

DEFENSE LANGUAGE INSTITUTE
FOREIGN LANGUAGE CENTER
ANNUAL COMMAND HISTORY

(RCS CSHIS-6 [R3])

1 January - 31 December 1988

by

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Command Historian

October 1990

Presidio of Monterey, California



DEFENSE LANGUAGE INSTITUTE
FOREIGN LANGUAGE CENTER

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REPLY TO
ATTENTION OF:

ATFL-MH (870-5c)

15 October 1990

MEMORANDUM FOR: SEE DISTRIBUTION

SUBJECT: 1988 DLIFLC Annual Command History

1. "If we are to create the kind of Army this country will require in the 1990s and beyond," according to Army Chief of Staff General Carl E. Vuono, "we must understand very well the lessons of our history, and we must properly apply these lessons to the challenges we confront." The enclosed DLIFLC annual command history for 1988 is published with this intent for all those concerned about the past, present, and future of the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center and the Defense Foreign Language Program.

2. Many of the initiatives that began during 1988, such as Russian-language training to support the On-Site Inspection Agency, the 2/2 graduation requirement, and final learning objectives are now, two years later, still bearing fruit. The year also brought us ATRRS and EIDS, the Information Systems Plan and new buildings, the ACTFL conference and a change of command.

3. The DLIFLC Command Historian, Dr. James C. McNaughton, has described these and many other key events of the year from his personal historical perspective. The final word will probably never be written on some of the events, but enough time has passed for an interim assessment. One conclusion is clear: all those who contributed to the achievements of that event-filled year, especially the remarkable increase in student proficiency, can be justly proud of their efforts. We must continue to build upon the historical strengths of the Institute as we look towards an exciting future.

A handwritten signature in cursive script, reading "Donald C. Fischer, Jr.", is positioned above the typed name and title.

Encl

DONALD C. FISCHER, Jr.
Colonel, USA
Commandant

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Preface

A visitor to the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center in 1988 would have been astonished at a decade's worth of change. He would have seen more students, more instructors, and more than a dozen new buildings. If he had looked inside those buildings, he would have seen a better student-teacher ratio, the spread of team teaching, and the growing use of computers. Student proficiency was on the rise, as measured by a new generation of tests. A survey of the events of just one year could hardly do justice to all the facets of the institute's transformation.

If the visitor had stayed for the whole year, he might have learned much about those long-term trends, and much else besides. He would also have been witness to many unexpected events, such as the sudden call for the institute to train dozens of Russian-language interpreters, or the abrupt dismissal of the commandant. Even these would have been instructive about the institute and the agencies it tried to serve. He would have come away filled with new respect for the institute and its staff, but also a new sense of the limits of the possible.

I have been given such an opportunity to observe these changes, and the following annual command history is my personal report on what I saw and heard during that event-filled year. The report is necessarily a personal one, but I have tried to be a good listener. Much of what I have written is a direct result of the efforts of many people on the institute staff, high and low, to explain what was "really" going on. I appreciate their efforts to help me sort out the important from the less so. My thanks also go to those who took the time to review earlier drafts of this work.

James C. McNaughton
Presidio of Monterey, California
October, 1990

Chapter One

The Defense Foreign Language Program

in 1988

Since 1945 the American military has faced many challenges, including two costly wars and the long-term burdens of nuclear deterrence, supporting our allies, and gathering vital intelligence. A foreign language capability was essential for all of these, and since 1963 the Department of Defense has operated the Defense Foreign Language Program (DFLP) to meet this requirement. The system was designed to have two main components: basic language training at the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) at the Presidio of Monterey, California, and language maintenance training in autonomous command language programs world-wide.

The system can be briefly described: young men and women from across the country are recruited into one of the services, and after attending basic training, they are sent for basic language training, followed by technical training for their specific job assignments, mostly in intelligence fields. In recent years roughly 4,000 young people each year have followed this route. They then proceed to their initial duty assignments, where they serve for two or three years as apprentice military linguists. At this point over half of them then return to civilian life, taking their language skills with them. According to one study the Department of Defense "currently must retrain almost the entire 'linguist' force every three to five years."¹ At DLIFLC these one-time military linguists were sometimes referred to cynically as "disposable linguists." Of those who do remain in the services, many do not use their language skills in subsequent assignments.

Not all of the personnel given language training by the services were initial-entry-training personnel. Cadets and midshipmen at the service academies learned foreign languages, and some officers and noncommissioned officers were taught at DLIFLC in preparation for specific assignments, such as Army foreign area officers. But the main thrust of the DFLP was to give basic language training to first-term enlisted personnel.

Over the years this system had proven adequate to meet most of the demands placed upon it. In the 1960s it was called upon to conduct large-scale Vietnamese language training during the Vietnam War, when it taught courses of varying lengths to over 20,000 military personnel (compared to only 6,000 trained by the Army in Japanese during World War II).

Meeting the INF Challenge

Despite its past successes, the system was not free of problems, which were brought to light in 1988 by a new challenge: providing Russian-language interpreters for arms control verification with the Soviet Union. The mission was critical to the evolving relationship between the nuclear superpowers, and the effort was ultimately a success. But it revealed that the system was unprepared for the new demands that were placed upon it.



The Cost of Freedom: Sherri Price speaking in January 1989 at the dedication of the Price Fitness Center to the memory of her husband, CT13 Patrick R. Price, USN, a graduate of the Russian basic course killed in an aircraft accident in the Eastern Mediterranean in 1987 while on an operational mission. In the background are Colonel Ronald I. Cowger, USAF, DLIFLC Acting Commandant, and other members of the Price family.

In December 1987 Soviet Premier Mikhail Gorbachev and US President Ronald Reagan signed the first-ever arms control treaty to deal with the problem of intermediate-range nuclear forces (INF), a particularly destabilizing category of weapon first introduced into Europe by the Soviets in 1977 (the SS-20) and the United States in 1983 (cruise missiles and the Pershing II). The INF Treaty was pathbreaking in another way as well, in calling for on-site verification of the elimination of these weapons wherever they were produced or stored. The two world leaders were eager to get started: the first inspections were set to begin July 1, 1988, barely six months after the signing of the treaty.²

The mission of treaty verification was given to the Department of Defense, which quickly established the On-Site Inspection Agency (OSIA), headed by Brigadier General Roland Lajoie, USA, a former defense attache to France and head of the US Military Liaison Mission to the Soviet forces in East Germany. In the weeks that followed, he worked feverishly with a hand-picked inter-agency staff to build a new On-Site Inspection Agency (OSIA). The agency had the mission of conducting the inspections in Eastern Europe and the Soviet Union as well as escorting Soviet inspection teams in the

United States and Western Europe. One of the most intractable missions facing the agency was finding "sufficient linguists of adequate capability," while causing only "minimal impact on other existing Department of Defense (DoD) missions."³ Lajoie himself was no stranger to the Defense Language Institute, having spoken at the dedication ceremony for Nicholson Hall in the spring of 1987. Based on his staff's plans for the number of inspection teams required, they arrived at an estimate of only sixty-eight linguists.

At first glance this would not seem to be a difficult requirement to meet. Russian was by far the most frequently taught language at DLIFLC, and the one in which the services had the largest number of trained personnel. Yet when the call went out to gather the services' best Russian linguists, the results were disappointing. Their numbers were few, and their skills were less than desired. Most were already filling critical jobs in the various intelligence agencies, such as the National Security Agency, the Defense Intelligence Agency, and the separate service intelligence commands, who were reluctant to give them up.

The OSIA mission was eventually accomplished, with much hard work by many people. (The DLIFLC contribution is described in more detail in Chapter Three.) In the end a sufficient number of military interpreter/translators were identified and given the necessary additional training in time for the baseline inspections that began on July 1, 1988, when Lajoie led the first US team into the Soviet Union, and the first Soviet inspection teams arrived at Travis Air Force Base, California. Yet the difficulties the services encountered in identifying a few dozen highly qualified Russian linguists from their ranks can serve as a case study in unpreparedness.

The Department of Defense had few alternatives. There was general agreement that the US should not have to rely on English-speaking Soviet escorts for such sensitive assignments. There was no other pool of government or academic linguists available to meet the requirement. And even if others were available, responsibility for compliance verification of arms control agreements belonged most properly to the Department of Defense. Some qualified reservists were available to be called to active duty, but this was clearly a stopgap. For a brief time some staff officers even considered using civilian contractors. In fact OSIA turned to a US contract firm to provide technical inspectors at the SS-20 missile assembly plant at Votkinsk in the Ural Mountains. But in the end, contractors were not considered appropriate for--nor were they probably capable of--providing linguists for the official inspection and escort teams.

The INF mission caught the services unprepared for one main reason, deeply rooted within their organizational cultures. The new requirements were thrust upon a system that in general was based upon established (or slowly changing) requirements and a static (or slowly changing) force structure. Years of careful and efficient management and budgeting had left the services, and particularly the intelligence agencies, with little flexibility to meet unexpected contingency requirements. The problems within the DFLP that this new challenge revealed were nothing new. They were the result of administrative decisions and organizational routines that had built up within the Department of Defense and the individual services over decades of manning the peacetime force structure.

More specifically, the problem of finding adequate Russian linguists had two aspects: quantity and quality. First, the services simply had an insuf-

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ficient quantity of language-qualified personnel. Although they estimated that they had about 15,000 linguists in all languages, they did not have a firm handle on who they were or where they were assigned. For example, the DLIFLC Washington Office had to search manually through years of old class rosters to pull out the names of all officers who had ever studied Russian while training for attache duty. Later that spring the Army staff office responsible for the DFLP directed the services to conduct a complete inventory of all their linguists and a "scrub" of all linguist billets, but this was expected to take over a year to complete.

More was involved than locating the right individuals. The numbers were just not there. In the ten years before 1988, more than 8,000 servicemen and women had graduated from the Russian Basic Course at DLIFLC, but less than half that number were still to be found in uniform. OSIA originally asked for officers, but found that the bulk of the services' Russian linguists were too junior for the job. The DLIFLC commandant, Colonel Todd Robert Poch, USA, later commented, "With all the thousands of students we have produced at DLI in Russian, the fact that in a critical national emergency we identified thirty who were competent to do this task has to be an indictment of the first order."⁴

Those who were identified could not be easily spared from their current assignments. The personnel policies and overall training strategies of the services were geared toward filling a fixed number of permanent billets. Any one linguist stripped out of an existing assignment left that function uncovered, and the services were already stretched thin to cover their regular requirements. The only effective long range strategy would be an increase in permanent linguist billets. Even then, new personnel would have to be recruited and trained to fill them, a process that would take years.

The call for linguists went against the grain in another way as well. There was a distinct reluctance by intelligence agencies to allow their career intelligence specialists to make extended trips behind the Iron Curtain. The prevailing philosophy for counterintelligence within the US intelligence community relied on minimizing contacts between personnel occupying sensitive positions and Soviet bloc citizens. Yet the very individuals who were best qualified for treaty verification duties were often those who had spent their entire careers in intelligence.

The numbers required for INF Treaty verification were small, at least at first. But similar problems existed across the board in other languages. The services and the intelligence agencies simply did not have enough linguists to cover their existing peacetime requirements, let alone unexpected contingency missions. Yet everyone involved in the process knew that the INF Treaty was probably only the first in what might become a string of new arms control agreements over the next few years, as the Cold War showed signs of thawing. Conventional arms control would require many times more interpreter/-translators, and in several other East European languages besides Russian.

The second and more troublesome problem was the skill levels of the linguists the services did have. In fact, the term "linguist" was misleading, since most service personnel who were called that were not very adept at communicating in a foreign language. Their skills had atrophied from lack of use, or at best they had maintained only their reading and listening skills, not the "productive skills" of speaking or writing. OSIA's statement of skill requirements, issued in March 1988, clearly called for the active skills of speaking and writing, not the passive ones of reading and listening,

acknowledging that "this stress diverges from, and in part contradicts, common practice in the SIGINT community, which represents the single largest pool of trained linguists in the services."⁵ When DLIFLC conducted oral testing by telephone in January and February 1988, of one hundred fourteen Russian linguists tested, only twelve were rated at Level 3 or higher in speaking on the Interagency Language Roundtable (ILR) scale, or "general professional proficiency."

The urgent search for Russian speakers also uncovered the fact that linguists were poorly managed throughout their careers. They seldom received repetitive assignments to positions where they could progressively improve their skills. The services had laboriously built up a costly system that relied on massive input at the apprentice level, but resulted in only a small cadre of higher-level linguists with the requisite skills. The services were aware of the problem, but were hard pressed to find solutions that worked. One such effort, proficiency pay for linguists, had begun in 1987, and it offered \$25 to \$100 per month for linguists who maintained their proficiency.

The fact was that developing a truly proficient linguist took many years of training and on-the-job experience, preferably in the country where the language was spoken. Short-term training courses might serve as general orientations for personnel headed for overseas assignments, but the training time to reach the level necessary for effective communication in most military situations was measured in years, even in the most intensive training environment.

During 1988 the leaders of the DFLP and their staffs redoubled their efforts to make the system work smoothly. The effort to locate a few dozen expert Russian linguists in their ranks brought numerous problems to light. Although in-country training opportunities for Russian linguists were rare, it was by far the most frequently-trained foreign language in the services' inventories. These difficulties were certainly a bad omen for future requirements in other less-commonly-taught languages. In fact, America's national security called for capabilities in dozens of other languages, from Farsi to Korean, few of which were readily available among the civilian population or were commonly taught at civilian universities. Looming on the horizon were other requirements, stemming from future superpower arms control agreements and instability in Europe, Asia, and the Middle East. Conventional arms reductions in Europe alone could result in the need for hundreds of linguists. The example of the INF requirements revealed that there was still much to be done. The system responded to meet the requirement in 1988, but service assets were stretched dangerously thin.

Meeting the Command Language Program Challenge

Commanders in the field and their staffs hardly needed to be reminded of these problems. Responsibility for maintaining and enhancing the skills of the linguists after they graduated from DLIFLC fell on their shoulders, and in the 1980s the scope of the problem was greater than ever. The Army in particular, beginning in the late 1970s, had boosted its linguist requirements for the Intelligence and Security Command and its tactical intelligence force structure. In the early 1980s the Air Force saw a three-year surge in Russian language training, causing DLIFLC to open a Russian language branch at Lackland Air Force Base, Texas, and in 1980 the Air Force Intelligence

Agency launched a program of Air Force Reserve linguist detachments. Strategic requirements also grew rapidly in the early 1980s as a result of an overall growth in the national foreign intelligence budget. These changes led to a proliferation of separate programs in the field to "fix the linguist problem," with varied degrees of success.

The National Security Agency (NSA), the single largest user of military linguists, was also worried about these deficiencies. The Cryptologic Training Manager, NSA's chief trainer, bluntly told the other members of the DFLP General Officer Steering Committee (GOSC) in January 1988 that they could "no longer afford simply to tailor requirements to fit what the linguist is capable of doing."⁶ The following year he remarked in a message to the field that "the generally low level of language proficiency of military linguists has, for some time, been one of my deepest concerns."⁷ He conducted an extensive program in 1988 to upgrade the language skills of military linguists in all four service cryptologic agencies. The Army Intelligence and Security Command (INSCOM) continued to conduct intermediate and refresher training in Russian, German, Czech, and Polish at the Foreign Language Training Center-Europe (FLTCE) in Munich.

Non-cryptologic users of military linguists expressed similar concerns. For example, in December 1988, Colonel Wesley A. Groesbeck, the assistant chief of staff, G-5 (civil affairs) for the Third US Army, the ground component of US Central Command, published a wide-ranging critique of the system that summed up many of the frustrations of the field. "Those of us in the US Army who are managing linguists," he wrote, "and attempting to discover solutions to the myriad issues surrounding the Army's Foreign Language Program (AFLP) find it a difficult challenge. At times we wonder if the issues with which we are dealing are so big and complicated that we are unable to make a difference regardless of how hard we try."⁸

Some of his complaints focused on the overall management of the system. The program, he wrote, was "fragmented and lacks central direction." The Army Staff had not done its homework by developing a "clear picture of the total Army linguist requirement to support major war plans." Army language managers were "generally concerned" with only military intelligence linguists, to the neglect of other requirements in Special Forces, civil affairs, and other specialities. A portion of the blame, he felt, also belonged to unit commanders who did not provide "command emphasis," and failed to integrate linguists into field training exercises, include linguists in their war plans, or keep trained linguists in the service past their initial enlistments.

A flood of letters in subsequent issues echoed his complaints. With these kinds of frustrations in the field, it is not surprising that special programs proliferated, as commanders and their staffs scrambled to make up for the shortcomings of established programs. Groesbeck described an innovative program run by I Corps at Fort Lewis, Washington, which exposed special forces and military intelligence soldiers to contractor-taught four-week refresher/maintenance and twelve-week "survival" courses. His frustration with the Army's established channels for resident basic language training was summarized by his recommendation that the Army "find alternatives to the DLIFLC to accommodate the wants and needs of the active and reserve components."

According to Groesbeck, DLIFLC had failed to adequately fund its nonresident training program, which was essential to supporting linguists in

the field. In fact, the institute had long since come to the same conclusion. Its nonresident master plan, drafted in 1986, had still not been implemented two years later. Nonresident training materials, which had been allowed to go out of print in 1986 and 1987 as the institute weathered budget problems of its own, were gradually restocked, but little new course development was underway. Few mobile training teams from DLIFLC visited units in the field due to lack of travel funds. In this environment, it is not surprising that major commands and isolated units in the field resorted to their own expedients to "fix" their language problems. For example, the US Army-Europe (USAR-EUR) provided some language training through the Army Continuing Education System (ACES), and Forces Command (FORSCOM) contracted classes with Brigham Young University in Utah. In January 1988 the Army language program manager in the Office of the Deputy Chief of Staff for Intelligence convened a language training managers workshop for all Army major commands. There the staff officers involved in language training worldwide shared lessons-learned and laid the groundwork for even more cooperative training efforts hoped for in the future.⁹

The Army's 1st Special Operations Command in Fort Bragg, North Carolina, continued to rely on language training provided through the John F. Kennedy Special Warfare Center. These courses used contract instructors and basic course materials from DLIFLC to teach "Basic Acquisition Language Training (BALT)," as well as some other short "survival" courses. In 1987 they had turned to the institute for help in developing "functional language courses" for Special Forces personnel. Other sustainment and enhancement training was conducted through a private contractor. Discussions were also continued about the institute possibly taking over all language training programs at Fort Bragg as a "DLI East."¹⁰

Reserve component language training was an especially thorny problem, given the limited time available for unit training. Few reservists could leave their civilian jobs for up to a year for full-time basic language training, and maintaining these skills by evening meetings and weekend training sessions was an uphill battle for even the most dedicated reservists. The National Guard Bureau moved forward with the establishment of nine linguist military intelligence battalions in 1988, but individual guard and reserve units had difficulty obtaining quotas for basic courses at DLIFLC. Yet over half of the Army's language requirements were in the reserve components, and over a thousand of these authorized positions remained unfilled.¹¹

The problems were tough ones, and the DFLP was a complex system, leading to much frustration in the field, stretching from individual linguist to the highest commanders. From the point of view of the unit commander, this complexity was compounded, because the management of military linguists was far more difficult than for most other military specialities. None of the services had a specific enlisted specialty for linguists. It was also a fundamentally different kind of skill from most other military specialities, which could be learned in a classroom or training area in a few days or weeks. Added to this was the fact that, unlike most other military training programs, the DFLP was a joint-service system, and its major customer was the National Security Agency, an independent DoD intelligence agency. But the commanders did not want excuses, they wanted results, which in this case meant more proficient military linguists, and more of them. They resented having to

spend their own training dollars to "fix" what they saw as a problem not of their own making.

