BILC 79

CONFERENCE REPORT
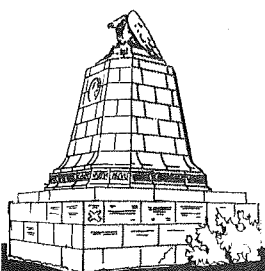
BUREAU FOR INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE COORDINATION

CONFERENCE REPORT

28 MAY - 1 JUNE 1979

DEFENSE LANGUAGE INSTITUTE

FOREIGN LANGUAGE CENTER

PRESIDIO OF MONTEREY

CALIFORNIA

TABLE OF CONTENTS

AGENDA
FOR
1979 BUREAU FOR INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE COORDINATION (BILC) CONFERENCE

<u>Wednesday, 23 May (optional)</u>

- Travel day to Washington, DC

1830   - Reception at Dr. Frith's home

<u>Thursday, 24 May (optional)</u>

0900-1230   - Interagency Roundtable Meeting

1230-1400   - Working Luncheon Presentations by:
             Office of Education - Dr. Richard Thompson
             FSI - Dr. James R. Frith
                  Dr. Earl W. Stevick
             Peace Corps - Dr. Rose Hayden

1400-1700   - Visit to the Center for Applied Linguistics

1715-1830   - Official Reception at FSI
             - Evening open

<u>Friday, 25 May (optional)</u>

0900   - Board bus at FSI

0930   - Visit Georgetown University, School of Language
             and Linguistics (Presentation on TESOL)

1030   - Bus to visit Voice of America

1130   - Bus to Rosslyn for lunch

1300   - Board bus for Washington, DC tour

1600   - End of tour
             - Remainder of day/evening open

<u>Saturday, 26 May (optional)</u>

- Travel/tour day as desired

1979 Bureau for International Language Coordination (BILC) Conference (continued)

Sunday, 27 May

- Travel day to Monterey

1600-2400
- Check in Naval Postgraduate School (NPGS), Building 220, Hermann Hall
- Hospitality Suite in La Novia Room and Terrace. No host bar and hors d'oeuvres

1800-1930
- Dinner available, El Prado Room

Monday, 28 May

0700
- Bus to Hilton Inn for breakfast

0845
- Bus to NPGS

0900
- Assemble at NPGS, Spanagel Hall, Building 232, Room 400

0930
- Administrative briefing

1000
- Coffee/tea

1030
- Tour of NPGS

1100
- Group photograph, Main Entrance, Building 220

1130
- Opening address and DLIFLC Command Briefing, COL Thomas G. Foster, III, Commandant, DLIFLC; DLIELC Command Briefing, LTC Glenn F. Hoffman, Deputy Commandant, DLIELC; BILC Rules of Procedure, LTC Geoffrey Goodman, Chairman, BILC Steering Committee

1230
- Bus to Cannery Row for lunch at any restaurant desired

1415
- Bus returns to NPGS

1430
- Spanagel Hall--Presentation on "Job and Task Analysis" by Dr. Hubert Setzler, Development and Evaluation Associates, Syracuse, New York-- Moderator: Chief of UK Delegation

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1515   - Spanagel Hall--Presentation on "Occupational Analysis" by Dr. John Legere, Assistant Deputy Commandant for Training Systems Management, US Army Intelligence School, Fort Devens, MA-- Moderator: Chief of UK Delegation

1615   - Steering Committee Meeting

1800-1900   - Dinner available, El Prado Room

Tuesday, 29 May

0700-0800   - Breakfast, El Prado Room

0830   - National Reports, Spanagel Hall

0930   - Presentation on "Focus on the Learner" by Dr. Faith W. Cartwright, Curriculum Specialist, Defense Language Institute, English Language Center, Lackland AFB, TX-- Moderator: Mr. David Ellis, Director, Language Center, HQ NATO/SHAPE

1015   - Coffee/tea

1045   - Presentation on "Individualization by Objectives" by Mr. Roger Maraschal, Directeur des Services Linguistiques Direction Generale de la Formation Linguistique, Centre Asticou, Canada-- Moderator: Dr. Francis Cartier, Director of Evaluation, DLIFLC

1130   - Presentation on "Motivation and Demotivation," Dr. Cartier; Chief, Canadian Delegation

1215   - Lunch, El Rancho Room

1330   - Study Groups, Spanagel Hall--Moderators:
                A. "Job and Task Analysis"--Dr. Legere/CAPT Harris Spanagel Hall 400
                B. "Testing"--President Maur, Bundessprachenamt Root Hall 200A
                C. "Individualization"--Chief, French Delegation Root Hall 210

1979 Bureau for International Language Coordination (BILC) Conference (continued)

        D. "Motivation and Demotivation"--Chief, Canadian Delegation Root Hall 222

1530   - Coffee/tea

1600   - Study Groups

1730   - Close

1900-2000   - Cocktails, La Novia Room

2000   - BILC dinner - Semi-formal. Guest Speaker: The Honorable Leon E. Panetta, Member of Congress, US House of Representatives

Wednesday, 30 May

0700-0800   - Breakfast, El Prado Room

0900   - Assemble Main Entrance, Hermann Hall
            - Bus to Monterey Institute of International Studies (MIIS)

0930   - MIIS Welcome Address/Visit/Interpretation of Presentation on "Motivation of Students," Mr. J. Rohrer Bundessprachenamt--Moderator: Dr. Joseph Hutchinson, Director of Training Development, DLIFLC

1100   - Bus to Colton Hall, Monterey

1115   - Vin d'Honneur with Monterey Peninsula's 7 Mayors

1205   - Bus to Rancho Cañada Carmel Valley, for lunch

1330   - Bus to Communication Satellite (COMSAT) Earth Station

1430   - Tour COMSAT

1530   - Bus to Gonzales

1630   - Tour of Monterey Winery, Gonzales

1730   - Return to NPGS

1830-1930   - Dinner available, El Prado Room
            - Evening open

Thursday, 31 May

0700-0800   - Breakfast, El Prado Room

0830   - Spanagel Hall—Presentation on "New Developments in Testing Oral Proficiency" by Mr. Robert Franco, former Supervisory Training Specialist, DLIFLC— Moderator: Chief of Belgian Delegation

0915   - Study Groups
Group A - Spanagel Hall 400
Group B - Root Hall 200A
Group C - Root Hall 200C
Group D - Root Hall 242

1015   - Coffee/tea

1045   - Study Groups

1200   - Bus to DLIFLC

1230   - No-host bar and lunch at DLIFLC Officers' and Faculty Club

1400   - Tour of DLIFLC activities:
1. Learning Resources Center (Munzer Hall)— Presentation of "Russian Training Extension Course (TEC)" materials—Escort by Mr. Gary Walter, Chief, LRC
1500   2. Tea Break, Nisei Hall, Host: Chief of Romanic-Germanic Group, Dr. Taba Tabai
1520   3. Classes (NATO languages plus Russian, Chinese, and Arabic)—Escort by the DLIFLC Group Chiefs

1600   - Bus to NPGS

1615   - Steering Committee Meeting, Spanagel Hall

1800-1930   - Dinner available, Galleon Room
or
1900-2100   - Shrimp-a-peel, El Prado Room
- Evening open

Friday, 1 June

0700-0800   - Breakfast, El Prado Room

1979 Bureau for International Language Coordination (BILC) Conference (continued)

0810	- Baggage pick-up for transfer to La Fonda Motel
0830	- Report of Steering Committee/continuation of Study Groups, Spanagel Hall
1000	- Coffee/tea
1030	- Study Groups (Report Drafting) Group A - Spanagel Hall 400 Group B - Root Hall 200A Group C - Root Hall 210 Group D - Root Hall 222
1200	- Lunch, El Rancho Room
1400	- Plenary Session/Study Group Reports
1530	- Open Forum
1600	- Closing remarks: Chief of Steering Committee; COL Foster
1800	- Dinner at COL Foster's Home

Sunday, 3 June (optional)

1000	- Outing at Point Lobos

Monday, 4 June (optional)

0700-0800	- Breakfast
0830	- Bus from motel to DLIFLC
0900	- Visit to classes; escort by Group Chiefs
1130	- Lunch in a DLIFLC Dining Facility
1300	- Assemble at DLIFLC Headquarters, Building 614, Headquarters Conference Room - Administration time

1979 Bureau for International Language Coordination (BILC) Conference
(continued)

1330   - Roundtable discussion (Director of Training Development, Director of Training, and Director of Evaluation); individual areas of interest

1600   - Bus to motel
                           - Evening open

Tuesday, 5 June (optional)

- Transportation to Monterey Airport
- Travel day

Wednesday, 6 June (optional)

A.M.   - Welcome and briefing - Tour of Defense Language Institute, English Language Center (DLIELC), COL M. A. Melville, Commandant
                           - Session I - "Nonresident Language Programs" - Mr. John Devine

P.M.   - Session II - DLI Master TESOL Lecture "Structural Features in Technical/subtechnical English" - Dr. John Fanselow

Thursday, 7 June (optional)

A.M.   - Session III - "Curriculum Development" - Mr. Hector Navarez
                           - Session IV - "Language testing" - Mr. Douglas Mebane

P.M.   - Tour University of Texas at San Antonio

Friday, 8 June (optional)

A.M.   - Session V - "Evaluation of Language Training" - Mr. Cortez Parks
                           - Session VI - "TEFL Instructor Training" - Mr. Arthur Reyna

1979 Bureau for International Language Coordination (BILC) Conference
(continued)

P.M.   - Session VII - "Crosscultural Communication" -
                        Mr. Ted Klein

                        Saturday, 9 June (optional)

                    - Travel day

Belgium

Commandant W. Cranshoff   Department of Languages, Ecole Royale Militaire, Brussels

Canada

Lt Col A. Taschereau   Director Language Training, Canadian Armed Forces

Lt Col R.H. Thomson   Commandant, Canadian Forces Language School

Mr. R. Lapoint   Government Federal Direction Generale de la Formation Linguistique

Mr. R. Mareschal   Federal Government of Canada, Language Teaching Branch Linguistic Services Directorate

France

Lt Col J. de Gouvello   Director of Studies, Centre de Langues et Etudes Etrangeres Militaires

Federal Republic of Germany

Herr H. Maur   Prasident des Bundessprachenamtes

Herr J. Rohrer   Head of Language Training Division, Bundessprachenamt

Herr G. Justen   Inspector Non-Resident Language Training Bundessprachenamt

Dr. D. Bartzsch   Chief, Language Section, MOD, Bonn

Mr. E. Leben   Assistant Chief, Language Section, MOD, Bonn

Netherlands

Lt Col K. Helder   Director of Studies, Language Department, School of Military Intelligence, Holland

Portugal

Lt Col A.S. de P Carvalho   General Staff of Armed Forces of Portugal

United Kingdom

Lt Col G.S. Goodman   Officer Commanding Army School of Language and Chairman of BILC

Sqn Ldr D. Green   Language Desk, Training and Education Department, Ministry of Defense (Air)

Lt Cdr A. Rutherford   Language Advisor to the Director of Naval Education and Training

Mr. G.G. Worrall   Language Advisor and Training Resources Officer, Institute of Army Education and BILC Secretariat

United States

Col T.G. Foster III — Commandant, Defense Language Institute, Foreign Language Center

Dr. J. Hutchinson — Director of Training Development, Defense Language Institute, Foreign Language Center

Mr. P. de Lespinois — Director of Training, Defense Language Institute, Foreign Language Center

Dr. F.A. Cartier — Director of Evaluation, Defense Language Institute, Foreign Language Center

Mr. A. Gau — Chief of Nonresident Instruction Division, Defense Language Institute, Foreign Language Center
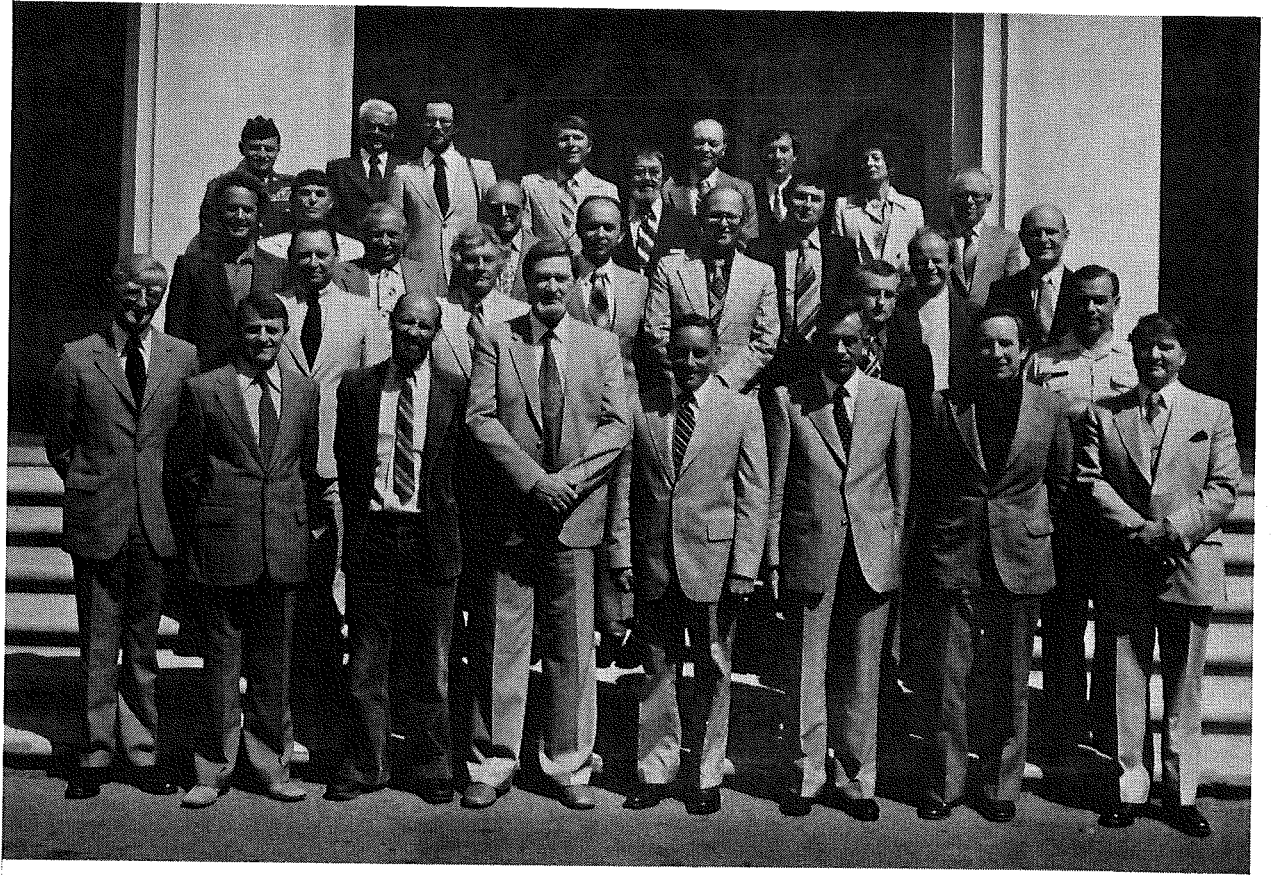
SHAPE/IMS NATO

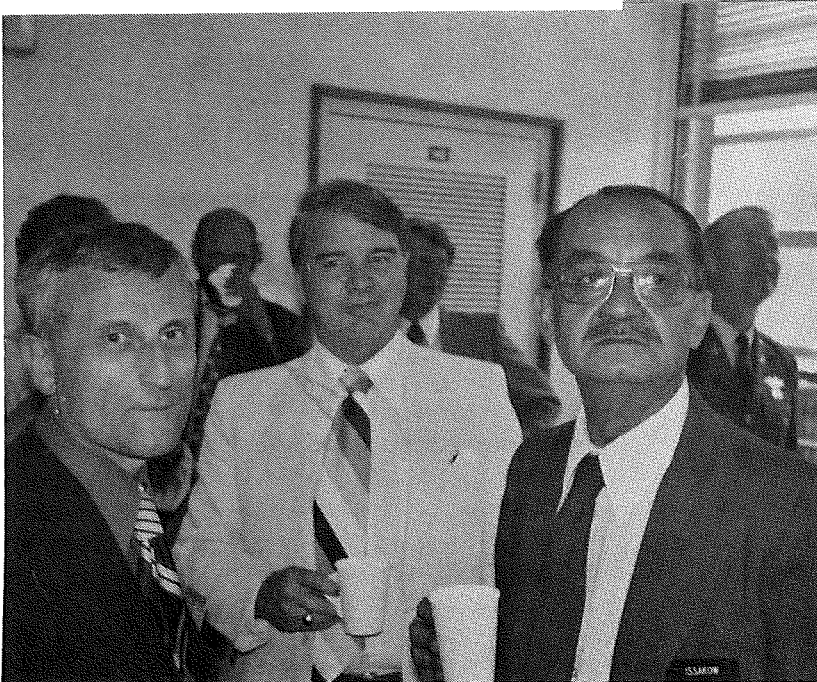Mr. D. Ellis — Chief, Language Training Center, SHAPE

Observers

FSI Washington

Dr. J. Frith — Dean of Language Studies, Foreign Service Institute

NATIONAL REPORT FRANCE

The topics presented in this report have been grouped under three titles:

- the first one deals with the development of the problems described in the 1978 report,

- the second one surveys the current organization of the Language and Military Foreign Studies Center (CLEEM),

- the third one presents an education experiment performed at the Special Military and Interservice School of Coëtquidan: the spoken language days.

I - DEVELOPMENT OF THE PROBLEMS DESCRIBED AT THE 1978 BILC CONFERENCE

a) Language Teaching Workgroup

The Army Language Teaching Workgroup, created by the Army Chief of Staff in November 1977 to define a new language teaching policy has completed its work.

A report was submitted to the Command in December 1978.

The current French concept to adapt the resources in linguists to the needs, considers the knowledge of languages also as an element of culture. Its aim, therefore, is to constitute a priori and in the least expensive way a theoretical resource greater than the needs, at least in the most common languages. When it becomes necessary to designate a linguist for such or such use, one looks among the personnel possessing all the re-required qualifications, including the linguistic qualification. Training sessions for linguistic improvement are eventually organized for them at the right time.

The work group realized rather quickly that the system could be kept on the main, on the one hand because any other solution would lead to structural changes which would be prohibitive for the Army alone and on the other hand because it offers, providing some improvements, a good chance of meeting the needs for linguists.

A thorough study of the Army needs for linguists (survey of positions to fill - inventory of languages to teach - classification of proficiency levels to require) as well as that of current state of language teaching led the work group to propose two sets of concrete steps outlined as follows:

- a few concern the improvement in quantity and quality of the resources by

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- managing the structures,
- modifying the examinations,
- reforming the military language certification,
- encouraging the personnel to study language

- the others aim at creating resources in high level specialists

  - translators-interpreters,
  - teachers.

No decision has yet been made, to date, by the Command because the work group proposals on language teaching must be examined together with those of other committees, especially the Committee on the general problem of education.

b) <u>Pedagogical training of language instructors</u>

The first pedagogical training session for language instructors was conducted in September 1978 as it was indicated in the 1978 BILC report.

The session objective was to give a pedagogical training and information on teaching methods to military personnel in charge of language courses in Army Schools and garrisons.

The number of participants - officer teachers, language teaching administrators and enlisted teachers was 25.

Designed to take into account the lessons gained from the two experimental pedagogical days of September 1977 and the wishes expressed by the participants, the program combined:

- sessions of information on

  - The Language and Military Foreign Studies Center (CLEEM),
  - military certificates,
  - documentation

- practice sessions

  - class preparation and conduct,
  - demonstration of methods and techniques,
  - use of teaching aids

- exposés and debates on live experiences by

  - military school instructors,
  - garrison course teachers,
  - civilian teachers

- group workshops to develop immediately usable teaching materials

- visits to language organisations.

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Each year in September, a training of this kind will be organized at CLEEM in Paris. The emphasis will be on practice sessions during which the trainees will be able either to attend courses given to "real students" or to act themselves as students.

c) Registration of military language certificates

A first file concerning the request for a national registration of military English language certificates (3rd level in written language) was constituted by CLEEM and sent by the Ministry of Defense to the National Commission in Charge of Registrations.

This file will serve as pilot for future requests concerning the registration of various military certificates in other foreign languages.

II - ORGANIZATION AND ACTIVITIES OF THE LANGUAGE AND MILITARY FOREIGN STUDIES CENTER (CLEEM)

The organization of CLEEM was slightly modified during the past year in order to better adapt the structures to the missions.

CLEEM currently consists of

- a Command and Administration Office (BCA) to which the administrative services are attached (Secretariat, general administration and chancelry, administration of the Army Reserve Interpreters - IRAT -, general service, reproduction shop);

- an Instruction Office (BI) which designs, defines and directs the teaching activities;

- an Organization and Employment Office (BOE) in charge of programming, organizing and coordinating the activities of CLEEM and responsible for translation requirements and interpretation assignments. The Courses and Training Section is attached to it as well as the sound recording studio, laboratories and tape library;

- eight linguistic sections, namely British and North American, Germanic, Hispanic, Italian, Arabic, Russian, Czech and Chinese sections.

The CLEEM mission is to "meet the Army needs in the area of teaching and practice of foreign languages". It is especially responsible for insuring for the benefit of the Amry and eventually for the benefit of other services by order or agreement of the Amry Chief of Staff:

- teaching assignments, which are its main raison d'être;

- translation work, interpretation assignments, occasional participation in various examination panels;

- participation in the administration of Army Reserve interpreters.

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Teaching

Teaching activities take various forms:

- Direct teaching conducted through full time classes and designed to satisfy permanent and accurate needs (analyst training - initiation or re- cycling of linguistic personnel for service abroad - pedagogical recycling or training of instructors - pre-university training of trainees for mili- tary higher scientific and technical language teaching).

- Correspondence courses for Russian and Arabic (preparation to mili- tary language certificates).

- Evening classes in preparation to military language certificates (English, German, Spanish, Italian, Arabic, Russian, Czech, Chinese and Portuguese).

- Training and maintenance of Army Reserve Interpreters (IRAT).

- Design, development and distribution of written or recorded course materials to facilitate the preparation to military language certificate, especially for candidates who have to study alone through lack of organized courses at their station. A catalog of the CLEEM productions including practical and bibliographical information is distributed each year.

Employment

- CLEEM performs a number of translation assignments either with its own staff resources (instructors and men from the ranks) or by calling upon the free and voluntary services of Army Reserve Interpreters (IRAT), especi- ally for languages not practiced at CLEEM. Annual production is about 3000 pages of translation.

- CLEEM performs a number of interpretation missions for the Command, either with its own staff or by calling upon IRAT assistance. Overall assign- ments amount to an average annual load of 1000 man days, with large fluc- tuations depending on the years.

III - THE SPOKEN LANGUAGE DAYS

_ An original experiment inspired by the principle of active pedagogy was conducted during the school year 1977-78 by the language courses of the Saint- Cyr Military School officer students, at Coëtquidan. We are referring to the "Spoken Language Days".

It was decided that three such days per year would take place during which officer students must, throughout their normal general studies or military instruction, use only the foreign language they are learning. The specialized vocabulary which is indispensable for some activities has been learned before and the foreign armies liaison officers assigned to Coëtquidan participate in this activity.

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For each of the courses programmed, a scenario is prepared jointly by the subject matter instructors and the language teachers. This scenario is then staged and played by the officer students.

During each of the sessions, the teachers step in to help or to correct serious mistakes but, at the same time, each session is recorded on video tape to allow a detailed critique later on.

Three types of "Language days" are currently programmed.

- The first day branches on general subject matters and physical education. It most often includes:

- Military history: the lecture is given in French by the history teacher, then its salient points are given back and developed in the foreign language by a few pre-designated students.

- Physical education: officer students conduct a lesson in the foreign language with use of the vocabulary which has been adapted, studied during the preparation (swimming, body building, horse riding, team sports ...).

- Uniform code and protocol: presentation by officer students of prepared sequences on points of protocol used in the target foreign army and comparison with French customs.

- Conversation: devoted to current subjects; officer students exchange their viewpoints either directly or by telephone.

- Meals: by groups of five sitting around a teacher officer, officer students discuss in the foreign language various topics and a current problem which has been studied in class beforehand and completed by personal readings.

- The second day of spoken language concentrates on military technical instruction. It includes:

- The auto course: officer students play the part of monitor for the presentation of a vehicle.

- Topography: group map study.

- Special weapons: officer students presentation of already acquired simple ideas on the effects of NBC weapons (nuclear, biological, chemical).

- Firing instruction: individual weapons - firing orders and safety rules.

- Communications: presentation of equipment and procedure drills.

- Meals: same conditions as during first day.

- The third day is oriented toward the practice of basic military tactical vocabulary at the platoon level -

In a simple tactical framework, officer students play in turn the part of a platoon leader and that of a section chief. They give their orders

directly or by radio and report in the foreign language.

During 1978-79, these "Language Days" were reduced to half days to take into account fatigue endured by slower linguists. They nonetheless constitute a stimulating and efficient learning experience, perfectly in agreement with the spirit of the "Total Mission Process", new system which now directs military instruction in the French Army.

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By way of conclusion, we are pleased to stress the various events which between the 1978 and 1979 BILC conferences, have underscored the linguistic cooperation between the French Armed Forces and several friendly BILC members. countries.

Thus:

- the Bundessprachenamt and CLEEM renewed the protocol agreement of 1965 during a very friendly work meeting at HURTH,

- the Translation Office of the State Department of Ottawa sent some charming translators over ten months for training at CLEEM,

- the British Army Language School at Beaconfield received in October the French Army Reserve interpreters, giving them an efficient and appreciated help for their improvement in English,

- the Defense Language Institute welcomed for several days in July the Commandant of CLEEM and his Instruction Office Chief, strengthening ties of friendship created during the Commandant of DLI's visit in Paris in 1977.

RAPPORT NATIONAL FRANCE

Présenté par Lt Col J. de Gouvello
Directeur d' Etudes
Centre de Langues et Etudes Etrangères Militaire

Les questions présentées dans ce rapport 1979 ont été regroupées en trois rubriques:

- la première traite de l'évolution des problèmes exposés dans le rapport 1978,

- la deuxième fait le point sur l'organisation actuelle du Centre de langues et études étrangères militaires,

- la troisième présente une expérience pédagogique réalisée à l'Ecole spéciale militaire et interarmes de Coetquidan: les journées de langue parlée.

I - <u>EVOLUTION DES PROBLEMES EXPOSES A LA SESSION B.I.L.C. 1978</u>

a) <u>Groupe de travail sur l'enseignement des langues</u>

Le groupe de travail sur l'enseignement des langues dans l'armée de terre, crée par le Chef d'Etat-Major de l'armée de terre en novembre 1977 pour définir une nouvelle politique d'enseignement des langues, a terminé ses travaux.

Un rapport a été remis au commandement en décembre 1978.

La conception française actuelle quant à la manière d'adapter la ressource en linguistes aux besoins, considère la connaissance des langues également comme un élement de la culture; elle vise donc à constituer à priori et aux moindres frais une ressource théorique supérieure aux besoins, au moins pour les langues les plus courantes. Lorsqu'il s'agit de désigner un linguiste pour tel ou tel emploi, on le recherche parmi les personnels possédant toutes les qualifications appropriées, dont la qualification linguistique. Des stages de perfectionnement linguistique sont eventuellement organisés à leur profit au moment opportun.

Il est apparu assez rapidement au groupe de travail que le système pourrait être conservé pour l'essentiel, d'une part parce que toute autre solution conduirait à des modifications de structures d'un coût redhibitoire pour la seule armée de terre et que, d'autre part il offre, sous réserve d'améliorations, une bonne possibilité de satisfaire les besoins en linguistes.

L'étude approfondie des besoins de l'armée de terre en linguistes
(- bilan des postes à pourvoir - inventaire des langues à enseigner -
classement des niveaux de connaissances à exiger) ainsi que celle des
conditions actuelles de l'enseignement des langues, a conduit le groupe
de travail à proposer deux series de mesures concrètes schematisées comme
suit:

- les unes concernent l'amélioration quantitative et qualitative
    de la ressource par:
    - l'aménagement des structures
    - des modifications des concours et examens
    - une réforme des certificats militaires de langue
    - l'incitation des personnels à l'étude des langues

- les autres visent à la création d'une ressource en véritables
    spécialistes de haut niveau:
    - interprètes-traducteurs
    - professeurs.

Aucune decision n'a encore, a ce jour, été arrêtée par le commandement,
car les propositions du groupe de travail sur l'enseignement des langues
doivent être examinées en même temps que celles d'autres commissions d'études,
notamment celle chargée du problème de l'enseignement général.

b) Formation pédagogique des instructeurs de langues

Le premier stage de formation pédagogique des instructeurs de langues
s'est deroulé en septembre 1978 ainsi que cela avait été indiqué dans le
rapport B.I.L.C. 1978.

Le but du stage était de donner une formation pédagogique et une
information sur les méthodes d'enseignement aux personnels militaires
chargés des cours de langues dans les écoles de l'armée de terre et dans
les garnisons.

Le nombre de participants: officiers-professeurs, cadres responsables
de l'enseignement des langues et soldats-professeurs a été de 25.

Le programme, élaboré en tenant compte des enseignements tirés des deux
journées pédagogiques expérimentales de septembre 1977 et des souhaits emis
par les participants, a combiné:

- des séances d'information sur:
    - le Centre de langues et études étrangères militaires
    - les certificats militaires
    - la documentation

- des séances pratiques:
    - préparation et conduite d'une séance
    - démonstration de méthodes et de procédés
    - utilisation d'aides pédagogiques

- des exposés-débats sur des expériences vécues:
    - par des instructeurs en écoles militaires
    - par des professeurs de cours de garnison
    - par des enseignants civils
- des travaux de groupe ayant pour but d'élaborer des
    documents pédagogiques immédiatement exploitables
- des visites d'organismes de langues

Chaque année en septembre, un stage de ce type sera organisé au Centre de langues et études étrangères militaires à Paris. L'effort sera porté sur les séances pratiques pendant lesquelles les stagiaires pourront soit assister à des cours donnés à de "vrais élèves" soit jouer eux-mêmes le rôle d'élèves.

c) <u>Homologation des certificats militaires de langues</u>

Un premier dossier concernant la demande d'homologation à l'échelon national du certificat militaire de langue anglaise (3eme degré de langue écrite) a été constitué par le Centre de langues et études étrangères militaires et adressé par le ministère de la Défense à la commission nationale chargée des homologations.

Ce dossier doit servir de test pour les futures demandes d'homologation des differents certificats militaires des autres langues étrangères.

II - <u>ORGANISATION ET ACTIVITES DU CENTRE DE LANGUES ET ETUDES ETRANGERES
MILITAIRE (C.L.E.E.M.)</u>

L'organisation du C.L.E.E.M. a été légèrement modifiée au cours de l'année afin de mieux adapter les structures aux missions.

Le C.L.E.E.M. se compose actuellement:

- d'un Bureau "commandement et administration" (B.C.A.) auquel sont rattachés les services administratifs (secrétariat, administration générale et chancellerie, administration des interprètes de réserve de l'armée de terre (I.R.A.T.), service général, atelier de reproduction);

- d'un Bureau "Instruction" (B.I.) qui conçoit, définit et anime les activités d'enseignement;

- d'un Bureau "organisation - emploi" (B.O.E.) qui est chargé de programmer, organiser et coordonner les activités du C.L.E.E.M., et a la

responsabilité des travaux de traduction et des missions d'interprétation. La section "cours et stages" lui est rattachée ainsi que l'ensemble "atelier d'enregistrement sonore - laboratoires - magnétothèque";

- de huit sections linguistiques appelées sections d'études britanniques et nord-américaines, germaniques, hispaniques, italiennes, arabes, russes, tchèques et chinoises.

La mission du C.L.E.E.M. est de "satisfaire les besoins de l'armée de terre dans le domaine de l'enseignement et de la pratique des langues étrangères".

Il est chargé notamment d'assurer, au profit de l'armée de terre et, le cas échéant, au profit des autres armées, sur ordre ou avec l'accord du Chef d'état-major de l'armée de terre:

- des missions d'enseignement, qui sont sa principale raison d'être;

- des travaux de traduction, des missions d'interprétation, une participation occasionnelle à differents jurys d'examens ou de concours;

- une participation à l'administration des interprètes de réserve de l'armée de terre.

Enseignement

Les activités d'enseignement revêtent diverses formes:

- Un enseignement direct, dispensé au moyen de stages à temps plein et destiné à satisfaire des besoins précis et permanents (formation d'analystes - initiation ou recyclage linguistique de personnels destinés à servir à l'étranger - recyclage ou formation pédagogique d'instructeurs - formation préuniversitaire des stagiaires de l'enseignement militaire scientifique et technique/langues).

- Un enseignement par correspondance pour les langues russe et arabe (préparation aux certificats militaires de langues).

- Des cours du soir, en vue de la préparation aux certificats militaires de langues (anglais, allemand, espagnol, italien, arabe, russe, tchèque, chinois et portugais).

- La formation et le maintien en condition des interprètes de réserve de l'armée de terre (I.R.A.T.).

- La conception, réalisation et diffusion de documents pédagogiques écrits ou enregistrés propres à faciliter la préparation aux certificats militaires de langues, particulièrement au profit des candidats obligés de travailler isolément faute de cours organisés dans leur garnison. Un catalogue des productions du C.L.E.E.M., assorti de renseignements pratiques et d'informations bibliographiques, est diffusé chaque année.

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<u>Emploi</u>

- Le C.L.E.E.M. assure un certain nombre de travaux de traduction soit avec ses moyens propres en personnels (instructeurs et hommes du rang) soit en faisant appel, notamment pour les langues non pratiquées au C.L.E.E.M., aux services bénévoles des I.R.A.T. La production annuelle se situe aux environs de 3 000 pages traduites.

- Le C.L.E.E.M. assure un certain nombre de missions d'interprétation au profit du commandement, soit avec ses moyens propres en personnels, soit en faisant appel au concours des I.R.A.T. L'ensemble des missions représente une charge moyenne annuelle de 1 000 hommes/jours, avec d'importantes variations suivant les années.

III - <u>LES JOURNEES DE LANGUE PARLEE</u>

Une experience originale, s'inspirant des principes de la pédagogie active a été realisée au cours de l'année scolaire 1977-1978 par le cours de langues des Ecoles militaires d'élèves-officers de Saint Cyr - Coetquidan. Il s'agit des "journées de langue parlée".

Au cours de ces journées, dont le nombre a été fixé à trois par an, les élèves-officiers doivent, dans le contexte d'une journée normale de travail d'enseignement général ou d'instruction militaire, s'exprimer uniquement dans la langue étrangère qu'ils étudient. Le vocabulaire specialisé indispensable à certaines activités a été appris au préalable et les officiers de liaison des armées étrangères en poste à Coetquidan participent activement à cette activité.

Pour chacun des cours programmés, un scénario est préparé conjointement par les instructeurs de la spécialité et les professeurs de langues. Ce scénario est ensuite monté par les élèves-officiers et joué par eux.

Au cours de chacune des séances, les professeurs interviennent pour aider ou corriger les fautes graves mais, en parallèle, chaque prestation est enregistrée par moyens video pour en permettre ultérieurement la critique detaillée.

Trois types de "journée langue" sont actuellement programmés:

- <u>La première journée</u> se greffe sur des disciplines d'enseignement général et sur l'éducation physique. Elle comprend le plus souvent:

- Histoire militaire: la conférence est présentée en langue française par le professeur d'histoire, puis ses points principqux sont restitués et developpés en langue étrangère par quelques élèves désignés au préalable.

- Education physique: conduite d'une leçon en langue étrangère par les élèves-officiers, avec utilisation du vocabulaire adapté, étudié au cours de la préparation (natation, musculation, equitation, sports collectifs...).

En guise de conclusion, il est agréable de souligner les diverses manifestations qui ont marqué dans l'intervalle des conférences du BILC 1978 et 1979 la coopération linguistique entre les forces armées françaises et plusieurs des pays amis membres du BILC.

Ainsi:

- le Bundessprachenamt et le C.L.E.E.M. ont au cours d'une réunion de travail tres amical à HURTH procédé au renouvellement du protocole d'accord conclu en 1965;

- le Bureau de traduction du Secrétariat d'Etat à OTTAWA a envoyé de charmantes traductrices en stage pendant dix mois au C.L.E.E.M.;

- l'Ecole de langue de l'armée britannique à BEACONSFIELD a reçu en octobre les interprètes de réserve de l'armée de terre française, leur apportant une aide efficace et appreciée pour leur perfectionnement en langue anglaise.

- le Defense Language Institute a accueilli pendant plusieurs jours en juillet le commandant du C.L.E.E.M. et son chef du bureau instruction, renforçant des liens d'amitié créés lors de la visite du commandant du DLI à Paris en 1977.

NATIONAL REPORT - GERMANY

presented by Hanns Maur
President
Bundessprachenamt

As those of you who have been following the developments in foreign
language testing at the Bundessprachenamt are aware, we have, for the
past years, been involved in the rather complicated process of revising
our entire testing system. I am happy to be able to announce that we
have just reached a turning point in this process. On February 27th,
1979, the Ministry of Defense granted final approval for the proposed
skill-oriented examination system. After months of discussions and
negotiations - and unfortunately also a few setbacks - our efforts
have finally met with success. On July 1st, 1979, the new "Rahmenprufung-
sordnung" (or RPO) will officially go into effect.

