

澳洲大學外語教育 所面臨的挑戰

柯珍宜* 陳秋蘭**

摘要

本文以文獻探討分析澳洲高等教育與外語教育相關之政府文件及學術研究報告，包括影響語言教育的重要政策、外語開課種類、學生學習動機、教學方式、及亞洲語言在澳洲高等教育中的角色為探討焦點，同時也整理出學者對澳洲外語教育的建言。本文之研究發現，澳洲大學只有 5% 到 12% 的大一新生選擇修習外語，而這些修外語課的學生流失率很高；外語教師士氣也趨向低迷，因為專職機會少，且學生程度參差不齊，此現象不但讓學者憂心的指出澳洲的外語教育已經面臨危機，業界也擔心缺乏外語能力的澳洲學生在亞太地區將會失去競爭力。有鑑於此，澳洲國立大學紛紛組成聯盟，共同推動外語課程，以挽救大學外語教育。澳洲大學這種以聯盟方式開設外國語課程的方案，對於日漸國際化、及語言多元的臺灣校園有其參考價值。

關鍵詞：外語教育、大學外語課程、語言政策、澳洲

* 柯珍宜，國立臺灣師範大學英語學系講師

** 陳秋蘭，國立臺灣師範大學英語學系教授

電子郵件：curran@ntnu.edu.tw；clchern@ntnu.edu.tw

來稿日期：2011 年 10 月 28 日；修訂日期：2012 年 3 月 20 日；採用日期：2012 年 8 月 7 日

The Current Challenges of Foreign Language Education in Australian Universities

Jean E. Curran* Chiou Lan Chen**

Abstract

This paper reviews the status of foreign language education in Australia at the tertiary level by examining key policy initiatives, research studies, and government reports from the past decade. Languages offered for study, students' motivations for studying another language, instructional issues, and Asian language offerings are also examined. Results showed that only 5-12% of students choose to study another language in their freshman year of university, and attrition rates for language classes are high. Students discontinue their language studies because they lack time in their academic schedules, and are frustrated that their efforts lead to little progress. Instructors experience low morale due to the increased use of part-time staff and trying to meet student needs in classes where there is a wide range of proficiency levels. The current situation has been labeled as a crisis that could affect Australia's competitiveness and standing in the Asian community. This concern has led to the formation of a national university network with the goal of promoting stronger language education in the tertiary sector. The recommendations made by the network can be useful to Taiwanese educators and officials as Taiwan works to create a more multicultural society and to enhance its ties with the international community.

Keywords: foreign language education, tertiary education, language policy, Australia

* Jean E. Curran, Lecturer, Department of English, National Taiwan Normal University

** Chiou Lan Chen, Professor, Department of English, National Taiwan Normal University

E-mail: curran@ntnu.edu.tw; clchern@ntnu.edu.tw

Manuscript received: October 28, 2011; Modified: March 20, 2012; Accepted: August 7, 2012

I. Introduction

Composed of six states and two territories, and with a population of over 22 million, Australia is one of the most linguistically and culturally diverse countries of the world (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2011). This rich heritage is due to a legacy of historical incidents and social policies that have yielded both tragic and progressive outcomes. The earliest inhabitants of Australia were the Aborigines and Torres Strait Islanders (Australian Government, 2008a). British colonization and the use of Australia by Great Britain as a penal colony in the 18th century led to an influx of individuals from England, Wales, Ireland, and Scotland (Australian Government, 2008b, 2010). Following World War II, Australia actively sought to increase immigration figures, with most new immigrants arriving primarily from Europe (Australian Government Department of Immigration and Citizenship, 2011, 2012). At various times throughout the mid to late twentieth century, various economic and political events worldwide led Australia to increase immigration numbers for individuals from particular countries, including Hungarians in 1956, Czechs in 1968, Chileans in 1973, Indochinese in 1975, and Polish in 1981 (Australian Government Department of Immigration and Citizenship, 2011). This rich history of immigration has resulted in a country where, according to 2010 statistics, one in every four Australians was born abroad, with the largest numbers coming from the United Kingdom, followed by New Zealand, China, India, and Italy (Australian Government Department of Immigration and Citizenship, 2011). From July of 2010 through June of 2011, over 127,000 immigrants arrived in Australia from over 200 different countries, with the largest numbers originating from New Zealand (20.2%), China (11.5%), the United Kingdom (8.6%), and India (8.3%) (Australian Government Department of Immigration and Citizenship, 2012).

As a consequence of its history, the languages spoken in Australia

fall into three categories: Indigenous languages, English, and the more than 350 languages that have been brought to Australia by various groups of migrants (Lo Bianco, 2009). Despite this rich heritage, most reports on the state of language education in Australia in the twenty-first century are presented in somber tones. Expressions such as “in a crisis” and “a dire situation” are commonly used (Group of Eight, 2007). Prior to colonization by the British in the late 1700s, it is estimated that Aboriginals spoke approximately 250 languages. A survey of Aboriginal languages commissioned by the Australian government in 2004 showed that 145 Indigenous languages were still spoken in Australia, but many of these, approximately 110, are endangered (Australian Institute of Aboriginal and Torres Islander Studies and the Federation of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Languages, 2005; Lo Bianco, 2009). Although over 100 languages are taught in ethnic, community or mainstream schools, participation rates vary by state or territory, and very few (approximately 13%) of students study a language other than English (LOTE) in Year 12 (Liddicoat, Scarino, Curnow, Kohler, Scrimgeour, & Morgan, 2007; Lo Bianco, 2009; Nettelbeck, Byron, Clyne, Hajek, Lo Bianco, & McLaren, 2007).

Although Australia is described as a multilingual nation, in reality many Australians today are primarily English monolingual (Group of Eight, 2007). While a plethora of reports and policy initiatives have been undertaken to investigate and promote LOTE education in Australia, very few recommendations have led to efforts that have achieved a long-term effect in enhancing Australian students’ proficiency in languages other than English.

Perhaps more troubling is the current environment where many Australians appear to be conscious of the fact that language study is important, but overall fewer students study languages. In many cases, those who do undertake language studies often choose not to continue (Liddicoat et al., 2007; Lo Bianco, 2009; Nettelbeck et al., 2007). Research has shown that in comparison to all other Organization for Economic Co-

operation and Development (OECD) countries, Australian students are last in the amount of time spent studying a second language (Group of Eight, 2007). Some scholars have even stated that this lack of engagement with other languages places Australia at risk economically and politically (Group of Eight, 2007). Graddol (2006) has noted that as more second language learners of English around the world achieve a proficiency that allows them to use English effectively for work or study, monolingual English speakers run the risk of losing out on jobs or business opportunities. Some researchers and business leaders in Australia have also noted their concerns in a public way (Hajek, Nettelbeck, & Woods, 2011; Høj, 2010).