Meeting the DFLP Management Challenge

The management system designed to address these issues was the Defense Foreign Language Program. Overall responsibility for the program was in the hands of the US Army's Office of the Deputy Chief of Staff for Operations and Plans (ODCSOPS), Director of Training, designated the Executive Agent by Department of Defense directive.¹²

In January 1988 when the leaders of the DFLP gathered at the Presidio of Monterey for the annual meeting of the General Officer Steering Committee, there were many new faces. The new Executive Agent was Brigadier General Larry G. Lehowicz, USA, who had taken over in November 1987 (he was promoted to brigadier general in early 1988). His staff action officer since September 1987 was Lieutenant Colonel Howard K. "Tip" Hansen, Jr., who worked daily with the service program managers and other DFLP action officers (he was selected for colonel early in the year). The Cryptologic Training Manager, Whitney E. Reed, who had taken over in 1986, also took an active interest in the management of the DFLP, and his action officer, Edward H. Brumit, was in regular contact with his counterparts. Craig L. Wilson, Director of Intelligence Resources and Training in the Office of the Assistant Secretary of Defense for Command, Control, Communications, and Intelligence (OASD[C3I]), continued to work actively in resource issues, as he had for a decade (he was promoted to the Senior Executive Service [SES] early in the year).¹³

Hosting the meeting was DLIFLC's new commandant, Colonel Poch, who had been sent to take command of the institute in October 1987 to provide new leadership and stability after two years that were marked by feuding with major user agencies, in-fighting, and budget troubles. Poch worked closely with his Washington representative, Lieutenant Colonel Peter W. Kozumplik, USA, to stay active in DFLP issues.

The effectiveness of the DFLP was directly proportional to the abilities of its leadership. In recent years the system had been plagued by a rapid turnover of leaders and action officers. The DFLP was unusually complex, involving as it did the coordination of four service training and personnel systems, together with the requirements systems of NSA, the Defense Intelligence Agency, the separate service intelligence agencies, and other major field commands. Its complexity thus put a premium on the knowledge and skill of its managers, many of whom were also unfamiliar with the special difficulties of acquiring and maintaining a foreign language. The new leadership lineup that shaped up in the fall of the previous year augured well for the future of the program.

The basic structure of the DFLP had remained essentially unchanged for nearly a decade. A revision of the Department of Defense directive on the Defense Language Program was published in the spring of 1988 (the first revision since 1977), but it merely described the status quo as it had evolved by the mid-1980s, with minor alterations. What had changed by 1988 was the resource environment. After several years of unprecedented funding growth, the entire Department of Defense was faced with the unhappy prospect of several years of what the budget managers glumly called "negative growth."



DLIF GOSC: This photograph taken at the January 1989 meeting reflects the new membership that joined the GOSC during 1988. Front row from left: Whitney E. Reed (Assistant Director for Training, NSA), Major General C. Norman Wood, USAF (Assistant Chief of Staff for Intelligence), Brigadier General Larry G. Lehowicz (Director of Training, ODCSOPS), RADM James S. McFarland, USN (Commander, NAVSECGRUCOM), Brigadier General Steven L. Arnold (DCST, TRADOC); second row: Dr. Ray T. Clifford (Provost), Sally J. Schwartzkopf (NCS), Michael F. Munson (Deputy Director for Resources, DIA), Craig L. Wilson (Director of Intelligence Resources and Training, OASD [C3I]), Captain John A. Moore, USN (DLIFLC Chief of Staff), John J. Guenther (Special Assistant to the Director of Intelligence, USMC), William E. Manning (Deputy Assistant Secretary of the Army [Readiness, Force Management, and Training]), Colonel Ronald I. Cowger, USAF (Acting Commandant), Colonel Richard J. Powers, Jr., USA (ODCSINT).

The way out of the budget troubles for DLIFLC lay in the direction of "capping the load." The managers of the DFLP were forced to focus on tightening up the management of the existing system, to make it more efficient. This imposed new discipline on the services in the way they forecasted their language training needs. Lehowicz led the GOSC to approve a ten percent limit to program growth for FY 1989 over actual FY 1987 student input, rejecting the services' demands for up to 59% growth in student input. "Individual service input will not exceed 110 percent of actual FY 87 input."¹⁴ According to Colonel Poch, it was "one of the great accomplishments of the

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GOSC of that year--maybe of the decade." It enabled the institute "to program required faculty, make intelligent long-range decisions on personnel, knowing that the student load was firm."¹⁵ Only in this way could the increased staffing ratio and Team Teaching concept be protected (see Chapters Two and Three). This caused the institute to cancel some thirty sections, and selected non-critical contract training programs offered through the Washington Office were eliminated, such as training that duplicated courses available in Monterey for non-attache students. The restrictions were gradually implemented during the rest of the year, including the annual Structure Manning Decision Review (SMDR) meeting in Washington in July.

The GOSC also endorsed a series of on-going initiatives designed to improve the instruction provided at DLIFLC, which remained the primary resident language training center for all the services. Some of these served to draw the institute into closer relations with user agencies and follow-on technical training, such as the use of military language instructors, the development of user-defined final learning objectives, and the routine exchange of student data with the Goodfellow Technical Training Center, where over half of the institute's graduates went for additional technical training (see Chapter Three).

Not satisfied with working exclusively through the joint-service GOSC, General Lehowicz also took the initiative to strengthen the Army Language Program (ALP). He called an ALP review committee meeting in June 1988 and a "mini-GOSC" meeting of all the Army members in July 1988.

Restraining growth was not the sole answer to the problems of the DFLP. A whole series of actions were needed to upgrade the system's overall efficiency. In March 1988 the action officers gathered for a weekend of "team-building" at a hotel in Gettysburg, Pennsylvania, funded by the Cryptologic Training Manager. There they spent three days in intense discussion on the key issues facing the system. Out of the conference emerged a set of priorities that were to dominate the debate for the remainder of the year. According to Lieutenant Colonel Kozumplik, "These initiatives mark[ed] the beginning of a major switch from the 'fix DLIFLC' syndrome to fixing the real problems."¹⁶

At the top of the list of priorities the action officers identified was what they chose to call "life-cycle management" for military linguists. This inelegant phrase, borrowed from the materiel acquisitions field, summed up a comprehensive approach to personnel management for military linguists throughout their entire careers. The ultimate goal was to develop an effective "life-cycle" for military linguists that would address the systemic problems standing in the way of developing proficient military linguists.¹⁷

Getting a clear picture of the services' language training requirements was another perennial problem. The Army, for example, had done an extensive language needs assessment in 1985 to determine its actual language level requirements by MOS. But in January 1988 the GOSC directed all the services to do another top-to-bottom "scrub" of their actual foreign language requirements. They were directed "to code each specific billet with the required language and for the first time, to specify and encode what proficiency levels are required in what skills." These lengthy reviews were launched later in the year.¹⁸

The focus on controlling costs also led the DFLP managers to begin to examine alternatives to resident language training at DLIFLC, including using commercial language firms for specialized training and languages for

which the services had few requirements. Procedures for administering contract foreign language training through the DLIFLC Washington Office were put down on paper for the first time by Kozumplik and his staff.¹⁹ The cost-effectiveness of resident foreign language training at DLIFLC was examined language-by-language. In many cases it was not economically feasible to continue teaching resident courses in low-density enrollment languages at the Presidio of Monterey. In May the Executive Agent published a "strawman" language priority list. By September this list had been staffed, and the closure of ten of the less-commonly-taught languages was recommended. The thinking was that any future requirements could be taught through the long-standing contract language training program in Washington. The result was that the elimination of ten language programs at Monterey was approved at the January 1989 GOSC meeting.²⁰

The year 1988 was marked by a gratifying sense of movement at the DFLP level. Several initiatives crowded the agenda, and the budgetary problems of 1986-87 no longer dominated the discussion. Vigorous efforts gathered steam during the year to address the problems and to improve the efficiency of the system. Even TRADOC's unexpected dismissal of Colonel Poch in September, although it sent a momentary shock through the system, did not seriously affect the initiatives underway (discussed in Chapter Two). By the annual GOSC meeting in early 1989 significant progress could be reported on several fronts.

The highlight of the year was the success in meeting Russian language requirements for the first phase of the INF Treaty verification, although this sudden contingency requirement exposed many of the weaknesses in the system as it had evolved in the 1980s. An underlying philosophic tension remained unresolved between a system that maximized the efficiency of a personnel system driven by a fixed force structure and a system that developed individual linguists and maintained a flexible reservoir of language capabilities to meet unforeseen contingencies. It was clear that no system could meet both goals equally well.

Regardless of new directions taken at the DFLP level, a critical factor in any approach remained the Department of Defense's primary resident foreign language training center. Once regarded as a weak link, by 1988 DLIFLC was well on the way to becoming an agent of change within the system. By providing apprentice military linguists of ever increasing proficiency, and by upgrading its support to command language programs around the world, the institute was putting itself in the forefront of efforts to improve national foreign language capabilities to meet its national security responsibilities.

Chapter Two

Managing the Defense Language Institute

Foreign Language Center in 1988

Within the Defense Foreign Language Program, the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) continued to play a vital role in 1988 as the primary foreign language training center for the military services. Down through the years the institute had earned widespread respect, but its reputation was only as good as its last graduating class. That reputation had slipped in the turbulent 1970s; the challenge of the 1980s was to regain it.

For the institute's top leaders the challenge was all the greater because much of their fate was beyond their control. DLIFLC was a demand-driven school, constantly adjusting its teaching load to the requirements of the services. DLIFLC had to respond to ever-changing service requirements to support national intelligence and security objectives world-wide. The 1980s demanded changes not only in student enrollments, but also in the languages taught. In FY 1988 the number of students beginning training jumped from 4,035 to 4,566, an increase of 13% over FY 1987. Cryptologic student input rose by 25%. The fill rate, as a result of tighter scheduling controls, rose from 75% to 85%, and in the first quarter of FY 1989 reached an unprecedented 98%.

These changes were taking place in an environment of declining dollars available for all defense requirements. Funding for military training was competing in Congress and the Pentagon with research, acquisition, construction, and other important functions. Intelligence agencies, the institute's major users, were competing with other service commands for their share of the shrinking defense pie.

In this complex environment, the future of the institute depended in large measure on how well its top leaders managed these changes. True excellence could only come from the ranks of the faculty, but the commandant and his top managers had the job of balancing ever-fluctuating funding against ever-shifting requirements to keep the institute on a steady keel. They also had to set forth a vision of the future and make realistic plans to reach it. In 1988 the institute's top leaders lived up to this challenge.

Senior Leadership

Managing a complex organization such as DLIFLC in the face of these challenges was no easy task. In 1987 the Army published a field manual designed for leaders of large organizations too complex for direct leadership techniques alone. FM 22-103, *Leadership and Command at Senior Levels*, described how commanders of such organizations had to "establish a clear personal vision or concept of what needs to be accomplished. Then, they



Colonel Todd Robert Poch,
USA: DLIFLC Commandant,
October 1987 - September 1988

communicate the concept to their organizations so that the desired intent is clearly understood. Finally, they apply their craft by being tough enough to ensure that their organization executes the actions necessary to make the vision a reality and achieve the desired result.”¹

DLIFLC's commandant in 1988 was Colonel Todd Robert Poch, USA. Before coming to the institute in October 1987, he had commanded an ROTC brigade and the New York Area Command and Fort Hamilton, which included all Army-owned property in New York City. He had assumed command at a time when the institute was subject to strong criticisms from commanders in the field. He fought to overcome these criticisms by defending the institute and simultaneously urging his subordinates on to greater excellence. He declared that he had been given the mission to “project DLI into the international arena.” He repeated his vision forcefully before every audience, saying what he called the “DLI family” must “strive to become the international premiere institution for language training.”²

A vision-setter and communicator, he “applied his craft” to surmount the obstacles blocking the institute's road to excellence. Upon his arrival he was dismayed to find that confusion and indecision at levels far above the institute were threatening to do permanent fiscal damage to his new command. The resulting crisis was waiting on his desk when he assumed command. His first priority, as he told the institute's senior managers just six

weeks after his arrival, was to "stop the bleeding."³ Over his first few months in command he worked tirelessly to hammer out new arrangements to protect the core of the institute's programs.

In the wake of this budget battle, in January 1988 he hosted his first Annual Program Review and the annual meeting of the General Officer Steering Committee, which set a positive tone for the new year. To visiting representatives from the Department of Defense, the services, and user agencies he presented what he called the "phenomenal results" in student proficiency scores during the previous fiscal year. The overall percentage of basic course students scoring 2/2 on the DLPT had risen in just two years from FY 1985 to FY 1987 from 26.5% to 39.5%. He used this success to protect several high priority initiatives and to fend off outside interference in the internal workings of the institute. He told his listeners that "excellence has a cost," and that they should decide what they want and DLIFLC would tell them how much it would cost. He projected a carefully crafted image of stability and continuity.

Poch proved to be a successful fighter for the institute. Throughout his life he had challenged himself constantly, combining an exemplary military career, active civic involvement, and graduate work in international affairs. He was also a thoughtful man, and carefully tailored his leadership style to the needs of his command. In the spring of 1988, for example, he suggested the topic for an officer professional development seminar, *The Mask of Command*, by the British historian John Keegan, published the year before. Keegan used four parallel case studies from Alexander the Great to the twentieth century to illustrate how a leader's "mask of command" must "mark him to men of his time and place as the leader they want and need."⁴ Poch strove to be the leader DLIFLC wanted and needed at his particular historical juncture.

Poch was an activist commander, both inside the institute and without. He was a frequent classroom visitor and looked deeply into the work of his staff officers. Those who worked closely with him were impressed with his quick intellect and far-ranging vision. Others were put off by his sometimes brusque and aloof manner that could arouse hostility and suspicion. But while he demanded much of his staff, he demanded even more of himself. He was the institute's first bachelor commandant, and given the mission of "projecting the institute into the international arena," he worked night and day to achieve that end. He challenged the institute to reach for greatness, and he fought with the DFLP's managers for the chance to achieve it. Through it all, he acted like a man with little time.

Colonel Poch quickly decided that most of the perceived problems with the institute were by and large DFLP problems. He was the first commandant "to see the role as a college president rather than a director of instruction," as the provost later put it.⁵ He was therefore a frequent traveler and was absent much of the time on visits to Washington and elsewhere. Much of the burden of the day-to-day administration of the institute fell to his assistant commandant, chief of staff, and provost. His public appearances were troubled by an eye injury he sustained in 1987 before taking command. In early May 1988 he entered the Walter Reed Army Medical Center for surgery, which kept

him away from his desk (but not the telephone) for three weeks. While recovering he continued to work vigorously on DFLP issues, including the final selection of members for the new Board of Visitors, slated to be installed in the fall. In June he left for Europe to attend the annual meeting of NATO's Bureau for International Language Coordination (BILC) in West Germany.

The management structure through which Poch exercised his authority remained much as it had been under his predecessors. His assistant commandant was Colonel Ronald I. Cowger, USAF, who came to DLIFLC a few weeks after Poch. Cowger was a fighter pilot and former commander of Chantute Air Force Base, Illinois. DLIFLC's first chief of staff, Colonel Robert M. DePhilippis, USAF, retired in February 1988 and the senior Army lieutenant colonel on board, Vladimir Sobichevsky, filled in temporarily. Sobichevsky was a thirty-year Special Forces veteran and former assistant dean of the School of East European Languages. Poch also worked to get the Navy to assign a senior officer to this position. He later called this "one of my major accomplishments in the first two months" of his command, but the Navy captain did not arrive until August.⁶

On the academic side there was more continuity, with Dr. Ray T. Clifford continuing to serve as provost under his third commandant. Only one of the seven schools saw a change of deans during the year, the Middle East School, when Albert S. Gau retired after forty years service. Colonel William H. Kinard III, USA, served as acting dean until the following year.

Competition for Resources

Poch's greatest achievement during his first year in command was in securing the institute's resources. FY 1988 had begun under a resource cloud. As late as mid-January 1988 the institute was more than \$7 million short of what it needed to finish FY 1988 at the same level as the previous year. Additional money had been promised by the resource managers at TRADOC, so DLIFLC's budget office had reprogrammed civilian payroll dollars just to cover current operations. Left uncovered were the nonresident program, the contract foreign language training program, and two mandated civilian payroll costs (the 2% annual civilian pay raise and contributions to the new Federal Employees Retirement System).⁷

At the annual meeting of the General Officer Steering Committee in January 1988, the Executive Agent staff officer, Colonel Howard K. "Tip" Hansen, USA, announced that his chief had agreed to a plan by which Headquarters, Department of the Army, would contribute an additional \$4.8 million (and a similar amount in FY 1989), TRADOC would fund the civilian pay raise and retirement costs, and DLIFLC would be left with a \$773,000 shortfall. This amounted to less than 2% of the institute's projected requirement of \$47 million. The Installation Contract, the formal agreement between DLIFLC and TRADOC that the institute would train a given number of students in return for a fixed level of funding, was finally signed on February 17 after Poch personally appealed to General Thurman during the signing ceremony.⁸

Later that spring Colonel Poch declared in a letter to the faculty and staff, "With resources intact and your ardent support, we have won the first of many battles and have achieved the stature and cohesion that will allow us to become an Institute of reputation throughout the world."⁹ For several months spending on contracts, supplies, and equipment rose, as managers rushed to make up for the late start of the fiscal year. Spending on supplies and equipment rebounded from the previous year's slump to \$2 million, near the average for recent years.¹⁰

During his first months in command the resource management directorate under Major Randy R. Beckman, USA, played a prominent role. They were a vital link with the TRADOC and Department of the Army staff, and they carried on the day-to-day management of the institute's budget (discussed in Chapter Five). They also managed the institute's TDA, conducting studies and making adjustments throughout the year. Colonel Poch drove them relentlessly, and their response was "extraordinary" he later recalled. "A few weeks of tension, some enormously hard work, with lots of oil burning, and then I venture to say that they--not me--that they made themselves into the best comptroller shop in TRADOC."¹¹

This period of apparent normalcy ended abruptly in May, when the Department of Defense issued an emergency directive to control defense outlays. At that time the institute still faced a shortfall of over \$500,000, and had several additional projects under consideration. In the end the restrictions had little effect on institute operations, except for travel. The travel account was underspent at \$224,000, and ended the year nearly a third lower than the year before. Additional funds became available from outside sources, and civilian payroll and travel funds were reprogrammed, as these programs were well below earlier projections. This funding was applied to a number of extra projects, such as two long-planned research projects (\$550,000), several interactive video course development projects (\$1.1 million) and nonresident courses (\$700,000).

