



Asia Education Foundation



WHAT WORKS 10 |

Teacher Education and Languages

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What Works 10 identifies key current issues concerning languages teacher education in Australia.

Many variables within schools and beyond impact on students' learning, however the most important controllable factor is variability in teaching effectiveness (Hattie, 2015). The preparation and training of languages teachers was a focus of the Teacher Education Ministerial Advisory Group Review (TEMAG, 2014). *What Works 10* identifies key current issues concerning languages teacher education in Australia.

What Works 10 serves three purposes. First, it provides an indicative snapshot of languages teacher education in Australia in 2015 and highlights key developments since 2007 – the last time a comprehensive review of languages teacher education in Australia was completed (Kleinheinz, Wilkinson, Gearon, Fernandez & Ingvarson, 2007). The snapshot focuses on both pre-service and in-service languages teacher education for all levels of schooling (early childhood, primary and secondary). This focus includes degree structures and certification requirements and pedagogical content knowledge.

Second, *What Works 10* situates this current snapshot within the broader context of teacher education effectiveness in Australia and views it alongside a survey of academic literature from the last five years relevant to effective languages teacher education.

Third, *What Works 10* seeks to provide a compelling case for action to address major issues in languages teacher education in Australia. Central to that compelling case is that many of the key issues identified through *What Works 10* are not new. Based on the snapshot of languages teacher education in Australia (Table 3), there appears to be a mismatch between policy intents to boost the uptake and quality of languages education in Australian schools and the current state of languages teacher education. With the exception of isolated pockets of action within some states/territories/institutions, there has been limited investment in improving languages teacher education across Australia in a sustained way. This is despite the recommendations of previous research and review findings (e.g. Kleinheinz et al., 2007) and current international trends to improve languages teacher education.

> Six key issues

The effective teaching of languages requires effective languages teacher education.

What Works 10 has identified six key issues concerning languages teacher education in Australia that require urgent, collaborative effort by Australian governments, the teacher education sector, teacher registration bodies, the Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership (AITSL) and language teachers associations.

This urgency is required to support current commitments by Commonwealth and state/territory governments to improve the quality and uptake of languages education in Australian schools.

Overall, it is not easy for pre-service teachers to access in-depth languages methodology training to develop their capacity as languages teachers. In the vast majority of cases, the training is not language-specific and teachers have to undertake further graduate or postgraduate studies in languages education to develop their expertise. The ways in which languages teacher education has been set up in Australia suggests that becoming a formally-recognised, expert languages teacher involves many years of initial teacher training and further specialist training. While this may address the issue of quality languages teaching, it may also act as a disincentive for teachers to specialise in languages.

Issue 1: Shrinking of languages teacher education offerings

Languages teacher education offerings for primary level teachers have decreased since 2007. Very few universities offer specific pre-service units on teaching languages (in addition to English) to students of primary teaching. For early childhood teachers, such offerings appear to be non-existent, in spite of the typically strong focus on language and literacy acquisition at that level.

By contrast, Fernandez and Gearon (2011) found that high-performing countries in the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), such as Finland, China, the Republic of Korea and Japan, have compulsory language learning that starts at an early age. For example, in Finland, language learning is allocated 228 hours per year at primary level (compared to around 60 hours in Australia).

Unlike many countries in Europe and Asia, primary teachers in training in Australia spend much less time studying languages – 60 hours compared to over 200 hours (Fernandez & Gearon, 2011). If Generalist primary teachers will need to develop the capacity to support the learning of languages beyond the languages classroom (Daly, 2014) this situation needs to change.

Languages specialisation in teacher education is currently more for prospective secondary teachers. Even so, there also appears to be some shrinking of languages specialisation offerings within secondary teacher education. Further, these offerings are not typically language-specific, so pre-service teachers complete the same languages methodology units regardless of their target language.

For the most part, languages teacher education in Australia is not language specific.

Issue 2: Lack of language differentiation in teacher education

Students from different linguistic backgrounds in schools respond differently to the particular language of study, due to the nature of its written script, grammatical structures and pragmatics. Languages teachers need to be prepared to deal with this, which requires exposure to differentiated language training. Lack of differentiation according to language is a serious issue noted by TEMAG (2014). Lack of differentiation contradicts the idea of specific pedagogical content knowledge being associated with particular subjects (Shulman, 2013).

For the most part, languages teacher education in Australia is not language specific. Some exceptions include Macquarie University (French), University of Wollongong (French), James Cook University (French and Japanese), The University of Notre Dame (Italian), and Monash University (Japanese through the Melbourne Centre for Japanese Language Education). Specific training for Chinese language had been available through the Chinese Teacher Training Centre at The University of Melbourne until June 2015.

It has proved difficult to differentiate languages teacher education into separate language groups due to the small pool of pre-service languages teachers for a broad range of languages (TEMAG, 2014). This is related to student demand to be languages teachers and explains TEMAG's focus on recruiting more pre-service languages teachers as a solution. It is well known that this demand is impacted by a range of education and social factors that influence how languages are viewed in Australian schools (Kleinheinz et al., 2007). However, to recruit more prospective teachers of languages is to assume that there is corresponding demand from schools for specialist languages teachers.

Issue 3: Concurrency of language and methodology studies

Given the current nature of languages teacher education in Australia, it is difficult for pre-service languages teachers to develop deep pedagogical content knowledge in their target language/s. Concurrency of language and methodology studies was a key recommendation of Kleinheinz et al. (2007) as it promotes greater alignment between developing skills in the target language and building languages teaching capacity. Concurrency can be achieved through concurrent studies of language and culture within teacher education units, language-specific methodology units, or concurrent studies of languages and teacher education units. While ideal, such concurrency is challenging to address if the pool of prospective languages teachers continues to be small, unless a teacher education provider has committed to developing teaching expertise in only one or two languages.

Nevertheless, some concurrency of language and methodology studies exists in Australia and needs to be further strengthened.

Since 2007, opportunities for concurrent studies (e.g. concurrent Diploma in Languages or BA/BEd double degrees) appear to have expanded, enabling pre-service teachers to study their target language/s alongside their languages methodology subjects. This is particularly the case for secondary teaching courses and is a positive development for pre-service teachers' pedagogical content knowledge. Some primary teaching courses also enable access to concurrent language study, even though languages methodology subjects are not usually offered as part of these courses.

Issue 4: Nationally consistent and standardised assessments in languages teacher education

There is no nationally consistent or standardised formal assessment of target language proficiency and teaching performance in languages teacher education in Australia. However, where a specialisation in a specific language is offered, pre-service teachers typically require a major in that language for entry into corresponding methodology units.

In the United States, some languages teacher education courses require the Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI) as part of licensure requirements. The OPI has been found to improve the quality of the languages teacher education experience without being detrimental to student enrolments (Kissau, 2014). In Europe, the European Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages (EPOSTL) was found to be effective in improving pre-service teachers' use of metacognitive strategies and learning autonomy (Mirici & Herguner, 2015). EPOSTL is a digital self-assessment tool that enables students to monitor and reflect on their teaching progress and performance – it builds on the *Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR)*, the *European Language Portfolio (ELP)* and the *European Profile for Language Teacher Education*.

An opportunity exists in Australia to utilise standardised assessments to assess professional skills and teaching performance aligned to the Australian Professional Standards for Teachers at graduate level (Louden, 2015). Standardised assessments are not new and standards for languages teachers in Australia already exist. Assessments specific to languages teacher education could be developed to assess knowledge and skills (including language proficiency) and teaching performance. However, it will be challenging to differentiate between the languages commonly taught in Australian schools, and policy decisions have to be made as to whether such assessments are implemented at a programme or national level (Louden, 2015). The Deakin Authentic Teacher Assessment and the Melbourne Clinical Praxis Examination can help inform graduate assessment possibilities for languages teacher education. Such assessment would impact on the development of pedagogical content knowledge within languages teacher education as well as teacher education course structures and certification requirements.

It appears to be the norm that pre-service teachers have little access to in-depth languages methodology training to develop their capacity as languages teachers.

Issue 5: The long road to specialisation

It appears to be the norm that pre-service teachers have little access to in-depth languages methodology training to develop their capacity as languages teachers. The training is not typically language-specific and teachers have to undertake further graduate or postgraduate studies in languages education to develop their expertise. Becoming a formally recognised, expert languages teacher involves many years of initial teacher training and further specialist training. This may address the issue of quality but may act also as a disincentive for teachers to specialise in languages. Much of the in-depth training in language pedagogies occurs at the graduate and postgraduate levels. For example, the Melbourne Graduate School of Education offers specialist training in Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) methodology through a Master of Education or Graduate Certificate in Education; Flinders University offers a Graduate Certificate or Graduate Diploma in Languages Teaching.

Issue 6: Nationally consistent licensing for languages teachers

It is important for teacher registration bodies to work with education faculties to develop accreditation and quality assurance mechanisms for languages teacher education (Kleinheinz et al., 2007). Such mechanisms would ensure teacher educators have thorough information about pre-service teachers' language and intercultural abilities at the point of entry, and that they are able to satisfactorily verify, at the point of exit, students' abilities in the language and culture they are going to teach.

In Australia, there are no nationally consistent registration requirements for languages teachers. For example, in Victoria, the Victorian Institute of Teaching (VIT) has guidelines for all specialist teachers, including those teaching languages, and there are requirements that must be met for teachers teaching at Victorian Certificate of Education (VCE) level (VIT, 2014). In Queensland, teachers wishing to teach languages are required to take a languages proficiency assessment in addition to the application for teacher employment process (Department of Education and Training, 2014). While the Australian Federation of Modern Language Teachers Associations (AFMLTA) Accomplished and Lead Standards act as a guide for the profession, they are not presently a nationwide requirement tied to the registration of languages teachers. In the United States, considerably more work has been undertaken to align national languages teaching standards to professional teaching standards, which subsequently informs licensing requirements for teachers (in some states) and reviews of languages teacher education (Kleinheinz et al., 2007, citing Liddicoat et al., 2005).

