

CLTA 2012 Survey of College-Level Chinese Language Programs in North America

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Abstract This article reports on a survey sponsored and conducted by CLTA in 2012, the 50th anniversary of the association. Compared with four previous surveys published in *JCLTA*, the current survey elicited the largest number of respondents (N=216) with a high response rate, and yielded the largest set of data. This survey also asked many more questions (mandatory questions=60), covering a much wider range of topics, including institutional types, curriculum structure, staffing issues, student demographics, teaching materials, pedagogical practice, assessment methods, and emerging pedagogical concerns such as study abroad and the use of technology. In addition to the presentation of raw data and observed patterns, some analyses are also attempted and implications discussed.

Keywords: Survey, Chinese language programs, CLTA

摘要 中文教师学会为纪念成立五十周年于2012年进行了一次问卷调查, 本文为该调查的综合报告。与《中文教师学会学报》曾发表过的四个调查报告相比, 本次调查参与人数最多(216人), 反馈率高, 收集到的资料最多, 问题数目也大大多于前几次(必答问题有60个), 问卷涵盖的内容广泛, 包括学校类型、课程结构、师资情况、学生构成、教材、教学实践、评估方法、以及诸如海外学习及电脑科技应用等近年来出现的新问题。本文除提供原始数据资料及讨论数据所呈现的规律和模式以外, 也试图进行一些分析, 并初步探讨本次调查结果对中文领域今后发展的一些启示。

关键词: 问卷调查、中文项目、中文教师学会

1. Introduction

2012 marked the 50th anniversary of the Chinese Language Teachers' Association (CLTA). As part of the anniversary celebration, the October issue of this journal (Vol. 47-3) featured a number of articles on the state of our field from

various perspectives such as history of the field (Light, 2012), field building (Wang, 2012), national standards (Everson, 2012), and empirical research (Ke, 2012). What would have been *apropos* would be the inclusion of an updated survey of the field as well. Moreover, at a time when interest in the Chinese language is enjoying an unprecedented upsurge, a survey of this nature will be extremely well timed. Such a survey however had only just gotten underway at that time. A year later now, we are happy to report that the project has been completed and the results were disseminated at the annual CLTA conference in Orlando, Florida in November 2013. The present paper represents a more in-depth report and an analysis of the results.

1.1. Why survey?

With a steady stream of surveys coming our way seemingly every day, a natural reaction to a proposed survey is “why another one”? It would not be an overstatement to say that quite enough of us are already suffering from an acute case of “survey fatigue”. Surveys demand precious time away from our busy lives; they are also never straightforward to fill out: guess-work, uncertain and incomplete answers seem to be part and parcel of completing any survey.

But however onerous, conducting surveys has to be one of the better ways to obtain a more objective picture than the one based on our limited experiences. For example, how many of us can confidently answer the following questions?

- How “hot” is Chinese now?
- How is Chinese ranked in enrollment among all foreign languages?
- How many Chinese majors are there in North America?
- How are Chinese language courses staffed?

Just the very first question is by no means easy to answer. Although the 2009 Modern Language Association (MLA) enrollment survey (Furman, Goldberg, & Lustin, 2010) showed an unmistakable continuous upward trend up till then, a recent mini-survey conducted by Xie (personal communication) may give one pause. Of the 14 University of California and California State University campuses surveyed, only 2 showed increase in enrollment while 10 showed decrease (2 showed no change). While the sampling may not have been representative and the situation in California may not be representative of the country as a whole, the fact that California enrollment accounts for as much as one fifth of the national enrollment (12,000 out of 60, 000 in 2009) may not allow us to simply dismiss it as a fluke. Anecdotal evidence reporting the decrease in Chinese enrollment in other states has been heard through the grapevine as well. Needless

to say, a more up-to-date MLA-type enrollment survey (which the present survey is not) is the only way to gauge the current temperature of the so-called “China craze”. As for the second question concerning the ranking of Chinese, it has been customary to compare Chinese with Japanese. Despite the decline of Japan in recent years, the same MLA survey from 2009 still showed Japanese ahead of Chinese in enrollment. Whether the situation has changed in the last few years can only be answered with any certainty by another MLA-type survey comparing the enrollment of different languages. As for the third question, the number of Chinese majors should be indicative of the status of the Chinese language, whatever impression one gets from the media-hype. One needs to “put money where one’s mouth is”, so to speak. Though rarely asked, this question is included in the present survey. The last question about staffing, which may cause uneasiness, nonetheless may be indicative of the relative importance accorded to language courses. Although by no means unique to Chinese, foreign language courses may have been playing second fiddle to content courses. The present survey provides empirical confirmation of this intuition.

1.2. A Survey of Surveys

To better contextualize the present survey, we may do well to look at previous surveys, for both Chinese in particular and foreign languages in general.

MLA Enrollment Surveys

Since 1958, MLA has been conducting periodic surveys on foreign language enrollment (22 in all) in colleges and universities. In addition to enrollment figures, the ranking of enrollment of different languages is also provided. While these surveys are national in scope, they nonetheless are only limited to enrollment.

Center for Applied Linguistics Surveys

The Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL) conducts a national survey on K-12 foreign language instruction every ten years. Targeting a different level from the MLA surveys, the CAL surveys are expected to yield different results. Indeed, according to its 2010 report (Rhodes & Pufahl, 2010), unlike what the 2009 MLA survey showed, the number of Chinese programs has overtaken Japanese in both elementary schools (Chinese=3%, up from 0.3%; Japanese=1%, down from 3%) and secondary schools (Chinese=4%, up from 1%; Japanese=3%, down from 7%). This may well have repercussions down the pipeline for college-level enrollment in the future. Unlike the MLA surveys, the CAL surveys also delve into pedagogical issues.

Surveys Published in JCLTA

Many surveys have been and are being conducted on various aspects of Chinese language instruction. We will only examine the ones published in *JCLTA*. Since 1966, when the journal started, four previous surveys have been published, as summarized below:

Year	Investigator(s)	#Sent	#Returned	#Questions	Focus	Level
1968	Willbern, G.	160	40	20	Employment	K9-16
1985	Dien, A.	122 88	88 50	12	Pedagogy Attrition	College
1989	Wang, G.	80	45	10	Pedagogy	College
2001	Ke et al.	700	122	10	Articulation	K-16

Table 1.1. Previous surveys published in *JCLTA*

a). *Willbern (1968)*. The first survey published in *JCLTA* is unusual in many aspects. To ensure greater objectivity, Glen Willbern at MLA was enlisted to conduct the survey on behalf of CLTA. It is also noteworthy for its unusual focus. Unlike most subsequent surveys that focused on pedagogical issues, this survey focused on staffing and personnel issues such as educational background, teaching load, salary, and prospects for tenure. There was even suggestion that the survey data be presented to school administrators to improve the professional status of Chinese language teachers. Questions like salary and tenure will be un-thinkable in today's PC-sensitive climate. Sadly absent in later surveys, this unusual survey shows the Association's concern with members' welfare in those nascent days of our field. Unlike later surveys, this survey also included k-12 levels, reflecting the fact that CLASS (Chinese Language Association of Secondary-Elementary Schools) still did not exist at that time. This survey also had the most questions of the four *JCLTA* surveys (=20).

b). *Dien (1985)*. Conducted by Albert Dien of Stanford University who was an officer of CLTA in the early days of the association, this survey had two phases,

the second phase following up on the first one with questions on attrition, which are remarkably similar to today's patterns. Interestingly, even back then, "survey fatigue" was noted. Questions on summer school and study-abroad was also included. This survey is the second largest in terms of the number of responses (N=88 (first phase); N=50 (second phase)).

c). *Wang (1989)*. This 10 question, 45 university survey was conducted by George Wang of George Washington University. It covered areas of pedagogy such as types of textbooks, number of contact hours, frequency of tests, relative emphasis of the four skills and timing of the introduction of characters, essay-writing and newspaper reading.

d). *Ke, Wen, and Kottenbeutel (2001)*. With the largest number of responses (N=122) up till then, this 10 question survey targeted articulation between K-12 and college levels at a time when Chinese language education in the US was undergoing a rapid transformation. The study reviewed areas of strengths and weaknesses in Chinese programs across different instructional settings, and identified four areas where articulation would play a significant role, i.e., development of curriculum guidelines, standards-based assessment of learning outcomes, teacher training and communications, and instructional innovations.

1.3. Why another survey

The answer to the question of why conduct another survey is obvious: to keep up with the rapidly changing times. These are indeed heady times for CFL, with the largest enrollment ever, an explosion of resources and all sorts of development projects underway. The following are but a few of the new trends that one has to take note:

Greater student diversity. It used to be the case that Chinese classes were populated by mainly two kinds of students, heritage students and non-minority students. This is no longer true. An increasingly complex ethnic mosaic can be seen in our classrooms these days. In the California institution where one of us teaches, for example, his classes are attended by Southeast Asians, Filipinos, Hispanics, Middle-Easterners, and African-Americans, not to mention international students from Asia and Europe and those from China itself. Such demographic change obviously requires pedagogical accommodation.

Greater role of study abroad. Along with the rise of China's economic and political power, more and more students are spending more time studying Chinese abroad. Summer programs have mushroomed. The scale of such programs and their impact on curriculum and learning outcomes, as well as on mode of learning obviously merit serious investigation.

Impact of technology. There is no question that technology has had a huge impact on the teaching and learning of languages. There is really no need to go into cutting-edge technology such as virtual learning or the latest trend such as using mobile devices for language teaching. Three examples that should be considered low-tech by now suffice to show the great impact of technology: PPT, e-text, and the typing of characters. The ubiquitous PPT has enabled brisker presentation of greater amount of information and more lively incorporation of multi-media. E-text has drastically simplified dictionary-lookup, not to mention the potential for audio enrichment. The possibility to type instead of hand-write characters has to be considered a game-changer. Previously important issues for hand-writing characters such as the number, order and direction of strokes and the difference between simplified and traditional characters are no longer as important. The ability to type Chinese should not be regarded any less than the fifth skill.

1.4. How is the present survey different?

Larger sample. Compared with the previous surveys published in JCLTA, the present survey has the most responses (N=216). This almost doubled the survey by Ke *et al.* (2001), which was by then the largest (N=122).

More questions. Compared with previous surveys, the present survey has the most questions (60 obligatory ones), which has more than tripled the largest of the previous four surveys.