By the end of the fiscal year DLIFLC managed to come in at \$47,973,000, fully 21% over the previous year's total. Civilian workyears used added up to an all time high of 1,230, 4% over the previous year. These had grown over the previous five years by 11%, while the average payroll costs per employee had increased by 30%. Spending for all other operating costs jumped from \$6.2 million to \$10.0 million. Contract funding was up sharply, at \$7.7 million, compared to about \$5 million in previous years, due in large part to new course development and research projects.¹²

Planning for Excellence

Resources without planning have no purpose. Poch had inherited an academic master plan for the institute based on an ambitious vision, *A Strategy for Excellence*. In 1988 the plan had reached the two year mark, and was beginning to show its age. Originally drafted in the resource management directorate under the guiding eyes of Colonel Bullard in 1985-86, the plan remained little changed under his successor. The updated version published in

April 1988 retained much of the original discussion of the problems of foreign language training and the desired direction of change, and some minor changes were incorporated into the plan's detailed appendices. But overall the original academic vision statement had become weighted down with a myriad of tasks and subtasks. By then about a quarter of the original fifty-six or so tasks were shown as having been completed (over half, if subtasks were included). Team teaching had been "approved and implemented on a selective basis." The Structure Manning Decision Review (SMDR) process for balancing resources and student load had been implemented, and "tighter controls" were in place.¹³

Many of the other initiatives were marked as "ongoing" or "to be determined." The nonresident master plan was left unchanged and reflected little progress. Changes in educational technology planning were promised for later in the year. The Language Program Coordination Office rewrote their appendix to select several new initiatives to meet specific user agency needs. The only completely new objective was added by the director of information management, who called for the institute "to develop and implement a systematic approach to information systems management."

Overall the master plan did not reflect any major new directions. The plan was slowly losing its focus and becoming a smorgasbord of projects that reflected internal and external constituencies. It also suffered from not being firmly tied into the resourcing process. It was a self-generated plan that no longer coordinated and guided the various efforts to reform the institute. In September the directorate began work on a major revision and reformatting of the plan, but this was not published until the spring of the following year.¹⁴

Early in 1988 a new effort at strategic planning was launched, not from resource management, but from the director of information management. The *Information Systems Plan for Strategic Alignment*, or ISP, as it was called, put all the institute's administrative procedures under a microscope. A team of eight managers and experienced administrators chaired by the assistant commandant spent several months putting together the final report using a methodology developed by IBM.¹⁵

The institute had been plagued with charges of inefficient, top-heavy administration ever since the headquarters had moved to Monterey from Washington, DC, in 1974. The study group's report, published in July 1988, implied that the institute was still suffering from serious inefficiencies as a result of the way key management data were being handled, and that the needed fixes were just within its grasp. They found that top managers and their supporting staff could be doing a lot better. They identified a number of "information opportunities" in student scheduling, personnel administration, program evaluation, and other areas. This reflected in part a school that had grown over the previous ten years with little attention to management information needs. They found that in its basic administrative practices, the institute was a mix of high tech and stubby pencil. Virtually every aspect of administration stood in need of major change: the tracking and scheduling of students and classes, personnel management, academic program evaluation, and resource management, to name but a few. Thirty major "information

needs" were defined and addressed.

The team found that the institute was riding a wave of office automation with the widespread dissemination of personal computers. Another revolution beckoned within just a few years, based on a more powerful computer main-frame and the advent of new connectivity using local area networks and interface with wider Army and academic electronic networks. They urged the installation of a local area network, a management information system, and access to the Defense Data Network. The availability of funds, not the lack of vision, would be the determining factor in the future.

New Challenges

Not everything could be planned years in advance. DLIFLC's managers faced unexpected challenges throughout the year that required immediate action. Most prominent was the effort to support the new On-Site Inspection Agency (described in Chapters One and Three). During the year the institute also worked at developing the Final Learning Objectives called for by the Cryptologic Training System and the Defense Intelligence Agency (described in Chapter Three).

Another persistent concern of the institute's top leaders was their ability to attract, retain, and develop a quality civilian faculty. A New Personnel System, originally proposed in 1986, was designed to address this need. Unlike most Army schools, DLIFLC was staffed primarily by civilian instructors. They were managed under a personnel system that dictated that they remain GS-9's their entire careers with a top salary of \$29,800, in an area where median house prices were over \$200,000 and growing by 15-25% per year. Their only promotion route took them into supervisory or administrative positions out of the classroom. The result was that the only way to reward the best teachers was to promote them out of the classroom.

The New Personnel System was designed to introduce the "rank-in-person" system, common to the academic world, rather than a "rank-in-position," used in the civil service and business world. It would enable DLIFLC to promote good teachers and keep them in the classrooms, just as a university could promote an assistant professor to associate professor, and eventually full professor. The proposal also included other ways to give the institute more flexibility, such as permitting DLIFLC to pay for graduate degrees.

This proposal showed encouraging signs of progress in 1988. After vigorous lobbying efforts by Colonel Poch, Dr. Clifford, and their staffs, the office of the Department of Defense General Counsel released it in August for further staffing at the Office of Management and Budget. Robert Winchester, the Special Assistant to the Secretary of the Army for Legislative Affairs, took an active interest in it, as did Craig L. Wilson, the Director of Intelligence Resources and Training in the Office of the Assistant Secretary of Defense for Command, Control, Communications and Intelligence (OASD[C3I]).

Opposition came from faculty union leaders who feared its vagueness and merit pay provisions. They were reluctant to put their careers entirely in

the hands of the institute's top leaders. They saw the proposal as stripping away their job security and threatening such things as regular in-grade step increases and across-the-board pay raises.¹⁶

Nevertheless DLIFLC management leaders pressed on, and in September Congressman Leon E. Panetta (D-Monterey) formally requested "drafting assistance" on the issue. This step raised the possibility that he might introduce the bill directly into Congress without its having to obtain approval by the Office of Management and Budget, which seemed inclined to disapprove it. But the congressional session ended without any further action on the measure. The personnel specialist at DLIFLC responsible for the proposal, Helga Nielson, resigned her position in the fall, and her duties were reassigned within the Civilian Personnel Office.

Another issue that occupied the institute's top leaders during 1988 was the closing of the San Francisco branch. During the previous year political pressures had built up on the Army to surrender the former Public Health Service hospital on the Presidio of San Francisco. DLIFLC had been using it to train Army enlisted students since 1982. So successful had it been, that a fourth department, Russian, had been added as recently as April 1987. However, the city of San Francisco was facing a vastly different set of needs. They sought the building in hopes of coping with the growing need for hospital beds to meet the AIDS crisis.¹⁷

By the beginning of 1988 top Army and Department of Defense managers had already made the decision to vacate the building, over the objections of the institute's leaders, who argued for the added capacity. They argued that new facilities would have to be found (or built) to meet the anticipated student load in future years. During 1987 they had put a lot of time and energy into investigating alternate facilities. In January 1988 Craig L. Wilson briefed the GOSC on the hard and fast requirement to close the branch by the end of the year. But according to Wilson, "Curtailing student input has obviated the need for a replacement facility at Ft. Ord. Limiting growth of the DLIFLC program will enable the approximately 400 students capable of being housed and trained at San Francisco to be merged with the student population in Monterey."¹⁸

Closing the San Francisco branch was a painful decision for the institute. Many of the original faculty had transferred there from Monterey and were considered part of the DLIFLC "family." However under federal personnel regulations, San Francisco was considered a separate geographic area, and the civilian staff could not simply be transferred back to Monterey. Despite union protests in Monterey, declining service requirements in two languages led to reductions-in-force in Spanish and German. Twenty-one Spanish instructors and support staff were terminated in April, and two classes were transferred to the Presidio of Monterey. Seven of the instructors were later rehired in Monterey. The German department was closed in June, and twenty-six instructors and support staff were terminated. The Korean and Russian instructors were all offered new positions in Monterey. Seventeen of the twenty Koreans accepted, as did half of the eighteen Russians.¹⁹ Assistant Commandant Colonel William S. Devine retired later in the year and handed

over his dwindling command to the troop commander, Major John S. Williamson (promoted to lieutenant colonel later in the year).

In September the Congress passed a bill calling for the Army to vacate the building by the end of the year, despite the fact that the city had not yet found the funds that would be required to restore it to medical use. DLIFLC proceeded with its plans to close the branch. One hundred eighty Korean students in mid-course transferred to Monterey in November, and the last Russian class graduated on December 8. By January 1989 the institute had vacated the building.

During its six years of operation, the branch had graduated nearly two thousand students. It was also the last of DLIFLC's satellite campuses, which once included a Vietnamese branch at Biggs Air Force Base, Texas (1966-73), and a Russian branch at Lackland Air Force Base, Texas (1981-87). Its closure represented just one of the many challenges facing Colonel Poch and his staff as the year went on.

DLIFLC Washington Office

Critical to all these management efforts was the small office the institute maintained in the Washington, DC, area. During 1988 this was headed by Lieutenant Colonel Peter W. Kozumplik, USA, a military historian and former US Military Academy history instructor. Ivy S. Gibian had served as administrative assistant in the office since it was first organized in 1974. They were supported by four other personnel.

This office had two major functions. Of great importance was its liaison role as the "primary interface between DLIFLC and the major DFLP participants" in the Washington, DC, area.²⁰ When the Defense Language Institute headquarters moved out of Washington in 1974, its leaders found that they could not remove themselves from the Washington policy-making and administrative environment quite as easily as they had hoped. The institute had a seat at the Interagency Language Roundtable, D'ECOLE, the Foreign Language Committee of the Intelligence Community Staff, and the monthly meetings of the DFLP action officers. In addition, Kozumplik was in daily contact with the Executive Agent staff officer in the Army ODCSOPS, as he tried to manage the entire DFLP in the areas of policy formulation, resourcing, and special actions. To the ever-changing action officers in the myriad of agencies in Washington, the DLIFLC Washington Office was the single point of contact for information about DLIFLC and the DFLP. Through an endless round of telephone calls and committee meetings the office represented the institute's position and relayed information by fax, message, memorandum, or telephone from coast to coast. They were often the first point of contact for new requirements, such as the INF training. They had played an invaluable role in helping the fledgling OSIA define its Russian-language requirements and setting up the special testing and training programs.²¹

At the same time the office had a second major task, acting as one of the institute's subordinate language schools, analogous to the eight separate schools on the Presidio of Monterey. (Early in the year the office changed its

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name from the "DLIFLC Liaison Office" to the "DLIFLC Washington Office" to better reflect this range of functions.) They administered language training under contract through two programs, a long-standing arrangement with the Foreign Service Institute in Arlington, Virginia, to train future military attaches alongside their civilian counterparts and another program to deliver contract language training through several commercial language schools in the Washington area. At any time up to eighty DLIFLC students were attending classes with the Foreign Service Institute and over a hundred with commercial schools. In FY 1988 this cost the institute \$1.7 million for contract language training. They published the first DLIFLC memorandum to specifically address procedures for contract language training and took over scheduling responsibilities for contract students from the Scheduling Branch at DLIFLC. For this purpose the office was connected to ATRRS in December.²²

Another section within the office was responsible for training and evaluating Russian-language personnel for the Moscow-Washington Direct Communications Link (MOLINK) "hotline" that kept the White House and the leaders of the Soviet Union in constant touch. This office was staffed by two of the US government's top Russian interpreters. One, Stephen Soudakoff, was detailed to the Arms Control and Disarmament Agency for two months as chief US interpreter for the Nuclear Testing Talks in Geneva. They also translated speeches and technical documents for other agencies as needed.²³

Kozumplik also provided staff input to other agencies interested in language training. He conducted a six-month joint study with the Defense Intelligence Agency concerning the attache language training program and a study of OSIA language training requirements. He became the "primary advisor and purveyor of language instruction to the Drug Enforcement Administration--thus moving the DLIFLC to the forefront of the 'War on Drugs.'" He also formed an Army Reserve reinforcement training unit (RTU) of linguists from the Individual Ready Reserve who began to work on DLIFLC-related projects for Army Reserve drill credits and two-week annual training periods. This quickly grew to over thirty-five members, with detachments in Washington, Fort Meade, and Fort Monroe.²⁴

In many ways the office was a direct extension of the commandant as he sought to advance the cause of the DFLP and the institute. It provided essential support to institute officials visiting the East Coast. For example, when Colonel Poch was in Walter Reed following his eye surgery in May, Kozumplik provided daily staff support. During the year a local area network was installed and plans were laid for moving the office into a new building in Crystal City, Arlington, Virginia.

Change of Command

The summer of 1988 was a busy time. Colonel Poch and Dr. Clifford toured American units and headquarters in Europe, and attended the annual meeting of NATO's Bureau for International Language Coordination (BILC) in West Germany in early July.

Upon his return, preparations were underway for a heavy schedule of fall events. Poch had worked hard to organize and win approval for a Board of Visitors for the institute, and the formal installation was scheduled for October 27. The headquarters building and the new academic library were scheduled to be dedicated in conjunction with a reunion of the institute's World War II graduates. Secretary of the Army John O. Marsh, Jr., was scheduled to be keynote speaker at the reunion banquet. In November DLIFLC was scheduled to co-host the annual meeting of the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL), the major professional association in the field.

Early on Wednesday, September 28, Colonel Poch was summoned to TRADOC Headquarters at Fort Monroe, Virginia. There Major General Wayne A. Downing, Poch's rater as the Deputy Chief of Staff for Training, confronted him with what were called "irregularities" in his personnel file. According to the TRADOC Public Affairs Officer who spoke to the Monterey Herald later that day, "We offered him some options. The option he decided on was retirement."²⁵

The local Congressman, Leon E. Panetta (D-Monterey), was briefed on the action at once, and he told the local press that Poch had been the subject of investigation by the Army's Criminal Investigation Division "for a number of weeks" for several allegations. Only one allegation had been substantiated, he said: his official personnel file showed that he had a doctorate, whereas in fact he had completed some graduate work, but had not received the PhD degree.²⁶ Only two previous commandants were holders of the PhD degree. Colonel Kibbey M. Horne, commandant of the West Coast Branch during the peak years of the Vietnam War from 1969 until 1972, had earned a doctorate in linguistics from Georgetown University, and Colonel Monte R. Bullard, Poch's immediate predecessor, had earned a doctorate from the University of California-Berkeley in political science. All other commandants since 1962 had held at least masters degrees.

Many at the institute were reluctant to believe TRADOC's explanation of the dismissal. The unusual circumstances surrounding his departure gave rise to many rumors and speculations. With time these died out unsubstantiated. The word quickly went out that his relief was no reflection on the institute, or even on his official actions as commandant.

In many ways the institute had made great strides toward becoming the world-class institution he had always spoken of. In his one year as commandant Colonel Poch had clearly communicated a vision for the institute. In his first few months of command in an open letter to the union, he urged the faculty to overcome occasional problems to achieve the greater purposes of the institute. "We at DLIFLC are not singularly strong, we all have weaknesses. However, by communicating we can continue to strengthen our organization and make whatever individual weaknesses we have seem minuscule in the overall scheme of events. We are privileged to be a part of the DLI family. By working together we will be worthy of that privilege."²⁷ It was in the spirit of working together that those he left behind continued to carry out the mission.



Colonel Ronald I. Cowger, USAF:
*DLIFLC Acting Commandant,
September 1988 - August 1989*

Continuing the Mission

Command of the institute automatically devolved upon Assistant Commandant Colonel Ronald I. Cowger, USAF, who had come to the institute shortly after Colonel Poch in October 1987. He did not have the benefit of a hand-off from one commander to the next, so abrupt was the move. He must have been reminded of Harry S. Truman, who when he was suddenly thrust into the presidency upon the death of Roosevelt in 1945, told reporters that he felt as if "the moon, the stars, and all the planets fell on me." No one knew how long it would take for TRADOC to find a replacement. No one suspected that it would last nearly a year.

At Colonel Cowger's right hand was Captain John A. Moore, USN, who had just arrived in August as the new chief of staff. Captain Moore had first come to DLIFLC in 1967 to take the Russian basic course, and had gone on to a twenty-year career in the Naval Security Group with assignments stateside and in Japan, Turkey, and Spain, culminating in command of Naval Security Group Activity, Hanza, Okinawa. He would find his assignment to DLIFLC the most challenging of his naval career. Colonel Sobichevsky, the acting chief of staff, moved over to become School Secretary (he had been promoted to colonel September 1). Captain Moore's arrival marked the first time in many years that the command group included a Navy officer.

During the first few months the institute was treated to an outpouring of support from all quarters. A series of previously-programmed events continued to schedule, serving to remind the institute and its staff of the strong bonds that tied it to the services, the academic world, and its historical roots.

Less than a week after taking command, Colonel Cowger flew to TRADOC headquarters to attend the annual TRADOC commander's conference, the only Air Force officer present at the table. Over the next few weeks several senior Army and Air Force leaders visited Monterey: General Arthur E. Brown, Jr., USA, Vice Chief of Staff of the Army (October 3), Major General Wayne A. Downing, USA, Assistant Chief of Staff for Training, TRADOC (October 27-28), Sergeant Major of the Army Julius A. Gates (November 9), General James J. Lindsay, USA, Commander-in-Chief, US Special Operations Command (November 10), Major General C. Norman Wood, USAF, Assistant Chief of Staff for Intelligence (November 17-18), and Lieutenant General John S. Crosby, USA, Deputy Commanding General for Training, TRADOC (December 2).

On October 27 the Board of Visitors was formally installed. Over two years in the planning, the panel was intended to serve as a senior advisory group similar to those of the service academies. They were charged with advising the commandant and the Assistant Secretary of Defense for Command, Control, Communications and Intelligence (the primary functional sponsor for the DFLP) on all issues related to DLIFLC, including the institute's "mission, policies, staff and faculty, students, curricula, educational philosophy and objectives, program effectiveness, instructional methods, research, administration, learning resources, physical resources, and financial resources."²⁸

Among the board's first members were Congressman Leon E. Panetta (D-Monterey), General William R. Richardson (USA, Ret.), former commanding general of TRADOC (1983-85), Jacques Paul Klein (Brig. Gen., USAFR), Assistant to the Secretary of the Air Force for International Affairs, and Ambassador Richard F. Staar (Col., USMCR, Ret.), senior fellow at the Hoover Institution and former US ambassador to the MBFR talks (1981-83), for a total of ten distinguished men from the military and academic world, six of whom attended the installation ceremony.²⁹

Such distinguished members, given such a broad charter, could be expected to take a national perspective on the institute and its role. In their final report they echoed the words of the report of the the President's Committee on Foreign Language and International Studies issued in 1979, that "nothing less is at issue than the nation's security. . . . Americans' incompetence in foreign languages is nothing short of scandalous, and it is becoming worse."

Following a day of orientation briefings from the institute's staff, the panel made several recommendations. First priority was ensuring adequate funding for the current program and to "complete the implementation of team teaching." The staff had briefed board members that DLIFLC was still \$8 million short for FY 1989. Next came statements of support for efforts to professionalize the faculty, including government-funded graduate education,

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and for the seemingly stalled New Personnel System initiative, proposed in 1986 to create an academic "rank-in-person" system for the faculty. Finally the board cast their eyes beyond DLIFLC to urge the service academies and the ROTC program to "increase foreign language requirements" to enhance the foreign language skills in the officer corps.

At the same time a private foundation to "promote excellence in foreign language education" and support the institute was launched, the International Language and Culture Foundation. The foundation was intended to develop a private support network such as the service academies had that would do such things as present awards for teaching excellence and provide sabbatical support.³⁰

The ceremonies for the new Board of Visitors coincided with another celebration that underscored the institute's deep roots in the past. A large reunion of the institute's World War II Japanese-American (Nisei) graduates was held in Monterey on October 27-28. The Japanese-American community was also celebrating the passage by Congress earlier in the year of a restitution act to apologize for the internment of over one hundred thousand Japanese-Americans during the war, including many of their families. The military achievements of the Nisei during the war in the face of this wartime racial hysteria had been portrayed in an award-winning documentary film released in early 1988, *The Color of Honor*, by the San Francisco film maker Loni Ding, which was aired nationwide over the Public Broadcasting System in January 1989, bringing the heroic story of the school's founding to a wider audience.