The purposes of this article are to: (a) introduce key language policy initiatives that have had an impact on language education in Australia; (b) discuss foreign language education at the tertiary level, including the languages available for study, students' reasons for undertaking the study of a foreign language, instructional issues, and the position of Asian languages; (c) provide recommendations from leading educators and researchers to strengthen language education in Australia; and (d) outline implications of the Australian context for Taiwan.

II. Key Language Policy Initiatives

According to Lo Bianco (2003, 2009), several Australian policy initiatives related to language education can be categorized into five different stages: “Britishism, Australianism, Multiculturalism, Asianism, and Economism” (Lo Bianco, 2009, p. 15). Britishism reflected Australia's position as a British colony, with the goal to create an English monolingual society. This period included parts of the 19th and 20th centuries, and while other languages were tolerated in the 19th century, attitudes towards other languages turned more negative in the early 20th century. This was primarily due to Australia's fears of being too far from its British rulers to

rely on for support and a deep distrust of Asia (Lo Bianco, 2003, 2009).

The Australianism period, which existed in conjunction with Britishism, saw a recognition of Australian English as different from British English, and reflected the influence of language forms spoken by convicts, free settlers, and individuals coming to take part in the gold rushes (Lo Bianco, 2003). Australia's Adult Migrant Education Program draws its roots from the Australianism period (Lo Bianco, 2009).

The Multiculturalism period, beginning in the early 1970s, represented both political and societal recognition of the importance of a multicultural and multilingual Australia (Lo Bianco, 2003, 2009). Many of Australia's governmental programs to assist speakers of languages other than English were established in this period, particularly the National Policy on Languages (Lo Bianco, 2003, 2009).

During the Asianism period, Australia sought to more actively engage in the Asian community, and from the late 1980s through the 1990s, educational institutions were encouraged to undertake the teaching of Asian languages (Lo Bianco, 2003, 2009).

The most recent period, Economism, which began in the 1990s, has placed greater emphasis on Australia's economic competitiveness (Lo Bianco, 2003, 2009). There has been great concern about declining English literary skills in Australian students, and language efforts in this period have tended to focus more on English literacy skills, sometimes at the expense of foreign language education (Lo Bianco, 2009).

Two of these periods, "Asianism" and "Economism," reflected more of an orientation towards economic considerations and continue to play a role in the delivery of LOTE courses in Australia today. According to Lo Bianco (2009), some of the key policies formulated in Australia during the aforementioned five periods include:

(a) In 1968, students applying to enter some university departments were no longer required to demonstrate that they had studied a language in secondary school. This led to a significant decrease in the number of

students in Year 12 studying a LOTE.

(b) In 1987, the National Policy on Languages (NPL) was introduced by the government. This particular policy has been acclaimed in both Australia and abroad for the breadth of its coverage. All political parties supported the policy, and financing was made available to develop inaugural programs in: “deafness and sign language, Indigenous languages, community and Asian languages, cross-cultural and intercultural training in professions, extensions to translating and interpreting services, multilingual resources in public libraries, media, support for adult literacy and ESL” (Lo Bianco, 2009, p. 22). The policy made provisions for the coordination of research centers, including the establishment of the National Languages and Literacy Institute of Australia and its associated research centers. Nine specific languages were identified in the NPL to receive special attention. These included Arabic, Chinese, French, German, Modern Greek, Indonesian, Italian, Japanese, and Spanish.

(c) In 1994, in a Council of Australian Governments (COAG) report, four Asian languages, Japanese, Chinese (Mandarin), Indonesian, and Korean, were identified as the languages upon which the government would place its focus. This led to the National Asian Languages and Studies in Australian Schools (NALSAS) strategy. Financial support for this initiative was provided by the Australian government from 1994 to 2002.

(d) In 2009, there was widespread concern that English literacy standards in Australia were declining, and as a consequence more efforts and resources were devoted to English teaching at the expense of LOTE and ESL classes.

(e) In the middle of 2009, a new initiative directed towards the study of Asian languages, the National Asian Languages and Studies in Schools Program (NALSSP), was developed with the goal to provide programs in language and culture for China, Indonesia, Japan, and Korea. Funding was provided through 2011.

While many of these policies are commendable, their development and implementation have in some cases been problematic. A large number of stakeholders have been invested in the development of language policy, and each group has advocated for what they see as the key needs for language education in Australia (Lo Bianco, 2009). These groups include those in the language profession, such as teachers and researchers, those representing migrant groups, those supporting Indigenous languages, and those whose focus is on Australia's standing in the international arena in terms of trade, diplomacy, and security (Erebus Consulting Partners, 2002; Lo Bianco, 2009).

Other factors affecting language education in Australia include:

(a) Language education has not been fully recognized as a key component of the curriculum (Liddicoat et al., 2007).

(b) While policy is often developed at the national level, the implementation takes place at the state, territory, or local level (Henderson, 2007; Lo Bianco, 2009). As education is a state-based issue, this has often made a national policy difficult to implement.

(c) Australia is a large country. Students living in remote areas may lack opportunities to study other languages, and teachers may be unwilling to live and work in remote communities (Nakahara & Black, 2007; Orton, 2008).

(d) While guidelines have been established concerning how many hours students should study a LOTE, and what proficiency standards should be attained, the guidelines are not consistent throughout the Australian educational system (Erebus Consulting Partners, 2002; Slaughter, 2009).

(e) Quantitative and qualitative data collection on LOTE studies in Australia is not consistent, making it very difficult for educators, researchers and policy planners to conduct effective research (White & Baldauf, 2006).

Although Australia has been a leader in developing policy and

providing funding to promote the study of languages other than English, the current state of language education in Australia has not lived up to its earlier expectations. Geographic, political, and social factors have all contributed to a situation where fewer numbers of students study a LOTE.

Many of the problems in foreign language education that are evident at the tertiary level are an extension of issues that have arisen at lower levels of schooling. According to Liddicoat et al. (2007), in 2005, a total of 133 different languages were available for study by students at the primary or secondary level in Australia. These languages were available through public, private, ethnic or community schools. Although a large number were on offer, in fact only 20 languages were taught to a large number of students. The top ten offered by government schools were: Japanese, Italian, Indonesian, French, German, Chinese, Spanish, Modern Greek, Arabic and Vietnamese. The percentage of Kindergarten to Year 12 students studying a LOTE ranged from a low of 23.0% in New South Wales to a high of 71.5% in Victoria. Between 2001 and 2005, all but one of the top six languages by enrollment all saw decreases in the number of students choosing to study the language. The exception was Chinese, which saw an increase of 3.1%. Most students are likely to study a language during their primary school years. There is a peak in Year 7, followed by a steady decline to Year 12 (Liddicoat et al., 2007). It is speculated that many students abandon language studies during the secondary school years—especially at Year 10—because they feel that they need to concentrate on other coursework to achieve the necessary scores that will allow them to continue study in their field of interest in university (Liddicoat et al., 2007).