Wider scope. Unlike the previous surveys, which had narrower foci, the present survey spans many more areas and addresses many more less-commonly raised programmatic issues which are nonetheless important for Chinese language education, to wit:

a). *Institutional environment:* the larger environment in which a Chinese program is situated may affect its development. Some of the parameters include: type of institution (public vs. private; university vs. liberal arts college); school policies such as language requirement; the kind of China-related non-language degrees and courses offered.

b). *Staffing issues:* Like the first survey published in *JCLTA* (Willbern, 1968), the present survey has included some rarely raised questions about staffing and personnel, such as the hiring trends, rank of teachers, and teaching load/assignment for teachers at different ranks. Unlike Willbern (1968), however, questions about teacher benefit and tenure prospects are not included, for understandable reasons.

c). *Emerging pedagogical concerns:* Reflecting the changing times, the present survey cannot help but address issues that have come to the fore in recent

years, such as the setting and assessment of learning outcomes, technology use and training, as well as the impact of study-abroad programs.

1.5. Limitations of the present survey

While it is more detailed and broader in scope, it is still appropriate to acknowledge some of the inevitable limitations of the present survey.

First of all, the responding institutions include two-year community colleges whose curricula and instructional infrastructures may well be different from those of four-year colleges. Thus sample homogeneity may be compromised, which may or may not be a serious concern, given the survey nature of the present study.

Secondly, while the present survey is relatively broad in scope, lacunae are bound to be found due to oversight and logistic challenges. For instance, a question that could have been asked is one on typing characters. As mentioned earlier, it may be hard to over-estimate the impact of typing Chinese, not only on the learning of Chinese, but also on the use of characters by the general Chinese populace. As teacher training is becoming increasingly more urgent, questions about professional development opportunities would have been appropriate. It would also have been timely to ask questions about the impact of Confucius Institutes that have been sprouting up all over the world (Li & Tucker 2013).

Finally, there are questions that are hard to investigate at this point but should be a desideratum for future surveys. For example, as suggested by a member of the audience at the CLTA panel where we first reported on the survey, it would have been desirable to have questions that track the career trajectories of Chinese majors after they graduate from college.

1. Overview

Timeframe. The survey began on October 12, 2012 and concluded on October 31, 2012, collecting data for the 2011-12 academic year. This means that the information would be at least two and a half years old by the time you are reading this report. Such a timeframe is reasonable given the large scale of this study.

Response rate. Response rate to the survey was 31%. Invitations for participation were sent out to coordinators of Chinese language programs or department chairs of 689 higher education institutions in the United States and Canada.¹ One

¹ The US institutions were those identified as offering Chinese language courses by the MLA 2009 enrollment survey (Furman et al., 2010). The Canadian institutions were manually identified based on information from

and only one invitation was sent to a given institution to make sure that each institution is represented no more than once in the data collected. 216 responded and submitted their data online. Of these respondents, 203 were American institutions, and 13 were in Canada. 157 completed all questions, constituting 73% of all who responded and 23% of those who received an invitation. Incomplete surveys (with complete answers to some questions) are included in the data analysis whenever possible.

Institution types. Respondents to the survey represented a full range of institutions. The 216 participants consisted of 78 (36%) public research universities, 46 (21%) private liberal arts colleges, 35 (16%) community colleges, 23 (11%) private research universities, 19 (9%) public liberal-arts colleges, and 15 (7%) institutions of unspecified types.²

Survey topics. The survey prioritized breadth over depth. It contained questions on curriculum structure, instructors, students, teaching materials, pedagogy, assessment, study abroad, and the use of technology.

3. Curriculum Structure

3.1. Institutional requirement of foreign language study

Requirements of foreign language study vary substantially among institutions. It is a policy commonly adopted by North American colleges and universities that full-time undergraduate students complete a number of courses in a foreign language in order to fulfill degree requirement. The great majority (about 80%) of the respondents reported having this type of requirement at their institutions. The specific length of foreign language study, however, showed considerable variation. As seen in Figure 3.1, the majority ranged between 2-4 semesters or 3-6 quarters, but the distribution is almost evenly split between the two ends of these ranges for both semester-based and quarter-based schools – those that required two semesters of foreign language study were almost as many as those requiring four; likewise, comparable numbers of institutions required three vs. six quarters.

institutional web portals and lists of Canadian colleges and universities on Wikipedia:

en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_colleges_in_Canada, en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_universities_in_Canada.

² Respondents chose from these options: “public research university,” “private research university,” “public liberal arts college,” “private liberal arts college,” “community college,” and “other.” Verbal responses indicated that the “other” category consisted of 2 public teaching universities, 2 private Catholic universities, 2 military institutions, 1 public research and liberal arts university, 1 public comprehensive master’s-degree-granting institution, 1 public university, 1 private liberal arts university, 1 private comprehensive university, 1 private business university, 1 private career college, and 2 unknown institutions (no sensible verbal responses given).

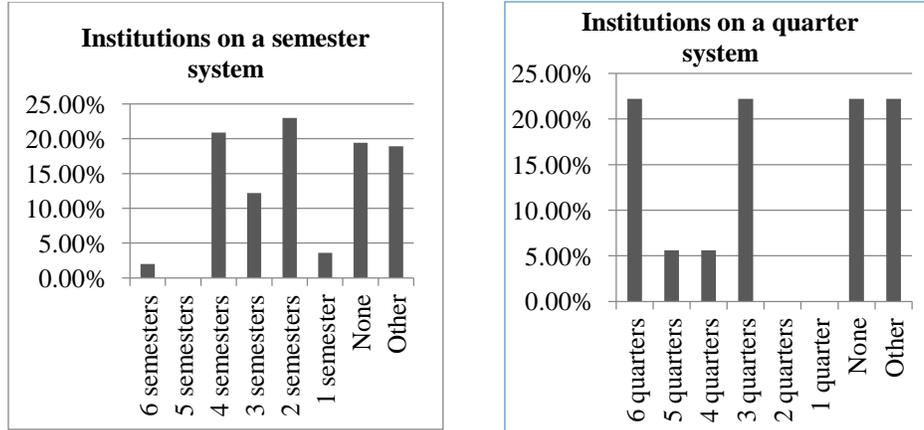


Figure 3.1 Required length of foreign language study

Variation in length of foreign language requirement appeared to align with institution types. The following table provides an overview of data from respondents on a semester system.³

	Other	Length of required foreign language study (semester)						Total
		6	4	3	2	1	0	
Other	5; 41.7	1; 8.3	1; 8.3	1; 8.3	2; 16.7	0; 0.0	2; 16.7	12; 100.0
Public research university	15; 20.3	1; 1.4	24 ; 32.4	8; 10.8	15; 20.3	3; 4.1	8; 10.8	74; 100.0
Private research university	3; 14.3	1; 4.8	3; 14.3	3; 14.3	7 ; 33.3	0; 0.0	4; 19.0	21; 100.0
Public liberal arts college	3; 16.7	0; 0.0	3; 16.7	3; 16.7	4; 22.2	0; 0.0	5 ; 27.8	18; 100.0
Private liberal arts college	4; 9.8	1; 2.4	6; 14.6	7; 17.1	12 ; 29.3	2; 4.9	9; 22.0	41; 100.0
Community college	7; 23.3	0; 0.0	4; 13.3	2; 6.7	5; 16.7	2; 6.7	10 ; 33.3	30; 100.0
Total	37; 18.9	4; 2.0	41; 20.9	24; 12.2	45; 23.0	7; 3.6	38; 19.4	196; 100.0

Table 3.1 Length of foreign language requirement by type of institution (count; percentage)

³ Because there was no easy way to converge data from these two types of institutions, and the number of schools on the quarter system was very small (10 out of 216), when it was necessary to make a choice, we chose to focus on institutions on a semester system.

The single largest category (in bold) differed by type of institution: for public research universities, it was 4 semesters; private research universities and private liberal arts colleges, 2 semesters; public liberal arts colleges and community colleges, none.

More specifically, variation in length had to do with whether the institutions were universities or liberal arts colleges. Here, **universities** included public and private research universities, and **liberal arts colleges** consisted of public and private ones. Community colleges were excluded from this comparison, because they typically had two-year undergraduate programs. Analysis of the survey data revealed that universities required a significantly longer period of foreign language study than liberal arts colleges. The mean length of foreign language requirement by universities was 2.60 semesters, longer than the 2.04 semesters for liberal arts colleges, and this difference was statistically significant (sig. (2-tailed) = .04).

No significant difference was found between public versus private institutions in the length of foreign language requirement. Here **public institutions** included public research universities and public liberal arts colleges, and **private institutions** consisted of private research universities and private liberal arts colleges. Community colleges in the U.S. were typically publically funded, but again because they were mostly two-year institutions, they were excluded from this comparison. The mean length of required foreign-language study was higher in public than in private institutions (Public Mean = 2.54, Private Mean = 2.15). However, this difference was not statistically significant (sig. (2-tailed) = .15).

Did the disparity in foreign language requirement at the institutional level have any impact on the structure of Chinese language curriculum? In particular, did a longer requirement contribute to a more robust enrollment for higher-level courses? Statistical data from the survey may not be able to reveal any *causal* relationship between these factors. However, there was clearly a correlation between longer foreign language requirements and higher ratios of second-to-first-year enrollment. A total of 110 institutions on the semester system offered two or more years of foreign language courses. Among them, 56 required only one or two semesters of foreign language study. These institutions had a mean enrollment ratio of 0.48. That is, in the same academic year (2011-12), their average enrollment size of second-year Chinese language courses was about 48% of first year. In comparison, this percentage increased to 62% for institutions requiring three or more semesters of foreign language study. This difference was statistically significant (sig. (2-tailed) = .003).

In sum, institutions varied in the length of foreign language study they re-

quired of full-time undergraduate students. Universities had a significantly longer requirement than liberal arts colleges. For Chinese programs that offered multiple years of language courses, foreign language requirements longer than one year correlated with higher second-to-first year enrollment ratios.

3.2. Language study and Chinese degree requirements

How mature was the field of Chinese language and culture studies overall in North America? How much did Chinese language instruction contribute to the building of this field? It might be useful to approach these questions by looking at the composition of Chinese degrees currently offered, and the required proficiency level of Chinese language study toward such degrees.

The term “Chinese degree” encompassed a variety of academic credentials. The survey adopted “Chinese studies” and “Chinese language” as two main categories, acknowledging the distinction between them. However, verbal answers from 22 respondents suggested that a degree in “Chinese” was more varied than what these two terms could possibly accommodate. It could be a stand-alone degree in “Chinese language and literature,” or a degree in conjunction with a professional field such as in “Chinese and international trade” or through an umbrella discipline, most commonly “East Asian studies” or “Asian studies.”

