken, 1999), heuristic-analytic (Evans, 1989), implicit-explicit (Reber, 1993; Evans & Over, 1996), experimental-rational (Epstein, 1994), associative and rule-based
(Sloman, 1996), and neutral system 1 and system 2 (Stanovich, 1999). As Bodie (2009) explains:

Scientific theories are specific organizing frameworks that provide in-depth understanding and make arguments for specific relationships among constructs. These theories are not simply useful or heuristic, but describe and explain how and why things work as found in nature or in social life (pp. 83–84).

The dual-drive process theory of persuasion examines attitude change and formulation and analyzes how people react to persuasive messages as arguments (Frankish, 2010). The heuristic systematic model (HSM) and the elaboration likelihood model (ELM) elucidate differences in the impact of source, receiver, and environmental variables on the outcomes of persuasive messages depending on the amount of systematic thinking that people do when listening to persuasive information (Larson, 2010). “Systematic processing entails a relatively analytic and comprehensive treatment of judgment relevant information…cognitive ability and capacity” (Chen & Chaiken, 1999, p. 74).

The above-mentioned dual-drive process theory models provide information on listening styles and listening effectiveness for L2 Spanish learners. This study is based on dual-drive process theory to examine how adult L2 Spanish learners perceive their listening styles and listening effectiveness skills.

**Listening Styles**

“While there is some general agreement that people possess different styles of listening there is no universal agreement as to the specific nature of these styles of listening” (Sanders, 2000, p. 7). A style of listening is the preferred way a person approaches listening (Johnston, Weaver, Watson, & Barker, 2000; Langer, 1980), even when the listener uses alternate approaches (Bostrom, 1990; Wolvin & Coakley, 1996). Individuals adapt the way they perceive, process, remember, and understand while listening and tend not to rely on a predominant listening style (Schiffrin & Schneider, 1977). People listen more as a habit than as a conscious choice (Langer, 1980; Schiffrin & Schneider, 1977).

Sanders (2000) notes: “Since the presence of styles of listening is generally accepted, there is a great deal of discussion as to the notion of listening styles as a way of explaining the phenomena [sic] of listening having differing purposes” (p. 7). “Listening styles are ways in which individuals choose to listen based on individual differences and situational constraints” (Williams, Brown, & Boyle, 2012, p. 441). Styles of listening have to do with the way the basic behavior of listening is carried out in the listening events of life (Sanders, 2000).

Styles determine people’s perception of listening and the awareness of their strengths and weaknesses (Pearce, Johnson & Barker, 2003). Styles of
listening could be examined and, as a consequence, people would understand the need for using suitable listening styles depending on the circumstances (Watson & Barker, 1985). “Listening styles may be affected by the contexts in which we listen” (Pearce et al., 2003, p. 87). Differences in listening styles reflect attitudes, beliefs, and predispositions about the how, where, when, who, and what of the information reception and encoding process (Watson, Barker & Weaver, 1995). Barker, Pearce, and Johnson (1992) hypothesize what constitutes effective listening:

Listening behavior would differ among the types, resulting in varying effectiveness levels. The active listener, characterized by energetic, focused participation in the speaking-listening exchange, would be the most effective. Following that, the involved listener, who strives to attend to and reflect on the message, would be the next most effective. Then, the passive listener, characterized by deflecting responsibility for the communication’s success to the speaker, would be less effective. Finally, the detached listener, who withdraws and acts as the object of a speaker’s message, would be the least effective (p. 442).

Different styles of listening are briefly described in the following paragraphs.

Active Listening

The term active listening comes from the client-centered therapeutic approach of Rogers (1951). “Active listening or the art of listening has therapeutic effects upon the one who gets things off his chest, relates something about himself or tries to solve a problem” (Ilişoi & Scafaru, n.d., p. 52). “The purpose of active listening is to offer the possibility to a person to be able to help oneself through creative thinking and embark on different ways other than the already known ones” (Ilişoi & Scafaru, n.d., p. 53).

Active listening can be defined as a person’s willingness and ability to hear and understand, which encompasses six skills: listening carefully, making judgments, reflecting, clarifying, summarizing, and sharing (Hoppe, 2006). “Active listening is characterized more by what is not done, than what is done… Active listening requires the listener to avoid common responses when listening, even internally, and these are very difficult habits to break” (Robertson, 2005, p. 1053). Active listening can bring about changes in people if they listen for total meaning, respond to feelings, and discern non-verbal cues (Rogers & Farson, 1986).

“Students who are active listeners use new information more productively… They have a framework for understanding new content and whether or not the content is relevant…filter information” (Learning through Listening, 2011, para. 9). Murphy (1989) notes: “Listening comprehension is increasingly being described as an active and interpretative language process in which listeners are dynamically engaged in the construction of meaning” (p. 27).
Involved Listening

Pearce, Johnson, and Barker (2003) include the involved listening style in the LSI questionnaire:

Involved listeners give most of their attention to the speaker’s words and intentions. This person reflects on the message to a degree and participates in the speaking-listening exchange. The involved listener practices some direct eye contact and may have alert posture or stance, although this may be intermittent. (p. 86)

Passive Listening

Passive listeners are listening, but they're not reacting to or engaging in what they hear. Passive listening is a one-way form of communication. The listener is sitting quietly without responding to what the speaker is saying (Wroblewski, 2014). Pearce et al., (2003) hypothesize:

The passive listener receives information as though being talked to rather than as being an equal partner in the speaking-listening exchange. While assuming that the responsibility for the success of the communication is the speaker’s, this listener is usually attentive, although attention may be faked at times. The passive listener seldom expends any noticeable energy in receiving and interpreting messages. (p. 86)

Critical Listening

Critical listening is a form of active listening in which the listener evaluates the speaker and scrutinizes his or her ideas (Pearson, Nelson, Titstworth, & Harter, 2008). Successful critical listeners take control of their listening in order to form dependable judgments and protect themselves from unethical persuasion (Wolvin & Coakley, 1996). Persuasion can dominate critical listening, making it necessary to maintain or reject persuasive messages (Larson, 2010).

The act of critical listening requires the listener to (a) evaluate what is heard, judging validity, adequacy, ideas, and arguments; (b) differentiate facts and opinions, drawing conclusions; and (c) assess a speaker’s performance, being aware of persuasive messages (Wolvin, 2009).

The effective critical listener considers the source of the message in making judgments about its content. Then she evaluates the message on the basis of sound logic and reasoning. Finally, the critical listener recognizes emotional appeals and responds accordingly. She realizes that effective decision making depends upon sound judgment and
analysis, upon weighing the right facts and asking the right questions. (Brownell, 2013, p. 230)

From the listener’s perspective, the act of analyzing persuasion facilitates the selection of a message suitable for critical listening (Floyd & Clements, 2005). “Listeners respond to persuasive messages at various levels. The credibility (trustworthiness, dynamics, and believability) of the speaker is influential” (Wolvin, 2009, p. 8).

**Characteristics of Second Language Listening**

Oxford (1990) notes that in L2 learning listening strengthens the other three language skills: reading, speaking, and writing. “The acquisition of listening ability in an L1 [first language] involves moving from reference-based comprehension to adult-like understanding of how contrasts are made” (Rost, 1990, p. 12). Students who learn to manage their listening process, perception, parsing, and utilization can improve their listening effectiveness (Kurita, 2012). Being able to think in a second language is the most important skill for learning a new language (Rost, 2001).

Although there are limited studies of second language listening, these studies address various aspects of listening such as listening comprehension strategies, listening skills, listening and curriculum development, and listening and hermeneutics. As Vandergrift (2007) points out: “Listening comprehension lies at the heart of language learning, but it is the least understood and the least researched skill” (p. 191).

The current study seeks to answer the following research question: What are the listening styles and listening effectiveness skills of second-language adult learners of Spanish at the DLIFLC, as measured by the LSI and HURIER surveys?

**METHODOLOGY**

This quantitative descriptive study used two instruments: the LSI survey and the HURIER survey. The LSI survey evaluates listening styles and the HURIER survey listening effectiveness. The LSI consists of 10 items and the HURIER survey 36 items.

The LSI questionnaire includes four types of listening styles:
- **Active**: “Listeners give full attention to listening when others are talking”;
- **Involved**: “They give most of their attention to the speaker’s words and intentions”;
- **Passive**: “Listeners are usually attentive, although attention may be faked at times”; and
Detached: “Listeners withdraw from the speaking-listening exchange and become the object of the speaker’s message rather than the receiver” (Pearce et al., 2003, pp. 86-87)

The HURIER (Brownell, 2013) consists of six sequential steps for effective listening:

- Hearing: involves the physical process of the reception of sounds;
- Understanding: comprehends what the listener says;
- Remembering: retains and stores information for future interaction;
- Interpreting: emphasizes the message from the other person’s perception;
- Evaluating: separates facts from opinions; and
- Responding: provides feedback (pp. 12-13)

**Participants**

The study was conducted in the Spanish Language Program of the DLIFLC in Monterey, California. The sample of this research included adult learners ranging from 18 to 50 years of age who were United States military service members or government employees studying Spanish as a second language.

Data were collected at three different times from the DLIFLC Spanish Basic Program. The first data collection of the study (n = 17) consisted of students who began the Basic Spanish Program on June 6, 2013. The students signed the consent form and took the LSI and HURIER surveys on November 18, 2013 and the Defense Language Proficiency Test (DLPT5) on December 13, 2013. The second sample for the study (n = 23) started instruction on July 25, 2013, signed the consent form and took the surveys on January 10, 2014, and took the DLPT5 on February 6, 2014. The third group (n = 12) started instruction on August 1, 2013, signed the consent form and took the surveys on January 13, 2014, and took the DLPT5 on February 6, 2014. The students who attended these classes volunteered to participate in the study.

Convenience sampling was used for selecting the participants from one language and one language school, which resulted in limited generalization to a larger audience. The participants were typical students enrolled in the Spanish Basic Course.

Demographic information was collected from 52 Basic Course Spanish students who attended various courses from June 2013 to February 2014. The demographic survey included seven questions regarding general characteristics of the participants: name, gender, age group, ethnicity, native language, other languages spoken, and the highest level of education completed.

Tables 1-5 display the general characteristics of the participants: Table 1 (gender), Table 2 (age), Table 3 (ethnicity), Table 4 (other languages spoken at home), and Table 5 (educational background).
### Table 1  
**Gender**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>11.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>88.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>52</td>
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</table>

### Table 2  
**Age**

<table>
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<tr>
<th></th>
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<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Under 21</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>26.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-30</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>55.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>13.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-50</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 3  
**Ethnicity**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Caucasian</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>80.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>African-American</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 4  
**Other Languages Spoken at Home**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>French</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hausa</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irish (Gaelic)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>63.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Russian/Chinese</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Russian/Spanish</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Serbian/Croatian</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>21.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tagalog</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ukrainian/Russian</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Educational Background</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High School</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>48.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associate Degree</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor’s Degree</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>23.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master’s Degree</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>21.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Instruments**

*Listening Styles Inventory (LSI)*

The Listening Styles Inventory was developed by Barker, Pearce, and Johnson in 1992 and modified by Pearce et al., in 2003 at Virginia Commonwealth University. The survey uses a self-reporting instrument to identify a person’s usual or preferred listening style. The LSI determines listening styles through four scales: active, involved, passive, and detached. The instrument was designed to give trainers, academic instructors, and organizational executives a self-administrated tool to evaluate listening effectiveness in the workplace (Pearce et al., 2003). This survey allows Spanish students in the DLIFLC’s Basic Course to identify their preferred listening style.

“The instrument’s function is to raise users’ awareness of these perceptions [listening styles] so that they take action, if necessary, to improve their listening skills” (Pearce et al., 2003, p. 85). Permission to use this instrument was granted online through RightsLink (copyright clearance center).

Table 6 refers to “sub–concepts that measure the construct of perceived listening effectiveness and show which items correlate with each other and cluster, or load, around a specific factor or dimension of perceived listening effectiveness” (Pearce et al., 2003, p. 93).

Table 6

*Dimensions of Perceived Listening*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Motivation or purpose for listening</td>
<td>1, 4, 5, 6, 7</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of focus or detachment</td>
<td>2, 8</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding and perception</td>
<td>9, 10</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Logic or organizational ability</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A 5-point Likert-type scale is provided for respondents to select their listening behavior: 1=almost never; 2=seldom; 3=sometimes; 4=often; and 5=almost always.
HURIER

Judy Brownell developed the HURIER Listening Survey in 1990. It is a self-reporting questionnaire created to address poor listening skills in managers. The service industry has been using the HURIER survey extensively to assess managerial listening effectiveness (Brownell, 1990).

The 2013 version of the survey has 36 items that make up six components: Hearing, Understanding, Remembering, Interpreting, Evaluating, and Responding. Table 7 defines the components.

Table 7
Components of the HURIER Listening Survey

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hearing</td>
<td>Concentrating on, and attending to, the message</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding</td>
<td>Comprehending the literal meaning of the message</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Remembering</td>
<td>Recalling the message so that it can be acted upon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpreting</td>
<td>Reacting with sensitivity to nonverbal and contextual aspects of the message</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluating</td>
<td>Assessing the value of the message logically</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responding</td>
<td>Selecting an appropriate response to the what is heard</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

RESULTS

Listening Styles

The questionnaire results for the current study were stratified into mean level agreement scores. The first step in the analysis included the measures of central tendency for each LSI question. Respondents in this research reported using the following listening styles: passive, involved, and active; no one reported using detached. Table 8 shows the frequency and percentage of students’ use of listening styles in the LSI survey.

The LSI responses revealed that almost half of the participants (n = 25, 48%) used involved listening when listening to Spanish (see Table 8). A high percentage of participants (n = 23, 46%) perceived themselves as passive listeners. Respondents answered that the involved style of listening was the most used, reported by 25 respondents (48%). The passive style of listening was the second most used style. This means that 46% of the respondents (n = 24) were passive listeners. Active listening was the least used style, reported used by three respondents (6%).
Table 8  
*Listening Behavior*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Active</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Involved</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>48.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passive</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>46.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Listening Effectiveness**

Responses from the HURLER survey were stratified into six variables – Hearing, Understanding, Remembering, Interpreting, Evaluating, and Responding – the scales representing listening effectiveness (Table 9). The overall HURIER listening survey revealed that students believed they were good listeners (Brownell, 2013). The mean scores ranged from 3.3 to 3.8 on a 5-point scale in the HURIER questionnaire.

Table 9  
*Overall Respondents Perspectives of Listening Behavior per Variable*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
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<td>4.33</td>
<td>3.5641</td>
<td>.53845</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding</td>
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<td>2.00</td>
<td>4.50</td>
<td>3.6731</td>
<td>.47251</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Remembering</td>
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<td>1.33</td>
<td>4.83</td>
<td>3.4968</td>
<td>.56927</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpreting</td>
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<td>2.00</td>
<td>4.83</td>
<td>3.3654</td>
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<td>52</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>4.67</td>
<td>3.8269</td>
<td>.46202</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Related Findings to the Conceptual Foundation**

The research question was to clarify the intrinsic properties – the *essence* of listening styles and listening effectiveness in L2 Spanish learners. Dual-process theory provides a theoretical foundation for explaining when and why some variables affect the nature of listening in persuasive communication. Bodie (2009) discusses the ways people are engaged by persuasive messages to accept information. The most salient finding was that students (a) were involved in listening and (b) believed they were good listeners.