This decision is, of course, gratifying to those who have worked so
long to establish the principle of skill-oriented testing based on
proficiency level definitions compatible with those of STANAG 6001 for
listening, speaking, reading and writing.

It has been obvious for some time now that the emphasis on skill-oriented
language teaching is not simply another fad, but the result of widespread
dissatisfaction with traditional grammar courses. The traditional "shotgun
method" of teaching languages can function as long as you have enough time
to cover a lot of territory; given enough time, you can give nearly every
student a smattering of the skills he'll actually need. However, "time
is money" - we can't afford the luxury of teaching everything to everyone.
Instead, we need to aim our courses at the special communication needs
of particular students.

We think the new RPO represents a step in the right direction, but it is
really only the first step in what will certainly be a long and difficult
process. Before we can test realistic communication skills, we have to
teach them, and before we can teach our students to communicate in
realistic situations, we have to know more about the situations which
actually arise. For this purpose, we are currently conducting a survey
of soldiers and MOD employees who use foreign languages on their jobs.
We have developed a detailed questionnaire which goes from such general
questions as, "What foreign language or languages do you need for your job,"
all the way to the specifics of what one does with the language - for
example, "I have to be able to read handwritten texts in the foreign
language" or "I have to understand short lectures delivered in English
by speakers of other languages." Although the questionnaire is rather
long and involved, most of the items can be evaluated by computer, and
our preliminary results indicate that our people can and do respond to
all of the questions, so we are looking forward to what the evaluation
brings.

For those of you who are interested, I have brought a few copies of the questionnaires. Please note that there are two forms, one for soldiers, and one for civilians, and that both apply only to the so-called "Western" languages - English, French, Spanish, Italian, Portuguese, etc. The job requirements for "Eastern" languages - Russian, Polish, Czech - are so different from those of the Western languages, that we are developing separate questionnaires for those languages.

And this brings me back to the problem of teaching the skills. Now that we have been given the go-ahead on our proposed testing program, we can officially proceed to changing our curriculum accordingly. As I said, our Russian students use their language skills in different sorts of situations from those which confront our English students. Their jobs usually involve little or no speaking and a great deal of listening. For this reason, we will be conducting courses in listening comprehension for Russian. But we envisage courses in listening for other languages, and also courses with a primary emphasis on reading for several of the languages we teach. For the first time in the history of language teaching in the Federal Republic, the so-called "passive" skills will be put on an equal footing with the active skills. In the European context, where so many languages are spoken within a relatively small area, it is obviously not feasible to teach everyone to speak the languages of all of the nationalities with which one comes into contact. However, we know that the listening and reading skills can be mastered within a comparatively short period of time - given the right kind of practice - whereas it takes much longer to achieve comparable proficiency in speaking or writing. Therefore, what we can do - and what we intend to try to do - is to learn to understand foreign languages as well as possible. We believe that the ability to understand several languages might provide at least a partial solution to the language problems within the European Community.

In conclusion, I have said that the passive skills can be mastered, "given the right kind of practice." That, of course, is a gross over-simplification. To be honest, we at the Bundessprachenamt have more questions than answers at the moment:

First, how do our students use their language skills after they leave us? We hope that the results of our survey will provide the information we need.

Second, what kind of practice is the right kind to lead to proficiency in the needed skills? We believe that practice materials should be as close to the "real thing" as possible, without being so detailed as to be uneconomical - telephone conversations, yes - telephone conversations as conducted by NCOs working at AFCENT Headquarters if we can afford to invest the time in special programs, yes, but can we afford it?

Third, what kinds of tests should be used to establish whether the student has mastered the necessary skills? As I said at the outset, the basic principles have been laid down in our new RPO. Those of you who participated in the BILC Conference on Testing in 1977 may still have a copy of the booklet, "Richtlinien zur Erstellung Fertigkeitsorientierter Prufmittel" – or "Basic Principles of Skill-oriented Testing." This booklet contains our new definitions of proficiency levels, a glossary of important terms, suggestions for testing the various skills on our levels A, B, I and II (NATO one to four), and sample test items. It does not contain complete, validated tests, because, quite frankly, we do not have them yet.

We have just opened the door to criterion-referenced, skill-oriented testing and it is a completely new field for us. We are still wrestling with such problems as how to include a large enough sampling of the language to yield reliable results without going back to the discrete item type of test. As you know, discrete point tests are based on a sampling of individual words or grammar points that bear little or no direct resemblance to the language of real communication; how much realism is enough? And in criterion-referenced testing we can't simply compare student A with student B – we have to be able to say whether an individual student has mastered the necessary skills. What does it mean to master a skill?

We are aware that we will be breaking new ground with the tests and course materials we develop, but we believe our new approach will yield results. We would appreciate hearing from those of you who have already begun implementing skill-oriented and/or criterion-referenced testing methods, and will be happy to share the results of our experience with anyone who is interested.

Thank you for your kind attention.

RAPPORT NATIONAL DE LA DELEGATION ALLEMANDE

A LA CONFERENCE DE B.I.L.C. - MAI 1979

Présenté par M. Hanns Maur, Président du Bundessprachenamt

Mesdames et Messieurs,

Comme ceux d'entre vous qui ont suivi l'évolution des tests de langues étrangères au Bundessprachenamt le savent, nous nous sommes consacrés, ces dernières années, au travail assez compliqué de réviser tout notre système de tests. Je suis heureux de pouvoir vous annoncer que nous venons d'atteindre un point décisif dans ce travail. Le 27 février 1979, le Ministère de la Défense a accordé son approbation finale pour le système d'examen par spécialisations qui avait été proposé. Après des mois de discussions et de négotiations - et malheureusement aussi de quelques avatars - nos efforts on finalement porté leurs fruits. Le 1er juillet 1979, la nouvelle "Rahmenprüfungsordnung" (ou RPO) sera mis officiellement en application.

Cette décision est naturellement encourageante pour ceux qui ont travaillé si longtemps à établir le principe des tests par spécialisation suivant des définitions de niveaux de compétence compatibles avec ceux de STANAG 6001 pour la compréhension auditive, la production orale, la lecture et l'écrit.

Il est évident depuis quelque temps que l'importance accordée à l'enseignement des langues par spécialisations n'est pas simplement une nouvelle mode, mais le résultat d'un mécontentement général suscité par les cours traditionnels de grammaire. La méthode traditionnelle "shotgun" d'enseigner les langues peut fonctionner tant que vous avez assez de temps pour couvrir un large domaine; si vous avez le temps nécessaire, vous pouvez donner à presque chaque étudiant quelques connaissances superficielles dans les compétences dont il aura besoin. Cependant "le temps, c'est de l'argent" - nous ne pouvons pas nous permettre le luxe d'enseigner tout à tous. Au lieu de cela, nous devons orienter nos cours vers les besoins spécifiques de communication des étudiants particuliers.

Nous pensons que la nouveau RPO représente un pas dans la bonne direction, mais ce n'est vraiment que le premier pas dans ce qui sera certainement une

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progression longue et difficile. Avant de pouvoir tester des compétences
de communications réalistes, nous devons les enseigner, et avant de pouvoir
enseigner à communiquer dans des situations réalistes, nous devons en savoir
davantage sur des situations qui se présentent réellement. Dans ce but, nous
sommes en train de mener une enquête auprès des soldats et des employés MOD
qui utilisent des langues étrangères dans leur travail. Nous avons préparé
un questionnaire détaillé allant de questions générales telles que "De quelle(s)
langue(s) étrangère(s) avez-vous besoin pour votre travail" jusqu'aux questions
spécifiques concernant l'emploi de la langue - par exemple "Je dois pouvoir
lire des textes écrits à la main dans la langue étrangère", ou "Je dois com-
prendre de courtes conférences données en anglais par des personnes parlant
d'autres langues". Bien que le questionnaire soit plutôt long et compliqué,
la plupart des réponses peuvent être évaluées par ordinateur, et les résultats
préliminaires indiquent que notre personnel peut répondre et répond à toutes
les questions, et nous attendons avec impatience les résultats de l'évaluation.

Pour ceux d'entre vous que cela intéresse, j'ai apporté quelques exemplaires
de questionnaires. Veuillez noter qu'il y a deux formules, une pour soldats et
une pour civils et que les deux s'appliquent seulement aux langues dites "occi-
dentales" - anglais, français, espagnol, italien, portugais, etc. Les conditions
requises pour le travail dans les langues "orientales" - russe, polonais,
tchèque - sont si différentes de celles pour les langues occidentales que nous
sommes en train de préparer des questionnaires séparés pour ces langues.

Et ceci me ramène au problème d'enseignement des compétences requises.
Maintenant qu'on nous a permis d'aller de l'avant avec le programme de tests
que nous avons proposé, nous pouvons nous occuper officiellement du changement
de notre curriculum. Comme je l'ai déjà dit, nos étudiants de russe utilisent
leurs connaissances dans des situations différentes de celles que rencontrent
nos étudiants d'anglais. Leur travail consiste à parler peu ou pas du tout,
mais à écouter beaucoup. Pour cette raison, nous donnerons des cours de compré-
hension auditive pour le russe. Mais nous envisageons des cours de compré-
hension pour d'autres langues, et aussi des cours portant principalement sur la

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lecture pour plusieurs des langues que nous enseignons. Pour la première
fois dans l'histoire de l'enseignement des langues dans la République Fédérale,
la compétence dite "passive" sera considérée au même titre que la compétence
"active". Dans le contexte européen, où tant de langues sont parlées dans
une région relativement peu étendue, il n'est évidemment pas possible d'en-
seigner à tout le monde les langues de toutes les nationalités avec lesquelles
on pourrait entrer en contact. Cependant, nous savons que les techniques de
compréhension et de lecture peuvent être acquises dans une période relative-
ment courte - avec le mode correct de pratique - tandis qu'il faut beaucoup
plus de temps pour arriver à une compétence comparable dans la langue parlée
ou écrite. Donc, ce que nous pouvons faire - et ce que nous avons l'intention
d'essayer de faire - c'est d'apprendre à comprendre les langues étrangères
aussi bien que possible. Nous croyons que la capacité de comprendre plusieurs
langues peut apporter au moins une solution partielle aux problèmes de langues
dans la Communauté Européenne.

En conclusion, j'ai dit que les compétences "passives" peuvent s'acquérir
avec le mode correct de pratiquer. Ceci, bien sûr, est une simplification
exagérée. A vrai dire, nous, au Bundessprachenamt avons plus de questions
que de réponses en ce moment -

- Premièrement: Comment nos étudiants utilisent-ils leurs connaissances
en langues après nous avoir quittés? Nous espérons que les résultats de notre
enquête nous donnerons les renseignements dont nous avons besoin.

- Deuxièmement: Quel genre de pratique est le bon pour mener à la com-
pétence dans le domaine requis? Nous croyons que le matériel de pratique
devrait se rapprocher autant que possible du matériel réel, sans être si
détaillé qu'il en devienne trop cher - conversations téléphoniques, oui -
conversations téléphoniques comme celles faites par les sous-officiers à
l'Etat-Major de l'AFCENT si nous pouvons nous permettre de prendre le temps
nécessaire pour des programmes spéciaux, oui, mais pouvons-nous nous le per-
mettre?

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- Troisièmement: Quels genres de tests devrait-on utiliser pour vérifier si l'étudiant a acquis la compétence nécessaire? Comme je l'ai dit au début, les principes de base ont été établis par notre nouvelle RPO. Ceux d'entre vous qui ont participé à la conférence BILC sur les tests en 1977 auront peut-être encore un exemplaire du fasicule "Richtlinien zur Erstellung fertigkeitsorientierter Prüfmittel" ou "Principes fondamentaux de tests par spécialisations". Ce fasicule contient nos nouvelles définitions des niveaux de compétence, une liste de vocabulaire des termes importants, des suggestions pour vérifier les compétences diverses à nos niveaux A, B, I et II (OTAN de un à quatre) et des échantillons d'items de tests. Il ne contient pas des tests complets validés parce que, en toute franchise, nous ne les avons pas encore.

Nous venons d'ouvrir la porte aux tests par critères, par spécialisation et c'est un sujet complètement nouveau pour nous. Nous nous débattons encore avec des problèmes tels que comment inclure un échantillon de langue suffisamment grand pour obtenir des résultats sûrs sans retourner aux tests par éléments discrets. Comme vous le savez, les tests par points discrets sont établis sur un échantillonage de mots individuels ou de points grammaticaux qui a peu ou pas de rapports avec la langue des communications réelles. Jusqu' où faut-il pousser le réalisme? Et dans les tests par critères nous ne pouvons pas comparer l'élève A avec l'élève B. Nous devons pouvoir dire si un élève particulier possède les compétences nécessaires. Qu'est-ce que cela veut dire posséder une compétence?

Nous savons que nous avançons sur un nouveau terrain avec les tests et les matériels que nous produisons, mais nous pensons que notre nouvelle approche donnera des résultats. Nous aimerions entendre ceux d'entre vous qui ont déjà commencé à appliquer les méthodes d'examen par spécialisation et/ou par critères, et nous serions heureux de partager les résultats de notre expérience avec toute personne qui s'y intéresse.

Merci de votre aimable attention.

SHAPE LANGUAGE TRAINING CENTRE (LTC)

REPORT TO THE 1979 BILC CONFERENCE

1. Language Training.

1978-79 has seen a consolidation of the mandatory testing and training programme, both the policy and procedures. Semi-intensive (4 hrs daily) classes in English and extensive courses (1 hr daily) in French are continuing, along with the voluntary (extensive) training. (Para 1 of last year's report gives other details on the programmes).

2. Course and Test Development.

Resources (principally staffing) have been requested to start work in this area. Personnel appointed would liaise with outside authorities such as BILC.

3. Seminars.

The LTC was represented at two seminars in Paris, France:

- 6-8 Oct 78: The Analysis and Specification of Needs and their Methodological Implications
  Roger HAWKEY, Consultancy Division, British Council, London.

- 19-20 Feb 79: Self-directed Learning
  Leslie DICKINSON, Scottish Centre for Education Overseas, Edinburgh.

Brendan CARROLL, speaker at the 1978 BILC conference, also spent 3 days at the LTC in December 1978 - supplementing the material the Centre is collecting on testing and course design based on needs analysis.

4. Testing.

The outline for a NATO testing system (para 19, Annex A to the Minutes of the 1978 Steering Committee meeting) was submitted to the BILC Standing Group on Testing at the beginning of February 1979. It will be transmitted to NATO (Joint Services Sub-Group (JSSG) of EURO/NATO TRAINING) after discussion by the BILC Standing Group and Steering Committee.

5. EURO/NATO TRAINING.

In its ACE capacity, the LTC is continuing to make inputs to the JSSG. Information has been requested in two areas: testing and requirements for a NATO Language School. Further details will be provided at the 1979 conference.

6. Support for the International Military Staff (IMS)

The terms of the agreement covering the support given to the IMS by SHAPE have been endorsed by the Military Committee. This includes representation of the IMS by the LTC, SHAPE at BILC.

Centre d'Etudes de Langues du SHAPE

Rapport pour la Conférence du BILC de 1979

1. Etudes de Langues

L'année 1978-79 a vu l'unification des programmes de tests et
d'études, dans l'orientation comme dans l'organisation. Des
classes d'anglais semi-intensives (4 heures par jour) et de
français (1 heure par jour) continuent d'être offertes, en même
temps que des études facultatives (extensives). (Le para. 1 du
rapport de l'année dernière donne d'autres détails sur les pro-
grammes).

2. Production de cours et de tests

Nous avons demandé des ressources (principalement du personnel)
pour commencer le travail dans ce domaine. Le personnel serait
en liaison avec les autorités extérieures telles que le BILC.

3. Séminaires

Le Centre d'Etudes de Langues a été représenté à deux séminaires
à Paris, en France:

- du 6 au 8 octobre, 1978:   Analyse et spécification des Besoins et
                             leurs Implications Méthodologiques,
                             Roger HAWKEY, Division de Consultation,
                             Conseil Britannique, Londres.

- du 19 au 20 février, 1979:   Etudes auto-dirigées,
                               Leslie DICKINSON, Centre Ecossais pour
                               l'Education Outremer, Edimbourg.

Brendan CARROLL, rapporteur à la conférence du BILC de 1978, a
aussi passé 3 jours au CEL en décembre 1978 - apportant des
suppléments aux matériels que le Centre collecte sur les tests
et le schéma des cours suivant l'analyse des besoins.

4. Tests

Le plan d'un système de Tests OTAN (para.19, Annexe A des Minutes
de la réunion du Comité d'Organisation de 1978) a été soumis au
Groupe Permanent sur les Tests du BILC au début de février 1979.
Il sera transmis à l'OTAN (Services communs sous-groupe (JSSG) de
l'Instruction EURO/OTAN) après discussion au Groupe Permanent du
BILC et au Comité d'Organisation.

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5. Instruction EURO/NATO

Dans sa fonction d'ACE, le CEL continue d'envoyer des données
au JSSG. Des renseignements ont été demandés dans deux domaines:
les tests et les conditions pour une Ecole de Langues OTAN.
D'autres détails seront fournis à la conférence de 1979.

6. Soutien au Personnel Militaire International (PMI)

Les termes de l'accord couvrant le soutien apporté au Personnel
Militaire International par SHAPE ont été endossés par le Comité
Militaire. Ceci comprend la représentation du PMI par le CEL
du SHAPE à BILC.

FOREIGN SERVICE INSTITUTE
REPORT TO THE 1979 BILC CONFERENCE

During the past year, FSI has continued to work in the direction of placing
greater emphasis on the cross-cultural and non-verbal aspects of communication.
A specialist in this field has been added to the staff.

Another area in which FSI has now begun to focus attention is task analysis
and a closer relationship between language teaching materials and the jobs
for which students are being prepared. Pilot projects are under way in French
and Arabic with modules of materials being developed to prepare officers for
consular work in those languages.

A third initiative during the year has been a testing workshop involving ten
colleges and universities, the purpose of which is to help the schools
develop a "common yardstick" for measuring spoken language proficiency.

FOREIGN SERVICE INSTITUTE

RAPPORT A LA CONFERENCE BILC 1979

Au cours de l'année passée, le FSI a continué à travailler dans le
le but d'accorder plus d'importance aux aspects interculturaux et non-
verbaux de la communication. Un spécialiste dans ce domaine a été
ajouté au personnel.

Le FSI a aussi commencé à porter son attention sur l'analyse des tâches
et sur une relation plus étroite entre le matériel de l'enseignement des
langues et les activités pour lesquelles les élèves se préparent. Des
travaux-pilote sont en cours en français et en arabe avec pour but
des modules destinés à préparer le personnel au service consulaire
dans ces langues.

Une troisième innovation pendant l'année a été une conférence de travail
sur les tests avec participation de dix universités, dans le but d'aider
les écoles à produire une "mesure commune" pour évaluer la compétence
en langue parlée.

DEFENSE LANGUAGE INSTITUTE
FOREIGN LANGUAGE CENTER
REPORT TO THE 1979 BILC CONFERENCE

1. During September 1978 Colonel Thomas G. Foster, III, USA assumed the duties of Commandant, DLIFLC, and Colonel John Gargus, USAF, began duty as Assistant Commandant.

2. As a result of a reduction in senior level civilian positions, a reorganization took place in August 1978 which redistributed some functions in the Directorate of Training Development (DTD) and in the Directorate of Evaluation. Dr. Francis Cartier became Director of Evaluation and Dr. Antoine Al-Haik became Chief of Job Analysis and Standards Division, DTD, replacing James A. Forsyth, deceased.

3. Other key personnel changes included the transfer of Heinrich Marschik to Chief, Course Development Division, DTD, from Chief, Non-Resident Instruction Division, Directorate of Training (DT) which position was filled by Albert S. Gau, Foreign Language Coordinator, U.S. Army Europe. Mr. Gau's position was filled by Alex Szaszy, Slavic Group Chief (DT). Mr. Szaszy's position was filled by Sirge Issakov. Additionally, a new DLIFLC Language Training Detachment, comprised of David Burns and Dale Purtle, was established to work with U.S. Army Europe in Heidelberg.

4. In January 1979, DLIFLC was approved by the Accrediting Commission for Community and Junior Colleges of the Western Association of Schools and Colleges as a fully accredited specialized postsecondary institution. This was the result of many months of intensive work of over 120 members of the faculty and staff in committees preparing the required Self-Study Report which was validated by the visit in October 1978 of an evaluation team of educators representing the Commission. Accreditation not only enhances the image of DLIFLC among academic institutions by assuring them of the quality of instruction but also carries with it a number of benefits for both faculty and students, particularly the transfer of academic credits to other educational institutions.

5. Formation of the President's Commission of Foreign Languages and International Studies was announced by President Carter in 1978. Among the 21 members named was Colonel Samuel L. Stapleton, USA (Ret.), former DLIFLC Commandant. The Commission's task is to study the problems of declining enrollments and interest in foreign languages and international studies and make recommendations for improvement. The Commission has held several meetings, including regional public hearings, on the five areas of focus: International Education, Foreign Languages, Advanced Training and Research, Internal Exchange, and Interests in Business and Industry. One special regional hearing was arranged by Congressman Leon Panetta of Monterey who is also a Member of the Commission. This hearing dealt with Government requirements and included presentations by DLIFLC and other Government agencies, as well as by public witnesses among whom were a number of DLIFLC faculty and staff personnel.

The Commission has also elicited a number of reports from the Department of Defense concerning various aspects of foreign language requirements. It is expected that the Commission's final report will be sent to the President this summer and that the results of these efforts will provide a significant impetus for improvements in a number of areas related to language training and will raise public attention to national problems in foreign languages and international studies.

6. Twenty-five new or continuing development projects were planned and funded for initiation in FY79. Personnel resource constraints, however, delayed initiation of these projects. As a result, only one project was completed, five project development teams were fully staffed, nine were partially staffed and ten were not staffed at all during the first two quarters of the Fiscal Year. It should be noted that the projects vary considerably in size and complexity, as well as in the number of development teams members required. The most difficult to initiate have been the resident Basic Course projects which require a team of seven and usually continue over a period of three to four years. Recent easing of personnel resource constraints has allowed initiation of some projects much later than planned. Among the products completed for non-resident programs are Korean Headstart, a revision of German Gateway, Japanese Headstart, and 25 modules of Russian Training Extension Course (TEC). These exportable packages of self-paced training materials are being received by field units with very favorable comments. The Russian TEC package received special mention by the National Society for Performance and Instruction for its high professional quality.

7. DLIFLC held the Annual Program Review Conference of user agencies in March 1979 with excellent results in terms of exchange of information on requirements dealing with resident training, non-resident training support, and training development. Agreements were also reached on revision of priorities of projects under the Training Development Five Year Plan for FY80.

8. Because of the unusual differences between the numerous Army Service Schools administered by the U.S. Army Training and Doctrine Command (TRADOC) and DLIFLC which is a Department of Defense activity, TRADOC established an "Overwatch Committee" of senior staff officers to meet with DLIFLC representatives twice a year to discuss special problems, such as fluctuating training requirements, turbulence in adjusting to continuing resource constraints, and the like. This vehicle has been useful in explaining the peculiarities of DLIFLC problems and activities to the various TRADOC staff chiefs so that they can respond more readily and purposefully.

9. There has been an increase in students in Russian, German, and Spanish. Curriculum changes are being made to keep abreast of changes in requirements and objectives of major user agencies. Closer cooperation in curriculum development activities between the language departments and course development personnel is being emphasized by greater involvement through a number of special

task forces and informational briefings. Since experience with self-pacing in our resident courses has revealed that this concept has certain limitations, the role of self-pacing is being reviewed to identify those areas where it can clearly be used to advantage. Self-pacing has so far proved itself particularly successful in our exportable non-resident training courses and in certain aspects of later phases of resident courses. Much work has been done in the area of "Front End Analysis" through the job analysis teams which have collected useful data in several overseas areas. Also a special contract for development of new methods for collecting, analyzing, and utilizing job analysis information for military foreign language training has produced excellent reports which will be summarized at the BILC Conference.

DEFENSE LANGUAGE INSTITUTE

FOREIGN LANGUAGE CENTER

RAPPORT A LA CONFERENCE BILC 1979

1. En septembre 1978, le Colonel Thomas G. Foster, de l'Armée de terre, a pris le commandement de DLIFLC et le Colonel John Gargus, de l'Armée de l'Air, est devenu le commandant-adjoint.

2. En raison d'une réduction des postes civils au niveau supérieur, une réorganisation a été effectuée en août 1978 et certaines fonctions dans le directorat du développement de l'instruction (DTD) et dans le directorat de l'évaluation ont été redistribuées. Le Dr. Francis Cartier est devenu le Directeur de l'Evaluation et le Dr. Antoine Al-Haik est devenu Directeur de "Job Analysis and Standards Division," DTD, remplaçant feu M. James A. Forsyth.

3. D'autres changements de personnel de cadre comprennent le transfert de M. Heinrich Marschik à la position de Chef, Division "Course Development," DTD, de Chef, Non-Resident Instruction Division, Directorate of Training (DT), position qui a été confiée à M. Albert S. Gau, Foreign Language Coordinator, US Army Europe. La place de M. Gau a été confiée à M. Alex Szaszy, Chef du Groupe Slave (DT). La position de M. Szaszy a été confiée à M. Sirge Issakov. En outre, un nouveau DLIFLC Language Training Detachment, se composant de MM. David Burns and Dale Purtle, a été établi pour travailler avec l'Armée des E-U en Europe, à Heidelberg.

4. En janvier 1979, DLIFLC a été accepté par la Commission d'Accréditation de "Community and Junior Colleges of the Western Association of Schools and Colleges" en tant qu'institution post-secondaire spécialisée dûment accréditée. C'était le résultat de nombreux mois de travail intensif contribué par plus de 120 membres du corps enseignant et du staff en comités préparant le rapport requis d'auto-évaluation (self-study) qui a été validé par la visite, en octobre 1978, d'une équipe d'évaluation composée d'éducateurs représentant la Commission. L'accréditation non seulement accroît le prestige de DLIFLC parmi les institutions académiques en les assurant de la qualité de l instruction mais elle implique aussi un certain nombre de bénéfices pour le corps enseignant et les étudiants, particulièrement concernant le transfert de crédits académiques à d'autres institutions d'éducation.

5. La formation d'une Commission Présidentielle de Langues Etrangères et d'Etudes Internationales a été annoncée par le Président Carter en 1978. Parmi les 21 membres choisis se trouvait le Colonel Samuel L. Stapleton, US Army (Ret.), ancien Commandant de DLIFLC. La tâche de la Commission est d'étudier les problèmes de déclin d'enrôlement et d'intérêt dans les langues étrangères et les études internationales et de suggérer des mesures pour améliorer cette situation. La Commission

a tenu plusieurs réunions, y compris des discussions publiques régionales, sur les 5 points de focus: Education Internationale, Langues Etrangères, Entraînement et Recherches Avancés, Echange intérieur, et Intérêt en Commerce et Industrie. Une discussion régionale spéciale a été organisée par le Député Léon Panetta de Monterey qui est aussi Membre de la Commission. Cette réunion couvrait les besoins du Gouvernement et comprenait des présentations par DLIFLC et d'autres témoins publics dont plusieurs membres du corps enseignant et du staff de DLIFLC. La Commission a aussi reçu quelques rapports du Département de la Défense concernant divers aspects des demandes en langues étrangères. Il est prévu que le rapport final de la Commission sera envoyé au Président cet été et que les résultats de ces efforts fourniront un élan appréciable d'améliorations dans plusieurs domaines liés à l'enseignement des langues et augmenteront l'intérêt du public dans les problèmes internationaux de langues étrangères et d'études internationales.

6. Vingt-cinq projets de développement, nouveaux ou déjà commencés, ont été prévus et les fonds nécessaires reçus pour initiation dans l'année fiscale 1979. Des restrictions de personnel ont, cependant, retardé l'initiation de ces projets. En conséquence, un seul projet a été complété, cinq équipes de développement de projet ont été entièrement formées, neuf ont été partiellement formées et dix n'ont pas été formées du tout pendant les deux premiers trimestres de l'année fiscale. Il est à noter que les projets varient considérablement en importance et en complexité, ainsi que dans le nombre requis de membres composant les équipes de développement. Les projets les plus difficiles à lancer ont été les projets en résidence de Cours de Base qui demandent une équipe de sept membres et continuent généralement pour une période de trois à quatre ans. Le relâchement récent des restrictions de ressources en personnel a permis l'instauration de certains projets beaucoup plus tard que prévu. Parmi les produits terminés pour les programmes "non-résidentiels" se trouvent le "Headstart" coréen, une révision du "Gateway" allemand, le "Headstart" japonais, et 25 modules du "Russian Training Extension Course" (TEC). Ces paquets exportables de matériel d'entraînement individualisé ont été très favorablement reçus par les services en campagne. Le cours TEC Russe a reçu une mention spéciale de la "National Society for Performance and Instruction" pour sa qualité éminemment professionnelle.

7. Le DLIFLC a organisé la Conférence annuelle de Révision de Programmes en mars 1979 avec d'excellents résultats en termes d'échanges de renseignements sur les besoins en entraînement en résidence, en appui pour l'entraînement non-résidentiel, et développement d'entraînement. Des accords ont été atteints concernant la révision des priorités de projets sous le Plan quinquennal de Développement d'entraînement pour l'année fiscale 1980.

8. En raison des différences exceptionnelles existant entre les nombreuses écoles de l'Armée administrées par le "US Army Training and Doctrine Command" (TRADOC) et le DLIFLC qui est sous le Département de la Défense, TRADOC a établi un "Comité de Surveillance" composé

d'officiers supérieurs d'Etat-Major pour rencontrer les représentants de DLIFLC deux fois par an dans le but de discuter les problèmes d'ordre spécial, par exemple les demandes variables d'entraînement, la turbulence d'adaptation aux restrictions continuelles des ressources, et ainsi de suite. Cette méthode a été très utile pour expliquer les particularités des problèemes et des activités de DLIFLC aux divers chefs d'Etat-Major de TRADOC pour qu'ils puissent y répondre plus aisément et plus efficace-ment.

9. Il y a eu un plus grand nombre d'étudiants en russe, en allemand et en espagnol. Des changements de curriculum sont prévus pour faire face aux changements des demandes et des objectifs des agences principales. Une coopération plus étroite dans le développement du curriculum entre les départements de langues et le personnel du "course development" est soulignée par un engagement plus grand réalisé par plusieurs "task forces" spéciales, et des "briefings" d'information. Comme nos expériences en entraînement individualisé dans nos cours "en résidence" ont démontré que ce concept a certaines limitations, le rôle de l'individualisation est en train d'être reconsidéré pour identifier les domaines dans lesquels elle peut clairement être utilisée profitablement. L'individualisation s'est prouvée particulièrement avantageuse dans nos cours exportables non-résidentiels et dans certains aspects de phases avancées de nos cours "en résidence." Le domaine "Front End Analysis" a été l'objet d'un travail assidu par les équipes de "job analysis" qui ont recueilli des faits utiles dans plusieurs régions d'outremer. En outre, un contrat spécial pour le développement de nouvelles méthodes pour recueillir, analyser et utiliser les renseignements de "job analysis" pour l'enseignement en languages étrangères d'ordre militaire a produit d'excellents rapports qui seront présentés à la Conférence BILC.

DEFENSE LANGUAGE INSTITUTE
ENGLISH LANGUAGE CENTER (DLIELC)

DLIELC BILC NATIONAL REPORT: 1979

INTRODUCTION

1. The Joint Service Regulation entitled, "Management of the Defense
Language Program," was published 15 July 1978. This regulation imple-
ments the revised Department of Defense Directive of August 1977 which
describes the Defense Language Program (DLP). The major change in the
DLP was the designation of the Secretary of the Air Force as the Execu-
tive Agent (EA) for the Defense English Language Program (DELP). The
Secretary of the Army continues as the EA for the Defense Foreign
Language Program.

2. IAW the Joint Service Regulation, the Commandants of the English
Language Center and the Foreign Language Center "maintain a direct
technical link between their staffs in matters pertaining to teaching
methodology, performance standards for language training equipment and
media, tests and evaluation systems, nonresident programs, and research
and development . . ."

ENGLISH LANGUAGE TRAINING ACTIVITIES

1. The DELP language training activities are conducted by the staff
and faculty of the Academics Divison which consists of three branches.
Some of the activities of each of these branches are highlighted below.

    a. Resident Training Branch

        (1) This Branch is responsible for conducting the proficiency-
based intensive language training program. It conducts two instructor
training courses and one management course for foreign military/civilian
personnel engaged in teaching English in their homelands. The branch
also conducts pre- and in-service training programs for the staff and
faculty of the Division.

        (2) Foreign Military Trainees (FMT) from 25-35 countries are
in attendance daily at DLIELC. The average daily student load of
approximately 1500 recently declined to approximately 900 primarily
as a result of the termination of language training for Iranian FMT.

        (3) Two very successful projects, each involving the train-
ing of 1200 basic recruits for the Saudi Arabian Air Force and Navy
respectively over a four-year period, will terminate in September 1979.

        (4) One hundred twenty (120) Iranian Navy Midshipmen attended
a specially designed language training program which prepared them for

the TOEFL examination prior to their entry into US Maritime and civilian universities.

b. Nonresident Training Branch

(1) This Branch is responsible for two types of English language programs:

(a) Overseas Programs conducted by foreign military services in association with the DOD Security Assistance Training Programs; and,

(b) Programs for non/limited English-speaking US military personnel, dependent foreign nationals, or indigenous civilian personnel employed by DOD.

(2) Currently, eleven English Language Specialists are assigned overseas in eight countries to assist the in-country language training programs by their professional advice and teacher training programs. These efforts are directed at upgrading the in-country programs so that they can become self-sufficient.

(3) English Language Specialists designated as Mobile Training Teams also perform overseas duty on temporary assignments to assist beginning programs, to upgrade ongoing ones, or to conduct other specific language training requirements. During the past year, eleven individuals have been deployed as MTT.

(4) The Commandant, DLIELC, serving as operating agent for the Executive Agent, is responsible for:

(a) Exercising technical control over and,

(b) Monitoring the management of English language training programs conducted for US military personnel who require further proficiency in English as a Second Language. The US Army is the primary user of these programs. Currently, the Nonresident Training Branch staff is involved with approximately seventy-five (75) such programs.
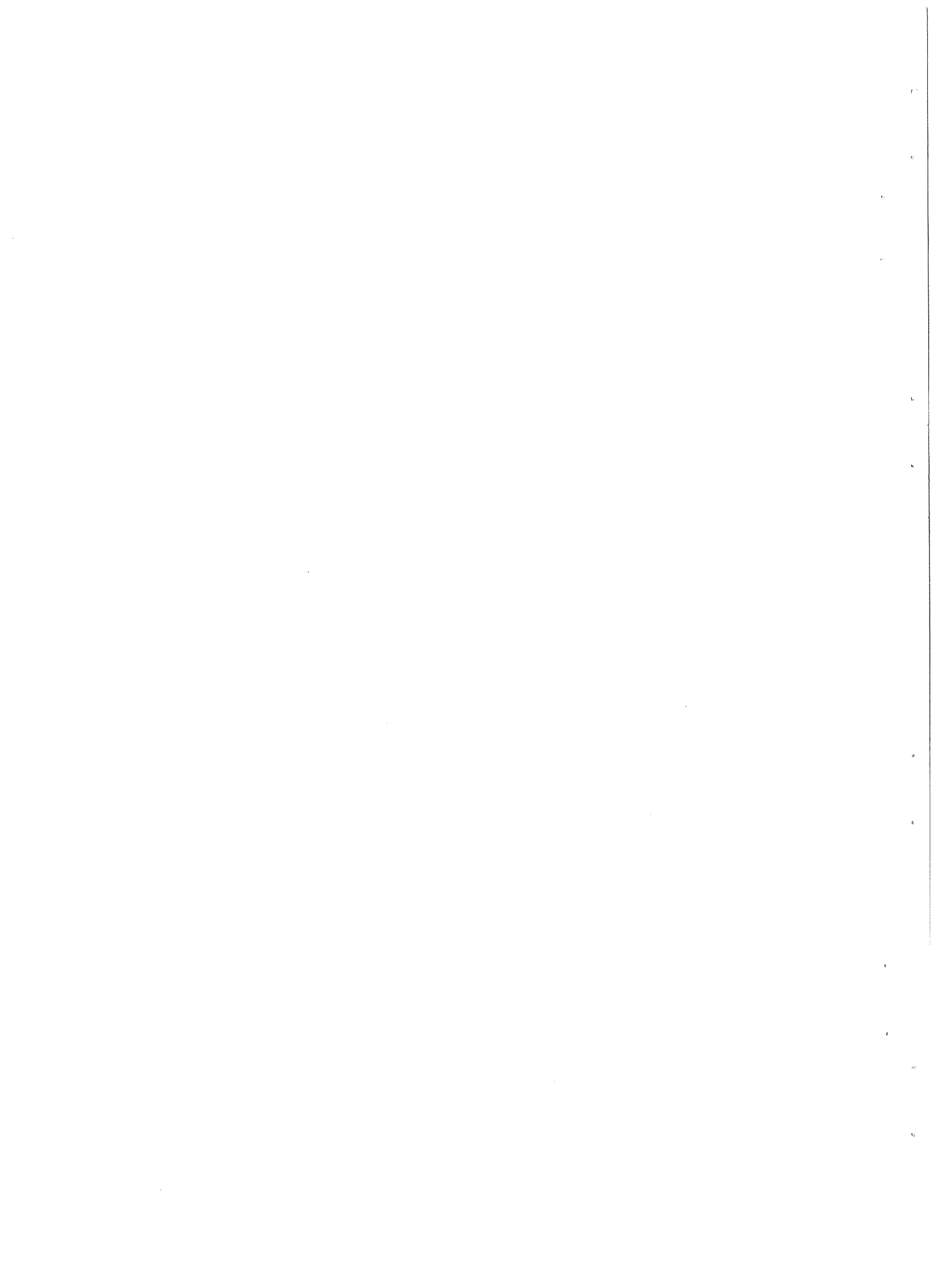
c. Curriculum Development Branch

(1) This Branch is responsible for the development of:

(a) Course designs,

(b) Course materials which comprise the American Language Course (ALC),

(c) Instructor training materials, and

(d) All DLIELC testing instruments.