Earlier policy initiatives had aimed for 25% of Australian students in Year 12 to be studying a LOTE. Since 1987, when the NPL was introduced, information has been gathered on language study of Year 12 students. From a low of 8.9% in 1987, the percentage climbed to a high of 15% in 1994. Since then, nationally, it has hovered at 13-14%, though in

some states the figure is much higher (Liddicoat et al., 2007).

As a result of the circumstances students experience at the primary and secondary level, Australia has been unable to reach its goal of having a significant number of students enrolled in LOTE classes through Year 12. Due to the small number of students who complete LOTE studies through Year 12, many students interested in studying another language are forced to re-start their language studies in university. A consequence of this situation is that few students are able to achieve the highest levels of proficiency (Liddicoat et al., 2007).

III. Language Education at the Tertiary Level

In the same way that concerns have been raised about LOTE study at the primary and secondary levels, a number of educators and researchers have raised alarm bells about the state of language education in university (Group of Eight, 2007; Liddicoat et al., 2007; Lo Bianco, 2009). Four specific studies that have investigated language education at the tertiary level in Australia since 2000 will be examined (Nettelbeck et al., 2007; Nettelbeck et al., 2009; Nettelbeck, Hajek, & Woods, 2012; White & Baldauf, 2006). They will be discussed focusing on four issues: languages offered for study, students' reasons for taking a LOTE, instructional issues, and Asian language offerings in tertiary institutions.

A. Languages Offered for Study

(a) Patterns of growth and decline

In 2006, Peter White and Richard Baldauf Jr., professors at the University of Queensland, published a study with the goal of documenting trends in language education over the previous five-year period (2001-

2005). Australia's 39 universities were surveyed utilizing an online questionnaire. The results showed that 37 universities provided some type of language offering and the number of languages taught had remained fairly stable when compared to earlier surveys. White and Baldauf (2006) categorized the languages offered for study into Widely Taught, Moderately Taught, Lesser Taught, and Rarely Taught. In 2005, for the Widely Taught Languages, Japanese was offered more than any other language, followed by Mandarin, French, Italian, Indonesian, German, and Spanish. The ranking for the Moderately Taught Languages was: Modern Greek, Korean, Latin and Russian (tied), and Arabic and Classical Greek (tied). White and Baldauf also noted that while the overall number of Widely and Moderately Taught languages had remained the same, they were not necessarily offered by the same institutions that they were in the past.

White and Baldauf (2006) also calculated the equivalent full-time student load (EFTSL) for each language to measure growth and decline in the languages studied. Table 1 shows that amongst the Widely Taught languages, Mandarin (+61.99%), French (+46.18%), Spanish (+36.67%), Italian (+13.38%) and Japanese (+4.47%) experienced growth between 2001 and 2005, while German (-3.85%) and Indonesian (-11.89%) showed an overall decline for the same period. Amongst the Moderately Taught languages, Arabic (+46.03%), Latin (+40.94%), Classical Greek (+39.89%), Korean (+22.16%) and Russian (+16.43%) all exhibited growth in the 2001-2005 period, with only Modern Greek (-11.45%) showing a decline (White & Baldauf, 2006).

Table 1
*Changes in LOTE Enrollments*¹

	2001-2005 White and Baldauf	2005-2007 Nettelbeck et al.
Mandarin	+61.99%	-11.70%
French	+46.18%	+9.50%
Spanish	+36.67%	+9.40%
Italian	+13.38%	-10.50%
Japanese	+ 4.47%	- 8.90%
German	- 3.85%	+11.90%
Indonesian	-11.89%	- 41.30%
Arabic	+46.03%	+23.20%
Korean	+22.16%	+79.60%
Russian	+16.43%	+36.50%

Similar to White and Baldauf’s study (2006), Nettelbeck et al.’s study (2007) found that only two Australian universities of a total of 39 did not offer any modern languages. In total, 24 different languages were offered, with a large number of institutions having four to five languages available for study, rising to the highest number of 15 at Australia National University. Universities were more likely to provide study in the following languages: Japanese, Chinese, French, Italian, German, Indonesian, and Spanish (ranked in order). The authors make specific mention that the small number of classes offered in Arabic, Russian, Hindi, and the lack of Australian Indigenous languages, Pashto, Dari, and African languages may have an overall detrimental effect on Australia.

Nettelbeck et al.’s (2007) study also included a survey of ten institutions representing a broad cross-section of Australian universities.

¹ Changes in enrollments as observed by White and Baldauf (2006) and Nettelbeck et al. (2007). The languages are ranked following White and Baldauf’s (2006) categorization of Widely Taught and Moderately Taught Languages. It should be noted that White and Baldauf’s (2006) survey examined language offerings at all levels, and the study by Nettelbeck et al. (2007) focused on beginning language courses.

Questions were asked concerning the number of freshmen students studying a language, the number of those first-year students that were taking a beginners' LOTE course, and the enrollment and retention statistics for beginning LOTE classes between 2005 and 2007. Results showed that the proportion of new students studying a LOTE ranged from a low of 5% to a high of 12%. In some institutions, beginning LOTE courses made up the majority of the language offerings, and in a smaller number of universities more advanced classes were common. This varied according to language and location of the university. The authors speculate that this may be due to the fact that some languages are not offered in secondary schools and in one state, Victoria, students receive bonus points on the qualifying exams for university if they have completed a LOTE in Year 12.

According to Nettelbeck et al. (2007), as can be observed in Table 1, amongst beginning language classes, between 2005 and 2007, six languages showed increases in enrollments: Korean (+79.6%), Russian (+36.5%), Arabic (+23.2%), German (+11.9%), French (+9.5%), and Spanish (+9.4%), while four showed declines: Indonesian (-41.3%), Chinese (-11.7%), Italian (-10.5%), and Japanese (-8.9%). Overall, interest in European languages increased by 12% and participation in Asian language courses decreased by 9% between 2005 and 2007.