Attitude change theory supports listening effectiveness through influencing people's emotions and behavior. Hovland et al. (1953) suggest that the bases for attitude change through persuasion rely on getting attention, comprehending the message, accepting the message, retaining the information, and describing the attitude of the listener. Responses to the HURIER questionnaire reflected these aspects of the theories.
DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This study yielded findings that can help students improve aspects of their listening comprehension. “Only through effective listening can individuals share meanings and align their behavior to accomplish goals” (Brownell, 2010, p. 141). This study has provided information on listening styles and listening effectiveness for future research of listening in foreign language programs. The skill of listening is of universal importance. Listening is an inherent necessity for learning anything; thus, the information gained from this study can benefit not only second language learners but also learners of any subject.

Students’ responses to the HURIER survey indicate that they had a positive correlation in Hearing, Evaluating, and Responding. Language students and course instructors may focus on these skills to enhance students’ listening skills and achieve greater success in their overall learning experience. Strategies for improving Hearing include (1) focusing on the listening; (2) reducing distractions; (3) listening with a positive attitude; (4) focusing on the listening situations; (5) focusing on the listener; and (6) enjoying the listening. For improving Evaluating, teachers should train students to (1) listen objectively; (2) separate and evaluate facts and opinions; and (3) analyze the speaker and his/her cultural point of view. Students can improve Responding by (1) answering any questions in different ways; (2) analyzing interactions to use different responses styles; (3) focusing on the situation; and (4) promoting supportive communication.

In order to support students in listening comprehension classes and inspire them to improve their listening skills, instructors can offer programs that promote peer-to-peer mentoring and role-model listening effectiveness between students and teachers. Teachers should be trained to teach listening more effectively. Trainings may focus on building stronger critical listening skills through assessing and identifying the student’s needs. Teacher training may occur through professional development workshops; training materials can be produced as instructional tools.

“The effectiveness of the speaker’s message or response relates directly to how well the individual listens” (Brownell, 2010, p. 144). Ralph Nichols (1980), the “father of the field of listening”, said, “The most basic of all human needs is the need to understand and be understood. The best way to understand people is to listen to them” (p. 4). And, as the ancient Greek philosopher Epictetus observed: “We have two ears and one mouth so that we can listen twice as much as we speak” (Epictetus, n.d.).

The surveys used in this study elicited participants’ opinions and self-reported listening styles. Whereas a broader generalization of the findings to all second-language learners is not possible, the findings may be useful to those teaching languages to students who have characteristics similar to those of the participants in this study.
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Thomas, J. L. (2000). The identification of listening styles of agricultural curricula majors through the administration of the listening styles profile (Master’s thesis). Davis College of Agriculture, Natural Resources and Design. West Virginia University, Morgantown.


Background

The task of teaching Introduction to Language Studies (ILS) was transferred from the Student Learning Center to the UGE schools and schoolhouse teachers. This paper, based on the three authors’ own experience teaching ILS, is an attempt to aid personnel in the schools who are tasked with teaching ILS in approaching material that may be new for them, to demonstrate learner-centered activities designed to assist students in processing this material, and to provide examples for teachers to follow in creating their own activities. During the course of our teaching, class observations, and mentoring, the authors noticed a need for advice and guidance on how teachers new to ILS can excel by taking our experience into consideration. Our approach is three-fold: apply the principles of backward design, engage the students with interactive technology, and integrate elements from the target language (TL) program. Following these steps will result in learner-centered, strategy-based instruction.

Start with the End in Mind

In backward design, the idea is to begin with the end-goal for your students. What skills or awareness do you want your students to have by the end of your lesson? Our specific adaptation of backward design is encapsulated by the acronym OMAH: O – look at the module objectives; M – consider metacognitive and cognitive verbs; A – select action verbs for activities and
instructions, and choose or design appropriate; and H – handouts or graphic organizers. Table 1 provides a list of cognitive, metacognitive and action verbs.

Table 1
*Cognitive, Metacognitive, and Action Verbs*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cognitive/Metacognitive</th>
<th>Action</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Compare</td>
<td>• Describe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Reflect on</td>
<td>• List</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Review</td>
<td>• Sort</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Preview</td>
<td>• Fill-in</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Predict</td>
<td>• Choose</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Analyze</td>
<td>• Label</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Identify</td>
<td>• Match</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Infer</td>
<td>• State</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Hypothesize</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Consider</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The first step is to look at the module objectives, and then think about what is required to reach them. Once familiar with the module objectives, skim through the ILS resource slides to look at the *Key Points* – the *unpacked* version of objectives – as well as content, activities, and other ideas for reaching those objectives. For example, the objectives for the Principles of Language Learning (PLL) module are:

- to form students’ initial understanding of how adults learn and acquire a second language;
- to build students’ initial awareness of factors affecting second-language learning, particularly learning preferences; and
- to help students formulate an initial understanding of how DLI structures second-language instruction.

Figure 1 demonstrates how to *unpack* and brainstorm activities for the first objective.
Since each objective is designed to be reached within one hour of face-to-face instruction, consider time management and develop a plan for reaching each objective within the allotted time. The task can seem daunting at first: How can we teach students about first- and second-language acquisition within a 50-minute instructional period? Apply your knowledge and skill in language teaching: start with what students know and move toward new information. In other words, build and activate schemata.

To address the first PLL objective, build on student knowledge. Students know, albeit implicitly, how first languages are learned. How do they know? They have done it themselves. Start there, drawing out students’ explicit awareness from their implicit or procedural knowledge; thereafter, move into similarities and differences between how children learn their first language and how adults learn a second language. In this case, the appropriate metacognitive verb would be compare, and the cognitive verb, list. Incorporate a handout or graphic organizer, such as a Venn diagram, as an instructional aid. One circle can represent children learning their first language; the other circle can represent how adults learn a second language. There will be some similarities and differences. Keep key characteristics in mind and be prepared to add those to whatever lists your students come up with.

This simple activity meets several of the criteria already mentioned. It addresses the first objective of the module: Instructions can start with a metacognitive or cognitive verb (e.g., compare, reflect on, review, preview, predict, analyze, identify) and then move to an action verb (e.g., describe, list, sort, fill-in, summarize). The activity also serves as a lead-in, activating students’ schemata by moving them from known to new information. Finally, the Venn diagram graphic organizer helps students arrange their thoughts, serves as a presentation tool, acts as input for a summary activity, and provides a note-taking device for current and future reference.
Another effective activity for PLL instruction is designed to address the third objective, and more specifically, the ILR levels. The ILR levels underlie and shape all aspects of DLI’s teaching enterprise. Therefore, in order to address how DLI structures language instruction, ILR descriptions need to be addressed. One technique for introducing the ILR levels is through a group information gap activity. The metacognitive verbs best suited here would be identify (key features or characteristics of the ILR level) and reflect on/analyze (the elements of an activity). The corresponding action verbs would be summarize (the ILR level description), describe (the activity steps), and state (the purpose/benefits of the activity).

The students can be divided into groups, with each one assigned a different ILR level and provided with the descriptors for the assigned level, along with an organizer for group members to use for taking notes. Students are to read and discuss their assigned level, reach a common understanding, extract information from the descriptor, and enter it in their chart so that they can report to members of the other groups. After completing this phase of the information gap activity, students are re-grouped so that each new group has at least one member from each original group that worked together during the first stage of the info gap. Students share what they found during the first round of the activity, thereby bridging the info gap. By the end of the activity, all students will have had access to all the information of the assigned ILR levels and an initial understanding of the basis for all language instruction at DLI – the ILR levels.

On a meta-level, this information gap activity provides a tangible bridge to PLL’s teaching methods content. Students can refer to one of the resource slides that lists many of the teaching techniques that may be used by DLI teachers to promote language learning. Although some of the elements are specific to language teaching and learning, such as maximum use of target language and integration of culture, a majority of teaching behaviors expected in the DLI language classroom can be evident in the ILR activity in which the students participated. That way, in addition to conveying new information to students, the activity meets two broader goals: preparing students for their basic course and encouraging them to think about their learning in the context of metacognitive processes.

This ILR activity can serve as a springboard to the discussion of other issues addressed in PLL: course curriculum, topics and tasks, proficiency milestones at different points during the basic course, assessment types and techniques, challenges and the need to adapt to those challenges, learner variables, and tracking goals and progress in the students’ learning plans. In summary, the value of the Venn diagram lead-in and the ILR info-gap activity is that they are learner-centered, address the module objectives, and satisfy Student Learning Services’ principles of metacognition and critical thinking.
Student Engagement through Instructional Technology

As in language classrooms, the challenge of the ILS course lies in maintaining student motivation and engagement. One way to engage the students is by soliciting their input and by providing opportunities to collaborate. The latest instructional technology, such as NearPod and LinoIt applications, provides platforms that facilitate these processes.

NearPod

NearPod is an interactive presentation tool with an embedded polling application. It allows the presentation to be displayed on every student’s iPad or MacBook Pro, with full control of the presentation maintained by the instructor at all times. It offers the following features:

a. embedding video, audio files, and web pages within the presentation;

b. engaging every student with polls, quizzes, open-ended questions, and drawings;

c. conducting on-the-spot formative assessment by instantly displaying student responses for the instructor; and

d. providing opportunities for students to discreetly submit their questions.

So far, NearPod has been used to teach several ILS modules, including PLL. The PowerPoint slides were uploaded to the NearPod account. Several video files on L1 acquisition and L2 learning experiences were embedded in and linked to the presentation slides. In addition, interactive tools (polls, quizzes and open-ended questions) were used multiple times during the presentation to solicit student input on language learning experiences, language background, teaching methods observed, and language learning strategies. Students were also given the opportunity to submit questions they did not feel comfortable asking in front of the entire group.

The benefit of the application is that it encouraged every student to participate in the discussions and allowed the instructor to quickly gauge the group’s knowledge and understanding of the topic. Furthermore, because the instructor controls what is displayed on the students’ devices, it reduces transition time between topics and maximizes student engagement. The responses students provide to polls and open-ended questions can be used to facilitate classroom discussions and allow the instructor to tailor instruction to each group of students.

Linoit

Linoit has also proven to be a useful instructional tool for teaching ILS. It is a web-based collaborative space that allows multiple users to
simultaneously post input (stickies) in a shared space (canvas). Linoit offers the following features:

a. engagement of all students by allowing them to collaborate in real time;

b. anonymity; and

c. instant snapshot of the class/group.

Linoit has been used most effectively in the Vocabulary Learning Strategies (VLS) module of ILS during brainstorming of vocabulary learning strategies. Students later used the Linoit platform to categorize the strategies as effective/ineffective. The same type of task could be used during the Grammar Learning Strategies module. The tool can also be used during brainstorming sessions in PLL where students identify similarities and differences between how children learn L1 and how adults learn L2. In the Culture and Language Learning (CLL) module, Linoit could be used to brainstorm cultural anecdotes and consolidate small group responses to discussion questions. Since Linoit is an engagement platform independent of content, a variety of lessons can be adapted to its format.

Figure 2: Sample Linoit VLS module activity

Integrate Elements from the Language Program:
Transition to the Basic Course

Because ILS serves as students’ first experience of learning at the DLI, they can benefit not only from the content of the ILS modules, but also from its
relationship with the language curriculum. The bulk of ILS instruction is now being conducted by faculty from the students’ particular language program, which gives ILS instructors the opportunity to incorporate materials from the language program into their ILS lessons. Materials may be taken from program textbooks, share folders, and target language websites. Examples may focus on the target language, for example, when discussing grammar, culture, or vocabulary. During the Basic Grammar Concepts module, teachers can select those concepts most relevant to learners of the target language, using its examples to provide relevant comparisons for that particular group of students. In addition to introducing general concepts in cross-cultural communication and sociolinguistics, teachers can select pertinent examples from the target language culture in CLL. In VLS, students can work with words they will encounter in the core curriculum.

As demonstrated with the ILR level information gap activity, ILS content can be presented in a way that models classroom practice, helping students make the transition to the classroom setting in general, and also providing hands-on experience completing tasks typically found in a DLI classroom, for example, pair and group work, information gap activities, and other learner-centered activities. By familiarizing students with the DLI instructional methods, students begin the first day of target-language instruction ready to hit the ground running.
**Problem-based Learning to Reach Higher Levels of Foreign Language Proficiency: An Example from a Post-basic Korean Course**

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SOOJIN JUNG  
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**Introduction**

In order to reach higher levels of target language (TL) proficiency, students must be able to analyze, evaluate, and create ideas and information to gain a sense of the whole and formulate a viable solution (Tarlington, 2003). Communicative competence is a crucial element in reaching higher-level proficiency; communicative skills can be cultivated in a learning environment where students put content, linguistic, and cultural knowledge into practice interactively with peers (Alptekin, 2002). Communicative competency covers not only meaning negotiation but also grammatical, psychomotor, lexical, discourse, strategic, sociolinguistic, and pragmatic competence (Alptekin, 2002). In a Problem-based Learning (PBL) environment, students develop communicative competencies through a decision-making process that requires a degree of knowledge acquisition necessary for problem solving. Students attain content, linguistic, and culturally appropriate knowledge while preparing for and playing the role of a stakeholder (or expert) relevant to the topic (Ronning, McCurdy, & Ballinger, 1984). When students are engaged in learning environments that foster creation/construction of their own knowledge, communicative competencies can be developed.

**Problem-based Learning**

Problem-based learning is an instructional method that challenges students to *learn to learn* by working cooperatively to seek solutions to real-world problems (Torp & Sage, 1998). Problems stimulate students’ curiosity and introduce or expand the knowledge of the subject matter. PBL prepares students to think critically and analytically and provides opportunities to seek and use appropriate learning resources. In the PBL model, students engage in the exploration of complex, challenging problems, and work collaboratively toward realistic resolutions. PBL allows students to connect their knowledge of different fields/disciplines to societal problems experienced in the target nation – the motivation to solve a problem becomes the motivation to learn (Torp & Sage, 1998). According to Hewitt and Scardamalia (1996), PBL works to build critical thinking and problem-solving skills for the following reasons:
Inquiry is focused upon communal problems of understanding where meaning is negotiated through questioning, theory refinement, and dialogue; 

• Students’ ideas about what they need to know become the focus of inquiry; 
• Knowledge is shared and held collectively. New information that is shared has the potential of shaping subsequent investigations by others; and 
• Responsibility for planning, organizing, questioning, and summarizing is shared among the students and facilitated by the teacher.

In this PBL model, modified for the post-basic Korean classroom (see Figure 1), students (1) receive a problematic situation with no right or wrong solution (also referred to as an ill-structured problem); (2) identify/adopt the role of stakeholders in the problem scenario; (3) research, explore, gather, analyze, and share information related to the problem situation and their roles; and (4) generate several possible solutions and identify the best solution (Albanese & Mitchell, 1993; Savery & Duffy, 1996; Torp & Sage, 1998). In order to express and defend potential solutions to a culturally relevant problem in the role of an expert, students must develop abilities in higher levels of grammar usage, accurate pronunciation, vocabulary usage, overall fluency and linguistic spontaneity, cultural awareness, culturally appropriate rhetoric, and paralinguistic behaviors (Hmelo-Silver, 2004).