What Works 10 highlights the urgent need to prioritise a focus on languages teacher education in Australia.

What Works 10 is exploratory. Its findings are neither a definitive indicator nor a prescription of successful emerging practice in languages teacher education – that would require significantly more research investment. Rather, it provides an idea of emerging trends in languages teacher education as well as issues and opportunities. This contributes to the developing research platform on languages teacher education and assists in further exploration and development of practice in the field.

What Works 10 highlights the urgent need to prioritise a focus on languages teacher education in Australia. As Lo Bianco & Aliani state, quality teaching is the single most controllable factor in ensuring successful language learning and it begins with teacher education (2013).

Introduction

The dearth of research into languages teacher education in Australia seems to have persisted.

Languages teacher education effectiveness and teacher education effectiveness more broadly are emerging and developing fields of educational scholarship. It is different, though not unrelated to, teaching effectiveness for language learning. The alignment of the [Australian Federation of Modern Language Teachers Associations \(AFMLTA\) Accomplished and Lead Standards with the Australian Professional Standards for Teachers](#) is an example of work in the area of teaching effectiveness that is applicable to the Australian context. Internationally, the [Teacher Effectiveness for Language Learning \(TELL\)](#) Project in the United States has led to the development of the TELL framework, which defines teacher effectiveness in the context of language learning and presents criteria for model language teaching behaviour.

What Works 10 is situated within languages teacher education effectiveness, for which there is not yet a comprehensive conceptual or analytical framework. To date, there has been one comprehensive report focused specifically on languages teacher education in Australia. *The review of teacher education for languages teachers: final report* (Kleinheinz et al., 2007) was completed by the Australian Council for Educational Research (ACER) for the Australian Government Department of Education and Training. It provided a broad survey of the languages teacher education landscape, discussed quality languages teaching, identified key issues that require consideration and attention, and proposed options for strengthening the provision of teacher education for languages teachers.

Prior to Kleinheinz et al. (2007), reports/reviews on languages education in Australia were not specific to languages teacher education, but did include explorations of this particular area (Kleinheinz et al., 2007, citing Liddicoat et al., 2005, and Nicholas, Moore, Clyne, & Pauwels, 1993). For example, the Nicholas Report (Kleinheinz et al., 2007, citing Nicholas et al., 1993) focused on the employment and status of languages teachers.

As observed by Kleinheinz et al. (2007, citing Cross and Gearon, 2004, and Gearon, 2007), the dearth of research into languages teacher education in Australia seems to have persisted. Researchers have typically used academic literature on contemporary and prevailing ideas about languages and languages education to understand developments in languages teacher education (see, for example, Kleinheinz et al., 2007). However, while this exercise is useful, it still does not get to the core of what constitutes effective languages teacher education. *What Works 10* did not have the scope to achieve this goal either – it simply highlights and re-emphasises the need for considerably more research into the field.

This research is important to the broader languages education context in Australia. While there are many interrelated reasons that may lead to the closing of language programmes in schools and/or programmes not being offered, teacher supply and retention are two main ones (Australian Secondary Principals Association [ASPA], 2006; Liddicoat et al., 2007). Teacher supply is not necessarily due to lack of teachers, but the lack of willingness of qualified teachers to work in schools and/or locations not of their choice, such as in provincial or remote areas (ASPA, 2006). Languages teacher education effectiveness is related to, though not entirely responsible for, teacher supply and retention.

The broader field of teacher education effectiveness in Australia is also under-researched. Internationally, the (professional standards-based) work of Linda Darling-Hammond has been particularly influential (see, for example, Darling-Hammond, 2005, 2006; Darling-Hammond, Newton & Wei, 2010). The ACER report *Teacher Education Courses in Victoria: Perceptions of Their Effectiveness and Factors Affecting Their Impact* (Ingvarson, Beavis & Kleinheinz, 2004) focused on perceptions of effectiveness, rather than actual effectiveness, and was situated specifically within a Victorian context. Another report, *Step Up, Step In, Step Out*, investigated the suitability of pre-service teacher training, once again in a Victorian context (Kleinheinz et al., 2007, citing Education and Training Committee, 2005).

In 2007, the House of Representatives Standing Committee on Education and Vocational Training published the *Top of the Class* report on teacher education. This report affirmed the lack of substantial research and evidence of teacher education quality and effectiveness in Australia (Commonwealth House of Representatives Standing Committee on Education and Vocational Training [HRSC], 2007). The report observed that most data on teacher education effectiveness is based on rudimentary survey data of recent graduates and school educators. One way to properly measure teacher education effectiveness is to assess over time the quality of graduates in school settings. However, despite the good work of ACER, there has been limited research in this space (HRSC, 2007).

In 2009, another report for the Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership (AITSL) focused on effective and sustainable university-school partnerships (Kruger, Davies, Eckersley, Newell & Cherednichenko, 2009). Even though such partnerships are a core aspect of teacher education and 'the work of universities and schools must be tightly integrated and mutually reinforcing' (Darling-Hammond, 2006, p. 122), the report did not specifically address the issue of teacher education effectiveness.

Introduction

Action Now: Classroom Ready Teachers emphasised the need to attract the most suitable candidates for languages teaching.

Later, an Australian Research Council (ARC) Linkage project called *Studying the Effectiveness Teacher Education* (SETE) was the first longitudinal study of its kind in Australia to take a comprehensive, in-depth look at teacher education effectiveness. Specifically, the project researched teacher education graduates in relation to meeting the requirements of diverse classroom settings. It also explored aspects of their initial teacher education that were most effective in preparing them to deal with a variety of school contexts as well as professional pathways and retention within the school education workforce (Studying the Effectiveness of Teacher Education, 2015). Project partners included Deakin University, Griffith University, Queensland College of Teachers, Victorian Institute of Teaching, Queensland Department of Education, Training and Employment, and the Victorian Department of Education and Training.

One of the main findings of the research focuses on the tension between the emerging professional identities of early career teachers and standards-based teaching reforms, standardised curricula and testing regimes (Allard & Doecke, 2014). As to standards-based teaching, an evaluation of the AITSL Professional Standards (for teachers and school leaders) is currently being undertaken by the Melbourne Graduate School of Education. The evaluation commenced in 2013 and is expected to conclude in 2015.

In 2014, the release of *Action Now: Classroom Ready Teachers* emphasised the need to attract the most suitable candidates for languages teaching and for graduate primary teachers to specialise in particular areas, one of them being languages. Citing a submission by the Asia Education Foundation (AEF), the report also discussed, albeit briefly, the challenges for languages teacher education. Examples include the small pool of pre-service teachers for a broad range of languages, generic programmes that lack differentiation according to language, and graduate teachers not possessing the relevant pedagogical content knowledge to enact quality languages teaching (TEMAG, 2014).

As these observations are based largely on anecdotal evidence, further empirical research is required to identify more precisely the key issues as well as which aspects of languages teacher education are effective or otherwise. *What Works 10* contributes to the development of a base upon which such research may be built.

> Policy context since 2007

Since 2007, when the ACER Review was published, there have been developments in the broader policy context around languages education in Australian schools. State and territory initiatives around languages education have typically accorded with national initiatives. *The National Asian Languages and Studies in Schools Program* (NALSSP, 2008/09–2011/12) was the largest policy initiative related to languages after 2007. The Australian Government committed \$62.4 million to NALSSP. Prior to NALSSP, *the National Asian Languages and Studies in Australian Schools* (NALSAS) strategy occurred over 1994/95–2002 with an Australian Government commitment of \$200 million.

NALSSP's aim was

to significantly increase the number of Australian students becoming proficient at learning the languages and understanding the cultures of our Asian neighbours ... [and] to increase the number of qualified Asian language teachers and develop a specialist curriculum for advanced languages students (AEF, 2010, p. 2).

Part of NALSSP's commitment was to increase the number of qualified Asian languages teachers in Australia. Some relevant initiatives to enable this to occur included:

- *Mentoring and Reflecting: Languages Educators and Professional Standards*
The *MoRe LEAPS* project (<http://moreleaps.afmlta.asn.au>) was developed and implemented by the Australian Federation of Modern Language Teachers Associations (AFMLTA), the Modern Language Teachers Associations (MLTAs) of all states/territories and the University of South Australia. It includes standards for lead languages teachers and two professional learning modules that were designed for use in teacher education.
- *Chinese Teacher Training Centre (CTTC)*
CTTC is based at the University of Melbourne, and was established by the Victorian Department of Education and Training in partnership with China's National Office for Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language (*Hanban*). It is a consortium that includes the China Institute at the Australian National University. CTTC will close after June 2015 at the end of its five-year contract with the Victorian Department.

Introduction

- The Victorian Department of Education and Training delivered the *Asian Languages Teacher Qualifications Program* (ALTQP) with initiatives designed to increase the number of qualified Asian language teachers. Teachers were funded to upgrade or attain language and methodology qualifications, either through existing or commissioned tertiary courses, such as the accelerated Diploma of Languages (Indonesian) at Deakin University.
- The University of New England was awarded NALSSP funding to support secondary school teachers through their *Asian Languages Accreditation Program* (ALAP). Teachers were sponsored to undertake language and language methodology studies in Chinese, Japanese or Indonesian as part of a Diploma in Modern Languages.