(2) During the past year, the major efforts of the course writers have been dedicated to the development of the specialized technical language curriculum. The basic design for these materials and tests has been changed from the book-concept to the preparation of modular units, each usually comprising five units of instruction. A total of 45 modules are presently planned, 21 of which are written. This design allows for much greater flexibility in course design and facilitates the revision of these materials.

(3) Testing Specialists have ongoing projects in developing and refining ALC achievement quizzes, ALC Placement Tests (ALCPT), and English Comprehension Level (ECL) tests. Presently, there is an operational inventory of 269 quizzes, 35 ALCPT, and 62 ECL tests. The ECL test is a controlled item and is used on a worldwide basis to screen FMT prior to their entry into CONUS service schools. Approximately 26 ECL test forms must be generated to maintain a valid inventory for resident and nonresident usage. The ECL test is computer generated.

OTHER RELATED ACTIVITIES

1. DLIELC conducted two seminars and one workshop for US Army Education Center personnel involved with nonresident English language training programs.

2. A two-week English Language Training Orientation Seminar was conducted at DLIELC for nine civilian staff members of the German Ministry of Defense who are engaged in English language training.

3. On-site evaluation surveys of FMT at follow-on technical schools were conducted by the DLIELC Evaluation Division. These surveys provide excellent feedback to both the training and course development personnel.

4. DLIELC has assisted the California State Education Department in setting up pilot English language training projects for migrant students. These programs have been successfully using the ALC materials in several high schools.

5. A word-processor unit is currently being installed. Initial priority will be given to supporting the curriculum and testing development activities.

6. The DLIELC TESOL Master Lecture Series contract was renewed for FY 79. During the year, four prominent scholars in the field of teaching English as a Foreign/Second Language will present formal papers and conduct two-day conferences for the DLIELC faculty.

DEFENSE LANGUAGE INSTITUTE
ENGLISH LANGUAGE CENTER (DLIELC)

RAPPORT NATIONAL DLIELC - BILC 1979

INTRODUCTION

1. Le Règlement Interarmées intitulé "Gestion du Programme de Langues de la Défense" a été publié le 15 juillet 1978. Ce règlement met en application la directive révisée du Département de la Défense d'août 1977 qui décrit le Programme de Langues de la Défense (DLP). Le changement principal dans le DLP était la désignation du Secrétaire de l'Air Force comme Agent Exécutif (EA) pour le Programme de Langue Anglaise de la Défense (DELP). Le Secrétaire de l'Armée de Terre reste l'Agent Exécutif pour le Programme de Langues Etrangères de la Défense.

2. Conformément au Règlement Interarmées, les Commandants du Centre de Langue Anglaise et du Centre de Langues Etrangères "maintiennent un contact technique direct entre leurs états-majors en ce qui concerne les méthodes d'enseignement, les standards pour l'équipement et les médias nécessaires à l'instruction, les systèmes de tests et d'évaluation, les programmes extérieurs et la recherche et le développement ..."

ACTIVITES DE L'INSTRUCTION EN LANGUE ANGLAISE

1. Les activités de l'instruction du DELP sont dirigés par les personnels administratif et enseignant de la Division Enseignement qui consiste en trois branches. Certaines activités de chacune de ces branches sont expliqués ci-dessous.

a. L'Instruction intra-muros

(1) Cette branche a la responsabilité du programme de langue intensif basé sur la compétence. Elle comprend deux cours pour instructeurs et un cours de management pour les personnel étrangers militaires et civils qui enseignent l'anglais dans leurs pays respectifs. Cette branche a aussi des programmes de formation et des stages pour le personnel de la Division.

(2) Des Stagiaires Militaires Etrangers (FMT) venant de 25 à 35 pays assistent chaque jour aux cours à DLIELC. La moyenne quotidienne du nombre d'élèves est tombée récemment de 1500 à 900 principalement à cause de la fermeture du programme de langue pour les stagiaires iraniens.

/....

(3) Deux programmes échelonnés sur quatre ans instruisent avec succès 1200 recrues chacun pour l'Armée de l'Air et la Marine Séoudiennes. Ils seront terminés en septembre 1979.

(4) Cent-vingt (120) élèves-officiers de la Marine iranienne ont suivi un programme de langue spécial qui les a préparés pour l'examen TOEFL avant leur entrée aux Ecoles de la Marine Marchande et aux Universités des Etats-Unis.

b. L'Instruction extra-muros

(1) Cette branche comprend deux sortes de programmes de langue anglaise.
    (a) Les Programmes d'Outremer dirigés par les services militaires étrangers en association avec les Programmes d'Instruction du Département de la Défense - Aide à la Sécurité.

    (b) Les Programmes pour personnel militaire américain non anglophone, les familles de militaires de nationalité étrangère ou les employés civils étrangers du Département de la Défense.

(2) Actuellement, onze Spécialistes de Langue anglaise sont affectés outremer dans huit pays pour aider les programmes d'instruction en langue anglaise de ces pays de leur conseil professionnel et de programmes de formation. Ces efforts ont pour but d'améliorer les programmes nationaux pour qu'ils puissent devenir indépendents.

(3) Les Spécialistes de Langue anglaise des Equipes d'Instruction Mobiles vont aussi outremer en affectation temporaire pour aider des programmes débutants, améliorer des programmes établis ou répondre à d'autres besoins particuliers de programmes de langues. Au cours de l'année passée, onze personnes ont été déployées au titre des Equipes Mobiles.

(4) Le Commandant, DLIELC, en tant qu'agent d'opération pour l'Agent Exécutif, a la responsabilité:

    (a) du contrôle technique et
    (b) de la gestion des programmes d'instruction en langue anglaise pour le personnel militaire américain qui requiert une plus grande compétence en anglais seconde langue.
    L'Armée de Terre des Etats-Unis est le principal utilisateur de ces programmes. Actuellement, le personnel de la branche d'Instruction Extra-muros a soixante-quinze (75) programmes de ce genre en cours.

c. Production de Cours

    (1) Cette branche a la responsabilité

        (a) de la conception des cours,
        (b) des matériels des cours qui comprennent le Cours
de Langue Américaine (ALC),
        (c) des matériels de formation des instructeurs, et
        (d) de tous les tests DLIELC.

    (2) Au cours de l'année passée, les efforts des préparateurs de cours se sont concentrés sur la préparation de programmes de langue technique spécialisée. L'organisation fondamentale de ces matériels et tests ne se fait plus sous forme de livres mais sous forme d'unités modulaires, chacune d'elles comprenant habituellement cinq unités d'instruction. Quarante-cinq modules sont actuellement en préparation dont 21 ont été écrits. Ceci permet une plus grande souplesse dans la conception du cours et facilite les révisions de ces matériels.

    (3) Les Spécialistes des Tests ont des travaux en cours dans la production et l'amélioration d'interrogations, de Tests de Placement ALC (ALCPT) et de tests de niveau de compréhension en anglais (ECL). En ce moment, nous avons un inventaire opérationnel de 269 interrogations, 35 ALCPT et 62 test ECL. Le test ECL est contrôlé et utilisé à l'échelle mondiale pour sélectionner les Stagiaires Militaires Etrangers (FMT) avant leur entrée aux écoles militaires des Etats-Unis. Vingt-six formules de tests ECL doivent être produits pour maintenir un inventaire valide pour utilisation intra ou extra-muros. Le test ECL est produit par ordinateur.

AUTRES ACTIVITES APPARENTEES

1. DLIELC a organisé deux séminaires et une conférence de travail pour le Centre d'Education de l'Armée de Terre des Etats-Unis qui utilisent des programmes extra-muros d'instruction en langue anglaise.

2. Un séminaire de deux semaines d'orientation à l'Instruction en Langue anglaise a eu lieu à DLIELC pour neuf membres civil du Ministère de la Défense allemand qui s'occupent d'instruction en langue anglaise.

3. Des évaluations de FMT ont été entreprises par la Division d'Evaluation du DLIELC dans les écoles techniques mêmes. Ces évaluations fournissent d'excellents indications au personnel enseignant et aux préparateurs de cours.

4. DLIELC a assisté le Département d'Education de l'Etat de Californie dans

la mise sur pied de programmes d'instruction en langue anglaise pour élèves itinérants. Ces programmes ont utilisé avec succès les matériels ALC dans plusieurs lycées.

5. Une machine imprimeuse est actuellement en installation. La priorité sera donnée aux activités de production de cours et de tests.

6. Le contrat de la série de conférences DLIELC TESOL (Enseignement de l'anglais langue seconde) a été renouvelé pour l'année fiscale 79. Pendant l'année, quatre specialistes éminents de l'enseignement de l'anglais comme langue étrangère ou seconde donneront des conférences et dirigeront des séminaires de deux jours pour les enseignants du DLIELC.
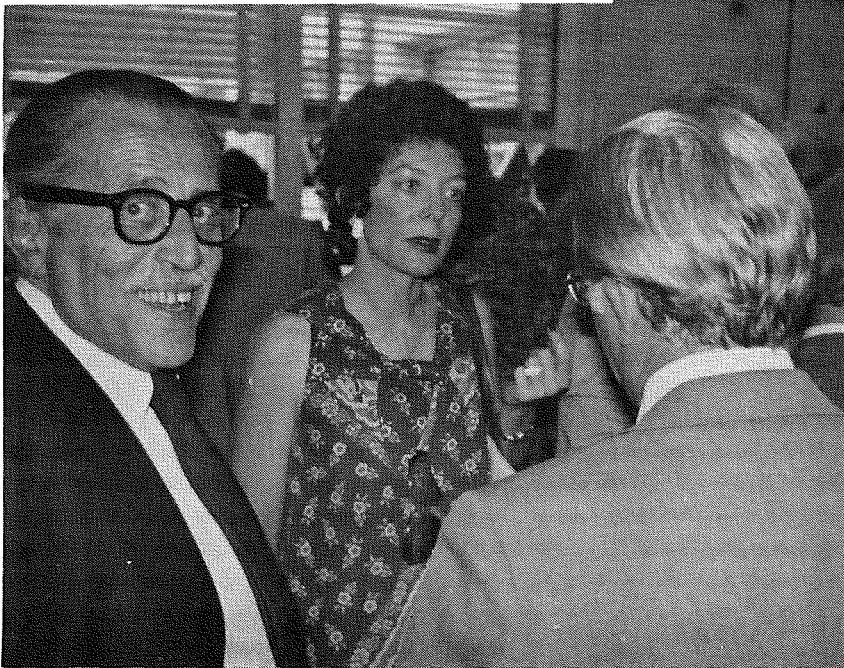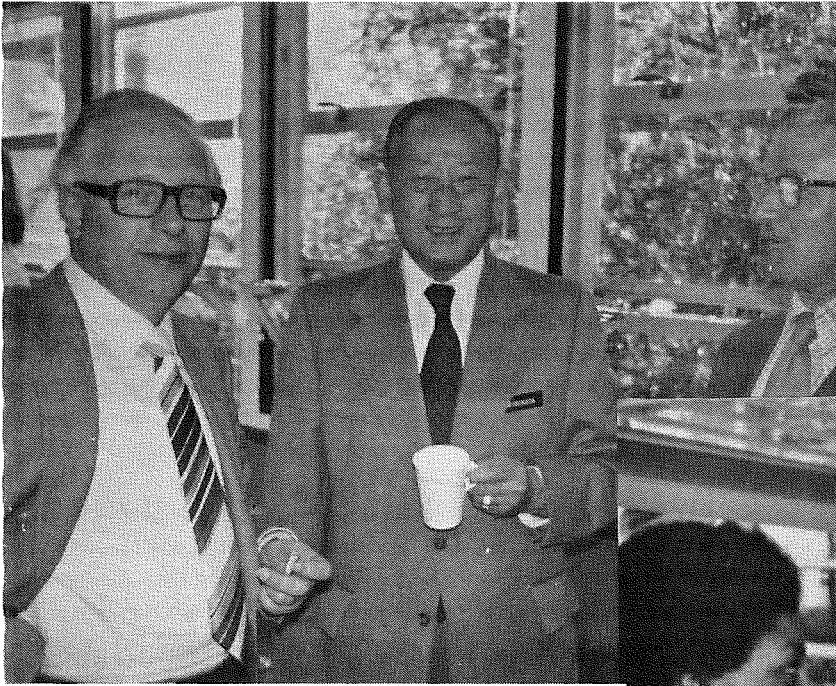
TASK ANALYSIS: THE FIRST STEP TOWARD THE GOAL OF LANGUAGE TRAINING PROGRAMS

Hubert H. Setzler, Jr.
Development & Evlauation Associates, Inc. Syracuse, New York

In the past, societies and nations have relied on the giants of mankind. We looked to those special geniuses to guide us, to direct us. In the past, it was men of the stature of Hegel, Tolstoy, Ibsen, Voltaire, Plato, Moses, da Vinci, Mohammed, Buddha, Einstein, and Newton, who solved, or attempted to solve the problems of the world for us. Webster's Biographical Dictionary lists about 40,000 such special geniuses.

Today, there are four billion people in the world. Today, there is unlimited growth in technology, scientific knowledge, and social systems. The speed of human advancement does not allow us to rely on those special geniuses any longer. There are simply not enough to go around. Today, we must rely on the special genius inside each man. We must rely on the collective genius of all men. That means we must rely on sharing. We must give and we must receive.

That is, for me, the purpose of language training programs today. Language programs help others to communicate through language, so that they might share their knowledge, their experience, their skills, their "special genius". This is the goal of language training--helping others learn to share through communication and language.

Job, Communication, and Language

We share primarily through our work. It is this world of work that has made job-oriented language training so critical today. Whether our work is governmental or military, public or private, we all contribute to the common good. We contribute through our ability to communicate with others through language.

There are three factors that determine the successful language program in the world of work: JOB, COMMUNICATION, AND LANGUAGE. In this world of work, there are critical job tasks that must be done, there are communication skills required in those tasks, and there is the language through which the job communication takes place. There is, for me, no doubt that these three factors--job, communication, and language--are inseparable in the work setting. You cannot, as a job holder, do one without the other two.

Figure 1 about here

It is a key viewpoint that the training manager must hold: job, communication, and language are inseparable, of equal importance. For example, in the Military Advisory and Assistance Group in Madrid, Spain, the MAAG officer must know how the foreign military sales program works. He must have the expertise to help the Spanish buyers. He must understand the logistics system. He must know how to order spare parts, follow up on damaged parts, deal with pull requisitions,

initiate a push requisition, and so forth. If the MAAG officer does not have this job expertise, he can't do his work. He has nothing to share. A MAAG officer must be able to communicate this expertise clearly and effectively. He must be able to conduct briefings on aircraft, equipment, and the logistics system. He must be able to communicate on the telephone for handling routine business. He must be able to read correspondence. He must, most importantly, carry on conversations about the work to be done. If the MAAG officer cannot plan his communication and do it effectively, he cannot do his job. He cannot share his expertise, his experience, and his knowledge.

A MAAG officer must be able to put this expertise into the words of other people. He must be able to use the Spanish language. If the MAAG officer in Madrid cannot communicate his expertise in Spanish, he can't do his job effectively. That is because job, communication, and language are all parts of the whole. The training manager must always keep these three factors in mind.

Most effective training managers do exactly that. I remember once talking to Hank Marschik, who is here at the Defense Language Institute. He was telling me about his experiences while training jet pilots. Obviously, Hank was in charge of the language training. But Hank held the broader view. He worked with pilot trainees throughout the entire training program, from the language laboratory to the cockpit of the airplane. He said that his job was done only after the pilot trainee, when flying alone for the first time, returned to the base and landed safely. Hank knows that job, communication, and language are fused together. They are inseparable. You cannot pull them apart.

Another training manager who holds this view is Dr. Ich. He is the head of the TEC program (Training Extension Course) here at the Defense Language Institute. He sees to it that job-oriented foreign language materials are developed and sent out to particular job holders. These TEC lessons provide additional language training for the job holder. Before Dr. Ich developed a single lesson, he went to the job training school and took the entire course himself. He became, in effect, an "expert job holder." I told him he was a genius. He just smiled and said it was only "common sense." Dr. Ich also holds the broader perspective that job, communication, and language are inseparable.

The goal of language training is to help others share through communication and language. The way to achieve this goal is to develop language training programs whose training objectives are based on job, communication, and language.

Now I would like to describe to you a system for analyzing the job tasks, the communicative tasks, and the language knowledges necessary for developing a job-oriented language training program. It is a system we have been working on with the Defense Language Institute for almost two years. It is a system for analyzing job, communication, and language, so that clear and explicit training objectives can be established, training objectives that prepare the language trainee for the job ahead, the job of sharing.

First, we will take up the task analysis. Task analysis looks carefully at the job tasks. Through this analysis we can determine what the terminal skill objectives must be. These objectives are the behaviors the trainee must have in order to graduate from the program.

Second, we shall look at communications analysis. Through this analysis we can find out what are the best communicative plans or communicative strategies the job holder can use to carry out his job tasks. This analysis results in ordering the learning steps for the trainee. It is through these steps that the language trainee will reach mastery of the terminal skill objectives.

Third, we shall briefly examine the language analysis. It is through the language analysis that we can determine the language patterns, structure, and special vocabulary needs of the job holder. When these language elements are matched with the learning steps from the communications analysis, we have the enabling objectives. These enabling objectives are the behaviors the language trainee must display as he advances toward mastery of the terminal skill objectives.

Let's start with the task analysis.

Conducting Task Analysis

Task analysis takes place in three phases: (1) the preparation phase; (2) the data collection phase; (3) and the analysis phase. The final result of this analysis is the terminal skill objectives for the training program. These objectives are the behaviors the trainee must have in order to successfully graduate from the program.

Figure 2 about here

The preparation phase. The preparation phase is the time and effort you spend getting ready to do the task analysis. First, you get to know the users of training. The manager sees to it that the job holders and their superiors will share in the task analysis project. The initial contacts with the users of language training form the overall plan and framework for the project. For any task analysis to be really successful, the users must be your primary source of information. They share in the training development. Establishing a good working relationship with the users, both job holders and their superiors, is an essential ingredient of any training recipe.

Second, the task analysts review existing documents, training manuals, and job descriptions--anything that deals with the job. This is the time when the analyst does his homework. This helps you understand more about what the job holders can share with you. You cannot effectively draw on the expertise of the job holder unless you know what you want from him, what he is bringing to you, what you want to share with each other.

The data collection phase. Once you are prepared, you can start the data collection phase. You begin with the development of an overall data collection strategy. This strategy is a management plan. Managers must decide whether or not to start with an initial job survey, whether or not to conduct interviews with job holders, whether or not to conduct a follow-up survey. The information obtained during the preparation phase aids in making these decisions.

Second, you develop the instruments that guide the collection of information. This information can be divided into two broad categories: qualitative data and quantitative data. The quantitative data help determine which tasks should be training priorities. Quantitative data can answer questions like the following. How many job holders actually do this task? Do job holders do this task every day? Is this task critical to the overall mission? Does the task involve risk to human safety or welfare? Is the language for this task very difficult? How long after training do they start to perform this task? The analysis of questions such as these lead the determination of the priority tasks for language training.

In the past, task analysis has been very successful in providing the quantitative data - determining which tasks will be selected for training. Mailed surveys are good instruments for finding out which tasks. Statistical methods for analyzing quantitative data from surveys are at our fingertips. Through the use of computers the statistical analysis can be done very quickly.

Here is a computer run of a survey we used to make decisions about which tasks should be priority tasks. Computer analysis never fails to impress me. It is so efficient, so powerful in its ability to provide decision making information-- so long as that information can be quantified.

But there is something that surveys and computers cannot do very well. Surveys and computers can only struggle with qualitative data. They cannot tell you how to do the job, what special vocabulary is needed, what language structures are required, what communicative strategies are used. These qualitative data are the very stuff out of which course developers build their lessons.

Here is a copy of our interview instrument. It, too, follows a computer-like format. The qualitative information categories are "programmed" into the instruments along with the operations and instructions for its use. The interview instrument is organized to have job holders respond and share their experiences in ways that are meaningful to themselves. The interview instrument takes down the job holder's view or structure of the tasks that require communicative skills in the second language. Then, the instrument transforms this view into information categories and organization required for task analysts, course developers, and test developers. It helps the interviewer become a good listener, a well-informed listener. It helps the job holder express himself about the job tasks. I really love that interview instrument. I love to read it again and again, long after the interview. I love to recall all the things the job holder shared with me. It is the best part of task analysis.

The analysis phase. Finally, the analysis phase comes. This is the time when you turn the priority tasks into training objectives. These training objectives represent the final skills necessary for successfully completing the language training.

Terminal Skill Objectives

Each training objective has three primary parts: (1) a statement of the task to be performed; (2) a statement of the conditions under which performance is

to take place; and (3) a standard of acceptable performance. The training objectives are "action" oriented. That is, each objective describes what the language trainee is supposed to do, not what he is supposed to know.

Each terminal skill objective has these three components, the task, conditions, and standard, presented on the first page, the cover page, of the objective.

Figure 3 about here

In this case, the language trainee is a Medical Specialist. He is required to demonstrate the procedures for creating an emergency airway. The task statement has four components: (1) the role assumed by the language trainee; (2) the communicative activity the student performs: (3) the audience characteristics; (4) the topic or topics; and (5) the purpose of the task.

"The student in the role of instructor demonstrates to others in the Russian Language in a face-to-face situation on a group or individual basis how to create an emergency airway by: (1) describing the signs that indicate an emergency airway is needed, (2) describing the procedures for creating an emergency airway, (3) demonstrating on a dummy the procedures for creating an emergency airway for the purpose of training new medical specialists."

Conditions statements describe such things as preparation time, performance time, materials and equipment required, and the appropriate linguistic register. The standard includes a description of acceptable communicative behavior and the major categories to be emphasized during testing of student performance.

Following the cover page are several pages that describe the activity in terms of a task scenario. This scenario "tells the story" of what is going on during task performance. Beside the scenario are the key vocabulary items and language functions critical to task performance. The final pages describe the number and type of language functions and list all of the key technical or specialized vocabulary. These sections complete the terminal skill objectives.

Enabling Objectives

Once the terminal skill objectives have been written, the analyst turns to the problem of the enabling objectives. Enabling objectives guide the language learner through the weeks of training to his final success. How can the analyst build these steps? Our solution was to develop these steps through an analysis of communication and an analysis of language.

Communications Analysis

Communications analysis reflects the concern that people may not know how to communicate in the first place. Most of us could use some training in how to communicate--how to plan and prepare for effective communication, whether it is

a briefing, a telephone call, a job conversation, an interview, or even a speech or paper presentation. Through communications analysis, the analyst can build communicative plans or strategies for sharing knowledge, expertise, or special skills. Let us look at some of the speaking/listening skills--briefing, teaching, and demonstrating. The student can develop any briefing, if he has a general strategy or general briefing plan. Teachers have basic strategies for effective communication, presentation of subject matter, and questioning and feedback. A technican needs an organizational plan for demonstrating, if he is to successfully demonstrate various types of equipment.

Let's say that we have identified the following listening/speaking skills for a particular job group: briefing, demonstrating, teaching, interviewing, telephoning and conversing. The analyst, for some reason, tackles the problem of demonstrating. He reviews the literature of communication and teaching by the demonstration-performance method. He reads, he thinks, he analyzes. At last, he develops the following general strategy for demonstrating: (1) INTRODUCE THE DEMONSTRATION by gaining attention, motivating learners, stating the learning objectives, providing an overview of activities and procedures; (2) PROVIDING EXPLANATION by issuing warnings and cautions, identifying parts and labeling them, and identifying the steps in a procedure; (3) DEMONSTRATING by making comments on the modeled actions and making comments on the procedures; (4) SUPERVISING STUDENT PERFORMANCE by answering their questions, acknowledging emotional attitudes, and providing supportive correction; and (5) EVALUATING PERFORMANCE by asking questions, expressing approval or disapproval, and providing assessment. This selection of demonstrating and its breakdown into learning steps is shown in Figure 4.

Figure 4 about here

This analysis of the activity of "demonstrating" gives us the enabling steps necessary to reach any terminal skill objective that requires a communicative skill in demonstrating. Such steps can be developed for any of the speaking/ listening skills required for the job group. But what about language?

Language analysis

The language analysis is based on the approach used by the Council of Europe. It is called the functional-notional approach. The functional-notional approach has been used primarily for the teaching of European languages. Its success is largely rooted in a single important idea. That idea is that the place to start language analysis is from the question: "What does the language learner need to say?" That is, the functional approach begins by defining the context, the situations, in which the job holders use language. After defining the context, the analyst specifies the grammatical patterns and vocabulary normally found in those contexts. The result is a set of language functions.

Language functions represent the purposes for which the job holder uses language. The language patterns are organized around these purposes. For example, the

MAAG officer may, in some situations, need to fulfill the purpose of expressing hope. The language analysis will provide him with one or more ways of expressing hope in Spanish. In other situations, the MAAG officer might need to ask about capability. The language analysis can provide him with one or more ways of inquiring about capability. As one begins the language analysis, he quickly sees that the list of functions grows very quickly.

Some jobs have a great number of required language functions. The size of the list becomes difficult to manage. That is where the functions catalog comes in. The analyst develops a plan for organizing the list of functions so that any function is easy to reach. He does this by building a functions catalog. The catalogs we built had six major categories: 1.0 Report, express, and inquire about factual information; 2.0 Report, express, and inquire about intellectual attitudes; 3.0 Report, express, and inquire about emotional attitudes; 4.0 Report express, and inquire about getting things done; 5.0 Social rituals; and 6.0 Managing communication.

Each major category has its own list of functions. For example, we selected seven specific functions for category 4.0 Getting things done: 4.1 suggesting, 4.2 requesting, 4.3 inviting, 4.4 advising, 4.5 warning, 4.6 directing/instructing/commanding, and 4.7 correcting. Various numbers of other functions were assigned to the other categories.

Figure 5 about here

The language functions are universal. They are good for any language. All that you have to do is supply the specific grammatical patterns for the target language. This is also a very big task. We have found that a general purpose functions catalog for a specific language will grow to over a thousand elements or language structures.

Once we finish the functions catalog, we match the functions with the purposes in the communicative strategy. Let's return to the first learning block in demonstrating. INTRODUCING THE DEMONSTRATION is broken down into the steps of gaining attention, motivating the students, stating the learning objectives, providing an overview of activities and procedures, and explaining evaluation.

Figure 6 about here

The first step is gaining attention. To meet the purpose of gaining attention, the following language functions can be used. From 3.0 Emotional attitudes, you can draw on the function 3.7 intention. From 5.0 Social rituals, you can use 5.5.1 introduce oneself, and so on.

In the second step, motivating, one of the functions is 2.6 need. You can look up this function in the functions catalog under 2.0 Intellectual attitudes. There you will find the various language elements, the structures or patterns, that allow the trainee to express need. The following example of language elements comes from the English version of the functions catalog.

Figure 7 about here

You may, of course, decide to change some functions. Other functions can be added, changed, or deleted. The main thing is that key functions are identified. The trainee must be trained to the critical language functions required for expressing the purposes of language and communication.

This synthesis of communicative purpose and language functions is carried out through each learning block for demonstrating. When the synthesis is completed, you have the enabling objectives. You have the steps leading to mastery of any terminal skill objective where the activity is demonstrating. These training objectives form the basis of the language training program.

Final Remarks

This is one way to develop a language training program, a training program whose purpose is sharing, a training program whose goal is helping others to learn to share. It is done through task analysis, communications analysis, and language analysis--job, communication, and language.

Through task analysis, we find the best ways for the language learner to organize his knowledge, his experience, his skills, his special genius for the job. The salesman will better understand his salesmanship. The military man will better understand his mission. Yes, even the poet could see his art and craft more clearly. We can do that through task analysis.

Through the analysis of communication and communicative strategies, we can help others communicate their knowledge, skills, and experience. They will talk more clearly over the telephone. They will talk and listen more effectively in job conversations. The supervisor can effectively interview job applicants. The advisor can conduct briefings that pass on vital information to decision makers. The instructor can effectively communicate to the student. The technician can describe, demonstrate, and explain his equipment. We can do that through communications analysis.

Through an analysis of the functions of the second language, we can help the learner put his knowledge, his experience, his special genius into the words of other people in their own language. The language learner will be able to report, express, and inquire about facts, intellectual attitudes, and emotional attitudes. He can initate actions through suggestions, advice, recommendations, and invitations. He can become part of the social context of the host country. We can do that through language analysis.

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Now we put all this together into a program with qualified teachers, validated instructional materials, and a sound management plan. This management plan must always focus on the goal of sharing. For it is through job, communication, and language that we share ourselves. That's a language training program! A program that, unlike this paper, does not come to an end. This program of sharing continues through each new training cycle, from day to day, from week to week, from year to year--from person to person.

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FIGURE 1

JOB TASKS

COMMUNICATION

LANGUAGE

LANGUAGE TRAINING OBJECTIVES

FIGURE 2

TASK ANALYSIS
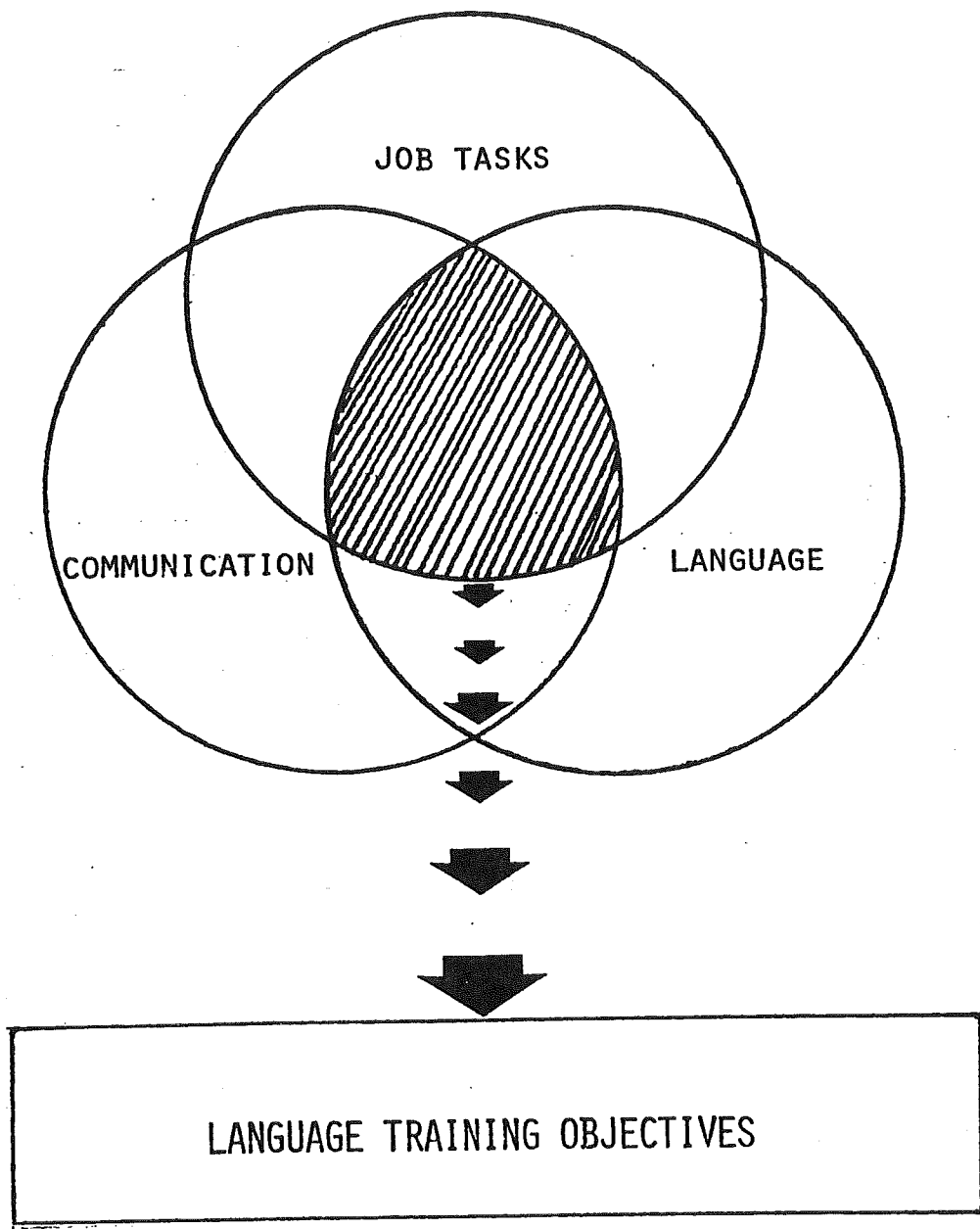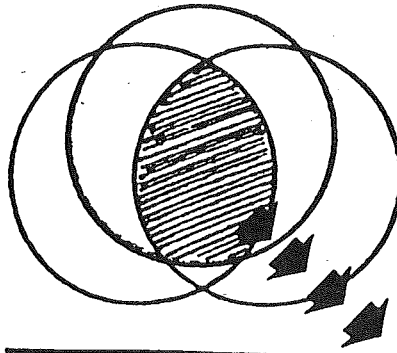
PREPARATION

CONTACT USERS	REVIEW JOB
*meet users *gain understanding	*review documents *review job descriptions

DATA COLLECTION

DEVELOP PLAN	DEVELOP INSTRUMENTS	GATHER DATA
*management strategies	*survey *interview *observation	*mail *on-site

ANALYSIS

ANALYZE QUANTITATIVE DATA	ANALYZE QUALITATIVE DATA
*establish priority training tasks	*determine how to do the priority tasks

TERMINAL SKILL OBJECTIVES

*communicative task
        *condtions
           *task standards

TERMINAL SKILL OBJECTIVE

No. 91B.SF / C.7.05 / RU

DOCUMENTATION: FM 31-21 Special Forces Operations

FM 31-20 Special Forces Operational Techniques

Task Analysis, 10th SFG, Ft. Devens

Interview/Survey Data: DLI Work Unit 35114

COMMUNICATIVE TASK

COMPONENTS

Role	Instructor
Com Act	Demonstrates
Audience	Group/Individual
Topics	Emergency airway
Purpose	Training medics

STATEMENT

The student in the role of "INSTRUCTOR" "DEMONSTRATES" to others in the Russian language in a face-to-face situation on a group or individual basis how to create an emergency airway by: (1) describing the signs that indicate an emergency airway is needed, (2) describing the procedures for creating an emergency airway, and (3) demonstrating on a dummy the procedures for creating an emergency airway for the purpose of training medical specialists.

CONDITIONS

| PREPARATION TIME | PERFORMANCE TIME |
| 2 hours | 20 min. |

Materials/Equipment   Materials/Equipment

dummy, technical terms, dummy, and 1-5 persons

dictionary, medical FM   acting as trainees

REGISTER

Speech   Print
x techno-jargon   ___ technical
___ formal   ___ literary
x colloquial   ___ informal

MacroSTANDARDS

DESCRIPTION The student will describe the signs, the step-by-step procedures, and demonstrate on the dummy. The student will ask questions and provide corrective feedback for incorrect responses.