Two buildings at DLIFLC were dedicated to two men who had played key roles in the founding of the institute. The headquarters building (Bldg. 614), constructed in 1977, was named for Colonel Kai E. Rasmussen, USA, the first commandant of the Military Intelligence Service Language School, forerunner of DLIFLC, who had passed away in January 1988. The academic library (Bldg. 617), completed in the spring of 1988, was named for Judge (Major) John F. Aiso, the first director of academic training. After his wartime service with the school he had returned to Los Angeles to practice law, where he had become the first Japanese-American to enter the state judiciary on the mainland. He had died in December 1987 after a distinguished career. Hundreds of World War II veterans returned to celebrate the event and to see how far their school had come since they had graduated.

Three weeks later, on the weekend before Thanksgiving, November 18-20, the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) held its annual meeting in downtown Monterey, co-hosted by the institute. Many of the several thousand attendees, high school and college level language teachers from across the country, toured DLIFLC, visited classrooms, and observed educational technology demonstrations. Several hundred DLIFLC faculty and staff members attended sessions on a wide range of topics, many for the first time. The institute's ties with the academic world were broadly strengthened.

The new fiscal year that began on October 1, 1988, got off to a good start, although TRADOC's initial Budget Management Guidance was \$10 million

short of what the institute needed. DLIFLC had submitted a "no growth" Command Operating Budget on August 31 that included an \$8.3 million Unfinanced Requirement (UFR) to cover civilian personnel costs. In the end the institute's leaders had little to fear. The Board of Visitors had expressed a concern that was widely recognized. The budget arrangement that had been struck between the Executive Agent and TRADOC the year before held together, and when the FY 1989 Installation Contract was finally signed on December 12, DLIFLC was fully funded for the new fiscal year.³¹

Despite the unexpected loss of its commandant, DLIFLC was on a steady course again by the end of the year. Plans were underway for the annual program review and the annual meeting of the general officer steering committee the following January. With its student load capped by the services and with a firm resource commitment from Army managers, the institute could look forward with reasonable assurance to a stable near-term future, despite threatened additional defense budget cuts. It won recognition for its continued unique and vital role within the military's broader efforts to achieve foreign language capabilities. In perception--and reality--it was well managed and well administered, considering the complexity of the organization and the demands that were placed upon it. Its leaders directed the primary training mission, articulated a strategic vision, competed successfully for resources, and met unanticipated challenges.

There were also firm limits on what its top leaders could accomplish. Commandants may come and go, but excellence had to reside in the academic programs and the faculty that taught more than two thousand hours of instruction each working day. During 1988 the teaching of foreign languages at DLIFLC showed substantial improvement. If the institute were to achieve Colonel Poch's vision to become "the national premiere institution for language training," the excellence would ultimately have to spring from the faculty, as well as the management.³²

Chapter Three
Foreign Language Teaching
in 1988

During the 1980s vigorous efforts were underway at the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) to improve student proficiency. While many of these reforms had not yet had time to work, there were signs that even the tentative first steps were having an impact on the institute's bottom line. Over several years, increased staffing ratios, school reorganization, and steady management pressure for accountability were showing measurable results. During 1988 many of these initiatives swung into full gear for the first time. Despite a 13% jump in student input from FY 1987 to FY 1988, the institute showed clear signs of a turn-around.

After several years of discussion, in 1987 the leaders of the Defense Foreign Language Program (DFLP) had agreed on a basic course graduation standard. This standard was set at Level 2 in listening, Level 2 in reading or speaking, depending on the user agency, and Level 1 in a third skill according to the federal Interagency Language Roundtable (ILR) scale and was put into effect for basic classes that began after October 1, 1987. The first classes to complete training under this system graduated in April 1988, and for the first time ever students who did poorly on the Defense Language Proficiency Test (DLPT), regardless of their class averages, received certificates of completion, rather than diplomas. The concrete impact of the change was hard to measure, as the follow-on schools continued to accept graduates regardless of their status. Future college credits earned were not affected. Nevertheless the new emphasis focused faculty and student attention on the standard.

The DLPT statistics had been a focus of management attention at least since 1985, when the institute had begun reporting by-language average scores at internal quarterly review and analysis briefings. The provost, Dr. Ray T. Clifford, frequently declared, "If you can't measure it, you can't manage it." In the fall of 1987 the scores for each graduating class began appearing in the DLIFLC *Monthly Activities Report*.

The results varied in each department, but the trend was clear. Scores were rising across the board, despite rising enrollments in most languages. In Russian, for example, over two hundred more students came for the basic course in FY 1988 than in FY 1987, and nearly one hundred fifty more students came to study Korean than the year before. Overall the Cryptologic Training System sent 25% more students to the institute in FY 1988 than in the previous year, although all other inputs declined 5%.

One frequently cited factor behind this rise in proficiency was the rise in staffing ratio. Following a GOSC decision in 1985, the institute began hiring more instructors during 1986. This resulted in a 21% rise in the teacher-to-section ratio (from 1.59 to 1.93) in just two years. The average instructor found his or her contact hours reduced to roughly three hours per day.

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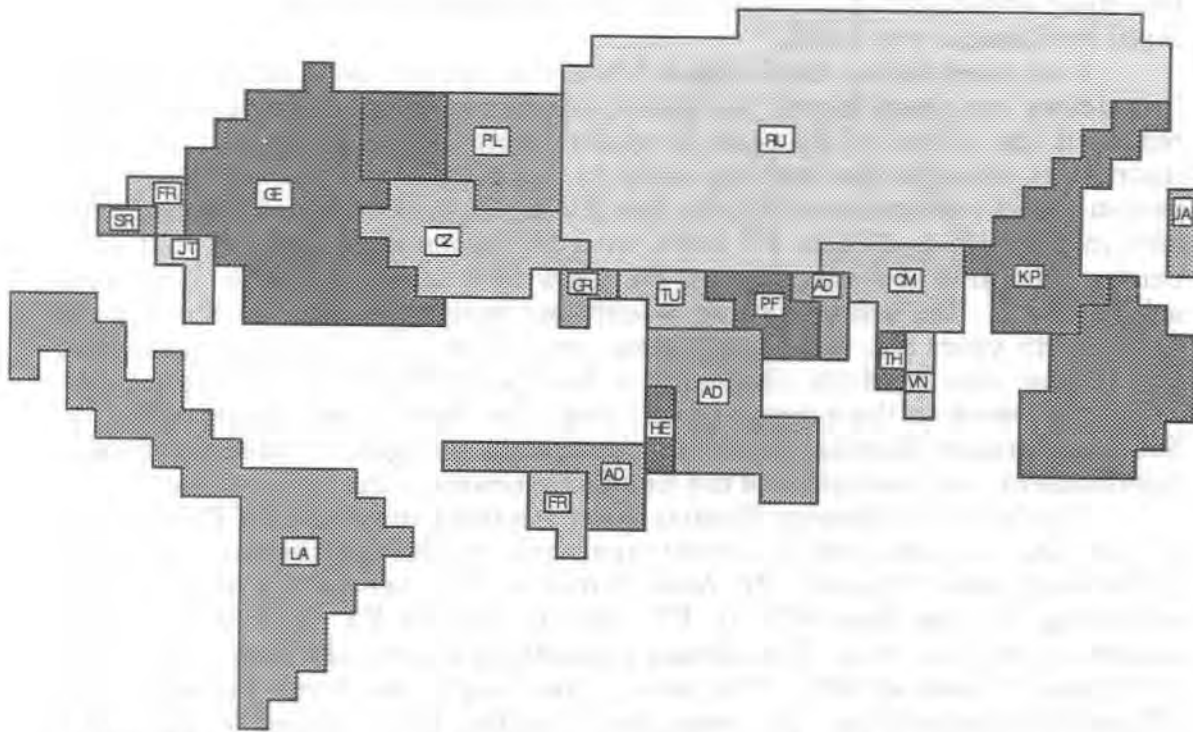
Another factor was the spread of team teaching. As originally conceived, every three sections of a maximum of ten students each was to be taught by a team of six instructors. The instructors would share administrative and teaching responsibilities, develop supplementary materials, and cover for each other for sick leave and other situations to provide stable teaching assignments, bonding, and strict accountability for student learning. Smaller departments had been practicing an informal version of this for years. Other departments tried to garner some of the benefits of team teaching by forming modified teams with four or five instructors. In some cases this worked well, while in others it created hardship on the instructors, for whom it meant increased responsibilities with no increase in resources. In every department where it was tried, it involved a careful process of personality-balancing and working together in unfamiliar ways. Some teams worked very well, while others never quite jelled and had to be dissolved or reorganized.

Yet another sign of change during 1988 was the promotion of dozens of instructors to GS-11, more than at any time in the history of the institute. For many years there had been about fifty supervisor positions in the schools as GS-11s, one or two for each department. The team teaching concept called for a GS-11 "mentor" to guide each team. Based on a ratio of one mentor for every six instructors, the institute began to promote up to 120-130 mentors. Over the course of the year permanent supervisors were all converted to mentors, and dozens of regular instructors won temporary promotions as mentors for the duration of each particular class. In part to provide the necessary manpower spaces, eight departments with six or fewer instructors were downgraded to branches and consolidated into multi-language departments.¹

The drive for increased proficiency forced each department and school to scrutinize itself. Each school undertook an extensive self-analysis during the year as a result of Dr. Clifford's desire to prepare for the institute's reaccreditation, scheduled for the following spring. A combination of factors was driving the institute out of the routine ways of the past towards greater student proficiency. During 1988 these began to bear fruit across the board, even though the reform initiatives were barely off the drawing boards. The institute thus began to prove its critics wrong by demonstrating that it was capable of undertaking major changes.

Many Roads to Increased Proficiency

Increases in student proficiency were reflected to a greater or lesser extent in each of the more than thirty different resident language programs. Six languages alone accounted for about 83% of the student input during FY 1988--Russian, German, Spanish, Korean, Arabic, and Czech. A separate road to increased proficiency was taken in each. While they had much in common, ultimately it was the painstaking work of instructors and administrators in each separate department that made the difference.



A World of Languages: On this map the size of each country or region is adjusted to reflect the student input in that language at DLIFLC during FY 1988. (Each square represents ten students; for language codes, see glossary.)²

Russian was the first course to be added to the Army Language School program following World War II. Forty years later Russian continued to be the most important language taught. About 260 Russian instructors taught at DLIFLC, the largest single group of Russian instructors assembled in any one place outside the Soviet Union, and the largest single group of instructors at DLIFLC.

The need for their skills was growing rapidly. Under its reform-minded leader Gorbachev, the Soviet Union was experiencing startling changes after years of stagnation. A new openness about the country's problems was resulting in radical restructuring of the key political and economic institutions. In 1988 struggles within the party leadership and among various ethnic groups broke out in public and the Soviet Union began to pull its military out of Afghanistan. Late in 1987 Gorbachev met with US President Reagan in Washington and in May 1988 in Moscow. Russian language training was sure to remain a top priority for the American services for the foreseeable future.

During FY 1988 the service cryptologic agencies sent 1,122 students to DLIFLC to study Russian, the largest single group of students and up about 17% from the previous year. Most of these young men and women were destined for sensitive intelligence assignments around the world. To support these agencies the institute also helped develop new cryptologic Final

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Learning Objectives (FLO) materials to supplement the basic course. Total input for Russian was 1,482.³

Two years before, the Russian School had split in two, and scores of new instructors had been hired. At the School of the Russian Language (later renamed the School of Russian I) under Dean Lubow Solgalow, the new instructors brought the staffing ratio to 1.8 instructors per section. The percentage of students meeting the new 2/2 graduation standard climbed from 28% in FY 1987 to 37% in FY 1988, with an academic attrition rate of 22%. During the first two quarters of FY 1989 55% of the school's graduates achieved 2/2. The school's aging woodframe buildings, some of which were over eighty years old, were given some renovation. The dean and academic coordinator also faced the challenge of faculty development, for the school's instructors were on the average three years older than those transferred to the School of Russian Studies. Inside the classrooms, changes included the design, development, and validation of the first five modules of the basic course.

The School of Russian Studies (later renamed the School of Russian II), housed in the institute's newest academic building, showed gains in proficiency under its dean, Dr. Alex Vorobiov. The percentage of graduates achieving 2/2 rose from 47% in FY 1987 to 55% in FY 1988 with a 26% academic attrition rate. For classes graduating during the first half of FY 1989 this climbed to 66%. This school also taught the Army Foreign Area Officer Russian sections. The instructor-to-section ratio climbed to nearly 1.8 by the end of the year. Over half of the school's instructors had only been hired in 1987-88, requiring intensive faculty development efforts, but providing a rare opportunity to mold new organizational values and expectations.⁴

German was the second largest program at the institute in 1988. More than forty years after the end of World War II, a quarter of a million American military personnel were still stationed on German soil. Germany itself remained a divided land. During the second half of the 1980s, DLIFLC was witnessing a downturn in German enrollment as a result of shifting intelligence requirements in Central Europe, although about forty percent of the German students at DLIFLC were non-cryptologic (compared, for example, to about fifteen percent for Russian). After a peak in FY 1985 and 1986 of more than 700 students per year, enrollment slid to 485 in FY 1987 and 422 in FY 1988, a drop of 40% in just two years. As a result the German department at the San Francisco branch was closed in the spring of 1988 and the instructors were laid off.

About seventy-five German instructors remained in Monterey, where the staffing ratio fluctuated between 1.6 and 1.9. In FY 1988 nearly half the students completing the 34-week basic course met the graduation standard: from 30% in FY 1986 to 40% in FY 1987, and then 46% in FY 1988. During the year Dean Peter J. Armbrust oversaw the consolidation of the Dutch and Norwegian programs into a multi-language department and the creation of a third German department under John Dege. While the popular German Gateway course for senior officers was terminated at the institute, work began



Greek Lesson: A Greek instructor elicits responses from his students.

on a new interactive video program for the basic course, entitled D-DISC (Deutsch on Disc for Independent Studies by Computer).⁵

Latin America remained a region of major US national security concerns during 1988. In Central America the Nicaraguan civil war continued to simmer, and in March the United States sent 3,200 troops to Honduras to deter a threatened Nicaraguan incursion. In the US the Iran-Contra hearings were underway and two former national security advisors were indicted over US policy towards Central America. Disputed elections were held in El Salvador and Panama, where military ruler General Noriega came into direct confrontation with the US. In April the US sent additional troops to beef up the security of the Panama Canal. In July, Mexico's most divisive election in decades presaged the end of the ruling party's virtual monopoly of political power.

Spanish enrollment at DLIFLC in FY 1988 held steady at 545, but the Spanish Department at the Presidio of San Francisco branch was closed and the instructors were laid off. In Monterey the Romance School under its dean, Dr. Martha Herzog, formed the sixty-five Spanish instructors into five-person teams, each with a mentor, to teach the six-month basic course. By the end of the year a temporary third Spanish Department was opened under Dr. Maria Teresa De Soto. Student proficiency continued to climb to 70%. The Spanish

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departments were the first to implement the new Final Learning Objectives (FLOs), and the academic coordinator, Dr. Patricia Boylan, was particularly active in arranging faculty professional development programs. For its overall performance in 1988 the school received the first annual Provost's Award for Academic Excellence.

In the summer the Drug Enforcement Administration approached DLIFLC to discuss Spanish language training for its personnel involved in drug interdiction and eradication efforts in Latin America. The DLIFLC Washington Office arranged contract Spanish courses for some two dozen special agents and field supervisors in October and November, and the Spanish departments in Monterey began teaching a specially designed survival-level course in January 1989. Institute support of the federal government's war on drugs appeared likely to expand in the years ahead.⁶

Sharp drops in enrollments in French, Italian, and Portuguese in recent years led to a consolidation of these departments into a multi-language department under W. Carey Mein, the former chairman of the Portuguese Department. Giulio Cassani, the former chair of the Italian Department, retired after twenty-nine years of service at the institute.

Divided Korea also achieved unprecedented international recognition during 1988, but it also presented the United States with one of the most complex security challenges it faced in the 1980s. In the South the first democratically-elected president in decades was inaugurated, followed by the Summer Olympic Games, the first held in Asia since the 1964 Olympics in Tokyo. In the North the communist regime was the most implacable and unpredictable adversary the United States faced anywhere in the world. As recently as November 1987 North Korean agents had planted a bomb in a Korean Air Lines passenger jet killing all 115 people aboard.

The Korean language had been taught at the institute since 1945. The three Korean departments in the School of Asian Languages consisted of about ninety instructors. They produced one of the most remarkable transformations of any language program during 1988. Over the previous two years only a quarter of the students had scored the 2/2 standard at the end of the basic course. The Korean student load had risen to a historic peak in FY 1986, dropped by one third in FY 1987, then rebounded to 508 in FY 1988. In the same year Dean Ben DeLaSelva organized the instructors into seventeen modified teaching teams, each consisting of four or five instructors. By the end of the year, 40% of their students had achieved 2/2 on the DLPT, a record for a Category IV language. The price of success was a sharp jump in attrition from 21% to 36%. In the fall the Korean department at the Presidio of San Francisco also moved to Monterey with all its students.⁷

Also in the School of Asian Languages, the Chinese Department took in over one hundred new students during FY 1988, the second largest Asian language. Service requirements for this language were holding steady, as they were for the other languages taught in the school: Indonesian, Japanese, Malay, Tagalog, and Thai. Only in Vietnamese, once in great demand, was the



Geography Lesson: *An instructor describes the geography of Vietnam to a class of Army and Air Force students.*

student load declining. Over several years annual student input dropped by more than half. In November the dean converted the Indonesian, Malay, Japanese, Tagalog, Thai, and Vietnamese programs into branches and placed them under a newly organized multi-language department. Aidir Sani, previously in charge of the Indonesian, Malay, and Tagalog programs, took over as chair.

The troubled lands of the Middle East continued to hold the attention of US decision-makers in 1988. More than ever before the US government stood in need of personnel trained in Arabic and the dialects and cultures of the region. In late 1987 an Arab uprising began on the West Bank and Gaza Strip against two decades of Israeli occupation, and during 1988 it grew in violence and bitterness. The slow, violent destruction of Lebanon continued unabated during the year, marked by the capture in February of Lieutenant Colonel William Higgins, USMC, serving there with United Nations peacekeeping forces. Oil tanker escort operations in the Persian Gulf were marked by tragedy in July when an Iranian airliner flew too close to a US Aegis missile cruiser, the USS *Vincennes*. The warship was under surface attack at the time, and it mistakenly launched a missile at the airliner, killing all 290 persons aboard. The following month Iran and Iraq declared a ceasefire in their bitter, eight-year war. Not all the news was bad: the 1988 Nobel Prize

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for Literature was awarded for the first time ever to an Arabic-language writer, Egyptian novelist Naguib Mahfouz.

Student input for the Arabic basic course at DLIFLC rebounded 30% in FY 1988 to total 381 after a one-year drop-off. The students were taught by about eighty-five civilian instructors organized into three departments. The basic course had been revised recently, so student proficiency had risen to 20% achieving the 2/2 standard in FY 1987 and 21% in FY 1988. Most Arabic students began with a year-long course in Modern Standard Arabic, followed by a shorter course in a dialect such as Egyptian or Syrian.