![Figure 1: PBL Model Modified for the Post-basic Classroom](image)

**Scaffolding and the Zone of Proximal Development**

In the PBL approach, scaffolding characterized by the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) is essential to promote students’ maximum cognitive growth (Vygotsky, 1962). Scaffolding techniques include peer feedback and teacher support such as question prompts to guide self-reflection,
comprehension-monitoring strategies, and discussions of metacognition. As Figure 2 illustrates, the ZPD is the difference between what a learner can do without help (Area A), and what he or she can do with help (Area B) (McLeod, 2010). Students may be too bored in Area A and too confused in Area C; therefore, the PBL model allows students to function within Area B through the use of scaffolding techniques and interactive activities. Scaffolding techniques include peer feedback and question prompts to guide self-reflection, and comprehension-monitoring strategies to expand to the maximum of ZPD area in terms of role-associated knowledge (e.g., content, language, culture). Throughout the four PBL stages, teacher’s and peer’s scaffolding are necessary.

Figure 2: Illustrative Model of Zone of Proximal Development (Based on Bloom’s Revised Taxonomy. Tarlington, 2003).

Teacher as Facilitator

The primary role of an instructor is to facilitate group process and learning – not to provide easy solutions (Torp & Sage, 1998). PBL teachers, as activators of students’ learning initiatives, guide, motivate, and probe students’ reasoning process; they journey with students through the learning progression rather than direct it. This requires a blend of creativity, ingenuity, patience, and flexibility in its implementation. By relinquishing the control of solutions, instructors become co-explorers of knowledge with students, and often find renewed interest and excitement in teaching (Torp & Sage, 1998). The teacher
may also find it necessary to thoroughly research the problem to gain a well-rounded understanding of the issues and lexicon associated with the topic.

The PBL teacher’s role should take the form of questioning, cueing, prompting, coaching, modeling ideal performance, mentoring, or discussing (McLeod, 2010). If a student provides an accurate but incomplete explanation, the teacher is likely to provide a recast or expansion of the student’s explanation. As depicted in Figure 1, prompts may include: “What are the pros and cons of ...?” “How would you have handled ...?” “What if ...?” and “What are the alternatives ...?” The teacher deliberately plans the presentation of problems to facilitate thought-provoking questions that compare different problems or problem-solving techniques with one another.

Application of the PBL in the Post-basic Classroom

To illustrate the learning stages of PBL, an example from a six-week post-basic Korean intermediate enhancement course taught by LTD Hawaii instructors is provided. The course is delivered in a blended format, with four hours of classroom instruction and four hours of directed assignments. Students are required to participate in online discussions through the learning management system (LMS) as an assessed part of the course curriculum.

The PBL model was conducted over a one-week period; limited background information was provided on the topic, with directed research and participation through a Discussion Forum on the LMS. Forum participation builds shared understanding of the problem, while allowing the instructor to address grammatical accuracy, higher-level vocabulary usage, cultural awareness, and culturally appropriate rhetoric (Hmelo-Silver, 2004). To prepare for this role-play, students studied the topic in the classroom for two days (eight hours) and during directed assignment time outside of the classroom (eight hours). The project culminated with a formal Panel Discussion in the classroom.

Stage One: Engaging in an Ill-structured Problem

Perhaps the most difficult aspect in implementing the PBL model is identifying challenging, real-world problems with the potential to guide students toward realization of the intended instructional outcomes. Ill-structured problems provide opportunities to stimulate students’ curiosity and initiate deeper learning of the subject matter; a carefully selected problem integrates several Final Learning Objective (FLO) topics (e.g., technology, politics, economics, and culture). The topic for this example is A Social Networking Service (SNS): Is It Medicine or Poison? This topic is current and relevant, because SNS use has raised many issues in Korean society; among these are privacy, data mining, and cyberbullying. Students were given the task of identifying the pros and cons of SNS use from the perspectives of their assumed roles.
Stage Two: Identifying and Adopting Roles

Students were required to assume the role of an expert or stakeholder in the problem scenario. It is important that students select a role that will naturally have some input in the outcome or resolution. Assuming another person’s point of view is not simple; more than building on their experiences and prior knowledge, students must attempt to understand the situation from different angles (via reading and listening materials) to gain the viewpoint of someone from another culture. In this example, students chose from the following roles:

- SNS addicted student
- Parent
- Teacher
- CEO of *KakaoTalk* (a smart phone communication application)
- Chief of the Police Cybercrime Investigation Department
- Counselor/Psychologist

Allowing students to choose their roles provides the opportunity to explore issues from a perspective different from their own, which can motivate students to initiate and direct their own learning process. Teachers posed additional questions to fill knowledge gaps for important roles that were not taken by students.

State Three: Researching, Exploring, and Analyzing Resources

From this stage on, students were exposed to issues and concerns germane to the problem. They explored resources to gather information and learn primary concepts and principles necessary to solve the problem based on their roles. For example, the student who assumed the role of a cybercrime investigator gathered information about cybercrime cases (e.g., identity theft, fraud, and hacker activity), how those cases were solved, and how relevant policies or laws were applied.

Most students collected detailed information about their roles in English first, building background knowledge about necessary competencies, and then they searched for information in Korean (TL). If knowledge of basic concepts related to the topic is insufficient in the students’ native language and culture, constructing that knowledge in the TL is very difficult. Therefore, building requisite foundational knowledge in the native language is often necessary.

Students were required to post their views, stance, and opinions from the perspective of their assumed role for each question on the discussion board in the LMS. They read and responded to their classmates’ posts. During this process, the instructor supported, guided, and encouraged students to take on the problem while monitoring students’ understanding of content and culture. Table 1 is an example of the scaffolding approach for one stakeholder’s role.
### Table 1

**Scaffolding Example—Questioning & Student’s Writing**

**Stage 3. Researching, Exploring, and Analyzing Resources**  
(심리학박사 Counselor/Psychologist)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What I know (I can do without guidance) – Student’s writing</th>
<th>Teacher/student’s questions as scaffolding</th>
<th>What I need to know (To expand/reach the ZPD) – Student’s writing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>청소년들의 소셜미디어 사용하는 것에 반대하지 않지만 사용 전략을 세워야한다고생각합니다. 일반적으로 말하면 소셜미디어는 부정적인 것이 아닙니다. 그래도 중독은 중독인데, 소셜미디어 중독도 좋지 않습니다. 부모님들의 말씀, 교육, 자기가 해야하는 일보다 소셜미디어가 중요하다고 생각하면 중독된 증거예요.</td>
<td>• 사용전략을 세워야한다고 했는데 좀더 자세히 설명해 주세요.</td>
<td>부모님과 상의해서하루 사용 시간을 제한하면 좋을 것 같습니다. 그리고 어떻게 사용하는 지가 중요하지 그 기술 또는 도구가 나쁘게 아닙니다. 예를 들면 칼을 나쁘게 사용하는 사람이 나쁜것이지 칼 자체가 나쁜것은 아니기 때문입니다. 소셜미디어를잘효과적으로 사용할수 있도록 학교와 가정에서 교육을 해야합니다.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| I do not oppose teenagers’ use of SNS, but we must have a strategy for use. Generally speaking, SNS is not bad, but when it becomes an addiction, then it’s bad. If teenagers value SNS use over their parents’ guidance, education, and things they should do, then it is a sign of addiction. (Note: Student’s grammatical errors were corrected by the teacher.) | • Could you explain more about strategy of use?  
• How can we use SNS without becoming addicted to it? As a psychologist, what would be your advice for students and their parents? | Set the timeline with the parents. Discuss how to use SNS as a tool. A tool itself is not harmful, but how one uses it is more important. For instance, a knife itself is not harmful, but a person can use it in a harmful way. Students need to be educated to use SNS effectively both at school and at home. (Note: Student’s grammatical errors were corrected by the teacher.) |
Stage Four: Generating Alternative Solutions

After the week of preparation, students began applying their research and generate potential solutions to the problem in the SNS Panel Discussion in the classroom. The instructor performed the role of moderator, directing and generating discussion. Students performed their assumed roles and shared their opinions and views. The main questions posed by the instructor are shown below.

a. What kinds of SNS do you use?

b. For what purpose do you use SNS?

c. What dangerous issues such as privacy infringement have you experienced or are aware of concerning the use of SNS?

d. How can cyberbullying and/or privacy infringement be prevented?

e. Does your school have an anti-cyberbullying policy?

f. Are there any cyber security programs to protect against privacy infringement through SNS?

Students were well prepared and able to engage in the discussion and to present opinions different from their own. They effectively presented and defended their views, and proposed potential solutions to SNS issues and concerns (See the example in Table 1). They also generated complex questions and challenged classmates’ stances.

When the forum ended, the instructor and students reflected on and shared their learning experiences. Students summarized the processes used, options considered, and difficulties encountered in role preparation and panel participation. Many students reported that the PBL experience was great for learning how to learn, how to collect and analyze the information necessary to understand and solve the problem, and how to use higher-level vocabulary and rhetorical expressions.

Conclusion

A well-designed learning environment is essential for language learners to reach higher levels of proficiency. The opportunity to work through ill-structured real-world problems allows students to develop and apply culturally appropriate language abilities necessary to understand and solve a problem, while cultivating reasoning and critical thinking skills. Allowing learners to negotiate meaning and solve problems using the target language lexicon and register associated with stakeholders (experts) motivates them to turn their PBL experience into further learning. By creating an effective learning environment and providing appropriate scaffolding techniques, students are encouraged to become autonomous learners.
References


Task-based Activities for Intermediate Level Students

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Many researchers of second-language acquisition (SLA) agree that the development of second-language (L2) skills benefits from social interaction. To promote social interactions in a classroom setting, we create tasks that are meaningful social activities with language learning objectives. This article discusses a variety of task-based activities that have been tried successfully in an Intermediate-level Russian classroom, where the goal is to achieve Interagency Language Roundtable (ILR) Level 2+ in Listening and Reading Comprehension and Level 2 in Speaking. The article starts with a brief literature review of social interaction in L2 acquisition, proceeds to a discussion of methods for preparing task-based activities in accordance with Willis’ (2005) framework, and concludes with some sample task-based activities.

Social Interaction and Second-language Acquisition

Vygotsky (1962) explores the interrelationship of language development and thought process, while bringing attention to language output. He emphasizes that a person, who does the talking, does the learning. Furthermore, if an individual wants to learn something, he or she should teach it to someone. Interaction serves as a form of mediation, enabling language learners to construct new forms and perform new functions collaboratively. Many researchers consider social interaction as a primary source of learning.

Vygotsky (1978) views learning as an essential social process that happens through interactions. Individuals learn most productively in the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), where they cannot yet operate independently but can complete the work if they have appropriate support. Instructors are advised to use a variety of teaching strategies to provide their students with support, guidance, and opportunities to practice the new learning through interaction. Additionally, learning is more effective if students work on activities that are slightly above their current level of knowledge and skills.

Researchers of SLA, such as Krashen (1981), Swain (1995), and Long (1996), have viewed social interaction as the matrix in which second-language acquisition takes place. According to Long’s (1996) Interaction Hypothesis, the conditions for second-language acquisition are especially favorable when a breakdown in communication requires learners to negotiate for meaning, modify their speech to make it more comprehensible, and provide feedback to others.

To sum up, second-language acquisition in a classroom occurs in an interactive setting where oral communication in L2 takes place, where student L2 input and output are considered, where instructors provide guidance and
support within students’ zone of proximal development, and where the language input is authentic and at a slightly higher level to challenge the learners.

**Development and Application of Task-based Activities**

Instructors have used a variety of methods in language classrooms. The learner-centered approach with emphasis on task-based instruction has received much attention from SLA researchers and language instructors. Task-based communicative activities allow students to create and negotiate pragmatic meanings through pair and small group interactions. Tasks demand students use their cognitive, linguistic, and communicative skills to achieve a goal or solve a problem that is related to real life situations. Students become the center of learning: class time is spent on language activities rather than on explanation and practice of language forms.

According to Ellis (2003), a task has four main characteristics:
1) a primary focus on (pragmatic) meaning;
2) a kind of gap;
3) a choice of linguistic resources to complete the task; and
4) a clearly defined, non-linguistic outcome.

Prabhu (1987) categorizes three types of tasks as follows:

**Information-gap** activity involves a transfer of information from one person to another, from one form to another, or from one place to another – generally calling for the decoding or encoding of information from or into language. The activity often involves selection of relevant information, and learners may have to meet criteria of completeness and correctness in making the transfer.

**Reasoning-gap** activity involves deriving some new information from the given information through inference, deduction, practical reasoning, or a perception of relationships or patterns. This type of activity involves comprehending and conveying information. There is an element of reasoning which connects the two.

**Opinion-gap** activity involves identifying and articulating a personal preference, feeling, or attitude in response to a given situation. This activity may involve the use of factual information and formulation of arguments to justify one’s opinion. There is no objective procedure for demonstrating outcomes as right or wrong and no reason to expect the same outcome from different individuals or on different occasions.

There are several frameworks for creating a task-based lesson. One framework outlined by Willis (2005) is used here to demonstrate how to create and implement task-based activities in the classroom. According to Willis, completing a task has the following stages:

**Pre-task**. The teacher presents what students should expect in the task phase or demonstrates a model of the task either verbally or by presenting pictures, audio, or a video.
**Task.** The students perform the given task individually or in small groups, depending on the type of activity. To enhance student-centered learning, the teacher usually plays the role of an observer or a counselor and is involved only if absolutely necessary.

**Post-task.** Some or all of the following activities may take place after students complete a task.

**Planning:** After completing a task, students are given some time to prepare a written or oral reflection statement to share with the class. The instructor takes questions, but otherwise simply monitors the students.

**Report:** Students present their fulfillment of the task to the rest of the class. The teacher may provide written or oral feedback, as appropriate. Students may also provide peer feedback or evaluation.

**Analysis:** The focus returns to the teacher who reviews what happened in the task, in regards to the language use, such as language forms that students used and language challenges that they experienced. This also helps the teacher diagnose students’ weaknesses in learning.

**Practice:** Based on the analysis, the teacher clarifies and indicates students’ language insufficiencies in the task and offers them an opportunity to learn and enhance their language skills by fixing their own mistakes.

**Review:** As an alternative to the planning, report, analysis, and practice, students can review one another’s work and offer constructive feedback, if they have created tangible linguistic products, such as a text, presentation, audio recording, or video.

The above discussion shows that a task is a classroom activity that has an objective attainable by participants’ interactions, a mechanism for structuring and sequencing the interaction, and a focus on meaning exchange. A task is also a language-learning endeavor that requires learners to comprehend, manipulate, and/or produce the target language as they perform some set of communicative actions.

How a communicative task is structured has an effect on its success in the classroom. A teacher should keep in mind that a task must have clear instructions for students to follow and an achievable goal with some challenges.

**Task-based Activities: Examples**

**Information-gap: “Pass the message”**

a) Divide the class into two groups. Group A is to participate and Group B is to observe. One student from Group A stays inside the classroom with the instructor, while the rest of the group stays outside. The instructor gives the student a task to pass a message to the next student who will enter the room. Students keep passing the information, one at the time, until all of the students outside of the classroom have entered the room.

b) The teacher starts the message with a formatted phrase (in Russian): “So and so has called and said that…” The message should contain important information related to the current lesson topic, and some non-essential
details, filler words, and personal opinions. Students may ask questions to clarify the meaning of the message, similar to passing on a message in real life.

For example: “Ivan Ivanovich has called and said that he is running late today, so he will join us later for the meeting. He needs to go and pick up his daughter from the kindergarten, a very nice kindergarten, by the way, but expensive, my neighbor’s child goes there too. They just put a new swimming pool and a computer class for the kids, nice, huh? But anyway, we need to check the latest data from the equipment in Labs 3 and 5, oh boy. The charts should be ready by now. We can start without him. Don’t worry; he will have enough time to chew us out. He always does it. Hurry up. Go talk to everyone.”