LPM INDICES

Functions   Vocabulary

x 1.0 Fact Info   ___ military
___ 2.0 Intell Att   x technical
x 3.0 Emo Att   ___ other ___
___ 4.0 Suasion
___ 5.0 Soc Rlt   See T.04
___ 6.0 Man Comm

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FIGURE 4

COMMUNICATIONS
ANALYSIS

LISTENING/SPEAKING

briefs
DEMONSTRATES
teaches
interviews
telephones
converses
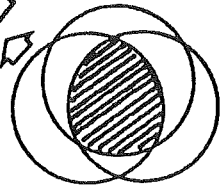
Prepara-
tion

data
collec-
tion

analysis

TERMINAL
SKILL
OBJECTIVE

INTRODUCING THE DEMONSTRATION

*Gain attention
*Motivate students
*Provide overview of activities
 and/or procedures
*Explain evaluation process

PROVIDING EXPLANATION

*Issue warnings and cautions
*Identify parts and label them
*Identify steps in a procedure

DEMONSTRATING

*Make comments on modeled
 actions
*Make comments on procedures

SUPERVISING STUDENT PERFORMANCE

*Answer questions
*Acknowledge emotional attitudes
*Provide supportive correction

EVALUATING STUDENT PERFORMANCE

*Ask questions
*Express approval/disapproval
*Provide assessment

FIGURE 5

LANGUAGE ANALYSIS

Listening/
Speaking

briefs

demonstrates

etc.

| Introduce demonstra-tion |
| Provide explana-tion |
| Demonstra-te |
| Supervise perform-ance |
| Evaluate perform-ance |

TSO

LANGUAGE FUNCTIONS
CATALOG

1.0	Report, express, and inquire about factual information
2.0	Report, express, and inquire about intellectual atti-tudes
3.0	Report, express, and inquire about emotional attitudes
4.0	Report, express, and inquire about getting things done
5.0	Social rituals
6.0	Managing communi-cation

E.01

Page 1 of 3

ENABLING OBJECTIVE C.7.1 INTRODUCING THE DEMONSTRATION

(RUSSIAN)

SKILL DEVELOPMENT	LINGUISTIC KNOWLEDGES	COMMUNICATIVE PRACTICE
MacroSTANDARDS Communicative Activity "DEMONSTRATES"	MicroSTANDARDS (Functional Elements)	COMMENTS AND ADDITIONAL INFORMATION
INTRODUCING THE DEMONSTRATION		SALUTATION/INTRODUCTION - INCLUDE JOB TITLE
A. Gain attention The student will gain attention using the following functions:		The student should use the appropriate Rolebook as a Job Performance Aid in order to effect the proper style and register through a variety of specific role statements. The student must have command of a number of stock phrases such as:
6.1.1 interrupt	6.1.1: 1/4/6	"May I have your attention, please."
5.5.1 introduce oneself	5.5.1:	"If everyone is ready, let's get started."
3.7 express intention	3.7: 2/3/4/5/6/8	The student will employ with automatic fluency such instructional introductions as:
6.2 sequence communication	6.2: 1/2/3/5/6	"The objectives for this session are as follows."
6.3 refocus or adjust communication	6.3: 2/4/7/8	"There are three objectives for this lesson." "At the end of this session, you should be able to do three things."
B. Motivate The student will motivate the adulence by pointing out how the learning will be relevant to their needs, meaningful to their job tasks, or in some other manner proven effective for the target audience. The student will use functions:		"Given _____, you should be able to _____."
2.6 need	2.6: 1/2/3/4/7	
2.8 obligation	2.8: 2/3/4/5/7/9/10/11	
3.10.1 importance	3.10.1: 1-7	
4.1 suggest	4.1: 2/4/5/6/7/10 2/4-7/10	

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FIGURE 7

2.6 <u>report, express, or inquire about need</u>

report: .1   NP + <u>NEED</u> + $\begin{cases} \text{to VP} \\ \text{NP} \end{cases}$

           EX: Ambrose needs a new pair of socks.

.2   NP + $\begin{cases} \underline{SAY} \\ \underline{TELL} + NP \\ \underline{REPORT} \end{cases}$ + NP + <u>NEED</u> + $\begin{cases} \text{to VP.} \\ \text{NP.} \end{cases}$

           EX: The mailman said he needed some dog biscuits.

express: .3 $\begin{cases} I \\ We \end{cases}$ + (still) <u>NEED</u> + $\begin{cases} NP. \\ VP. \end{cases}$

           EX: I need the log book.

.4 $\begin{cases} I \\ We \end{cases}$ + (<u>DO</u> not) <u>HAVE</u> to + VP.

           EX: I don't have to go to the bank this afternoon.

.5   NP + <u>BE</u> (not) + $\begin{cases} \text{necessary.} \\ \text{required.} \\ \text{missing.} \end{cases}$

           That won't be necessary.

.6   NP + must have + NP.

           We civilian observers must have earplugs.

inquire about: .7   What <u>DO</u> + NP + need = $\begin{cases} \emptyset? \\ \text{to VP?} \end{cases}$

           What will Mary need to finish the job?

.8   <u>DO</u> + NP need + $\begin{cases} \text{something?} \\ \text{NP?} \\ \text{VP?} \end{cases}$

           Does Frances need a new secretary?

.9   What <u>DO</u> + NP + have to VP?

           What do they have to do to make it operate?

.10   <u>DO</u> + NP + have to + VP?

           Does Fred have to go to the bank?

.11   Why + <u>BE</u> + (NEG) + NP + necessary?

           Why are fire drills necessary?

OCCUPATIONAL ANALYSIS - - - THE BASIS FOR DEVELOPING LANGUAGE-BASED ** TERMINAL SKILL OBJECTIVES

C. L. John Legere, Ed.D.
Assistant Deputy Commandant (TSM)
US Army Intelligence School
Fort Devens, MA 01433

The purpose of this presentation is to discuss occupational analysis systems, follow-on systems for language-based terminal skill objective development and to locate each of these in the training system. Although my orientation and terms of reference are to military systems there is no intention of describing occupational analysis as a military phenomenon. All well conceived instructional system design procedures are based upon occupational analysis. All efforts to develop language factor analysis for training toward particular jobs should, similarly, be based upon a sound analysis of the occupation and the jobs within that occupation. There is a direct relationship between the efficiency of the instructional system and the excellence of the occupational analysis and the degree to which the system designers understand the occupational analysis procedures and resultant data. Before proceeding to language factor analysis, we will consider its necessary base, Occupational Analysis.

There is no secret to the success of instructional system design structures. The parts of the instructional system design structures were present, as individual components, long before they were put together into one system. The components are not magic. The components are not new. The only innovation in Instructional System Design models is that they are linked together; considered as a unit; provided unity; treated as one system and performed

by a team of people who have cognizance of all of the other parts of the system. Occupational analysis, one of the components, falls into this category. It is not new. It is not magic. Its only newness is that it is the first component of an integrated system of learning activity design. If it is not done well, or if its true spirit is not followed, the Instructional System Design procedures which follow will not produce effective learning.

If the systems fail, occupational analysis will be thrown out with the rest of the system because it has no other valuable end to training than to serve as the front-end for an Instructional System Design model.

H I S T O R Y

Occupational analyses, of one kind or another, have been a part of personnel management systems for many years. There have always been "job descriptions" and personnel teams performing "job analysis." That's nothing new. Audits of jobs are still being performed. Efficiency experts have been a part of the scene and spawned many jokes during the thirties and forties. The personnel functions of business, industry, government, etc., have been dealing in job analysis terms for a long time. Why, then, does occupational analysis seem to be "new" or "modern" and a critical part of the latest technology of instructional system design? Because, since the early 1960's the occupational analysis has gained the training community as its basic, and largest consumer, and because occupational analysis data are now sufficiently well-articulated to prevent misunderstanding and now include most of the necessary elements of explanation to make them a more than suitable substitute for information based upon concencus and intuition. A further improvement has been that occupational analysis has become an integral part of the instructional

systems development process and not an accompanying or adjunct process. It must be borne in mind, however, that trainers are only one of the consumers of occupational analysis information. The occupational analysis must become an integral part of the instructional system development process, but it must not be performed solely for, or even in the name of training. The occupational analysis must be performed as a true research effort to determine the actual content and form of job behavior, and it must serve as basic management feeder information for modifying all aspects related to the job. Training is only one of these factors.

Department of Defense organizations did some of the early work in making the occupational analysis work for training systems as it should. Repeated efforts to improve the effectiveness and efficiency of instruction paid small returns regardless of the avenue of expression that was chosen. Improvement and innovation in the fields of curriculum development, aids to training, methods of instruction, training and development of instructors, development of training material, test scoring and reporting systems, training environments, simulation and learner motivation, to name a few, were of no avail. The training programs were more enjoyable; appeared better; flowed more evenly, etc., but were not significantly better, or significantly more efficient. Some researchers felt that maybe the problem was not how learning was planned for, implemented and followed-up, but what was chosen to be developed in the learning situation. The really meaningful evaluation of the efficiency and excellence of the learning situation comes from proof that the graduate-learner is better, on-the-job. If then, the graduate-trainee is being judged by how well he does on-the-job, the training program should begin with the job. The trainer

had, for years, used personnel documents, i.e., job descriptions, as curriculum research aids. But, were the job descriptions descriptive enough? No, they included only descriptions of the Job, not descriptions of the lower levels of detail that could be meaningful to the instructor, or learner, in changing behavior towards successful job performance. If the level of detail was not present in the job description, where the only analysis of the job existed, i.e., job analysis, then how would the trainer get the level of detail needed? By analyzing the job, in depth. By breaking the job description into sub-sets of description that would be meaningful in the teaching/learning arena. What kind of sub-divisions would be appropriate? In the lexicon of personnel job description there were sub-sets already named, i.e., Duties, Tasks and Elements. These sub-divisions were enferred in the personnel documents, but not really described as fine differences within the description of the job. Although focussed upon what people did on the job, there were no modifying data presented to differentiate from amongst the many people who performed the same whole, or part jobs at different levels of difficulty or complexity.

The trainer looked further and asked, "How, then, should the descriptions be stated?" The programmed instruction technology was growing and taking form, at this time. Behavioral scientists, who were formulating the psychological principles for the conditioning of learners had not yet turned to the job as the source of data about training for these jobs. They had recognized the need to break learning objectives down into more precise statements of (1) the Behavior (what the learner must do): the Condition surrounding the behavior (what the learner is given to perform) and (3) the Criterion (the degree of excellence of procedure or product that would make the behavior acceptable.)

The behavioral psychologists had not put the precision of their behavioral statements into the context of the structure of the jobs or, more precisely, the future activities to which the learner would proceed. This precluded two things from occurring. One, it precluded any real change in content for curriculum and merely made the statement of the objective, or whatever was being taught, more precise. It did not effect change. If the course content was accurate, in terms of preparation for a job, or for the next learning experience, then the objective for the development of this content was stated precisely. If, however, the course content and objectives were innacurate in terms of what they were to prepare the learner to perform after the learning, then this innacuracy would be stated more precisely. These systems did not provide for linking the learning experience with the performance experience that would follow, particularly if it was a terminal learning experience and the next requirement was to perform on the job. Secondly, the lack of a relationship to a job-oriented structure did not provide for relating to the job before the learning experience, or before the curriculum development took place, i.e., front-end analysis.

Once this tie-in was discovered to be valuable, systems for the analysis of jobs proliferated. The many systems which developed were, generally, differentiated by how the data were consolidated and analyzed. The basic concept was the same, i.e., analyze the job for which personnel action, carreer development, equipment development, logistical support, operation systems definition and training must be provided. The differences in systems still prevail and some definition should be given to these different systems for the collection of data and the different compositions of these data so that the researcher can

choose the system and structure best matching his need, or develop an eclectic approach most suiting the prevailing conditions and the capabilities of the institution for which the research is being performed.

COMPOSITION OF OCCUPATIONAL ANALYSIS DATA

All systems of occupational analysis are the same in terms of intent. That intent is to gather the details of job performance in order to understand what the requirements are for performance of that job. There are different systems for conducting occupational analysis. The differences in these systems are in terms of depth of detail of the data collected and the methods of controlling, storing and retrieving these data. All of the systems are behavioral in character, i.e., they deal with job performances that are stated in terms of a verb and the object of that verb. These statements tell what the job performer must be able to do on-the-job. The conditions of that behavior are usually considered, i.e., what the job performer is given, or is not given to perform the job. Some systems also deal, in depth, with the criterion of acceptability for the job performance or for the end-product of that job performance. The degree to which systems deal with the conditions and criteria changes the character of the method considerably. Some systems of occupational analysis deal only with the behavior. Within instructional systems development there has to be an adjustment to the condition and criterion sooner or later. This writer feels that they should be deeply rooted in the system from the beginning and included in the initial occupational analysis procedure.

ARCHITECTURE OF JOB DATA

The architecture of the job is another variable across the occupational analysis systems. Each considers the same general structure, but some may

have different names for the parts of the hierarchy. More confusing, to the user of more than one system, is when the same name for different parts of the system of behavior appears, i.e., some call all behaviors, tasks, etc.

The whole occupational area is the set. There is a sub set of work activities within this structure. Each of these sub sets is divided into lesser sub sets which in turn are divided into elements. The philosophy of mathematics and the lexicon of job analysis share this last name. Both call the smallest unit, elements. This writer uses the terms Job, Duty, Task and Element to describe the architecture of jobs. Illustration 1 shows a graphic demonstration of this relationship. A job is the total: the duties are the major subdivisions of the job each being a collection of work performance using similar skills: requiring training: used as selection criteria and occurring with reasonable frequence in the job cycle. These duties are broken into tasks which have the same relationship to duties as duties have to the job. Job, Duty and Task statements can be readily and meaningfully expressed in terms of Behaviors, Conditions and Criteria. The tasks are broken into elements. These are the smallest, meaningful statements of work performance. The elements are really procedural steps which aggregate into the performance of a task. The task performances aggregate into the procedures or product of the duty and the aggregation of the duties constitute the job itself.

Some systems use the term "sub-elements" or sub-tasks" to describe bits of behavior that are smaller than elements, or more specifically, which are more than three levels, or sub-divisions, away from the job-level. This writer is sensitive to the reasons for this, but feels that it is the result of a confusion rather than as a function of the nature of the work performance itself.

This writer believes that ability to deal with four levels, or categories, of distinctly different job activity, is the outer limit of most people's ability. This writer, also, feels that if job performance categories are constructed which are truly duties, tasks, etc., then the statements of behaviors below the element would be meaningless because they would be such artificially small pieces of behavior that they would not be identifiable even within the context of the job.

If the hierarchy of job-performance definition, displayed in Illustration 1, is adopted, the identification of a behavior as being a duty, task, or element is a function of the job performer and not a function of the job itself. The element is just that. Elementary to the job performer. That person can understand and perform that behavior without it being broken down into any smaller pieces. If, for example, a new job performer was receiving a review of his job requirements from the supervisor and began to question how to perform the smallest steps outlined, the job performer would be demonstrating that the elements outlined by the supervisor were not really elements of that person's behavior. This job performer would, probably, also be showing that the whole job was beyond his current scope of performance.

The behavior is the only part of the element statement that is useful. The conditions and criteria are so closely involved in each element of a task that there is, usually, no one element that has a different condition and criterion. The conditions and criteria for the task are the same for each element, or the behavior is so small that differentiation about which part of the task condition or criterion pertains is artificial and a meaningless difference. The job performer can proceed with each of these elements and

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perform them as "packages" of behavior; as one smooth behavior without further explanation or training.

It may be that training is just the act of providing the performer with knowledge of the order in which elements should be performed to "add-up" to the task and teaching the performer the occasional element that is not, routinely, known. The culmination of training is, then, the performance of these steps in the proper order and the recognition of what they constitute when performed in the proper order.

The labelling of parts of the job performance structure should begin with the element and move upward. When the point has been located, at which the elements aggregate meaningfully, this point can be labelled task. The meaningful aggregation of the task activity, or the grouping of skill related areas from the rest of the job data will describe one of the duties and the collection of all of the duties, observed will tell what the job really is.

There are some handy human constraints that seem to be at work here. There are some human design limitations that make the task of realistically describing a job somewhat easier than might be true otherwise. One limitation is the number of different skill areas that the average person could reasonably be expected to be apt for, and able to perform within. It has been the experience of this writer that between six to nine truly different skill clusters represent the typical range. This would, then, limit the number of duties in a job to that number.

When breaking the duties down into tasks, it would appear that a similar range would be present, i.e., six to nine tasks would represent the number of different sub-skill areas that would be meaningful to isolate within the Duty

without showing excessive overlap or duplication. The number of elements for each task are not important but it is easy to visualize some constraint on this process also. The job performer would be performing the elements in a cyclic fashion starting and ending in some task fulfillment, beginning again, etc. Just time-span alone would indicate some constraint. If an excessively long list of statements were developed as elements to a task it is probable that they are artificially small and not meaningful when observing the job performer. The job observer should be able to see element performances begin and end.

The above discussion may be akin to "angels on the head of a pin," but some educational technologists working with occupational analysis data, as consumers, are charged with coming up with lists of critical tasks for curriculum and testing systems. The endless lists of unsorted performance statements provided to some of these people must first be sorted into the hierarchical structure of duties, tasks and elements. When this is done, the sort must be validated and the critical performances isolated. Almost always the question of how many duties or tasks there should be arises. Using the scheme outlined, the hierarchy can be formed by noting the relationships outlined and the number may be calculated by using the ranges given. The typical job should have between six and nine duties and there will be between thirty-six and eighty-one tasks. If the data are tightly structured these will all be the critical tasks.

If a researcher finds more duties than included in the range defined then the data probably represent more than one job. If the researcher finds it necessary to break data down into sub-elements it could be the result of the

same phenomenon, or it could be that the behavioral statements are broken down into artificially small performances that would, in fact, have little real meaning to the performer or observer.

~~Illustration Number Two shows how the hierarchy of job data relates to the training system. This chart shows the accumulation process from requisite skills and knowledges up to ability to perform the entire job. This is shown to the reader at this point to insure that a direct connection is maintained between these job data and their ultimate use in the training environment.~~

An understanding of elements of behavior is also key to understanding what is seen during the occupational analysis, or job analysis, process. Maybe the English language is weak, or maybe misunderstanding has just been heaped upon misunderstanding. The job analyst or occupational analyst never really sees a job, or an occupation being performed. Neither does the analyst see duties or tasks. That researcher sees elements being performed. If the researcher were to depend only upon what the performer was see to do, there would be no real description of the task, or duty, because all this researcher would see would be the terminal elements of a string of element behaviors that culminated into the performance, or product, of the task or duty. During the analysis phase the researcher would have to reconstruct what has happened by describing the aggregate of the element behaviors as they culminated into the task or duty.

To further complicate matters, real life does not occur in a single cell, linear fashion. The typical job performance does not begin with the first element of the first task of the first duty and proceed to the last element of

of the last task of the last duty. It is, more likely, a jumble of behavior with the performer flitting from task to task. In some cases, it may even be that some other performer is producing some of the procedure or product and the observed performer is piggy-backing on that production. During different observations of the job people may change roles, leaving the researcher in a muddle of unexplained job performance behaviors.

The relationship between the various job performances would be present, however, and if we view a linear example of the phenomenon it will assist in understanding what is occurring in this mass of jumbled behavior. Illustration 3 shows, in graphic form, the inter-relationship of duties, tasks and elements. The visualization should show, dramatically, what the occupational analyst sees. Element one begins, rises, moves across time to completion, then upon completion element two begins, etc. The task completion is slow, undramatic and upon completion, the observer is still looking, I'm sure, at the more dramatic stop-start of element performance. Just remember, this is a highly idealized unrealistic view of the real world. In the real world, there would not be this kind of order. Keeping cognizant of which element is related to which task, and what the overall order is, is one of the most critical parts of the occupational analyst's job.

O C C U P A T I O N A L   A N A L Y S I S   S Y S T E M S

Some of the systems for collecting, storing, retrieving and analyzing occupational analysis data are a function of how the researcher has chosen to structure the data and some of them are a function of the type of data collection instrument, data storage or data retrieval systems which are chosen to do the job. Systems are differentiated in terms of whether direct interview,

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or correspondence systems are used. Sub-groups of different systems have been formed as a result of the kind and degree of prestructure used, or of the type of sampling schemes used. A partial list of the various representative methods follows:

1. Individual Interview/Observation

2. Group Interview

3. Direct Observation

4. Table Top

5. Correspondence Method Questionnaires

Most all of the systems used are variations of these. All of the systems grew as variations, refinements or modifications of the direct interview/observation method. These systems are all defined in the Interservice Procedures for Instructional System Development (1975). The sample materials and bibliography describe these other type-systems well. Readers curious about these variations are encouraged to consult this source. This exposition will concentrate on the Interview/Observation System.

I N D I V I D U A L   I N T E R V I E W / O B S E R V A T I O N   M E T H O D

This method of occupational analysis consists of talking directly to the person performing the job; recording the descriptions provided by the interviewee and then watching that person perform the job as a way of validating what the job holder said.

Occupational analysis using this method occurs in at least four phases. These are (1) Planning and Training, (2) Collecting Job Data, (3) Consolidating Job Data and (4) Analyzing and Reporting.

PLANNING AND TRAINING

The overall success of the occupational analysis depends to a great degree upon the adequacy of the planning and sampling of job positions to analyze and the selection and training of the personnel to perform the collection and analysis of data. The sample should be representative of all different jobs which occur in the occupational field. The schedule for preparation for, actual collection and follow-up analysis should be tight enough to effect economy of time, but flexible enough to keep the job analysts healthy and to permit them time to make adjustments where planned sampling assumptions were in error, and also time to complete the reports and records of the interviews and observations. The analysts should be carefully selected and vigorously trained in a formal setting. The by products of the training program should be the materials and methods to perform the occupational analysis. Even in successive iterations of the program, a discovery and production technique should be used in the training program to insure that the group has an involvement in the program and is not just being handed materials and plans which "belong" to someone else. An important thing to bear in mind, in this regard, is that the occupational analysis activity produces a set of "action-officers" for all phases of management involved in that occupation. From this point of view, the "process" is as important as the "product" in the form of job data. The process shapes and informs the analysts into very able people, cognizant of the details and people related to that occupation at all levels from the work-bench to the Board of Directors. The process, then, should be capitalized upon and the "graduates" of the system should carry on with the treatment of follow-up actions after the occupational analysis is through. This same fact should be borne in mind

when selecting people. If the follow-on actions are to involve several different management activities, e.g., Personnel, Training, Research and Development, etc., then it is desireable if the occupational analysis teams include representatives of each of the involved organizations. This would provide two benefits, (1) Any follow-on recommendations involving those organizations would look kindly upon these recommendations because one of their own people was a part of making that recommendation and (2) the process part of occupational analysis would have been used as a training program for a knowledgeable action officer in that organization.

COLLECTING JOB DATA

This is the phase that everyone thinks about when the words, occupational analysis are uttered. It is during this phase that the occupational analysts actually go to the job-site and conduct the interview and observation of job holders, supervisors and managers of the occupational field. The details of the jobs are gathered along with supporting information and back-up data. This phase must be conducted where the jobs are, regardless of where they might be. The people at the work-sites must be made to feel a part of the project and the concurrence and support of the managers of the work-site must be gained during this phase.

Job data collection is a "photographic" process. The occupational analysts are not analysts during this phase, they are merely reporters or recorders. They should include only what is seen or heard and not contaminate the data with personal opinion or bias. Personal observations have a place, but should be put in a seperate place where it will not become confused with fact.

CONSOLIDATING JOB DATA

The occupational analysts should return to one central location and con-
solidate the data which they have collected. This step is a clerical one and
the use of Electronic Data Processing equipment to consolidate, accumulate, and
calculate descriptive indices is encouraged. The occupational analysts are not
analysts during this phase either. They are data manipulators and summarizers.
Care should be given not to contaminate these summaries with opinion or bias.

ANALYZING AND REPORTING

During this phase, the occupational analyst is an analyst. The current
information about the job, i.e., job descriptions, manning documents, organi-
zational schema, training documents, equipment authorizations, etc., are com-
pared to the newly consolidated job data and discrepancies are noted. Recom-
mendations for action to capitalize upon strengths and correct weaknesses are
made, and alternatives for quick-fix and long range operation are framed.

The report, along with the supporting data must be staffed through concerned
management elements and get approval at the highest possible level in the
organization within which the analysis is taking place. This high level man-
agement is the only group that can give the kind of approval required. If the
new job data is at variance with what was thought to be occurring within the
occupational field then there are only two real alternatives, (1) This high
level manager wants the occupational field to continue in this new manner and
he will direct that it continue and make the necessary changes in regulatory
controls and supporting documents or (2) he wants the occupational field to
continue to operate as it was envisioned and the job data can be used to pin-
point the discrepancy and the operators and managers can be directed to return

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to the "old way."

Wide dissemination of the approved report will assist in quick implementation of the alternatives approved and the details of the duties, tasks and elements will be useful to all consumers in making such adjustment realistically and universally.

There are, of course, some questions which must be answered, i.e., (1) Who should be interviewed?, (2) How many people should be interviewed?, (3) How many different job-sites should be evaluated? (4) Should the supervisory structure be consulted?, (5) How much should the interviewer know about the job?, etc. The manner in which these questions are answered determines the flavor and character of the Interview/Observation Method used.

P R I N C I P L E S

This writer believes that the following principles apply:

1. The data collectors should be generalists, knowledgeable about the field in which the job is found, but not particularly expert in its performance. Interviewers who know nothing at all about the field being analyzed tend to miss details and not know how to react to the situation. Experts tend to overpower the average job performer who is reticent to admit to this expert that there is something about his field that he doesn't know. The generalist tends to ask questions even in cases where the answer is (to the expert) obvious. This person can afford to be dumb. The non-expert may find that actual job conditions do not match "what should be." The expert interviewer and the able job performer frequently get lost in their own jargon and short hand which renders the data useless to the consumer who almost never is an expert in the job, or its jargon. In many cases it is important to know what is not found on the job.

The expert may overlook this situation, particularly, if lack of some major job aid is prevalent. The non-expert will persist; note this lack and the information will be passed on to the higher levels of management where the users are. Here there will be a correction of the condition, or a recognition of the discrepancy and an adjustment in expectations.

2. The job analysts should be carefully chosen and well trained. Job analysts should be articulate and perceptive. One of the most critical tasks the job analyst must perform is to take information out of one context, i.e., the job and the vocabulary of the job performer and place it into another context, i.e., the structure of the pre-planned data collection device and the lexicon of occupational analysis. This analyst should be of above average intelligence; score high on vocabulary tests (correlate of intelligence and indicative of placing high value on words and being facile with synonyms), and be representative of the same level of the work force as the job performers to be analyzed. The selection paramers can be broad and careful observation can be made for precise selection during the training program and its practical exercises. There can be more complicated systems designed and used but they will only be more complicated. The slow, more subjective process through observation of actual results is much more dependable. This is particularly true in military-industrial situations where the test-enforced assumptions of formal as opposed to informal education background do not apply and are actually misleading.

3. A by-product of the training program should be pre-structured data collection devices. The job of teaching potential job analysts to perform the necessary analysis consists not so much of teaching procedures but of having the group come to agreement about terms. At the beginning of the training program, if the trainees observed a particular job activity, together, you could

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expect them to use a wide variety of verbs to explain what was occurring. because the names of objects, or practices, would be quite well agreed upon, or universal, there would be some agreement about what constituted the object of those verbs. After occupational analysis training all of the analysts should agree upon which verb was the best descriptor for a given job performance. The pre-structured data collection device would be a record of those agreements. Most of the job analysis training, then, would be consumed by coming to that agreement. A learning, and agreeing process. This is necessary so that any follow-on analysis of the significance of any observed difference in the manner in which jobs were performed there would be some precision in the manner in which the data were collected to match and not exceed the precision of the mathematical data treatment of these differences. Even if all analysts are identifying a given behavior with the wrong verb, it is alright, as long as they all use the same wrong verb. In this way there is a consistency to the data. The error of words can be sorted out later. Consistency will insure that adjustment will influence only those words that should be adjusted. The training program, then, is important in terms of the common process through which the analysts will have to proceed.

4. The work-sites should be carefully sampled to insure that all levels of difficulty and complexity are included in the survey. If the occupational analysis is performed at the same location, e.g., at some central manufacturing facility, or if the analysis surveys jobs of like nature which occur in different locations nation or world-wide, the analysis team must give considerable thought and study to insure that the sample of jobs chosen to be the subject of interview and observation are not biassed in any way toward simplicity or

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complexity in terms of what must be done: what is given to do the job or to what degree of excellence the performance must be completed. The managers of the occupational analysis must insure that this is done. There are no esoteric formulas into which numbers may be substituted and some sampling formula magically appears. Some kind of difficulty, job complexity or work flow analysis matrix must be constructed and an observable sampling scheme constructed. If a suspicion of bias is noted, re-analysis may be performed by capturing data from other cells, than those planned, of the matrix. The proportional representation of any one, or group of cells may be increased also. This system is sensitive to the expense of putting an analyst on site. If an analysis is at only one site, or is on a local level, then the sensitivity to cost is not important. If, however, the job analysis sites (cells) are widely dispersed, as in world-wide, the senstivity to cost is extreme. The sensitivity is great enough to insure that the sampling scheme is accurate to begin with. Sampling in this context is sampling across the types of jobs, and not the traditional educational research sampling insuring that a desireable "n" has been achieved to represent the universe "N". When types of jobs are concerned, the number of types of jobs in an occupational field may be five, six, seven or eight. The people population may be 2,000 or 3,000 and some statistical traditionalists will try to prove that 150 or 200 of the 2-3,000 would be a significant sample. We can, of course, conclude in this context that this would be totally erroneous if the sample came from only one, or two of the types of jobs represented. Both the protocol of a significant proportion of the universe population and that of brushing upon each significantly difficult job with a proportionality reflecting that proportion of the whole job must be followed.

5. Analysis of the flow and assignment of work at any given work site should be done before selecting people to interview to insure that interviews are of actual job performers rather than people who hold the job title. In many organizations, the organization charts do not adequately reflect what is going on in that organization. The job analysis must show what actually happens in the work arena, and not what regulatory controls say is to happen, or what supervisors would like you to think is happening. If you use the Interview/Observation system to talk to the person that is doing the job, you must be assured that you are talking to the actual job performer and not to someone who has been trained to do the job and can give you the training program procedures and solution to the problem.

6. Informational briefings should be provided to all levels of management to insure that there is no mystique surrounding the occupational analysis and that people will understand that it is not a "witch hunt" or an efficiency-expert survey, but a fact finding expedition. That will help to create the correct impression that it will eventually help the worker and the improved performance of his job. Particular emphasis should be placed upon the worker himself. Frequently there are excellent briefings provided to upper levels of management but nothing is done to inform the person who is actually the target of the analysis. After all, you are going to that person because he knows more about the job than anyone else. Tell the job performer that.

7. The interview should take place, if possible, at the work site to aid in making it easy for the interviewee to respond by pointing to things, or demonstrating the job. This also permits the interviewer to actually be performing some of the observation while interviewing.

8. The interviewer should be non-directive in his interview technique. The interviewer can give the job performer the opportunity to outline his job. The job performer will not have the same duty, task, element structure that the interviewer has, but as job performers mention bits of their behavior the interviewer can mentally check this off, and later return for more detail. If the job performer mentions something and the interviewer reminds him of this, there is no interviewer direction being provided. If, however, the interviewer says, "You didn't mention (....)" or "Do you do this?", this is being directive and there is danger that the analysis data will be contaminated by the job performer feeling that it would be appropriate for him to admit even to something not a part of the job is the "expert" indicated that it should be done. This is particularly true if the job follows some formal training program. In this case the job performer may recall having been exposed to a work activity, or job aid in the training program and even if it is not a requirement in that particular job, will say that it is because it was in the training program.

9. The interviewer should record data during the interview in such a fashion as to not distract the interviewee, and in such a careful manner as to permit accurate retrieval and interpretation following the actual interview. The data collection form should be constructed in a fashion to assist this.

10. The observation should take place as soon as possible after the interview. Although it is not necessary that the observation be of the same subject as in the interview, sufficient safeguard should be made to insure that the job activity, conditions and quality control standards are the same. Remember, the observation is a validating and re-search step. It is important to verify that what was told in the interview actually appears in the job performance. This is particularly important as it relates to conditions of the

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behavior, i.e., use of job aids, tools, references, etc. In the interview, frequently, the job performer will point to, or produce an important tool or reference, tell how important it is, but then when observed in actual performance, not use it. This could be an important finding.

11. The job analysis report should be finalized as soon as possible after the interview/observation. If the short hand notes and check lists are left to accumulate, every for a few days, the interviewer will have difficulty in recalling what actually happened, or will begin to confuse one subject, or interview with another. This could be critical when all of the data are consolidated for analysis.

12. The job analysis report should provide for definite separation of fact and opinion. Fact is what is actually seen and validated. Opinion may appear from both the interviewer and the job performer. If a job performer has something to say about how the job should be performed, or to describe a short-cut method, the interviewer should encourage that person by making a record of what is said, but should be careful not to contaminate the factual portion of the job data report. If the interviewees comments are disregarded, that person may become reticent to communicate and thereby deny the two-way flow necessary for a successful interview.

METHODOLOGY FOR EXTRACTING LANGUAGE-BASED TERMINAL
SKILL OBJECTIVES

The purpose of this next phase of my talk is to define and outline a methodology for use in producing language-based Terminal Skill Objectives (TSO) from job-oriented terminal skill objectives. In my searches I have found no currently useable, clearly defined, flexible methodology for this job. Individuals knowledgeable in training objective nomenclature and knowledgeable in linguistics can do such a job by insightful application of their

own understandings. Although each would proceed differently, the general procedure would be the same and the end-product would be similar. The job must, however, be done by groups of people representing not just different languages but, in our case, different services, different backgrounds, and different military jobs. The product must be uniform and understood by all involved, i.e., researchers, producers, consumers and users. There is a need, then, for a uniform procedure to guide all of the actions of the group. Judgements and individual initiative will still be required (it is not a recipe) but with the group tracking the same general check points, there should be less chance of end-products being non-compatible.

There are many theoretical bases for this kind of research. A few major ones will be mentioned for the orientation of the listener.

1. Systems Analysis:- Although a large, complex body of knowledge its basic essense is the systematic and orderly examination of the parts of a system or program according to some prescribed and agreed upon set of procedures. The outcome should be systematic and valid analysis.

2. Psycho-linguistics:- The theory underlying the explanation of language processing by human beings which is a combination of psychology and linguistics. The various combinations of sounds, symbols, functions and underlying meanings which permit behavior to be caused are limitless in number. Accounting for the major classes of such action should be done according to the universally accepted categories and rules developed by psycholinguists of the world. A good source book, I believe, both from the point of view of its content and its bibliography is that one by Dominic W. Massaro, Understanding Language, An Informational Processing Analysis of Speech Perception, Reading and Psycholinguistics, Academic Press, New York, published in 1975.

3. Instructional Systems Development:- We have already discussed, in detail the front end of modern instructional systems. The intent of this discussion will be to modify the methods to account for covert behavior, specifically language processing. (The Interservice Procedures for Instructional Systems Development (IPISD) Manual is a good base of operating theory for this area.)

PROCEDURES

Although not actually defined as a step in these procedures, the first thing that should be done is for the entire group of researchers to examine all of the steps in detail and to insure that all understand each and every step individually and hopefully, the concept as a whole. It is most important that all of the researchers follow the same procedures in the same way. This, is probably, more important that the particular set of procedures that are followed. A second condition to the researchers in the form of a caution is to _not_ regard this as an easy job. Successful completion will depend upon some very hard, tedious, long and involved work in sorting, categorizing, extracting, recording and validating the language factors which underly the job performance behaviors for the particular job being studied.

1. Defining Bases:- Some set of Job Performance Requirements must be agreed upon. These requirements, of course, should be based upon good, sound Occupational Analysis. There are many sources for these and perhaps all of the sources should be used, i.e., Career Management Materials, Job Descriptions, Reports, Research papers, etc. A basic set of Job Performance Requirements for the new graduate of courses preparing people for these jobs should be constructed and agreed upon. This list should include the job performance re-

quirements should be annotated as to the source of its validity, e.q., job inventory, job description, etc. These job performance requirement statements should be behaviors, as a minimum, e.g., Must be able to handcopy language transmissions, and, if possible, should be modified by describing the level of difficulty of the language involved, i.e., by some predefined scale of complexity, 1-5, with 1 being simple and 5 being complex, and with the conditions of that behavior present to give a clear picture of what the behavior really means.

2. Job-related Terminal Skill Objectives: The current set of Terminal Skill Objectives that have been provided to the language schools and any statement of TSO currently being developed should be gathered together. The Course Training Standards and materials from the program of instruction should also be drawn together. A set of objectives representing the technical instruction training requirements should be agreed upon. Each should be annotated as to the source of validity as with the Job Performance Requirements. The Terminal Skill Objectives should then be matched with each of the Job Performance Requirements. This can be done by cross-referencing or annotating, or can be done physically by beginning with construction of research matrices which have the JPR and TSO together and then with space set aside for equating the language requirement within each factor which will be selected, annotated and researched as described below. It is most important in this step that the TSO's include all possible jobs, all possible locations and be sufficiently annotated so that any particular job can be shown in the overall matrix by highlighting those behaviors that are applicable to that job. This technique should give the global impact of the re-

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quirements while at the same time providing a vehicle to show unique re-
quirements within that context of that global picture.

3. Language Factors:- The language factors which should be used as the
general vehicles, categores, notions, etc., to express the pure language
training requirement should be selected by careful research of the liter-
ature in the field. Besides the source already mentioned, Van Eck's
work, published by the Council of Culteral Cooperation of the Council of
Europe with the University of Utrecht, entitled, <u>System Development in
Adult Language Learning</u>, is a very useful source for insight into this
methodology and for sources of possible factors. As a minimum Vocabulary,
Grammar, Syntax, Phonology, etc., should be included. Sub-divisions of each
of these factors should be researched because they will be used later in the
study, e.g., for Vocabulary - Definitional, Conceptual, Function, etc.

4. Language Factor Rating Continua:- A scale to rate the complexity
of involvement for each language factor should be constructed. The same
number of rating levels should be developed for each, and it would be best if
there was an odd number of these so that the middle (average) can be clearly
observed on the scale. The definitions of the degree of description should be
clearly agreed upon by all of the researchers so that different numeric ratings
will be clearly the product of different reasoning. The rating system should
be discrete enough to clarify differences, but simple enough to convey meaning
to a wide range of consumers.

5. Global Language Requirements:- Each Terminal Skill Objective
should be rated against each language factor by considering, across-the-
board language requirement. In most cases some overall rating of vocabulary,
grammar, etc., requirement can be made. If, for example, large differences
occur between Indo-European and Asian language researchers, then enter two

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ratings with the reason clearly shown. Remember, this is for across-the-board requirement.

6. Specific Language Requirement:- When the global requirement for each language factor, for each TSO has been completed, the research matrices should be reproduced in sufficient copies to provide for each language sub-group. The researchers should then split by language and repeat the process , for their language, and by specific needs in that language. For example, if agreement between the Korean and Global requirement for vocabulary is found, then the matrix value for Korean would read 3^3. If the Korean was higher than the Global then it might ready 3^4, if lower, 3^2. Remember, each of these ratings must be done in strict adherance to the definitions of rating alternative developed earlier. This is particularly important in the language sub-groups because the data should be compatible across languages and used the same base is the only way that this can be assured.