Dean Albert S. Gau, who had first come to the institute as an instructor in 1948, retired during the year. He was replaced by Acting Dean Colonel William Kinard, USA, a Foreign Area Officer who had served in the American embassy in Yemen and in the political-military division of the US Central Command. During the year Turkish and Afghani were consolidated into a multi-language department.

In the School of East European Languages, 1988 was the year of somber anniversaries for the Czech faculty, although for most Americans Czechoslovakia remained a little known country despite its key role in modern history. It was a year of anniversaries--the establishment of the Czechoslovak Republic in 1918, the famous Munich Crisis over Czechoslovakia on the eve of World War II in 1938, and the communist coup in 1948 that signaled the onset of the Cold War between the Soviet Union and the Western democracies. Another twenty years on, the Prague Spring and the Warsaw Pact invasion of 1968 represented a highwater mark for attempts to forge "socialism with a human face." The film adaptation of Milan Kundera's novel, *The Unbearable Lightness of Being*, revived this last tragedy in the minds of many Americans when it hit the theaters in 1988.

Czechoslovakia was of great national security interest to the United States as the only Warsaw Pact country to touch on both a NATO member and the Soviet Union itself. The US military services had more requirements for Czech than for any other East European language. The country was also on the verge of major changes. In December 1987 the prime minister of eighteen years resigned under reformist pressure.

Requirements for Czech linguists were up over 70% in FY 1988 to 218. To handle the rising influx of students the Czech Department and the forty-five instructors split into two separate departments. Chairman Richard Seldow transferred to the Evaluation Division, and two new chairs were named in his place, Dr. Karel J. Zikan for Czech A and Dr. Svota Louda for Czech B.⁸

Student proficiency had risen from 33% at level 2/2 two years before to 48% in FY 1987, and it held steady at that level in FY 1988. A new Czech basic course was field tested during the year, and the materials for the new Slovak add-on course were field tested and revised.

Student input in Polish, the other major East European language taught in the school, nearly doubled in FY 1988. Poland was also undergoing extensive changes, described by former US National Security Advisor

Zbigniew Brzezinski as the "progressive self-emancipation of Polish society" from communist rule.⁹ The price of this surge was a slipping of the student proficiency from the previous peak of 44% achieving the graduation standard back to 36%, close to the average of two years before. The chairman, John Dege, took a new position as chairman of the new German department and was replaced by Grazyna Dudney. Bulgarian, Hungarian, Serbo-Croatian, and Greek were combined into a single multi-language department chaired initially by Steven Koppany and then by Dr. Nicholas G. Itsines.

New Missions: INF Training

In addition to the traditional language training missions, the rapidly changing international environment demanded flexibility and rapid response. One such mission came down at the very end of the previous year: training Russian linguists to support the Intermediate-range Nuclear Forces (INF) Treaty as described in Chapter One.

DLIFLC was first alerted to its new mission on December 2, 1987, when the action officer for the Army service program manager gave the DLIFLC Washington Office an informal "heads up" of possible future Russian language training requirements. When the treaty was signed on December 8, it called for inspections to begin in both countries on July 1 of the following year, barely six months away.¹⁰

On December 15 DLIFLC was given an initial estimate of testing and training requirements. The planning began in earnest, hampered by constantly fluctuating requirements and schedules. The School of the Russian Language obtained a copy of the treaty and accepted the mission of developing an intensive, fully exportable one-week course on a rush basis to familiarize linguists with the technical terms contained in the treaty. Meanwhile on the East Coast the Defense Intelligence College was developing a course on the technical aspects of the inspections.

The institute's involvement initially was twofold. First, it had to assist in screening hundreds of potential Russian-language interpreters for inspection and escort teams. This was accomplished by certified oral proficiency testers from both Russian schools conducting interviews by telephone from a makeshift telephone bank beginning on January 25, 1988, a highly unusual arrangement. On the first round of oral testing, 114 military linguists were tested from around the world, and their scores averaged between 1+ and 2 for speaking on the ILR scale. Only twelve, barely ten percent, were rated as level 3 or above, which OSIA identified as the minimum proficiency level required.

These were discouraging results for the institute as well, for the second mission it was given was to develop a short refresher course for the linguists selected. The initial guidance was to plan for a six-week course, but this was soon pared down to a one-week burst of treaty vocabulary orientation, to be given before the students had received any technical training on their actual duties. Considering the rusty language skills of the students, and given that most of them had not emphasized speaking skills in their earlier language

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training and military assignments, a quick refresher course was of marginal utility.

The School of the Russian Language quickly pulled together a course-writing team. Although the Russian and English treaty texts did not arrive at Monterey until the first week of January, by working rapidly under intense pressure, the team prepared the course, which they named the Special Terminology and Refresher Course (STRAC), and wrote and printed the necessary textbooks in less than four weeks. Lieutenant Colonel Kozumplik and his staff in the DLIFLC Washington Office devoted themselves to the massive coordination effort with the fledgling OSIA staff and the rest of the DFLP players, relaying changing requirements, student numbers, and budget data back to Monterey at a dizzying rate.

On February 8, two dozen Russian instructors drawn from both schools began teaching the course in borrowed classrooms at Andrews Air Force Base, on the outskirts of Washington, DC. Major James Rickard, USMC, was put in charge of the whole operation. Rickard, commander of the Marine Corps Administrative Detachment at the Presidio of Monterey, was one of the Marine Corps' top Russian linguists and had served as a Presidential Translator with the MOLINK. Forty-eight students from all four services completed this first iteration of the new course. A revised two-week version of the course was taught in Monterey from February 29 to March 12 for another twenty-six students. The schools also gave up four of their best military language instructors who were permanently reassigned to OSIA.

Only on March 25 did OSIA spell out in writing what its future requirements were to be. In the late spring the agency conducted extensive mock inspections in the United States and at NATO sites in Western Europe. By then DLIFLC had proven its ability to provide a broad range of training support, including contract language training for key OSIA officials, extra training at Travis Air Force Base, California, the western point of entry for Soviet inspectors, and training at the Foreign Language Training Center-Europe. Major John E. Eschrich, USA, the assistant dean of the School of Russian Studies and an experienced Soviet Foreign Area Officer, took over as the DLIFLC liaison officer to OSIA in February.

On June 1 the Executive Agent for the DFLP formally directed the institute to develop a six-month course. This was accomplished by the School of Russian Studies. Along the way another one-week iteration was conducted at Monterey in October for twelve additional students. The first iteration of the full six-month course began in March 1989, fifteen months after work had first begun on the project. OSIA reimbursed the institute for its expenses, but the diversion of staff had forced a two-week delay of some Russian course starts and, in FY 1989, the cancellation of some courses. Overall the institute demonstrated its ability to respond rapidly to meet a critical national security requirement, even one that was exacerbated by shortcomings in the way the Department of Defense trained and managed its precious linguist assets.

New Missions: Final Learning Objectives

For decades the institute had used a variety of special courses to tailor its instruction to the needs of the service cryptologic agencies. In the 1950s the Army Security Agency sponsored accelerated courses in several languages at the Army Language School, and the Air Force Security Service began "Aural Comprehension Courses (ACCs)" at several civilian universities, which were brought to DLIFLC in the 1960s. The "Le Fox" extended basic courses were started in the 1960s in several languages to support specific cryptologic missions. In later years, DLIFLC also developed a "Basic Course Enrichment Program (BCEP)" and in the 1970s implemented cryptologic "Terminal Learning Objectives (TLOs)." Later in the decade Aural Comprehension Courses were revived in several languages for several years. After extensive discussions with the Cryptologic Training Manager in 1986-87, the institute started to integrate new, user-directed Final Learning Objectives (FLOs) for cryptologic students in 1988.

In late 1987 the Cryptologic Training Manager formally requested FLOs for the more than two-thirds of basic course students destined for follow-on training in the cryptologic field. DLIFLC proposed an implementation schedule at the General Officer Steering Committee (GOSC) meeting in January 1988.¹¹ As approved by the GOSC, the FLOs were designed for one hour each day in the second half of each course to "sharpen the focus." Students would receive a separate grade, and the results would be reported to the Goodfellow Technical Training Center. Non-cryptologic students would receive other instruction during these times. The Language Program Coordination Office became the lead agency at DLIFLC to coordinate the start-up of the program.¹²

The Spanish departments were first to try out the concept when they began using a previously developed set of "military activity modules" in February 1988. During the remainder of the year several other languages began writing and using FLOs beginning with Russian, then Arabic, Czech, German, and Korean. Other departments started work on their own. Each department took a different approach. Some built upon existing materials, such as those from the Professional Development Program or older Aural Comprehension Course materials. Others started from scratch. In most departments the military language instructors (MLI) took the lead in developing the course materials and teaching responsibilities. Civilian instructors were involved either as team members, or to help in the editing. The new memorandum on the management of the military language instructor program, published on February 1, specified several duties for the MLIs relating the developing FLO materials.¹³

This course development work was handicapped by another development, a critical drop in the number of Army MLIs assigned. During 1988, twenty Army MLIs left, and only five replacements came in. Despite this, by the time Ed Brumit, special assistant to the director of the National Cryptologic School, visited in the fall of 1988, FLO development was well underway in several departments.

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By year's end the Defense Intelligence Agency Training Manager had also prepared FLOs for non-cryptologic students, which were approved by the Executive Agent in December. The spreading implementation of FLOs gathered momentum in the early part of 1989, as other languages came on board, and early, experimental materials gave way to more mature programs.

New Missions: The Foreign Area Officer Orientation Course

The institute picked up a third new mission in 1988, the orientation course for Army Foreign Area Officers (FAOs). Since World War II the Army had operated a program to build up a cadre of officers with language and area studies skills. Language study, a masters degree program, in-country training, and a special course at Fort Bragg had long been the key components of the program, although the details were always in flux.¹⁴ In 1987, following a comprehensive review of the FAO program, the Deputy Chief of Staff for Operations and Plans decided to terminate the six-month FAO course at Fort Bragg. As a more economical alternative, he directed TRADOC in July 1987 to establish a one-week FAO Orientation Course (FAOOC) at DLIFLC for FAOs to attend in conjunction with language training.

In February 1988 Lieutenant Colonel James C. Wise, USA, arrived to establish the program at DLIFLC. Wise was a South Asian specialist who had served in Pakistan and came to Monterey from the US Central Command staff. During the winter and spring he worked to design the new program. Once the Department of the Army-level funding was in place, he scheduled speakers, wrote the syllabus, and coordinated the new program with the Department of the Army and TRADOC staffs.

The first iteration of the forty-hour special course was conducted in late June 1988 for thirty officer students, half of whom were already attending language training. The program also included an active program of guest speakers, twelve in the first six months, including Richard L. Armitage, the Assistant Secretary of Defense for International Security Affairs, and General James J. Lindsay, USA, first commander-in-chief of the new Special Operations Command.

The course was offered again in October to an additional thirty-five students. By then the program had blossomed, with an active guest speaker and mentoring program underway. DLIFLC had once again shown itself capable of supporting flexible and innovative programs.

Improving Academic Support Functions

The institute also made a number of administrative changes during the year to do its job better, reorganizations and new procedures designed to make administrative support to the classroom run smoother.

A major effort was launched to upgrade the scheduling system. Problems with the manual system that had been used for decades were causing serious problems between the institute and the services. In an effort to please the customers, DLIFLC was following an erratic schedule and ultimately

hurting itself. Fill rates remained low, but the blame could not be assigned. There was a great deal of "finger pointing."

The change coincided with a change in name, location, and leadership for the division. Early in 1988 the Program Management Division and the Academic Records & Scheduling Division moved from Bldg. 636 into Bldg. 234, which was under renovation. In March the commandant sent Major Paul Bisulca, USA, to take charge. He quickly consolidated both divisions into a new Resident Training Division and brought in two military assistants. The directorate of resource management conducted an internal staff study that recommended the adoption of the automated Army Training Requirements and Resources System (ATRRS).

Ever since the Defense Language Institute had consolidated the scheduling of all DoD foreign language training in the early 1960s, the entire process had rested in the hands of a single person, Mary McHale. She managed the program and matched names and seats on a daily basis, year-in and year-out. In the early 1980s when the Army had first tried to automate all training scheduling, numerous hardware, connectivity, and user-acceptance problems delayed its use for scheduling language training. The DLIFLC Information Systems Planning (ISP) Study, completed in the summer of 1988, reported as one of the institute's top-ranked problems that "DLI managers do not have timely and accurate input information necessary to properly assign students to barracks, classes, sections, and teaching teams. Current procedures for updating scheduling records are cumbersome, inefficient, and error-prone."¹⁵

Major Bisulca quickly forced the division to begin using ATRRS, and McHale went into retirement in May after forty-one years of federal service. The Quota Management System on ATRRS was implemented by February 1. Students had to be input by name into the system, similar to airline ticketing, forty-five days prior to class start, or their seats were put up for grabs. At the same time the user community within the DFLP was struggling to implement the system, but by October the system appeared to be working. The immediate result was twofold: a marked improvement in the student fill rate, as the services were better able to provide actual students to meet their newly capped program, and an equally remarkable drop in the friction between the services and the institute.¹⁶

Administration of the student body at the institute was also hampered by the lack of adequate systems to manage them. The ISP study team identified this as the number one information need for the entire institute, declaring that "there is no single, DLI-wide, reliable, timely student data base that is available to all managers or others needing this information."¹⁷

The year marked the end of an era in another way, when Dr. Joseph C. Hutchinson retired. He had joined the institute's headquarters staff in Washington in 1964 when it was still new, and had been the senior academic official, or academic advisor, as it was then called, from 1968 until the position was abolished by TRADOC in 1977. After Dr. Clifford was appointed as dean (later "provost"), Dr. Hutchinson was named "Dean of Policy and Liaison," the

second-ranked civilian at the institute. Upon his retirement the position was eliminated.

Several other academic support functions shifted into new buildings during the spring and summer, including much of the rest of the Directorate of Training and Doctrine and the Directorate of Program Evaluation, Research, and Testing. The Academic Library moved next door into a new building (Bldg. 617) in April. This was the first building ever designed specifically as a library facility at the institute, and it gave room for the display of more foreign language periodicals and the incorporation of electronic learning devices such as video cassette players and computers into the main collection.

In March the commandant directed a reshuffling of military leaders at the major and lieutenant colonel levels, resulting in five officers being moved into new positions. Lieutenant Colonel Jack Golphenee, USA, became the new assistant dean of Training and Doctrine under Dr. Vu Tam Ich. In May, Ich moved to a newly-created position of "Vice Provost for Academics." He took over many of Hutchinson's duties in the area of academic policy, liaison with professional organizations, and accreditation. In November the leadership of the Training and Doctrine directorate was divided, with Ich being given operational control of three divisions (Curriculum, Faculty & Staff Development, and Educational Technology) and Golphenee being left in control of the remainder.

Other administrative functions received a fresh look in 1988. The civilian-style academic catalog was reissued in September for the first time in two years. A new student registration system was designed and implemented that led to much better student accounting than had been the case in the past. DLIFLC also strengthened its ties with the cryptologic training center at Goodfellow Air Force Base (GAFB), which took over one half of each graduating basic class. A system for the exchange of student data hammered out in 1987 "moved into smooth operation," and according to the Dean of Evaluation and Standardization, provided "timely and very useful information to both DLI and GAFB managers."¹⁸ The Testing Division struggled to handle the massive testing workload using in-house resources and certified testers from the language departments. TRADOC provided twelve additional work-years. Nearly 5,000 DLPTs were administered to resident students, along with over 800 Russian Proficiency Advancement Tests. The DLPT III series of tests were begun in the early 1980s to add oral proficiency testing to the written components of the DLPT Is and IIs, which added to the division's workload enormously. Approximately 2,800 face-to-face interviews were administered under the auspices of the division to students completing resident training courses at DLIFLC. The division also coordinated the scoring of another 2,100 tapes from the field, together with tapes from about 500 job applicants and some 300 other examinees.¹⁹

Another milestone was the final consolidation of resident training at the Presidio of Monterey. Since 1981 training had been scattered, including Lackland Air Force Base, Texas (1981-86), and the Presidio of San Francisco (since 1982). As enrollments dropped in German and Spanish, those departments were dropped in San Francisco, and the instructors were laid off. During the



The DLPT III: Students listen intently while taking the listening portion of the Spanish DLPT III.

second half of the year the other two departments, Russian and Korean, were transferred back to the Presidio of Monterey. Dictated by political considerations, the move was carried out professionally. Space was made for the new classrooms, faculty offices, and dormitories in Monterey, transportation was arranged, the faculty and staff were moved at government expense, and much of the furniture and equipment was brought south. Despite the inevitable disruptions and costs, the move was completed. The final Russian class graduated in December, and the on-going Korean class was transferred in mid-course to Monterey.

Building for the Future

Not content simply to upgrade its routine administration, the institute continued to build for the future on several fronts during 1988. The professionalization of the faculty continued to be a top priority. This was a complex challenge for all leaders. The centerpiece of this effort was the New Personnel System proposal discussed in Chapter Two. Without the benefit of this overhaul of the faculty personnel management system the institute's leaders pushed for other improvements where they could.

Much of the burden fell on the Faculty and Staff Development Division. Under the leadership of Dr. Neil Granoien, the division doubled the amount of

training it provided from the previous year. They taught team building workshops for newly-assembled teaching teams and supervised the graduate degree program with the Monterey Institute of International Studies for some sixty-five instructors. When the commandant and provost attended the annual meeting of the NATO military language schools (BILC) in Hürth, West Germany, in July, they presented a report on the institute's professional development program.²⁰

Another component of developing educational excellence came from attending academic conferences. Due to Army-wide travel fund restrictions, there had been little opportunity for instructors to attend such conferences in past years. DLIFLC faculty were notable in their absence from major annual meetings of the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages and similar groups. Fewer than one in ten attended any professional conference each year.

A one-time solution to this perennial problem was reached by inviting the ACTFL to hold their annual meeting in Monterey, co-hosted by the institute. The meeting was held in November, and about half of all DLIFLC instructors attended at least a portion of the proceedings. Twenty-seven institute members delivered papers or gave demonstrations. In all, about three thousand language teachers from across the country joined in, and hundreds of them took time out to visit the institute and tour the classrooms.²¹

Several years of effort also culminated in the appearance of the second and third issues of the institute's first internal professional journal in over a decade, the *Dialogue on Language Instruction*. Final work was also done on the first issue of the external professional bulletin, *Applied Language Learning*, which appeared in early 1989. These professional activities, advanced degree programs, and publications were intended to become the hallmarks of true professionals at DLIFLC, as they were in the academic world.