The purpose of the task is for students to identify the essential information and separate it from unimportant details while they differentiate the original message from the subjective inferences/emotions of the speaker.

c) Group B students, as a team, have to recreate an original message coming from Ivan Ivanovich and present it to the class.
d) Groups can switch roles to work with different messages.
e) All students (participating and observing) are invited to analyze the task. Was it successful? Why? How and why was the information changed? What was the important and superfluous information in the message? How did students feel during the activity? What did they learn from this task?

Reasoning-gap: “Sell it!”

a) Divide the class into several small groups. Give each group a task to create a one-minute radio advertisement/commercial for a newly developed product or service. The goal for the ad is to market the product/service to the public.
b) Each group records its commercial and plays it to the class. Students vote for the winner. They cannot vote for their own team.
c) Students analyze the task. Who was the most successful in achieving the goal and why? Who was most creative? Who was most persuasive? How did students feel during the activity? What did they learn from this task?

Opinion-gap: “Experts panel”

a) Divide the class into two groups. Ask Group A to resolve a problem of their choice that requires expert opinions from Group B. Group A seeks advice from Group B and offers a solution based on the “expert opinions.” For example, Group A plays the role of a “school committee”, and Group B a “panel of education professionals.” The school committee needs to decide which new subject should be added to the curriculum. Group A makes a list of “experts” whom they want to hear from and of the specific questions that experts will answer. Group A gives the list to Group B. The number of “experts” should equal the number of students in Group B.
b) Each “expert” creates a speech of approximately two minutes in length to express his or her professional opinion of the given questions.

c) According to the “expert” opinions, Group A decides which subject should be added.

d) All students analyze the activity by evaluating the results and sharing their feelings and thoughts about the process.

e) Groups can switch roles.

Conclusion

We surveyed 105 military students at the Intermediate level (DLPT level 2+/2+) about the use of task-based activities in language instruction. About 90% of the students found these activities “very effective” in their second-language learning. Those who did not like the task-based activities gave reasons of preference to working individually rather than in a small group, inadequacy in public speaking skills, or a lack of general knowledge that was needed for the successful implementation of the task.

Students who thought that task-based activities were effective liked the “game-like and fun atmosphere”, which created a comfortable and non-threatening learning environment. The creative nature of the tasks and a tangible product made students proud of their accomplishments.

When implementing task-based activities, it was useful to add a self-assessment step for reflection. By answering questions such as “How did I feel during the activity,” “What did I learn from this activity,” “What were my challenges,” and “What could be done differently,” students learned more about their strengths and weaknesses.

It is important for a classroom instructor to establish clear, measurable final learning objectives. This will enable students to see what they have accomplished and what progress they have made with their language knowledge and skills.

In summary, task-based activities allow students to see the results of their work, give them opportunities to create language, sharpen their thinking processes and analytical abilities, improve their communicative skills, and expand their knowledge and skills. Through teachers’ guidance and support, students self direct their learning – the responsibility of learning is shifted from teachers to students.
References


Extensive Reading

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Introduction and Literature Review

Reading is an essential part of language instruction at every level because it supports learning in multiple ways. This action research explores the topic of extensive reading, its use, and its advantages in and out of classrooms.

When teaching reading, it should be stressed that reading is an activity with a purpose. People read to gain information, verify existing knowledge, or for enjoyment. Research on reading shows that good readers read extensively, integrate information in the text with their existing knowledge, have a flexible reading style, and are motivated in reading. They rely on different skills, such as perceptual processing and phonemic processing.

Barfield (1995) writes that reading has traditionally been divided into two types: intensive and extensive. In broad terms, intensive reading may be described as the practice of specific reading skills and a close linguistic study of the text. Extensive reading can be defined as reading a large quantity of text, where reading confidence and reading fluency are prioritized. In contrast to intensive reading, it focuses on meaning rather than language specifics.

Extensive reading and intensive reading do not contradict each other. Instead, they serve different but complimentary purposes. In intensive reading students normally work with short texts with close guidance from the teacher. The aim is to help students obtain detailed meaning from the text and develop reading skills – such as identifying main ideas, recognizing text connectors, and enhancing vocabulary and grammar knowledge. Extensive reading encourages students to cover a large amount of material in a comparatively short time and to gain a general understanding of what is read. Intensive reading is a slow, careful reading process with shorter texts that are usually chosen by the teacher with specific instructional purposes, such as learning about a sentence structure, a grammar point, and certain vocabulary. Extensive reading involves large quantities of reading with less teacher guidance.

According to the Materials of British Council (July, 2005), extensive reading is an alternative approach and involves students reading long texts or large quantities for general understanding, with the intention of enjoying the texts. Day and Bamford (1998) note that extensive reading is not pleasure reading, which is too specific or limited to a reader or the instructor.

Krashen (2004) in his The Power of Reading describes free voluntary reading, which is effective in increasing and improving reading and develops better thinking, where the vocabulary is best developed through real encounters with the words in context, over time and in small doses.
The research on reading shows that extensive reading feeds into improvements in all areas of language competence. Language acquisition represents unconscious learning, which takes place when attention is focused on meaning rather than form. The basic features of extensive and intensive reading are summarized in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Features</th>
<th>Extensive Reading</th>
<th>Intensive Reading</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Linguistic focus</td>
<td>Fluency, skill forming</td>
<td>Analysis of the language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difficulty level</td>
<td>Easy to moderately difficult</td>
<td>Usually more difficult</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amount</td>
<td>Books or long articles</td>
<td>Short articles, passages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selection</td>
<td>Student</td>
<td>Instructor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Material</td>
<td>A great variety</td>
<td>Textbooks, special materials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Where reading takes place</td>
<td>Mainly out of class</td>
<td>In class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comprehension</td>
<td>Reports/Summaries/Sharing</td>
<td>Specific questions/tasks</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

During extensive reading, students focus on speed and comprehension. The aim is to get more information and build fluency. The Extensive Reading Foundation Guide (2011) asserts that extensive reading is learning to read. It is good for language development because it builds vocabulary, confidence, and motivation, lowers anxieties, and helps to master how grammar rules work in context.

Moreover, extensive reading offers opportunities for self-improvement. It has a positive impact on cultivating autonomous learning skills. Students who love to read subconsciously develop autonomous learning skills, such as researching, making choices and decisions about their learning, and using higher-order thinking skills to wade through complex problems. Reading extensively develops a positive attitude toward reading in general, be it a part of homework or for fun, resulting in substantial reading practice and the formation of a reading habit.

Extensive reading activities also contribute to student improvement in oral fluency, writing, and vocabulary (Day & Bamford, 2004). In this regard, Krashen (2004) notes that free vocabulary reading is just as effective or more effective than teaching spelling by direct instruction. Although the students’ main task is reading during extensive reading, Champeau de Lopez (1989) finds that writing summaries of what they read is valuable to provide a means for teachers as well as students to check comprehension because the writing improves comprehension. Susser (1990) also shares the view that writing summaries is pedagogically sound, which helps students improve their writing ability. Ellis (1995) notes that most vocabulary is learned from context. Much of
incidental vocabulary learning comes from context during reading. People who read more know more vocabulary.

Many researchers propose that extensive reading should be an integral part of vocabulary teaching. Nation and Coady (1988) caution that although extensive reading provides richness of information, it sometimes results in learners ignoring the target word, because they do not need to understand its meaning to comprehend the text. Coady and Huckin (1997) also argue that for beginners extensive reading presents a problem: How can they learn words through extensive reading if they do not have enough words to read extensively? Jacobs (2002) indicates that lack of reading materials and inadequate preparation of teachers can lead to little success in extensive reading.

Method

Taking into consideration the advantages and disadvantages of extensive reading, I have conducted a diagnostic reading survey to answer two questions: (1) Should we include extensive reading in the Basic Course at DLI; and (2) How can DLI students benefit from extensive reading? The survey was developed with the following specific goals:

1. To find out students’ perceptions of their reading ability (good or poor readers)
2. To find out students’ attitude toward reading (positive or negative)
3. To determine students’ interest in out-of-class reading
4. To gather information to make a sound data-driven decision on accelerated learning by prioritizing instructional actions; i.e., to read faster, to comprehend better, or to direct students’ concentration on certain points, etc.
5. To determine students’ reading habits and preferences so as to optimize students’ reading skills in and out of class
6. To tailor homework
7. To assist diagnostic assessment
8. To write periodic and counseling statements on progresses or regresses

The survey consisted of eight core questions:

Q1. From what you remember, learning how to read was:
   a. very easy for you
   b. easy for you
   c. hard for you
   d. very hard for you
Q 2. What do you usually do when you read?
Q 4. What kinds of things do you read outside of school?
Q 5. How often do you read something that is NOT a school assignment?
Q 6. How often do you read at home for school assignments?
Q 7. During the past 12 months, how many books have you read?
Q 8. What kind of books do you like?
I administered the survey at different times in three classes (RU-00207, 2008, RU-00913, 2014, and RU-00614, 2014). A total of 42 students completed the survey.

Survey Results and Discussion

Findings

Out of the responses, I focused on Question 2 (What do you usually do when you read?), which has 18 sub-questions, and Question 5 (How often do you read something that is NOT a school assignment?). The reason why I focused on these questions was to discover students’ reading preferences so that I could (1) assist them to improve their academic performance in reading; and (2) prepare a comprehensive extensive reading/literature plan. Table 2 shows students’ responses to Question 2 and Table 3 responses to Question 5.

Table 2
Students’ Responses to Question 2: What do you usually do when you read?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>n.</th>
<th>Percent (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I try to figure out the meaning of words that I do not know.</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>83.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I read silently.</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>76.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I try to understand what I read.</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>71.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I reread a section if I did not understand it at first.</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>71.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I try to concentrate on the reading.</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>69.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I try to read smoothly.</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>66.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I try to picture what is happening in the reading.</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>50.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. I try to pronounce all the words correctly.</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>47.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. I look up words I do not know in the dictionary.</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>35.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. I try to read to myself in a quiet voice.</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>30.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. I read first to get an idea of what it is about.</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>28.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. I try to put what is read into my own words.</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>28.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. I think about things I know that connect to the reading.</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>26.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. I try to read with expression (reading aloud with right intonation, stresses, and pauses).</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>23.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. I get distracted a lot.</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>21.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. I ask myself questions about what I am reading.</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>19.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. I have trouble remembering what I read.</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>16.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. I try to get the reading over with as fast as possible.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.38</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3

**Students’ Responses to Question 5: How often do you read something that is NOT a school assignment?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>n.</th>
<th>Percent (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. Every day</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>50.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Frequently</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>21.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Sometimes</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>16.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. Not often</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>11.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. Never</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The survey results also brought to light some interesting facts about how students read. The majority of students, 32 out of 42 (76%), preferred reading silently. On the other hand, 66.67% of students tried to read “smoothly”; 23.81% tried to read “with right intonation, stresses, and pauses”; and 47.62% tried to “pronounce all the words.” The intriguing point to me was whether these students would do the same during extensive reading. To find out, I asked them to read two long articles at home and share their findings/opinions at two roundtable discussions. After the discussion, I asked class RU-00207 whether they tried to “read smoothly” or “with right intonation, stresses, and pauses,” when they read the two articles. The answer I got was: “I thought it would help me to comprehend better but it didn’t.”

According to students, during the extensive reading they tried to figure out the meaning of unknown words without a dictionary. They concentrated on getting a general picture of what was happening and asked themselves questions about what they had read; that is to say, they never tried to read smoothly or with the correct intonation, stresses, and pauses. Moreover, they read the material faster than they had expected before starting the reading.

**Benefits of Extensive Reading for Students**

My purpose for conducting the survey was to find out whether we should include the extensive reading program in the Basic Course at DLI. Because one of our missions is to provide culturally based foreign language education, extensive reading enhances not only students’ reading ability but also their cultural perceptions. Extensive reading opens minds, enriches general understanding and knowledge of the world, and helps students consolidate and expand what they already know.

Extensive reading is self-regulated learning. Students can choose and use accessible materials and monitor their own performance, which develops their autonomous learning skills; expands their vocabulary; increases their vocabulary retention; decreases dependence on dictionaries; maximizes their involvement by presentations or information sharing at discussion tables; encourages them to read and know more; and allows them to use the obtained information and ideas in speaking and writing.
Benefits of Extensive Reading for Instructors

Instructors serve as a role model when they read with their students. Instructors should be familiar with the books that their students read in order to assess students’ needs and progress. Furthermore, extensive reading helps instructors to be better informed both about their profession and about the world. This makes them more interesting to be around because students generally like their instructors to be interesting people. Instructors and students may create an informal reading club. It helps them know one another better, creating a trusting learning environment.

Extensive reading also makes instructors explore and use various methods to help students engage in reading and develop their own ideas. In the process, instructors improve their organizational skills and cultivate reflective teaching/learning.

Instructor’s Role

Instructors play a great role in extensive reading. They explain to students the goals of extensive reading and guide them in material selection by considering the level of students and the variety, length, and complexity of the reading materials. Instructors can help students categorize books into genres and encourage and help them with their reading. By checking and commenting on students’ oral and/or written summaries, they can determine if students understand the readings. If not, Susser and Robb (1989) suggest that the instructor’s task is to guide students to more appropriate books. Instructors may set up a class library or recommend a list of literature works. Not all languages have appropriate graded reading materials for students. In my experience, short stories are generally useful for extensive reading.

Instructors may find it difficult to challenge students to read more. Instructors who plan to conduct extensive reading should accept the fact that not all students want to read much on their own. Do not force them. Engage them in class activities while trying to find the genres that may interest them.

For long weekends or class breaks, instructors can plan a homework assignment that requires students to do some extensive reading. Instructors need to explain why it is needed, allow students to choose their own materials, guide them in material selection if they have any difficulties, and advise them to switch from one speed to another until they find the reading speed that best suits them. When giving the homework assignment, instructors should avoid giving students comprehension questions. Instead, let students decide if they want to summarize the material in writing, make oral presentations, or work in pairs reporting to each other.
Extensive Reading Practice at DLI

Extensive reading applies to any phase of foreign language learning. However, it may not be easy to find appropriate extensive reading materials for beginners. Our experience shows that it is best to start extensive reading in the 2nd semester. Coady and Huckin (1997) propose that the dilemma with the beginners can be overcome in two stages. First, learners should be given explicit instruction and practice within the 3,000 most common words in the language to the point of automaticity. Second, they should then be allowed to engage in reading tasks that they find enjoyable.

As previously discussed, short stories were used for class RU-00614. Students read five short stories both for extensive and intensive reading. Reading of the first short story started in week 23, prior to the class break. The teaching team advised students to read Pushkin’s The Blizzard. The story was chosen because there were no other “graded readers” in Russian. The following examples demonstrate how we conduct extensive and intensive reading. After the class break, we had two roundtable discussions in class:
• Roundtable discussion 1: Opinions of the characters/dramatis personae of the story, and
• Roundtable discussion 2: Romanticism vs. realism.

During week 27, students started reading the second story – Pushkin’s The Shot, which was a combination of both extensive and intensive reading with comprehension questions. According to some students, while reading The Blizzard, they were thrilled and absorbed in the story but they did not enjoy The Shot as much because they had to do homework, which took their focus to the comprehension questions. In week 34, students made presentations of both stories by Pushkin. Students determined their presentation topics, analyzed both stories, discussed the differences and similarities of the characters, spoke about the realities of the 19th century literary genres, and investigated the heroes and their emotional states.