Institutions that granted graduate degrees in the field accounted for only a small percentage of the respondents: 19% for MA (40), and 13% for PhD (27). It would be fair to say that most of the post-secondary teaching and learning of Chinese language took place at the undergraduate level.

If we considered having an undergraduate major in Chinese the benchmark for a mature college-level program, then the great majority of Chinese programs were still at a developing stage. A breakdown of programs offering undergraduate majors, minors, concentrations or certificates in Chinese is given in Figure 3.2 below, the percentages based on answers from 212 respondents. Only about one third (35%) offered majors in Chinese, and about half (52%) had minors. Relatively small percentages of institutions offered Chinese concentrations (20%) and certificates (8%). Overall, a minor in Chinese appeared to be the predominant form of academic credential.

When it came to the focus of Chinese minors, there was some preference for “Chinese language” (38%) over “Chinese studies” (28%), a bias that also seemed to exist for concentrations and certificates.

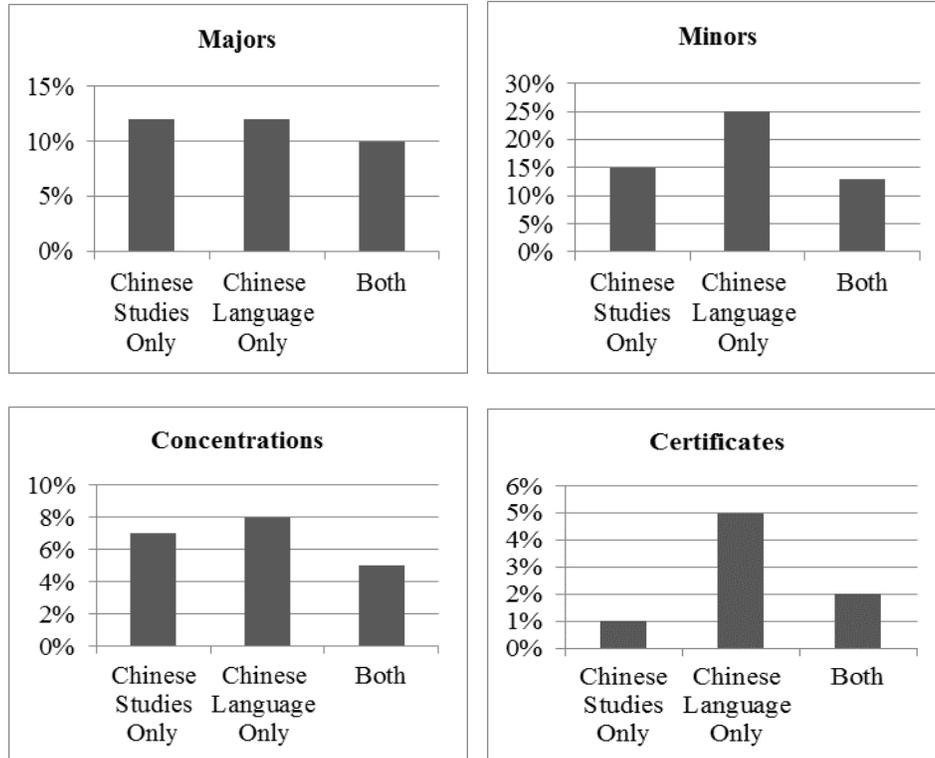


Figure 3.2 Chinese programs offering undergraduate credentials

In terms of the length of language study required to fulfill degree requirements in Chinese, on one hand, there was a great deal of variation among institutions; on the other hand, a clear pattern also surfaced. As shown in Table 3.2, the single largest category for Chinese majors was “4 years,” with a combined count (percentage) of 54 (56%) for both Chinese studies and Chinese language. However, a significant number (21, 22%) of institutions only required 3 years. For minors in Chinese, the length of language study required reduced to 2-3 years in most cases. When it came to concentrations and certificates, the predominant category was consistently “2 years”: 47% (34 of 73 concentrations and certificates) required two years, followed by 23% (17 of 73) for three years.⁴

⁴ Concentrations were more varied than certificates in this respect, showing a significant number even in the “4 years” category. Respondents’ verbal feedback revealed that a number of institutions considered “concentration” a form of “major” – for instance, a student could major in East Asian Studies with a concentration in

What was also interesting was that Chinese “language” minors and majors seemed to have slightly more stringent requirement than Chinese studies on the length of language study. 49% (39) of Chinese language minors required three years, while 33% (19) of minors in Chinese studies required the same length of language study. In contrast, 31% (25) of Chinese language minors required a shorter term of two years, while 38% (22) of Chinese studies minors had the same requirement. This difference was observable for majors as well, with a greater percentage in the “4 years” category for Chinese language majors than for majors in Chinese studies.

Which of the following undergraduate degrees or certificates does your program offer? How many years of Chinese language study does your program require for the ones offered?							
Answer Options	Not Offered	1 yr	2 yrs	3 yrs	4 yrs	5 yrs	Response Count
Chinese Studies Major	116	1	8	14	23	2	164
Chinese Language Major	115	1	6	7	31	3	163
Chinese Studies Minor	101	10	22	19	6	1	159
Chinese Language Minor	88	5	25	39	10	1	168
Chinese Studies Concentration	117	2	10	6	6	1	142
Chinese Language Concentration	112	0	13	8	5	2	140
Chinese Studies Certificate	128	2	3	0	0	1	134
Chinese Language Certificate	124	2	8	3	0	1	138
<i>answered question</i>							212
<i>skipped question</i>							4

Table 3.2 Length of Chinese language study required

Did the length of required language study for Chinese majors have to do with the types of the institutions? Further analysis of the above data revealed no significant difference between public vs. private institutions for either the Chinese studies major or the Chinese language major. When comparing universities vs. liberal arts colleges, however, a difference emerged for Chinese studies major. The length of Chinese language study at universities (Mean = 1.49 year) was sig-

Chinese – and thus blurred the distinction between the two. This might explain the significant number of “4 years” responses in the “concentration” category. For most of the respondents, however, “concentration” represented a credential comparable to “certificate.”

nificantly greater (sig. (2-tailed) = .000) than at liberal arts colleges (Mean = 0.55 year). For Chinese language major, universities also had a longer required length of language study (Mean = 1.22 year) than liberal arts colleges (Mean = 0.88 year) (sig. (2-tailed) = .589).

3.3. Language and non-language course offerings

Respondents were asked to provide information about five major types of modern Chinese language courses their institutions offer: (1) Chinese for non-heritage students, (2) Chinese for heritage students with background in Mandarin, (3) Chinese for heritage students with background in Cantonese, (4) Chinese open to both non-heritage and heritage students, and (5) intensive Chinese. The most common types of Chinese language courses, based on percentages offered, were mixed courses for both heritage and non-heritage learners (offered by 70.5% of the respondents), and courses for non-heritage learners only (61.4%). About one-third (30.9% for non-heritage, and 33.9% for mixed) of the programs offered these courses up to the 3rd or the 4th year. Furthermore, less than 10% (5.7% for non-heritage, and 7.2% for mixed) extended their Chinese language curricula to the 5th or the 6th year. With more and more students entering college having studied Chinese in or before high school, courses offered at the higher end are expected to continue growing.

In comparison, courses targeting heritage learners alone were less commonly offered – less than a quarter (23.7%) of the respondents reported having courses tailored to heritage students with background in Mandarin, and roughly half as many (10.6%) provided heritage speakers of Cantonese with specialized Mandarin language courses. Unlike courses for mixed or non-heritage learners, most of these courses were limited to the first two years of the curricula, and only about 30% offered up to the 3rd or the 4th year. Verbal feedback from respondents suggested one potential explanation for the larger portion on the lower end: It was often the case that heritage and non-heritage learners were in separate classes at the lower levels, but were merged into the same classes in the 3rd or 4th years.

Definitions for “intensive courses” appeared rather varied. About one-fifth (42, 20.3%) of the respondents reported having them at their institutions. Based on their verbal responses, however, 16 (38%) out of the 42 only did so in the summer. Among the remaining 26, some of them considered their courses for heritage learners intensive. For these reasons, the actual percentage of programs offering intensive Chinese for non-heritage learners during regular semesters was substantially lower than the reported 20.3%.

A great deal of variation existed among institutions in the number of weekly contact hours for non-heritage or mixed courses. As shown in Table 3.3, the

overall trend was that the higher the level, the fewer weekly contact hours the courses required. First- and second-year courses mostly ranged from three to five hours per week, with four hours being the single largest category at both levels. The second largest category for first year was five hours, yet for the second year shifted down to three. When it reached the 3rd and the 4th years, the predominant category was three hours a week. The variation among institutions was across the board for at least 1st-year non-heritage or mixed courses: there was no statistically significant difference between public vs. private institutions, or between universities vs. colleges (including community colleges) in their mean weekly contact hours.

How many weekly contact hours do your Chinese language courses for non-heritage speakers (and heritage speakers, if separate courses are not offered) require for each year?									
Answer Options	Course not Offered	2 hrs	3 hrs	4 hrs	5 hrs	6 hrs	7 hrs	8 hrs	Response Count
1st year:	9	1	48	71	61	7	4	6	207
2nd year:	20	1	59	60	44	7	2	4	197
3rd year:	48	1	74	30	13	1	0	2	169
4th year:	65	1	65	9	5	1	0	2	148
5th year:	83	1	15	2	1	0	0	1	103
6th year:	86	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	89
<i>answered question</i>									207
<i>skipped question</i>									9

Table 3.3 Weekly contact hours for non-heritage or mixed courses

Most of the courses outside of the modern Chinese language sequences were taught in English. As shown in Table 3.4, this was true for the top six types of most commonly offered non-language courses: Chinese culture, Chinese literature, Chinese history, Chinese society, Chinese film and media, and Chinese religion. Among the less commonly taught courses, three of them were more often offered in Chinese than in English: Business Chinese, Classical Chinese, and Newspaper Chinese. One could argue that these were essentially language courses. Courses on Chinese visual art and music were almost always in English. Legal Chinese was rare. Only six out of 162 respondents reported offering it. Four of them were taught in Chinese, while the remaining two in English.