The institute was also actively developing the educational technology that would be essential to the next generation of language instruction. Electronic Information Delivery System (EIDS) hardware arrived in the schools, and the Educational Technology Division worked to adapt them to foreign language instruction and develop the necessary software and instructional materials. An older experiment in computer-assisted instruction, PLATO, was quietly dropped after several years. Planning continued on interactive video projects that had to be designed, funded, and contracted out. There was disappointment during the year when plans to purchase two satellite dish television antennas did not materialize because of contracting problems. New hopes were raised in November when a new chief of Educational Technology was hired at the GM-13 level, Earl Schleske, from the University of Minnesota.²²

Course development also continued, although at a reduced level. Teams worked during the year on basic courses in Greek, Hungarian, Persian, Serbo-Croatian, and Vietnamese, among others. Work was also begun to revise DLIFLC Memorandum 5-2, "Curriculum Design, Development, Implemen-

tation and Evaluation," the first rewrite of that important regulation since 1984.²³

With the arrival in May of a top civilian testing expert, Dr. Dariush Hooshmand, previously with the Houston public school system, the pace of DLPT production increased considerably. Most of the DLPT III projects under development at that time were completed, and the remainder were considerably advanced. In addition, work began on a new generation of tests, the DLPT IV, with development work initiated for Arabic, Japanese, Russian, and Turkish test batteries. Major Thomas Hooten, USAF, the acting chief of the Testing Division prior to Dr. Hooshmand's arrival, retired from the Air Force in November.²⁴

The Research Division moved further on several projects and was combined with the Evaluation Division in November. Data collection continued for the multi-year Language Skill Change Project (LSCP). Final groundwork was laid for the large-scale Educational Technology Needs Assessment (ETNA) to study "the current and potential role of educational technology within both the DLI resident and nonresident programs."²⁵

The Information Systems Plan Study also identified the need for an improved feedback system for student comments, claiming that "DLI managers do not have timely access to detailed student feedback concerning instructor performance as well as non-academic issues." The formal end-of-course student questionnaires were also revised, as were the procedures for feeding the information they contained back to the departments more quickly.²⁶

The Nonresident Training Division began to expand in the spring of 1988. Three service representatives and a program coordinator were hired and six other positions were filled in other divisions to support nonresident requirements. In February \$1.481 million in additional funding was provided to restock depleted course materials and to begin development of "proficiency improvement courses (PICs)" in seven languages. The first materials in three languages were delivered by HumRRO International and the Center for Applied Linguistics in January 1989. Arrangements were also made with the Army Institute for Professional Development for administering refresher courses as Army Correspondence Courses, removing the burden of shipping materials and grading tests from DLIFLC. The division shipped fewer of the older course materials than in previous years, in part because of depleted stocks, and in part because of a new policy of charging for Headstart materials. The division also began discussions for a pilot project for delivering Arabic instruction to Army linguists at Fort Campbell and Fort Stewart by two-way television. (This project was not actually conducted until September 1989).²⁷

The Defense Language Institute faced a clear challenge in the 1980s, to meet urgent service demands for more proficient military linguists. There was no lack of skeptics who doubted the institute's ability to make significant gains. But in 1988 the institute delivered, and delivered in terms that everyone could understand--higher proficiency among its graduates. This did not just happen. It was the result of careful planning and much hard work.

Although many of its plans had not yet matured, the institute was making clear gains, and laying the foundation for further progress. Department after department proved itself capable of significant improvements. The challenge for the future would be to keep these developments on track.

Chapter Four

Foreign Language Learning

in 1988

Effective foreign language education involves all the factors discussed in previous chapters--the external environment, the management, and the teachers. Modern pedagogical theories and military traditions were also in agreement on another factor, the student. The students at the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center were unusual in many respects. This went a long way to explaining the differences between the learning that took place there and foreign language classes almost anywhere else.

In most ways the students at DLIFLC in 1988 were similar in demographics and attitudes to previous classes over the past decade. They had volunteered for military service, and were subject to military leadership, discipline, and physical training. They had enlisted during an era of growing defense budgets and popular military actions abroad, a far cry from the anti-militarism of a generation before. "There is little doubt that the US armed forces are in the midst of a historic renaissance and that the 2.16 million active-duty servicemen and women are truly a new breed," according to *US News & World Report* in April 1988.¹ Many of them had not begun first grade when the last US troops were pulled out of South Vietnam. They remembered Grenada and Libya, not Desert One and the fall of Saigon. 1988 was also a presidential election year, for most of them the first time they were eligible to vote, but there was little sense of political activism. "Don't Worry Be Happy" was named the song of the year.²

Most of them were recent high school graduates, and many had at least some college experience. All were volunteers for language training, but the services were having little success in recruiting students with prior language skills or training. Nevertheless they were all bright enough to have scored well on a number of standardized tests, including the Defense Language Aptitude Battery (DLAB). During 1988 the services made a renewed effort to ensure that only students who had scored well on the DLAB were sent.

Smaller numbers of officers and noncommissioned officers were among the students. For them, the experience was quite different. Some were returning to the institute for advanced courses or second languages. They were generally older and more likely to live off-post with their families. Some were reservists who had left civilian jobs for up to a year to take language training. The officers, who were college graduates, were also more likely to bypass the Presidio of Monterey altogether, taking their training at the Foreign Service Institute in Washington, or commercial language schools under the institute's contract language training program.

Overall the students performed very well. The proficiency scores most of them attained in 1988 were comparable with those their predecessors had

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attained the year before. Graduates of some courses, such as Korean and Russian, continued to show steady improvement. Students in several other languages held to their proficiency gains of recent years, such as German, Arabic, Spanish, and Czech. This was all the more remarkable because they received little formal guidance on learning strategies, so their approach to their studies was an eclectic mix of their own personal learning and cognitive styles and sometimes conflicting advice from different instructors. Overall attrition held steady at 16.3% for academic causes and 8.9% for administrative causes, meaning that 74.8% of all students who began a language successfully completed their courses.³

More students came to study at the institute in 1988 than in any recent year. The overall FY 1988 student input rose by 13% to 4,566, a historic peak. Basic course input rose by 16%. At staff call each month the commander of Troop Command briefed the barracks fill rate, and some students were housed three to a room.

The institute was able to handle this increase only because of its facilities expansion program over the previous five years. New barracks had been constructed, and together with other academic and support facilities, the campus had been virtually transformed. In March 1988 a new dining facility was built in the Russian Village area which permitted the closing of the Kendall Hall dining facility, nearly twenty-five years old, and ended the daily lunchtime shuttlebus operation that carried students from the School of Russian II back into the main academic area. In August an 8,000 square foot recreation center opened.

Student life in the barracks combined the advantages and disadvantages of two lifestyles: military barracks life and college dormitory life. The noncommissioned officers worked hard to preserve a barracks environment that would support their studies. The barracks were segregated by service and, where possible, by language. Each student was assigned from one to three hours of homework each night. The barracks were also co-ed, and had much of the social life of a college dorm. For many students it was their first extended time away from home. It was a time of friendships and new responsibilities. Two years after the national drinking age had been raised to 21, student drinking was still a concern, but drug and alcohol incidents, as well as AWOLs, were sharply down since a 1983-84 peak. In the summer of 1988 the Air Force Office of Special Investigations broke up a ring of students involved in the possession of marijuana and LSD, resulting in nine convictions, but this was generally agreed to have been an isolated incident.⁴

Recreational opportunities abounded for their time off, and students remained active in a variety of intramural sports and community service activities. This helped them handle the stress of language study and to keep in good physical condition, while having fun and contributing to the local community. Athletic injuries were common, but other accidents were fortunately rare. Nevertheless two accidents during the year led to the loss of three students' lives. In April Private John K. Engman, Jr., USA, a 19-year-old Russian student, was killed in a fall from a coastal cliff near scenic Big Sur, and in November two students were killed in an automobile accident while



Homework: A Navy student studies a few more hours of Chinese in her dormitory room after six hours of classes.

returning from San Jose, Private First Class Daniel O'Shea, USMC, and Airman First Class Korey D. Saunders, USAF, both age 19.

Students had to balance their academic and military responsibilities, for the mission of the institute was to train not just linguists, but military linguists. In 1988 many students and their teachers felt that the pendulum, particularly for the Army students, had swung more toward the military. Early morning physical training and military common skills training on afternoons and weekends was a part of daily life. For many Army students this was compounded because many of them were still officially in a basic trainee status.

In the classrooms the students were feeling the winds of academic change discussed in the previous chapter. Their teachers were struggling to meet new standards, adapting to organizational or pedagogical innovations, and trying out new tests, textbooks, and supplemental materials. Some students were unhappy with the language they had been assigned to and lacked the desire to excel, particularly for the more difficult languages and for countries they were unlikely to visit. Other classroom problems were more familiar, such as the common complaint that even with a maximum class size of ten, individualized instruction was hard to attain.

Underlying all aspects of the student experience was the inherent difficulty of trying to absorb an entirely new way of listening, speaking, and

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thinking, day-in and day-out for months on end under the constant pressure of tests and military chores. The old cliché was often repeated that the student who dropped a pencil risked missing an entire chapter. Most of the students responded to these challenges magnificently.

US Army Troop Command

Two thirds of the students were assigned to Troop Command, representing the historical core student population (the school had originally been established in October 1941 to teach military Japanese to Army soldiers of Japanese ancestry). The other services had used different approaches to training their linguists from time to time, but the institute had always been a predominantly Army school. For the first half of 1988 this brigade-sized unit was commanded by Lieutenant Colonel James L. Gildersleeve, USA, a twenty-four year veteran of Army intelligence with a masters degree in Soviet and Middle East Area Studies. On June 24 he handed over command to Lieutenant Colonel Donald B. Connelly, USA, from the 501st Military Intelligence Brigade in Korea. The Troop Command Sergeant Major was Command Sergeant Major Clarence Ringo, USA.⁵

The number of Army students arriving at DLIFLC for language training in FY 1988 shot up 31% over FY 1987, from 2,193 to 2,866. Because the Army was shifting its emphasis to basic language training, a higher proportion of these students were junior enlisted personnel who lived on-post. But the primary cause for the overcrowding in the Army barracks was the transfer of about two hundred Korean and Russian students from the Presidio of San Francisco Branch in the second half of the year as described in Chapter Two. To handle this load Troop Command had six enlisted student companies, an officer and senior NCO company, and a headquarters company. The student companies included a complete military chain of command, from company commander down to platoon sergeants, dedicated to creating an environment in which the students could develop as military linguists. For example, an increased amount of academic remediation work was done in the troop units. As its assigned student strength grew during the year, Troop Command suffered from a shortage of platoon sergeants. It also took over one of the three buildings being used by the Naval Security Group Detachment and the 3483rd Student Squadron (ATC), whose numbers were declining.

In December the Troop Command headquarters staff moved into the newly-completed military personnel building (Bldg. 616), freeing up more barracks space. This move was not without its problems. For example, telephone lines were not fully operational in the new building for several months.

US Air Force 3483rd Student Squadron

The institute had been involved in language training for the US Air Force long before it became a separate service in 1947. Many of the institute's World War II graduates served with Army Air Force units in the Far East. After the war the newly-independent Air Force continued to send airmen to



Field Day: Students get out of the classroom to compete against other units during the annual field day activities.

the Army's language school, but in the 1950s it also established contract language training programs with several civilian universities. When these programs were phased out in the 1960s, Air Force input at the Presidio of Monterey increased, and in 1973 a student group was established. By 1988 this had evolved into the 3483rd Student Squadron (Air Training Command) under the command of Major Robert Nethery, USAF, and Chief Master Sergeant Jerry Stoops, USAF. The squadron provided military linguists to the Electronic Security Command and other Air Force elements around the world.

During FY 1988, 25% fewer Air Force students began their language training as the year before, down from 688 to 519, a continuation of the steady decline in Air Force training requirements since 1981. Air Force students were led by the officers and NCOs of the squadron and its subordinate flights. Personnel and administrative support was provided by Operating Location A of the 323rd Air Base Group (Air Training Command), under Chief Master Sergeant Rodger Nunnemaker, USAF. During the year the squadron moved its headquarters from its original building (Bldg. 627) into a newly completed administrative building (Bldg. 834) in the Russian Village area and back again. By early the following year the Operating Location A personnel had moved into the new military personnel building (Bldg. 616), shared with Troop Command.

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US Naval Security Group Detachment

The Navy has a long tradition of using linguists in military intelligence roles, operating from shore-based, airborne, surface, or subsurface platforms, where duty was often hazardous. Over ninety percent of the Navy enlisted students were undergoing language training to earn the Cryptologic Technician Interpretive (CTI) rating. During 1988 the detachment nominated one of its fallen graduates for the newly-constructed fitness center, CTI3 Patrick R. Price, who graduated from the Russian Basic Course in 1985 and died in an EA-3B Skywarrior accident in the Mediterranean in January 1987. The dedication ceremony, held in January 1989, was personally presided over by the Commander, Naval Security Group Command.⁶

For the first decades after World War II, most Navy linguists were trained at the Navy's own school in Washington, DC. (Until 1963 this was the foreign language department of the Naval Intelligence School; after 1963 it became the DLI East Coast Branch.) In 1975 this branch was closed, and the Naval Security Group Command established a detachment at the Presidio of Monterey, reporting directly to the Commander, Naval Security Group Command.

During 1988 the Navy sent 56 officers and 293 enlisted sailors to study at DLIFLC, a 32% decrease in just two years. Navy enlisted personnel coming to study Spanish, for example, dropped by half. The detachment gave up one of its three barracks to Troop Command, which was beginning to triple-up students in rooms designed for two. Their dwindling numbers were more than made up for by their high morale, which was reflected in many ways, from winning the Area Six Sailor of the Year competition in January 1988 (CTI1 Michael C. Braham), to volunteer activities and fund-raising for charitable and social service activities.

In 1988 the officer in charge (OIC), Lieutenant Commander Thomas W. Hanneke, USN, had been at DLIFLC since 1985, the longest-serving of the four service unit commanders. He was aided by Assistant OIC Chief Warrant Officer 3 William J. O'Brien, USN, and Command Senior Chief CTICS Ronald L. Clemens, USN. The detachment benefited from its proximity to a larger naval activity, the Naval Postgraduate School in Monterey, which provided personnel and financial services and logistical support. In December the detachment moved its administrative offices out of their original space in Bldg. 629A into the newly-completed military personnel building (Bldg. 616), which they were to share with the US Army Troop Command and Operating Location A of the 323rd Air Base Group.

US Marine Corps Administrative Detachment

Marine students at the institute were assigned to the Marine Corps Administrative Detachment, commanded by Major James R. Rickard, USMC. Before coming to the institute, Rickard, a 1981 graduate of the Russian Basic Course, had served as a Presidential Translator with the Moscow-Washington Direct Communications Link, the famous "Hotline." In addition to supporting

the Marine students at DLIFLC, his detachment provided administrative support to about a hundred fifty Marine officers studying at the Naval Post-graduate School.⁷

The number of Marines coming to DLIFLC rose sharply in FY 1988, from 190 to 307. The number of enlisted Marine students had more than doubled in just two years. This was a small but significant infusion of high-quality students, who generally came with DLAB scores several points higher than their classmates from the other services. During the year the enlisted Marine students were moved from three separate barracks into one wing of Bldg. 629.⁸

In 1988, as in the past, the students themselves remained the most important factor in the education process. The recruitment and identification of qualified students was a constant challenge to the services. Enhancing their learning environment was the primary challenge for their military leaders at DLIFLC. Even though few had any previous instruction in the languages they were studying, they were generally energetic and talented learners. Most were able to profit from the unique educational environment, adapting their personal learning strategies to match the system. Some students found the courses beyond their abilities. Some others worked their way through their courses without engaging their full potential as learners.

Overall there remained room for improvement in making the students a stronger factor in the learning process, although the institute had made progress in recent years. Good military leaders, like good teachers, worked to change what they could to enhance the learning process and to actively mold the learning environment into an effective part of the process of foreign language education. Their efforts, like those of the institute's managers, were often dependent on the level of support they could expect from the institute's sustainment systems, which are the subject of the final chapter.

Chapter Five
Sustaining Foreign Language Education
in 1988

Foreign languages cannot be taught effectively without a responsive sustainment system. Faculty must be hired and paid, information must be gathered and shared, textbooks must be printed and distributed, facilities must be built and maintained, and students must be housed, fed, and otherwise cared for. The Army's capstone manual for military operations, FM 100-5, stated emphatically that on the modern battlefield "sustainment is a central, potentially decisive aspect of operations, not an adjunct to them."¹ This is equally true in the teaching of foreign languages. At the Defense Language Institute a complex array of supporting organizations made up the institute's "life support systems."

Only an inexperienced observer would call these operations routine. In fact, they operated in a complex and constantly-changing environment, subject to personnel turbulence, fluctuating funding, and rapidly-changing requirements. Managers and front-line operators in each area had to negotiate a complicated terrain of rules, requirements, personalities, and funding, meeting the demands of the moment while laying plans for an uncertain future. In 1988 these areas were undergoing changes every bit as important as those affecting management or academic areas.

The institute's organizational agility--its ability to respond to change--was in large part determined by the flexibility of these support systems. FM 100-5 called for military organizations to be "physically and psychologically capable of responding rapidly to changing requirements."² In 1988 the support staff worked hard to provide this ability to respond to change in five broad areas: personnel, resources, information, facilities, and supplies and services.

Managing Sustainment Operations

By the 1980s the institute had developed a complex set of management arrangements to direct its sustainment operations. The key players divided the responsibilities, each overseeing a different part of the whole. As commandant, Colonel Poch seldom involved himself in day-to-day sustainment operations, relying on the assistant commandant, chief of staff, and school secretary to keep things on track.

The duties of the assistant commandant in this area were expanded by a revision to DLIFLC Memorandum 10-1, published 1 February 1988, in which he was "specifically tasked to oversee and monitor the command budget process and all matters concerning the morale, welfare and command support to DLIFLC military personnel, students and staff," as well as providing "command guidance" to the four service student units. Colonel Ronald I. Cowger, USAF, had filled this position since the fall of 1987. The commandant

also put him in charge of a long-range study of information management needs, the *Information Systems Plan*, discussed in Chapter Two.³

For many years the institute had been run by an Army colonel as commandant and an Air Force colonel as assistant commandant. In 1987 a third position was created within the command group by upgrading the Navy executive officer billet from commander (O-5) to captain (O-6). The new position was titled "chief of staff," and Colonel Poch persuaded the Navy to assign a captain to it. His duties were to serve as the "commandant's principal assistant for support and coordinations," to include supervision of key directorates such as school secretary, resource management, civilian personnel, and information management, and several independent offices such as the Washington Office, public affairs, protocol, and the command historian.⁴

While the institute waited for the Navy to fill the position, it was held by two other officers. The first was Colonel Robert M. DePhilippis, USAF, who retired in February 1988. He was followed by Lieutenant Colonel Vladimir Sobichevsky, USA, a Special Forces officer who had come to the institute to serve as the assistant dean of the School of East European Languages. When Captain John A. Moore, USN, arrived in August from a command assignment in Okinawa, he was the most senior naval officer to serve on the institute staff in over a decade.

The third key player in managing sustainment operations was the school secretary. Under the TRADOC school model, the school secretary was supposed to oversee most support operations and was aligned under the chief of staff. At DLIFLC the school secretary's duties were restricted to a shorter list of operations, such as facilities management, printing, security, logistics, the adjutant's office, and liaison with the garrison commander.⁵ Commander Sydney Thornton, USN, was the school secretary until her retirement in September. With the arrival of the new chief of staff, Sobichevsky then took over (he was promoted to colonel September 1).

Under the three primary managers of the institute's sustainment operations was a second tier of offices and directorates that operated semi-autonomously. The chief of resource management, the civilian personnel officer, and the director of information management all continued to enjoy direct access to the commandant, as did the inspector general and the equal employment opportunity officer. Others operated with minimum supervision, such as the public affairs officer, protocol officer, command historian, and command sergeant major.