Class RU-00614 read five short stories in total, three of which were assigned during the 3rd semester: The Russian Character by A. Tolstoy; After the Ball by L. Tolstoy; and Lady with the Dog by A. Chekhov. Students also read thematically related articles (of approximately 25 pages in length) about the world economy, international relations, political issues and conflicts from magazines and the Internet alongside extensive/intensive readings.

Conclusion

Extensive reading provides effective platforms for developing reading skills from elementary levels upwards. Although managing extensive reading materials requires a significant investment in time, energy, and resources, the benefits for students’ language development far exceeds the modest sacrifices that instructors make. If extensive reading received institutional support and were integrated, as a school policy, into the Basic Course curriculum, we would
be able to reach impressive cultural and educational results at the DLI, the mission of which is to provide culturally based foreign language education, training, evaluation, and sustainment to enhance the security of the nation.

References


Diagnostic Teaching: Classroom Assessment Tools to Supplement Existing Formative Assessment

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Faculty Development Support, Academic Support

Diagnostic teaching is an instructional approach that we do in one form or another when using formative assessment in our classroom teaching. Classroom assessment strategies enable us to diagnose learners’ abilities, determine their needs, and offer appropriate strategies and/or learning activities. Adjusting instruction to meet learning needs and goals is a constant process. By formalizing the process into a systematic approach with regular use of classroom assessment techniques, we can improve the quality of diagnostic teaching.

With the focus on teaching for higher levels, diagnostic teaching plays a critical role, because the fine tuning of our instruction is the key to meet the diverse needs and abilities of individual learners. Utilizing diagnostic teaching early on in the course allows learners to progress sooner. Therefore, we should avoid bringing in diagnostic teaching towards the end of the course as a remedy for low performing students. Diagnostic teaching sees assessment and instruction as intertwined and continuous processes through the whole course.

Classroom Assessment Tools

Whether assessing mastery of content, application of knowledge, or understanding of learning, classroom assessment for diagnostic instruction can take many forms. Some assessment forms take little time but provide valuable information about the learning outcome or process, which makes them highly suitable for incorporating into classroom instruction. Some common means of formative, classroom assessment methods are embedded in our lesson plans, and teachers use them to evaluate learners’ understanding. Examples include the following: general comprehension questions, yes/no questions, Venn diagrams, think-pair-share, jigsaw and information gap activities.

Additional quick and easy forms of assessment are presented in Classroom Assessment Techniques: A Handbook for College Teachers (Angelo & Cross, 1993). Angelo & Cross’s classroom assessment techniques (CATs) are designed to provide immediate feedback about the entire class’s level of understanding, but can be modified to assess an individual learners’ progress. The following CATs are selected from Angelo and Cross’s book, and they work well in foreign language classrooms.
Minute Paper

Ask learners to identify the most significant thing they have learned during the lesson. Give them two to three minutes to respond on a small piece of paper or an index card. Learners can also post responses to a class Sakai blog. The teacher can assess students’ progress not only through classroom observation, but also through the learners’ reflections and self-evaluation.

Muddiest Point

This CAT asks learners to jot down what was the least clear point at the end of a class. This allows teachers to hear what needs to be reviewed in future lessons, and confirm what grammar, vocabulary, and content have been grasped.

Documented Problem Solutions

Ask learners to recall the steps they took to complete a task and explain what they did in each step. This activity allows teachers to gain insight into learners’ cognitive processes and their problem-solving skills.

Directed Paraphrasing

After learners investigate a socio-cultural or political issue, ask them to identify and present relevant concerns for a specific profession or a job. This allows teachers to observe whether learners are able to explain the content material in their own words. It is an expansion on a classroom task to assess how well the lesson content is mastered.

Applications Cards

Give learners a content theme that they have studied and ask them to develop real-life applications in various contexts. In other words, learners are asked to develop tasks, scenarios, or projects. This CAT enables teachers to see how well learners are able to apply the content studied to real-world contexts.

Conclusion

We have presented a few CATs in this paper. Angelo and Cross (1993) offer a range of CATs applicable for a broad range of disciplines in higher education. Teachers may wish to draw on other CATs that are suitable for assessment of Final Learning Objectives (FLO) or area studies. We used these CATs as examples to reiterate the value of diagnostic instruction and to illustrate how CATs can supplement the existing formative classroom assessment. As the graduation requirement has been raised to 2+, 2+, 2, assisting students to meet the new requirements requires a synergy of best practices. Diagnostic teaching is one of the best practices.
Theme Section: Reaching Higher Levels

Reference


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How do you teach to higher levels?

Send your best practices to

*Dialog on Language Instruction*
REVIEW


Reviewed by DEANNA TOVAR
Middle East School II, Undergraduate Education

The first edition of Patterson, Grenny, McMilan, and Switzler’s Crucial Conversations: Tools for Talking When Stakes Are High was published in 2002 and the second edition in 2012. The forewords in both editions are written by Stephen Covey, renowned author of Seven Habits of Highly Effective People. In the foreword to the first edition, Covey writes that Crucial Conversations helps one “move from creating the right mind-and-heart-set to developing and utilizing the right skill-set.” In the foreword to the second edition, Covey states that he has taught the importance of understanding others – Habit 5: Seek first to understand. Covey claims that Crucial Conversations delves broader and deeper into the principles of high-stakes communication. This review includes Covey’s comments because of the contribution Covey has made to leadership and communication over the years. The authors indicate that the second edition offers new insights and updated examples that help illuminate the key points. The second edition also contains summaries of new research – the studies are referenced and can be read on the accompanying website. Free access is provided to the site that contains links to videos and other tools, helping the reader explore additional information for managing crucial conversations. The second edition also includes an afterword with personal anecdotes offered by each of the authors.

The book has 11 chapters. The first six chapters provide the background for crucial conversations. The authors give examples of challenging communication situations that one may encounter in social and business settings. In Chapter 1 a definition of crucial conversations is provided: one in which stakes are high, opinions vary, and emotions are involved. The authors explain that individuals in business settings often avoid crucial conversations for fear of making things worse. An example of common ineffective practices is that co-
workers send emails or leave voicemails rather than meet face-to-face to discuss problems in the workplace.

The importance of dialog as a pool of shared meaning is discussed in Chapter 2. The authors claim: “The pool of shared meaning is the birthplace of synergy” (p. 25), which helps individuals make better choices and commit to the decisions reached. Dialog that reflects shared meaning brings unity and conviction.

In Chapter 3, Start with Heart, the authors advise readers to start crucial conversations by identifying the “right motive” and staying focused. They list three “dialog killers” – winning, punishing, and keeping the peace. They define keeping the peace as avoiding the possibility of an uncomfortable conversation. The third chapter also includes suggestions for keeping focused on the desired outcome while engaging in crucial conversations. Strategies such as asking ourselves questions to refocus our brains, finding our bearings, and avoiding flight or fight reactions are discussed.

Chapter 4 dissects a failed conversation. Those who are gifted at dialogs not only stay focused on the content of the conversation, but they also pay attention to how the other person is reacting. That is, they notice the signs that indicate if the other person is becoming anxious or fearful. When one engages in a conversation in which opinions vary and stakes are high, in order for there to be real dialog, both parties must feel safe. If the safety of the other person is at risk, failure to observe the conditions can lead to unhealthy conversations. By paying attention to how people are responding physically or emotionally during a high-stakes dialog, one may be able to keep the conversation on track and allow a free flow of meaning. Individuals who feel their safety is at risk may choose to keep silent or become emotionally violent. The “three forms of silence” are masking, avoiding, and withdrawing, which are used in order to avoid facing the problem. Chapter 4 also includes a test one can take to determine one’s style under stress. The 35-question test can be done by filling out the score sheets provided in the book or it can be taken online. The test scores show that which forms of silence or violence the test-taker turns to most and how he/she typically behaves during stressful or crucial conversations.

Chapter 5 is dedicated to the topic of safety during crucial conversations. Mutual purpose and mutual respect are two of the conditions of safety that must be established. When parties engaged in a crucial conversation begin to feel disrespected, they may implement strategies to help put the dialog back on a healthy track. Three skills, identified as those that address the dialog best, are as follows: apologize, contrast, and create mutual purpose. One may choose to sacrifice ego by admitting error and apologizing to help steer the conversation back to safety. The authors refer to contrasting behaviors as “don’t/do” statements. Sample situations and conversations are provided to illustrate how the skills are used.

Chapter 6, Master My Stories, offers a model – the Path to Action, which consists of four steps that illustrate how emotions, thoughts, and experiences lead to our actions. In the first step, we observe what others say and/or do: See & Hear. In the second step, Tell a Story, we interpret the others’
words/actions; that is, we add meaning or “story” to what we observed or heard, add motive, and judge the other. In the third step, Feel, we may experience a variety of negative emotions, such as anger, frustration, hurt, worry, embarrassment, etc. In the fourth step we act. Most of Chapter 6 examines the second step – explaining the significance of the interpretations we give to others’ actions. Storytelling is described as happening blindingly fast, leading the authors to advise: “If we take control of our stories, they won’t control us” (p. 111). The remainder of the chapter provides explanations and instructions for “mastering our stories” – ways to come up with different interpretations of others’ behaviors.

Chapters 7-10 offer specific strategies for successfully managing crucial conversations. Tips on how to speak persuasively and not abrasively are offered in Chapter 7. Readers are told to STATE their paths. The acronym, STATE, is explained as follows:

- **Share** facts
- **Tell** a story
- **Ask** for others’ paths
- **Talk** tentatively
- **Encourage** testing

Each of the components of STATE is explained and examples are given to illustrate what the skill might look like. This chapter also includes suggestions for managing communication challenges.

Chapter 8 identifies AMPP (ask, mirror, paraphrase, and prime) – powerful listening tools that encourage others to “share their paths”.

- **Ask** – by asking questions, one may learn the other person’s views.
- **Mirror** – to confirm feelings, one may reflect upon one’s observations regarding how the person looks or acts (especially useful when the other’s tones and gestures are incongruent with his or her words).
- **Paraphrase** – the other’s message is put into one’s own words.
- **Prime** – when the other person seems to still have unresolved issues but is unwilling to share, one may make a best guess about what the other person is thinking.

Examples and explanations of each of these tools are given. Also provided are tips (ABCs – **Agree**, **Build**, **Compare**) to use when the other person’s story or interpretation of the problem is in conflict with your own story or the facts.

Chapter 9 tells the reader how to turn crucial conversations into action and results. The four decision-making methods are command, consult, vote, and consensus. Additionally, suggestions are given for avoiding common mistakes. The authors claim that the strategies and skills can be effective in almost all problem situations; however, they concede that some situations are more difficult to resolve than others. The authors offer seventeen difficult cases in Chapter 10. A solution is provided for each, with descriptions of the skills used to help clarify and resolve the situation.

The final chapter, Chapter 11, summarizes all of the tools and skills presented in the previous chapters. The authors report that some of those
interviewed have used one particular skill to help them in crucial conversations, whereas others have focused more on principles than on the skills. According to the authors, using two key principles will increase one’s ability to engage in a meaningful conversation. The first, Learn to Look, entails asking oneself if one is in or out of a dialog that gets to the heart of the conversation. The second, Make it Safe, indicates that those who are comfortable are more amenable to a genuine conversation. By asking a question and showing interest in the others’ viewpoint, they can be made to feel safe. An additional feature of the final chapter is a chart that lists the seven dialog principles explored throughout the book. Each of the principles is paired with the corresponding skills and crucial questions. The chapter ends with a scenario that exemplifies the various principles and skills described in the book.

One of the strengths of the book is that Chapters 3 to 8 conclude with an explicit summary of the chapters’ contents. These are helpful to the reader as a way to review the skills and tools described in the chapter. The website (https://www.vitalsmarts.com/crucialconversations/) provides additional support to the reader. It contains videos that correspond to the content of the chapter. The website also contains case studies – personal accounts of those who have used the skills described in the book. Although the book makes reference to new research, the authors do not provide scholarly citations; as a consequence, the reader is not able to review the primary sources. The book is written in an easy-to-read manner and is intended as a coaching tool to help individuals improve results in business, social, or personal settings. This book is valuable reading for anyone trying to improve their communication skills for better results – from morale to productivity. It makes sense to this reviewer that individuals who are confident at engaging in high-stakes conversations will have a better opportunity at improving results.

On a final note, the authors own a consulting firm, which may be found at vitalsmarts.com. Many other resources and training products are advertised there. Among them are the authors’ other books Crucial Confrontations, Crucial Accountability, and Influencer.
FACULTY FORUM

_Faculty Forum_ welcomes readers’ contribution. We are interested in (but not limited to) your ideas and views on innovative foreign language education practices, as well as your comments on matters of general academic interest and on articles in previous issues of this journal.

**Reverse Evaluation: A Mechanism for Organizational Development**

HONG PETER YANG  
*Continuing Education*

Organizations such as the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) adopt measures to review, evaluate, and improve performance. These measures consist of instruments and processes that help organizations reach their mission goals. Many evaluation measures are in place at DLIFLC, such as TAPEs, ISQs, ESQs, sensing sessions, and employee counseling; these are top-down evaluations of employees by management. Conversely, Reverse Evaluation (RE) is a bottom-up evaluation of management by their subordinates. The DLIFLC leadership has made the purpose of RE clear: “[RE is] to improve the working climate, communication, and mission accomplishment by 1) identifying what facilitates or interferes with job performance; and 2) developing fixes jointly by faculty/staff and the management” (Leaver, 2014). RE plays a unique and constructive role in DLIFLC’s evaluation system.

During the RE process, faculty and staff anonymously evaluate the performance of management at various levels within their chain of command. The fundamental concept behind RE is to hold managers responsible for their decisions and actions. By giving faculty and staff the opportunity to examine the organization and voice their opinions and concerns, management comes to know itself better. Responsible managers welcome the process, which enables them to gain a better perspective on the organization and identify areas that need attention.

Having worked as a RE coordinator for several years, I would like to help readers understand the RE process by discussing the history, the procedures, and the merits of RE at DLIFLC.
The History of Reverse Evaluation at DLIFLC

The Continuing Education (CE) Directorate conducted its first Reverse Evaluation in 2006 when the CE leadership was promoting the principles of Servant Leadership (Keith, 2008). One of the principles is for leaders to listen to the evaluation by the led and make changes accordingly. The concept and procedures of RE received mixed responses when they were first introduced to the CE faculty and management.

Nevertheless, the first RE was implemented by CE, which collected many comments and suggestions. Employee input led to organizational changes, such as the appointments of branch chiefs in language departments, intra-support of personnel between divisions, teaching requirements for the management, publication of the Semi Monthly Information Sharing, and Servant Leadership training. Both the management and faculty/staff began to realize that they needed to improve communication. This realization laid down the cornerstone for organizational building and improvement. Since 2006, CE has conducted ten Reverse Evaluations. RE has impacted CE’s managerial decisions and policies and improved the rapport and communication between the faculty/staff and the management. Over the years, leadership from various CE divisions – Resident, Distance Learning, Field Support, and Extension – strongly supported RE. In addition to an annual RE in Monterey, Field Support and Extension divisions have also conducted RE at Language Training Detachment (LTD) sites.

In 2014, all language schools in the Undergraduate Education (UGE) Directorate administered the first round of Reverse Evaluation. The UGE leadership supported the process by presiding over all the RE meetings and implemented many program changes, including improvement of the working environment, management rotation, and term limits. School deans, RE coordinators, and unit representatives, as a team, brought about many progresses pertinent to individual schools. RE has promoted shared participation, governance, and responsibility for both the faculty and the management.