Other than NALSSP in the post-2007 period, there was the *National Statement and Plan for Languages Education in Australian Schools* (2005-2008), which was funded by the Australian Government. The *Teaching and Learning Languages: A Guide* online resource (www.iltlp.unisa.edu.au) was developed by the Research Centre for Languages and Cultures (RCLC) at the University of South Australia as part of the National Statement and Plan. The resource is a guide for teaching and learning languages and is used in teacher education programs across Australia. It also includes case study materials in a range of languages. Examples of other projects related to languages teacher education that occurred around 2007 included the *Intercultural language teaching and learning project* (ILTLP) and the *Professional Standards Project: Languages* (PSPL). ILTLP (www.iltlp.unisa.edu.au) was developed and managed by RCLC (University of South Australia) with funding from the Australian Government (through the Quality Teacher Programme). It is a professional learning programme designed to introduce teachers to an intercultural orientation to language learning, and includes teacher education materials, online workshops, discussion papers and teacher case studies. *Professional Standards Project: Languages* (www.pspl.unisa.edu.au) was developed and implemented by AFMLTA, in collaboration with the MLTAs in each state/territory and Research Centre for Languages and Cultures at the University of South Australia. It was funded by the Australian Government through the School Languages Programme. The project includes 10 modules on various aspects of languages pedagogy, based on the AFMLTA professional standards for teachers of languages, and four modules focused on assessment of student learning. These modules are used in languages teacher education.

In 2008, the *Melbourne Declaration on Educational Goals for Young Australians* emphasised the need for all Australians to become 'Asia literate' and focused on the importance of languages (especially Asian) in the curriculum (Ministerial Council for Education, Early Childhood Development and Youth Affairs [MCEECDYA], 2008).

The current Australian Government's commitment to supporting languages education is highlighted by the *Students First* policy.

The Australian Curriculum's commitment to a range of languages extends from the *Melbourne Declaration*. These languages include Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Languages, Chinese, French, German, Indonesian, Italian, Japanese, Korean, Modern Greek, Spanish, Arabic, Vietnamese, Hindi, Turkish, classical languages (Latin and Ancient Greek) and Auslan (Australian Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Authority [ACARA], 2015).

From 2004-2015, the Australian Government funded the *Endeavour Language Teacher Fellowships*, which provided three-week overseas study programme fellowships for teachers and pre-service teachers to further their skills in the language they teach. There have been 1,900 participants in the programme since 2004. Awardees have travelled to China, France, Germany, Greece, Indonesia, Italy, Japan, Korea, Spain, the United Arab Emirates and Vietnam (Australian Government, 2015a). *Endeavour* will cease on 1 July 2015.

The current Australian Government's commitment to supporting languages education is highlighted by the *Students First* policy, the Language Learning Space (LLS), the Early Learning Languages Australia (ELLA) trial, the New Colombo Plan and TEMAG (discussed previously). As part of the 'Strengthening the Australian Curriculum' component of *Students First*, the Government has committed to revising the teaching of languages in schools with the goal of having at least 40 per cent of Year 12 students studying a language within a decade. In 2014, it commissioned research to identify ways to support this goal (Australian Government, 2015b).

Prior to that, the Australian Government funded Education Services Australia to develop the LLS (www.lls.edu.au/home), which provides teaching and learning resources for Chinese, Japanese and Indonesian languages. In 2015, the Government provided \$9.8 million for ELLA to be trialled for one year at 41 preschools. ELLA software and resources are being developed for a range of languages, including Chinese (Mandarin), Japanese, Indonesian and Arabic (Australian Government, 2015c). Finally, tertiary students, including those in teacher education, are able to access intensive language training through the New Colombo Plan scholarships (Australian Government, 2015d).

> Focus areas

The snapshot in *What Works 10* focuses on the following areas of pre-service languages teacher education at all levels (early childhood, primary and secondary):

- Degree structures and certification requirements
- Pedagogical content knowledge.

> Key definitions

Pre-service languages teacher education

This encompasses initial teacher training (pre-teacher registration), retraining of qualified teachers as languages teachers (post-registration), and further training of languages teachers. Initial training can be in the form of an undergraduate (e.g. BEd), graduate (e.g. GradDipEd) or postgraduate (e.g. MTeach) course. Retraining or further training is typically done through a graduate or postgraduate course. This definition is generally consistent with the ACER Review (Kleinheinz et al., 2007).

By 'languages' *What Works 10* is referring to languages in addition to English, so this study does not encompass teacher education with respect to English literacy or English as an Additional Language or Dialect (EALD), for which there is a considerably larger research base.

Degree structure

This refers to the course of study, typically comprising core and non-core subjects/units at specified levels, that students undertake as part of a particular academic degree. For the purposes of this study, units and subjects are seen as interchangeable, but 'course' is seen as comprising of units.

Certification requirements

This refers to the minimum course requirements that students must meet in order to graduate with a particular academic degree.

Pedagogical content knowledge

This refers to the interface of content knowledge and pedagogy, where particular content is interpreted, transformed and tailored for optimal instruction. Teachers need to simultaneously blend both content and pedagogy in the teaching process, which means that pedagogical content knowledge varies depending on subject matter and teaching intent. Knowledge of content alone with some pedagogical awareness does not sufficiently describe the skill required to teach effectively (Shulman, 2013).

Pedagogical content knowledge is preferred to 'languages methodology' in this study. This is because 'methodology' does not sufficiently capture the interface of content and pedagogy. However, this study also acknowledges that 'methodology' continues to be a term commonly used in the context of languages teacher education.

Which elements of languages teacher education work?

> **Key questions**

What Works 10 asks the following key questions with respect to the abovementioned focus areas. It uses the ACER Review of languages teacher education (Kleinheinz et al., 2007) as a baseline.

1. What are some new developments (since 2007)?
 - a. What circumstances have led to these developments?
 - b. How have these developments been implemented?
 - c. How do developments in Australia compare with international developments?
2. Which elements have stayed relatively stable (since 2007)?
 - a. What circumstances have led to their stability?
 - b. How does this stability compare with what is happening internationally?
3. Which elements of languages teacher education work?
 - a. What does the available evidence suggest?
 - b. Is it possible to identify 'what works'?

Unlike the 2007 ACER Review, *What Works 10* is not intended as a comprehensive review of languages teacher education in Australia. It focuses on some areas that can be directly controlled by teacher education institutions.

> Key findings from 2007

The ACER Review of languages teacher education in Australia presented 11 key findings, of which seven are directly relevant to *What Works 10*. The other four findings relate to broader contextual factors that appear to have an impact on recruiting people to train or retrain as languages teachers (Kleinheinz et al., 2007). These were:

1. Low value placed on languages and cultures in the Australian community
2. Variations in supply and demand for languages teachers
3. More disincentives than incentives for people to train as languages teachers
4. Lack of incentives and opportunity for retraining.

Importantly, these factors are not directly controllable by institutions that offer pre-service teacher education and thus fall outside the scope of this present study. The following key findings relate to the *What Works 10* focus on degree structures and certification requirements (Kleinheinz et al., 2007).

Lack of sufficient time within teacher education courses for the study of languages pedagogy

Most pre-service teachers took one or two semester-long units of (generic) languages teaching methodology, which they considered insufficient. The time limitations of one-year postgraduate teaching courses exacerbated this issue. Double degrees (e.g. BA/BEd) appear to offer a greater level of flexibility.

Lack of funding for teacher education curriculum

Inadequate funding entails limited scope for developing units perceived as optional or not mainstream (e.g. languages education). These units have to compete for already scarce resources within teacher education programmes and tend to lose out to units perceived as being more important (e.g. literacy).

The 'languages gap'

The time lag between formal language study and pre-service teacher education impacts on both language proficiency and one's ability as a language teacher. The separate study of languages from languages pedagogy is not ideal with respect to training teachers of languages. Double degrees may help address this issue.

Varied and unsatisfactory practicum experiences

Practicum structures varied considerably across institutions (22-100 hours), and it was difficult to find practicum places for pre-service languages teachers. Where a pre-service teacher needed to have two 'methods', limited practicum time was spent in languages education. Further, practicum arrangements tend to reinforce the artificial split between theory and practice.

These findings relate to longstanding issues in languages teacher education.

These findings relate to longstanding issues in languages teacher education. In 1993, the main pattern of languages teacher education was that students would study languages first and then supplement this study with a one-year teaching course, typically a Graduate Diploma in Education. The language proficiency levels of students would be dealt with in a variety of ways, but it was typical for teaching courses to not distinguish between these students (Nicholas et al., 1993). In a one-year teaching course, there would have been limited time devoted to developing pedagogical content knowledge. These findings relate to the ACER Review observations around the 'languages gap' and lack of sufficient time within teacher education courses for the study of languages pedagogy (Kleinheinz et al., 2007).

A second pattern was that some students would undertake concurrent language and teacher education study within the education faculty, typically as part of a four-year course (Nicholas et al., 1993). This pattern eliminated the 'languages gap' and provided more time for grounding in languages pedagogy and practicum experience. However, it also reinforced significant inconsistencies in languages teacher education and did not address variations in students' language proficiency.

A third pattern was similar, with the main difference being that languages and languages pedagogy were studied concurrently but in separate departments/faculties. The first pattern typically applied to pre-service secondary teachers; the second and third patterns usually applied to primary teachers.

In 2005, students still experienced significant variation in their training as language teachers. For example, language study units ranged from four to six (or more) semester units per language; practicum arrangements ranged from 45-100 days; and languages pedagogy units ranged from one to three semester units. In addition, language curriculum/pedagogy units tended to be generic in nature rather than language specific. Generic units were typically designed to cater for both Asian and European languages, at both primary and secondary levels of teaching, and at times included EALD (Kleinheinz et al., 2007, citing Liddicoat et al., 2005). This observation relates to the ACER Review findings around lack of sufficient time within teacher education courses for the study of languages pedagogy and lack of funding for teacher education curriculum (Kleinheinz et al., 2007).

Another important finding from 2007 was the lack of communication between schools and universities in the development and implementation of languages teacher education (Kleinheinz et al., 2007). Within universities, cross-department collaborations were not typically optimal (Kleinheinz et al., 2007), even though languages teacher education is essentially an interdepartmental activity, i.e. languages study and development of pedagogical content knowledge through a teaching course.