7. Content:- Follwoing the language sub-group ratings, these groups should return and select content, content samples, or content clusters for each of the rated levels. (Roget's Thesaurus can give some good examples of these clusters.)

8. TSO Construction:- The output of the ratings and content selection should now be stated as TSO's for language training. They should be in the Stimulus, Task, Condition and Standard format and be keyed to the job performance requirements and technical school TSO that they support. Overlap and duplication of universal language skills should be cut out and or translated to higher level proficiency where job frequency is a factor.

Frequent review in groups and redefinition of categories and alternatives where necessary should provide the in-house quality control needed to keep these materials alive in a changing world. No outside revision of the the materials or procedures should be made unless the overall decision maker has been a part of the work process.

When completed, routine staffing of output should be performed, but only when accompanied by a detailed picture of the procedures and definitions used to arrive at these language TSO's.

I N   S U M M A R Y

Occupational analysis information is critical to any follow-on system to improve action relating to the job. These data are the cornerstone of Instructional Systems Development. The rules and structures are simple, the work is hard. The success of the Instructional Systems Development is guaranteed if the valid base of occupational data are present. The prognosis is bleak if they are not.

The methodology for extracting language-based terminal skill objectives from job oriented skill objectives follows much the same rules as for overall Occupational Analysis:

1. Should be based on sound examination of the job.

2. Must be a long, tedious, fully controlled process with agreed upon procedures and rating systems.

ILLUSTRATION 1

```
                          ┌──────────────┐
                          │     JOB      │
                          └──────┬───────┘
          ┌──────────────────────┼──────────────────────┐
    ┌──────────┐           ┌──────────┐           ┌──────────┐
    │  DUTY 1  │           │  DUTY 2  │           │  DUTY 3  │
    └────┬─────┘           └────┬─────┘           └────┬─────┘
      ┌──┴──┐              ┌────┴───┐              ┌───┴──┐
 ┌────────┐ ┌────────┐  ┌────────┐ ┌────────┐  ┌────────┐
 │TASK 1A │ │TASK 1B │  │TASK 2A │ │TASK 2B │  │TASK 3A │
 └────────┘ └────────┘  └────────┘ └────────┘  └────────┘
```
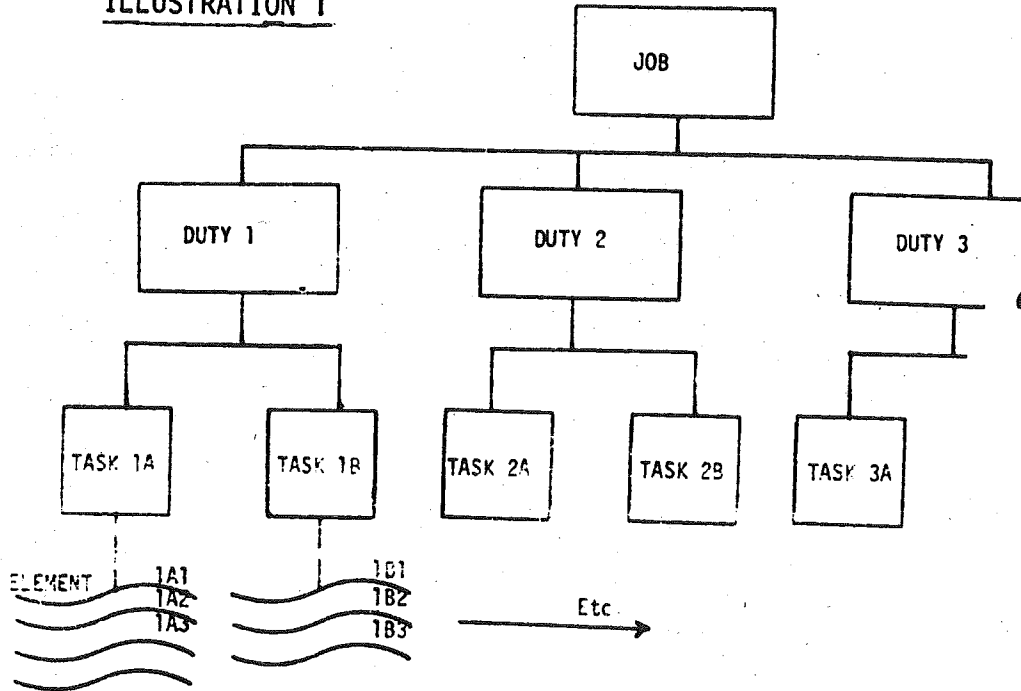
EXPRESSED AS - - -

* *BEHAVIORS*
* *CONDITIONS*
* *CRITERIA*

```
ELEMENT    1A1        1B1
           1A2        1B2          Etc. ────────▶
           1A3        1B3
```

CLASSICAL JOB DATA GROUPING ARRANGEMENT

In the classical arrangement of job data we find the JOB, the DUTIES, the TASKS and the ELEMENTS. THE JOB: The JOB is the summation of all of the activities (behaviors) which go on to fulfill the work requirements of the total job. THE DUTY: The DUTY is one of the major subdivisions of the JOB. Usually a set of common skills and usually one of the identifiers for what a person has to be able to do in the job.

THE TASK: The task is one of the major subdivisions of the duty. It has the same relationship to the duty as the duty has to the job.
THE ELEMENT: The element is the smallest piece of job behavior that should be dealt with when documenting the behaviors in a job. These are the steps which go to make up the task.

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ILLUSTRATION 3

Job Performance

Duty Performance

Task Performance

Element Performance
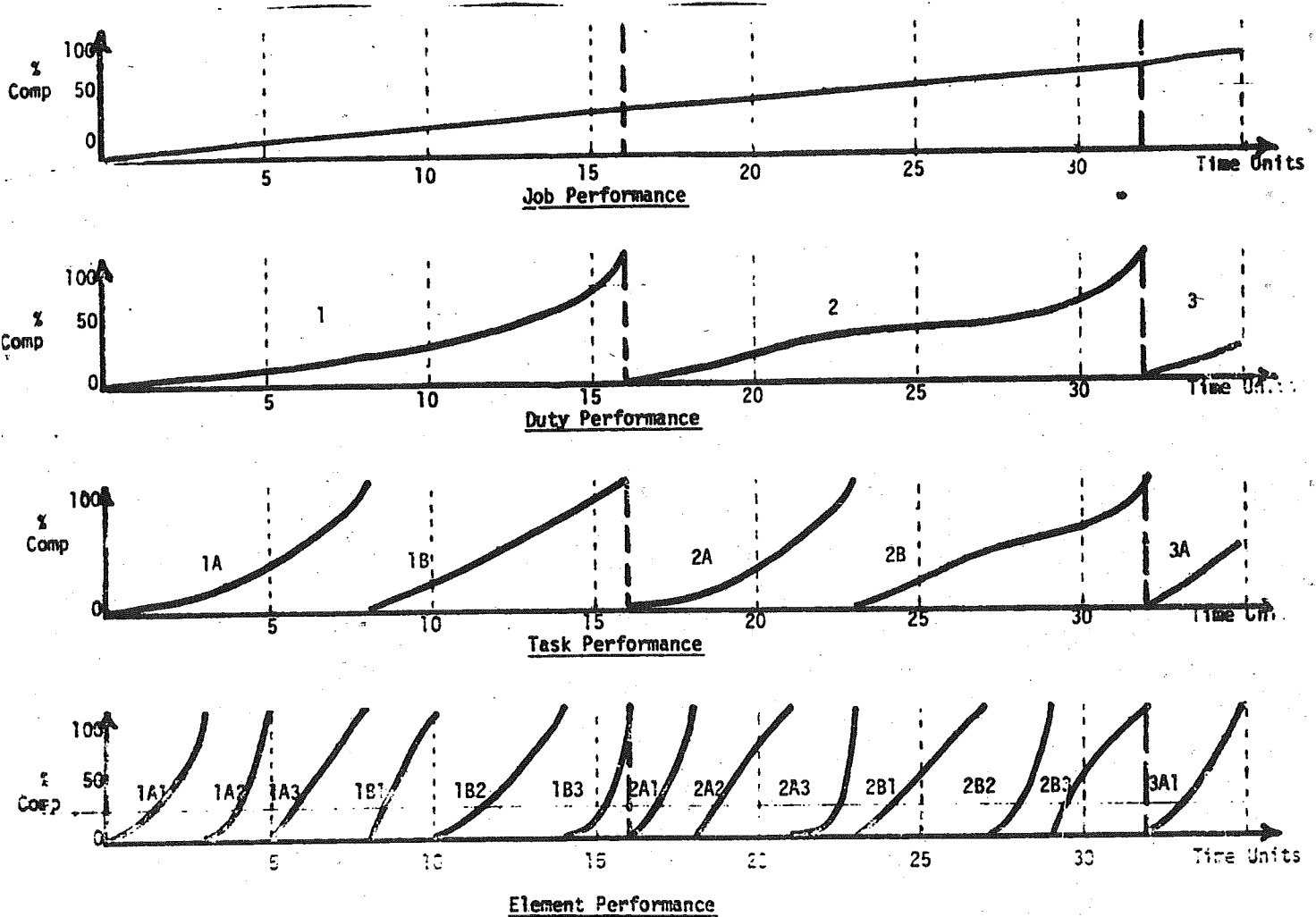
TIME-BASED RELATIONSHIP OF WORK ACTIVITY PERFORMANCE

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The set of time-based graphs, shown above, are an attempt to pin-down the relationships of Element, Task, Duty and Job. Vertically, each graph shows the percent of that particular performance that is complete. The horizontal axis is shown in time units. No particular unit was chosen. The reader can imagine minutes, hours, days, weeks or whatever. The same time span is intended for each graph. The numbering system on these graphs matches that for the "wiring diagram" of classical job data arrangement shown earlier. The relationships are also shown to represent a simple job which is performed one step at a time from beginning to completion in a given order (serial performance.)

Element Performance:- The bottom graph depicts the completion of elements over time. As each element performance is undertaken, the line rises fast or slow to 100% completion, dependent upon how much time it takes to perform that bit of work activity. (These data are ficticious, but a real line could be plotted by accounting for the percent of performance complete at the end of given units of time.) When one element has reached the top of the graph and is complete some end-product or part-process would be complete and the performer would start at zero again with the next element-behavior. If one performer (working alone) were to repeat element performances in a serial manner the graphic results would be as shown above. If a job analyst were watching this

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THE DETERMINATION, DESCRIPTION, CONTENT AND USEFULNESS OF LANGUAGE NORMS

Roger Mareschal
Language Teaching Branch, Linguistic Services Directorate
Federal Government of Canada

Before we even define the concept of language norm, we must first find out position in the overall scheme shown in the diagram below:

TIME

situation ·   needs   objectives   means   evaluation

This diagram may be applied to a very large number of fields ranging from industrial production to marketing or even to education. We shall apply it to education or, more generally, to activities with pedagogical implications. It should be noted that we are unfortunately working in a temporal framework, which is the major restriction on all our activities.

If we bear in mind that an analysis of a given situation will enable us to define the resultant needs, we can select those needs which, because they are deemed to have priority, will constitute our objectives.

As soon as the objectives have been defined, thought can be given to the means of achieving them and to the evaluation of performance against the objectives themselves.

Some of the arrows in the diagram are shown with dotted lines. This indicates that the relationship requires further definition. Very often the time factor makes it necessary for us to select only a certain number of objectives and not all the possible, logical, desirable or scientifically justifiable objectives . . . We usually select those which will enable us to function in each particular case, to succeed (in the field of language) in communicating at the lowest satisfactory level (which may in some cases be a very high level). Similarly, evaluation should simply constitute feedback on the means used, especially when we are not in an academic situation but rather in one where it is desirable to ensure that an objective is achieved. This objective is a reflection of the needs that have been identified and must be satisfied.

Although the preceding may seem unrelated to our theme, we are now able to introduce the concept of criterion to be contrasted with that of norm. What the preceding discussion shows is that we are aiming at specific effectiveness with respect to consciously selected objectives. Those who

are involved in training activities might be said to perform these duties not in order to boast of the fact, but rather in order to prepare people to perform (more effectively) previously identified tasks, which constitute what we might call criteria. Therefore, the evaluation should proceed from (solid arrow) the objectives, and, where appropriate, serve as a basis for possible changes in the means used (solid arrow), and not simply relate to a norm that is necessarily much further divorced from specific needs. In this instance the word norm means "average or standard result for the members of a given group," the meaning that is usually given to it in the field of evaluation.[1]

Definition of norms

In the context we are discussing, however, when we speak of <u>language norms</u> we are referring to the objectives to be achieved and this can only be the <u>minimum specific performance</u> required as the criterion of immediate satisfaction at a predetermined level of performance.[2]

Role of norms

When a company or any other service or profit-making institution (private enterprise, government, university) establishes language requirements for operational purposes, it might be said that these are language <u>norms</u> or even language selection norms. They may be applied either in the initial selection of staff, in cases where the organization does not provide language training, or in the evaluation which concludes the training process.

Administrators must therefore determine the needs corresponding to the specific situation encountered by their staff and describe them in narrative terms. Thus they will have a description of the objectives to be achieved that can be made available to any candidate for a position, any person sent for training, any teacher (from within or outside the organization, according to need) and any person who will perform the evaluation.[3] Because these objectives or this <u>norm</u> may vary from case to case, they become part of a continuum on a scale consisting of several "levels."

These norms are usually arranged in grids of varying degrees of complexity describing the necessary skills. It is not, however, necessary to speak of levels where the requirements for each skill in question have been precisely determined. The major advantage of the grids containing several levels is that they include different requirements in the same diagram. The person establishing the criterion knows which skills he is looking for in the candidates, it is thoes skills that he requires and normally no compromise is possible. Either the person meets or does not meet the norm. Either he can perform or he cannot perform tasks in language X. Once again we can see the significance of the concept of <u>criterion</u>.

It may be stated, in view of what was said earlier, that two features of

the norms may appear very differently, depending on the approach that is selected:

- the <u>manner of determining</u> the language norm;

- the <u>manner of describing</u> the language norm.

In fact, however, both are closely connected. It is difficult to imagine, for example, someone determining a norm on the basis of specific real observed needs and finally describing the norm in simple traditional terms of levels for each skill. Nonetheless, we shall make a distinction between these two features (by considering them separately) <u>for the purposes of this presentation.</u>

The manner of determining the norm

There are two major approaches to determining the language norm for a given position: first, the norm by which, after a language need has been identified, a level to be achieved for the position is assigned by guesswork (on the basis of type descriptions: elementary, intermediate, advanced, highly advanced); or second, the norm by which a specific and detailed analysis is made of the real needs of the position in question in the particular language. The difference is shown clearly in the two examples given below.

Example 1 (see Table 1)

After it is determined by either method that a position requires oral skills in language X, for example, one of the levels given below is selected (S-1, S-2, S-3 . . .):

Example 2

The need for skills in language X is determined on the basis of an analysis of the position and the duties to be performed. This is the case in the system suggested by Richterich in his contribution to the publication of the Council of Europe.[5]

Language needs

Before language needs can be identified, two components must be analysed:

- the language situation

- language operations.

The "language situation" component includes the following categories:

- agents (persons involved in the communication process)

- moment (at which the communication act takes place)

- place (at which the communication act takes place) .

The "language operations" component includes the following categories:

- functions (of the communication act) (describing, explaining, persuading)

- objects (of the communication act) (facts, ideas . . .)

- means (used in the communication act) (speaking, writing . . .)

The information obtained from the analysis of these two components will be necessary in defining language needs.

These language needs will then be translated into language acts, which in operational situations will represent utterances . . . corresponding to the defined needs.

Because in example 1 the fundamental features of language as a means of social and professional communication are considered only peripherally, and because there is often a tendency to set indentical objectives for whole categories of individuals, the description obtained regards language almost as an object (grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation . . .). Greater emphasis is placed on form than on the function of language.

In example 2 it is possible (if positions are not arranged in groups) to obtain as many profiles of individual needs as there are positions. First, consideration is given to the duties to be performed so that language is seen only as a means of, or a tool for, performing these duties (chairing meetings, ackowledging receipt of letters, expressing doubts, writing tenders, complaints and so on . . .).

Conclusion

The contents of the two approaches described above are in line with the distinction made earlier by Campbell and Wales between linguistic competence and communicative competence.[6] The former consists of the ability to produce all the necessary sentences while the second pre-supposes an additional ability to produce them adequately (at the correct moment, in the correct place and register and so on).

Manner of describing the language norm

When a firm or a government sets language requirements in recruiting

staff, or a university sets admission requirements for its students, especially in a second or foreign language, these requirements are usually the result of communication needs in the language in question. The grids currently in use display, as the two examples above may have shown, two trends in the description of the required skills; one of these retains the traditional division into four basic skills (sometimes also called the four knowledge factors) reading, writing, listening and speaking, while the other considers above all the end pursued and, in addition to the linguistic activity as such, includes a description of para-linguistic activities. These usually include situation elements such as the duties to be performed, the areas dealt with and the socio-psychological roles (boss/employee, friend/enemy . . .) of those involved in communicating.

Between these two tendencies there exists a third, in which communication is accorded greater importance, although it does not form the essence of the description.

If we take actual examples to illustrate these ways of describing norms, we find, as in the ways of determining the norms, a basic difference in the results obtained.

Example 3

We shall reproduce here only a part of a much greater whole containing six levels, as defined by Brooks:[7]

> Level III
>
> Demonstrate continued accurate control of the sound system.
>
> Demonstrate accurate control, in hearing and speaking, of all the basic syntactic patterns of speech.
>
> Read aloud a text comparable in content and style to one he has studied.
>
> Write from dictation a text he has previously examined for the details of its written form.
>
> Demonstrate adequate comprehension and control of all but low-frequency patterns of syntax and unusual vocabulary encountered in printed texts. (Grammatical analysis and explanations of structure, when accomplished in the language, are proper to this level and to following levels.)

We quote below T.R. Hoffman's statement on the levels that he established:

An objective and easily-used scale of oral competence is proposed
for numerous practical applications. It interleaves communicative
abilities in comprehension and expression to motiva

ORAL COMPETENCE

LEVEL DEFINITION

0   no useful ability in the language at all

I   can use polite expressions, conversation openers, and
       simple on-word expressions

II   can understand slow, stilted (prosodically decomposed), or
       carefully spoken language, and make appropriate responses
       (in another language or non-verbally). Subject can be made to
       understand, if speaker will take the trouble.

III   can undertand ordinary conversation and make appropriate
       responses, non-verbally or in some language.

IV   can express his ideas so that they can be understood.
       Annoying mistakes, hesitation or rephrasings, but the message
       can get through. Subject can be understood if his addressee
       will take the trouble.

V   can understand major dialectal and social varieties, and
       can understand speech in spite of a noisy environment (e.g.,
       typewriters, conversation).

VI   can express his thoughts without noticeable hindrance in
       the language. Minor mistakes or hesitations, perhaps, but
       communication is not seriously hindered.

VII   can pass for a native speaker to an unskilled listener. No
       striking peculiarities in pronunciation, syntax or lexis.
       His usage is likely to be used as a model by others.

He continues:

These levels are in order of increasing difficulty or achievement.
A given subject at any level necessarily surpasses all lower levels.
The particular definition of the levels can be argued, no doubt,
until doomsday. I have chosen these particular ones because they
are fairly obvious, at least to the non-expert. It is essential
to understand that these are rough levels, however.[9]

Example 5

Here we shall give only the outlines of an approach developed by the
English Language Teaching Development Unit of the Oxford University
Press in cooperation with the Aktiebolaget Svenska Kullagerfabriken
(SKF), a Swedish company.[10]

It is first necessary to determine the type of tasks required in
the position:

> Listening and Speaking:
> meeting and guiding visitors
> participating in internal meetings
> public speaking
> . . .
>
> reading:
> correspondence
> scientific journals
> contracts
> . . .
>
> Writing:
> correspondence
> specialist articles
> patents
> . . .

It is then necessary to determine on a scale consisting of eight levels
specific to each type of duty the precise level at which the duty will
be performed.

> Listening and Speaking:
> participating in courses
> level x: may begin to participate in courses in which concessions
> will be made with respect to language (simplifications,
> clarification, examples and so on) but cannot easily
> handle abstractions.
>
> level z: may give directives, even in the case of complex abstract
> concepts. May produce feedback (encouragement, criticism
> and so on). May not be able to . . .

Only at the third stage will the actual linguistic characteristics of
these duties and levels be determined:

> From level W he may use verbs such as: suggest, claim, advise,
> assure . . . or may express his agreement by sentences of the
> type:
>
> "I completely agree with you . . ."

Before analysing these examples, we should point out that only rarely do we find "pure" groups of norms, methods or many other elements in applied linguistics. Often these "pure" factors exist only at the stage of theorizing before the fact (or, in our case, after the fact), since reality usually obliges us to accept or to introduce modifications or compromises. If the comments that follow give the impression that the contrary is the case, this is because we tried to bring out the significant characteristics of the examples used.

In the light of examples above, we can establish two groups of characteristics for these ways of describing the language norm:

    1. content characteristics;

    2. usefulness characteristics

1. Content

Example 3

This example may easily be regarded as belonging to the approach based on linguistic competence. What it describes belongs to the field of language knowledge and the ability to reuse what has been learned. In this approach, it might be said that language is an end in itself and mention is sometimes made of a "language as object" approach.

Example 4

This example contains not only the same type of elements as example 3 (knowledge of language as object), but also certain aspects of the use which may be made of this knowledge. The concept of <u>language as a linguistic phenomenon</u> is replaced to some extent by the concept of <u>language as a social phenomenon</u>. The approach takes into account external factors which may influence use, performance and so on. Thus, at level V, the author introduces the concept of acoustic environment (ambient noise) as a factor affecting communication. Thus aspects of language skills and aspects of communicative competence are both present here.

Example 5

This example differs greatly from the other two in that the concept of language as a linguistic phenomenon appears only after language has been defined as a social phenomenon or even simply as a means of achieving a goal that existed before language was used as a means of achieving it. In this case language is seen simply as a means rather than as an object. It is merely the tool enabling the user to perform predetermined tasks by reaching a given level of performance. It appears that the predetermined level of performance may either be closely related to the task itself or

may be an arbitrary choice. (A person writing specifications must be very familiar with the terminology; the levels of skill required for letters may vary in accordance with criteria which are not necessarily functional.) What is important in example 5 is clearly the aspect of communicative competence, which affects or presupposes language skills and even general non-language skills.

2. Usefulness

Having noted that it is possib-e to find actual linguistic factors and other factors based on communication situations in the content, we must examine the extent to which these factors may satisfy the expectations of others.

Without claiming to be exhaustive or comprehensive (each situation must be examined on its own merits), we shall attempt to establish the most common expectations of the agents concerned, even though they may not always be expressed.

AGENTS	EXPECTATIONS
Administration	- ability to locate the actions in the field of language in relation to the objectives of the whole organization;
	- ability to establish general policies designed to ensure effectiveness and efficiency (recruitment, training);
	- ability to control the system.
Direct bosses	- a guarantee that the employee will be able to perform his duties in the appropriate
	- adequate training for their employees (no useless, that is, superfluous or irrelevant, training).
Staffing officers	- knowledge of what to require during recruitment;
	- ability to recruit according to certain standards (fairness).
Employees	- knowledge of the duties to be performed;
	- knowledge of the criteria by which they are judged (recruited);

	– knowledge of the purpose of their training (precise knowledge of the operational objectives).
Teachers	– knowledge of the means and purpose of the training (content and the use to be made of it).
Designer of teaching and testing materials	– knowledge of the specific objectives to be achieved.
ALL	– ability to use a common language when speaking of language requirements;
	– availability of a tool for taking language into account in staff training, recruitment, promotion and transfers.

These criteria of usefulness now enable us to examine the uses to which the norms selected in examples 3, 4 and 5 may be put. However, point-by-point analysis would serve no purpose here. In general terms it may be concluded that purely linguistic data will not satisfy the administration except where it wishes to give training to its staff and place an order for this purpose (contract with specifications). Even in this case, however, it would be difficult for the administration to formulate any requirement without including lists of vocabulary, structures and so on in its norm. The usefulness of such a standard to the teachers will ultimately be only relative. Example 4 too, which, according to its author, constitutes a definition "fairly obvious to the non-expert" would not enable bosses and employees to know where matters stand; all that they would know is that at one extreme of the proposed scale they do not know the language, and at the other they know it perfectly. Of the examples considered, only a norm in the form suggested in example 5 (or any similar approach) would enable an administrator to know why and to what end he is providing training or wishes to have training provided, and thus enable him to control the whole system. The other agents involved may also control the system at their own level since they were informed at the outset of the duties to be performed and the manner in which they were to be performed (language levels and contents).

Admittedly, such as approach may seem unwieldy. However, experience tends to show that this approach makes it possible to avoid a lot of useless training activities (why teach employees to write letters if the only thing required is an ability to write internal memorandums?), that it helps motivate the employees sent for training (who know why they are receiving training) and in short that it enlightens everyone concerning the whole issue.

If you accept what was said at the beginning of this section, namely,

that language requirements are set in order to satisfy the real needs
for a language, to be able to communicate in the language, then you
must also contemplate describing not only the contents required but also
the use that will be made of them.

We should point out that some grids attempt to _incorporate_ the _complexity_
of the task in its linguistic description. Our experience leads us to
avoid such an approach, even if the complexity feature may be useful.
An interesting example in which complexity was considered may be found in
the _Canadian Classification of Occupations Code._[11] These cover individual
functions in relation to Data, People and Things. In the case of language
needs, only the first two relations are of interest to us.

RELATIONS BETWEEN THE INDIVIDUAL AND

DATA	PEOPLE
0 Synthesizing	0 Mentoring
1 Coordinating	1 Negotiating
2 Analysing	2 Instructing
3 Compiling	3 Supervising
4 Computing	4 Diverting
5 Copying	5 Persuading
6 Comparing	6 Speaking-Signaling
7	7 Serving
8 No Significant	8 No Significant Relationship

Our reservation with respect to the use of a classification of this
kind should of course be understood only where it is incorporated into
or amalgamated with the language task. As a supplementary criterion,
however, we feel that these data may be highly useful.

Our reservations result above all from the fact that there may be a
tendency to confuse the complexity of the duties of a position (respon-
sibilities, contacts, high-level decisions) with the complexity of the
language required. Lower level positions may often require a much more
complex use of language. There is not necessarily a link between the
position in the organizational structure and the level of complexity.

Conclusion

Although many variants of the definition of language norms exist or may
be developed, their usefulness will vary according to the objectives
to be achieved.[12] An adequate choice can be made only if the objectives
are borne in mind. The examples we put forward should give us a better
understanding of the possible approaches and their implications both
for administrators and for the teachers and individuals involved (either
in recruiting or training).

[1] R L Ebel, <u>Essentials of Educational Measurement</u>, (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1972), p 558.

[2] G Plastre, "Essai en planning linguistique à l'intention des entreprises," <u>The Canadian Modern Language Review/La Revue canadienne des langues vivantes</u>, Vol 33, No 4, (May 1977), p 654.

[3] Many norms or descriptions of levels have been developed recently; a particularly instructive and elaborate example may be found in: English Language Teaching Development Unit of Oxford University Press in collaboration with SKF (Aktiebolaget Svenska Kullagerfabriken), Stages of Attainment Scale and Test Battery, General Information, ELTDU / OUP, Great Britain, 1976.

[4] Claude Wilds, "Language Proficiency Testing," in ISVS Report No 10, <u>Language Teachers' Training Workshop, June 15 - 29, 1969, Furndal, Sweden</u>, ed A Kulakow and E Stevick, International Secretariat for Volunteer Service, n d, p 80.

[5] R Richterich, in <u>Système d'apprentissage des langues vivantes par les adultes: Un système européen d'unités capitalisables</u>, (Strasbourg: Conseil de l'Europe, 1973), pp 35 ff.

[6] R Campbell and R Wales, "The Study of Language Acquisition," in <u>New Horizons in Linguistics</u>, ed Lyons (Harmondsworth: Penguin, 1970).

[7] N Brooks et al, <u>Language Instruction: Perspective and Prospectus</u>, Bulletin of the California State Department of Education, 32, No 4 (Sacramento, 1963), pp 24-26.

[8] T R Hofman, "Levels of Competence in Oral Communication, "<u>Working Papers on Bilingualism/Travaux de Recherche sur le Bilinguisme</u>, No 4, (Toronto: Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, 1974), p 1.

[9] Ibid, p 7.

[10] English Language Teaching Development Unit of Oxford University Press, English Language Stages of Attainment Scale, (Oxford University Press, n p, 1975).

[11] Canadian Classification of Occupations Code, Volume I, (Ottawa: Department of Manpower and Immigration, 1971), p 1187.

[12] I do not intend to extol utilitarianism at any price but rather to promote training that meets requirements (which cannot fail to develop simply through use, if the needs are genuine) rather than general unsatisfactory training designed to ensure acceptable use in practice.

MOTIVATING AND DEMOTIVATING LANGUAGE STUDENTS

Francis A. Cartier, Ph.D.
Director of Evaluation,
Defense Language Institute
Foreign Language Center

If you do a little research into the subject of
motivation in recent American psychological literature,
you will find very little that is new. Psychologists
(in this country at least) seem to have abandoned the
subject about ten years or so ago. One of the most recent
articles I found was published last year by Professor
Robert Bolles of the University of Washington, titled,
"Whatever Happened to Motivation?"[1] It is a curious
article which takes the point of view that modern educa-
tional psychologists no longer have either an interest in
motivation or a need for the concept itself.

I disagree with Professor Bolles, and if the modern
educational psychologists have nothing to say about
motivation, then people like you and me will simply have
to seek help from older psychologists and from people
other than psychologists.

Professor Bolles does make one excellent comment.
Students, he says, are not all alike.

The theories of Maslow, Herzberg, and others may apply in general, but there are no universal truths about motivation that apply equally to all persons. Keeping that thought always in mind, let us examine the theories of MacGregor, Maslow, and Herzberg (none of whom were educational psychologists, by the way) and then some others, but always limiting our interest to what we might be able to apply in foreign-language instructional systems. Douglas MacGregor was a Professor of Management at Massachusetts Institute of Technology in 1960 when he wrote a book titled, The Human Side of Enterprise.[2] In it, he divides managers into two personality types: those who believe in what he called Theory X, and those who believe in Theory Y.

Theory X managers, who hold a "traditional" view of direction and control of employees, believe that most people dislike work and responsibility for decision making, and will avoid them if possible. Theory X managers believe that most employees must be forced to work, and prefer strong direction and management. Theory X managers also believe that only a few people have any natural ambition and that most of them prefer security and routine to challenge. The management techniques they use reflect these beliefs about their employees.

Professor MacGregor described the Theory Y manager, on the other hand, as one who believes that people don't necessarily dislike work. Employees who believe in the goals of the organization will work toward those goals independently, without rigid control or directions, and will derive satisfaction from the work itself, if the work is productive. Theory Y managers also believe that employees who avoid responsibility, who lack ambition, and who seek only security, have learned these attitudes from what has happened to them in their present or past jobs, and that they can unlearn them the same way. The Theory Y manager tries to consider the employee's individual needs, as well as those of the organization, because he believes that if he can find a way of meeting both sets of needs, his employees will work voluntarily, using their imagination and skills to the maximum, and cooperating to achieve the goals of the organization. The Theory Y manager's management techniques derive from the way he views his employees, and are therefore quite different from the techniques of the Theory X manager.

Notice that MacGregor classifies managers first by the way they think about the people they manage; and only secondarily by their methods of management.

What do you think most instructors believe about the people whose work they manage, that is, their students? And what do most instructors think of themselves? Do they consider themselves Theory X or Theory Y managers?

If the student gets the impression that the instructional process is a Theory X system, totally controlled by the instructor and others, then the student has little reason to believe that any special effort on his or her part makes any difference. Students must therefore be convinced that they are part of the instructional system and that what they do, and the amount of effort they expend in it, makes a difference. Anything the school does to decrease this perception reduces student motivation.

A name that is even more prominent than MacGregor in the field of motivation is that of Abraham Maslow. Dr. Maslow's theory goes back to 1954 when his book, Motivation and Personality, was published.[3] Maslow wasn't writing for managers as MacGregor was, but was trying to describe a universal theory of motivation for all mankind.

Maslow taught that each human being has a certain order of priority needs, which he called a "hierarchy of needs." First are the physiological needs such as air, food, and water. Second are safety and security needs, such as safety from the elements, from wild animals, from criminal

assault, and so on. Third are needs for belongingness, affection, and a feeling of <u>acceptance</u> into the system. At the fourth level are needs for self-respect, status, importance, and <u>achievement</u>. And the fifth and highest need is the need for what Maslow called "<u>self-actualization</u>," which is the idea that what a man can be, he must be.

Students, of course, are people. So are instructors.

Most people ordinarily satisfy their needs at levels 1 and 2, but they satisfy fewer and fewer of the needs farther along the scale. He makes the point that, if a man's lower needs are not adequately satisfied, he will show little motivation to seek satisfaction of a higher need. So, a man who is starving thinks less of safety than of food. And a man who has enough food and sufficient safety, but lacks acceptance, seeks acceptance more actively than he seeks self-respect or achievement.

The most important thing that language trainers can learn from Abraham Maslow is this: Not until a man has reasonably satisfied the physiological, safety, and acceptance needs can you expect him to strive for the fourth level, which is achievement, and achievement is what training is all about.

By the way, a woman's hierarchy of needs seems to be slightly different, and there are differences among American minorities. One writer has also suggested that Maslow's list

is incomplete. John Platt, a former University of Chicago Professor of Physics, has suggested that there is another fundamental human need--the need for variety.[4] Platt reminds us that if you put a man in a box without any outside sounds or sights, he actually goes insane. The same might be said of purely repetitious stimuli, like the drip of a leaky faucet, or of continuous and purely random stimuli. Platt points out that the mind needs constant stimulation. These stimuli must include some meaningful and familiar patterns, but also some variety as well. New popular songs, for example, rise in popularity because they are new, but die from endless repetition and are rejected. Mozart's music is a constant joy because of the beautiful mixture of the predictable and the unpredictable.

Platt's observations are certainly relevant to language instruction, which ought to provide a sufficient amount of familiar experiences along with new ones every day. But some courses do not now provide sufficient variety. One of our students recently commented, "This is one of the most monotonous Army courses I have taken in my whole career." Surely he was constantly getting new vocabulary and new grammar, but in that particular course he was getting it in exactly the same way every day.

If the instructional process does not provide the students with enough variety--even unpredictable surprizes

from time to time--their insatiable need for variety will cause them to turn away from their studies to other activities or even to daydreams.

Variety, then, is an important aspect of motivation not only in the course of instruction, but in individual exercises. Perhaps one of the reasons that language laboratory exercises have not been universally productive is their lack of variety. How many tapes have you heard that sound something like this?

> Listen to these sentences.
> This is my pen.
> This is your pen.
> That is my pen.
> That is your pen.
> This is his pen.

I am exaggerating, of course, but not much. In the lab, as the student listens to that, he often has two tape reels revolving before his eyes.

Do you know how to hypnotize someone? You provide a repetitive visual stimulus such as a pendulum, or something revolving, you tell the person to concentrate on it, and then you say something like:

> Listen to the sound of my voice.
> You are going to sleep.
> Your eyelids are closing.
> Your eyelids are heavy.
> You are very relaxed.
> This is my pen.

Eventually, the person's mind simply drops out of control. If we must have scripts like these, let us have speakers who will record them with vitality and variety.

> This is MY pen!
> THIS is your pen!
> That IS his pen!

Will it sound silly? Perhaps. Maybe it will even get a laugh. I can't decide whether or not laughter in the lab is good or bad, but I'm convinced it is better than the demotivating effects of utter boredom. Similar observations could be made about textbooks, and daily class schedules. Variety may not be motivating by itself, but lack of variety is surely mind-numbing and demotivating.

Let us turn now from Platt, the physicist, to an industrial psychologist. In 1966, Frederick Herzberg published a study of what motivates professional people, like engineers and accountants.[5] According to Herzberg, the five most important factors contributing to job satisfaction were, in order of importance:

1. Personal feeling of achievement.

2. Recognition of achievement.

3. The work itself.

4. Responsibility.

5. Advancement.

Except perhaps for number 3, which includes the variety of the work to be done, I interpret all of these to be expressions of Maslow's fourth level of needs: achievement. Apparently, all these men had satisfied their physiological, safety, and acceptance needs well enough that those levels no longer mattered to their motivation.

The most interesting result of Herzberg's research was the things these men listed as factors in job _dissatisfaction_. You might suppose the list would include lack of advancement and lack of achievement, but it didn't. The five most important factors of job dissatisfaction were, in order of importance:

1. Company policy and administration.
2. Supervision.
3. Salary.
4. Interpersonal relations.
5. Working conditions.

Except for salary, which is a security factor, these seem to me to be concerned with Maslow's third level: feeling accepted as part of the system. Notice that Herzberg's two lists do not overlap. Motivation and demotivation seem to be related to quite different things. Employees don't quit because of lack of job satisfaction; they quit because of job _dissatisfaction_. If we can apply Herzberg's ideas to

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our schools, they tell us that students don't necessarily quit trying because of lack of motivation, but because of demotivation. We at DLIFLC have not performed a study specifically of demotivation, but we have evidence that it is a problem. In a 1975 study, 89% of our students reported that they were motivated at the beginning of training. At the end of training, six months to a year later, 33% said their motivation increased during training, but 67% reported that it decreased. When we get the time, we'd like to investigate that in greater depth to see what percentage merely decreased from very highly motivated to well motivated, and what percentage were actually demotivated. In any case, it appears that we should devote at least equal effort in the future to studying motivation and demotivation.