The Process of Reverse Evaluation

Reverse Evaluation at DLIFLC consists of four phases: 1) collecting input anonymously from faculty/staff; 2) identifying what facilitates or interferes with one’s job performance; 3) developing fixes that are agreed by all stakeholders; and 4) taking action and following through on the due-outs.

**Phase 1.** Select one coordinator from each school/directorate and a unit representative from a department/program. The coordinators and the unit representatives should be selected from non-management personnel. The coordinator communicates with both faculty/staff and the management, trains the unit representatives, works with the School Dean/Directorate Associate Provost on due-outs, and updates the due-outs spreadsheet for the school/directorate. The unit representatives offer training and orientation to
faculty and staff, collect and categorize faculty/staff comments, report the findings at RE meetings, report back to faculty/staff about what has occurred at the RE meetings, and speak to the department/program managers when needed. The first step for the unit representatives is to place a ballot box marked with the department/program’s name in a conspicuous spot where faculty and staff can deposit their input. Unit representatives then disseminate a questionnaire (see Appendix A) and announce the RE cut-off date to faculty/staff. In the subsequent two or three weeks, unit representatives collect the questionnaires left in the ballot box every day, ensure that the data are kept in a safe place, and oversee that the ballot boxes are in good working order.

Phrase 2. Unit representatives sort, categorize, rank, and summarize the collected data according to core issues (leadership, communication, training, personnel) and preparing an oral report. A sample sheet for sorting data is provided in Appendix A. Before the RE meeting, unit representatives are trained in how to present the comments in line with the conversation rules outlined in the book: Crucial Conversations: Tools for Talking When Stakes Are High (Patterson, Grenny, McMillan, & Switzler, 2002). The book provides guidance on how to provide constructive criticism. During the training, raw and harsh comments are shaped into professional and impersonal criticisms. The day prior to the RE meeting, the Dean/Associate Provost meets with the unit representatives to finalize the format of the RE meeting. The RE meeting is a whole-day event that usually takes place offsite. Unit representatives from different departments/programs take turns to report at the RE Meeting. A sample meeting agenda is provided in Appendix B.

Phase 3. When unit representatives report the findings, managers write down the core issues on flip charts. After the reports, managers and unit representatives work in a large group to determine the major and/or recurrent core issues. The Dean/Associate Provost usually facilitates the large group’s discussion. The identified core issues are then distributed to smaller groups made up of managers and unit representatives, who work out correctional action steps and due-outs. A speaker from each group presents the due-outs to the large group for a final discussion and consensus. After the RE meeting, unit representatives can schedule a private meeting, through the RE coordinator, with the Dean/Associate Provost to discuss core issues inappropriate to be disclosed at the RE meeting. If needed, a follow-up survey can be distributed to find out more about a core issue.

Phase 4. After the RE meeting, the coordinator enters all the issues and due-outs on a spreadsheet, which will be reviewed in the following year’s RE. The due-outs are color-coded (green—completed, blue—continuous, yellow—incomplete, and red—not applicable). The coordinator meets monthly or bi-monthly with the Dean/Associate Provost to review the due-outs, updates the spreadsheet, and posts the update in the school/directorate’s share folder. The Dean/Associate Provost usually assigns an action officer to complete one due-out in a specified timeframe and reports the progress to faculty/staff.
Merits of Reverse Evaluation

DLIFLC is a mission-oriented organization that promotes servant leadership and employee participation. Reverse Evaluation has improved the effectiveness of teamwork between managers and faculty/staff. I will discuss the merits of RE from a structural, managerial, educational, and psychological point of view.

The inclusion of a bottom-up evaluation process has improved the structure of DLIFLC’s evaluation system, which has become more comprehensive by including a direct appraisal of the management by the faculty and staff. An evaluation system that combines top-down and bottom-up approaches is more democratic and balanced. It is also more efficient because it produces solutions that are relevant to all stakeholders.

Managerially, RE provides organizational leaders with a list of tasks; the annual RE serves as a forum where core issues, tasks, and due-outs are discussed. Completing the due-outs takes considerable time, sometimes longer than a year, wherein new issues appear and old issues recur. In this sense, RE is a continuing process as the management works on existing problems and discovers new challenges. This ongoing process also provides professional growth opportunities for management. Managers from various schools have expressed their eagerness for the opportunity to address a variety of challenging issues. RE expands managers’ perspectives and managerial capabilities. For example, when the Curriculum Division (CD) had its 1st RE in 2013, the division director shared his learning from the RE in a paper on a 360-degree performance appraisal (Boyadjieff, 2013).

Educationally, RE provides an opportunity for managers and faculty/staff to hold constructive discussions of core issues. Communication leads to clarification and understanding among all stakeholders and promotes transparency in decision-making. All stakeholders also learn to improve communication through articulating issues and concerns. An improved understanding between managers and faculty/staff creates better leaders and employees. One UGE school dean was amazed at the educational effects of its 1st RE in terms of bringing faculty/staff and management together as they managed to reach agreement on solutions through clarification, negotiation, and communication.

Psychologically, RE motivates and empowers employees, giving them a sense of shared ownership, governance, and responsibility for the organization. Many faculty and staff appreciate the chance to speak out; they become more motivated to engage, initiate, create, and act.

In summary, the positive effect of RE on an organization can be seen at the individual, departmental, divisional, and institutional levels. The implementation and perfection of Reverse Evaluation require time, planning, coordination, and training. The goal of RE is to resolve old and new problems that hinder employee performance. All stakeholders benefit by adopting a professional and positive attitude and treating Reverse Evaluation as an
opportunity for constructive criticism, which is vital for organizational development.

References


Leaver, B, (2014). Opening slides and remarks on reverse education. Reverse evaluation training conducted at the Undergraduate Education Division at Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center, Presidio of Monterey, CA.

Appendix A

Reverse Evaluation Questionnaire (Blank)

1. What does management do that helps accomplishing your job?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Issues</th>
<th>Examples</th>
<th>Number of faculty or staff reporting</th>
<th>Memo</th>
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<tr>
<td>Work Environment</td>
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<td>Management</td>
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<td>Communication</td>
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<td>Training</td>
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<td>Academic</td>
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<td>Logistics</td>
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<td>Technology</td>
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<td>Others</td>
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2. What does management do (or not do) that hinders accomplishing your job?

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<tr>
<th>Issues</th>
<th>Examples</th>
<th>Number of faculty or staff reporting</th>
<th>Memo</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Work Environment</td>
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<td>Leadership</td>
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<td>Others</td>
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</table>

3. Do you have any comments about the Reverse Evaluation process?

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<th>Issues</th>
<th>Examples</th>
<th>Number of faculty or staff reporting</th>
<th>Memo</th>
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<td>Pros</td>
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<td>Cons</td>
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Appendix B

Sample Reverse Evaluation Meeting Agenda

<table>
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<tr>
<th>RE Meeting Agenda</th>
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<tr>
<td>(Time, Place)</td>
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<tr>
<td>1. Introduction and Orientation</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Issues Reported by Unit Representatives</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Large-group Discussion: Identify Issues</td>
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<tr>
<td>4. Small-group Discussion: Resolutions on Due-outs</td>
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<tr>
<td>5. Presentations on Resolutions</td>
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<tr>
<td>6. Conclusion</td>
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NEWS AND EVENTS

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

**Teaching to Higher Levels: A DLIFLC Initiative**

RON NELSON

*Undergraduate Education*

In the fall of 2013, DLIFLC Provost Dr. Leaver directed the senior academic leadership of DLIFLC to establish a Teaching to Higher Levels Task Force. The primary objective of the Task Force was to design, develop, and execute a year-long series of summits, presentations, and meetings aimed at making faculty aware of the need to strive to reach higher levels of proficiency in anticipation of a change in graduation requirement, specifically level 2+ in listening comprehension, level 2+ in reading comprehension, and level 2 in speaking.

The original members of the Task Force were Dr. Christine Campbell (Chair), Dr. Jielu Zhao, MAJ Hatem Abdine, Mr. Ron Nelson, Dr. Andrew Corin, Ms. Grazyna Dudney, Dr. Gary Hughes, Mr. Sam Lipsky, SCPO Steve Tallman, and Ms. Melody Wall. From these members, a core group of four (Dr. Campbell; Mr. Nelson; Dr. Hughes; Dr. Bey) worked over the last six months of FY14 to carry out a series of events.

The Task Force organized and oversaw sessions in undergraduate (UGE) schools on the methods employed by DLIFLC teachers that lead to proficiency at level 2+ and above, arranged for Visiting Scholars to come to DLIFLC to conduct plenary sessions on achieving higher levels, and mapped the way forward for DLIFLC faculty to teach to higher levels.

Beginning in February 2014, teaching teams in each of the UGE schools who attained a high level of success in getting their students to 2+ in at least one modality gave 15-20 minute presentations on the successful strategies they used. The presentations included topics such as classroom instructional strategies, communication among team members, academic advising, and student involvement in planning and conducting training.
As the presentations progressed, many recurring themes emerged, including:

1. Student-led projects and presentations (students select, research, and present topics). These projects relate to the theme for the week; the teaching team oversees the projects to ensure the students are on task and on level.
2. Student involvement in planning and conducting instruction. The teaching team solicits input from students on whether the lessons are meeting their needs and are relevant to their future jobs.
3. Immersion early on. The students are required to use the target language not for learning activities only but for all activities. The target language is the means of communication at all times.
4. Instruction tailored to students. The teachers vary their instructional techniques so that activities are personalized for all learner types.
5. Problem-solving activities and higher-order thinking skills. These require the students to apply the target language in analytical and critical ways.
6. High levels of student production, such as role-plays, reports, and debates. This is a more student-centered way of conducting instruction that requires productive use of the language.
7. Level-appropriate authentic materials tailored to the audience. The materials presented are slightly beyond the students’ current ability level; these materials stretch the students – help them move beyond their current level.
8. Culturally rich materials. These will expose the students to the culture in which the language is spoken, which helps to make the language use more culturally appropriate.
9. Extensive reading – literature and culture. This further enhances the students’ cultural awareness and enriches their understanding of the target language region, including the history and societal norms.
10. Regular academic counseling with specific guidance and follow-up. This will prevent problems from becoming fossilized.
11. Training and application in meta-cognitive areas, such as mental management and study strategies. This helps the students discover new ways to learn and helps them break out of old habits.
12. Collaboration between and among teachers and students. As with counseling, this ensures that issues are dealt with immediately, and a true team environment is created.

Upon completion of the presentations in the schools, Visiting Scholars from academic institutions across the United States visited DLI and conducted plenary sessions and training workshops for DLI faculty and management:

a. Dr. Dan Davidson of the American Councils for International Education conducted a plenary presentation on Reaching Higher Levels in Listening and a training workshop on Teaching to Higher Listening Levels.
b. Mr. Boris Shekhtman of the Specialized Language Training Center spoke on Reaching Higher Levels in Speaking and conducted workshops for the Russian program on Teaching to Higher Speaking Levels.

c. Dr. Elizabeth Bernhardt of Stanford University spoke on Reaching Higher Levels in Reading and conducted a workshop on Teaching to Higher Reading Levels.

Finally, the leadership of each UGE school conducted reviews and assessments of their programs and developed plans for achieving higher levels, which they presented to the Provost and the Command Group in the fall of 2014.

In conclusion, the series of summits, presentations, and meetings did have the anticipated effect: faculty clearly understood that the 2+/2+/2 graduation requirement was forthcoming; consequently, they had to examine their current teaching methodology and adjust accordingly, not continue to teach as they had, but differently, given the new expectations. As DLIFLC awaits the official announcement about the more demanding graduation requirement, its faculty and leadership are working as a team to utilize the latest pedagogical developments to maximize learner success.

Potential for Adopting FSI Best Practices at DLI

RAVINDER S SINGH

Student Learning Services, Academic Support

At the behest of the Provost, the Student Learning Services (SLS) division of DLI sent a delegation of four faculty members to visit the Learning Consultation Service (LCS) at the School of Language Studies, Foreign Service Institute (FSI), located in Arlington, VA, 22-23 September 2014. Accompanying the civilian group was another four-member team representing the two Air Force training squadrons located at the Presidio. The purpose of the visit was to share information and experience in learner preparation and working with students to help them maximize their language proficiency during the course of their language study. The two contingents from DLI spent one and a half days in meetings and information-sharing sessions with the five-member LCS group. The information sharing sessions included overview briefings delivered by the three organizations (SLS, LCS, and the Air Force), discussion sessions, and two additional sessions, one with learning consultants who provide language-specific academic advising and the other with Language Training Supervisors (equivalent to DLI department chairs), who emphasized the importance of LCS and the language learning consultants in helping FSI students reach maximum proficiency.
Whereas the majority of students enter DLI straight from basic training, students at FSI are career Foreign Service Officers who may be studying their second or third language for upcoming postings to new job assignments. Students are in class for five hours per day and are expected to invest an additional three hours for homework and self-study. Teachers are, for the most part, native speakers of the languages they are teaching and all have prior teaching experience. However, only about a third are government employees; the others are contract teachers hired through private companies. At any given point, the School of Language Studies at FSI has about 1,200 students and 700 faculty and staff.

DLI divides its language courses into three semesters, whereas the language curriculum at SLS is separated into two phases. Phase I is to get students up to near Level 2, and Phase II to near Level 3. Students are only tested in reading and speaking; there is no graduation requirement for listening. Belonging to the Department of State, these students do not take the DLPT. Rather, they are assessed through a two-skill interview administered by language testers and evaluators. Teachers in the language programs specialize in one phase or the other, as do the language learning consultants. Like at DLI, 20 hours of teaching per week is considered a full load. Language learning consultants, who are recruited from the ranks of highly qualified teachers and usually have additional training and experience as testers and/or evaluators, are also expected to spend 20 contact hours with students as academic counselors.

Although it is a small division, the Learning Consultation Service at FSI has a wide impact. Approximately 25% of the student population finds its way to the LCS, but not all of these students seeking LCS assistance are having learning difficulties. Many of them are successful language learners who acknowledge the value of consulting with experts for additional ideas or techniques to make the learning experience more efficient or rewarding. In addition to one-on-one consulting, the LCS provides “brown bag” workshops on various topics, including vocabulary retention, time management, and anxiety management. The organization also has a website on the FSI intranet that provides additional information for students looking for tips in language learning.

Additionally, the LCS provides training for the language learning consultants. New trainees are released from their teaching duties for one afternoon per week to attend a series of LCS workshops over a span of about one to one-and-a-half years; the total training time amounts to over 200 hours. There are about 45-50 Learning Consultants spread through the various language programs.