Degree structures and certification requirements

The four case studies in the ACER Review (Kleinheinz et al., 2007) demonstrated the following features with regards to degree structures and certification requirements (Table 1). A feature common to nearly all of these case studies is course length/type, i.e. Bachelor degree. This may indicate that course duration and flexibility are interrelated and together provide the structural platform to support the study of in-depth languages components within pre-service teacher education.

Feature	Institution
Developed in partnership with teachers and principals	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Central Queensland University (Bachelor of Learning Management [Japanese] Primary and Secondary Program)
Students have extensive contact with schools (may include joint project with teacher mentor) and a significant amount of practicum time	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Central Queensland University (Bachelor of Learning Management [Japanese] Primary and Secondary Program) James Cook University (Bachelor of Education/ Bachelor of Languages) Victoria University (Graduate Diploma in Secondary Education)
Large languages teaching component throughout the course	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Central Queensland University (Bachelor of Learning Management [Japanese] Primary and Secondary Program)
Intensive language experience including in-country experience	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> James Cook University (Bachelor of Education/ Bachelor of Languages)
Credit bearing language specialisation pathway within a BEd	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> University of Notre Dame (Bachelor of Education (Primary Years): Italian Teaching Method Units)
Not-for-degree language teacher (re)training option	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> University of Notre Dame (Bachelor of Education (Primary Years): Italian Teaching Method Units)

Table1: Key features of degree structures and certification requirements demonstrated by the four case studies in Kleinheinz et al. (2007)

Many of these features accord with leading practice internationally. For example, in the majority of European countries, languages teachers are highly qualified – close to 90 per cent of those surveyed in a Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency (EACEA) study (2012) stated that they are fully qualified to teach languages. Targeted upgrading courses and redeveloped initial teacher education courses have transpired in response to cases where there has been a rapid expansion of primary school language programmes.

The ACER Review recommended that a longitudinal study of languages teacher education effectiveness be conducted.

In Europe, secondary languages teachers typically complete a course of four or five years to become fully qualified (EACEA, 2012), although this is not dissimilar to cases in Australia where a student completes a Bachelor degree with a language major/minor and then completes a one-year teaching qualification. Requirements of in-country language study, as part of languages teacher education, vary from one country to another: the United Kingdom expects prospective language teachers to complete one year of study in the target language country; Ireland requires three months of in-country study to qualify for language teacher registration; Germany recommends two to four weeks. Even though only a few European countries require such programmes, more than half of languages teachers surveyed have completed in-country language study (EACEA, 2012).

> Post-2007

In recent times, TEMAG has shone a rare spotlight on languages teacher education. TEMAG highlighted challenges such as generic languages education programmes and graduate teachers not possessing the relevant pedagogical content knowledge to enact quality languages teaching. However no specific solutions were offered. Rather, the focus was on recruitment – identifying and attracting suitable talent to address the current small pool of pre-service languages teachers (TEMAG, 2014). Recruitment relates to incentivising languages teacher education and a career as a languages teacher. Incentives can be monetary or otherwise (e.g. advanced academic and/or professional recognition). Lack of incentives was a problem identified in Kleinheinz et al. (2007) and appears to have persisted. The lack of structural solutions in the TEMAG report coincides with the limited evidence base on languages teacher education effectiveness.

The ACER Review offered 15 recommendations in total, around half of which relate to more funding for languages teacher education.

What Works 10 is neither concerned with these funding recommendations to government nor how they have since played out with respect to government policy. In this section, the sole focus is on degree structures and certification requirements, which is the jurisdiction of those institutions that offer languages teacher education.

The ACER Review recommended that a longitudinal study of languages teacher education effectiveness be conducted. The study would track cohorts of students, from selection to course experiences and up to the first five years of their careers (Kleinheinz et al., 2007). Such a study is yet to exist.

Degree structures and certification requirements

In Australia, there are no nationally consistent registration requirements for teachers to teach languages, and requirements vary from one state/territory to another.

Furthermore, there is no comprehensive documentation of how education departments, schools and languages teacher education providers in Australia are working together to strengthen practicum arrangements and experiences, even though several recommendations from the ACER Review focused on this issue (Kleinheinz et al., 2007).

The removal of the 'languages gap' was another key recommendation (Kleinheinz et al., 2007). Options that were proposed included concurrent studies of language and culture with or within education units, language-specific methodology units, and concurrent studies of languages and education. From the perspective of teacher education providers, this recommendation is resource intensive and challenging to address if the pool of prospective languages teachers continues to be small. More prospective teachers of languages are required (see, for example, TEMAG, 2014) for pre-service teacher education providers, in collaboration with languages experts, to realistically address the 'languages gap'. However, to recruit more prospective teachers of languages is to assume that there is corresponding demand from schools (as employers) for specialist languages teachers.

Kleinheinz et al. (2007) also proposed that teacher registration bodies work with education faculties to develop accreditation and quality assurance mechanisms. In particular, these mechanisms would ensure teacher educators have thorough information about students' language and intercultural abilities at the point of entry and that they are able to satisfactorily verify, at the point of exit, students' abilities in the language and culture they are going to teach.

In Australia, there are no nationally consistent registration requirements for teachers to teach languages, and requirements vary from one state/territory to another. For example, in Victoria, the Victorian Institute of Teaching (VIT) has guidelines for all specialist teachers, including those teaching languages, and there are requirements that must be met for teachers teaching at Victorian Certificate of Education (VCE) level (VIT, 2014). In Queensland, teachers wishing to teach languages are required to take a languages proficiency assessment in addition to the application for teacher employment process (Department of Education and Training, 2014). The aligned AFMLTA Standards and Australian Professional Standards for Teachers are a guide for the profession and inform languages teacher education. They are not presently a requirement tied to the registration of languages teachers.

In contrast, a substantial amount of standards-based work with respect to languages teacher education and teacher registration has transpired in the United States (Kleinheinz et al., 2007, citing Liddicoat et al., 2005), where the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS) has Standards for World Languages other than English.

These standards are linked to the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) and National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) standards as well as the Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (INTASC) standards, which US states use to inform their teacher licensing requirements. The standards are used also to inform teacher education program reviews (Kleinheinz et al., 2007, citing Liddicoat et al., 2005). These standards are important because they shape the requirements of languages teacher education and are linked (to a degree) to teacher registration.

One of the most significant developments since 2007 relates to the four case studies discussed in Kleinheinz et al. (2007).

1. Central Queensland University no longer offers the Bachelor of Learning Management (Japanese) Primary and Secondary Program, and there are no undergraduate or postgraduate options for languages education.
2. James Cook University now offers languages teaching pathways for French and Japanese through its [Bachelor of Education \(Secondary\)/ Bachelor of Arts](#). Previously, in 2007, there were also pathways for German, Italian and Chinese through the Bachelor of Education/Bachelor of Languages.
3. Victoria University still offers languages pedagogical content knowledge units (Teaching Languages Other than English 1 and 2), but these are now situated within the [Master of Teaching \(Secondary\)](#). The units were offered previously within the Graduate Diploma in Secondary Education.
4. The University of Notre Dame used to offer an Italian Language specialisation pathway within its Bachelor of Education (Primary). This is no longer the case and the specialisation is now only on offer for the [Bachelor of Education \(Secondary\)](#).

It is widely accepted among languages experts and teacher educators that language-specific teaching units are more effective in fostering quality languages teaching in schools.

> Key findings from 2007

The following key findings from the ACER Review (Kleinheinz et al., 2007) relate directly to the *What Works 10* focus on pedagogical content knowledge within languages teacher education.

Pedagogical content knowledge is typically not language specific

It is widely accepted among languages experts and teacher educators that language-specific teaching units are more effective in fostering quality languages teaching in schools. However, the wide variety of languages, coupled with small numbers of pre-service teachers specialising in languages, has meant that language-specific units, though ideal, have been impractical to run.

This problem is further exacerbated by the fact that students' level of knowledge in the target language and culture, upon entering and exiting teacher education, is usually unknown. Most teacher education providers assume that a (university) minor or major in a language (or equivalent) signifies proficiency, and no formal assessment is typically conducted beforehand.

Insufficient time spent on the study of curriculum/syllabus documents

Teachers teach to a curriculum/syllabus in schools, which varies from one state/territory to another, even in the Australian Curriculum context. When pre-service teachers are insufficiently exposed to curriculum requirements and planning curriculum to meet these requirements, the quality of classroom instruction typically falls. This problem is related to a crowded teacher education curriculum.

Inconsistent teacher education staffing that affects the balance between research and practice

Many teacher educators are employed casually or sessionally and, as practitioners, may lack the time and in-depth expertise to keep up-to-date with languages education research. This potentially creates an artificial split between languages education theory and practice.

The case studies in the ACER Review (Kleinheinz et al., 2007) demonstrated the following features with regards to pedagogical content knowledge (Table 2). However, they did not delve into the finer details of the pedagogical content knowledge developed within the courses in Table 2 and how these relate to advancements in the theory behind effective languages teaching.

Feature	Institution
Concurrent language and pedagogical studies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Central Queensland University (Bachelor of Learning Management [Japanese] Primary and Secondary Program) • James Cook University (Bachelor of Education/ Bachelor of Languages)
Benchmarked against AFMLTA standards and teacher registration standards	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Victoria University (Graduate Diploma in Secondary Education)

Table 2: Key features of pedagogical content knowledge development in Kleinheinz et al. (2007) case studies

Even though an artificial split between languages education theory and practice was observed by Kleinheinz et al. (2007), the issues associated with pedagogical content knowledge at the time were not necessarily due to a lack of understanding or expertise within teacher education on how best to teach languages in schools. Rather, these issues appear to have resulted from a range of interrelated factors, in particular: lack of funding; lack of students; lack of time and space within degree structures; and competing demands within teacher education.