The best book I know of on demotivation is by Dr. Robert F. Mager, an engineer and psychologist who has written several books on training. My own favorite is his book, Developing Attitude Toward Learning.[6] That book, says Mager in the preface, "is about a universal objective of instruction—the intent to send the students away from instruction with at least as favorable an attitude toward the subjects taught as they had when they arrived." In other words, his book is concerned primarily with minimizing demotivation.

Mager's first and most famous book was, Preparing Instructional Objectives.[7] Applying his principles to language instruction is certainly not easy, but neither is it impossible. Considerable help can be gained from another of his books, Goal Analysis.[8] These books, and others by Mager, have been adopted as the fundamental source of principles of instructional system development in the U.S. Army.

Obviously, we can't cover everything in Mager's books now, but we should take up a few pivotal points. I have already touched on one of them, and now I'll state it fully, using my own paraphrase. No moment of instruction should be attempted until both teacher and student know exactly what the student will be able to do as a result of that moment of instruction.

For example, if you are an instructor of English, you certainly devote some time to teaching the students to hear the difference between words like seen and sin. You cannot assume that the students understand your reason for doing that. You must tell them. The best statement of that reason will be a description of what the student will have to do to convince you that he or she has achieved that particular objective.

Will you be satisfied and move on to something else if each student guesses right just once that seen and sin are

different? No? Then, will you be satisfied only after each student guesses correctly on two hundred such pairs? Unrealistic? Well, then, what _is_ the objective of that bit of instruction?

How about this objective? "Given ten pairs like seen/sin, green/grin, bin/bean, mixed with five identical pairs like teen/teen, gin/gin, the student will identify the sames and differents and make no more than two mistakes."

Or perhaps, at a later point in the instruction, the student's objective would be: "Given a typed list of twenty words like green, gin, skin, clean, and so on, the student will read the list aloud with no more than two vowel errors."

I don't know what you would accept; I don't know what your objectives are. My point is that an instructor or course designer must decide what to accept as evidence of achievement of the objectives, and that if the instructor or course designer hasn't decided that, then neither they nor the students have a clear enough idea of their objectives. We cannot expect students will always be in doubt about whether or not they _have_ achieved them.

Most of us are now convinced that the systems approach to language instruction is an improvement over traditional means, so I need not belabor that point. We already believe

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that the best learning objectives are stated as descriptions of what the student will do, not of what the instructor will do. For example, an objective that begins, "The instructor will explain so and so," can be fully accomplished without any learning taking place whatsoever. We have rejected such objectives on logical grounds alone, but there is another reason for rejecting them; such statements of objectives leave the students out of the system. They make the students believe that someone else is in total control of the instructional system and that their efforts make little difference.

Now remember what Maslow said. Students, like any other people, work hardest toward satisfying those unfilled needs that are highest in priority in their minds. Language instruction is always competing for the students' attention with the sounds from outside, and with all the worries, fears, and daydreams of success that are associated with the other unsatisfied needs boiling inside them. One of these is acceptance.

What you ask the students to do at any given moment must seem more important to them at that moment than any of those competing stimuli. The instructional process will not take priority in their minds if they haven't been accepted far enough into the system even to know exactly what is expected of them, and therefore cannot eventually see that they are succeeding at it.

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Of course, when you come right down to it, the only really important objective of instruction is for the students to pass the tests. That is a shocking idea to most educators, but people who are experienced in training military personnel know very well what I mean.

The students know that their test and quiz grades are the major factor determining whether they pass or fail. No matter what you may _tell_ them, they see what actually _happens_. So, regardless of what pious phrases we might use to obscure the fact, the students know that their learning objectives are stated most clearly and most fully in the evaluation devices we use on them. Now, there's nothing wrong in that if our evaluation devices realistically represent the true learning objectives of the course, of the class period, or of the moment of instruction.

Unfortunately, instructors and course designers seldom examine their oral and written quizzes with the same degree of concentration that the students invest in them. If we look at the content of these quizzes as learning objectives, we may find some surprizes lurking there.

After we have examined the content of our quizzes and tests, we must think about our _grading system_. We used to consider an achievement test to be pretty good if the class grades made a normal, bell-shaped curve. In that scoring

system, only a very few students score above 90%, and the
rest score down to as low as, perhaps, 50% for a passing D.
In that philosophy of grading, whenever all students got a
perfect score on the final exam, the test was considered to
be too easy and was revised to make it more difficult.

Then people began to consider what such a grading
system tells the students. It tells them that they can
pass even if they fail half the objectives. It also tells
them that half the objectives were not really important--
but it doesn't tell them which half.

But the most serious defect of such a grading system
is that it is frustrating. Although few students understand
why, many of them feel that a grading system that depends on
what other students achieve limits the amount of control they
have over their own success. They see that their own grades
are not dependent only on their own efforts, but on the
efforts and aptitudes of other, perhaps brighter, students.
In the old system of comparative, or norm-referenced, grading,
only the students near the top are motivated by grades, and
these are the students who have the least need for it. This
is, of course, quite contrary to traditional beliefs about
the motivating effects of comparative grading systems. If
you asked the traditional teachers what they thought of a
course in which every student easily achieved perfection or

near perfection on each objective, they would say it lacked challenge. It was as though challenge was a necessary objective. Now we know better. Learning a language is already quite challenging enough. We do not need to build extra challenge into the instructional system, especially for the average and below-average students whose whole educational experience has led them to have a very low expectancy of achieving high grades.

Every time the student fails--whether it is a course, or a particular moment of a course--we demotivate him or her just a little more.

Why, then, do students fail? Often enough, it's because the course plan vastly overestimates the number of learning objectives and the degree to which they can be accomplished by all the students in a given period of time. Only the most fanatical student will be motivated to work for perfect achievement when the system makes the probability of success so low.

Behavioral psychologists, like B. F. Skinner, have a lot more to say about the probabilities that a learner will perform adequately. Oversimplifying somewhat, they say that learners will try various ways of doing a thing and, if they are rewarded when they do it right, or do it better, the probabilities are increased that they will do it that way again. The

reward can be a piece of candy, or a smile, or perhaps even just increased attention paid by the instructor. Thus, low probability behaviors become higher probability behaviors, and that is what Skinner called "reinforcement."

Notice particularly that this theory requires that the student do something often enough that he has some chance of doing it right once in awhile, and getting rewarded for it. So the classes in which this is most likely to happen are the classes in which the students are performing most often. If the instructor is doing most of the performing, the students have little opportunity to learn.

Milton Cowan once said that the single most reliable measure of the quality of language teaching he had found is a stopwatch. When he visited a class, he started the stopwatch every time the students were talking and stopped it every time the instructor was talking. The proportion of class time devoted to student performance was the best measure of teacher competence he was ever able to devise. During student activity, the most important function of the instructor was to smile at students who were doing well.

Of course, not all students feel rewarded by smiles or increased attention, but the student who is constantly performing at least feels part of the system.

Let us turn, finally, to some other experts on motivation and demotivation. They are not psychologists, but they have

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something to tell us, too. They are DLI graduates, writing in their end-of-course comments. One that is well worth mentioning is the graduate who wrote, "This instructor's love of the language is so infectious that we found ourselves excited to learn." None of the psychologists and others I have read mentioned this critically important factor--the instructor's enthusiasm for the subject.

Instructors are people, subject to all the principles of motivation and demotivation I have reviewed here. Their attitudes can be infectious. Another student, commenting on the negative aspect of this infection, wrote that bickering among faculty members "can only lead to disenchantment, lack of appreciation for the culture, and to disinterest in learning the language.

Yet another student suggests that there is an important source of motivation that has little to do with the school itself. The student must, he says, "be convinced that he is going to a position in which the ability to use the language will be a significant asset and will be worth his devoting a year of his career and of his life to the study of this language." He reminds us that language learning is not the problem--but a solution. The problem is communication. And finally it is the students themselves who remind us that motivation is at least partly a student responsibility. One

graduate commented that his major sources of motivation were, as he put it, "my own pride, self-respect and devotion to duty."

Perhaps Professor Bolles is right that we no longer need a concept of motivation as such. Perhaps all the ideal school would do is make a concious daily effort to instill, and preserve with great care, the students' pride, self-respect, and devotion to duty.

REFERENCES AND NOTES

1. Robert C. Bolles, "Whatever Happened to Motivation?" _Educational Psychologist_, 13(1978) 1-14. If you look this one up, be sure to read the article by M. C. Wittrock, "The Cognitive Movement in Instruction," in the same issue-- especially pp. 17-21, which are devoted to attention and motivation, somewhat contradicting Bolles.

2. Douglas MacGregor, _The Human Side of Enterprise_, New York: McGraw-Hill, 1960.

3. Abraham Maslow, _Motivation and Personality_, 2nd ed., New York: Harper & Row, 1970. I have given a vast over-simplification of Maslow's theory. The real thing is much more interesting reading but takes some effort.

4. John Radar Platt, "The Fifth Need of Man." I regret that I do not have the full reference to this interesting article.

5. Frederick Herzberg, et al, _The Motivation to Work_, New York: Wiley, 1959, is still worth reading. However, I got this information from an excellent summary by Donald L. Kirkpatrick, "The Training Manager and Motivation: A Review of the Basic Literature," _Educational Technology_ (Sept 1969) pp. 532-535.

6. Robert F. Mager, _Developing Attitude Toward Learning_, Palo Alto: Fearon Publishers, 1968.

7. Robert F. Mager, _Preparing Instructional Objectives_, Palo Alto: Fearon Publishers, 1962.

8. Robert F. Mager, _Goal Analysis_, Palo Alto: Fearon Publishers, 1972. This little book is especially helpful for people who teach or design courses in "soft subjects" such as foreign languages. If you are in either education or training, read everything you can find by Mager. He writes with knowledge, logic, lucidity, and even (rare in these disciplines!) style.

9. The opinions expressed in this article are those of the author, and do not necessarily represent the position of the Defense Language Institute, Foreign Language Center or of the U. S. Army.

MOTIVATION OF STUDENTS

Josef Rohrer
Head of Language Training Division
Bundessprachenamt
Federal Republic of Germany

The handout (attachment 1) is rather a gag. It is from the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English. As I was leafing through the first eleven pages, I found some 286 examples illustrating the usage of key words listed in those 11 pages. The outcome of this is this list. I will only say that I think that anyone who has read those 286 sentences will have a very gloomy outlook on life becuase most of them are examples like "To kick a cat is a cruel act," or "He felt acute remorse for his wrongdoing," "A boy with an active brain will be more successful than a dull boy," "The cruel man abandoned his wife and child," "The clever boy absorbed all the knowledge his teachers could give him," "Don't abuse the authority they have placed in you," etc. I wonder what sort of effect this has on the student or whether one could also reflect on the psychology of the lexicographer.

Fortunately our memory doesn't work according to the GIGO (Garbage In, Garbage Out) principle---but rather refuses to store information that is not meaningful and most of the information that is contained in those examples and most of the information that is contained in many of the examples that we find in grammar books and other materials is not very meaningful to the learner. It is not very meaningful to him as a person, as a human being. It's usually cognitively or affectively redundant. I think it has been shown, that what we have is a semantic memory and not a syntactic one. There is a need to bring variety into the classroom or any other learning situation, by appealing to the three modes of learning that the human being uses most: cognitive learning, paired-associate learning, and affective learning. The last mode of learning has long been excluded or, at least neglected, and it is this last mode on which I wish to lay the greatest emphasis. The theoretical background consists of the psychological modalities (Fig. 1) made up of three blocks: the cognitive block divided into conceptual and associative learning; the paired associate block and the affective block which I've here subdivided into only two complexes: self-centered learning and social learning. There are, of course, many more aspects to this block. The other psychological modality is at Fig. 2 (Modes of linguistic recall). When we are using or learning a foreign language, what we are doing, if we look at it from the point of view of recall - the point of view of memory - is that we reproduce linguistic elements; we reconstruct them; we construct. The other modalities are the basic linguistic ones (Fig. 3). Language

learning on the linguistic level consists of knowing the sounds, the words, and the grammar of the language. Of course, one can become a little more sophisticated and speak of sounds in terms of the phonetic level, and phonological level; words in terms of the lexical level and semantic level; and grammar in terms of the paradignatic relationships and the syntagmatic relationships. I want to build up then to the model at Fig. 4 where we have on the left hand side the cognitive, the paired associate and the affective trees. On the right we have the linguistic level -- sounds, words and grammars. What I propose to do is to show examples at the intersections on the word level of what one can do in the classroom in order to bring variety into the classroom. I want to draw a dividing line between the cognitive and the affective act of learning - not a very strict one but I want to bring out the affective side and I want to forget all about the paired associate learning. We've been hearing about that for the last 16 years or so and I think we know enough about that. I should also give you two sort of symbolic examples of exercises that would represent the type of exercise which I call a cognitive exercise (Fig. 5). As you see, there's one correct solution: "When should the flight have left?" and all the others are wrong. The second exercise is entirely different. There is no correct answer. You can choose your own answer or find a quite different answer. So there is no linguistically or cognitively correct answer. There is a cognitive side to the exercise in the sense that you've got to understand it. But as far as getting into talking about the exercise, about the question that is posed here, the affective side comes into play, very heavily so. And if you do this, and I've done this several times, you get a very lively discussion on what one should do in a situation like that. All of a sudden students forget they are speaking a foreign language. This is an example that is only a representative of many, many others that can be constructed.

Before I elaborate the affective domain, let me review some learning techniques on the cognitive level that have not got the attention yet that I think they deserve. I will restrict the examples to the word level in the conceptual and associative branches. Let me quickly give you a few examples on the word level for the conceptual and associative branches. All this has a lot to do with retention. One of the things one can do is classification exercises. Fig. 6 shows one from an article by Bower in 1970, where he found out that if you have a taxonomy like this, the retention rate is about 3 or 4 times higher than if you learn the same vocabulary in the form of lists - the type of learning that is called list learning. This is one possibility. There are other possibilities. Fig. 7 shows an example in French. In this type of exercise you can do three things: either you find the general word, or you find the classifier or given the general word and the classifier, you find the examples. These are the three types of exercises possible with classifying exercises. These are purely cognitive exercises and they serve to retain the vocabulary material much better than any other type of exercises. As soon as

there is any kind of taxonomy, as soon as there is any kind of order in the material that is being learnt, the retention rate is much higher than in any other type of learning. The second kind - which is actually also classification but I would like to call it a structuring exercise - is found in Fig. 8. Now you might ask yourselves why one would go to such extremes to give the student such sophisticated examples in order to get him to produce a vocabulary item. Here is an important point that I would like to make and that is that we must distinguish between what we normally call passive and active vocabulary. One can decide, for example, that this is the type of vocabulary that he should be able to understand and this is what he should learn. So you might say this is the one that I want him to learn and the other I just want him to understand. This is the type of structuring exercise that one can have a large number of. The reason is that it is a cognitive exercise that is meant to increase retention. I might say en passent that you can do the same thing on the discourse level in that you can talk about these things. But I'm now concerned with the word level only. What you can also have - and this also at bottom is classification -- is operationalizing exercises (Fig. 9). Where you have a tree like this, the student's got to, according to his own knowledge of the world, operationalize and the result is Fig. 10.

Let me quickly illustrate some of the exercises that one can do when you remember the associative branch. One very effective type of exercise when it comes to vocabulary learning, purely cognitively- is the old analogy trick, Fig. 11. Foot is to sole as hand is to palm; wood is to glue as metal is to solder; time is to eternity as space is to infinity; light is to beam as water is to jet. The advantage of this is that you're not given the word to find out the meaning; you know already when you've looked at this what is meant. The signifier is already in your mind; you know what is wanted of you. And now you can ask the teacher "What does this mean?" This is the most important question that in my opinion any student can ask. "What does that mean; what does something mean that I already know. I know what it means." I have collected something like 2500 of these analogies; for some reason I got interested in this game and what one can do with it. One of the things you can do is to develop this into an exercise where one also has to find the connecting word. For example, walnut:brain::bean:kidney. If you look at the intersections of bean and kidney (Fig. 12), you can say that the verb is "to resemble." The walnut resembles the brain as the bean resembles the kidney. I'm using here one of the three associative laws: The law of resemblance. The second law is that of contiguity and the third law is that of opposition. Of course you can also look at the node of walnut and bean. Here you can say the walnut and the bean belong to the class of vegetables or fruits or whatever. You can also bring this onto the discourse level. Again I must say this is purely cognitive and the only reason I do it is that it increases retention phenomenally. You can't forget this once you've done it.

At the associative/constructive node there is a very interesting thing
one can do with associated hierarchies. What I've done on several
occasions and what is being done at Hurth with great success as far as
I know, is to give the student a hierarchy and then within three or
four minutes the students provide the vocabulary they want to talk
about. The Key word that was given in the example in Fig. 13 was money.
One of the students is asked to give very quickly - and this is associa-
tive learning - three words that occur to him without thinking, in
connection with money. At Fig. 13 is an authentic example: the three
words I got were: bank, salary and shop. When you've got that, you
ask for two words that occur to the student when he hears bank. The
words I got were safe and holdup. You than build this up into a basis
for discussion. This need not be the end of the whole thing; afterwards
you can ask the supplier of the word why he said that. He may say "I
don't know; it just occurred to me." Or he may hypothesize about why
he said it. What you then get on the connecting lines are verbs or
verbal expressions that the student can take home and remember. The
uncanny thing is that I've found in several cases - in several experiments
that I conducted - that even after two or three weeks, people were able
to reconstruct from memory the whole tree - the whole hierarchy. This
is an interesting example also because the students who participate in
this exercise also have a feeling that they are contributing to the lesson.
They're not learning only what the teacher wants them to learn; they get
a feeling they are contributing to the lesson; they are participating
in the lesson. It's the learners themselves that build up this hierarchy.

This leads me directly to the main theme: Creating learning situations
in which the learner is able to express himself. (Remember the two
exercises in Fig. 5, the first where, purely cognitively, one of the
three possibilities in this matching exercise was right and the second
where actually no answer was right or wrong.) In recent years we have seen
developments like Humanistic teaching, confluent teaching and the like.
(Maslow seems to have had a great influence on this new trend on getting
the student - and I would include here the language learner - emotionally
involved in the business of (language) learning.) Let me give you some
examples of what one can do in the classroom in the affective domain.
I'll make only a rough oversimplified division here using only the key
words self-centered and social. First a medley of possibilities that give
the student the opportunity to express himself. And that I think is
one of the great problems that we have in the classroom - the students
are not so easy to motivate if they have a feeling that they are not
expressing themselves - that they're being told to express something
that somebody has formulated before. Thoughts that have been thought by
other people, not by themselves. What can one do in order to get the
student emotionally involved in the business of learning a foreign language?
Some of these exercises will be quite familiar to you if you have read
certain of the books that are in the bibliography. For example, a

ranking exercise where the student gets a little list as in Fig. 14 and
the only thing he has to do is rank and say which comes first as far as
he is concerned. Is it love, is it friendship, is it money or is it work?
Everyone, including the teacher, participates in this exercise and then
you have a discussion about why you ranked these four words the way you
ranked them. Another exercise - again this is a self-centered one - is
shown in Fig. 15. The teacher also takes part. This again serves as a
basis for discussion. We have reached a point here where difficulties
may arise. You cannot do this from one day to the other. You cannot
say "As of Monday, I'm going to become effective in the classroom and give
the students exercises like this." One has to prepare them carefully;
but it has been done; it has been tried out. It was first tried out in
California; it is being tried out in Germany and as far as I know with
great success. The only condition is honesty - honesty on the part of the
student and honesty on the part of the teacher. One thing must never
happen: The the student is marked for saying this or that. Fig. 16
shows a sentence completion exercise. This is not a cognitive exercise;
the student can say what he likes; he can tell you the truth or he can
lie. It doesn't matter; he becomes involved. He can write down what
he thinks; he completes the sentence and it may be something that the
teacher doesn't like at all. He may have to defend himself but all this
is going on in English, French or whatever language. I can assure you
that this very soon becomes a very serious business. As already mentioned,
the prerequisite for success here is absolute honesty on the part of
both the teacher and the learner. If you feel you have a group where
you can't do this, there's a point where you have to stop because if you
go beyond that you'll have trouble. An experienced teacher, I think,
always knows how far he can go. The same thing can be done in French as
shown in Fig. 17 and 18.

One can go one step further. For example, Fig. 19 shows the outline
given to the students at the beginning of the week. The students and
teacher make short notes about what they felt about the lesson. But
they don't do anything about it. At the end of the week or on the following
Monday, they all take out their notes and the whole class, (including
the teacher) talks about their notes. There is enough distance between
the actual happening and the time when it's discussed so the emotional
involvement is not so great. The condition, of course, is that the
student must have been given the vocabulary with which one does this
sort of thing. This is not very difficult because the students will
usually ask "What does this mean? How can I say this?" Retention in
cases like that is pretty high.

Figs. 20 and 21 are examples of exercises in semantic differential.
Here we may not be talking about ourselves but the student may be asked
to think of a person close to him, perhaps the teacher, and make a
semantic differential. The teacher, his mother or maybe even a character
in a novel is either very aloof, outgoing, emotional, calm, lenient,

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strict, relaxed, tense, etc. In order to be able to do that, the vocabulary needs to be explained first. The students are usually very interested in this type of vocabulary, the moment they have to do something that gets them emotionally involved. You might ask the students to make a semantic differential of you the teacher. (When you collect them you may be in for the shock of your life and choose to take them home and not look at them.) But one thing is certain: the students are not very likely to forget this. The retention rate is extremely high.

One can tell jokes in class, but one can go one step beyond the purely cognitive telling. The student is asked whether he finds the joke: extremely funny, moderately funny, or not at all funny (Fig. 22) and why. It is surprising how many different opinions and reasons for those opinions you get.

These are all examples of how you can get a student emotionally involved in a learning situation where he is picking up a foreign language. I can assure you that the discussion can become extremely heated.

Fig. 23 shows statements which the student is asked to respond to by putting a cross somewhere on the scale between strongly agree and strongly disagree. Afterwards, there is a discussion: Why do you agree? Why do you disagree? You have a basis for discussion that will generate very intense involvement.

Fig. 24 shows an exercise that's a little more controversial. What you can do with an exercise like this is to form two or three little groups to discuss and come to some sort of decision. You can imagine that you can get into very heated discussions about what should be done. In a very short time the students become engaged, they quarrel but in English or French or whatever language. Fig. 25 is another example of such an exercise.

Just one more thing I would like to mention that I find extremely funny and that is Hayakawa's Affective Conjugation which also lends itself to a very productive exercise (Fig. 26). I am fastidious, you are huffy, he is an old woman. I am beautiful, you are pretty, she isn't bad looking - if you like that type. There is a very serious background to this: This is actually the way we talk. This is the way we talk about one another in other people's absence. I'm a trifle overweight, he is fat.

Let me conclude by pointing out two very valuable thoughts in the Gertrude Moskowitz book Caring and Sharing in the Foreign Language Class (Fig. 27). First, education should deal with both dimensions of humans, both the cognitive and intellectual and the affective or emotional, and second, learning more about oneself is a motivating factor in learning. The examples I have presented, the affective exercises, are examples of turning the classroom into a place where you are still learning what you

are supposed to be learning (English, French, Russian) but at the same time you are doing something that cannot be done elsewhere in the school. You are learning about yourself and learning about yourself through others. This seems to be a challenge that the foreign language classroom poses and I think it should be taken advantage of.

What we need is a balance of the three types of learning: the cognitive, the paired associate and the affective. I am not advocating using affective exercises all the time but the language learner in the classroom does not only consist of mind; he also has a heart.

HANDOUT: Presentation by J. Rohrer at BILC-Conference 1979

Topic:

Trivial Language Material vs Semantic Memory

Source: Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English,
Third Edition 1973, pp 1-11.

A. Pragmatic utterances

- A Mr. White has called.
- If the tea is too strong, add some water.
- It's time to go aboard.
- The letter was wrongly addressed.
- My house is just across the street.
- Tell me all about it.
- The road is full of abrupt turns.
- Will you be able to come?

B. Moralizing utterances

- To kick a cat is a cruel act.
- He felt acute remorse for his wrongdoing.
- A boy with an active brain will be more successful than a dull boy.
- The cruel man abandoned his wife and child.
- The clever boy absorbed all the knowledge his teachers could give him.
- Don't abuse the authority they have placed in you.
- He will be punished according to the seriousness of his crime.

C. Gloomy narrative utterances

- He will never achieve anything.
- His doctor told him to abstain from beer and wine.
- The hut abounded with vermin.
- He abondoned himself to despair.
- There have been many railway accidents this year.
- I met her in town but she dind't even acknowledge me when I raised
  my hat.

D. Cheeeful narrative utterances

- The girl's life was saved because the doctors acted so promptly.
- The play received great critical acclaim .
- The proposal met with general acceptance.
- The streets were ablaze with light.
- Mr. Green is (out and) about again.

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E. Inane utterances

- You might cut yourself by <u>accident</u>; you would not cut yourself on purpose.
- Classroom <u>activities</u> are things done by pupils in the classroom; outdoor activities are things done outside.
- A horse is an <u>animal</u>.
- Dry sand <u>absorbs</u> water.

F. Reproachful utterances

- She married <u>above</u> her station.
- It was <u>absurd</u> of you to suggest such a thing.
- It's <u>about</u> time you stopped being so rude.

G. Informative utterances

- Vinegar contains acetic <u>acid</u>.
- <u>Abortion</u> was formerly a crime in Britain.

H. National clichés

- We <u>accounted</u> for a fine brace of partridges.

I. Gossipy utterances

- He's taking Jane <u>about</u> a lot these days.

K. Threatening utterances

- I'll hold you <u>accountable</u> .

L. Commands

- <u>About</u> turn!

M. Proverbs

- Birds of <u>a</u> feather flock together.

N. Abuse

- You <u>abandoned</u> wretch!

O. Mean utterances

- She's not really crying; she's only <u>acting</u> in order to gain your sympathy.

language learning

cognitive

conceptual

associative

paired-associate

affective

self-centered

social

PSYCHOLOGICAL MODALITIES

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REPRODUCING $\longrightarrow$ RECONSTRUCTING $\uparrow$ REPRODUCING
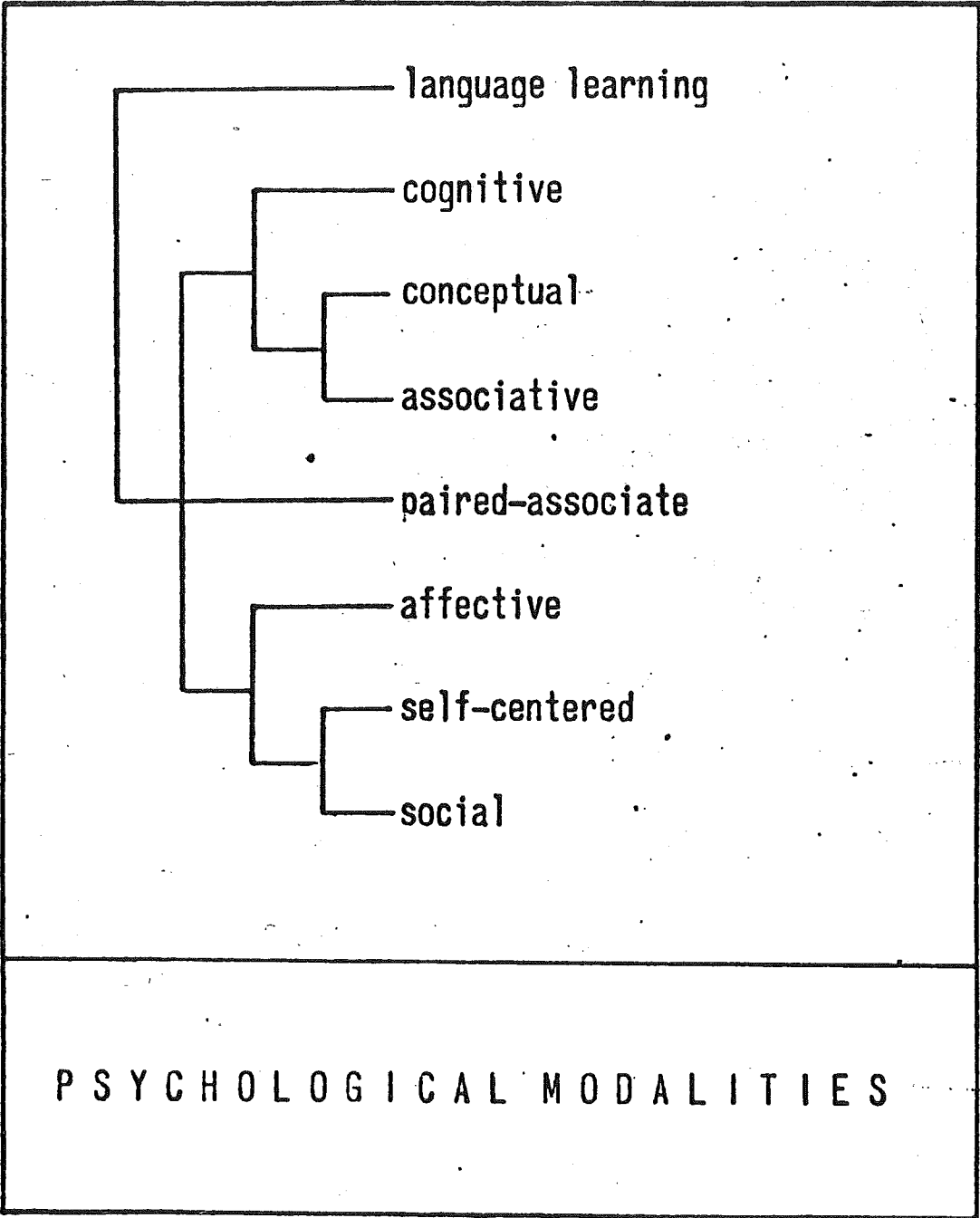
CONSTRUCTING $\uparrow$ RECONSTRUCTING $\uparrow$ REPRODUCING

MODES OF LINGUISTIC RECALL

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```
                    ┌──────────────── language learning
                    │
                    │            ┌──── "sounds"
                    │          ┌─┤
                    │        ┌─┤ │  ┌─ phonetic level
                    │        │ └──┤
                    │        │    └─ phonological level
                    │        │
                    ├────────┤    ┌─ "words"
                    │        │  ┌─┤
                    │        └──┤ ├─ lexical level
                             │ └─┤
                             │   └─ semantic level
                             │
                             │   ┌─ "grammar"
                             └───┤
                                 ├─ paradigmatic relationships
                                 └─┤
                                   └─ syntagmatic relationships
```

LINGUISTIC   MODALITIES

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Fig 3

K

WE TOOK OFF LATE

a) How long did the journey last?

b) What time did the train leave?

c) When should the flight have left?

K + A

MARY, WHO IS A POOR SWIMMER, SEES A SMALL
CHILD FALL INTO THE CANAL. WOULD SHE DO BEST TO:

a) hurry away?

b) look for a life belt?

c) throw a faint?

d) phone the police?

MINERALS

METALS

rare	common	alloys
platinum	copper	bronze
silver	lead	steel
gold	iron	brass

STONES

precious	masonry
sapphire	limestone
emerald	granite
diamond	marble

Bower 1970

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```
                ┌─────────────────────────────────┐
                │  ACCIDENTS DE LA CIRCULATION     │
                │          LES CAUSES              │
                └─────────────────────────────────┘
        ┌────────────────┬──────────────────┐
 ┌────────────┐   ┌────────────────┐   ┌────────────┐
 │ LA ROUTE   │   │  LE VEHICULE   │   │ L'USAGER   │
 └────────────┘   └────────────────┘   └────────────┘
```

VERGLAS   PNEUS   FATIGUE
DOS D'ANE   AMORTISSEURS   ALCOOL
VIRAGES   FREINS   VITESSE
ETC.   ETC.   ETC.