Course Type	% institutions	Taught in English	Taught in Chinese
Chinese Culture	69%	81%	19%
Chinese Literature	59%	66%	34%
Chinese History	54%	90%	10%
Chinese Society	53%	80%	20%
Chinese Film and Media	51%	79%	21%
Chinese Religion	44%	93%	7%
Chinese Visual Art	34%	91%	9%
Business Chinese	33%	15%	85%
Classical Chinese	33%	40%	60%
Chinese Linguistics	24%	61%	39%
Newspaper Chinese	18%	3%	97%
Chinese Music	17%	78%	22%
Legal Chinese	4%	33.3%	66.7%

Table 3.4 Non-language courses and the languages in which they are taught

4. Instructors and Students

4.1. How are Chinese language courses staffed?

At the higher-education level, instructor ranks include a variety of categories such as part- and full-time lecturers, graduate teaching assistants (GTAs), and professors. Table 4.1 shows the number of instructors engaged in Chinese language teaching and reveals three distinctive characteristics. First, the majority of Chinese language courses were taught by part- and full-time lecturers and GTAs. Second, there was on average less than one GTA (.80 per institution) in each responding institution. GTAs exist only in large universities that offer graduate programs in Asian Studies or related fields in liberal arts and social sciences. Third, undergraduate peer tutoring was popular on many campuses. There was an average of 1.08 peer tutors at each of 148 responding institutions.

The distribution of Chinese language instruction among tenured/tenure-track professors was generally balanced. Assistant professors (.43 per institution) taught slightly more language courses than full and associate professors (.36 and .33 per institution respectively). Therefore, the data suggested that assistant professor positions were often created to meet the increasing enrollment demand for language courses.

Types of instructors	Average number	# of positions	# of responding institutions
Part-time lecturers	1.24	209	169
Full-time lecturers	.86	144	168
Graduate TAs	.80	122	152
Assistant professors	.43	70	163
Full professors	.36	60	169
Associate professors	.33	53	163
Undergrad peer tutors	1.08	160	148

Table 4.1 Academic rank of instructors engaged in language teaching

4.2. New hires and teaching load

There has been a sustained demand for Chinese language education in the US. Subsequently, there has been a shortage of Chinese language instructors (U.S. Department of Education (2013)). One of the goals of the present study is to examine how colleges and universities responded and will continue to respond to enrollment demand, and remedy the shortage of instructors. We collected the data for full time new hires in the past five years and projected full time new hires in the next five years. A total of 281 new hires were reported from 196 respondents in the past five years. On average, 1.4 new hires from each institution were made. Among the new hires, 84% ($N=165$) were directly involved in Chinese language instruction in 2012 when the data were collected.

A total of 191 projected new hires were reported from 196 respondents for the next five years. On average, almost one new position (.97) will be created in each responding institution, of which 66% ($N=123$) will likely be involved in Chinese language instruction. Table 4.2 demonstrates that there are clear decreases (32% for general hires and 25% for hires in Chinese language) projected for the number of new hires in the next five years in comparison to the past five years. A paired t-test revealed a statistical significance between the past and the next five years in terms of general new hires [$P \leq .007$, $t(195) = 2.46$]. A paired t-test also revealed a significant difference between the past and the next five years in terms of new hires in Chinese language [$P \leq .004$, $t(195) = 2.60$]. It should be noted, however, that the projection for new hires may be an underesti-

mate. New hires are frequently not planned until needs are immediate.

New hires in the past and next 5 years	Average number	# of positions	# of responding institutions
Content and language courses (past 5 years)	1.4	281	196
Language courses (past 5 years)	.84	165	196
Content and language courses (next 5 years)	.97	191	196
Language courses (next 5 years)	.62	123	196

Table 4.2 Number of full time new hires in the past and future five years

Table 4.3 shows the teaching load distribution. All ranks of professors taught more than six hours per week. Lecturers' teaching load was generally around 2.6 hours more than that of professors.

Instructor ranks	Average hrs per week	Total # of hrs per week	# of responding institutions
Full professors	6.69	930	139
Associate professors	6.47	925	143
Assistant professors	6.96	1030	148
Full-time lecturers	9.34	1485	159

Table 4.3 Teaching load of permanent professors and lecturers: hours per week

4.3. Instructional delivery formats

There has been pedagogical controversy on the topic: Should Chinese language instruction, especially at the elementary and intermediate levels, be delivered in a combined format of lecture and drill sessions? Language courses have been team-taught by multiple instructors in a number of universities. The purpose of the present study was not to address the desirability of such an instructional format, but to explore the current practice across campuses in North America.

Among 192 responses, 71.4% ($N=137$) indicated that they did not divide courses into lecture and drill sessions, while 19.3% ($N=37$) stated that some courses were divided and others were not. Only a small portion (9.4%, $N=18$) responded that they divided their language courses into lecture and drill sessions (Figure 4.1).

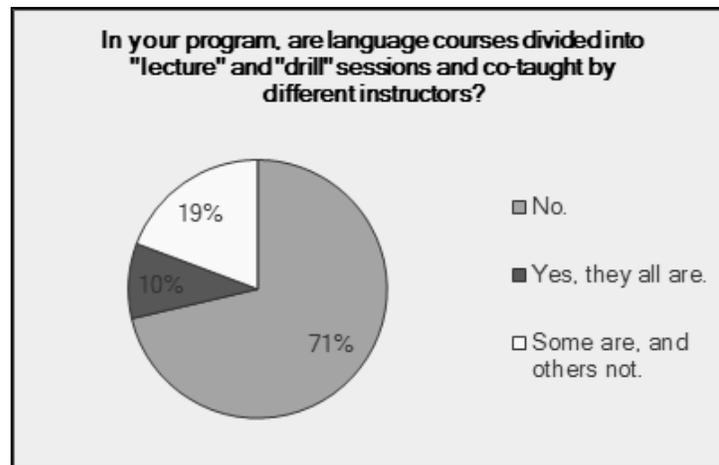


Figure 4.1 Proportion of course delivery formats. $N=192$

Variation in the instructional tracks also exists to address students' different language backgrounds. A number of institutions offered two tracks, separating non-heritage and heritage. Furthermore, a number of institutions offered an intensive track to complete a one year curriculum in one semester. Table 4.4 displays the number ($N=162$) and percentage of schools offering different instructional tracks. Those who provided the heritage track generally also provided the non-heritage track across the instructional levels. Note that the tracks listed in the table are not mutually exclusive; some institutions offered various combinations or all the tracks.

Instruction delivery tracks	1 st year	2 nd year	3 rd year	4 th year	5 th & 6 th years
Combined track	159 98.15%	141 87.04%	103 63.58%	75 46.29%	22 13.58%

Separate non-heritage & heritage tracks	34 20.99%	30 18.52%	21 12.96%	9 5.56%	3 1.85%
Intensive track	21 12.96%	14 8.64%	4 2.47%	2 1.23%	2 1.23%

Table 4.4 Number and percentage of institutions offering different tracks ($N=162$)

A closer examination of the raw data yielded two interesting observations. First, although the number was small, six institutions did not provide the heritage track until at the second, third, or fourth instructional levels. Second, the majority (54.55%) of institutions who offered the intensive track also provided separate non-heritage and heritage tracks. Only one (.62%) institution provided just heritage and intensive tracks, and another (.62%) provided the intensive track only.

In sum, the data on staffing matters and instructional delivery formats, as discussed above, reveal a few observations. First, full- and part-time lecturers as well as GTAs at universities have played a significant role in meeting the enrollment demand and remedying the urgent shortage of instructors. Second, there seems to be a significant decrease between the number of new hires in the past five years and the number projected for the next five years. In particular, the projected number of new hires for language instruction is lower than that of the past five years. For the vitality of our field, it is important to continue promoting Chinese language education, especially at the official and administrative levels. Third, most institutions offer a combined track for both heritage and non-heritage students and a combined session without the division of lecture and drill sessions. Reasons for such an instructional practice may be varied and complex across campuses. It is frequently difficult to accurately place students with some language background, even if separate tracks are available, as indicated in the previous CLTA survey (Ke, Wen, & Kotenbeutel, 2001). Remedies may include developing not only reliable placement tests but also placement procedures that allow both students and instructors readjust in the process.

4.4. Enrollment and enrollment retention

One arduous task confronting CFL educators is the low enrollment retention rate. Samimy and Tabuse (1992) reported that learning non-alphabetical languages such as Japanese and Chinese can provoke negative affective reactions, which hinder learners' motivation. One of the purposes of the present survey was

to examine the enrollment across instructional levels. Table 4.5 presents an overview of the number and percentage of enrollment from 162 responding institutions. A total of 21,103 students enrolled in 162 higher education institutions including 4 year and 2 year public and private colleges and universities in North America in the academic year 2011-2012. The mean enrollment per institution was 130 students. The highest number was 956, at an institution offering all three tracks (non-heritage, heritage, and intensive); the lowest number was 5, at an institution that had only a first-year Chinese course in a combined track. Close examination also revealed that 9.9% ($N=16$) of responding institutions did not have Chinese courses beyond the first year level. It is likely that they were two-year junior colleges (co-reference to the data in Furman et al., 2010), or had started a Chinese program only one year ago.

As Table 4.5 shows, on average approximately 49% of enrollment across all tracks came from first year enrollment. The second, third, and fourth year enrollments were approximately 26%, 14%, and 7% respectively. The fifth and sixth year enrollments were less than 4% of all tracks on average. It should be noted that the enrollment numbers in Table 4.5 were not student head counts, but the sum of the course enrollment counts (some students may have enrolled in more than one course).

Instruction track	1st year	2nd year	3rd year	4th year	5th & 6th years	Total
Combined track	8,681 50.17%	4,506 26.04%	2,328 13.45%	1,356 7.84%	432 2.50%	17,303
Separate non-heritage and heritage tracks	1,121 38.10%	771 26.21%	583 19.83%	149 5.07%	318 10.81%	2,942
Intensive track	551 64.22%	213 24.83%	41 4.78%	23 2.68%	30 3.50%	858
Average from original data	10,353 49.06%	5,490 26.02%	2,952 14.0%	1,528 7.24%	780 3.7%	21,103

Table 4.5 Number and percentage of students enrolled in 162 institutions

Enrollment decreased from the first year to the second year at the rate of 47%

on average. Enrollment for the combined track decreased 48%, for the heritage track 31 % (which was the most modest decrease among the three tracks), and for the intensive track 61%. The enrollment decrease continued at a similar rate from the second to third year with the rate for the intensive track as the most severe at 81%. The decrease was modest at 48% for the combined group, and 24% for the heritage group, which was again the lowest among the three groups. The enrollment decrease continued from the third to fourth year with the rate for the heritage group as the most severe at 74%. It was 44% for the intensive group and 42% for the combined group. The enrollment decrease rate is summarized in Table 4.6. Since most responding institutions did not offer fifth and sixth year Chinese language courses, the data were excluded in Table 4.6. Figure 4.2 displays the percentage of enrollment as instructional levels advance, relative to a reference of 100% for the first year.