(b) Reasons for language growth and decline

Table 1 shows that amongst the five European languages, three (i.e., French, Spanish, and Russian) enjoyed growth in both studies. Nettelbeck et al. (2007) speculate that the growth in Spanish might be due to an overall increasing interest in Hispanic culture, and the countries of South America. Amongst Asian languages, both Arabic and Korean exhibited growth in overall enrollment and enrollment in beginning languages classes. Indonesian saw a decline in enrollments, particularly in classes for beginners. A more recent study by McLaren (2011) on Asian languages enrollments at tertiary institutions in Australia noted a continued decline

in students studying Indonesian. While both Japanese and Mandarin showed increases in enrollment in White and Baldauf's (2006) study, the discrepancy in Mandarin enrollments in White and Baldauf's (2006) and Nettelbeck et al.'s (2007) studies is dramatic. Citing information from the Asian Studies Association of Australia, Nettelbeck et al. (2007) note that many students studying Mandarin in Australia are from overseas, particularly from China or Japan, thus they would be less likely to choose a class for beginners. Nettelbeck et al. (2007) comment that while this observation needs additional investigation, it could possibly provide an explanation for why overall enrollments in Mandarin are increasing, but beginners' classes are in decline.

In their study, Nettelbeck et al. (2007) also investigated which languages seemed to perform better when retention is considered. Students were surveyed to determine how many continued to study a language into the third year. Amongst the group of students surveyed, across all languages and universities, an average of 25% of the students who started a language were enrolled in a third-year language course (Nettelbeck et al., 2007). With first-year learners, four European languages, Spanish, German, Italian, and French, had retention figures slightly above average. When retention was considered over the three-year period, French (29%) and German (29%) were slightly above average. Both Spanish (17%) and Italian (14%) were low when three-year retention figures were examined. Data on Asian languages showed that Chinese seemed to perform in a similar pattern to French and German. Japanese experienced lower rates of retention in each period of study, and from first year to third year the retention rates for Japanese and Indonesian were similar to Spanish (Nettelbeck et al., 2007).

When considering growth and retention patterns, Nettelbeck et al. (2007) cautioned that they were only able to provide a general picture of LOTE study at the tertiary level in Australia. For example, while statistics may have shown a growth in some languages at some universities, other

universities showed a decline. The same is true for the data related to retention and attrition. The authors point out that more extensive research needs to be undertaken to gain a greater understanding of why some languages are more likely to be chosen by learners, and why some universities exhibit greater levels of retention. Amongst students who answered questions about why they discontinued their language study while at university, three general responses were observed (Nettelbeck et al., 2007): a). no time in their schedules due to scheduling conflicts or the demands of other courses; b). a lack of awareness of the time and effort required to master the language; and c). frustration at the slow level of progress in learning a language.

(c) Collaboration and language enrollments

White and Baldauf (2006) also examined the number and nature of the collaborative relationships universities had engaged in when offering LOTE classes to students. Thirty-eight of the 39 universities responded to questions about collaborative relationships, and 21 universities indicated that they had taken part in a total of 22 collaborative relationships between 2001 and 2005. The collaborative relationships were of four types: Formation of a regional consortium, establishment of a link with an overseas university, partnership with another university in the same urban area, and contracting out language teaching to another university. While collaborative relationships allowed universities to provide a greater number of language courses to a greater number of students, and White and Baldauf (2006) noted that there has been much successful collaboration, some problems and concerns have been observed. These include a different number of credits assigned to the same course, scheduling, staff turnover, and institutional support.

In the period between 2001 and 2007, most Australian universities offered language study to their students. The languages available for study included a range of both Asian and European languages. Classes in Arabic, Australian Indigenous languages, and African languages were not

as common. Only a relatively small percentage of students chose to study a language in their freshman year. Retention rates varied greatly from language to language, and at present more research needs to be undertaken to have a better understanding of this issue from the point of view of both the universities and the students. Students cited a variety of reasons for choosing to discontinue language studies, with most students seeming unaware of the time and effort required to make progress. Collaborative relationships between universities as a way of providing more language offerings to more students have enjoyed some success, but there have also been a number of difficulties.

B. Students' Reasons for Taking LOTE Classes

Nettelbeck et al. (2009) conducted a follow-up to their beginners' LOTE analysis (Nettelbeck et al., 2007) that was discussed previously. All of the universities that had participated in the earlier study conducted between 2005 and 2007 agreed to participate in the follow-up study. The first part of the study sought to better understand students' reasons and motivations for undertaking beginning LOTE studies during university, their experiences in their LOTE classes, and if they chose to discontinue with their LOTE studies, what had prompted that decision. The study utilized student questionnaires administered in the middle of two consecutive semesters.

(1) Background of the students

A total of 2,968 students responded to the first questionnaire. A significant number of students were enrolled in Spanish (735), French (635), Japanese (402), Chinese (368), Italian (316), and German (261), but smaller numbers were observed in Indonesian (53), Russian (45), Korean (44) and Arabic (29). One-half of the students were in the first year, 20% were second-year students, and slightly more than 10% were in their third year. The remaining 20% did not respond or were classified as irregular enrollments. Most of the students were studying in the Arts or Arts

combined (57.4%), followed by Economics/Commerce (16.4%), Science (10.8%), Engineering (3.4%), with smaller numbers from other faculties. Almost all of the students (93%) were studying full-time (Nettelbeck et al., 2009).

When asked about their language background and previous experiences studying a language, approximately two-thirds spoke only English at home, 23% responded that they only spoke a LOTE in the home environment, and 15% answered they spoke a LOTE plus English. A total of 77 different languages were spoken in the population of students who speak a LOTE at home. Almost two-thirds of the students had studied a language in the past, most often in secondary school, with most choosing to stop their studies in Year 10. Approximately 25% had studied a language to Year 12 (Nettelbeck et al., 2009). Nettelbeck et al. (2009) were quite surprised to find that in a number of the beginner LOTE classes they observed, some of the students had actually completed Year 12 language studies in secondary school. Thus, of the group of students surveyed, only 38% could be labeled as true beginners of the LOTE they were learning. Students who come from such a wide range of backgrounds can present unique challenges to the instructor.

(2) Motivations for language study

In their earlier study, Nettelbeck et al. (2007) discussed the high attrition levels amongst students studying beginning LOTE classes in university. However, responses from students in Nettelbeck et al. (2009) showed a very different picture. In the first semester of beginning LOTE classes, only one-fourth of the students planned to discontinue their studies after the first year, 13% after Semester 1 and 12% after Semester 2. Over one-third (35%) planned to study for three years, and 14% planned to complete two years. The remaining students (25%) were undecided. Students who had studied a language before, either in school or at home, were more likely to want to study a language for three years. Students were also asked about their motivation for studying a language (Nettelbeck

et al., 2009). The students were asked to rank ten possible motivations on a scale of 1 (not important) to 5 (very important). The four most important factors in order of importance were: hope to travel abroad (4.2), like learning a language (4.0), useful for future employment (3.6), interest in history and culture of the language (3.5).