In the past, LCS consultations with students were based predominantly on learning style preferences and the Myers–Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI). Now, personality and style inventories are used as one tool in a more holistic approach to language learning assistance. As shown in Figure 1, this holistic approach can be broken down into four main categories: understanding language learning, managing learning, interpersonal and group issues, and external concerns.
Figure 1: LCS’s Holistic Approach to Student Advising
(Courtesy of the Learning Consultation Service, School of Language Studies, Foreign Service Institute)

Although SLS at DLI is no longer working directly with students, the mission of the division is to support schoolhouse teachers in using principles of second language acquisition to maximize students’ language proficiency. SLS strives to accomplish this mission by maintaining the quality of its mandated programs – Introduction to Language Studies and Autonomous Language Sustainment. SLS could provide additional value through the adoption of the FSI model. If personnel in the schools were designated to fulfill the advisory function, SLS would be in a position to train teachers as a cadre of academic advisors. Training would entail a working knowledge of SLA, adult learning, DLI specifics, learning styles and strategies, study skills, group dynamics, and the skills of active listening, diagnosis, and feedback. As indicated by the timeframe LCS uses to train its cadre and by the topics listed in Figure 1, it is clear that this would require an investment of resources on the part of the Institute, as well as an investment of time and effort on the part of faculty willing to serve in this role. If DLI is to reach its new goal of 2+/2+/2, this investment should be worthwhile.
MEET A TEAM

Learning by Doing: Immersive and Experiential Learning to Enhance Field Readiness

An Interview with Mrs. Jelena Teague, Director of the Immersion Language Office, Directorate of Academic Support

Editor: The foreign language education field has embraced immersion as an effective way of learning and acquiring a language because it requires learners to operate solely in the target language and learn the way the language is used in real life. Immersion is part of the DLIFLC language curriculum. Would you tell readers about the history, the purpose, and the work scope of the Immersion Language Office?

Mrs. Teague: The Immersion Language Office (ILO) was established in July 2005. Its main purpose is to serve as a central point of contact and the main action office for all the DLIFLC immersion language trainings: Outside Continental United States (OCONUS), Continental United States (CONUS), and Isolation immersion (Iso-immersion). Immersion training has been an integral part of DLI’s effort to enhance students’ global language proficiency and cultural awareness. The ILO collaborates with the Undergraduate Education (UGE) and the Continuing Education (CE) Directorates, Service Units, the Resource Management, Operations, Transportation and other offices to ensure that immersion trainings are conducted in accordance with the highest academic standards and government regulations.

Editor: One of the DLIFLC’s best practices in foreign language education is to provide immersion opportunities for students to contextualize and practice their language skills in the real world or through simulated real-world tasks. These immersion-training events require a great deal of academic and logistic coordination. Would you share with readers what your office has contributed to the Institute’s endeavor?

Mrs. Teague: The first OCONUS immersion event was conducted in Russia in August 2005. By February 2015, our office had executed 324 OCONUS immersion events in 18 countries. Over 2,870 students and cadre from all
services participated in this valuable training. Direct exposure to the target language (TL) culture proved crucial in achieving higher proficiency levels, raised students’ motivation to continue learning the TL, and enhanced their overall field readiness.

Between 2007 and 2008, the Research and Analysis Division conducted a study of the impact of four-week OCONUS immersion on students’ DLPT scores. The study randomly assigned students of same academic standing from the basic Arabic, Chinese, and Korean courses to an immersion group and a control group. The findings indicated that a greater percentage of students in the immersion group achieved 2/2/1+ and 2+/2+2. The immersion group also outperformed the control group in Listening Comprehension (LC), Reading Comprehension (RC), and Speaking (SP). A statistically significant effect was confirmed in LC. Consequently, the ILO has received increased funding to expand the OCONUS immersion program. In FY14, 60 OCONUS immersion-training events were executed for 550 students and cadre. In FY15, immersion events are projected to reach 72 for 690 participants.

As for the Iso-immersion, the first overnight event was conducted at the designated Immersion Facility of Fort Ord in April 2006. Since then, more than 30,000 students have had a chance to implement what they have learned in the classroom in simulated real-world scenarios. The UGE faculty has had a crucial role in this vital language training, as they role-play scenarios that are developed and updated by the schools’ curriculum development teams. Learning about the target language culture and reinforcing students’ speaking skills have always been the main objectives for Iso-immersion. Since 2008, more military-oriented scenarios have been introduced and utilized in order to help students prepare for their future jobs.

**Editor:** DLJ students are exposed to the target language and culture from the first day in the classroom. Some readers may wonder if there is any difference between the immersive learning in the classroom and an Iso-immersion event. What is your take on this?

**Mrs. Teague:** As its name indicates, Iso-immersion isolates students from an English-speaking environment. Students are required to use the TL exclusively and continuously for a longer period of time. Many of the UGE schools engage students in project-based learning during Iso-immersion. The complexity of a project takes more effort and time to complete. Without the 50-minute time constraint and the reliance on learning materials and teachers, students are required to solve problems independently by exploring, utilizing, and expanding their language ability.

**Editor:** What are the challenges for the Iso-immersion program?

**Mrs. Teague:** The main challenge is to make the training as real as possible. Developing and updating current and relevant scenarios consume time and effort, but the UGE school faculty does an excellent job. In addition, Iso-immersion
requires both academic and logistic efforts on the part of each school. The Immersion Coordinators, in cooperation with the Academic Specialists and the teaching teams, design immersion activities that replicate real life and over see the execution of the activities that maximize students’ participation and learning.

*Editor:* As DLIFLC strives to meet the 2+/2+/2 graduation standard, Col. Chapman, the Commandant, has outlined an action plan to help students reach higher levels of proficiency. A core aspect of the plan is to enhance the immersion program by sending 50% of DLIFLC students to OCONUS immersions. How will your office meet the new mission requirement?

*Mrs. Teague:* Keeping up with the OCONUS program growth constitutes the main challenge. Establishing sound overseas training sites and responding to global political changes are constantly keeping us on our toes. Take the Russian immersion program as an example. Once the political situation in Ukraine became unstable, we took swift actions to move the immersion site to Latvia, which ensured the continuation of the Russian immersion.

Another challenge has to do with improving the programs delivered by the overseas host institutes. As the DLIFLC program requirements are rigorous, it sometimes takes time for the host institutes to respond to our unique program needs. In general, host institutions are more familiar with study-abroad programs for university students, which are usually longer, making the curriculum more relaxed and giving students more free time for independent study and travel. It requires communication, coordination, patience, and work to educate the host institutes to tailor their curriculum to suit the DLIFLC’s needs and to ensure that they deliver the academic excellence that we demand.

Despite all the academic and logistics challenges, our office is greatly rewarded by the success of the OCONUS program. An overwhelming number of students report that the immersion program has positively impacted their immediate proficiency gains. In addition, the experience has long-term benefits: students “fall in love with the culture,” and they often report having an epiphany of sorts – they realize that the language “actually works”.

*Editor:* Your office provides program support to hundreds of immersion training events a year. What are some of your best program management and program support practices?

*Mrs. Teague:* Good management hires and keeps productive employees and brings the best out of them. Our office always tries to bring in mission-driven, hard-working, detail-oriented professionals with excellent communication skills, who can function comfortably in the face of a multitude of deadlines and grey areas and with diverse clients. I believe that the key factor is to maintain a productive working environment.

As everyone may agree, when constantly chasing deadlines and dealing with red tape, stress can creep up on you. What works best for us is to know one another’s business in our daily operation. This practice is a key element for our
success and mission accomplishment. The ILO’s Immersion Specialists are ready to pitch in when needed. That’s the key to keeping immersion events on schedule.

Since the ILO’s staff work with many academic and logistics offices at the DLI, maintaining professional relations with them is a crucial element for mission accomplishment. We rely on the Schools’ academic support, Units’ military support, the Security Office, the Budget Office, the Transportation Office, and many others in our daily operation. We get all the support and then “run with it”. Our ILO team is able to deliver the results because we respect one another and believe in the mission. In the end, when we read students’ comments as simple as: “Thank you very much for the opportunity!” we believe more in what we do.

**Editor:** *What would make your team more efficient and successful?*

**Mrs. Teague:** At times the ILO is like a non-stop assembly line. If we could slow down a little and reflect, it would give us a chance to evaluate, brainstorm, analyze, and improve the program. Having periodic support from an independent Program Evaluation Team would definitely enhance the immersion program quality.

**Editor:** *Thank you for the interview. Are there any unique stories/characteristics of your team that you’d like to add?*

**Mrs. Teague:** Someone said: “The ILO is perceived by many as a duck floating on a calm lake. It looks so peaceful and undisturbed, but the little feet underneath rotate 100 miles per hour in order for the duck to float.” We enjoy what we do and are proud of what we have accomplished.
Quick Tips welcomes readers’ contributions. We are particularly interested in previously unpublished, novel or innovative, easy to follow ideas for use in the language classroom or in any aspect of foreign language teaching, such as technology tips, useful classroom activities, and learner training tips.

Let’s Talk

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Speaking a foreign language is considered the most challenging skill to master, because it requires integration of many subsystems – listening comprehension, quick vocabulary and grammar recall, clear pronunciation, controlling the relevance of the utterances and formality of speech. In other words, the learner’s brain has to invent, process, and produce language simultaneously. In a classroom setting, adult language learners at various stages experience discomfort and even anxiety at the thought of producing erroneous utterances and appearing “silly” in front of others. It falls on the teacher to create a friendly, learning-conducive environment in a speaking class. This paper will share some successfull activities that have been used in the authors’ speaking classes. The featured activities focus on subskills, such as grammar, vocabulary, and/or pronunciation, that influence the overall speaking proficiency.

Beginning Level

Speaking activities at the beginning level focus on vocabulary building:

Find the Differences

Two students work in a pair. Each has a version of a picture or drawing, but the two versions have some differences. Without showing their pictures to each other, they have to talk about their pictures to identify the differences. This activity works well for practicing descriptions of buildings and/or people.
Chatterboxes

The teacher says a short sentence, like “Ivan is a Russian.” Each student must add one detail to the sentence.

- Ivan is a Russian from Moscow.
- Ivan is a Russian from Moscow, but now he is in New York.
- Ivan is a Russian from Moscow, but now he is in New York, because he works there.
- Ivan is a Russian from Moscow, but now he is in New York, because he works there as a trainer.
- Ivan is a Russian from Moscow, but now he is in New York, because he works there as a trainer. He trains American military.
- etc.

Each student must add a new detail within 30 seconds or be eliminated.

Intermediate Level

Activities at the intermediate level target fluency and interaction.

The Selling Game

1. Gather a bag of products that students will have to sell to one another (the items should not have an immediate purchase appeal).
2. Divide the class into buyers and sellers.
3. Sellers pull one of the products from the bag.
4. Buyers and sellers mingle. Sellers try to interest buyers in purchasing their products. Sellers think of as many uses of the product as possible; buyers haggle over the price. The goal is for buyers to complete a purchase by the end of the game.
5. After making a sale, a seller records how much money has been made and moves on to the next buyer.
6. Close the market in 10 -15 minutes and have the students change roles.

Two-Minute Conversations

1. Students stand in two lines facing each other, making sure that everyone has a partner.
2. Students take a few minutes to discuss a topic listed on the handout. There is a different topic for every conversation, but each conversation starts with a phrase, “If I were a __________, I would be (a) ____________ because ____________.” (For example: If I were a drink I would be champagne, because I could be very bubbly and playful and fun. At the parties I would usually be the center of attention. I would be loud and giggly. Champagne is also an elegant drink.)
Likewise, I’d like to wear elegant dressy clothes. On the other hand, just like champagne, I could be flat and low on energy.)

3. After two minutes, students move one spot over to change partners. They then start a conversation on a different topic.

Topic Suggestions: shape, food, drink, color, car, animal, clothing, doctor, book, building, flavor, body of water, pizza, language …

Twenty Questions

This activity can be carried out in pairs, small groups, or by the whole class. Students take turns asking ONLY yes-no questions in an attempt to guess which word or object the teacher (or a designated student) is thinking of. The game is called Twenty Questions because one is allowed to ask a maximum of 20 questions. Typically, this game starts with the “guesser” asking if the object is an animal, vegetable, or mineral. This helps narrow the possibilities to those that can be guessed within 20 questions. If a student gets a yes answer, he or she can ask another question. Only specific guesses can be made, such as “Is it a cat?” If the answer is no, the information is certainly useful but the turn passes to the next student. The student who guesses the word receives one point.

Example:
Teacher: (thinks of an object, but does NOT say it: “diamond”)
Student 1: Here is the first question: Can you eat it?
Teacher: No.
Student 2: Is it alive? …..

Advanced Level

Activities for the advanced level focus on developing students’ spontaneous speaking skills.

Radio News

(Requires a minimum of three people.)

1. Students come to class with a memorized news item, which may be from their previous day’s homework assignment.
2. Form a group of three or more. Two students leave the group to work in a separate area.
3. Student 1 tells his or her news to Student 2. Student 2 cannot ask any clarification questions, as if listening to a “radio.”
4. Student 1 returns to the group after relating the news item. Student 3 leaves the classroom to join Student 2.
5. Student 2 retells Student 1’s news. Again, Student 3 cannot ask questions.
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6. Student 2 returns to the classroom. Student 4 joins Student 3. If there are more students in the group, they take turns leaving the classroom to listen to Student 1’s news.

7. Student 1 and the last student who listens to the news tell the first and the final version of the news in the group.

8. Everyone compares the accuracy of the first and the last versions.

Speak Well and Win

This activity utilizes a standard deck of playing cards to distribute speaking tasks to students (Note: This game uses cards 6 through Ace, because many Russian card games do not use cards 2 through 5). Seat students in a circle and draw the top card from the deck and hand it to the first player. The player looks at the card and says, “I have the queen of hearts.” Consult the list of speaking activities (see below), which tells the student what to do.

Other students vote on the speaker’s performance with their eyes closed as follows: Thumbs up = 5 points (excellent); Thumbs in = 3 points (good); Thumbs down = 1 point (so-so). Suggest students use the following criteria for judging: use of language (quantity and quality), content, pace, pronunciation, etc.

Record each student’s score. If a student draws a Joker, he or she gets 10 points (the points are awarded just for drawing that card). The student with the highest score after all the cards have been played is the winner.

List of Speaking Activities

**Spades**

Ace   Describe the clothing of another person.
King  Describe an orange.
Queen Describe the room in which this game is being played.
Jack  Describe what you had for lunch yesterday.
Ten   Describe your family.
Nine  Explain why you study Russian.
Eight Say what you would do if you found $10,000 in cash.
Seven Describe your ideal mate.
Six   Tell how you spent your last weekend.

**Hearts**

Ace   Tell the most frightening experience you’ve ever had.
King  Describe the neighborhood where you lived back home.
Queen Which person do you admire the most, and why?
Jack  Describe the best time you’ve ever had in your life.
Ten   Tell one thing you’d like to change in your country.
Nine  Explain the difference between weather and climate.
Eight Tell what kind of work you want to do for a living.
Seven Name your favorite sport and explain why you like it.
Six   Name your favorite television show and explain why you like it.
Diamonds
Ace Name a person you would like to meet, and why.
King Name your favorite season, and explain why.
Queen Describe the difference between an elephant and a cat.
Jack Give the steps in opening a bank account.
Ten Describe your most interesting trip.
Nine Describe what you are going to do on your graduation day.
Eight Give walking directions to the nearest gas station.
Seven Give the steps to rent an apartment in the U.S.
Six Give driving directions to Target in Sand City.

Clubs
Ace Describe in detail your favorite animal.
King Name your favorite holiday and explain why.
Queen If you could take a trip to any place, where would you go?
Jack Which animal do you think makes the best pet? Why?
Ten Which would you rather be: a symphony orchestra conductor, a lawyer, a doctor, or a movie actor?
Nine When you attend a college, is it better to live in a dormitory or rent a room?
Eight If you could chose to be a blond or a brunette, which would you pick and why?
Seven If you were the President of the U.S., would you legalize marijuana? Why or why not?
Six If you were the Secretary of Defense, would you allow women to serve in a combat zone? Why or why not?