As a result of these factors, languages teacher education units vary in content and approach, despite sharing a range of common themes, such as language acquisition theory, languages pedagogy, languages curriculum, assessment, lesson planning, current issues in languages teaching and learning, reflective practice, Information and Communications Technology (ICT) and languages learning, and languages teaching and learning resources (Kleinheinz et al., 2007). Furthermore, the extent to which these units cover languages acquisition and learning as a socio-cultural activity varies considerably, depending on the research expertise of unit convenors and lecturers. This is despite the profession’s increasing familiarity with intercultural language learning theory and approaches (Kleinheinz et al., 2007).

Approaches to languages teaching have witnessed shifts from grammar translation and audio-lingual methods to communicative and (more recently) intercultural language learning and bilingual methodologies. These shifts have implications for the way languages teacher education is designed and offered and what graduate teachers of languages are expected to know and be able to demonstrate. But while the research base on effective languages teaching has been growing in the last half a century or so (Kleinheinz et al., 2007), this has not typically translated into tailored languages teacher education courses in Australia. This is not necessarily due to lack of will on the part of languages educators; rather, the conditions have been less than optimal.

Therefore, the main issue with incorporating language-specific pedagogical content knowledge within teacher education in Australia is inextricably linked to degree structures and certification requirements. Further, these structures and requirements are related to demand for languages teacher education, and this demand is affected by the broader social and education landscape, which influences how languages are viewed in Australian school education (Kleinheinz et al., 2007)

> Post-2007

Since 2007, there have been developments in relation to the three case studies mentioned in Table 2. As highlighted previously, Central Queensland University no longer offers the Bachelor of Learning Management (Japanese) Primary and Secondary Program, and there are no undergraduate or postgraduate options for languages teaching. James Cook University now offers languages teaching pathways for French and Japanese (only) through its [Bachelor of Education \(Secondary\)/Bachelor of Arts](#). Victoria University now offers languages pedagogical content knowledge units within its [Master of Teaching \(Secondary\)](#).

One of the recommendations in Kleinheinz et al. (2007) was for teacher registration bodies in Australia to work with the Deans of Education to ensure that the study of the relevant state/territory language curriculum is included, as a pre-condition, within languages teacher education courses. The emergence of the [Australian Curriculum: Languages](#) now provides a common reference point for this work to occur across Australia. However, it is too early to know what impact the Australian Curriculum: Languages has had, or will have, on the development of pedagogical content knowledge within languages teacher education.

Another recommendation was for the Education Council to work with AFMLTA to support the development of graduate standards for languages teachers (Kleinheinz et al., 2007). Important work has been completed in this space through the alignment of the [AFMLTA Accomplished and Lead Standards with the Australian Professional Standards for Teachers](#).

Teacher education work led by AITSL as a result of the TEMAG report provides an indication of the kind of specific work that may need to be focused on languages teacher education effectiveness.

This alignment involves all steps of the [Australian Professional Standards for Teachers](#), i.e. graduate, proficient, highly accomplished, and lead.

In Australia, standards-based reforms have driven recent advancements in teacher education. Indeed, the ACER Review had flagged a move towards standards rather than focusing on broad-based competencies (Kleinheinz et al., 2007). Yet, standards-based reforms are different from, though related to, developing an evidence base of what works in languages teacher education. The ACER Review demonstrated how little is known about languages teacher education effectiveness, so much so that the reviewers had to reference literature from other cognate areas, such as quality (languages) teaching, to build their case for change (Kleinheinz et al., 2007). As mentioned previously, the Australian Professional Standards for Teachers are being evaluated. An evaluation of the AFMLTA Standards as aligned to these Professional Standards may provide a useful evidence base to identify areas of reform for languages teacher education in Australia.

Teacher education work led by AITSL as a result of the TEMAG report provides an indication of the kind of specific work that may need to be focused on languages teacher education effectiveness. Such work would contribute to the refinement of approaches to developing languages pedagogical content knowledge. According to AITSL (2015), TEMAG's Action Now report highlighted the following issues with respect to teacher education effectiveness:

- Pre-service teachers are not consistently assessed to determine whether they have achieved the Professional Standards (graduate level) at programme completion
- Innovative models for assessment of classroom readiness are increasing but have not been widely implemented
- Consistent and transparent graduate assessment against an agreed benchmark does not exist for teacher education, yet, this is a key feature of many other comparable professions in Australia and internationally.

The report subsequently recommended that teacher education providers assess all pre-service teachers against the graduate level of the Professional Standards, and for AITSL to develop a national assessment framework to enable teacher education providers and schools to assess the classroom readiness of pre-service teachers throughout their training (AITSL, 2015). AITSL has since commissioned a scan of standardised teacher assessment practices in Australia and internationally (Louden, 2015), to provide a research base for future work on the TEMAG recommendations.

Pedagogical content knowledge

Strengthening the development of languages pedagogical content knowledge is inextricably linked to degree structures and certification requirements.

Louden (2015) identified four broad types of entry and exit assessments, namely those that assess basic skills, content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge and teaching performance. The United States leads the way in the use of such assessments. There is an opportunity to utilise standardised assessments in Australia to assess professional skills and teaching performance aligned to the Professional Standards at graduate level (Louden, 2015). Because standardised assessments are not new and standards for languages teachers in Australia already exist, entry and exit assessments for languages teacher education could be developed to assess professional knowledge (including languages proficiency), skills and teaching performance. The challenge lies in differentiating between the languages that are commonly taught in Australian schools. In addition, policy decisions have to be made as to whether such assessments are implemented at a programme or national level (Louden, 2015). However, a nationally moderated approach would strengthen and support the application of national standards (Louden, 2015).

Both Deakin University and the University of Melbourne have made successful progress in assessing teaching performance. The Deakin Authentic Teacher Assessment and the Melbourne Clinical Praxis Examination are models that can be referenced (Louden, 2015) as a foundation for exploring graduate assessment possibilities specifically for languages teacher education. Such assessment would have implications for the development of pedagogical content knowledge within languages teacher education as well as teacher education course structures and certification requirements. As indicated previously, any focus on strengthening the development of languages pedagogical content knowledge is inextricably linked to degree structures and certification requirements.

Snapshot of languages teacher education in Australia

The intent is to provide an indication of the languages teacher education landscape in Australia.

This section provides a snapshot of the current state of languages teacher education in Australia across a number of states/territories. This snapshot is neither meant to be exhaustive nor in-depth, whether at a state/territory, national or institutional level. Rather, the intent is to provide an indication of the languages teacher education landscape in Australia and link this to some of the research literature related to languages teacher education effectiveness from the last five years.

Table 3 presents a selection of teacher education courses (in 23 Australian institutions) and focuses on languages teacher education. Some examples of courses that are no longer offered have been included to provide an indication of developments since 2007. In some cases, the courses are now defunct; in other instances, the courses have been redesigned and offered as another qualification.

The courses in Table 3 encompass initial teacher training (pre-teacher registration), retraining of qualified teachers as languages teachers (post-registration), and further training of languages teachers. Initial training can be in the form of an undergraduate (e.g. BEd), graduate (e.g. GradDipEd) or postgraduate (e.g. MTeach) course. Retraining or further training is typically done through a graduate or postgraduate course.

Table 3 also includes comments on developments post-2007 (where relevant) and a focus on eight institutions (highlighted). These institutions have been selected because they offer sound languages teacher education pathways, a judgement determined on the basis of Kleinhenz et al. (2007) and subsequent research literature on effective, or model, approaches to languages teacher education. The four case studies from Kleinhenz et al. (2007) have been marked with an asterisk (*) for ease of reference.

**Table 3: A selection of teacher education courses in Australia with a focus on languages teacher education
(Sources: Institution websites)**

Institute	Course	Course type	School level	Developments post-2007	Notes
National					
Australian Catholic University	Bachelor of Teaching/Bachelor of Arts (Primary)	UG (initial)	Primary	LOTE specialisation no longer appears to be on offer	
	Bachelor of Teaching/Bachelor of Arts (Secondary)	UG (initial)	Secondary		Second year elective: Curriculum Pedagogy & Assessment in Language Education 1 (no pre-requisite) Languages Major/Minor (Italian, Japanese, Mandarin or other languages) – available as cross-institutional study as approved by Course Coordinator
	Master of Teaching (Primary)	PG (initial)	Primary		Languages or languages methodology do not appear to be an option
	Master of Teaching (Secondary)	PG (initial)	Secondary		Offers: LOTE Curriculum and Teaching 1; LOTE Curriculum and Teaching 2; LOTE Curriculum and Teaching 3; LOTE Curriculum and Teaching 4 No language requirement for methodology units. Short 8-week courses available on user-pays system for French, Italian, Mandarin, Chinese and Spanish

Snapshot of languages teacher education in Australia

Institute	Course	Course type	School level	Developments post-2007	Notes
Christian Heritage College Mansfield, Brisbane, QLD)	Bachelor of Education (Primary) Stream B Early	UG (initial)	P-7		Languages not an elective subject
	Bachelor of Education (Primary) Stream A General	UG (initial)	P-7		Languages not an elective subject
	Bachelor of Education (Middle Years)	UG (initial)	4-9		Languages not an elective subject
	Bachelor of Education (Secondary)	UG (initial)	7-12		Languages not an elective subject
	Bachelor of Arts/Bachelor of Education (Secondary)	UG (initial)	7-12		Languages not an elective subject
	Graduate Diploma in Education (Secondary)	G (initial)	7-12		Languages is a teaching area
The University of Notre Dame Australia (WA)*	Bachelor of Education (Primary)	UG (initial)	Primary	Italian Language specialisation pathway no longer offered	
	Bachelor of Education (Secondary)	UG (initial)	Secondary		Italian Language specialisation pathway offered
The University of Notre Dame Australia (NSW)	Bachelor of Arts/Bachelor of Education (Secondary)	UG (initial)	Secondary		Italian and Greek can be studied as a major or minor for the Bachelor of Arts/Bachelor of Education (Secondary)