For the second questionnaire in Nettelbeck et al.'s (2009) study, administered in the middle of Semester 2 of the first year of a LOTE course, 1,810 responses were received. Motivations for studying a LOTE continued to remain the same, with slightly higher figures: hope to travel abroad (4.6), like learning a language (4.1), useful for future employment (3.7), interest in history and culture of the language (3.6). When asked about their intentions toward future study of a language, 25% said they were undecided, similar to the first survey. However, almost one in four students (22%) indicated that they had different intentions than in first semester, and twice as many in this group planned to continue studying a language. When asked why they had changed their minds, those planning to continue responded that the classes were more interesting than they had anticipated, teaching was better than they thought it would be, and the classes turned out to be less demanding than expected. For students who intended to end their language study after Semester 2, the main reason was due to the workload of the language course.

In 2009, two surveys by Nettelbeck et al. (2009) of students from ten Australian universities who were taking a LOTE showed that 69% chose to study a European language, and 31% an Asian language. The primary reasons for studying another language were personal, including expectations to travel in the future, interest in languages and cultures, and usefulness in future employment. An important factor in students continuing to study a language more than one semester related to the quality of the class and the teaching. This finding is noteworthy because the results of the surveys also showed that in many beginning classes there were students who had already studied the language. Consequently,

instructors were often faced with students who had a range of proficiency levels. Despite this challenge, the instructors were able to effectively engage the students so that the students were motivated to continue with their language studies.

C. Instructional Issues of LOTE

(a) Course composition and language proficiency issues

Eight languages were examined in Nettelbeck et al.'s (2007) study to explore the teaching and learning of LOTE at Australian universities. These languages were Arabic, Chinese, French, German, Indonesian, Italian, Japanese and Spanish. A wide variety of course descriptions, materials, and assessment practices were observed. The great majority of the classes focused on the four skills, listening, speaking, reading and writing, and about 50% of the courses included some component of culture instruction. Textbooks were often used, and instructors frequently developed their own, and indeed a wide range of, supporting materials.

Most lecturers indicated that when they meet students in their beginning LOTE classes, they make the assumption that the students will continue with the language for three years of study. As the aforementioned discussion of retention has shown, this is often not the case.

Some universities had very specific achievement outcomes delineated for their language courses. When asked if proficiency criteria were an important issue within their university, five of seven responding universities said that it was. Some universities have developed their own proficiency criteria and some have used Australian or international proficiency guidelines. Nettelbeck et al. (2007) observed only one class where the course description made the assumption that most of the students would only study the language for one semester. A consequence of the high attrition rates that were described earlier is that students of different proficiency levels are often mixed together, placing greater demands on the instructor.

An examination of direct contact hours for each language and total hours of language study per semester (direct contact hours plus expected self-study hours) indicated that there was a great range. The mean number of contact hours was 52, with an overall average of 52 hours for European languages and 56 for Asian languages. When one considers the total hours of language study in the universities sampled, discrepancies were great. Low and high total hours by language were: Arabic (91/169), Chinese (104/143), French (104/130), German (78/182), Indonesian (117/182), Italian (96/202), Japanese (108/182), and Spanish (91/182). The great range in total hours might have an impact on students' workload and raises important questions about comparisons in proficiency levels by course and university (Nettelbeck et al., 2007).

(b) Staffing

Staffing provisions were also investigated (White & Baldauf, 2006). Overall there were greater numbers of casual staff employed to teach languages in the tertiary sector. White and Baldauf's (2006) analysis showed that between 2001 and 2005, there was an increase in casual teaching hours for the following Widely Taught languages: Spanish (28.89% to 56.46%), German (17.78% to 34.41%), Mandarin (41.72% to 52.22%), French (31.49% to 40.92%), Japanese (34.85% to 44.61%) and Italian (31.37% to 36.22%). Indonesian (33.71% to 20.33%) was the only Widely Taught language to show a decrease in the number of casual teaching hours between 2001 and 2005. Between 2001 and 2005, there was an increase in casual teaching hours for the following Moderately Taught Languages: Classical Greek (10.42% to 18.17%), Latin (21.28% to 24.93%) and Arabic (27.03% to 30.16%). Modern Greek (21.92% to 12.28%), Korean (33.85% to 25.89%) and Russian (38.30% to 31.21%) were three Moderately Taught languages showing a decrease in the use of casual teaching hours (White & Baldauf, 2006). Although reasons for greater employment of part-time staff to teach LOTE classes were not investigated by White and Baldauf (2006), others have noted the negative

effects of using part-time staff (Nettelbeck et al., 2007; Nettelbeck et al., 2012), including an impact on scheduling and increased work for coordinators who were required to train and supervise the part-time teachers. In addition, full-time faculty members who need to take on the responsibility of coordination have less time for research and collaboration (Nettelbeck et al., 2012).

(c) Class size

During the course of their study, Nettelbeck et al. (2007) visited each of the universities participating in the study and observed two to three language classes. Eight different languages were observed: Arabic, Chinese, French, German, Indonesian, Italian, Japanese and Spanish. They found that class size ranged from 5 to more than 50, with an average of 15.5 students per class. Individual universities seemed to have no bearing on class size as the smallest and largest classes were often at the same university. For three of the languages, Indonesian (5 to 7 students), German (10 to 14 students), and Italian (16 to 17 students), class size seemed to be constant in all the universities. However it was impossible to make generalizations about class size for the other languages due to the wide range. Most lessons were divided equally into teacher-led, individual, and paired tasks. A variety of traditional materials were used, and some instructors took advantage of newer technologies.

Great diversity exists in almost all aspects of LOTE instruction in the tertiary sector within Australia. These areas include materials, class size, number of contact hours, and achievement outcomes. The sector also faces a number of challenges such as the increased use of part-time staff to teach languages and wide ranges in proficiency levels amongst students. Despite the rather precarious position of language education that has been noted by many Australian language educators and researchers, Nettelbeck et al. (2007) reported that the teachers they met were able to rise above this pessimistic outlook, and exhibit great energy, creativity, and dedication to their work.

D. The Teaching of Asian Languages in the Tertiary Sector

As has been previously noted, specific policy initiatives have led to Asian languages having a special emphasis in LOTE education in Australia. These include the National Asian Languages and Studies in Australian Schools (NALSAS) strategy and the National Asian Languages and Studies in Schools Program (NALSSP). The four languages identified for emphasis in these two policies were Chinese, Indonesian, Japanese, and Korean.