Instruction delivery track	1 st to 2 nd year (%)	2 nd to 3 rd year (%)	3 rd to 4 th year (%)
Combined	48.09	48.34	41.75
Separate heritage track	31.22	24.38	74.44
Intensive track	61.34	80.75	43.90
Average from original data	46.97	46.23	48.24

Table 4.6 Percentage in enrollment decrease across instructional levels

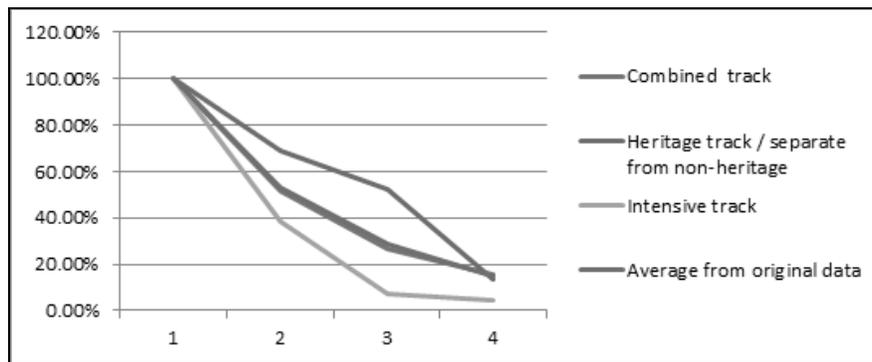


Figure 4.2 Percentage of enrollment with increasing instructional levels
 Note. Since the numbers between the combined group and average from original data are very close, the two lines approximately merged into one.

One-way ANOVA tests were used to determine whether enrollment differences across instructional levels were significant. The data of only the first, second, third, and fourth years were used because most responding institutions did not offer fifth and sixth year Chinese language courses. Table 4.7 presents the summary of the ANOVA results with Chinese language instructional level as the independent variable. There were significant differences across levels in the enrollments of all three groups (combined, separate non-heritage and heritage, and intensive tracks), with the highest F value from the combined group and the lowest F value from the heritage group.

Instruction delivery groups	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>
Combined track	$F(3,644) = 61.61$.000
Separate heritage track	$F(3, 644) = 4.35$.005
Intensive track	$F(3, 644) = 7.75$.000

Table 4.7 One-way ANOVA with instructional level as independent variable

It is difficult to make comparisons between Chinese and other foreign language enrollment retention since there exist very few quantitative studies on foreign language enrollment retention. The 2009 MLA survey (Furman et al., 2010) provided enrollment comparisons between introductory (the courses that may reflect degree requirements) and advanced courses (the courses that are more indicative of possible language minors and majors). The ratio between Chinese introductory classes and advanced classes was 5:1. Advanced classes in 2009 made up 20% or more of all undergraduate student enrollments in five languages; Chinese is one of them. Therefore, the significant enrollment decrease across the instructional levels, as the data demonstrated above, is not peculiar to Chinese but applies to all foreign languages. Compared to other languages, Chinese enrollment retention seems to be moderate.

Enrollment retention reflects learners' motivation. Findings on CFL learning motivation, as discussed in Comanaru and Noels (2009) and Wen (1997, 2011, 2013), demonstrated that positive learning attitudes and experience represented a

robust motivational force for predicting learning efforts and strategies, which in turn was significantly correlated with the desire to continue taking Chinese courses. The more learners felt that they were learning Chinese because it was personally meaningful and fun, the more they became engaged in the learning process. The elements of “meaningful and fun” could include challenging tasks under the learner’s control, grammar instruction through interactions, and practicing of language skills via communicative activities.

4.5. Students’ ethnic backgrounds

In the field of learning Chinese as a second or foreign language, the student body has undergone a considerable change. Ethnic background has become more diversified than before. Studies (Fuligni, Witkow, & Garcia, 2005; Wen, 1997; Yang, 2003) have demonstrated that ethnic background functions as a dynamic variable that directly and indirectly affects learning. The present study looked into the estimated percentage of students’ racial-ethnic-linguistic backgrounds in the academic year of 2011-2012. Table 4.8 presents the data from 154 responding institutions with a total of 14,912 students.

Caucasians composed more than 50% of the student body, followed by Mandarin-speaking heritage learners (14.12%). Non-Chinese-speaking Asians, including Chinese descendants, also composed a relatively large part of the student body (11.47%). The remainder of the student body consisted primarily of Latin Americans and African Americans (15.66%). Interestingly, there were more Mandarin-speaking learners than Cantonese-speaking learners.

Ethic background	Percentage	Number of students
Caucasian	50.68	7,557
Mandarin-speaking	14.12	2,106
Non-Chinese speaking Asian	11.47	1,710
Latin American	10.05	1,499
Cantonese-speaking	6.85	1,022
African American	5.61	837
Other	1.21	181

Table 4.8 Estimated ethnic number and percentage from 154 institutions

Decades ago students who took Chinese language courses were largely Caucasians who intended to become sinologists Linnell (2001). The situation is different today. Many students from different ethnic backgrounds pursue Chinese for pragmatic reasons such as future job opportunities or a new global perspective. These changes have great impacts on many issues that CFL teachers need to address. As Linnell (2001) pointed out, the CFL profession itself requires major adjustments. First, it is critical for teachers to be clearly aware of student diversity. Second, it is vital for teachers to develop strategies to accommodate ethnic and linguistic diversity in the aspects of instructional expectations, assessment techniques, and curriculum designs.

5. Teaching Materials

Many new textbooks and teaching/learning resources have appeared in the printed and online markets in recent years. These days, instructors, regardless of their students' levels and backgrounds, have multiple textbooks and a myriad of supplementary materials to select. This section, however, only focuses on the printed textbooks formally published and widely used. We chose the most frequently used textbooks among more than thirty textbooks currently being used, and grouped them by instructional levels in Tables 5.1 and 5.2.

Integrated Chinese 《中文听说读写》, first published in 1997 by Cheng & Tsui Company and now in its third edition, has been the textbook adopted by the majority of the Chinese programs at both beginning and intermediate levels (62.9% and 59.8% respectively). Although this set of textbooks is intended for the beginning and intermediate levels and students with no prior language background, four institutions used it for their advanced courses and five institutions used it in their heritage track courses. *New Practical Chinese Reader* 《新实用汉语》, first published in 2002 by the Beijing Language and Culture University Press and now in its second edition, has been a popular textbook widely used by Chinese programs at the elementary, intermediate, and advanced levels (13.5%, 14.8%, and 11.2% respectively). One institution also used it in their heritage track. *All Things Considered* 《事事关心》 has been the textbook most widely used at the advanced level (14.80%). *A Primer for Advanced Beginners of Chinese* 《大学语文》 was the most frequently used textbook for the heritage beginning course although the percentage was low (4.1%). The reason it was low is that 55% of the respondents stated that “we do not currently offer separate courses for heritage students” and 37.9% stated that they used “other” materials.

Titles	Beginning	Intermediate
Integrated Chinese 《中文听说读写》	107, 62.9%	102, 59.8%
Other	26, 15.3%	42, 24.9%
New Practical Chinese Reader《新实用汉语》	23, 13.5%	25, 14.8%
Chinese Link 《中文天地》	17, 10.0%	16, 9.5%
Encounters: Chinese Language and Culture	8, 4.71%	1, .59%

Table 5.1 Number, percentage at beginning and intermediate levels ($N=170$)

Titles	Advanced
Other	113, 66.5%
All Things Considered 《事事关心》	25, 14.8%
New Practical Chinese Reader 《新实用汉语》	19, 11.2%
The Routledge Advanced Chinese Multimedia Course: Crossing Cultural Boundaries 《文化纵横观》	13, 7.7%
Reading into a New China: Integrated Skills for Ad- vanced Chinese 《变化中的中国》	13, 7.7%
Literature and Society 《文学与社会》	8, 4.7%
Developing Chinese Fluency 《表达》	7, 4.1%

Table 5.2 Number and percentage at advanced levels ($N=170$)

A large number of Chinese programs compiled their own instructional materials at all levels. The majority of the advanced courses (66.9%) used materials developed by instructors. These belonged to the category of “other” in the ques-

tionnaire. The “other” materials had a wide range regarding content and difficulty levels. In the “other” category, the more frequently used textbooks reported were *Beyond the Basics* 《乐在沟通》 (N=6, 3.53%) and *China Scene* 《中国社会文化写实》 (N=6, 3.53%).

In the previous CLTA survey (Ke et al., 2001), instructional material development was identified as an area that urgently needed to be addressed. Twelve years later, we were pleased to see that there are many more textbooks and resources readily available. A challenge confronted by an instructor today is to make decisions on what textbooks to choose and what supplementary resources to use so as to fulfill the curriculum goals, instructional purposes, and accommodate their own students’ needs.

Despite the flourishing of commercial and internet resources, material development remains an essential component to the CFL field. This is not only because good quality textbooks are rare, but also because a well-designed curriculum requires not just a textbook but a comprehensive set of teaching and learning resources, including a main textbook, supplementary materials that are incorporated into the curriculum, ample exercises for students, and learner-specific materials tailored to the students in the instructional setting. With such high expectations, it is no surprise that many instructors, especially instructors who teach at the advanced level (66.5% as Table 5.2 shows), have developed and compiled their own materials and web-based resources.

6. Pedagogy

6.1. Traditional vs. simplified scripts in reading and writing

Largely due to the script reform in the middle of the twentieth century in mainland China, the CFL field has been faced with the issue of two existing writing systems in reading and writing instruction. What choices did surveyed programs make in this regard: traditional or simplified script?

Overall, the simplified script appeared to be the predominant choice, while a substantial number of programs used both. Over half (52%) of the programs required students to be able to read simplified characters only, and only four out of 168 (2%) required reading proficiency solely in traditional. More than a quarter (27%) required both. A relatively small percentage (11%) of programs allowed students to choose on their own. Two programs (1%) reported that their students learned neither script, but used pinyin only.

Verbal responses from participants suggested that programs requiring both scripts might introduce the two scripts in different orders. Some had students begin with simplified characters at the beginning level, and switch to traditional

at the second year and beyond; while others chose to begin with the traditional. Exposing students to both kinds of scripts had pragmatic merit, since it was quite likely that they would encounter both in their future study or career. If this was a general consensus, then we might expect to see a rise in programs that used both, though future research would be needed in order to test this hypothesis. There has been some research on how to systematically teach simplified characters to students who already know the traditional forms (Chan & He, 1988), but little has been done on teaching in the reverse order.