Institute	Course	Course type	School level	Developments post-2007	Notes
University of Canberra	Graduate Diploma in Education Secondary Teaching	UG (initial)	Secondary	Course closed in 2013	
	Bachelor of Education in Middle School Teaching	UG (initial)	Middle years	Course closed in 2013	
	Bachelor of Education in Primary Teaching	UG (initial)	Primary	Course closed in 2013	
	Bachelor of Education in Secondary Teaching	UG (initial)	Secondary	Now offered as a range of specialisations/ double degrees	
	Bachelor of Education (UC)/ Bachelor of Asia-Pacific Studies (ANU)	UG (initial)	Secondary	Course closed in 2013	Included a major in a 'regional' (Asia-Pacific) language
	Bachelor of Education/ Bachelor of Arts	UG (initial)	Secondary		Students can develop in-depth knowledge in languages teaching; major in Chinese, Japanese or Spanish at University of Canberra or any language offered at ANU; major in Language Studies (methodology)
	Graduate Diploma in TESOL and Foreign Language Teaching	G (retrain, further)			
	Graduate Certificate in TESOL and Foreign Language Teaching	G (retrain, further)			

Snapshot of languages teacher education in Australia

Institute	Course	Course type	School level	Developments post-2007	Notes
New South Wales					
Charles Sturt University	Graduate Diploma in Education (Secondary)	UG (initial)	Secondary	No longer offered	
	Graduate Certificate in Languages other than English Teaching	G (retrain, further)		No longer offered	
	Bachelor of Education (Secondary)	UG (initial)	Secondary	No longer offered	
	Bachelor of Education (Primary)	UG (initial)	Primary	No longer offered	
	Master of Teaching (Primary)	PG (initial)	Primary		Languages not offered as elective
	Master of Teaching (Secondary)	PG (initial)	Secondary		Languages not offered as elective
	Graduate Certificate in Wiradjuri Language, Culture and Heritage	G (retrain, further)			

Institute	Course	Course type	School level	Developments post-2007	Notes
Macquarie University	Graduate Diploma in Education (Secondary)	G (initial)	Secondary	No longer offered	
	Bachelor of Arts with the Degree of Bachelor of Education (Secondary) with a Major in French and Francophone Studies	UG (initial)	Secondary		(Language-specific) combined study of language and education
	Bachelor of Arts with the Degree of Bachelor of Education (Primary) with a Major in French and Francophone Studies	UG (initial)	Primary		(Language-specific) combined study of language and education
	Bachelor of Education (Secondary)	UG (initial)	Secondary		Methodology subjects over 2 years (Languages in the Secondary School)
University of New England	Graduate Diploma in Education (Secondary)	G (initial)	Secondary	No longer offered	
	Bachelor of Education (Secondary Arts)	UG (initial)	Secondary		Languages include Chinese, Classical (Latin/Greek), French, German, Indonesian, Italian and Japanese; Languages Teaching I and II (methodology)
	Bachelor of Education (Primary)	UG (initial)	Primary		Discipline studies include Chinese, French, German, Indonesian, Italian and Japanese
	Graduate Certificate in Education Studies	G (retrain, further)			Language Society and Culture; Linguistics for Language Teachers; Second Language Acquisition: Applications

Snapshot of languages teacher education in Australia

Institute	Course	Course type	School level	Developments post-2007	Notes
University of Sydney	Bachelor of Education Secondary: Humanities and Social Sciences and Bachelor of Arts	UG (initial)	Secondary		Teaching Languages (Methodology); majors in Chinese Studies, French Studies, Germanic Studies, Italian Studies, Japanese Studies, Korean Studies, Latin, Modern Greek Studies, Spanish and Latin, and American Studies
	Graduate Certificate in Indigenous Languages	G (retrain, further)		Not offered in 2015	
	Bachelor of Education (Primary)	UG (initial)	Primary		No languages or methodology option appears to be available; may be combined with Diploma of Languages (Chinese, French, German, Greek [Ancient], Hebrew [Classical], Hebrew [Modern], Indonesian, Italian, Japanese, Korean, Latin, Modern Greek, Sanskrit, Spanish and Latin American Studies)
University of Technology Sydney	Graduate Diploma in Languages Teaching	G (retrain, further)		No longer offered	
	Bachelor of Education in Primary Education	UG (initial)	Primary		No languages or methodology option appears to be available
	Master of Teaching in Secondary Education	PG (initial)	Secondary		General languages and literacy subjects (core and elective)

Institute	Course	Course type	School level	Developments post-2007	Notes
University of Wollongong	Graduate Diploma in Education (Secondary)	G (initial)	Primary		French method and Modern Languages method available; specific languages for study include Italian, Spanish, Japanese and Mandarin
	Bachelor of Primary Education	UG (initial)	Primary		Year 4 elective: Methodology in Second Language Teaching (for the teaching of English) Students can concurrently complete a Diploma of Languages (Chinese, Croatian, French, German, Italian, Japanese, Modern Greek, Polish, Russian or Spanish); the Diploma can also be completed by students already holding a Bachelor degree, and can only be taken on a part-time basis; language units take a communicative approach; students have opportunities to include in-country studies
University of Western Sydney	Bachelor of Arts/ Master of Teaching (Secondary)	UG and PG (initial)	Secondary		Major in Arabic, Chinese, Indonesian, Japanese or Linguistics (which has second language learning as one of the units)

Snapshot of languages teacher education in Australia

Institute	Course	Course type	School level	Developments post-2007	Notes
Victoria					
Deakin University	Bachelor of Teaching (Secondary)/ Bachelor of Arts	UG (initial)	Secondary		<p>Major in one of Arabic, Chinese, Indonesian or Spanish; students selecting LOTE as a first teaching method and do not have a Year 12 background in the language must do further study in their language major; native speakers can study two teaching methods and have LOTE recognised as a third teaching method area</p> <p>Students undertaking any Bachelor degree at Deakin can complete a concurrent Diploma in Language (Arabic, Chinese, Indonesian or Spanish)</p>
	Master of Education (Teaching Languages other Than English)	PG (retrain or further)			For languages teachers to further develop their understandings and skills as languages education specialists; also suitable for qualified teachers to enter into the field of languages education
	Graduate Certificate of Education (Teaching Languages Other Than English)	G (retrain or further)			Similar to the Masters; provides an early exit option for students
Monash University	Postgraduate Diploma of Education – Teaching Languages Other Than English (LOTE)	PG (retrain or further)		No longer offered	

Institute	Course	Course type	School level	Developments post-2007	Notes
Monash University (continued)	Bachelor of Education (Honours) Specialisation: Primary Education	UG (initial)	Primary		Discipline studies include LOTE; students complete a sequence of six language units from the Faculty of Arts; languages available include Chinese, French, German, Indonesian, Italian, Japanese, Modern Greek and Spanish Students studying for a Bachelor degree at Monash can also complete a concurrent Diploma in Languages
	Bachelor of Education (Honours) and Bachelor of Arts Specialisation: Primary Education	UG (initial)	Primary		Discipline studies include majors in Chinese studies, French Studies, German Studies, Indonesian studies, Italian studies, Japanese studies, Korean studies, and Spanish and Latin American studies
	Bachelor of Education (Honours) Specialisation: Secondary Education	UG (initial)	Secondary		Requires post-VCE study in Chinese, French, German, Greek, Italian, Indonesian, Hebrew, Japanese or Korean; native speakers must seek a statement of equivalence from a Victorian university Students can complete a LOTE single or double specialism; subjects include Languages education in the secondary years A and B, and Languages education A and B
	Bachelor of Education (Honours) Specialisation: Primary and Secondary Education	UG (initial)	F-12		As above At Monash, the Melbourne Centre for Japanese Language Education (MCJLE) has established a program to provide pre-service teachers planning to teach Japanese with Japanese teaching methods and language-specific training.

Snapshot of languages teacher education in Australia

Institute	Course	Course type	School level	Developments post-2007	Notes
The University of Melbourne	Bachelor of Teaching (Primary)	UG (initial)	Primary	No longer offered	
	Graduate Diploma in Education (Secondary)	G (initial)	Secondary	No longer offered	
	Master of Teaching (Early Childhood, Primary, Secondary or Secondary Internship)	PG (initial)	Early, Primary or Secondary		Students can be a graduate from any discipline; students completing a Bachelor degree at the university can complete a concurrent Diploma in Languages (Ancient Greek, Arabic, Chinese, French, German, Hebrew, Indonesian, Italian, Japanese, Latin, Russian or Spanish) LOTE in the Primary Classroom offered as an elective for primary specialisation; Learning Area LOTE 1 and 2 offered for Secondary specialisation
	Master of Education (CLIL)	PG (further)			Offers in-depth training in CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) methodology; a Graduate Certificate in Education (CLIL) is also offered
Victoria University*	Graduate Diploma in Secondary Education	G (initial)	Secondary	No longer offered	
	Master of Teaching (Secondary)	PG (initial)	Secondary		Languages methodology units available (Teaching Languages other than English 1 and 2)
	Master of Teaching (Primary)	PG (initial)	Primary		No languages methodology units