Beginning in 2001, the Asian Studies Association of Australia (ASAA) has made funding available to study the status of Asian language education in tertiary institutions. The most recent study was conducted in 2010 (McLaren, 2011), and the 34 universities that offered Asian languages were asked to provide data on the equivalent full-time student load (EFTSL) for each of the Asian languages from 2008 to 2009. The results of this study are based on responses of 24 universities. In some cases, McLaren (2011) drew upon data from earlier ASAA reports to provide a clearer picture of the current situation concerning the study of Asian languages at the tertiary level in Australia. Data on five languages, Indonesian, Japanese, Korean, Arabic, and Chinese, are presented below.

(a) Indonesian

The study of Indonesian appears to be in a state of great decline. The trend noted in White and Baldauf's study (2006) has continued. In McLaren's study (2011), 18 universities in Australia had Indonesian language classes, and amongst the 24 institutions responding to her survey, there had been a 32% decline in equivalent full-time students units (EFTSUs) between 2001 and 2009. McLaren (2011) indicates that much of this decline can be attributed to the small numbers of students studying Indonesian in secondary schools. As Indonesia is of vital national interest to Australia, the continued decrease in the number of students studying

Indonesian has generated great concern in Australia.

(b) Japanese

According to McLaren (2011), Japanese was available for study at 27 universities in Australia in 2009. The overall picture seems to be constant. While some universities reported declines in enrollments, others had reported increases. Organizational changes that have allowed students extra points in university for language study in high school or non-arts faculties requiring or encouraging language study appear to have helped increase Japanese enrollments. Based on the data from the 24 universities that responded to her survey (McLaren, 2011), between 2001 and 2009 there was a 9.2% increase in EFTSUs for Japanese.

(c) Korean

When McLaren (2011) conducted her study in 2010, Korean was offered as a language of study in seven universities in Australia, and six of those institutions provided data on enrollments. Based on the results (McLaren, 2011), there was a 30.7% increase in EFTSUs for Korean between 2001 and 2009.

(d) Arabic

Although the number of Arabic programs in Australia was small at the time of McLaren's study (2011)—Arabic was being offered at five universities at the time, and the results on EFTSUs were based on only three institutions reporting—there had been a substantial growth in enrollments. Between 2001 and 2009, there was a 142% increase in EFTSUs (McLaren, 2011). McLaren (2011) noted that it was outside the scope of her study to determine if any of this increase might have been due to students of a Middle Eastern background wanting to undertake study of the language.

(e) Chinese

In her report *The Current State of Chinese Language Education in Australian Schools*, Orton provides the following summary:

At Year 12 nationally, a scant 3% of students take Chinese, more than 90% of whom are Chinese. Even in Victoria, where 33% of the country's Chinese learners reside, 94% of those who begin Chinese at school quit before Year 10; and beginners at university drop out at rates close to 75%. (Orton, 2008, p. 7)

McLaren (2011) noted 28 universities in Australia offer Chinese classes, and that enrollments in Chinese classes at the tertiary level are up overall since the early to mid 2000s. However, many of the students taking Chinese classes are international students who speak Chinese or are background speakers of the language. Twenty of the 24 universities that responded to McLaren's (2011) survey offer Chinese classes, and within these institutions there was a 35% growth in EFTSUs between 2001 and 2009.

If a significant number of students in a beginning Chinese class speak Chinese as their first language or are background speakers, teachers will be forced to cope with students of differing proficiency levels, and students who are true beginners may feel that they cannot keep up with their peers who have greater skill in the language (Nettelbeck et al., 2009). Some universities have made efforts to tailor courses to those differing groups of students: those that have Chinese as their L1, those who are background speakers, and those who are non-background speakers (McLaren, 2011).

Earlier policy initiatives in Australia encouraged the teaching of Asian languages in Australian schools, specifically Chinese, Indonesian, Japanese, and Korean. Since 2001, the Asian Studies Association of Australia has monitored the patterns of growth and decline in the study of Asian languages at tertiary institutions. In addition to the four languages previously mentioned, Arabic was also examined. Enrollments in Japanese have remained steady, and both Arabic and Korean have seen growth. Interest in the study of Indonesian has declined dramatically, prompting great concern in some sectors, given Australia's close proximity to

Indonesia. Chinese represents a very unique situation as many of the students in classes at the tertiary level are international students who have Chinese as their first language, or are background speakers of the language. There is concern that this type of classroom composition could put true beginners of Chinese at a disadvantage.

IV. Summary and Discussion

This paper has sought to provide an overview of foreign language education at the tertiary level in Australia. Several studies have been examined to show both the historical and policy background regarding LOTE education, and the current situation in tertiary institutions.

Since the 1960s, Australia has carried out a number of policy initiatives related to language education. While these policies have been ambitious, the results have been uneven, and in many cases disappointing. Moving forward, researchers and educators in language education have offered recommendations that need to be implemented to benefit Australian students in their studies and future careers, and that would also benefit Australia's economic and diplomatic interests. They have suggested that languages should be accorded higher status at all levels of education, and policies need to be fully supported and implemented (Liddicoat et al., 2007; White & Baldauf, 2006). There should be better cooperation between all levels of government in carrying out policy and curriculum recommendations at all levels of language education (Group of Eight, 2007; White & Baldauf, 2006). Well-developed language programs for students from primary school through Year 10 should be made available, and greater incentives for students to complete language study through Year 12 should be encouraged (Group of Eight, 2007), and it is particularly important to increase students' awareness of the benefits of language study (Group of Eight, 2007; Nettelbeck et al., 2007). As programs are

implemented, a nationwide, standardized database should be developed to allow for the collection of statistics related to all levels of language education (Nettelbeck et al., 2007; White & Baldauf, 2006).

The study of languages other than English at the university level in Australia has produced a specific set of challenges. While many of the difficulties reflect the problems evident at the primary and secondary levels of schooling, there are also unique challenges. Despite the fact that a large majority of Australian universities offer language classes to their students (Nettelbeck et al., 2007; White & Baldauf, 2006), only a small percentage of freshmen choose to study another language (Nettelbeck et al., 2007). Issues such as retention, classes composed of students of varying proficiency levels, inconsistent definitions on the number of hours necessary to achieve a particular level of proficiency, difficulties in organizing collaborative relationships with other universities to offer language classes, and the ever increasing numbers of part-time instructors employed to teach language classes are some of the problems that have been identified (Nettelbeck et al., 2007; Nettelbeck et al., 2009; Nettelbeck et al., 2012; White & Baldauf, 2006).