The overall pattern in writing Chinese characters appeared similar to reading. More than half (57%) of the programs required simplified only, and a very small percentage (3%, five out of 168) required solely the traditional script. However, where it differed from reading was that a much lower percentage of programs required both: only 9% as compared to 27% for reading, and a much higher percentage (24% > 11%) allowed students to choose for themselves. These large contrasts suggested that a significant number of programs that were simplified-only or free-to-choose in writing required students to be able to *read both* scripts. It reflected the belief that even if students were only able to write one particular script, it was a valuable skill to be able to read both. This imbalance in requirement also understandably indicated the onerousness of mastering an additional script in writing.

Respondents' verbal answers suggested that, in programs that required students to *write* both scripts, more seemed to have students start from the traditional, while the opposite sequence was found in programs that required *reading* in both scripts. For most CFL students, who did not have a background in either script, it could be helpful to know which order of learning would be more effective, and furthermore, if the preferred order in reading would be the same in writing. Research on these questions did not seem to be available.

6.2. Integration of four skills

The term "integrated approach" is often used to refer to training of the four skills in tandem, both in terms of content and timing. As shown in Table 6.1, the majority (84.5%) of first-year, non-heritage courses claimed to use this approach.

However, it was not well researched as to how and to what extent the four skills were linked to each other (Ling, 2007: 5), and existing research seemed to point more towards an approach that prioritized aural-oral skills (Yang, 2000). There were also researchers who advocated lowering expectations in certain areas (Lu & Xie, 2004). Indeed, the full integration of the four skills was not the sole approach adopted in the CFL field. About 11% of the programs delayed instruction in reading and writing, and gave priority to speaking and listening.

When the four skills were not on a synchronized and equal footing, the question arose as to their relative order. Two of the possible scenarios were: 1) the development of listening and speaking skills were separate from literacy training, and 2) the building of receptive skills, i.e. listening and reading, were separate from the productive ones, i.e. speaking and writing. The survey data suggested that, in the first scenario, usually listening and speaking were ahead of reading and writing. For example, a few of the programs had students first focus on listening and speaking using *pinyin* as the written medium, and only weeks later learn to read and write in characters (part of) what they had mastered in oral communication. For the second scenario, the receptive skills were usually placed ahead of the productive ones. Note that this second approach differed from the first one in that speaking would come after reading and listening. This raised the question of pedagogical effectiveness as a function of skill sequencing. Much research was yet to be done in this area.

Some programs fully integrate the training of four skills, while others do not. Each design may have its advantages. What are your 1st-year non-heritage courses like in this respect?		
Answer Options	Response Percent	Response Count
All four skills are integrated and synchronized.	84.5%	142
Listening and speaking come before reading and writing in characters.	10.7%	18
Reading and writing in characters come before listening and speaking.	0.6%	1
Other (please specify)	4.2%	7
<i>answered question</i>		168
<i>skipped question</i>		48

Table 6.1 Integration of four skills in 1st-year non-heritage courses

For programs that adopted the non-integrated approaches, there was a rather wide range in the timing of the delayed introduction of characters. As shown in Table 6.2, for those programs that delayed reading and writing, the length of the delay varied from one week to one semester, with the majority (67%) being two weeks to a month.

You have indicated that in your 1st-year non-heritage courses, listening and speaking come first. Typically, after how much time do students begin to practice reading and writing in Chinese characters what they have learned to speak?		
Answer Options	Response Percent	Response Count
1 week	11.1%	2
2 weeks	33.3%	6
1 month	33.3%	6
2 months	16.7%	3
1 quarter	0.0%	0
1 semester	5.6%	1
Other (please specify)	0.0%	0
<i>answered question</i>		18
<i>skipped question</i>		198

Table 6.2 Length of delay in reading and writing by programs that used a “non-integrated” approach

An integrated approach did not automatically mean equal development of all four skills. With 84.5% of programs claiming to use the integrated approach, one may expect that a comparable percentage of programs would produce students who had a speaking and listening vocabulary about the same size as their reading and writing vocabulary. However, as shown in Table 6.3, this percentage was much lower, at 35%. By contrast, 23% of the programs reported that their students had a significantly larger speaking and listening vocabulary than reading and writing, much higher than the 10.7% (Table 6.1) using a speaking-and-listening-centered approach, the approach that is probably the most conducive to this result. Taken together, these numbers seemed to suggest that students learning Chinese under the integrated approach tended to become more proficient in speaking and listening than in reading and writing. Writing, in particular, as one respondent commented, was the single most difficult skill.

As a result of your curriculum design, 1st-year non-heritage students in your program may have different vocabulary sizes in listening & speaking vs. in reading & writing. Which of the following best characterizes your 1st-year non-heritage students?

Answer Options	Response Percent	Response Count
Their speaking & listening vocabulary is significantly larger than reading and writing vocabulary.	22.8%	38
Their speaking & listening vocabulary is somewhat larger than reading and writing vocabulary.	35.9%	60
Their speaking & listening vocabulary is about the same size as reading and writing vocabulary.	35.3%	59
Their speaking & listening vocabulary is somewhat smaller than reading and writing vocabulary.	4.8%	8
Their speaking & listening vocabulary is significantly smaller than reading and writing vocabulary.	1.2%	2
<i>answered question</i>		167
<i>skipped question</i>		49

Table 6.3 1st-year non-heritage vocabulary speaking/listening vs. reading/writing

7. Assessment

7.1. Curriculum assessment

For this survey, curriculum assessment consisted of measurement and evaluation at three levels: the program/department, the Chinese major curriculum, and individual language courses. Respondents were asked to indicate whether their programs had drafted or were in the process of drafting assessment guidelines at each level. The responses should not be taken to mean that assessment was consistently carried out; rather, having the criteria in place was a pre-condition for implementing assessment. In this sense, it was “assessment readiness” that was being reported.

The data indicated that Chinese programs were most ready for assessment at the course level, less so at the curriculum level, and even less so for the program or department as a whole. Responses are summarized in Table 7.1, and Figure 7.1 offers a graphic comparison.

Answer Options	Response Percent	Response Count
Does your program have an articulated mission statement?		
No.	33.5%	56
Not yet, but we are working on one.	21.0%	35

Yes.	45.5%	76
Does your program have articulated Student Learning Outcomes (or goals/objectives) for your majors?		
No.	31.1%	52
Not yet, but we are working on them.	13.8%	23
Yes.	55.1%	92
Does your program have articulated Student Learning Outcomes (or goals/objectives) for Chinese language courses at each year of each track?		
No.	21.0%	35
Not yet, but we are working on it.	16.2%	27
Yes.	62.9%	105
<i>answered question</i>		167
<i>skipped question</i>		49

Table 7.1 Availability of articulated assessment guidelines

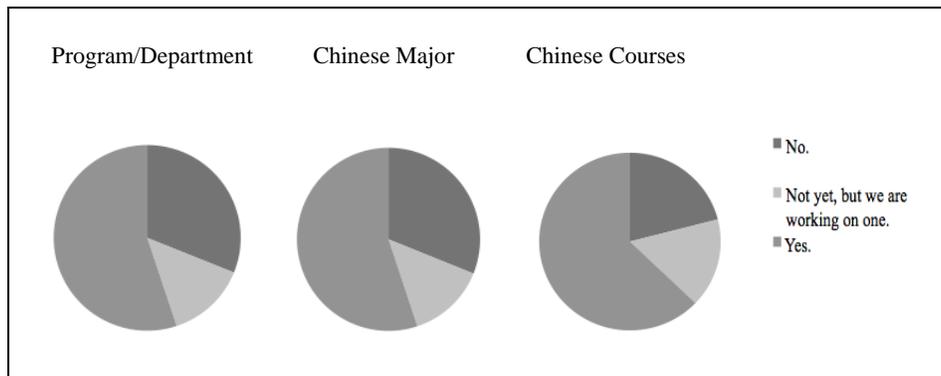


Figure 7.1 Availability of articulated assessment guidelines

The “bottom-up” pattern of assessment readiness could be problematic. On one hand, it revealed that Chinese language instructors took course-level assessment seriously, and were able to establish articulated learning outcomes for evaluating student work in each course. This was crucial for ensuring quality and consistency in ground-level instruction, and also contributed to maintaining coherence of the overall curriculum. On the other hand, assessment at this level appeared to be done often without overarching guidance from the levels above. In his article “The why (and how) of assessing student learning outcomes in college foreign language programs,” Norris (2006) highlighted the importance of per-

ceiving what we do in college FL education “as programmatic in nature” (582), and proposed a “program evaluative approach” that viewed individual courses, textbooks, instructors... etc. as interrelated components of one coherent structure. In this approach, “student learning outcomes” were defined at the program level first, before being further articulated through individual courses.

7.2. Placement testing

The majority of the programs (about 70%⁵) placed students into appropriate courses by some kind of tests. As shown in Table 7.2, pen-and-paper testing (61; 37%) and non-OPI interviews (42; 25%) were the most common methods. Online tests also made up a significant portion (32; 19%). Relatively few programs (12; 7%) used OPI for placement. Note that a given program might use more than one method.

Online placement testing might be a preferred option for programs that have a longer sequence of courses. All programs that used online placement (32, 100%) offered at least two years of Chinese language for non-heritage speakers, at least 90% (21) also offered 3rd-year courses, and at least 68% (22) had courses for the 4th year. Eight out of the nine programs offering 5th-year courses used online tests. This preference suggested some evidence for the efficiency of online testing in handling larger volumes. As Chinese programs continue to expand, the proportion of online placement testing may be expected to rise. Research on the design and implementation of free or low-cost online placement tests would benefit the field.

Does your program place students by some kind of tests? What kinds of tests do you use? Choose all that apply.		
Answer Options	Response Percent	Response Count
We do not require students to take placement tests. They are free to enroll in any course they want to.	31.1%	52
OPI	7.2%	12
Non-OPI interview	25.1%	42
Pen-and-paper test	36.5%	61
Online test	19.2%	32

⁵ This percentage was adjusted to reflect information in the verbal responses that chose “other.” Only five out of 36 stated that they did not give any placement testing. The rest stated the specific kinds of testing they used.

Other (please specify)	21.6%	36
<i>answered question</i>		167
<i>skipped question</i>		49

Table 7.2 Placement testing

7.3. Expected levels of proficiency

In terms of student learning outcomes, did various programs have comparable expectations? To what extent could students who had taken Chinese language courses for the same number of years, regardless of with which program, be expected to reach about the same proficiency level? To gain insight into such questions, respondents were asked to indicate the ACTFL proficiency levels they expected their non-heritage students to achieve by the end of their programs. Data were collected separately on the four skills: speaking, listening, reading, and writing. To enable comparison among programs, the data were cross-tabulated with the length of non-heritage course sequence the programs offered.