Some support functions were decentralized to each school and the troop units. Troop Command had its own small-scale supply operation, for example, which included responsibility for the dining facilities and International Cookery.

Other areas were beyond the institute's direct control. Because the institute was a TRADOC activity on a Forces Command (FORSCOM) installation, base operations support was provided by Fort Ord, the nearest FORSCOM installation, and coordinated by the garrison commander. In 1988 this position was filled by Colonel Bruce E. Wilson, USA. He and his staff oversaw all installation-type activities on the Presidio and worked closely with

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the school secretary. Although they worked hard to support the institute, their overall room for maneuver was limited by how much support Fort Ord was willing and able to give.

Another independent agency, the US Army Corps of Engineers, supervised the on-going construction program on the Presidio in accordance with the 1982 master plan. To further complicate matters, the program was not funded by the Army as Military Construction-Army (MCA), but was under the control of the Department of Defense as Title IV funding. This required close coordination between DLIFLC and the Office of Assistant Secretary of Defense for Command, Control, Communications, and Intelligence (OASD[C3I]).

Still other support operations had been turned over to private contractors. The dining facilities and janitorial services had long been operated under contract. In 1987 most audio-visual services were handed over to The Big Picture Company (later renamed "The Source AV"). Many printing requirements were handled through the Government Printing Office with direct-deal contracts. Office copiers and many of the older computer systems were leased and serviced by maintenance contracts.

The managerial complexity of these sustainment systems was a constant challenge to the institute's top leaders. Despite this, during 1988 sustainment managers and operators delivered a high level of support to teachers and students that permitted the institute to accomplish its foreign language training mission.

Managing Resources

The most important side of sustainment is procuring and controlling the lifeblood of the institute, the dollars and workyears upon which all else is based. This job fell to the resource management directorate, headed by Major Randy R. Beckman, USA. Their roles in supporting the commandant's initiatives and in strategic planning were described in Chapter Two. Behind the scenes they also played less dramatic but equally important roles.⁶

The administration of a budget that was approaching \$50 million a year took skill and persistence, especially in such a complex funding environment. In the spring a new budget officer, Caroline J. Bottger, was brought in to oversee the process. Beckman and Bottger were committed to opening up the budget process within the institute. They presided over periodic Resource Advisory Subcommittee (RASC) meetings and tried to give the school deans and the chiefs of the other directorates more control over their budgets. Civilian payroll costs, contracts, supplies and equipment, and travel all presented their over special problems. Few of the final recipients of this funding had any idea of the complexity of the process by which it had been procured.

The management side of the operation, overseen by John Estep, was equally complex. The institute's organization manual, DLIFLC Memorandum 10-1, republished in February, had to be constantly tended, as did the TDA. Not a secretary could be moved, nor a position be upgraded without the involvement of resource management. During 1988 the office conducted a

management study of the Logistics Division, and the recommended "most efficient organization" was approved and implemented. In March TRADOC conducted a manpower survey that, when incorporated into the TDA, resulted in the conversion of eight language departments into separate branches within multi-language departments.

The efficient management of resources showed up in many ways. FY 1988 was closed out with a net obligation rate of 99.998%, exceeding the TRADOC goal. Workyear allocations were within 1% of programmed authorizations. The Internal Control System was administered by the use of annual assurance statements from subordinate managers based on internal control review checklists. Through the SPIRIT (Systematic Productivity Improvement Review in TRADOC) program the institute demonstrated total savings of \$9.444 million in budget savings and cost avoidance. The STARS (Standard Time and Activity Reporting System) program was extended into several additional offices during the year.

The office also supported the institute's managers by providing timely and useful information, such as the annual budget cost review and the *Quarterly Review and Analysis*, which was redesigned and published in a new format in 1988. As described in Chapter Two, the master plan was revised and republished in April, and beginning in September the first major rewrite in three years was launched. Also in the fall TRADOC directed that two formerly separate planning documents, the Long Range Plan and the Installation Program, be combined into one Long Range Planning and Programming document and be fully automated for the first time.

As a result of their efforts the institute was blessed in 1988 with the largest budget and the best results--measured by DLPT scores--in its history. The people in resource management "weren't just producing money, they were producing money toward an end, and that was to produce a better-qualified student, and they knew whether that was happening," as Colonel Poch later put it.⁷

Personnel Service Support: Military

Providing personnel service support to the institute's military staff, with all four services represented, was a constant challenge. Many of these personnel were military language instructors with extensive field experience as military linguists. Others were officers who serving as associate deans and executive officers in the language schools. Still others came from administrative backgrounds in other military training programs. For most of them it was their first assignment working side by side with members of their sister services. It was a joint duty assignment in all but name.

Army personnel received their personnel service support from the Troop Command Military Personnel Branch. In May 1988 this was removed from the control of the Troop Commander and placed under the office of the school secretary. Air Force permanent party were supported by the small Air Force Element and Operating Location A of the 323rd Air Base Group (Air Training Command), which supported more than eight hundred airmen assigned to the

institute, Fort Ord, and the Naval Postgraduate School. An example of the quality of support personnel working at DLIFLC was Staff Sergeant Debra Wecker, USAF, from this office, who was selected as Air Training Command personnel supervisor of the year (unit level). Navy personnel were supported by the personnel support detachment at the nearby Naval Postgraduate School. As usual the Marine Corps was the most independent of all; the Marine Corps Administrative Detachment supported not only students and permanent party at the institute, but also all other Marine personnel in the region, including over a hundred officer students at the Naval Postgraduate School.

The institute's leaders had long hoped to physically consolidate these military personnel activities. During 1988 a long-awaited two-story office building was constructed, with room for most of them. Late in the year Troop Command and the Military Personnel Branch moved in, together with the transportation office and the Scheduled Airlines Ticket Office (SATO). Early the next year the Naval Security Group Detachment and a portion of the Air Force activities moved in as well. This consolidation, while beneficial in the long run, had some short-term costs. In particular, the quality of support to affected personnel suffered initially because of problems with hiring a contractor to install a telephone system. Fort Ord's Information Systems Command staff finally used their own short resources to install a system over a three month time period.

Personnel Service Support: Civilian

The institute's most important resource was its faculty, who collectively had over 10,000 years of foreign language teaching experience. During the two year period 1987-88 more people worked at the institute than ever before. In FY 1987 the total civilian strength was 1,258, and in FY 1988 it declined slightly to 1,238, but in the latter year the institute used 1,230 workyears, a 4% increase in one year.⁸ Because of the institute's decades-old policy of hiring mostly native speakers, its faculty was a more diverse group by any measure than almost any other federal government agency. The administration of this diverse work force was one of the biggest management challenges for the institute's leaders.

These duties were carried out by the Civilian Personnel Office, which provided a full range of personnel services and support to managers and supervisors, such as training, recruitment, employee benefits, labor relations, classification, and records. As in years past, they administered a complex tangle of civil service regulations, court orders, and contract terms, all the while trying to balance the needs of the institute and fairness to each individual, a nearly impossible task. Its internal organization had remained little changed for more than a decade, with separate branches covering the areas of position management and classification, management-employee relations, recruitment and placement, technical services, and training and development.⁹

In January 1988 Brian Brummer arrived from the USAREUR civilian personnel office to assume the duties of DLIFLC Civilian Personnel Officer (CPO), following Robert Snow. Brummer had the ill fortune to come in at a difficult time for the institute that included several reduction-in-force (RIF) actions.

Shifting language training requirements in the services forced the institute to reduce its staff in certain languages. Over the previous decade the institute had trimmed down the number of temporary instructors on its rolls, so the cuts had to be made from the ranks of the permanent instructors. Two of the four language departments at the Presidio of San Francisco branch were RIF-ed upon closing, rather than transferred back to Monterey. In an unrelated action, four warehouse workers were RIF-ed in August based on a management study of the logistics division. In addition, the provost consolidated several smaller departments, forcing the RIF-ing in November of seven GS-12 department chairs and seven bi-lingual clerks. Most of the chairs accepted positions as GS-11 branch chiefs in the new multilingual departments. In all, seventeen employees were affected by the November RIFs, but only four were completely terminated. During FY 1988 DLIFLC paid out \$180,000 in severance pay and in FY 1989 another \$101,000.¹⁰

Another challenge for the institute in the 1980s was faculty recruitment. The pay range the institute could offer made it noncompetitive for the best foreign language teachers who had the credentials to find positions at American colleges and universities. The general preference for native-speakers also made it difficult to hire Americans who might have learned a foreign language in other ways. The resulting pool of applicants was extremely uneven in teaching ability, and the institute worked hard to develop the individual instructors once they were hired. Yet somehow the institute continued to find applicants for its faculty positions. During FY 1988 the civilian personnel office initiated 133 hiring actions, 40% of which were for Russian instructors.

Professional development was hampered by the limited travel funds available to the institute, which were cut back by one third in 1988. Travel funding targeted for the language schools and civilian training was reduced by one half, and totaled only \$36,000. School deans and department chairs who wanted to send their faculty to academic conferences or off-site training programs were budgeted at less than \$30 per instructor.

Discontent with the civil service system for managing an academic work force had boiled to the surface in 1986. The rank-in-position system, together with a GS-9 cap on instructors, with a top salary of \$29,800 after twenty years, made it very difficult to recruit and retain quality faculty. The institute staff had developed a proposal for a "New Personnel System," and submitted it for ultimate Congressional approval. But after it secured TRADOC, DA, and DoD approval it seemed stalled. This left the institute in the difficult position of continuing to administer its personnel under a system that it had already declared inadequate. However by 1988 the leaders of the faculty union, Local 1263 of the National Federation of Federal Employees (NFFE), had come out against the New Personnel System, fearing the loss of the ironclad safeguards

of the civil service system once the institute's leadership would have more management flexibility.¹¹

The overall level of faculty discontent appeared to be on the decline in 1988. The commandant, Colonel Poch, repeatedly stressed to various faculty audiences the importance of avoiding confrontations in employee-management relations. The employees had several well-used channels to communicate their problems to senior managers. The number of grievances filed through the union declined from 47 in FY 1987 to 32 in FY 1988, and the number of unfair labor practice complaints declined from nine to two. The number of formal discrimination complaints filed with the equal employment opportunity office held steady at nine, but the number of disciplinary or adverse personnel actions doubled to 29 in the same period. The number of civilians going to the inspector general with complaints or requests for action declined from 76 to 19 in just two years. During the first half of the year Lieutenant Colonel Robert Anchondo, assistant dean of the Asian School, served as the acting inspector general, and in August Major Douglas Clark arrived to take on the job full-time.¹²

Another office that worked to insure fair play for all employees was the Equal Employment Opportunity Office, headed for over ten years by Kathyne Burwell. Burwell supervised three full-time employees and a network of over fifty collateral duty employees. During 1988 the office was evaluated by the Department of the Army EEO Compliance and Complaints Review Agency, which called the "management of the EEO complaints program and regulatory and policy guidance . . . innovative and exemplary." In February the office moved closer to the headquarters building into larger offices in the Tin Barn.¹³

In addition to handling discrimination complaints, the office also managed several special emphasis programs. The Federal Womens Program monitored the progress of women throughout the institute. In recent years there had been a gradual increase in the numbers of women among the students and staff. In 1988 the proportion of women on the faculty approached fifty percent, and two of the seven school deans were women. Among the students the proportion of women had grown from almost none in the early 1970s to over one-fourth. There was a negative side to this change in the face of the institute. During 1988 the inspector general conducted a survey on sexual harassment and reported that "recent trends indicate sexual harassment within the workplace is on the rise."¹⁴ A special training program was begun for all employees entitled "Prevention of Sexual Harassment (POSH)."

Asian and Pacific Islander employees also had a special emphasis program. The original faculty in World War II was composed of Japanese-Americans, whose families suffered from severe discrimination. After the war the constant demand of the services for Korean, Chinese, and the other Asian languages guaranteed that the institute would continue to have large groups of Asian faculty.

The job status of the institute's Hispanic employees were monitored by the Hispanic Employment Program. Although California's Hispanic population was one of the largest in the nation, other than in the Spanish departments, few Hispanics worked at the institute. In 1988 the institute was

also directed to establish a Black Employment Program, which Burwell took on herself, for the institute's Black employees were few in number. Handicapped employees were assisted by yet another program, which was more oriented toward educating supervisors than the others. In 1988 the civilian personnel office began a special handicapped awareness training program for supervisors called "Windmills."

The institute's diverse staff, including many who were foreign-born, required a security office. All the institute's students were in training for sensitive duty assignments, and the instructors all required security investigations prior to hiring. During most of 1988 this position was vacant, and the clerical staff was relocated twice. In December James R. Woodruff arrived from the Fort Ord security office to take over as the permanent security manager.¹⁵

During the same period the steady stream of visitors to the institute was handled by the Protocol Office; headed by Pierette Harter. Each month a dozen or more official visitors toured the place, including two or three flag-rank officers on the average. Her office was also responsible for local arrangements for all special events that brought visitors from out of town, such as the annual meeting of the General Officer Steering Committee or the Board of Visitors.¹⁶

The achievements of the institute was publicized internally and to the local community by the Public Affairs Office, which was responsible for community relations and the biweekly DLIFLC *Globe*. Until February 1988 the Public Affairs Officer was Major Dianne Dempsey. She was followed by Major Henry R. Hebert. This office was generally responsible for community relations, which included DLIFLC support to any number of local civic and charitable events and contact with the local news media.

This broad range of personnel service support provided to the institute was an indication of the importance of the people factor in foreign language education. Just as its people were the institute's most important resource, the effective management of these people was the most important aspect of the sustainment challenge.

Managing Information

An organization the size and complexity of the Defense Language Institute could not be run without volumes of information being collected, processed, and analyzed. Student data, financial data, and even textbooks were in constant flux. Austere staffing made it difficult to keep up with traditional clerical functions such as inventory control and typing support. During 1988 the institute was caught between two worlds, and its information management operators faced a triple challenge: to maintain a constant level of automation support, implement a far-reaching modernization program, and plan for a not-too-distant future that promised to look very different from the present.

During 1988 the field of information management took a big jump in complexity at the institute when the information revolution became an

avalanche. After more than a decade of managing with a single mainframe minicomputer and a handful of terminals, supplemented in recent years by a few desktop publishing systems and personal computers, in 1988 the institute gained an IBM 4361 mainframe and 170 IBM-compatible personal computers. The computer revolution hit the institute in a big way, and supervisors and secretaries scrambled to learn new skills. During FY 1988 the institute purchased about \$765,000 worth of equipment and spent about \$650,000 on computer leasing and maintenance, nearly 15% of its total non-personnel costs.¹⁷

Responding to these waves of change, the director of Information Management, David J. Shoemaker, organized a panel early in the year to develop an *Information Systems Plan for Strategic Alignment*, described in Chapter Two. He enlisted the support of the commandant, and Assistant Commandant Colonel Cowger was named chairman of the study. Even before their study was complete, it was clear that the institute's most pressing administrative need was for a management information system that relied on a "corporate data base" to "support key decision makers" inside and outside the institute. Second priority was given to revolutionizing the way the departments wrote curricular materials by supporting desktop publishing. The use of educational technology in the classrooms was given third priority.¹⁸

Even the telephone system demanded management's attention. It had to be maintained and adapted to changing requirements. In January the institute quickly installed a special telephone bank for oral testing of On-Site Inspection Agency Russian linguists.

The institute printed large quantities of foreign language training materials each year in its in-house print plant with a staff of fifteen. In 1988 this operation worked at a five-year high volume, with the beneficial side effect of reducing per-unit costs. In May Richard C. Miles left as print plant manager, and in October he was replaced by Michael Southhard.¹⁹

The institute's autonomy in determining its own information management destiny was under pressure as well. The Army's overall approach to information management was changing, and one initiative was the consolidation of all information management under a single regional Director of Information Management (DOIM), which would have subsumed DLIFLC under the Fort Ord DOIM. DLIFLC worked successfully to obtain TRADOC support for an exemption from this requirement based on an analysis of DLIFLC's unique information needs.

Shoemaker also tried to break the single-DOIM mentality within the institute by devolving management responsibility to "functional proponents" for each separate system to get more key managers involved in managing their own systems. Proponency for EIDS, desktop publishing, and ATRRS, for example, was pushed down to the Directorate of Training and Doctrine. He also sought to revive the Technology Coordinating Council in October, originally established in 1987 to involve key decision-makers in the direction and integration of the institute's information systems.²⁰

On-going automation support was maintained with the older Harris mainframe, a dinosaur in computer terms and costly to maintain. The erratic



Office Automation: Two academic support personnel in the Nonresident Training Division use a Zenith PC, first introduced to DLIFLC in 1988.

power supply caused even more problems and resultant data loss until a "rotary uninterrupted power system (RUPS)" was purchased and installed. The influx of other new equipment strained the automation division staff, as they worked to install and repair equipment and train new users. Early in the year a General Services Agency programming contract was canceled, allowing the institute to hire five programmers as temporary government employees instead, saving the government \$70,000 each year. The staffing picture in information management looked much better by year's end than it had in 1987. Shoemaker's staff was up to twenty-two (not counting the print plant), including seven programmers, two trainers, and a newly-hired systems integration specialist.

By year's end the institute was still between two worlds in information management, but it was gradually bringing together the necessary staff, equipment, and management procedures to master the challenges. The institute had a detailed plan and was moving confidently into the future. The revolution would not come about overnight, but the institute was clearly on the right track.

Facilities

Although people and information were the two most important resources supporting the process of foreign language education, facilities were not far behind. When the institute had first come to the Presidio of Monterey in 1946, the facilities had not been designed for language training. The post was selected for climate and location, not its building stock. Over the next four decades classrooms, barracks, and support facilities were carved out of pre-existing buildings or built from scratch as the Army construction budget allowed.

By the 1980s many of the post's pre-World War I buildings had been renovated many times, and most of the World War II-era buildings had reached the end of their usable life. In the early 1980s when a strong upturn in service language training requirements was projected, the institute opened satellite training branches at Lackland Air Force Base and the Presidio of San Francisco and drafted an ambitious expansion plan. By 1988 this master plan was more than half complete, thanks to Title IV funding from the Department of Defense, and the two temporary branches had been (or were being) closed.

In 1988 several important new buildings were completed. A set of barracks was completed in the Russian Village area. These attractive dormitories won the 1988 Department of Defense Award for Facilities Design Excellence (January 1989). In April the new academic library was opened. In August a new recreation center opened. By the end of the year the new military personnel building was completed, and Army Troop Command, the Naval Security Group Detachment, and several other smaller offices moved in.

This active construction program was not directly included in the institute's budget, nor did the institute directly manage it. It was supervised by the Sacramento District, Army Corps of Engineers, and the actual work was carried out by several area building contractors. The Corps of Engineers coordinated the work with the institute's chief of facilities management, Jerry Abeyta, who worked for the school secretary. Each year at the meeting of the General Officer Steering Committee, Craig L. Wilson, primary functional sponsor for the Defense Foreign Language Program in the Office of Secretary of Defense, briefed the status of the construction program.

These new buildings gave the institute the opportunity to recognize some of its heroes. In October the new library (Bldg. 617) was dedicated to the memory of the school's World War II director of academic training, John F. Aiso, who had died in 1987. In the same ceremony the ten-year-old headquarters building (Bldg. 614) was dedicated to the school's World War II commandant, Colonel Kai E. Rasmussen, who had passed away that spring. In January 1989 the Commander Naval Security Group Command, Rear Admiral McFarland, dedicated the new fitness center to a graduate of the DLIFLC Russian basic course, CTI3 Patrick R. Price, killed in an aircraft accident in the Mediterranean in 1987. The military personnel building was dedicated in January 1990 to Lieutenant Robert F. Taylor, USN, also a graduate of the Russian basic course.