The activities we have shared in this article are student-centered and highly interactive. They require minimum preparation from a teacher. We hope that these activities will help teachers make speaking classes more engaging, productive, and successful.
Six OPI Testing Skills Transferrable to Classroom Teaching

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Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI) testers know that teaching behavior during the OPI can render the test sample unratable. However, some skills that OPI testers use to elicit students’ speech are nonetheless useful in classroom teaching. I have used the following six skills in language instruction.

Skill 1: Acting “innocent”
In OPI, the tester often acts innocent or unknowledgeable to elicit more information from the interviewee. In a language classroom, the adult students have both the desire and the capability to teach the instructor and their peers. By acting innocent, teachers can significantly motivate students to share what they know by using the target language. This skill also helps to create a student-centered classroom environment.

Skill 2: Using prelude questions
When a student consistently produces language at a lower level than what he or she is capable of – teachers are sometimes more aware of students’ capability, teachers need to guide and push student to use more complex and extensive language skills. Prelude questions offer a context in which students can explore a topic more deeply because the teacher can use these questions to clarify the intended focus and/or desired details.

Skill 3: Spiraling up lesson plans
During the OPI, the tester will spiral up question difficulty in order to determine the interviewee’s language proficiency ceiling. In the classroom, the teacher can spiral up exercises or tasks. In the larger curricular context, a teacher can also do this with teaching materials.

Skill 4: Emphasizing four areas
The OPI test evaluates function, content, accuracy, and text type. When the tester assigns a level to an interviewee, that person must satisfy all four areas of that level. In the language classroom, the teacher should also emphasize all four areas. Focusing on one language aspect, such as vocabulary, while neglecting text type, function, or grammar will hinder students’ advancement in language proficiency to a higher level.
Skill 5: Using the “triple punch”

In the OPI, the “first punch” refers to how the tester elicits an opinion. After the interviewee states his or her opinion, the tester continues with the “second punch” – acting as a devil’s advocate to raise an opposing position, and asking the interviewee to refute it. If the interviewee meets the tester’s expectations, the tester then gives the “third punch,” a hypothetical question about the topic under discussion. In the language classroom, a teacher can also employ this “triple punch” strategy to stimulate students’ interests and motivation, creating a communicative classroom by encouraging meaningful interactions.

Skill 6: Including a wind-down

OPI testers know the importance of both warm-up and wind-down. In a language classroom, most teachers understand the value of a warm-up, but overlook the benefit of a wind-down. A successful wind-down in the OPI test gives the interviewee a sense of accomplishment and allows the interview to end on a positive note. A wind-down serves the same purpose in a language classroom for our task-oriented students.

Helping Global and Particular Learners Reach Balance through Pre-reading Strategies

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To provide learners with repertoire of strategies and to design effective lesson plans, both students and teachers must first discover students’ learning preferences. It is common knowledge that global learners are good at pursuing the big idea, whereas the particular learner’s strong suit is attention to detail. Subsequently, global learners’ strength is particular learners’ weakness, and vice versa. The goal is to help students find a balance whereby they can arrive at the main idea, while providing essential details embedded in the text. The following demonstrates a way to help students reach this balance through two pre-reading strategies – skimming and scanning (see Appendix A). These strategies make students aware that they can draw meaning from a text even when they do not know all the words and/or grammar.

Skimming enables students to preview the text. This learner-centered activity allows students to discover the big picture through:

- Reading the title, subtitle, and subheadings
- Reading the first sentence of each paragraph
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- Reading the last sentence of the entire text
- Identifying the keywords which often provides the “who”, “when”, “where”, and “what”

This is a 2-3 minute activity. Because global learners are more comfortable with finding the main idea, at the beginning of the course teachers can encourage them to utilize the skimming strategy.

Conversely, scanning assists students to locate specific information. The particular learners can exercise their strength and extract detail information by using the scanning method. The process of scanning includes:

- Establishing the purpose of the scanning (What am I looking for?)
- Keeping the concept of keywords in mind while scanning (who, when, where, and what)
- Looking only for specific facts or information
- Permitting students to overlook some words (scanning for specific information and not reading an entire paragraph)

For example, if students need to know when an accident took place (establishing the purpose), they will scan the text to find the date and/or the time of the accident (keeping the concept of keywords in mind). The scanning technique will also help learners to tolerate ambiguities by overlooking some unknown words; hence, an increase their reading speed.

As students progress through the program, they must exert themselves to move out of their comfort zone (Leave, 1997). This means switching roles (Appendix B). During the reading session, the global learner will be paired with the particular learner. The global learner’s task is to provide detail information by using the scanning technique, whereas the particular learner relays the big picture through the use of skimming. Finally, in the last semester, learners achieve the desired balance when they combine the skimming and scanning strategies before reading to answer both the global and detail questions.
Inspired by He (2006).
APPENDIX B

Switching Roles

**Global Learner (Scanning)**
- Establishing the purpose of the scanning (What am I looking for?)
- Keeping the concept of key words in mind while scanning
- Looking only for specific facts or information
- Permitting to overlook some words

**Particular Learner (Skimming)**
- Reading the title, subtitle, and subheadings
- Reading the first sentence of each paragraph
- Reading the last sentence of the entire text
- Identifying the key words

REFERENCES

TECHNOLOGY RESOURCES

Technology Resources welcomes readers’ contributions. We are interested in brief write-ups on resources related to the foreign language education field, including hardware and software, websites, computer and mobile apps, on-line training, etc.

Collaborative Learning with the iPad – BaiBoard

SONIA ESTIMA  
European & Latin American School, Undergraduate Education  
EDGAR ROCA  
Faculty Development Support, Academic Support

Features of BaiBoard

An abundance of collaboration tools are available now, such as Dropbox, Evernote, and Google Drive, that allow users to collaborate and edit various kinds of documents, but they lack any sort of drawing and whiteboard tools. That is where BaiBoard comes in.

BaiBoard is a free virtual whiteboard app that allows students to make multi-page whiteboards while working with others, in-person or remotely; it allows teachers and students to connect and share content with one another.

To participate, students download the app for free from the iTunes App Store. The teacher or the students themselves then simply create a board and start adding content, guided by the easy-to-understand icons at the top of the board. After creating the board, they can send invites to others who can then join in and view, add their comments, make changes to the board, or annotate the PDF documents.

Multiple users can work on a board simultaneously, communicating with one another via an in-app instant message feature. What one person writes automatically appears on the other participants’ screen (see Figure 1).
With BaiBoard, users can insert text, drawings, images, maps, and PDF documents. The images and documents can be annotated using BaiBoard’s drawing tools and be customized using a variety of colors and line thicknesses. It is easy to import PDFs, images, and documents from users’ photo albums, the Internet, or from Dropbox or Evernote.

BaiBoard allows multiple iPads to connect to the same space. There is also the ability to save snapshots of your work at any given moment, and the option to share a URL for others to view the progress even if they do not have an iPad. Boards can also be watch only if required. BaiBoard’s well-designed whiteboard includes instantly recognizable icons that make it easy to create pages (see Figure 2).
Activity Ideas for the Classroom

1. Teachers can assign students to create a multi-page whiteboard that includes text and images in response to a question, a topic, or other prompts. Students can collaborate to create the content using this app and then present it to the class. During the presentation, students can explain the meaning behind the text and images.

2. It can also be used for classroom projects. Students can collaborate even when they are not together in class. When groups are ready to present, they can do so using the web-sharing feature. This will allow every student to see the content of the group's board. Each group’s board can be saved for later use and/or shared on a classroom website. The teacher can also provide feedback to student work via the board.

3. In response to a text or other materials, teachers can have students collaborate on a whiteboard by adding their thoughts. Students and teachers can watch the whiteboard come alive.

4. To teach vocabulary, teachers can show students a word and have them respond to it by using this app to complete a graphic organizer, add images, sentences, or short stories created in groups.

5. As part of a fill-in the blanks activity, teachers can have students import a text that has been previously saved as a PDF into this app. As students read the PDF, they can make annotations by drawing boxes around key ideas, underlining supporting details, and circling key vocabulary word.

Research has shown that using collaborative learning in the classroom has positive effects on academic achievement. BaiBoard encourages students to reach out to each other, solve problems together, and share knowledge. In this way, it fosters deeper learning and understanding. Collaborative learning is one of the most powerful tools teachers have in providing the level of engagement and academic and social support their students need to be successful in their language learning process and to reach the new goal of 2+/2+/2. In short, you get an amazing amount of learning through this free app. If you have not yet done so, you should try it!
Weekly Schedule Creator for Team Leaders

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As a teacher and a mathematician, I have developed the Weekly Schedule Creator (AutoWSC), an Excel application, with the Visual Basic (VB) program codes. AutoWSC not only allows weekly schedules to be created in minutes with optimal accuracy, but also ensures an even distribution of teachers’ workload. In addition to its automatic creation function, it also allows users to create a schedule manually.

AutoWSC can handle various dimensions of the schedule’s array – number of teachers, sections, and class hours. It also monitors and calculates teachers’ teaching load, builds statistical charts, and prepares weekly CTAR reports. The application has some user-friendly features, such as warning the user about erroneous data input, clearing data from all active fields with one click, and viewing workload distribution through charts. Users can easily access help; instructions on how to use the application (in the upper left corner of the title page) appear as the cursor approaches them.

Instructions for Using AutoWSC

Step 1
Open the Excel file. Click Enable Editing and Enable Content when prompted.

Step 2
Enter the general data for the schedule: instructors’ names, date, class data, semester data (from the pull-down menu), and so on.

Step 3
Select HL from the pull-down menu (under the header) to exclude holidays. Class periods for these days will automatically become empty. Enter types of lessons. When using the auto option, all unmarked lessons will be treated as a regular class (RC).

Step 4
Mark instructors’ unavailability by the hour or by the day to remove them from the schedule. Select reasons of absence from a pull-down menu under the header (AN-annual leave, SL-sick leave, OPI, or Oth-other).

Step 5
After entering all data, with the Auto option:
1) Click Clear.
2) Click Auto and wait 30-45 seconds for the calculation to complete.
3) Check the distribution of class periods through the created printing forms: sheet 1, sheet 1a, and Charts 1, 2, and 3.
4) Make additional changes by using the pull-down menu and prompts.
5) Click Print Scd1 or Print Scd2 for the type of schedule you need.
6) Click CTAR for the weekly CTAR report.
7) Click Archive to generate a new weekly schedule as an Excel file. The file will appear under the taskbar (usually named as “Book#”). You can rename and save it.
8) Close AutoWSC.

If you use the Manual option, the pull-down menu, prompts and colored cells make it easy for your task.

- Green cells – class periods are taken.
- Red cells – two or more teachers are scheduled for the same class period.
- Brown cells – one teacher has been assigned to more than one class period in the same time block.
- White cells – cancelled classes.

If you are interested in using AutoWSC, I will be happy to assist you (email: rakhmat.abdukarimov@dliflc.edu).

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The author expresses his deep gratitude to Dr. Vatche Ghazarian for his support in the development and promotion of this application.
UPCOMING EVENTS

2015

JUNE


JULY

July 8-11 American Association of Teachers of French (AATF), Saguenay, Quebec, Canada. Information: www.frenchteachers.org.

NOVEMBER


2016

JANUARY


January 7-10 Modern Language Association (MLA) Convention, Austin, TX. Information: www.mla.org/convention.

January 7-10 American Association of Teachers of Slavic and East European Languages (AATSEEL), Austin, TX. Information: www.aatseel.org.

FEBRUARY

February 15-16 18th International Conference on Linguistics, Language Teaching and Learning, Barcelona, Spain. Information: www.waset.org/conference/2016/02/barcelona/ICLLTL


MARCH

March 10-12 Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (CSCTFL), Columbus, OH. Information: www.csctfl.org.

APRIL

April 5-8 Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) International Convention, Baltimore, MD. Information: www.tesol.org.


MAY

May 29 – June 3 NAFSA: Association of International Educators Annual Conference and Expo, Denver, CO. Information: www.nafsa.org.
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 for research articles (not including reference, appendix, etc.);
- Use double spacing, with margins of one inch on four sides;
- Use Times New Roman font, size 12;
- Number pages consecutively;
- In black and white only, including tables and graphics;
- Create graphics and tables in a Microsoft Office application (Word, PowerPoint, Excel);
- Provide graphics and tables no more than 4.5” in width;
- Do not use the footnotes and endnotes function in MS Word. Insert a number formatted in superscript following a punctuation mark. Type notes on a separate page. Center the word “Notes” at the top of the page. Indent five spaces on the first line of each sequentially-numbered note; and
- Keep the layout of the text as simple as possible.
Submission Requirement

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

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

Review Process

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

*Accepted Manuscripts:* Once an article has been accepted for publication, the author will receive further instructions regarding the submission of the final copy.

*Rejected Manuscripts:* Manuscripts may be rejected for the following reasons:

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

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

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

Correspondence

Send all inquiries and editorial correspondence by email to the Editor: jiaying.howard@dliflc.edu.
Guidelines for Manuscript Preparation

First, decide for which column you would like to write: Research Articles, Review Articles, Reviews, Faculty Forum, News and Views, Quick Tips, or Resources. Refer to the following pages for the specific requirement of each type of article.

Research Articles

Divide your manuscript into the following sections, and in this order:
1. Title and Author Information
2. Abstract
3. Body of the text, including:
   • Acknowledgements (optional)
   • Notes (optional)
   • References
   • Tables and figures (optional)
   • Appendixes (optional)

Ensure that your article has the following structure:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cover Page</th>
<th>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:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>Foster Learner Autonomy in Project-based Learning</td>
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<td>Persian-Farsi School, UGE</td>
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<td><a href="mailto:jane.doe@dliflc.edu">jane.doe@dliflc.edu</a></td>
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<td>831-242-3333</td>
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<tr>
<td>Abstract</td>
<td>Briefly state the purpose of the study, the principal results, and major conclusions in a concise and factual abstract of no more than 300 words.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>State the objectives, hypothesis, and research design. Provide adequate background information, but avoid a detailed literature survey or a summary of the results.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literature Review</td>
<td>Discuss the work that has had a direct impact on your study. Cite only research pertinent to a specific issue and avoid references with only tangential or general significance. Emphasize pertinent findings and relevant methodological issues. Provide the logical continuity between previous and present work.</td>
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</table>
| **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. |
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<tr>
<td><strong>Results</strong></td>
<td>State the results and describe them to justify the findings. Mention all relevant results, including those that run counter to the hypothesis.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Discussion</strong></td>
<td>Explore the significance of the results of the work, but do not repeat them. A combined Results and Discussion section is often appropriate. Avoid extensive citations and discussion of published literature.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Conclusion</strong></td>
<td>Describe the contribution of the study to the field. Identify conclusions and theoretical implications that can be drawn from your study. Do not simply repeat earlier sections.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Acknowledgements</strong></td>
<td>Identify those colleagues who may have contributed to the study and assisted you in preparing the manuscript.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Notes</strong></td>
<td>Use sparingly. Number them consecutively throughout the article. They should be listed on a separate page, which is to be entitled Notes.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| **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:  


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 1,000 words.
Quick Tips

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

Resources

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

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

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

For guidelines in the preparation of your manuscript, please refer to the previous section (pp. 104-109): *Information for Contributors.*
THANK YOU

_Dialog on Language Instruction_ relies on peer expert review for quality and suitability to the journal’s aims and scope. The editor expresses her sincere thanks to these generous colleagues listed below, who volunteered their time to serve as reviewers, consultants, and proofreaders of the current issue. Without their effort and expertise, the publication of _Dialog on Language Instruction_ would not be possible.

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