Overall, there appeared to be a positive relationship between the expected proficiency level in the four skills and the years of non-heritage Chinese language courses offered by the program. The expected proficiency went up as the length of the program increased. Tables 7.3 and 7.4 show an example for speaking. In Table 7.4, the ACTFL proficiency levels were represented by numerical values: Novice low = 1, Novice mid = 2, ... etc. Translating numerical values into the corresponding ACTFL proficiency levels, the mean expected levels of proficiency were: Intermediate Mid (=5) for 1-to-2-year programs, Intermediate High (= 6) for 3-year programs, Advanced Low (= 7) for 4-year programs, and Advanced Mid (= 8) for 5-to-6-year programs.

To the best of your knowledge, what ACTFL proficiency level in SPEAKING are non-heritage students expected to achieve at the end of their highest-level language course? (If you wish to learn more about the ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines on Speaking, Listening, Reading, and Writing, please copy and paste this URL in a new window http://www.actfl.org/i4a/pages/index.cfm?pageid=5305)							
Does your program offer the following courses? If yes, how many years? -- Modern Chinese for non-heritage students							
Answer Options	1 yr	2 yrs	3 yrs	4 yrs	5-6 yrs	Response Percent	Response Count

Distinguished	0	1	1	0	0	2.0%	2
Superior	1 ⁶	0	1	1	2	5.1%	5
Advanced high	1	1	0	4	3	9.2%	9
Advanced mid	0	1	2	5	2	10.2%	10
Advanced low	2	2	2	11	0	17.3%	17
Intermediate high	0	2	10	2	3	17.3%	17
Intermediate mid	2	7	2	3	0	14.3%	14
Intermediate low	0	5	3	1	0	9.2%	9
Novice high	2	4	2	0	0	8.2%	8
Novice mid	4	1	0	0	0	5.1%	5
Novice low	0	1	0	1	0	2.0%	2
<i>answered question</i>							98
<i>skipped question</i>							118

Table 7.3 Expected level of proficiency in speaking for non-heritage students cross-tabulated by years of non-heritage courses offered: frequency counts

Length of non-heritage Chinese language courses	Expected ACTFL Proficiency Levels in Speaking for Non-Heritage Speakers (Novice low = 1; Novice mid = 2; ...; Distinguished = 11)			
	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Standard Deviation
1 year	4.75	2.00	10.00	2.90
2 years	4.96	1.00	11.00	2.21
3 years	6.04	3.00	11.00	1.94
4 years	6.96	1.00	10.00	1.82
5-6 years	8.10	6.00	10.00	1.60

Table 7.4 Expected level of proficiency in speaking for non-heritage students cross-tabulated by years of non-heritage courses offered

Table 7.5 might provide further insight into the variation among programs of different lengths. A wider range of expectations seemed to exist for programs of one or two years than of three years and above. This suggested that students who

⁶ The high levels reported for one-year and two-year programs might have to do with the respondents' being unfamiliar with the ACTFL standards, as indicated by their verbal responses.

had gone through programs that offered three or more years of non-heritage Chinese courses might be on more equal footing in all four skills across programs of the same length, but raised the question of whether students from one- or two-year programs would be as comparable to each other in their speaking proficiency.

Length of non-heritage Chinese language courses	Standard Deviation				Count
	Writing	Speaking	Listening	Reading	
1-2 years	2.33	2.41	2.53	2.73	51
3-4 years	1.84	1.91	1.89	1.86	64
5-6 years	1.62	1.60	1.49	1.56	12

Table 7.5 Standard deviations of expected proficiency levels in four skills cross-tabulated by years of non-heritage courses offered

Analysis based on Table 7.6 revealed that the expected proficiency level in writing was significantly lower than that in reading, listening, and speaking (paired-samples T-tests, sig. (2-tailed) = .000 for all three pairs). This indicated that writing in Chinese was generally expected to be the most difficult among the skills that students needed to develop, and therefore the lowest in expected proficiency level. The differences between reading, listening, and speaking were not statistically significant (paired-samples T-tests, sig. (2-tailed) = .754 between speaking and reading, = .241 between speaking and listening, and = .406 between reading and listening).

	Expected ACTFL Proficiency Levels in Four Skills for Non-Heritage Speakers (Novice low = 1; Novice mid = 2; ...; Distinguished = 11)			
	Writing	Speaking	Listening	Reading
1 year	4.08	4.75	4.92	5.08
2 years	4.64	4.96	4.84	4.96
3 years	5.52	6.04	6.17	6.39
4 years	6.32	6.96	7.07	6.89
5-6 years	7.80	8.10	8.00	8.00

Table 7.6 Mean values of expected proficiency levels in four skills cross-tabulated by years of non-heritage courses offered

Was there a significant difference in expectation between productive vs. re-

ceptive skills? Indeed, statistical analysis found that the expected proficiency level in receptive skills (mean = 5.99) was higher than that in productive skills (mean = 5.68), and this difference was significant (paired-samples T-tests, sig. (2-tailed) = .000.).

8. Study Abroad

8.1. Some basic facts

Study abroad is no longer a slogan now. It is a practice. Many universities and colleges have started their study abroad programs. These programs include both short-term and quarter or semester study. Some universities have their representatives stationed in China and some other universities have formed a consortium or alliance such as CET, ACC and CIEE. The following data clearly show that study abroad appear to become a normalized mechanism for US students to learn Chinese. More than half of the respondents reported that they have study abroad programs. Some plan to set up a study abroad program and only 29.4% of institutions currently do not have study abroad programs and they have no plan to do it at present. Among the 163 respondents, 50.9% have study abroad programs of various length. 19.6% of the institutions have plans to start study abroad programs. (Table 8.1. and 8.2.)

Does your program have your own study-abroad program(s)?		
Answer Options	Response Percent	Response Count
Yes.	50.9%	83
Not yet, but we plan to establish one in the near future.	19.6%	32
No, and we do not plan to establish one in the near future.	29.4%	48
	<i>answered question</i>	163
	<i>skipped question</i>	53

Table 8.1. Institutions having study abroad programs

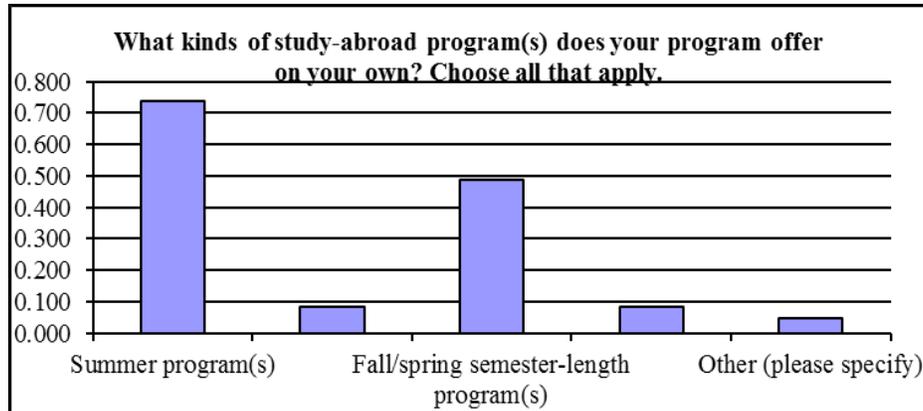


Figure 8.2. Various length of study abroad programs

It is worth noting that the length of the summer study abroad programs varies. The respondents reported that the length programs vary from 4 to 8 weeks (Table 8.3). About 10-30% students participated in study abroad programs in 36.8% of institutions and in other 33.1% of institutions only 13% of students participated in the activity. There are many reasons to account for the phenomenon. Unfortunately, this survey did not go further to explore the motifs of the students participating in the study abroad programs. However, we can come to a preliminary conclusion: American students are more interested in short-term study than the long term degree programs. They would like to experience China and learn some fundamental language skills and obtain some cultural knowledge or improve their language proficiency by taking advantage of summers and winters. Some students also seek the employment opportunities in China.

Table 8.4. shows clearly that the majority of students are taking language courses. 77.9% of courses offered for these programs are regular language courses ranging from fundamental Chinese to advanced Chinese. Chinese culture related courses constitute 50.3%. It is clear that language and culture courses are the most popular courses. Even though there are courses that are =content based, such as legal Chinese, Chinese linguistics, Chinese music and visual arts, the number of these courses is very small.

What is the length of your summer program?		
Answer Options	Response Percent	Response Count
4 weeks	24.2%	15
8 weeks	24.2%	15
6 weeks	21.0%	13
Other (please specify)	30.6%	19
<i>answered question</i>		62
<i>skipped question</i>		154

Table 8.3. Summer program length

Typically which of the following types of courses do your students take while studying abroad? Choose all that apply.		
Answer Options	Response Percent	Response Count
Regular Chinese language courses suitable to their levels	77.90%	127
Chinese culture	50.30%	82
Chinese society	32.50%	53
Chinese history	28.20%	46
Business Chinese	20.90%	34
Newspaper Chinese	16.60%	27
Chinese literature	16.00%	26
Chinese film and media	12.30%	20
Chinese religions	8.60%	14
Chinese visual art	6.70%	11
Chinese music	6.10%	10
Classical Chinese	5.50%	9
Chinese linguistics	4.90%	8
Legal Chinese	0.60%	1
(Typically, students in my program	17.80%	29

do not study abroad.)		
Other (please specify)	10.40%	17
<i>answered question</i>		163
<i>Skipped question</i>		53

Table 8.4. Types of courses offered in study abroad programs

8.2. Observations and some questions

We can summarize the situation of study abroad briefly.

- Study abroad is not only a slogan but also a practice. More and more institutions have established or plan to establish study abroad programs.
- Students are more interested in short term study than long term degree programs.
- The main purpose of studying abroad is to experience China and improve language skills.

There are, however, more questions to be answered. Will this trend continue and how long will it continue? Are there any degree programs for international students? Taking degree courses in Chinese universities requires highly advanced language proficiency. Are US students ready for that? Or are any degree programs (or courses) offered in English available in China? Answers to these questions will definitely help us understand the situation better. Again, we need more research and investigation to answer these questions.

9. Technology

Two interesting questions are often asked when we mention technology in teaching. The first one is: “Is technology really helping our teaching?” and the second question: “How widely is technology used in teaching and learning?” Although there are many research papers on the first question, there is virtually no substantial research or survey on the second question. It is commonly believed that technology is widely used, however there are no solid data to show the extent and depth of technology use. The purpose of the current survey intends to fill the gap in this area. The survey includes three general questions:

- What kind of course management systems are used on a regular basis?
- What kind of tools and how often are online and offline tools used?