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Fig 7

Objectif : Découvrir des mots par structuration

```
┌──────────────── ?
│
│   ┌─ boîtier
│   ├─ cadran
└───├─ aiguilles
    ├─ remontoir
    └─ mécanisme
```

```
┌──────────────── chaussure
│
│   ┌─ empeigne
│   ├─ oeillets
└───├─ tige
    ├─ lacets
    ├─ semelle
    └─ ?
```

```
┌──────────────── voiture
│
│   ┌─ carosserie
│   ├─ chassis
└───├─ roues
    └─ ?
```

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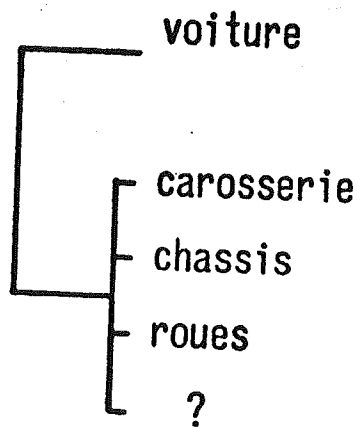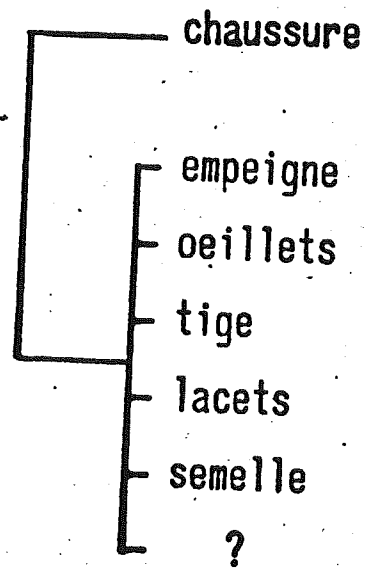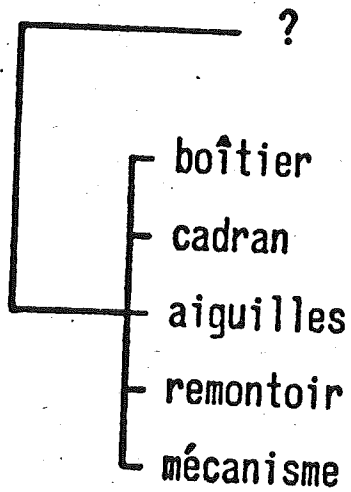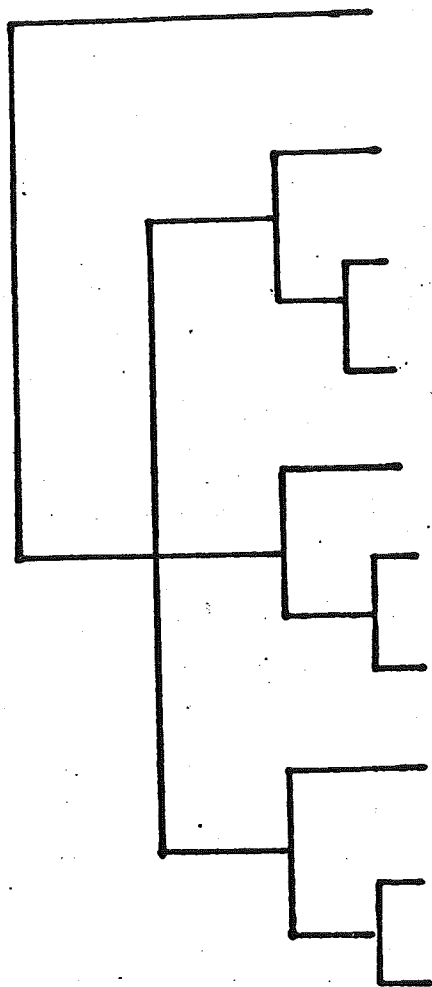
Trinken - Speichern - Kauen -
Essen - Ernährung - Schlucken -
Verdauen - Schlucken - Ausscheiden

Fig 9

<u>O p e r a t i o n a l i s i e r e n</u>


```
┌────────────────── Ernährung
│
│          ┌──────── Essen
│          ├─ Kauen
│      ┌───┤
│      │   └─ Schlucken
│      │   ┌── Trinken
├──────┤   │
│      │   └── Schlucken
│      │   ┌── Verdauen
│      └───┤
│          ├─ Speichern
│          └── Ausscheiden
```

Fig 10
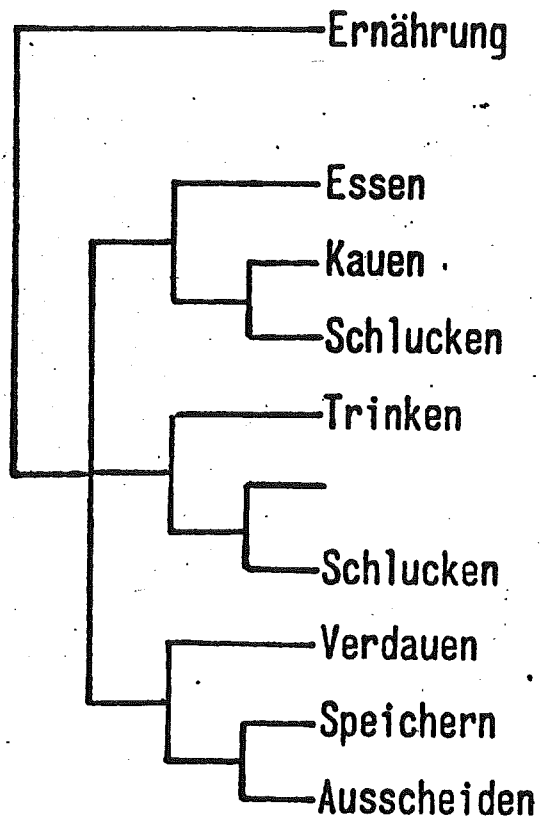
FOOT / SOLE ∴ HAND

WOOD / GLUE ∴ METAL

TIME / ETERNITY ∴ SPACE

LIGHT / BEAM ∴ WATER

INDUSTRY / PRODUCTION ∴ COMMERCE

MATCH / FLAME ∴ FLINT

YOUTH / IGNORANCE ∴ AGE

PESTLE / MORTAR ∴ HAMMER

ATOM / NUCLEUS ∴ EGG

Fig 11

MONEY

Bank — Safe — Documents, Jewellery (Necklace, Insurance policy)
Bank — Hold-up — Pistol, Police (Arrest, Hospital)

Salary — Work — Office, Typewriter (Desk, Girl)
Salary — Pleasure — Cinema, Travel (Screen, Aeroplane)

Shop — Clothes — Winter, Party (Skiing, Dewce)
Shop — Food — Calories, Restaurant (Fat, Waiter)
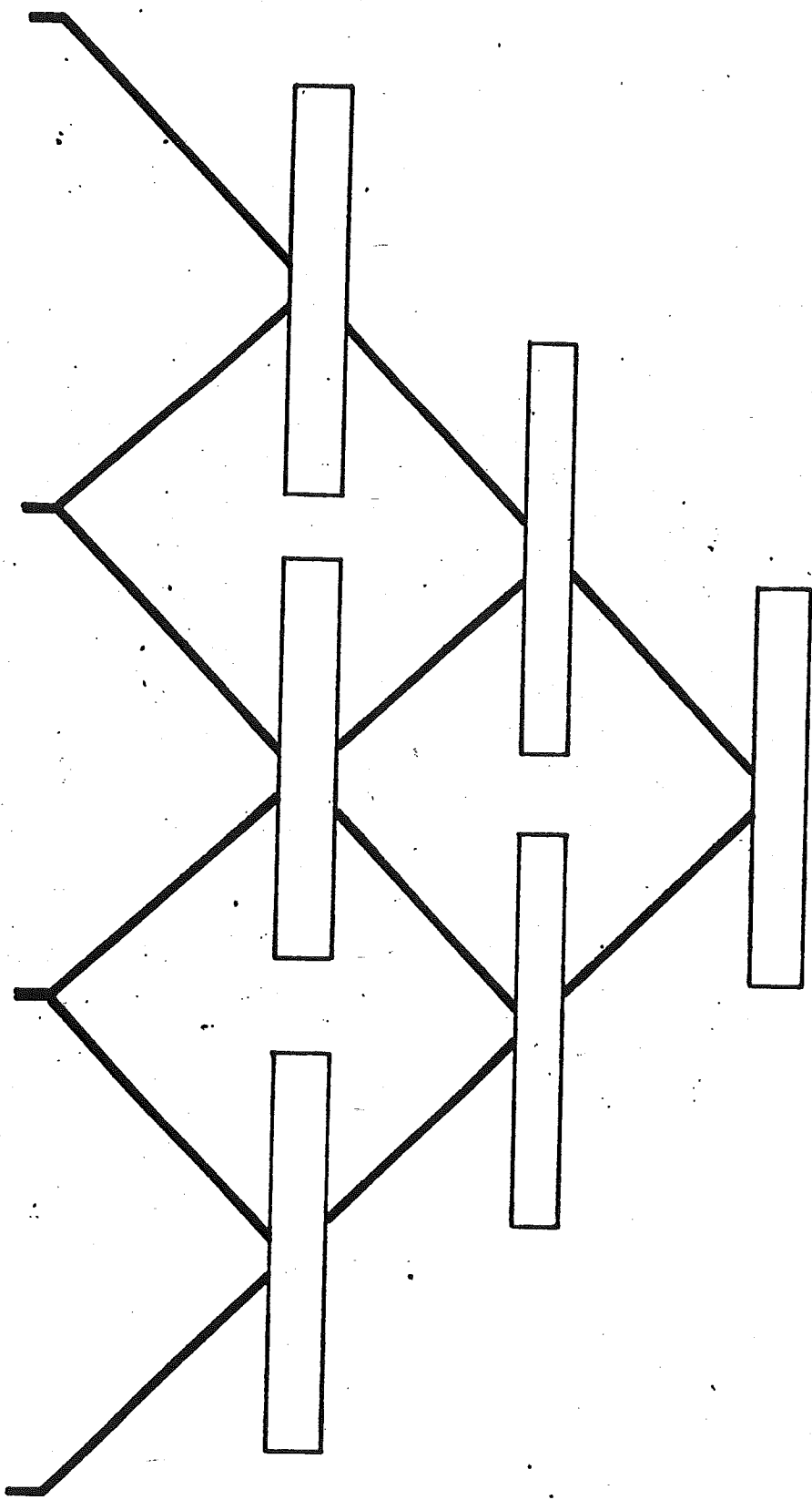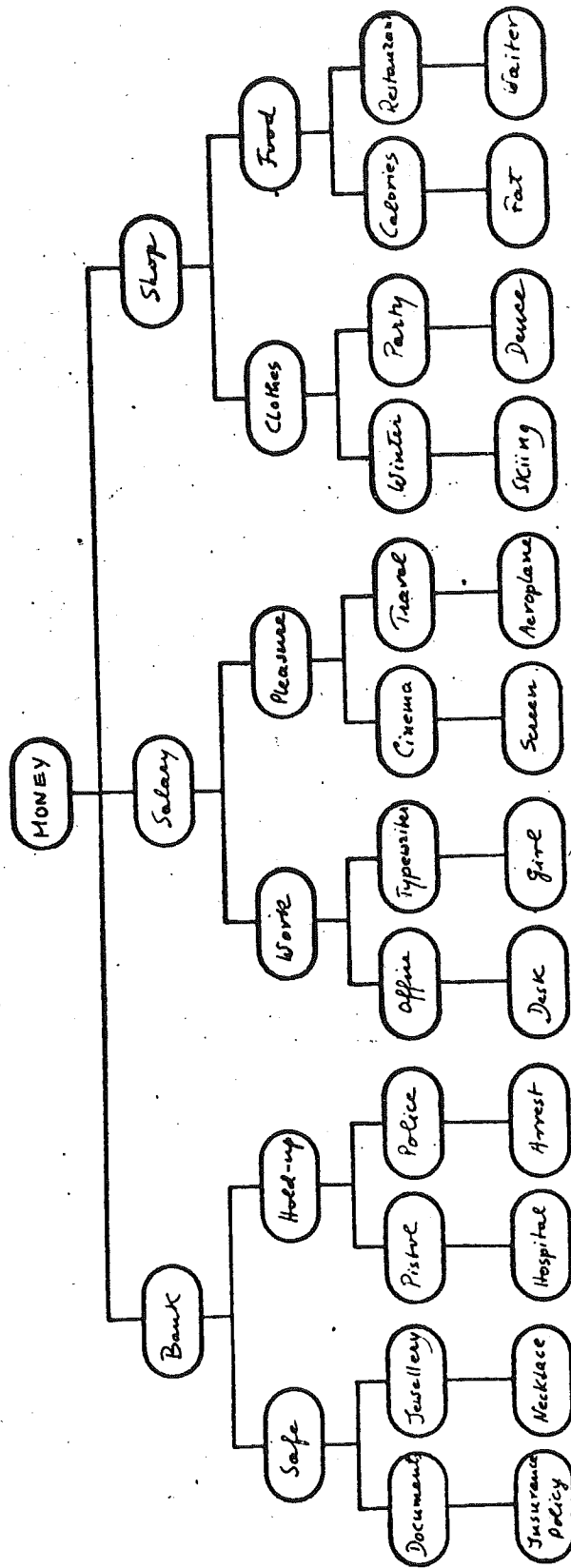
ASSOZIATIVE HIERARCHIE FÜR "MONEY"

LIST 1	LIST 2	LIST 3
WORK	JUDGE	LAW
LOVE	PRIEST	DEMOCRACY
FRIENDSHIP	TEACHER	FREEDOM
MONEY	DOCTOR	ORDER

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strong medium weak

I wish I were ...

more ambitious

more conscientious

more efficient

more perservering

more enterprising

more sentimental

more popular

less rebellious

less conceited

less changeable

less moody

less pessimistic

less withdrawn

less suspicious

SELF - FOCUS SENTENCE COMPLETION

1. I'm happiest when ...

2. It's fun to daydream about ...

3. My father ...

4. If only I could ...

5. It's hardest for me to ...

6. I'm at my best ...

7. It upsets me when ...

8. My mother ...

9. The worst thing about me ...

10. I get angry when ...

11. What I do well is ...

12. If I had my way ...

13. Some day I ...

14. If I were the teacher of this class ...

Nach Joh E. Exner, Jr., the Self-Focus Sentence Completion
YPA, Vol. 37, Oct 13, No. 5, und Wilson and Wattenmaker
Real Communication in Foreign Language and Real Communication
in Spanish. Upper Jay, New York: Adiron dack Mountain
Humanistic Education Center, 1973

Je souhaiterais être

plus ambitieux

plus consciencieux

plus efficace

plus persévérant

plus entreprenant

plus sentimental

plus populaire

moins présomptueux

moins triste

moins pessimiste

moins réticent

moins méfiant

Fig 17

Je suis le plus heureux des hommes quand ...

J'aime rêvasser à ....

Mon père ...

Si seulement je pouvais ...

Il m'est très difficile de

Ma mère ...

Mon point faible c'est ...

Je m'énerve quand ...

Je suis bon en ...

Un jour je ...

Si j'étais le professeur de cette classe ...

(compléter des phrases ayant trait à soi-même)

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Pendant la leçon de français
aujourd'hui j'étais ... je me sentais... parce que

	LUNDI	MARDI	MERCREDI	JEUDI	VENDREDI	SAMEDI

Fig. 19

aloof |___|___.___|___|___|___| outgoing

emotional |___|___|___|___|___|___| calm

lenient |___|___|___|___|___|___| strict

relaxed |___|___|___|___|___|___| tense

sincere |___|___|___|___|___|___| insincere

outspoken |___|___|___|___|___|___| reserved

casual |___|___|___|___|___|___| conscientious

reliable |___|___|___|___|___|___| unreliable

frank |___|___|___|___|___|___| evasive

trusting |___|___|___|___|___|___| suspecting

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sympathisch oder unsympathisch: Er/Sie

Ich finde an	2	1	0	1	2	
ist gut informiert						ist ein(e) Alleswisser(in), Besserwisser(in)
ist geistreich						redet dummes Zeug
zeigt Verständnis						ist ignorant, arrogant
ist taktvoll						ist taktlos
spricht gut über andere						spricht schlecht über andere
ist anteilnehmend						ist teilnahmslos
ist kontaktfähig						ist kontaktarm
ist anziehend						ist abstoßend
erweckt Vertrauen						erweckt Mißtrauen
ist ein(e) gute(r) Zuhörer(in)						hört nie zu, hält Monologe
ist geduldig						ist ungeduldig
hat ein offenes Wesen						hat ein verschlossenes Wesen
ist mutig						ist feige
ist natürlich						benimmt sich gekünstelt

Fig 21

Doctor to patient: You need glasses.

Patient: How do you know?

Doctor: I could tell the moment
you walked through that window.

One boy to another: I'm six, how
old are you?

The other: I don't know.

First boy: Well, do women worry
you?

Second boy: No.

First boy: Well, you're about
·four.

Motorist to farmer: Have you got a
big black cat with a white
collar?

Farmer: No, why?

Motorist: Must have run over
the vicar then.

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a) A wife should work only if there is a definite economic need.

b) A mother's main task is to cook, clean, wash, and mend clothes.

c) Women who want to have a full-time career should not plan to raise children.

d) Remaining single is an excellent way to live.

e) Children should discuss their dates and dating experiences with their parents.

	Strongly agree	Agree	Have an open mind	Disagree	Strongly disagree
a)	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
b)	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
c)	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
d)	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
e)	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

23

The Island

Somewhere in the middle of the uncharted Pacific Ocean
there exists a beautifully green and uninhabited island.
Strangely enough, seven people – a pregnant woman, an
internationally famous doctor, a well-known American
scientist, a teen-age girl, an elderly diabetic man,
a Catholic priest, and the Vice President of the
United States – are stranded upon the island.

By fortune a rescue plane stumbles upon the island,
but can pick up only one of the seven and return him
to civilization. The chances of a second trip by the
plane are remote indeed (though not impossible) be-
cause the island is uncharted. Although the people
left on the island will not starve, they must be
able to meet necessary social and biological needs
in order to survive.

THE PROBLEM: Which person should be allowed to make
               the plane trip home?

The Fall-Out Shelter Problem

Your group has responsibilities for disaster planning.
Suddenly World War III breaks out and atomic bombs are
dropping everywhere. An emergency call from a bomb
shelter centre informs you that there are 10 persons
requiring shelter and there is a supply of food and
water sufficient for only 6 people for the 3-months
waiting period required to eliminate the radiation
hazard.

Within the next half hour you must decide which 6
persons are to go into the shelter. No decision at the
end of this period will mean that all 10 people will
have to die.

The following information is available.

woman, 23, pregnant
policeman with pistol
Arab student
clergyman, 54
biochemist
waiter, 42
farm-hand, 31
barmaid
olympic athlete
dentist, 66

Fig 25

" AFFECTIVE CONJUGATIONS "

I am firm.
you are obstinate.
He is a pig-headed fool.
_____.

I am sparkling.
You are talkative.
He is drunk.

_____

"Conjugate" in a similar way:

1. I am fastidious
   You are _____.
   He is _____.

2. I am beautiful.
   You are _____.
   She is _____.

3. I am ambitious.
   You are _____.
   He is _____.

4. I am trifle overweight.
   You are _____.
   He is _____.

5. I am cautious.
   You are _____.
   He is _____.

6. I am open-minded.
   You are _____.
   He is _____.

cf. HAYAKAWA, S. I.: Language Thought and Action, pp 73-74
    KRUPAR, Karen-R.: Communication Games, pp 23-25

M O T I V A T I O N

- Education should deal with both
  dimensions of humans — the cognitive
  or intellectual and the affective or
  emotional.

- For learning to be significant, feelings
  must be recognized and put to use.

- Significant learning is discovered for
  oneself.

- Human beings want to actualize their
  potential.

- Having healthy relationships with
  other classmates is more conducive
  to learning.

- Learning more about oneself is a
  motivating factor in learning.

- Increasing one's self-esteem
  enhances learning.

Gertrude Moskowitz:

"Caring and Sharing in the Foreign
  Language Class". Newbury House
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ABSTRACT

Direct Testing of Speaking Skills
in a Criterion-Referenced Mode

Robert B. Franco

Defense Language Institute

This paper outlines the development at the Defense
Language Institute of a battery of prototype
tests in Spanish, called Major Criterion-Referenced
Tests, for seven target skills. The paper describes
in some detail the direct testing of speaking skills,
as it examines the design of the Spanish Speaking
Tests and their primary use as achievement-measuring
instruments, within a criterion-referenced orientation.
Some innovations are presented that could be easily
adapted to civilian programs. Informal concluding
statements are made on the content and predictive
validity of the tests, but in the absence of sufficiently analyzed
data, no formal conclusions are stated.

DIRECT TESTING OF SPEAKING SKILLS
IN A CRITERION-REFERENCED MODEL[1]

Robert B. Franco

Background

The Defense Language Institute (DLI) and its predecessor, the Army Language School (ALS), have traditionally emphasized the development of oral skills in their foreign language programs. Although in the past few years other primary objectives, of a military-technical nature, have been pursued, the main emphasis has remained on developing speakers of foreign languages to an S-3 level of proficiency. Ironically, the speaking skills have been the most elusive and difficult to measure with a satisfactory degree of objectivity.

Historical Perspective

At DLI the search for an effective system of evaluation of speaking skills can be traced back to the days of the Army Language School and extends until the present time, but for the purposes of this paper, the period will be divided into pre-1976 and post-1976 segments. In our pre-1976 couses, the core of the lesson unit was a "basic dialog," charged with presenting certain grammatical features within the context of a high-frequency, authentic situation. Traditionally, the dialog was introduced in class, then studied until "fully understood" and memorized at home. The next day, the dialog was reviewed and enacted in the classroom, as realistically as possible. A good imitation by the student of the native model's pronunciation and fluency, an indication of a clear understanding of what was being said, plus the native-like use of important paralinguistic features, constituted the evaluation criteria.

The acceptability of the student's performance depended on the powers of observation and the subjective appreciation of the instructor. Furthermore, an acceptable performance in class was recognized as sufficient proof of the student's capacity to perform effectively on the job.

Cognizant of the subjectivity that permeated this method of evaluating speaking skills, ALS/DLI instituted a less informal system, which included weekly, monthly, and final oral examinations. The weekly tests consisted of a series of questions based on the materials covered during that week. These questions were read aloud by the instructor, who then noted the accuracy and completeness of the student's responses. For the monthly and final examinations, one or two bilingual conversations were

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[1]The views of the author do not purport to reflect the position of the Department of the Army or the Department of Defense.

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added in which the examinee played the impromptu role of interpreter. Notes and tallies were kept, but the scoring was still based on a subjective appreciation of the examinee's performance, even when an examiner other than the classroom teacher was the scorer. As part of the system, the oral score was computed with the scores of pencil-and-paper tests given for other skills, and a composite of all test scores was then computed with the average of the daily grades for the testing period.

Somehow, our good teaching survived our poor testing, at least within our system. To illustrate, in 1973 we took a ten-year block of these composite scores of approximately 1,000 Spanish basic course students and compared the scores with those obtained by the same students on the listening comprehension part of the Defense Language Proficiency Test. To our surprise, a correlation of .91 was discovered, although the correlation for other languages is about .60. This relieved us momentarily, but of course did not validate our system.

In the late fifties and early sixties, our expectations were raised by the development and refinement of the Foreign Service Institute (FSI) "techniques for the testing of speaking proficiency," followed by publication of the Modern Language Assocation (MLA) Cooperative Foreign Language Tests and the Modern Language Association Proficiency Tests for Teachers and Advanced Students. DLI examined the new instruments very carefully, tried them out, and adopted their formats with the modifications required by the nature of our student population and their special needs.

For the pre-1976 Spanish basic course, specifically, we adopted the FSI model and used it, experimentally, as a proficiency, placement, and achievement test. However, its full utilization was inhibited by two factors: the limited scope of our basic course (with a final objective of S-3) and the absence in the course design of interim objectives that would have addressed the S-1 and S-2 levels chronologically and permitted diagnostic use of the structured oral interview based on FSI techniques.

We found the MLA speaking tests were not as readily adaptable to the Spanish basic course, mainly because the tests had a different content and employed techniques with which our examinees were not as familiar. As with the FSI interview, the internal structure of the course was also an inhibiting factor, although this was later remedied in the new course design. Features of the MLA model, nevertheless, were incorporated into the "level tests" developed by DLI and Educational Testing Service.

The New Spanish Basic Course, Post-1976

In the mid-seventies, a new DLI Spanish basic course was designed and developed under the growing influence of a criterion-referenced instruction (CRI) approach, derived from the Interservice Procedures for Instructional Systems Development (IPISD), a model produced by the Florida State University under a joint interservice contract. Thus, a system designed primarily for military instruction was transplanted into the foreign language curriculum.

In addition to this CRI general orientation, the new design addressed the sequential achievement of skill levels I and II as interim objectives, keeping skill level III as the final objective of the basic course. Schematic diagrams for the pre- and post-1976 course design are shown in Appendix A-1.

Course Design

The course consists of nine general modules and one enrichment/ remedial module, to be covered in no longer than twenty-seven weeks. Modules 1, 2, and 3 address skill level I; modules 1 through 6, with emphasis on 4, 5, and 6, address skill level II; and all nine modules, with emphasis on 7, 8, and 9, aim at skill level III. The evaluation track includes nine module tests and three level tests, with the level 3 test complemented by a comprehensive achievement test, the Defense Language Proficiency Test (DLPT), and a structured oral interview, limited to skill level III. In addition, each of the six lesson units in a module contains a series of criterion checks for the evaluation of stated lesson objectives, with emphasis on the communication frame to check speaking ability. A separate track of criterion-referenced checks evaluates listening comprehension skills.

New Evaluation Design

The field test of the materials indicated the need to consolidate the various types of tests into a comprehensive, criterion-referenced evaluation track. Appendix A-2.

The new track combined the best features selected from each of the previous components. This selection was based primarily on student and faculty input that was, admittedly, personal and subjective. The result was a battery of partly norm-referenced and partly criterion-referenced tests called Comprehensive Hybrid Achievement Tests (CHATs). Our new technology, however, required a clearer CRI orientation, so we reexamined the objectives and the criteria, and adjusted the instruments. This produced the present Major Criterion-Referenced Tests (MCRTs): Anchor CRT 1, Anchor CRT 2, and Final CRT, which evaluate the attainment of the objectives assigned to skill levels I, II, and III, respectively. Neither the module tests, the lesson unit quizzes, nor the listening comprehension CRTs were modified, but closer coordination was recommended of lesson objectives, communication frames, and the speaking MCRTs.

The MCRTs test seven component skills independently. Speaking is listed, arbitrarily, as number IV. The content outline for the complete MCRT battery is shown in Appendix B.

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The Speaking MCRTs

Specifications. A complete set of specifications for the Spanish Speaking MCRTs is included in Appendix C.

Format. The speaking test consists of a two-part oral interview between an examinee and one specially trained native speaker in Spanish. The first part of the interview is related to specific topical areas about which the examinee has knowledge. Spoken Spanish responses by the examinee are elicited by spoken Spanish questions or statements by the interviewer and systematically based upon the list of topics.

The second part of the test is conducted in the same manner. Instead of topics, role-playing situations are utilized to form the basis for the examinee's responses. Both topical areas and role-playing scenarios are printed in English in the test booklet that is given to the examinee at the beginning of study for the modules to be tested. A separate booklet is provided for the interviewer to provide the information necessary to prepare, conduct, and score the interview.

During the study of the modules to be tested, the student is encouraged to act out the scenarios pertinent to each lesson and to be checked out by his or her instructors. In fact, the students themselves have developed a check sheet for each role-playing situation and concentrate their attention on those scenarios that are not specifically covered in the communication frames of the lesson CRT.

Content. As stated earlier, the Spanish MCRTs parallel the objectives and content of the basic course. Anchor CRT 1, for example, addresses tasks derived from the definition of skill level I in speaking that correspond to the speaking objectives of modules 1, 2 and 3, which are the targets of the test.

To illustrate:

Level I objectives (S-1 tasks):

1. Use greetings and leave-taking expressions. Offer apologies.

2. Make simple social introductions of self and others.

3. Ask and tell time of day, day of week, date.

4. Order a "simple" meal.

And so forth.

Elements of task 4, for instance, have been assigned to lesson 7 as its speaking objective, within the format and criteria of effective role-playing of restaurant scenarios. To verify the achievement of this objective, after all enabling objectives have been satisfied, the student is tested in the four role-playing situations of the communication frame, which is the lesson's speaking test. Also, while working in the first three modules of the course, the student prepares and is checked out on the six role-playing situations included in Anchor CRT 1 for task 4. Thus, when the test is formally administered, a passing score on any of the six scenarios would satisfy the requirements of this task.

This close parallelism may constitute one of the best features of the Spanish MCRTs.

Administration. The test is administered in the form of a structured oral interview. The interviewer must be a native speaker of Spanish and specially trained to use this technique. Though structured, each interview is unique. For this reason, standardized alternate test forms employed for measuring the other skills in the Spanish MCRT series are not used in the speaking test.

Separate guides have been prepared for Anchor CRT 1, Anchor CRT 2, and the final examination, each with examiner's and examinee's versions.

a. Examiner's guide. Each guide provides detailed information on the procedures to be followed and supplies the topical and situational information that give the examination its structured elements. It is essential that interviewers administering these speaking tests be thoroughly familiar with the contents of both the examiner's guide and the examinee's guide.

b. Examinee's guide. Each examiner's guide has a companion examinee's guide. The guide for the examinee provides procedural, topical, and situational information and is given to the student when he or she begins study of the modules with which each guide is associated. The student is instructed to become familiar with the contents of the guide and to bring the guide to the test site. Each guide also contains a removable student rating sheet. Its use will be described in the section about scoring.

c. Time allocation. Time allowed for administration of the speaking tests is indicated in the examinee's guide, the examiner's guide, and in table 1 of the administration and scoring manual prepared for the MCRTs, as shown in Appendix D.

d. Observers. The Spanish MCRTs are designed for use in a face-to-face, one examinee/one interviewer situation. The presence of an independent scorer, an observer, or an interviewer trainee is permitted. Any such third person present during the interview must remain silent and unobtrusive.

e. Recording. Recording the oral interview is permitted. These recordings may be used for independent scoring, training interviewers, or rating interviewee performance by another rater. Most reel-to-reel and cassette tape recorders have only a single microphone input jack. For this reason, the microphone must be carefully placed so both interviewer and examinee voices will be recorded. Preadjusting the equipment under actual test conditions is recommended.

Scoring. The speaking tests may only be scored by trained scorers who have expert knowledge of the Spanish language. Full details on scoring the speaking tests are contained in the examiner's guides that have been prepared for each Anchor speaking test and the final speaking examination. Since no two interviews are conducted identically and examinee responses can vary, the speaking test is not arranged in standardized alternate forms. A separate rating scale has been prepared for each Anchor test and for the final test. Appendix E shows the student rating sheet for Anchor CRT 2. Similar sheets (with different rating level weights and percentage conversion tables) have also been prepared for Anchor CRT 1 and the final examination. While speaking is subject to minimum acceptable performance standards, a special provision has been added to these tests so that examinee performance can also be expressed as a performance skill level.

a. Ratings. Performance ratings are used to derive skill points from which the score is determined. The procedure is the same for the Anchor tests and the final examination. A three-point rating scale is applied to five linguistic categories in accordance with the statements of performance criteria. The ratings based upon the examinee's performance are not language skill levels, but points from which to derive a score. It is this point score that can be converted to conventional language skill levels, to percentage grades, or to pass/fail grades. A separate rating sheet is provided for each speaking test to reflect slightly different weights for certain linguistic categories. The procedure for using the rating sheets is the same for all speaking tests.

b. Computation of Points and Score Conversions. The examiner is required to use the following procedure:

1. Using the computation table at the top of the rating sheet, judge the examinee's performance on each of the five linguistic categories, determine the number of points derived by using the appropriate rating column (1, 2, or 3), and enter that number of points in the space provided under "Skill Points." Add the column of skill points. This produces the examinee's point score.

2. The score-to-level conversion table is located at the lower left-hand side of the rating sheet. Using the total number of points scored, circle the appropriate level opposite that band of scores. Enter the skill level attained in the space marked "Skill Level" at the bottom of the page.

3. The score-to-percentage conversion table is located at the lower right-hand side of the rating sheet. Using the total number of points scored, circle the appropriate percentage score for points scored. Enter the percentage score attained in the space marked "Percentage Score" at the bottom of the page.

4. Based upon the minimum acceptable performance standard for speaking, check the "Pass" or "Fail" block at the bottom of the page. The criteria for each linguistic category were adapted from the definitions previously used at DLI, derived primarily from the FSI interview materials. Performance criteria for Anchor CRT 2 are reproduced in Appendix F.

Validation

The components of the Spanish MCRT battery were produced between July 1976 and November 1977, and, on the assurance of subject matter experts, these MCRTs are considered validated by DLI and are being monitored to ensure that they continue to meet design criteria (the concept of "internal validation" vs. "external validation"). By April 30, 1979, the tests had been administered to nearly 400 students, 90% of which have passed all three tests. The sample is considered sufficient for DLI purposes, and appears to ensure utility for external uses as well. Furthermore, the

initial reaction from both examinees and examiners is encouraging. Following are a few of the comments gathered to date about the test:

"It measures the functional competences stated as learning objectives."

"Both the limited scope of each CRT and its use of content-sensitive scenarios tend to guarantee a fuller exploration of the stated objectives [than is true of other tests used previously]."

"The student is encouraged to be checked out by the instructor on each of the interview topics and role-playing scenarios one by one, and to use this informal appraisal of his or her performance diagnostically for immediate remediation."

"Role-playing is preplanned, integrated into the course, and is not a surprise at the time of the test."

"Because of scope limitations, no exploratory time is required, greatly reducing administration time, especially for MCRTs 1 and 2."

"Examiners must use the student rating sheets to assign S-ratings and other scores. Thus, 'experienced judgment' plays a lesser role, which tends to reduce the subjectivity of the scoring system."

"The tests appear to have 'inherited' the validity of the FSI interview, and could perhaps surpass it."

These opinions will be corroborated or disclaimed through our mediation and monitoring procedures. Meanwhile, several test features have been identified for critical evaluation, for example:

The 70 percent minimal acceptable performance cutoff. (This was set by the user agencies, but the test developers feel it could be raised, to better equate test performance with on-the-job performance requirements.)

The number of role-playing scenarios and the procedures used for the selection of those actually tested. (The procedure could include the examiner's review of the examinee's record of scenarios checked out, and of any specific job requirements known.)

The "up-to-date" situational orientation of the interview and the role-playing scenarios. (Specific changes in course objectives dictated by changing conditions in the field will affect test content.)

Conclusions

It has been apparent to the developers of the Spanish MCRTs that both examiners and examinees approve of the speaking tests. We have observed in the students an attitude of enthusiasm and a sincere desire to prepare fully for the tests and to excel in their performance. There seems to be no doubt as to the content validity of the tests. As for their predictive validity, the criterion-referenced ambiance in which the tests are used and our informal observation of the initial results lead us to conclude that the Spanish speaking tests are performing efficiently and meeting their assigned objectives.

The Spanish Taped Oral Proficiency Test

There is another method which is still in development that appears promising and is called the Spanish Taped Oral Proficiency Test. The development of the Spanish Taped Oral Proficiency Test was an attempt to find an alternative to the face-to-face interview in evaluating foreign language speaking proficiency. The face-to-face interview is a simulation of realistic conversation between the student and a trained examiner or examiners. The examiner then assigns a rating, or proficiency level, to the examinee based on the conversation. This technique has several good features but also suffers from several shortcomings:

1. Test scoring lacks objectivity.

2. Test scoring lacks flexibility.

3. It always requires trained examiners to conduct the interview at the same time and place with the student.

4. It lacks group testing capacity and exportability.

In developing the prototype taped oral proficiency test, part of our effort was directed toward reducing these shortcomings. The test package consists of a master tape and test booklet, an administrator's manual, a scoring manual, and scoring sheets. A proficiency level conversion table is provided in the scoring sheet. There are two equated alternate forms of the test. They test up to level 3+ proficiency.

The test was designed to be administered to a group of students in a language lab under controlled conditions. Upon hearing the questions from the master tape, the student gives his or her response, recording it on a separate tape. Many Level III labs allow student tapes to be stopped and started by the test administrator with a switch at the master console so that the student tape contains only student responses without interruption by the stimulus material. This affords a considerable saving of time by the specialist who later scores and rates the tape using a special scoring sheet. The rating system includes pronunciation/accent, vocabulary, grammar, fluency, and comprehension. Scores from each category are combined to yield a single score.

The test is divided into four parts. In the first part, which tests vocabulary, the student identifies or describes in Spanish sixty-eight pictures. The second part tests structure. There are sixty items. The student completes a Spanish sentence with a word or phrase omitted. An English translation of the sentence is provided as a guide. In the third part, the student must perform in Spanish in seven different communication situations. The fourth part is directed responses. This part has four situational passages in English and twenty questions in Spanish about the content. The student responds in Spanish.

The running time of the master tape is about one hour. The timing of the student's response is controlled by the master tape. The tapes produced by the students run between twenty and thirty minutes.

We did a study to investigate validity of the taped oral proficiency test by administering both the taped test and a face-to-face interview to 109 students of Spanish at DLI. The results were very consistent. We also investigated the interscorer reliability, that is, we wanted to determine whether or not different scorers would give different ratings when scoring the same student tape independently. Here, again, the result was favorable. We also compared both the taped test and the face-to-face interview with the students' final course grades and their Defense Language Proficiency Test scores as outside criteria. The correlation coefficients between the taped test and the outside criteria are consistently higher than those of the face-to-face interview.

Although this test was designed to be administered to a group of students in a language lab, it can also be administered individually provided there are two tape recorders available: one for the master tape, one for the student response. In either case, the presence of a native speaker is not required for administering the test. This is a considerable advantage in conducting the test.

Recently, there has been a steadily increasing requirement for a reliable speaking test in the critical languages among U. S. government agencies. The critical languages are Russian, German, Arabic, Chinese, and Korean. We are, therefore, considering plans for developing similar proficiency tests in these languages in the next two or three years. The same technique can, however, be used for development of achievement tests in conjunction with specific courses.

SPANISH BASIC COURSE DESIGN – 1975

SEQUENCE	LEVEL I			LEVEL II			LEVEL III			Individual Needs
MODULES	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
EVALUATION	Module Tests 1 2 3	LEV I		Module Tests 4 5 6	LEV II		Module Tests 7 8 9	LEV III		Oral Interview
LC CRT CHECKS							FINAL CRT			

DLPT

SPANISH BASIC COURSE DESIGN – 1976

SEQUENCE

LEVEL I	LEVEL II	LEVEL III	Individual Needs

MODULES

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

EVALUATION

Module Tests LC Checks	CRT 1	Module Tests LC Checks	CRT 2	Module Tests LC Checks	FINAL CRT

DLPT

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S P A N I S H   M A J O R   C R T s   —   D E S I G N

I   LISTENING COMPREHENSION

	CRT	#1	#2	FINAL	CRT	#1	#2	FINAL		C-R
Conversations	(3,	3,	3)			10	10	25	M/C Items	
Broadcasts	(3,	3,	3)			10	10	25	M/C Items	
			Total =		20	20	50	M/C Items	70%

II   READING COMPREHENSION

		#1	#2	FINAL		#1	#2	FINAL		C-R
Signs	(3,	3,	-)			3	3	-	M/C Items	
Notices	(3,	3,	-)			7	7	-	M/C Items	
Headlines	(3,	3,	-)			3	3	-	M/C Items	
Articles	(2,	2,	6)			7	7	50	M/C Items	
			Total =		20	20	50	M/C Items	70%
					15	20	50	Minutes	

III   TRANSLATION

					#1	#2	FINAL		C-R
Text (100,	150,	200 words)			20	30	40	Key Words	70%
(Lexical Aids)					15	30	45	Minutes	

IV   SPEAKING

					S-1,	S-2,	S-3	
1-	Interview/Conversation				5	5	10	Minutes
2-	Role Playing (2, 3, 4 Sits.)				10	15	20	Minutes

70%

V   WRITING

			#1	#2	FINAL		C-R
1-	Completion		12	24	36	Items	70%
2-	Transformation		6	12	18	Items	70%
3-	Composition		1	2	3	Comps.	70%
			20	45	60	Minutes	

VI   NUMBER TRANSCRIPTION

						C-R
1-	Five 10-Number Series		(3	4	5 digits)	90%
2-	Ten In-Context Numbers		(Card.,	Ord. &	Fract.)	90%

VII   GENERAL TRANSCRIPTION

		#1	#2	FINAL		C-R
Conversations	(3, 3, 3)					
Broadcasts	(3, 3, 3)	60	90	135	Minutes	87.5%

TARGET LANGUAGE CRITERION-REFERENCED TEST
ANCHOR CRT I SPECIFICATIONS
December 1976

Speaking

The speaking test is divided into two parts: Part I, in a direct conversation/interview format, and Part 2, in a role-playing format.

1. Part I/Stimulus and Task - Given not less than 15 oral questions sequenced into an informal conversation, covering at least 3 separate Basic Topics from those listed in the Examiner's Guide, and presented orally by the interviewer, the examinee will answer the questions orally, as completely and fluently as possible.

2. Part I/Conditions -

a. The conversation/interview will utilize not more than 5 minutes of the 15 minutes allocated to the speaking test.

b. No lexical aids are permitted.

c. Vocabulary and grammatical features used in the stimulus must be limited to those covered in the course of instruction for which the examinee is being measured.

3. Part I/Criterion -

a. Scoring is accomplished by the interviewer by keeping mental notes or casually noting on the Student Rating Sheet the level of ability demonstrated by the examinee on each sub-skill.

b. After both Part I and Part 2 have been completed, the examiner combines his/her observations into one grade for each ability and computes the raw score using the S-I COMPUTATION TABLE. (The computation table and scoring procedures are provided in the Examiner's Guide.)

c. No criterion is prescribed for Part I, but a 30 raw-score cut-off (equivalent to an S-I Level) is established for the entire speaking test.

4. Part 2/Stimulus and Task - Given not less than three role-playing scenarios selected as recommended in the Examiner's Guide, the examinee will assume the roles indicated in the scenarios and conduct them with the instructor as naturally and fluently as possible.

5. Part 2/Conditions -

    a. The three scenarios must be completed within 10 minutes.

    b. The examinee is permitted to quickly read the instructions for the scenario, but the use of lexical aids is not permitted.

    c. Vocabulary and grammatical features used in the stimulus must be limited to those covered in the course of instruction for which the examinee is being measured.

6. Part 2/Criterion -

    a. Scoring is done as described in 3a and b above.

    b. No criterion is prescribed for Part 2, but a 30 raw-score cut-off (equivalent to an S-I Level) is established for the entire speaking test.