While the problems in language education at the university level in Australia are numerous, there are a number of optimistic observations that are worthy of note. Most universities continue to provide language classes for their students (Nettelbeck et al., 2007; White & Baldauf, 2006). While only small numbers of students choose to study a language, of those that do, most have professed an interest in studying the language more than one year (Nettelbeck et al., 2009). One of the greatest challenges lies in the area of staffing. As greater numbers of casual staff are employed to teach language classes, there is an impact on the teachers themselves and those that supervise them (Nettelbeck et al., 2012; White & Baldauf, 2006). Despite the great challenges language educators face in the classroom and within the greater university community and society, language educators have been described as exhibiting great dedication and commitment to

their work (Nettelbeck et al., 2007; Nettelbeck et al., 2012).

To address the concerns specific to the tertiary sector, several recommendations have been made by Australian educators and researchers in language education. Language classes at the tertiary level that address the needs of different types of learners should be offered (Nettelbeck et al., 2009), and financial support for programs to retain language learners at the tertiary level is needed (Group of Eight, 2007). In addition, policy and structural changes are needed to allow more universities to engage in collaboration as a way to provide more language education to more students (Group of Eight, 2007; White & Baldauf, 2006). Finally, a national task force on language education at the tertiary level needs to be created (Nettelbeck et al., 2007), and this is in the process of being realized. The Languages and Cultures Network for Australian Universities (LCNAU) was established in 2011 with the aim of promoting stronger language education in the tertiary sector and overall promotion of the importance of languages nationwide. LCNAU held its first colloquium in September of 2011 with the goal of formulating strategies to achieve the recommendations advocated in earlier studies and government reports, and developing a blueprint for carrying out these strategies. In 2012, the organization has funded research, responded to governmental policy statements related to language education, and published its first newsletter.

As Taiwan increases its engagement with Asia and the greater international community, there are many things that Taiwanese can learn from the Australian experience, especially in regards to efforts that can be made in tertiary educational institutions.

Taiwan is fortunate in that foreign language learning, specifically English, is emphasized throughout students' formal education, and this effort has broad community support. Students study English from Grade 3 and continue through the first year of university, with many tertiary institutions offering additional English courses after freshman year. This training serves students well after graduation as they are able to utilize

their English in the workplace or pursue graduate studies in universities abroad. However, unless students are majoring in a language or studying in a university that has a strong foreign language program, there are few opportunities to study another foreign language as a general education course, or as part of a degree program. Anecdotal evidence shows that similar to their Australian counterparts, Taiwanese students hope to travel abroad someday, and consider language skills useful when looking for a job. To increase student proficiency in other foreign languages, universities need to explore what languages would best meet the needs and interests of their students, and develop mechanisms to provide those languages. Interdisciplinary courses whereby students could earn a certificate would allow students to pursue language studies in conjunction with other coursework so that they would be more competitive candidates when looking for a job. Consortiums could also be established that would allow students to take advantage of language courses available at other universities. The establishment of these types of networks would allow universities to provide a greater range of language offerings for their students, and hopefully generate class sizes that would allow for the recruitment of full-time staff.

Universities in Taiwan have also been actively involved in internationalization. These efforts have taken a number of forms, such as recruitment of international students to study in degree programs, and greater numbers of student and faculty exchange programs. However, most programs assume that the participants will be using English or studying Chinese. There are very few other languages available for study. If such classes were offered, Taiwanese students could acquire a basic level of proficiency so that they would be familiar with the language spoken in the country they will travel to for the exchange program. The ability to communicate in the language of the host country would certainly enhance the exchange experience and promote greater intercultural understanding. Likewise, Taiwanese students have few opportunities to study the

languages of exchange students that come to Taiwan. Additional research would need to be undertaken to determine if Taiwanese students would be interested in taking basic foreign language classes to enable them to communicate with their international classmates.

As Taiwan aims to develop a multicultural perspective by encouraging students from overseas to study in Taiwan, many individuals in Asia and the west have recognized the importance of Chinese language skills for a number of economic, cultural, and political reasons. This has led to increased opportunities for Taiwanese graduates to teach Chinese abroad. Greater numbers of students are pursuing the qualification that would allow them to teach Chinese overseas. As part of their training, students should have the opportunity to study the language of the country where they might ultimately teach, and to learn more about the culture there. Universities with strong language programs are ideally suited to provide these language courses, or to train instructors to offer these courses through extension programs.

In recent years, Taiwan has also faced challenges as new citizens have been asked to assimilate into Taiwanese society. Most of these new citizens are wives of Taiwanese men, and over half come from China. But there are also a significant number of women from other Southeast Asian countries, including Vietnam (about 19%), Indonesia (6.1%), Thailand (2%), the Philippines (1.5%) and Cambodia (1%) (Lin, 2011). In addition, ten percent of all babies born in 2008 have mothers who were born in a foreign country (Bélanger, 2010). Initially, governmental programs were aimed at helping new immigrants master the local language and learn more about local culture and customs. Educational assistance was also provided once children entered school. These efforts have continued with the establishment of after-school enrichment programs in some school systems (Lin, 2012). However, governmental ministries like the Ministry of Education (MOE) have also challenged Taiwanese to learn more about the cultures of the new immigrants as a way of building a more vibrant

Taiwanese society in the future (Ministry of Education, 2006). University professors and researchers who have expertise in language education and bilingualism should be tapped to assist the MOE and other governmental agencies in working with new immigrants in setting up programs that would train teachers to offer language and culture courses at the community level that would be available for all individuals to participate in. As community interpretation develops in Taiwan, there will also be a need for more language offerings so that students can be qualified to serve as community interpreters.

V. Conclusion

Australia is a multilingual and culturally diverse nation that has often led in the areas of policy and curriculum initiatives promoting language education. In the twenty-first century, a declining interest in other languages and a lack of support for language education has put language education in a perilous position and the nation at risk in the areas of education, commerce, and diplomacy. However, in the face of monumental challenges, there are many educators and researchers who are committed to working towards promoting the value of language education and strengthening the provision of language education in Australia. Through the recently formed Languages and Cultures Network for Australian Universities, language educators and researchers have responded to the challenge of conducting and disseminating research on best practices in language education, especially at the tertiary level, and of making all Australians aware of the importance of language education in serving Australia's national interests.

Taiwan can learn from the Australian experience as Taiwanese universities engage more in internationalization and Taiwanese society begins to better embrace the many positive aspects that new immigrants

bring to Taiwan. Educators, especially in the university setting, should look to the Australian experience for suggestions that would help Taiwan to better develop programs that provide foreign language learning opportunities beyond the English classes students are required to take. This could foster the development of more linguistically diverse campuses better suited to internationalization and enable students to be better equipped to study overseas in exchange programs. University professors will also be called upon to play a vital role in training interpreters, translators, and community-based teachers working with new citizens in Taiwan. Through these efforts, Taiwanese will be able to create a more multicultural society.