Institute	Course	Course type	School level	Developments post-2007	Notes
South Australia					
Flinders University	Graduate Certificate in Language Teaching	G (retrain)	Primary or Secondary		For qualified teachers who wish to become teachers of French, Italian, Modern Greek, Spanish or Indonesian but have limited or no knowledge of that language; more advanced students may be admitted at course coordinator's discretion
	Graduate Diploma in Language Teaching	G (retrain)	Primary of Secondary		As above
	Master of Language Studies	PG (further)			Not a specific course in education, but provides an advanced level of understanding in Cultural Studies and/or Applied Linguistics, in relation to French, Italian, Modern Greek, Spanish or Indonesian
University of South Australia	Graduate Certificate in Languages Education	G (retrain or further)		No longer offered	
	Bachelor of Education (Primary)	UG (initial)	Primary		Languages offered as a learning area specialisation Bachelor degree students can complete a concurrent Diploma in Languages (French, Italian, Japanese or English as an Additional Language)
	Bachelor of Education (Primary and Middle)	UG (initial)	Primary Middle		Languages offered as a learning area specialisation

Snapshot of languages teacher education in Australia

Institute	Course	Course type	School level	Developments post-2007	Notes
University of South Australia (continued)	Bachelor of Education (Early childhood)	UG (initial)	Early		Languages not offered as a learning area or elective
	Master of Teaching (Secondary)	PG (initial)	Secondary		Languages offered as a learning area specialisation
	Master of Teaching (Primary)	PG (initial)	Primary		Languages not offered as a learning area or elective
	Master of Teaching (Early childhood)	PG (initial)	Early		Languages not offered as a learning area or elective
	Bachelor of Arts (Languages) and Master of Teaching (Secondary)	UG and PG (initial)	Secondary		<p>Pathway document for prospective secondary language teachers identifies Bachelor of Arts (Languages) as pathway into Master of Teaching (Secondary); automatic entry into the MTeach upon successful completion of the BA</p> <p>Another option is to first complete a Bachelor of Arts (Languages), any undergraduate degree that allows a language major, or any undergraduate degree at the university alongside a Diploma in Languages; upon successful completion, students can apply to undertake the Master of Teaching (Secondary), specialising in Languages Education</p>

Institute	Course	Course type	School level	Developments post-2007	Notes
Queensland					
Central Queensland University*	Bachelor of Learning Management (Japanese) Primary and Secondary Program	UG (initial)	Primary Secondary	No longer offered	
	Diploma of Junior Secondary teaching (Specialisation)	G (retrain)	Junior Secondary		Majors for English & History or Mathematics & Science only
	Bachelor of Education (Primary)	UG (initial)	Primary		No Languages or methodology option available
	Bachelor of Education (Secondary)	UG (initial)	Secondary		No Languages or methodology option available
Griffith University	Graduate Diploma of Education (Secondary)	G (initial)	Secondary	Language specialisation no longer offered	No Languages or methodology option appears to be available
	Bachelor of Secondary Education	UG (initial)	Secondary		No Languages or methodology option appears to be available
James Cook University*	Bachelor of Education (Secondary)/ Bachelor of Arts	UG (initial)	Secondary	Previously it was the Bachelor of Education/ Bachelor of Languages	Languages teaching pathways offered for French and Japanese; previously, there were also pathways for German, Italian and Chinese

Snapshot of languages teacher education in Australia

Institute	Course	Course type	School level	Developments post-2007	Notes
Western Australia					
University of Western Australia	Master of Teaching (Early childhood)	PG (initial)	Early		No Languages or methodology option available
	Master of Teaching (Primary)	PG (initial)	Primary		No Languages or methodology option available
	Master of Teaching (Secondary)	PG (initial)	Secondary		Languages methodology major available – Languages other than English (LOTE) Curriculum 1 and 2 The university offers concurrent study for a Diploma in Modern Languages alongside a Bachelor degree; these can be completed prior to entry into the MTeach; languages offered include Chinese, Indonesian, Japanese, Korean, French, Italian and German
	Graduate Diploma of Education (Secondary)	G (initial)	Secondary		Languages methodology major available – Languages other than English (LOTE) Curriculum 1

Disclaimer: This table has been compiled based on a review of publicly available information from the respective institutions' websites and/or course handbooks. The information is current as of June 2015. AEF is not responsible for the currency of the information before or after June 2015, and it cannot guarantee the accuracy of the information beyond what has been published by the relevant institutions.

There appears to be a mismatch between policy intents to boost the uptake and quality of languages education in Australian schools and the current state of languages teacher education.

Based on the snapshot of languages teacher education in Australia (Table 3), there appears to be a mismatch between policy intents to boost the uptake and quality of languages education in Australian schools and the current state of languages teacher education. Quality teaching is the single most controllable factor in ensuring successful language learning (Lo Bianco & Aliani, 2013), and it begins with teacher education.

As mentioned previously, the Australian Government has committed to revising the teaching of languages in schools with the goal of having at least 40 per cent of Year 12 students studying a language within a decade (Australian Government, 2015b). It has committed to the ELLA trial for Chinese, Japanese, Indonesian and Arabic with 41 preschools (Australian Government, 2015c), but languages teacher education targeted specifically at the early childhood level appears to be non-existent. The Australian Curriculum: Languages provides a national springboard for a more consistent approach to languages curriculum; yet, in the classroom, students' experience of the written curriculum depends on the quality of the teaching.

At the state level, there are clear intentions to address the challenges and opportunities of languages education in Australia. For example, the Government of Western Australia, School Curriculum and Standards Authority (SCSA) recently launched *The State of Play: Languages Education in Western Australia* (Coghlan & Holcz, 2014). This report provides an overview of pre-primary to Year 12 languages education in Western Australia, covering both in-school and out-of-school settings. It presents enrolment data and discusses challenges for the future of languages education in the state.

In New South Wales, the Languages Advisory Panel convened for the first time in March 2015 and has been tasked with overseeing the development of languages education policy since the completion of *Learning through Languages: Review of Languages Education in NSW* (Board of Studies, Teaching and Educational Standards [BOSTES], 2014). In Victoria, the *Love of Language* website was launched in October 2014 by Community Languages Australia, with the support of the Victorian Government. The website is aimed at promoting the learning of languages and is linked to *Languages – Expanding your World: Plan to implement the Victorian Government's Vision for Languages Education 2013-25*.

Snapshot of languages teacher education in Australia

Primary offerings for languages teacher education appear to be shrinking. For early childhood, such offerings appear to be non-existent.

The Plan (Department of Education and Early Childhood Development, 2013) set the following targets:

- By 2015, 100 per cent of government schools providing Foundation programmes
- By 2025, 100 per cent of government schools providing a language programme and awarding the new Certificate of Language Proficiency
- 25 per cent of all students in government and non-government schools include a language in addition to English in their senior secondary programme of study
- 60 per cent of Year 6 students and 40 per cent of Year 10 students achieving required proficiency.

With these commitments to languages education, the TEMAG (2014) report was a good step forward in sparking further discussion around ways to improve languages teacher education, including finding ways to attract the most suitable candidates for languages teaching and the need for more graduate primary teachers to specialise in languages. Yet, based on the present snapshot, primary offerings for languages teacher education appear to be shrinking, with very few universities offering specific pre-service units on teaching languages at primary level. For early childhood, such offerings appear to be non-existent, although there is typically a strong focus on literacy in general.

By contrast, Fernandez and Gearon (2011) found that high-performing countries in the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), such as Finland, China, the Republic of Korea and Japan, have compulsory language learning that starts at an early age. For example, in Finland, language learning is allocated 228 hours per year at primary level (compared to around 60 hours in Australia).

With the introduction of the ELLA trial, early childhood educators will require the capacity to support the learning of languages in the early childhood environment. This would apply also to primary teachers, given the limited time that many students spend with a specialist languages teacher in primary school, which is not optimal for successful language learning. However, apart from generic core units in language and literacy education within teacher education courses, graduate generalist teachers would have had limited training on ways to support students' learning of languages in addition to English.

The dynamics of early childhood and primary languages teaching places particular demands on generalist teachers, largely due to the integrated nature learning within early childhood and primary education. For example, without sufficient training in languages methodology, it is difficult for the classroom teacher to follow up with students on what was taught by the languages teacher (Daly, 2014).

Languages specialisation during pre-service teacher education, or even basic training to support the learning of languages, is more for prospective secondary teachers despite the few primary-level offerings. Even so, such training, where it exists, is typically not language-specific, so pre-service teachers would complete the same languages methodology units regardless of their target language. In fact, the present snapshot also indicates some shrinking of languages specialisation pathways within secondary teacher education. The lack of differentiation according to language contradicts the idea of specific pedagogical content knowledge being associated with particular subjects. Pedagogical content knowledge varies according to subject matter and teaching intent, so content knowledge alone with some pedagogical knowledge is not sufficient for enacting effective teaching (Shulman, 2013).

In addition, students from different linguistic backgrounds in schools respond differently to a particular language of study, due to, for example, the nature of its written script, grammatical structures and pragmatics. Learning how to deal with this scenario to ensure successful language learning outcomes for all students requires differentiated languages training within teacher education. The lack of such differentiation was observed by TEMAG (2014), which means that graduate languages teacher do not necessarily possess the relevant pedagogical content knowledge to enact quality languages teaching. However, this situation exists partly due to the small pool of pre-service languages teachers for a broad range of languages (TEMAG, 2014).

Table 3 demonstrates that teachers who wish to develop their specialisation in languages teaching need to look at graduate and postgraduate study options as a form of retraining (to become languages teachers) or further professional development. But, once again, the study options are not necessarily language specific. The few exceptions that offer differentiated languages teacher education (pre-service or in-service) include, for example, Macquarie University (French), University of Wollongong (French), James Cook University (French and Japanese), The University of Notre Dame (Italian), and Monash University (Japanese through MCJLE). Specific training for Chinese language had been available through CTTC at The University of Melbourne until June 2015.

Since 2007, the present snapshot also indicates that many teacher education courses are no longer offered. However, in many cases, the courses that were closed have been revamped and reintroduced as a new, typically more rigorous, teacher education qualification (e.g. from a one-year GradDipEd to a four-year BEd or two-year MTeach).