TARGET LANGUAGE CRITERION-REFERENCED TEST
ANCHOR CRT II SPECIFICATIONS
December 1976

Speaking

The speaking test is divided into two parts: Part I, in a direct conversation/interview format, and Part 2, in a role-playing format.

1. Part I/Stimulus and Task - Given not less than 15 oral questions sequenced into an informal conversation, covering at least 3 separate Basic Topics from those listed in the Examiner's Guide, and presented orally by the interviewer, the examinee will answer the questions orally, as completely and fluently as possible.

2. Part I/Conditions -

a. The conversation/interview will utilize not more than 5 minutes of the 20 minutes allocated to the speaking test.

b. No lexical aids are permitted.

c. Vocabulary and grammatical features used in the stimulus must be limited to those covered in the course of instruction for which the examinee is being measured.

3. Part I/Criterion -

a. Scoring is accomplished by the interviewer by keeping mental notes or casually noting on the Student Rating Sheet the level of ability demonstrated by the examinee on each sub-skill.

b. After both Part I and Part 2 have been completed, the examiner combines his/her observations into one grade for each ability and computes the raw score using the S-2 COMPUTATION TABLE. (The computation table and scoring procedures are provided in the Examiner's Guide.)

c. No criterion is prescribed for Part I, but a 45 raw-score cut-off (equivalent to an S-2 Level) is established for the entire speaking test.

4. Part 2/Stimulus and Task - Given not less than four role-playing scenarios selected as recommended in the Examiner's Guide, the examinee will assume the roles indicated in the scenarios and conduct them with the instructor as naturally and fluently as possible.

5. Part 2/Conditions -

    a.   The four scenarios must be completed within 15 minutes.

    b.   The examinee is permitted to quickly read the Instructions for the scenario, but the use of lexical aids is not permitted.

    c.   Vocabulary and grammatical features used in the stimulus must be limited to those covered in the course of instruction for which the examinee is being measured.

6. Part 2/Criterion -

    a.   Scoring is done as described in 3a and b above.

    b.   No criterion is prescribed for Part 2, but a 45 raw-score cut-off (equivalent to an S-2 Level) is established for the entire speaking test.

TARGET LANGUAGE CRITERION-REFERENCED TEST
FINAL EXAMINATION SPECIFICATIONS
December 1976

Speaking

The speaking test is divided into two parts: Part 1, in a direct conversation/interview format, and Part 2, in a role-playing format.

1. Part 1/Stimulus and Task - Given not less than 15 oral questions sequenced into an informal conversation, covering at least 3 separate Basic Topics from those listed in the Examiner's Guide, and presented orally by the interviewer, the examinee will answer the questions orally, as completely and fluently as possible.

2. Part 1/Conditions -

   a. The conversation/interview will utilize not more than 10 minutes of the 30 minutes allocated to the speaking test.

   b. No lexical aids are permitted.

   c. Vocabulary and grammatical features used in the stimulus must be limited to those covered in the course of instruction for which the examinee is being measured.

3. Part 1/Criterion -

   a. Scoring is accomplished by the interviewer by keeping mental notes or casually noting on the Student Rating Sheet the level of ability demonstrated by the examinee on each sub-skill.

   b. After both Part 1 and Part 2 have been completed, the examiner combines his/her observations into one grade for each ability and computes the raw score using the S-3 COMPUTATION TABLE. (The computatation table and scoring procedures are provided in the Examiner's Guide.)

   c. No criterion is prescribed for Part 1, but a 63 raw-score cut-off (equivalent to an S-3 Level) is established for the entire Speaking test.

4. Part 2/Stimulus and Task - Given not less than four role-playing scenarios selected as recommended in the Examiner's Guide, the examinee will assume the roles indicated in the scenarios and conduct them with the instructor as naturally and fluently as possible.

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5. Part 2/Conditions -

a. The four scenarios must be completed within 20 minutes.

b. The examinee is permitted to quickly read the instructions for the scenario, but the use of lexical aids is not permitted.

c. Vocabulary and grammatical features used in the stimulus must be limited to those covered in the course of instruction for which the examinee is being measured.

6. Part 2/Criterion -

a. Scoring is done as described in 3a and b. above.

b. No criterion is prescribed for Part 2, but a 63 raw-score cut-off (equivalent to an S-3 Level) is established for the entire Speaking test.

Spanish MCRT Net Administration Time

Skill Measured	MCRT Administration Time (in minutes)			
	ANCHOR CRT #1	ANCHOR CRT #2	.FINAL EXAM	TOTAL
Listening Comprehension	25	25	30	80
Reading Comprehension	15	20	50	85
Translation	15	30	45	90
Speaking*	15	20	30	65
Writing	20	45	60	125
Number Transcription	15	15	15	45
General Transcription	60	90	135	285
TOTAL	165	245	365	775

* With the exception of the Speaking Test, knowledge of the foreign language is not required for MCRT administration.

SPANISH SPEAKING ANCHOR CRT #2
STUDENT RATING SHEET

NAME _____ DATE _____

SSN _____ CLASS NO. _____

S-2 COMPUTATION TABLE				
RATING LEVEL:	1	2	3	SKILL POINTS
LINGUISTIC CATEGORIES:				
Pronunciation	2	3	4	_____
Vocabulary	8	10	12	_____
Grammar	12	14	16	_____
Fluency	4	5	6	_____
Comprehension	10	12	14	_____
			SCORE =	

CONVERSION TABLE 2-A SCORE TO LEVEL		CONVERSION TABLE 2-B SCORE TO PERCENTAGE			
SCORE	= LEVEL	SCORE	% SCORE	SCORE	% SCORE
Minimum					
Score 36 =	1	52 =	100	44 =	69
		51 =	98	43 =	65
		50 =	94	42 =	61
37 - 44 =	1+	49 =	90	41 =	57
		48 =	85	40 =	53
		47 =	80	39 =	49
45 - 52 =	2	46 =	75	38 =	45
		45 =	70	37 =	41
				36 =	37

PASS _____   SKILL LEVEL _____

FAIL _____   PERCENTAGE SCORE _____.

EXAMINER _____

Appendix F

ADDENDUM TO EXAMINEE'S GUIDE

SPANISH MAJOR CRITERION-REFERENCED ANCHOR TEST #2

SPEAKING

SPANISH BASIC COURSE
(Modules 4-6)

Performance Criteria

1. The Anchor #2 Speaking Test is designed to permit an accurate appraisal of your oral competency in Spanish when you have completed Module 6 of the Spanish Basic Course. The information provided here is to be used with the instructions provided in the Examinee's Guide for the Anchor #2 Speaking Test.

2. Your examiner will be a native speaker of Spanish who has been specially trained in the face-to-face oral interview technique. The examiner will base his/her judgment of your performance upon the linguistic quality of what you say during the interview.

3. Five linguistic categories have been identified as important to the oral communication process. The descriptive criteria which the examiner will use to judge your performance on the speaking test are presented on the following page. Each category has been subdivided into three parts and assigned a rating scale -- 1, 2, or 3. The rating scale for each category will determine the number of points you will receive on the test.

4. Certain linguistic categories are deemed to be of greater importance than others for speaking. Therefore, different weights have been assigned which reflect the relative priority of each linguistic category. As you can see from the Student Rating Sheet (last page in your Examinee's Guide), the priorities are, in descending order of importance:

> Grammar
> Comprehension
> Vocabulary
> Fluency
> Pronunciation

Speaking Rating Scale for Spanish Anchor CRT #2

Category	Rating	Criteria
Pronunciation	3	An obvious foreign accent with occasional mispronunciations that cause misunderstanding.
	2	A marked foreign accent which requires concentrated listening, and mispronunciations which lead to frequent misunderstanding.
	1	Frequent errors and a very heavy accent make understanding difficult; requires frequent repetition.
Vocabulary	3	General vocabulary permits discussion of most topics listed, with some paraphrasing and circumlocutions.
	2	Choice of words frequently inaccurate, limitations of vocabulary prevent adequate discussion of some topics and situations.
	1	Vocabulary limited to a very basic level on the topics covered in the interview.
Grammar	3	Occasional errors, showing imperfect control of some major patterns, but seldom causing misunderstanding.
	2	Frequent errors, showing some major patterns uncontrolled and causing occasional irritation and misunderstanding.
	1	Constant errors, showing control of few major patterns and causing occasional irritation and misunderstanding.
Fluency	3	Speech is occasionally hesitant, with some unevenness caused by rephrasing and groping for words.
	2	Speech is frequently hesitant and jerky; sentence may be left uncompleted.
	1	Speech is very slow and uneven, except for routine phrases and social expressions.
Comprehension	3	Understands normal educated speech quite well, but requires occasional repetition or rephrasing.
	2	Understands careful, somewhat simplified speech, with considerable repetition, and rephrasing.
	1	Understands only slow, simple speech; requires frequent repetition and rephrasing.

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Department of the Army, <u>Interservice Procedures for Instructional Systems Development</u>. Fort Monroe, Va.: Headquarters, United States Army Training and Doctrine Command, August 1975.

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Additional references as listed in "TRADOC Pamphlet 350-30," <u>Interservice Procedures for Instructional Systems Development, Executive Summary and Model</u>, pp. 132-49. Fort Monroe, Va.: Headquarters, United States Army Training and Doctrine Command, August 1, 1974.

Bureau for International Language Coordination (BILC)

Report of Study Group on Job and Task Analysis

1. <u>Summary of Discussions</u>--Participants have had remarkably similar experiences, challenges, and frustrations in analyzing occupations to arrive at an optimally effective language training system. Some similarities in approach are evident, but a universally applicable "model" is not in sight (nor may one be desirable). The large number of jobs having differing language requirements make it generally impossible to design language training tailored throughout to each requirement; some logical consolidation is needed. Among the more promising possibilities is the integration of a functional/notional approach (or a variation thereof) into the analysis/design process. The importance of documenting analysis procedures and the rationale for decisions was stressed. Also important are well-designed questionnaires and effective interview and observation techniques. More effective and widespread dissemination of information to and from everyone working on the problem is essential.

2. <u>Major Issues</u>

   a. Bridging the gap between occupational analysis and the language curriculum.

   b. Defining and circumscribing the common cores of language in support of groups of occupational requirements.

   c. Focusing and coordinating the efforts of everyone in the instructional system (establishing a team approach and giving direction).

3. <u>Recommendations</u>

   a. That the Standing Committee on Testing be given a mandate to address job/task analysis issues as well.

   b. That the Committee make a progress report at the next BILC Conference.

                          LYNN A. HARRIS
                          Captain, USAF
                          Moderator

Report by the Standing Group on Testing
to the Steering Committee of the Bureau
for International Language Coordination

1.   At the 1978 Conference of the Bureau, a Standing Group on Testing was established.   Its terms of reference are at Annex A.   During the past 11 months the Standing Group has considered aspects of testing in foreign languages with particular reference to NATO languages.

2.   The Standing Group has agreed that the implementation of STANAG 6001 was a major step towards standardization and interoperatibility in the field of NATO languages.   In its deliberations however, the Group saw that STANAG 6001, though a sound startline for language profiles in NATO job descriptions, gives insufficient guidance to employers required to draw up SLPs.   As a result, it is felt that some posts could have been over or underrated.

3.   The Group has agreed that this difficulty could perhaps be overcome by the production of objective guidelines for the drawing up of SLPs. To this end, it has looked towards task analysis as a first step.

4.   The Standing Group wishes therefore to run a pilot study to identify the language content of selected NATO posts using task analysis techniques, including a questionnaire survey supplemented by limited back-up interviews.

5.   The Standing Group recommends therefore that BILC should seek a formal task from JSSG to run a pilot study.

REPORT OF STUDY GROUP ON INDIVIDUALIZATION

Sans être réellement parvenu à définir avec précision le terme d"Individualisation" le groupe a constaté que, de façon générale, les administrations voient dans l'individualisation un moyen qui permet essentiellement de réduire les coûts, d'accélérer la formation et d'améliorer les résultats.

L'avis du groupe, basé sur l'expérience concrète de chacun des membres, est que l'individualisation peut permettre d'améliorer les résultats, parfois d'accélérer la formation mais pratiquement jamais de réduire les coûts.

En tentant de cerner le concept d'individualisation, le groupe a été amené tout d'abord à exclure la notion de rapport individuel entre celui qui enseigne et celui qui apprend.

Une seconde considération est fondamentale: l'individualisation doit être considéré sous un double aspect à savoir que:

- d'une part l'apprenant en tant qu'individu doit être pris en considération par le système;

- d'autre part ce même individu qui apprend doit prendre sa part de responsabilité dans le processus d'enseignement.

Si l'on se place du côté de l'enseignant (teacher) il y a trois facteurs dont il doit tenir compte, s'il veut avoir en main les éléments indispensables pour faire tendre ses activités vers un enseignement individualisé:

1. les besoins de ceux qui apprennent;
2. les aptitudes de ceux-ci, ce qui déterminera les stratégies d'apprentissage;
3. la vitesse de progression de chaque étudiant en cours de formation.

Si l'on se place, par contre, du côté de l'apprenant, celui-ci devra accepter une relation de type contractuel, c'est à dire qu'il aura un effort personnel à fournir en contre partie de l'aide apportée par l'enseignant.

Ainsi il devra:

/...

1. participer à l'établissement des objectifs qui découleront
    de l'identification de ses besoins;
2. s'engager à consacrer du temps et à faire des efforts
    personnels en vue d'atteindre les objectifs fixés (auto-
    apprentissage, auto-évaluation, entraînement personnel, etc.);
3. revoir son contrat au fur et à mesure en fonction des
    résultats obtenus.

Tout ce qui précède implique, au niveau de l'organisation, la
nécessité d'un engagement à assurer

1. le passage d'un groupe à un autre en cours de formation
    en fonction du niveau atteint;
2. la possibilité d'acquérir les compétences spécifiques
    dont l'individu a besoin;
3. le recyclage de l'enseignant, c'est à dire sa formation
    en vue d'en faire non seulement un instructeur mais égale-
    ment un animateur;
4. l'adaptation des méthodes et des matériels existants à
    cette nouvelle perspective d'enseignement;
5. le soutien nécessaire au corps enseignant dans tous les
    domaines.

En conclusion le groupe estime que la notion d'individualisation
n'est pas une notion d'enseignement individuel mais bien une notion de
prise en considération maximale de l'apprenant en tant qu'individu.

C'est pourquoi il sera impératif de connaître les besoins indi-
viduels à satisfaire et les objectifs qu'en découlent, ainsi que les
caractéristiques de l'apprenant en tant que personne.

Il faudra par ailleurs être certain que l'apprenant ait toutes
les possibilités de s'engager de façon active dans l'ensemble des
démarches reliées à son apprentissage et qu'il en soit le centre en
tant qu'élément moteur, donc actif, et non comme élément cible, donc
passif.

En plus des considérations concernant les approches et les
méthodes il sera indispensable de s'assurer que l'évaluation sera
bien orientée, de façon claire, dans un sens permettant la prise en
considération des objectifs spécifiques de l'apprenant.

Il reste bien entendu que de nombreux problèmes, et celui du
"temps" n'est pas le moindre, restent à resoudre tant au niveau
administratif que pédagogique.

Le démarrage d'un tel programme doit de toute façon être immédiat,
même si ses débuts sont modestes, à condition qu'il soit progressif.

Without really having arrived at a precise definition of the word
Individualization, the study group established that, in general,
administrators essentially see in individualization a means to reduce
costs, speed up training, and improve results.

The position of the group, based on the concrete experiences of each
of the members, is that individualization permits to improve results,
at times to speed up training, but almost never to reduce costs.

In its attempt at narrowing down the concept of individualization, the
group came, first of all, to the decision to exclude the notion of one
teacher for one student.

A second consideration was deemed to be a fundamental one: Individualiza-
tion must be looked at from a dual viewpoint, that is to say:

On the one hand, the learner must be taken into consideration as an
individual by the system.

On the other hand, the learner must assume his share of responsibility
in the training process.

If we put ourselves in the teacher's place, we see that there are three
factors that must be taken into account, if he wants to have at his
disposal the indispensable elements that will enable him to gear his
activities toward individualized training:

1. The needs of the learners;

2. Their aptitudes – which will determine the learning strategies;

3. The progression pace of each student in training.

If, on the other hand, we put ourselves in the place of the learner, we
see that he will have to accept a relationship of a contractual nature,
that is to say that he will have to make a personal contribution in
exchange for the aid provided by the teacher. Thus, he will have to:

1. Participate in the establishment of the objectives which will result
from the identification of his needs;

2. Take upon himself to devote the necessary time and effort, with a view
to attaining the established objectives (self-instruction, self-
evaluation, personal training, etc.);

3. Review his contract as he progresses, on the basis of the results attained.

All that precedes implies for management the necessity for a committment to insure:

1. The transfer from one group to another as training progresses, on the basis of the proficiency level attained;

2. The possibility for the individual to acquire the specific skills he needs;

3. The recycling of the teacher, that is to say his training with a view to making him not only an instructor but also a facilitator;

4. The adaptation of existing training materials and procedures to this novel view of training;

5. All necessary support to the faculty.

In conclusion, the group feels that individualization is not individual tuition but rather the taking into account of the learner as an individual to the maximum possible extent.

That is why it will be mandatory to know the individual needs to be met and the objectives that derive from them, as well as the characteristics of the learner as a person.

Moreover, it will be essential for the learner to have every opportunity to engage actively in all the activities related to his training and to be the center of the training effort as a driving force and an active agent, as opposed to being a target and a passive element.

In addition to giving due consideration to approaches and methods, it will become crucial to insure that the assessment of training requirements is well directed and clearly outlined, in a way such as to allow the taking into account of the specific objectives of the learner.

Several problems, both pedagogical and administrative, remain to be solved and that of available time certainly is not the least of these problems.

At any rate, on the condition that it be a progressive effort, the implementation of such a program cannot wait, even if it is to start on a modest scale.

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1979 Conference

Bureau for International Language Coordination (BILC)

Report of Study Group on Motivation & Demotivation

First: the theory, as suggested in the research paper, The Good Language
Learner that motivation was a predictor of successful second language
acquisition and motivation could be changed or affected.

We were particularly concerned with the student who had no outside
motivational influences (job, money, personal desire to improve). It
was felt that the class itself would have to be the motivational force:
i.e., the problem was to make the class itself fulfill the needs of the
individual student; to make the student want to be there - but how?
(Particular interest in the idea of emotional involvement of the
student, making him feel as responsible for the success of the class as
the teacher.)

Second: the idea of demotivation. Robert Mager's theory that the factors
affecting motivation were not the same as those affecting demotivation.
Mager suggests that perhaps a teacher can't motivate (here he disagrees
with the Good Language Learner study), but the teacher can prevent
demotivation (for example: tell the student the goals at the beginning
and then make sure the evaluation device measures these goals, not something
else.)

Third: we talked about Bowles' hypothesis that each individual is motivated
by different factors: a consequence would be that the teacher would have
to vary her strategies of motivation/prevention of demotivation to fit
each learner.

We went one step further and also discussed the idea that culture might
determine some of the motivational factors (example: the strategies
that might motivate an Arab student might be different that the strategies
that might motivate an Oriental student.)

Fourth: teachers were the central most improtant influence/catalyst for
student motivation/demotivation. Further: the teacher can be trained
in strategies to motivate/prevent demotivation, that it's not necessarily
a matter of personality.

Lastly in this same area, since teachers had such an effect on the success
of the student, in second language acquisition, that the motivation/
demotivation of the teacher was an important and neglected area.

Given: motivation and demotivation are separate and important influences in the successful acquisition of second language learning.

Given: that motivation can be taught or changed/and that demotivation can be prevented. -

Given: that motivation is an individual and perhaps cultural phenomena.

Given: that the teacher's attitude toward the class is one of the most important (perhaps the most important) influence on motivation/demotivation of the individual students.

The committee recommends that further formalized study/research should be focused on the following four areas:

1. Individualized motivation: how it is affected or achieved and how it affects the learning process.

2. Demotivation: how it can be prevented; perhaps a comparitive-contrastive study of motivation and demotivation.

3. The cultural influences on motivation.

4. Teacher motivation/demotivation.
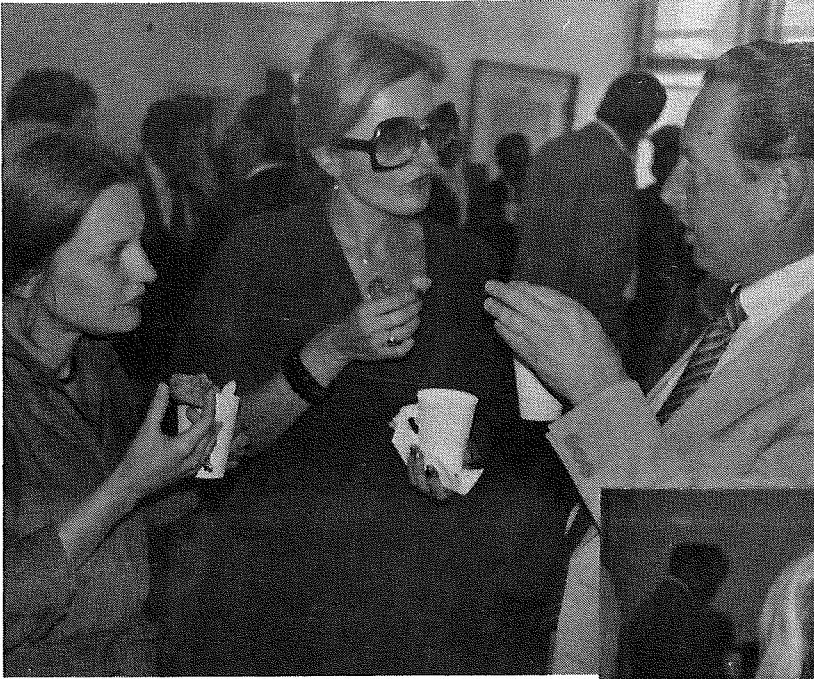
BUREAU FOR INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE CO-ORDINATION CONFERENCE

HELD IN MONTEREY, USA, 1979

MINUTES OF THE STEERING COMMITTEE MEETING

IN ATTENDANCE:

Belgium	Commandant W Cranshoff
Canada	Lieutenant Colonel A Taschereau
France	Lieutenant Colonel J de Gouvello
Federal Republic of Germany	Präsident H Maur
Netherlands	Lieutenant Colonel K Helder
Portugal	Lieutenant Colonel A S de P Carvalho
United Kingdom	Squadron Leader D Green
United States	Colonel T G Foster III (1st session)
	Mr P de Lespinois (2nd session)

Associate Member

SHAPE/IMS NATO   Mr D Ellis

Secretariat

Chairman   Lieutenant Colonel G S Goodman

Secretary   Mr G G Worrall

FIRST SESSION - HELD ON MONDAY 28 MAY 1979

Item 1. The minutes of the Steering Committee Meeting held on 6 July 1978 were unanimously adopted as being a correct record of the proceedings. The SHAPE/ IMS NATO representative urged members to submit bibliography on job/task analysis to the Secretariat as agreed in Item 3 paragraph 4 of those minutes.

Item 2. BILC Conference 1980. The Chairman announced that the UK was able to offer to host the conference at the RAEC Headquarters Mess, Eltham Palace during the period 2-6 June 1980. The Secretary pointed out that accommodation at Eltham Palace would be limited but alternative accommodation may be available at nearby officers' messes. Accommodation in military messes may only be available from the evening of 1 June until the morning of 7 June. It was unanimously agreed to accept the UKs invitation. A decision on the theme of the conference was held over.

<u>Item 3.</u> <u>BILC Conference 1981.</u> The French delegate confirmed the invitation from France to host the 1981 conference at the Ecole Militaire in Paris. This invitation was unanimously accepted.

<u>Item 4.</u> <u>BILC Conference 1984.</u> The Belgian delegate conveyed an invitation from Belgium to host the 1984 conference noting that 1984 is the year in which the Ecole Royale Militaire celebrates its 150th anniversary. This invitation was unanimously accepted.

<u>Item 5.</u> <u>BILC Conference 1982 or 1983.</u> The Canadian delegate conveyed an invitation from Canada to host the conference in either 1982 or 1983. This invitation was unanimously accepted.

<u>Item 6.</u> <u>Invitations to BILC Conference.</u> Several delegates noted that the Steering Committee's acceptance of invitations from member countries who offered to host the conference, was not always in itself a satisfactory instrument for obtaining the approval of national authorities to send delegations. Draft programmes were likewise inadequate. In future the Secretariat will send official invitations to all BILC member nations at least three months in advance of each conference.

<u>Item 7.</u> <u>BILC and NATO.</u> It was agreed that items prepared by BILC for submission to the JSSG/ET-NT would not be forwarded before delegations had had the opportunity to seek the approval of their national authorities.

<u>Item 8.</u> <u>Symposium on Russian.</u> The Chairman indicated that the Army School of Languages (UK) hoped to be in a position to host a symposium for teachers of Russian from BILC member countries in 1980. He suggested possible dates which would be confirmed later via the Secretariat. Several delegations expressed enthusiasm for such a symposium and indicated they would send representatives.

<u>Item 8.</u> <u>BILC Rules of Procedure.</u> It was agreed that Rules of Procedure for BILC should be formulated. A draft version is to be prepared by the Secretariat for consideration at the next meeting of the Steering Committee to be held later this week, and for eventual submission by delegates to their national authorities for approval.

Item 10. Conference Chairman. All delegations agreed that the host country should provide the conference chairman, but that the chairman for the Steering Committee would continue to be provided by the Secretariat.

SECOND SESSION - HELD ON THURSDAY 31 MAY 1979

Item 11. BILC Conference 1982 (Connect Item 5). The Canadian delegate proposed that the 1982 conference be held in St Jean, Canada. This invitation was unanimously accepted.

Item 12. Symposium on Russian (Connect Item 8). The Chairman confirmed that once national approval had been obtained the initial invitation to the proposed Symposium would be sent via the Secretariat. He said that the estimated residential costs per day would be £10.

Item 13. BILC Conference 1980 - Conference Theme (Connect Item 2). The Canadian and German delegations submitted a jointly formulated proposal that the theme for the 1980 conference should be "The functional/notional approach to language training in the NATO context" and that within this general theme study groups and speakers might consider teacher training and the individualisation of teaching, curriculum design, job/task orientation, learning strategies, administrative organisation and other related background studies within the context of NATO language training needs. This proposal was unanimously adopted.

Item 14. BILC Rules of Procedure (Connect Item 8). A draft formulation of rules of procedure for BILC was adopted. This formulation is at Annex A. Members were asked to refer this draft to their appropriate national authorities so that Rules of Procedure (as amended) may be formally presented at the next meeting of the Steering Committee in 1980. Action - Delegates are asked to submit their country's approval and/or proposed amendments to the Secretariat as soon as possible and preferably before 31 December 1979.

Item 15. Report of Standing Group on Testing. The Committee considered the report of the Standing Group on testing which has been co-operating throughout the year and had been in session during the current conference. The report adopted by the committee is at Annex B. As a consequence of the report the committee agreed that

a. the mandate of the Standing Group on Testing (Connect Item 3 of Minutes of Steering Committee of 12 May 1977 and Item 8 of Minutes of Steering Committee of 6 July 1978), under the continuing chairmanship of Mr D Ellis (SHAPE), be extended to include consideration of the problem of job/task analysis, in the context of formulating Standard Language Profiles (SLP) for language annotated appointments within NATO.

b. Subject to the appropriate approval of SHAPE authorities, which the chairman of the Group would seek, the Standing Group would convene at SHAPE HQ during the forthcoming year. The purpose of the meeting would be to prepare a full and formal proposal for a pilot study (Annex B para 4). It was further agreed that when completed this proposal should be circulated via the Secretariat to members for comment nationally before submission to JSSG/ET-NT. The Canadian, German, United States and SHAPE delegations agreed to send representatives to the proposed meeting. The UK delegation agreed to seek approval to send representative(s) once the dates of the meeting were known.

Item 16. The Chairman's attention was drawn to the content of a letter JS3/Trg dated 23 Nov 78 (See Annex C) signed by the Chairman of JSSG, and which had not yet been received by the Secretariat. He asked the committee to note therein JSSG's encouragement for initiatives which would result in BILC being tasked to carry out a study of a testing system related to STANAG 6001. The Belgian delegate undertook to convey BILCs willingness to undertake such study to the chairman JSSC and to brief him on the progress being made in that direction.

There was no further business.

/9 Jun 79   208   G G WORRALL
BILC/IAE/3/79   BILC Secretariat

(Aide Memoire. With effect from 17 September 1979 the BILC Secretary will be Major Tim Williams.)

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BUREAU FOR INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE COORDINATION

BILC CONSTITUTION AND RULES

OF PROCEDURES

PURPOSE OF BILC

1. The purpose of BILC was outlined in a British MOD Memorandum
DS 15/160/7 dated 26 July 1966 which advises the Bureau's responsibilities as follows:

   a. The dissemination to participating countries of information
   on developments in the field of language training.

   b. The convening of an annual conference of participating nations
   to review the work done in the coordination field and in the study of
   particular language topics.

2. It was implicit in the Memorandum that the Bureau would also help
by acting as a clearing house for the exchange of information between
NATO countries on developments in the field of language training.

CONSTITUTION

3. Elements of BILC. BILC has 3 elements:

   a. Members

   b. The Secretariat

   c. The Steering Committee

4. Member.

   a. Full membership of BILC is open to all NATO member countries.
   In addition, SHAPE/IMS NATO is an associate non voting member.
   Applications for membership are subject to the unanimous approval of
   the Steering Committee. A list of member countries is at Annex A.

   b. Full members and associate members may send an official delegation
   to BILC conferences. Each delegation, with the exception of the conference
   host country, should be limited to no more than 5 persons, with the addition

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of the Secretariat as outlined below.

5. THE SECRETARIAT. The Secretariat for BILC will be provided by the
UK and will normally be based at the Institute of Army Education (London)
and will attend all formal BILC conferences. It will normally comprise a
chairman and two secretaries.

6. THE STEERING COMMITTEE.

   a. The Steering Committee will comprise the head of each full member
   delegation present at meetings plus the head of any non-voting associate
   member delegation.

   b. On those occasions where the head of the UK delegation is also
   the Chairman of the Steering Committee another member of the UK dele-
   gation will serve as spokesman for the UK at the Steering Committee
   meeting and will vote on behalf of the UK.

7. LANGUAGES. The official languages of BILC are French and English.

8. BILC AND NATO. The relationship of BILC with NATO is as contained
in a JSSG/ET/NT Memorandum dated February 1978. The text of the
Memorandum is at Annex B.

9. Any submission or proposal which the Steering Committee agrees to
send to JSSG is subject to the endorsement of the national authorities
of those member countries who are required to seek such approval.

10. CONFERENCE.

    a. There will be an annual BILC conference which full and associate
    members are free to attend (see paragraph 4b). BILC member nations are
    encouraged to offer to host the conference. Where a host cannot be
    found, the conference will usually be held in UK under arrangements
    made by the Secretariat as agreed by MOD (UK). The conference will
    not normally be held in UK more frequently than once every second
    year.

    b. The host country must coordinate through the Steering Committee
    the location, dates and conference theme. Proposed changes must be

notified to all members through the Secretariat.

c. Observers and Guest Speakers.

 (1) The host country for the annual conference may invite national observers and guest speakers to such conference provided that those persons' attendance serves the interests of BILC.

 (2) National observers and guest speakers from member countries other than the host country, may attend conferences as part of that country's official delegation.

 (3) In addition to BILC member countries all other NATO member countries will be invited to send observers to all BILC conferences.

 (4) Observers from other countries (ie allied non-NATO or neutral) may be invited to attend conferences provided that the Steering Committee approves each and every such invitation after delegations have had due opportunity to consult their national authorities. It therefore follows that submissions for non-member countries who are not mem ers of NATO to send observers to BILC conferences must allow time for those procedures to be followed.

d. The host country will normally provide a chairman for the conference other than for the Steering Committee meeting proper, for which the Chairman will be provided by the Secretariat.

11. STEERING COMMITTEE MEETINGS.

a. The Steering Committee is the official policy making body of BILC. It will meet during each annual conference.

b. Each full member in attendance is represented at this meeting (see para 6) and has one vote on proposals put to the Steering Committee. Associate members may attend and speak at meetings but they may not vote.

c. Advisers to individual delegations may be present at Steering Committee meetings but they may only address the meeting direct if invited to do so by the Chairman.   211

d. Voting. A motion on a matter of policy will only be carried if

it is approved unanimously by t ose heads of delegation in attendance.

                                                BILC Secretariat

IAE/FLS/BILC/GGW

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BILC Member Countries as of 1 June 1979

Belgium

Canada

France

Federal Republic of Germany

Italy

Netherlands

Portugal

United Kingdom

United States

Associate Non-voting member

SHAPE/IMS NATO

TEXT OF JSSG (ET/NT) MEMORANDUM

DATED FEBRUARY 1978

"At a meeting of the JSSG in Bonn in October 1977 the relationship of

BILC to NATO was discussed. It was agreed that BILC should be
recognized as a consultative and advisory body concerned with language

training matters, and should be consulted by JSSG on behalf of EURO/NATO

Training Group on any such matters that may arise. Similarly any advice

or development which BILC wishes to offer or make known to EURO/NATO

Training Group should be put to the JSSG for further transmission".

Report by the Standing Group on Testing to the
Steering Committee Meeting of the Bureau for
International Language Coordination held on
1 June 1979

1.   At the 1978 Conference of the Bureau, a Standing Group on Testing was
established. Its term of reference are given in Annex A to the Minutes of
the 1978 Steering Committee Meeting (See Item 8 of those Minutes). During
the past 11 months the Standing Group has considered aspects of testing in
foreign languages with particular reference to NATO languages.

2.   The Standing Group has agreed that the implementation of STANAG 6001
was a major step towards standardization and interoperability in the field
of NATO languages. In its deliberations however, the Group saw that STANAG
6001, though a sound start line for language profiles in NATO job descriptions,
gives insufficient guidance to employers required to draw up Standard Language
Profiles (SLPs). As a result, it is felt that some posts could have been over
or under rated.

3.   The Group has agreed that this difficulty could perhaps be overcome by
the production of objective guidelines for the drawing up of SLPs. To this
end, it has looked towards task analysis as a first step.

4.   The Standing Group wishes therefore to run a pilot study to identify
the language content of selected NATO posts using task analysis techniques,
including a questionnaire survey supplemented by limited back-up interviews.

5.   The Standing Group recommends therefore that the Standing Group should
reconvene, in SHAPE if possible, to determine the best way to present their
recommendations to JSSG.

The 23 Nov 1978

N° : JS3/Trg 3030

ANNEX C TO MINUTES
OF BILC STEERING
COMMITTEE HELD ON
31 MAY 1979

FROM : Lt Col JOUREZ - Chairman JSSG

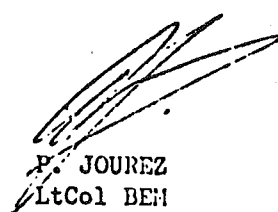TO   : Chairman BILC

SUBJECT : Testing methods in relation to STANAG 6001

REFERENCE : 1. JSSG Report - ENTS/CO 265/10/78 - 30 Oct 78
            2. IAE/BILC/3/79 - 20 September 78

During our last session in LISBON your report (2nd reference)
and most particularly the annex D was studied by our group.

It was considered that BILC is the best suited agency to carry-on
a study on a testing system.

Accordingly, JSSG would support any initiative aiming at
officially designate BILC for the task.

P. JOUREZ
LtCol BEM
Chairman JSSG

T-NT Secretariat   2. NATO HQ
DD GERMANY   Ops:IMS attn Col HEYN
J S III 1   Autoroute BRUXELLES - ZAVENTEM
   BONN   1110   BRUXELLES

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Distribution List — Members

Belgium (2)

Cdt W Cranshoff
Departement de Langues
Ecole Royale Militaire
30 Avenue de la Renaissance
1040 BRUXELLES Belgium

Canada (3)

Lt Col A Taschereau
Director of Language Training
National Defence Headquarters
OTTAWA Ontario K1A IK2
Canada

France (2)

Lt Col J de Gouvello
Centre de Langues et Etudes
   Etrangères Militaires
1 Place Joffre
PARIS 7e France

FRG (3)

Präsident H Maur
Bundessprachenamtes
503 HURTH — Hermulheim
Federal Republic of Germany

Italy (2)

Language Training Officer
Stato Maggiore della Difesa
Ufficio Addestramento
00100 ROMA Italy

Netherlands (2)

Lt Col K Helder
School Militaire Inlichtingendienst
Oranje Nassau-Kazerne
HARDERWIJK
Netherlands

Portugal (2)

Lt Col A S de P Carvalho
Estado Maior General das Forças
   Armadas
Divisão Pessoal
Restelo
Lisboa
PORTUGAL

SHAPE/IMS NATO (2)

Mr D Ellis
Chief Language Training Centre
SHAPE
IHSC
BFPO 26

USA (3)

Col T G Foster III
Commandant
Defense Language Institute
DLI-FLC ATFL-CMT
Presidio of Monterey
California 93940 USA

UK

Ministry of Defence (2)
A Ed 4
Empress State Building
Lillie Road
LONDON SW6 1TR

D N Ed S   (2)
Old Admiralty Building
Whitehall
LONDON SW1A 2BE

Ministry of Defence (2)
T Ed 2c RAF
Adastral House
Theobald's Road
LONDON WC1X 8RU