- What kinds of technological training opportunities or support are currently available to faculty?

The answers to these questions may not provide an overall picture of technology use in teaching Chinese, but they will give us some interesting facts about the real situation.

9.1. Course Management Systems (CMS)

Course management tools are widely used in US universities and colleges. Course management tools are software programs which assist in the process of developing, managing, and delivering information related to the courses. “A course management system is a set of tools that enables the instructor to create online course content and post it on the Web without having to handle HTML or other programming languages.” (Janssen, 2013) One of the course management software packages that was developed in 1998 is Blackboard. This software was widely used in US institutions since then. A similar tool and a strong competitor was WebCT which was developed even earlier in 1995. However, it was acquired by its rival Blackboard Inc in 2006. Blackboard has undergone continuing changes and modifications and updates. Another major course management tool is D2L (Desire2Learn) based in Canada. Some universities used to use Blackboard, but they have switched to D2L recently (e.g., California State University, Long Beach). Moodle is yet another frequently adopted CMS and is more widely used in secondary schools.

The survey result shows that most institutions are still using Blackboard. If we combine WebCT and Blackboard, the percentage is as high as 63.2% of the respondents. The second widely used CMS is Moodle (17.8%). Very few respondents indicated that they used other CMS such as Ecourseware which is similar to Blackboard. It is worth noting that some universities are phasing out Blackboard and converting to D2L or Moodle.

Which of the following course management system does your program use on a regular basis?		
Answer Options	Response Percent	Response Count
Blackboard	55.20%	90
Moodle	17.80%	29

WebCT	8.00%	13
D2L	4.30%	7
(none)	4.3%	7
Other (please specify)	21.5%	35
<i>answered question</i>		163
<i>skipped question</i>		53

Table 9.1 Course Management Systems used

9.2. Other tools used in teaching

CMS is usually purchased and licensed by the institutions, while other tools are used by individual teachers. These tools are believed to be widely used in daily teaching. It would be very interesting to know what they are and how often they are used.

We have chosen 13 types of online and offline tools for this survey. Some popular tools were not included in the survey because they are so popular and “normalized” (Bax, 2003). By "normalization" it is meant that these tools are so frequently used that users no longer consider them high-tech devices, instead they are just regular tools like pens. These programs include email, Microsoft Word, etc.

It is worth noting that the survey found out that the frequently used tools are classroom presentation software such as PPT, search engines (e.g., Google) and online video (e.g., YouTube). Other tools include: e-dictionary, Chinese character animation, quiz maker, self-created pages. The less frequently used tools are: blogs, podcast, iPhone and iPad, social network (e.g., Facebook). Most programs have websites (73%), and others have blog (9.2%), listserv (10.4%), Facebook (15.3%), etc.

Since there are four choices to answer the question, it is difficult to add them up to a single number. However, we can observe that three tools are most widely used: PPT, search engines and YouTube. It is surprising to see that iPhone, iPad and quia.com are among the “never used” tools.

How often does your program use the following in Chinese language courses?					
Answer Options	Frequently	Sometimes	Occasion-ally	Never	Response Count

Presentations (e.g. PowerPoint)	119	23	14	6	162
Search engines (e.g. Google)	58	44	39	12	152
Online video (e.g. Youtube)	56	61	35	6	158
E-dictionaries (e.g. Wenlin, Clavis Sinica)	29	37	33	37	136
Character animation software (e.g. esStroke)	22	28	34	56	139
Self-created webpages	21	15	22	74	132
Quiz makers (e.g. Quia.com, Question Writer)	14	9	29	82	134
Social networking (e.g. Facebook)	8	17	33	75	132
Wiki (e.g. Wimba Wiki)	6	13	37	77	133
iPad applications	6	18	26	82	132
iPhone applications	6	12	22	90	130
Podcasts (e.g. Wimba Podcaster)	5	17	37	73	132
Blogs (e.g. Blogger)	4	17	41	67	129
				<i>answered questions</i>	163
				<i>skipped questions</i>	53

Table 9.2 Usage of tools in Chinese language courses

9.3. Technological training opportunities

One of the obvious truths technology is that it develops rapidly. New products appear constantly and they replace the outdated ones very quickly. It is quite common that one product is just introduced and popularized when other similar products appear immediately afterwards. In addition, learning to use certain products consumes time and energy. Providing technical support and training is of utmost importance if technology supported teaching is to be sustainable. Ac-

According to the responses, most institutions are paying deserved attention to this challenge. Both training on a regular basis and one-to-one hands-on support are available as needed.

Answer Options	Response Percent	Response Count
Training on campus during regular semesters/quarters	85.9%	140
Training on campus outside of regular semesters/quarters	26.4%	43
One-on-one consultation with technology specialists on campus during regular semesters/quarters	52.1%	85
Funding for faculty to participate in off campus technology workshops	24.5%	40
Other (please specify)	5.5%	9
<i>answered question</i>		163
<i>skipped question</i>		53

Table 9.3. The kinds of technological training and support

9.4. Observations

There are several observations concerning the use of technology. First, we can see from the survey results that some tools have been popularized and ‘normalized’ (Bax, 2003). Office suite and email are no longer considered ‘high tech tools’. They became part of our daily life. But new technology is not accepted ‘instantaneously’. Popularization or normalization takes time to happen. PPT and other Microsoft Office programs appeared very early (about 20 years ago). It is only now that they are used as indispensable tools. Although there are many programs for mobile learning, it will take time for teachers to see if they are really effective or helpful before choosing to use them in classroom (e.g. iPhone, iPad, etc.). There is so-called ‘wait-and-see period’ when most people will ‘observe’ how they work and if it is worth using these tools. The current survey took place in 2012. If another survey is conducted now or in the future, the picture of using of smart phones and pads could be very different.

Secondly, people tend to use more general-purpose tools such as Google to search for supplementary teaching materials rather than materials created by other people. Teachers often tailor what they find for their own class. Textbook-dependent programs (developed based on specific textbooks) seem to be effective, practical and easy to use. They may have two seemingly disadvantages: It may not suit the needs of all individual instructors and it would be useless once the textbook is revised or replaced. Only the widely adopted textbooks may well deserve to be accompanied by multimedia programs.

Lastly, since there is a variety of tools to choose from and the tools are constantly updated, it is suggested that the language instructors learn one tool at a time and not to rush to replace the 'devices' that were just bought. One would know better the pros and cons of a tool after getting to know it inside out. It is interesting to note that some tools sustain much longer than others. For, example, although the character animation program such as eStroke was not reported as the most frequently used one, it has been employed by many users for many years. Other programs were popular for a period of time and then faded out completely. In this respect, more research will be needed.

10. Implications for the field

Despite its limitations, the survey is able to highlight a few common challenges we face in maintaining and strengthening the vitality of our field. Recognizing that each of the following would deserve much more in-depth study, we offer below some preliminary "food for thought" with the hope to start conversations and initiate change.

Curriculum integration. We need to address the divide between language and "content" teaching, where non-tenure-track faculty or graduate students perform language teaching at the lower levels while tenure-track faculty do research and teach upper-level courses in a curriculum centered on canonical literature. Such a divide clearly existed in our field: the survey found that most of the Chinese language courses were taught by lecturers and graduate teaching assistants. This two-tiered system typical of foreign language programs at American universities was criticized by the MLA (2007) as narrow and outdated. What measures could we take to bridge the divide? Following recommendations made by the MLA (2007), we suggest that Chinese programs incentivize commitment to lower-level language teaching by senior tenure-track faculty, promote collaborative teaching between literary specialists and language specialists, provide rigorous professional training and opportunities for language specialist to develop and teach interdisciplinary courses, and expand course offering beyond literary study to in-

clude a wide variety of topics and offer multiple pathways to the Chinese major.

Student retention. Although the attrition rates of enrollment in Chinese courses were by and large on par with other foreign languages, they were undeniably high. The survey found that enrollment dropped roughly by half from each year to the next. This could mean that to produce one Chinese major by the end of a four-year curriculum, we would need to have at least eight students enrolled in the first year. What would be some effective measures to help us increase retention? In addition to curriculum innovations outlined above, we consider the following important: we need to lobby for more support from the institutions. For example, longer language requirements, as the survey found, correlated with higher ratios of second-to-first-year enrollment for non-heritage courses. The survey data also revealed that our student population was becoming increasingly diverse. This would require us to develop curricula that would meet the wider range of intellectual as well as professional goals of the students. To attract students from other fields and those returning from study abroad, aside from creating new pathways to the Chinese major, we may also expand our partnership with other programs and professional schools in offering concentrations or certificates that students could apply to non-scholarly careers.

In addition to the more programmatic measures outlined above, a number of curricular and instructional innovations can also be explored to address the problem of retention. First, Chinese language professionals should be clearly aware of the different goals and learning motives that students bring to their learning. Curriculum goals should constantly readjust to these differences. For example, a variety of specific purposes such as business Chinese, engineering Chinese, and cross-culture communication may be offered to meet students' needs and further their career development. This not only tailors the curriculum to the students' interest but may also enhance enrollment retention, especially at the advanced levels. Second, instruction must accommodate learners who have different learning styles and diverse ethnic backgrounds. Differentiated instruction, collaborative learning, and task-based classroom activities may provide flexibility and a wide range of interactions necessary for the development of language competence and the use of language for genuine communication. Teachers might blend whole class and group instruction to offer options and flexibility. Peer tutoring, which exists on many campuses, as the data indicated, can be another innovative venue for instruction. Other measures for helping to overcome the sense of frustration include developing more strategies to scaffold learning, integrating assessments into instruction, and helping students derive a good sense of accomplishment from their learning.

Goals and assessment. The survey found the field to be overall ambitious.

Most of the four-year programs, for example, expected their non-heritage learners to achieve an average of Advanced Low in listening, speaking and reading, and Intermediate High in writing. Veteran practitioners in the field, however, had expressed concerns about unrealistically high expectations. Furthermore, it was unclear if and how student learning outcomes were accurately and consistently measured. The survey found Chinese language programs to be the least “assessment ready” at the program level compared with the curriculum and course levels, while assessment experts advocated a program-based approach in which programmatic goals were coherently articulated down the pipeline of curricula and courses. To address these issues, we urge Chinese programs to begin by establishing overarching goals for the programs, determine systematic methods for assessment, consistently carry out assessment on an annual basis, and most importantly, use assessment data to adjust program goals and make continuous improvements.

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