Acknowledgements

The authors would like to express their thanks to Professor Jane Crawford, Senior Lecturer (retired), Queensland University of Technology for her comments on an earlier draft of this paper. The authors would like to thank the anonymous reviewers for their comments on the earlier drafts of this paper.

References

- Australian Bureau of Statistics. (2011). *Australian demographic statistics, Dec 2011* (Catalogue No. 3101.0). Retrieved from <http://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/abs@.nsf/mf/3101.0>
- Australian Government. (2008a). *Australian Indigenous cultural heritage*. Retrieved from <http://australia.gov.au/about-australia/australian-story/austn-indigenous-cultural-heritage>

- Australian Government. (2008b). *European discovery and the colonisation of Australia*. Retrieved from <http://australia.gov.au/about-australia/australian-story/european-discovery-and-colonisation>
- Australian Government. (2010). *Convicts and the British colonies in Australia*. Retrieved from <http://australia.gov.au/about-australia/australian-story/convicts-and-the-british-colonies>
- Australian Government Department of Immigration and Citizenship. (2011). *Fact sheet 4—More than 60 years of post-war migration*. Retrieved from <http://www.immi.gov.au/media/fact-sheets/04fifty.htm>
- Australian Government Department of Immigration and Citizenship. (2012). *Fact sheet 2—Key facts about immigration*. Retrieved from <http://www.immi.gov.au/media/fact-sheets/02key.htm>
- Australian Institute of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Studies and the Federation of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Languages. (2005). *National Indigenous languages survey report 2005*. Canberra, Australia: Department of Communications, Information Technology and the Arts. Retrieved from <http://www.arts.gov.au/sites/default/files/pdfs/nils-report-2005.pdf>
- Bélangier, D. (2010). Marriages with foreign women in East Asia: Bride trafficking or voluntary migration? *Population & Societies*, 469, 1-4. Retrieved from http://www.ined.fr/fichier/t_publication/1510/publi_pdf2_pesa469.pdf
- Erebus Consulting Partners. (2002). *Evaluation of the national Asian languages and studies in Australian schools strategy*. Australian Department of Education, Science and Training. Retrieved from <http://www1.curriculum.edu.au/nalsas/pdf/evaluation.pdf>
- Graddol, D. (2006). *English next: Why global English may mean the end of 'English as a foreign language'*. United Kingdom: British Council. Retrieved from <http://www.britishcouncil.org/learning-research-english-next.pdf>

- Group of Eight (2007). *Languages in crisis: A rescue plan for Australia*. Retrieved from http://www.lcnau.org/pdfs/Go8_Languages_in_Crisis_Discussion_Paper.pdf
- Hajek, J., Nettelbeck, J., & Woods, A. (2011, April). *New network for universities. Asian currents*. Retrieved from <http://asaa.asn.au/publications/ac/2011/asian-currents-11-04.pdf>
- Henderson, D. (2007). A strategy cut-short: The NALSAS strategy for Asian languages in Australia. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*, 4, Suppl. 1, 4-22. Retrieved from <http://e-flt.nus.edu.sg/>
- Høj, P. (2010). Can we afford to be without multilingualism? A scientist's lay perspective. *Humanities Australia*, 1, 44-53. Retrieved from <http://www.lcnau.org/pdfs/Triebel2009.pdf>
- Liddicoat, A. J., Scarino, A., Curnow, T. J., Kohler, M., Scrimgeour, A., & Morgan, A.-M. (2007). *An investigation of the state and nature of languages in Australian schools*. Research Centre for Languages and Cultures Education, University of South Australia. Canberra, Australia: Report for the Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations.
- Lin, C. J. (2012, March 19). Government to set up foreign spouse fund: Interior minister. *Central News Agency, Focus Taiwan*. Retrieved from <http://focus-taiwan.tw/>
- Lin, H. C. (2011, February). Chinese New Year for immigrant brides in Taiwan. *Panorama*, 36(2), 29. Retrieved from <http://www.sinorama.com.tw/en/>
- Lo Bianco, J. (2003). *A site for debate, negotiation and contest of national identity: Language policy in Australia*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe. Retrieved from <http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/linguistic/Source/LoBiancoEn.pdf>
- Lo Bianco, J. (2009). *Second languages and Australian schooling*. Victoria, Australia: Australian Council for Educational Research.

- Retrieved from http://www.acer.edu.au/documents/AER_54-SecondLanguagesAndAustralianSchooling.pdf
- McLaren, A. (2011). *Asian languages enrollments in Australian higher education 2008-9*. Retrieved from <http://asaa.asn.au/publications/Reports/Asian%20Languages%20Enrolments%20Report%20Feb%202011.pdf>
- Ministry of Education. (2006). *Welcoming a new century of diverse cultures and peoples*. Retrieved from <http://english.moe.gov.tw/ct.asp?xItem=7021&ctNode=506&mp=2>
- Nakahara, M., & Black, P. (2007). How I survived as an overseas teacher of Japanese in Australia. *Australian Review of Applied Linguistics*, 30(1), 6.1-6.17. Retrieved from <http://www.nla.gov.au/openpublish/index.php/ara/article/view/File/1939/2322>
- Nettelbeck, C., Byron, J., Clyne, M., Dunne, K., Hajek, J., Levy, M., & Wigglesworth, G. (2009). *An Analysis of retention strategies and technology enhanced learning in beginners' languages other than english (LOTE) at Australian Universities*. Canberra: Australian Academy of the Humanities. Retrieved from <http://www.lcnau.org/pdfs/BeginnersRetentionLASP2.pdf>
- Nettelbeck, C., Byron, J., Clyne, M., Hajek, J., Lo Bianco, J., & McLaren, A. (2007). *Beginners' LOTE (Languages Other than English) in Australian universities: An audit survey and analysis*. Canberra: Australian Academy of the Humanities. Retrieved from <http://www.lcnau.org/pdfs/BeginnersLOTEAudit.pdf>
- Nettelbeck, C., Hajek, J., & Woods, A. (2012). Re-professionalizing the profession: Countering juniorization and casualization in the tertiary languages sector. *Local-Global Journal*, 60-75. Retrieved from <http://mams.rmit.edu.au/7jji8h6gy6on.pdf>
- Orton, J. (2008). *The current state of Chinese language education in Australian schools*. Retrieved from http://www.asiaeducation.edu.au/verve/_resources/ChinaReport.pdf

- Slaughter, Y. (2009). Money and policy make languages go round: Language programs in Australia after NALSAS. *Babel*, 43(2), 4-11.
- White, P., & Baldauf, R. B. Jr. (2006). *Re-examining Australia's tertiary language programs: A five year retrospective on teaching and collaboration*. Retrieved from <http://altcfellowship.murdoch.edu.au/Docs/whitebaldaufreport2006.pdf>