Despite all this new construction, the institute still did not fit comfortably into its facilities. Two former elementary schools in Monterey and Pacific Grove were still being leased for \$392,000 per year for office and classroom space. In FY 1988 some \$512,000 was spent on facilities renovation, including asbestos abatement within Bldg. 624. (Some of this money had come as prize money for winning the TRADOC Installation of Excellence award the year before.) In the spring the chief of staff directed a major reshuffle of office space. The Evaluation and Standardization directorate moved into Munzer Hall, vacated by the academic library, Information Management and several smaller offices moved into the former headquarters building, Bldg. 277, and the Curriculum Division moved into renovated Bldg. 339.

Because base operations support came from Fort Ord, the upkeep of existing facilities required even more coordination than the construction of new ones. The school secretary worked with the garrison commander daily to ensure that they were kept up to acceptable standards. Although the Asian School won the TRADOC award for best classroom facility in the TRADOC Installation of Excellence evaluation in the summer, the institute as a whole was not able to repeat its prize-winning performance of the year before. The general age of most of the facilities, the indirect channels of support, and a long-term drought in the region made it difficult to compete in Army-wide competition. In July the Monterey Peninsula Water Management District declared a "water supply emergency" and threatened hefty fines to violators. The institute was nevertheless lauded for making the most out of the facilities it had and for bringing on-line an impressive set of new ones better suited to meet its needs.

Supplies and Services

Another category of sustainment was even more diverse. It included supplies, equipment, printing, medical support, and other services that provided essential day-to-day support to students, instructors, and the administrative staff. Many of these functions were supervised by the school secretary, but not all of them. During 1988 the tempo of operations in this area picked up appreciably.

The Logistics Division under its chief, Fred Koch, and the property book officer, Dave Curran, provided a wide variety of supplies and services to the institute under the direction of the school secretary. To help them manage their operations and to educate their customers they republished DLIFLC Memorandum 735-1 on August 1. They managed a property book of over \$12 million and oversaw the purchase and distribution all supplies and equipment. Funding for supplies and equipment had rebounded in FY 1988 to about \$2 million, the recent normal level, after a one year plunge to half that. A major challenge for logistics was the transfer of the Presidio of San Francisco branch to Monterey late in the year. In all, thousands of items of furniture were moved to the Presidio of Monterey at a cost of \$79,000.²¹

Audio-visual services are vital to a modern foreign language center. These were provided by a private contractor, The Source AV, Inc., then in their

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second year of contract. The local office was headed by Wanda Straw, who stayed with the DLIFLC contract from its inception until January 1989. Overall the institute paid \$731,000 a year for this support. The institute's interests were represented by the audio-visual manager/contracting officer representative under the school secretary (beginning 1 January 1988). The first was William F. Champin until May 1988, when he left and Alan M. Merriman took over.²²

The coordination of printing and duplicating all multimedia language teaching materials was handled by the Production Coordination Office headed by Barbara Driscoll. The office had been established by the director of information management in 1986 to manage the process of meeting the institute's diverse printing and tape duplication needs. In close coordination with the print plant and the audio-visual management office the office also supervised the overall contract printing and tape duplication programs. In January 1988 this office was shifted organizationally to the school secretary, and physically to a newly-renovated building across the street from the print plant (Bldg. 254).²³

The garrison staff and other agencies provided many other forms of support, such as security, facilities engineers, grounds keeping, officers club, NCO club, bowling alley, post library, museum, chapel, movie theater, recreation center, and two gymnasiums. The garrison commander also coordinated local AAFES operations. Other kinds of support were provided either by Fort Ord, such as finance and accounting, contracting, housing, medical, transportation, and commissary, or the surrounding communities, such as utilities, dependent schools, and emergency services. These support operations did undergo at least one major change in 1988, the change of the troop medical clinic to a private contractor in June, renaming it PRIMUS (Primary Medical Care for the Uniformed Services).

The institute's support structure for sustainment operations set the outer limits to its ability to respond to change. During 1988 its sustainment operators were working close to capacity, yet the future promised to bring more change, not less. Resources, personnel, information, facilities, and logistics all had to be orchestrated to support classroom instruction. These requirements were complex and were provided from a variety of sources by small groups of professionals who were constantly coordinating and improvising, all to provide the necessary "life-support functions" of the institute. None of these could operate on automatic pilot--they required constant attention and sophisticated understanding by the institute's top leadership, whose attention was often taken up with seemingly more pressing matters. The lesson of 1988 was that the institute could only strive for excellence as fast as its sustainment structure would allow.

Conclusion

During 1988 DLIFLC responded to an urgent new requirement to train Russian interpreters for the On-Site Inspection Agency, while continuing its basic mission of training some 4,500 military personnel in more than thirty foreign languages, much as it had for over forty years. This new mission highlighted the strengths and weaknesses of the Defense Foreign Language Program, which was infused with new activism during the year. Its leaders came increasingly to focus on the need for carefully defining their requirements, properly managing their linguists, stabilizing resourcing, and developing effective command language programs.

While DLIFLC was not an island unto itself, much was also done in-house during the year to strengthen its role. Persistent focus on academics was showing solid results as measured by student proficiency scores, led by the largest program, Russian, whose students rose from 23% to 60% achieving the 2/2 standard in just three years. More teachers in the classrooms, team teaching, revisions to some basic courses, and renewed involvement by the military language instructors were all bringing results.

The institute was also succeeding in institutionalizing these changes. The five-year-old facilities master plan was continuing to bear fruit, as was the more recent academic master plan. The unexpected removal of the commandant in September 1988 did little to affect these reforms. A succession of leaders of the institute had developed a consensus on the worth of their ideas that had survived their limited tenures.

New challenges lay ahead. The institute would have to continue to work to broaden its academic excellence in order to fulfill its responsibility to deliver high quality, economical language training to the Department of Defense. Maintaining program stability continued to be an essential but elusive goal. For example, student input, which had jumped 13% in FY 1988, would slip again by 9% the following year. The institute was forced to close ten small languages, a calculated risk by the Executive Agent to enable the institute to better focus its finite resources on the remaining languages. The GOSC was to raise the stakes, challenging the institute to achieve 80% 2/2 in all languages within a few years, a quid pro quo for the increased resource levels DLIFLC's leaders had been requesting. The groundswell from the field continued to mount for the institute to become more active in support of command language programs. The institute was to face new opportunities to explore emerging technologies.

When the new commandant, Colonel Donald C. Fischer, Jr., USA, took command in August 1989 he found an institute riding the crest of change. By the end of the year it was called upon to support yet another contingency mission, Operation Just Cause in Panama. Once again the strengths and weaknesses of the Defense Foreign Language Program and the institute were revealed. And once again events were to show that the institute's most important contribution to national security was its years of steady effort, as it built upon its historic strengths and sought ways to become even stronger.

Notes

Chapter One: The Defense Foreign Language Program in 1988

1. ATFL-NCR, memo, subj: Assessment of Foreign Language Resources in the Intelligence Community, 29 Jul 88, IIF-1.
2. Roland Lajoie, "The On-Site Inspection Agency Earns Its Stripes," *Defense 89* (January/February 1989), 18-23; Information paper, ATFL-NCR, subj: DLIFLC Support to On-Site Inspection Agency, 7 Jan 89, included in GOSC read ahead packet for the 26 Jan 89 meeting, Tab E.; ATFL-NCR OSIA support chronology.
3. Memo, ATFL-NCR, Subj: Language Requirements Study, 20 Dec 88, page 1. This staff study, based on the experience of the first year of wrestling with language problems for OSIA, was prepared by LTC Kozumplik at the request of BG Lajoie.
4. Interview with COL Todd Robert Poch, 3 Apr 90.
5. OSIA, msg, subj: Language Requirements for Linguists, 252320Z Mar 88.
6. Defense Foreign Language Program (DFLP) General Officer Steering Committee (GOSC) Summary Report, 28 Jan 88.
7. CTM/TDNC, msg, subj: Military Cryptologic Language Training, 031903Z Jan 89, included at Tab L to the 26 Jan 89 GOSC briefing book. The US Army Intelligence and Security Command (INSCOM), Air Force Electronic Security Command (ESC), Naval Security Group Command (NAVSECGRUCOM), and Marine Support Battalion (MARSUPBN) are all referred to as service cryptologic elements, and together make up the Central Security Service, the military component of the National Security Agency.
8. "Linguistics: Our Endangered Force Multiplier," *Army* (December 1988), 22-27.
9. DAMI-ISI, info paper, subj: The Army Language Program (ALP), 19 Jan 88, included in GOSC briefing book, 28 Jan 88, Tab O.
10. ASOF-OPT-L, info paper, subj: Special Operations Forces Command Language Program (CLP), 7 Jun 89.
11. ATFL-RFO, memo, subj: Declining Reserve Component Student Population at DLI, 21 Oct 88, which claimed over 1,500 vacancies; and US Army Recruiting Command, briefing slides, USAR Language Training, July 1989, which claimed 1,113 vacancies.
12. DoD Directive 5160.41, 7 Apr 88; AR 350-20, 15 Mar 87; and DAMO-TRO, info paper, subj: Defense Foreign Language Program (DFLP) General Officer Steering Committee (GOSC) Charter, 12 Jan 88, included as Tab B to GOSC briefing book, 28 Jan 88. The title of Executive Agent was held by the Secretary of the Army, but in general practice the Director of Training, ODCSOPS, was referred to as the Executive Agent. See AR 350-20, para. 1-4a&b.
13. Other principal attendees are listed in the GOSC briefing book, 28 Jan 88, Tab A, and some of their resumes in Tab R.
14. DAMO-TRO, msg, subj: 9 Feb 88 Defense Foreign Language Program (DFLP) Action Officer (AO) Meeting, 121916Z Feb 88, para. 2d; DAMO-TRO, msg, subj: Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) Cost Growth, 292331Z Dec 87; DAMO-TRO, info paper, subj: Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) Cost Growth, 12

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Jan 88; both in 28 Jan 88 GOSC briefing book, Tab G; Defense Foreign Language Program (DFLP) General Officer Steering Committee (GOSC) Summary Report, 28 Jan 88.

15. Poch interview.

16. DAMO-TRO, msg, subj: 20 Apr 88 Defense Foreign Language Program (DFLP) Action Officer (AO) Meeting, 022135Z Apr 88, para. 2a.; and ATFL-NCR, memo, subj: DFLP Action Officer Meeting Highlights, 24 Apr 88, para 4a. These issues were, in order of priority: 1. linguist life-cycle management, 2. establish minimum language standards, 3. forecast contingency requirements, 4. establish a language priority, 5. automation and educational technology, 6. DLIFLC annual program review (APR), 7. address indicator group (AIG) for unified and specified commanders, and 8. define linguist.

17. ATFL-NCR, memo, subj: Assessment of Foreign Language Resources in the Intelligence Community, 29 Jul 88, para. IIF.

18. GOSC tasking: summary report, para 3e. ATFL-NCR, memo, subj: Language Requirements Study, 20 Dec 88. See the issue summary, "Management of Service Language Programs," at Tab C, 26 Jan 89 GOSC briefing book. The tasking message is reproduced in the 26 Jan 89 GOSC briefing book, Tab F, DAMO-TRO, msg, subj: Language Billet Review, 221220Z Apr 88.

19. DLIFLC Memo 350-5, 1 Sep 88.

20. DAMO-TRO, msg, subj: Language Priority List, 271902Z May 88, included at Tab F, 26 Jan 89 GOSC briefing book; DAMO-TRO, msg, subj: 13 Sep 88 Defense Foreign Language Program (DFLP) Action Officer (AO) Meeting, 181630Z Oct 88, para. 2a(3); DAMO-TRO, info paper, subj: Contracting Low Density Languages, 10 Jan 89, included at Tab F, 26 Jan 89 GOSC briefing book; DAMO-TRO, memo, subj: Defense Foreign Language Program (DFLP) General Officer Steering Committee (GOSC) Summary Report for 26 January 1989, 13 May 89, para. 10.

Chapter Two:

Managing the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center in 1988

1. FM 22-103, *Leadership and Command at Senior Levels* (21 Jun 87), 3.
2. Transmittal letter for *A Strategy for Excellence* (October 1987), dated 10 Dec 87.
3. COL Poch, remarks to the Issues Awareness Workshop, 1 Dec 87. See also Poch interview.
4. John Keegan, *The Mask of Command* (New York: Viking, 1987), 11.
5. Dr. Clifford comments on draft annual history, 19 Sep 90; Poch interview.
6. Poch interview. For other minor changes, see DLIFLC Memorandum 10-1, 1 Feb 88.
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28. This and the passages cited below are taken from the final report, included as Tab H to DFLP GOSC briefing book, 26 Jan 89. See also "New DLI Board of Visitors slated to hold first meeting," *Globe* (October 20, 1988), 11.
29. The original members of the board were Gen. Andrew J. Goodpaster, USA, Ret., former Supreme Allied Commander-Europe (1969-74) and superintendent of the USMA (1975-79); Prof. Richard W. Lyman, former president of Stanford University (1970-80) and the Ford Foundation (1980-87); Prof. Emile A. Nakhleh, chair of the political science department, Mount St. Mary's College, Maryland; Hon. Leon E. Panetta, Congressman (D-Monterey) (1977-); Robert W. Parr, Col., USAFR, former commander, AFIA/IRD 44; Jacques Paul Klein, Brig. Gen., USAFR, Assistant to the Secretary of the Air Force for International Affairs; Gen. William R. Richardson, USA, Ret., former Army DCSOPS and TRADOC commander (1983-85); Ambassador Richard F. Staar, Col., USMCR, Ret., senior fellow at the Hoover Institution and former US ambassador to the MBFR talks (1981-83); S. Frederick Starr, president of Oberlin College, Ohio; and US Ambassador to the United Nations Vernon A. Walters (Lt. Gen., USA, Ret.). Goodpaster, Lyman, Starr, and Walters did not attend the first meeting.
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Glossary

AAFES	Army-Air Force Exchange System
ACC	Aural Comprehension Course
ACE	American Council on Education
ACES	Army Continuing Education System
ACTFL	American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages
AD	Arabic (Modern Standard Arabic)
ADIRNSA	Assistant Director National Security Agency
ALP	Army Language Program
APR	Annual Program Review
ASD(C3I)	Assistant Secretary of Defense for Command, Control, Communications and Intelligence
ATC	Air Training Command
ATRRS	Army Training Requirements and Resources System
AWOL	Absent without leave
BALT	Basic Acquisition Language Training
BCEP	Basic Course Enrichment Program
BILC	Bureau for International Language Coordination
Cat. I, II, III, IV	Categories of language difficulty
CM	Chinese-Mandarin
CTI	Cryptologic Technician (Interpretive)
CTICS	Cryptologic Technician (Interpretive) Senior Chief
CTS	Cryptologic Training System
CZ	Czech
DCSOPS	Deputy Chief of Staff for Operations and Planning (Army)
DCST	Deputy Chief of Staff for Training (TRADOC)
D-DISC	Deutsch on Disc for Independent Study on Computers
D'ECOLE	Defense Executive Committee on Language Efforts
DFLP	Defense Foreign Language Program
DIA	Defense Intelligence Agency
DLAB	Defense Language Aptitude Battery, designed to measure a student's ability to learn a foreign language
DLI	Defense Language Institute
DLIFLC	Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center
DLPT	Defense Language Proficiency Test
DoD	Department of Defense
DOIM	Director of Information Management
EEO	Equal Employment Opportunity
EIDS	Electronic Information Delivery System
ETNA	Educational Technology Needs Assessment
FAO	Foreign Area Officer
FAOOC	Foreign Area Officer Orientation Course
FERS	Federal Employees Retirement System
FLO	Final Learning Objective

Glossary

FLTCE	Foreign Language Training Center Europe
FM	Field Manual
FORSCOM	Forces Command
FR	French
FSI	Foreign Service Institute
FY	Fiscal year, 1 October to 30 September
GAFB	Goodfellow Air Force Base
GE	German
GOSC	General Officer Steering Committee
GR	Greek
GS-9, etc.	General Schedule
HE	Hebrew
ILR	Interagency Language Roundtable
INF	Intermediate-Range Nuclear Forces
IMC	Instructional Media Center
ISP	Information Systems Plan
JA	Japanese
JT	Italian
KP	Korean
KSAs	Knowledge, skills and abilities
LA	Spanish (Latin American)
Le Fox	An advanced language course for selected cryptologic students
LSCP	Language Skill Change Project
L-1, etc.	Listening comprehension level on ILR scale
MBFR	Mutual and Balanced Force Reduction
MCA	Military Construction Army
MLI	Military Language Instructor
MOLINK	Moscow-Washington Direct Communication Link; the famous "Hotline"
MOS	Military Occupational Specialty
NAVSECGRUCOM	Naval Security Group Command, the naval element that supports NSA/CSS
NCO	Noncommissioned officer
NCS	National Cryptologic School
NFFE	National Federation of Federal Employees
NSA/CSS	National Security Agency/Central Security Service
OACSI	Office of the Assistant Chief of Staff for Intelligence (Air Force)
OASA(MRA)	Office of the Assistant Secretary of the Army for Manpower and Reserve Affairs
OASD(C3I)	Office of the Assistant Secretary of Defense for Command, Control, Communications and Intelligence
ODCSINT	Office of the Assistant Chief of Staff for Intelligence (Army)
ODCSOPS	Office of the Deputy Chief of Staff for Operations and Planning (Army)
OIC	Officer in charge

OSD	Office of the Secretary of Defense
OSIA	On-Site Inspection Agency
PF	Persian-Farsi
PIC	Proficiency Enhancement Course
PL	Polish
POSH	Prevention of Sexual Harassment
PRIMUS	Primary Care for the Uniformed Services
RAC	Resource Advisory Committee
RASC	Resource Advisory Subcommittee
Ret.	Retired
RIF	Reduction-in-Force
ROTC	Reserve Officer Training Corps
RTU	Reinforcement Training Unit
RU	Russian
RUPS	Rotary Uninterrupted Power System
R-1, etc.	Reading comprehension level on the ILR scale
SATO	Scheduled Airlines Ticket Office
SES	Senior Executive Service
SIGINT	Signals intelligence
SMDR	Structure Manning Decision Review
SOF	Special Operations Forces
SOQ:IE	Student Opinion Questionnaire: Instructional Effectiveness
SOQ:PE	Student Opinion Questionnaire: Program Effectiveness
SPIRIT	Systematic Productivity Review in TRADOC
SR	Spanish (Castilian)
STARS	Standard Time and Activity Reporting System
STRAC	Special Terminology and Refresher Course
S-1, etc.	Speaking proficiency level on the ILR scale
TDA	Table of Distribution and Allowances
TH	Thai
TLO	Terminal Learning Objective
TRADOC	US Army Training and Doctrine Command
TU	Turkish
UFR	Unfinanced requirement
USA	US Army
USAR	US Army Reserve
USAF	US Air Force
USAFR	US Air Force Reserve
USAREUR	US Army-Europe
USMC	US Marine Corps
USMCR	US Marine Corps Reserve
USN	US Navy
USNR	US Navy Reserve
VN	Vietnamese

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