Snapshot of languages teacher education in Australia

Concurrent language study promotes greater alignment between developing skills in the target language and building languages teaching capacity.

Overall, it is not easy for pre-service teachers to access in-depth languages methodology training to develop their capacity as languages teachers. In the vast majority of cases, the training is not language-specific and teachers have to undertake further graduate or postgraduate studies in languages education to develop their expertise. The ways in which languages teacher education has been set up in Australia suggests that becoming a formally-recognised, expert languages teacher involves many years of initial teacher training and further specialist training. While this may address the issue of quality languages teaching, it may also act as a disincentive for teachers to specialise in languages. Much of the in-depth training in languages pedagogies (not necessarily language specific) occurs at the graduate and postgraduate levels. For example, the Melbourne Graduate School of Education offers specialist training in Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) methodology through a Master of Education (CLIL) or Graduate Certificate in Education (CLIL); Flinders University offers a Graduate Certificate or Graduate Diploma in Languages Teaching.

Nevertheless, there has been an expansion in concurrent language study opportunities (e.g. Diploma in Languages or BA/BEd double degrees), which enable pre-service teachers to study their target language/s alongside their languages methodology subjects. This is particularly the case for secondary teaching courses and is a positive development for pre-service teachers' pedagogical content knowledge. The concurrent language study option is strong in the examples highlighted in Table 3. Pre-service teachers in primary teaching courses can also access concurrent language study, but this is typically not done alongside languages methodology subjects, as these methodology subjects are not usually offered as part of primary-level courses.

Concurrent language study addresses the languages gap (Kleinheinz et al., 2007) and promotes greater alignment between developing skills in the target language and building languages teaching capacity. Otherwise, language study would have to be completed prior to undertaking a teacher education course with a languages specialisation, as seen, for example, in the University of South Australia pathways for prospective secondary languages teachers. In this case, the Diploma of Languages is not taken concurrently with a teaching qualification. Rather, it can be completed alongside an undergraduate degree prior to articulation into an MTeach.

> Research literature

There is a dearth of research literature on effective models of languages teacher education (Huhn, 2012; Kleinheinz et al., 2007), yet such models grounded in empirical research are required to strengthen pre-service languages teacher education (Huhn, 2012). In the United States, however, many languages teacher education programmes have since been reviewed as a result of *ACTFL/NCATE Program Standards for the Preparation of Foreign Language Teachers*. While it is widely acknowledged by languages experts that languages teaching must move beyond grammar and translation approaches, the published research on effective languages teacher education does not reflect this. Huhn (2012) argues that standards-based reforms should thus underpin the development and implementation of effective languages teacher education.

The research literature relevant to this present study tends to focus more on particular aspects of teacher education practice that can contribute to making languages teacher education more effective. With some exceptions, the literature does not typically address issues related to course structures and certification requirements and/or approaches to developing pedagogical content knowledge in languages. Moreover, there has been more of a focus on the study of English as a Foreign Language, Second Language or Additional Language/Dialect than studying other languages from the perspective of English first-language speakers.

> Specific aspects of teacher education that aid languages teacher education effectiveness

Some research on the role of technology in languages teacher education has been conducted in the United States, where languages teachers are increasingly expected to demonstrate skills in using technologies in their teaching (Arnold, 2013). Based on an analysis of languages method textbooks and a survey of 98 faculty members concerning the use of Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL), textbooks appear to play an important role in introducing teachers to the effective use of CALL. Hence, teacher educators should not only focus on subject content, but also the transferable skills that will enable their students to adapt to future changes in technology as part of their teaching (Arnold, 2013). This argument has been similarly put forward in *What Works 4: Using ICT in schools to support the development of Asia-relevant capabilities* (AEF, 2013).

The value of using of technology within languages methodology units has also been researched. In a study involving 25 pre-service language teachers from a university in the United States, the use of technology was found to be beneficial for bridging the gap between theory and practice, and promoting critical thinking and professional growth.

Snapshot of languages teacher education in Australia

Upon graduation, teachers need further professional learning to develop their capacity as linguistically responsive teachers.

Despite technology-related problems, the participants believed the use of technology enabled varied and rich interactions, stimulated peer feedback and reflection, enhanced collegiality, and developed a sense of learner autonomy (Sardegna & Dugartsyrenova, 2014). The findings suggest a need to have a combination of both online and face-to-face components within languages teacher education (Sardegna & Dugartsyrenova, 2014).

In a separate study involving 17 students from an institution in the United States and 13 students from a Taiwan institution, online tools were found to offer useful collaboration opportunities to support intercultural and language learning within languages teacher education. However, technology difficulties and lack of user training remained key challenges for implementation (Fuchs, 2011).

Reflexivity is another aspect of teacher education practice that has been researched in relation to languages teacher education. A study involving 50 languages teachers in Yemen and Saudi Arabia affirmed the importance for students of engaging in reflective practices (individual and group) within initial teacher education (Al-Ahdal & Al-Awaid, 2014). In this context, reflexivity incorporates continuous professional learning, reflecting on teaching practice in relation to learning outcomes, and modifying and adapting practice based on an assessment of outcomes. Similarly, a study on the impact of writing reflective journals and sharing these with peers within languages teacher education found that pre-service teachers develop, as a result, a greater understanding of the benefits of reflexivity, collegiality and deliberate professional sharing (Thomas & Geursen, 2013)

Preparing pre-service languages teachers for teaching in culturally and linguistically diverse classrooms has also been affirmed as an important aspect of their teacher education experience. Using an Intercultural Competence instrument and quantitative data from 44 pre-service languages teachers in Turkey, Bektas-Cetinkaya (2014) found that intercultural training can develop participants' intercultural knowledge, awareness and skills, even in cases where an overseas study programme is not involved. These findings are highly relevant to Australia's multicultural and multilingual context.

Similarly, Kromidha and Tabaku (2011) found that training prospective languages teachers to focus on students' needs and experiences, given the complex linguistic and cultural context of Albania, is essential to effective languages teacher education. The foundations for linguistically responsive teaching need to be set during pre-service teacher education, but with the consideration that teacher graduates emerge as novices in the profession. Upon graduation, teachers need further professional learning to develop their capacity as linguistically responsive teachers (Lucas & Villegas, 2013).

> Aspects of languages teacher education related to degree structures, certification requirements and pedagogical content knowledge

Proficiency and teaching performance assessment

In Australia, there is no nationally consistent or standardised formal assessment of target language proficiency and languages teaching performance during a pre-service language teacher's training. However, in cases where languages specialisation in a specific language is offered, pre-service teachers require a major in that language for entry into corresponding methodology units. In the United States, Kissau (2014) examined the impact of the Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI) on one languages teacher education programme that requires OPI as part of licensure requirements. Overall, the OPI requirement did not impact negatively on enrolments, instead providing a range of positive benefits. These include data to make refinements to the teacher education programme, heightened focus on developing and assessing learners' language proficiency, provisions to increase learner interaction with native speakers, improved service learning and in-country study offerings, and monitoring language learning progress at multiple points (Kissau, 2014).

In a European context, the European Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages (EPOSTL) was found to be effective in improving pre-service teachers' use of metacognitive strategies and learning autonomy, both of which are considered important for effective teaching (Mirici & Herguner, 2015). EPOSTL is a digital self-assessment tool, and it builds on the *Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR)*, the *European Language Portfolio (ELP)* and the *European Profile for Language Teacher Education*. The tool enables pre-service language teachers to monitor their teaching progress and performance and reflect on their experiences (Mirici & Herguner, 2015).

Concurrency, consistency and quality

Concurrency of languages study and languages methodology training is an important aspect of languages teacher education, as identified in Kleinheinz et al. (2007) and this present study. With concurrency comes the need to ensure consistency in all aspects of languages teacher education, because of the need for interdepartmental collaboration (typically between languages departments and teacher educators). Consistency also relates to quality, as seen in Brooks and Darhower's (2014) study of three languages teacher education programmes in the United States that have been found to have a high success rate in advancing teachers along the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) scale.

Snapshot of languages teacher education in Australia

All three programmes displayed the following common features: (nearly) all pre-service teachers and staff knew and supported the ACTFL guidelines; classes offer intellectual challenge; accessible, supportive and interested teaching staff; strong student-staff engagement; regular constructive feedback; a culture of collaboration among staff; staff teach both language courses and courses in their area of specialisation; departments include staff who are certified ACTFL trainers and/or testers; and opportunities to use the target language in a wide variety of contexts (Brooks & Darhower, 2014).

One aspect of concurrency that is important for effective languages teacher education relates to bridging the gap between research and practice. Traditionally, research is seen as cutting edge, but insights rarely make it into classroom practice; practice is seen as being grounded in the real world but not necessarily informed by research. This gap is an artificial one as teachers are increasingly expected to engage in evidence-informed practice. Montgomery and Smith (2015) found that research partnerships and collaborations as well as collegial sharing between teacher educators and teachers could help bridge the gap.

Mentoring

Mentoring is a feature of teacher education, and the strength, intensity and quality of the mentor-mentee (or pre-service teacher and supervisor) relationship contributes positively to the teacher education experience. The following research studies demonstrate the importance of ensuring that the mentoring experience is carefully designed and incorporated into languages teacher education.

While further empirical research is needed on the features of effective mentoring within languages teacher education, some variables that impact on the mentoring relationship include constructive feedback and positive emotional support, co-constructed learning and bi-directional communication, awareness of intercultural opportunities and challenges, matching of expectations, mentor training, discourse features and observation procedures (Delaney, 2012).

Effective languages mentoring enables pre-service languages teachers to develop pedagogical content knowledge for their target language/s. Mentoring affirms the importance of praxis (theoretical knowledge and doing) and 'learning to do' because it helps pre-service teachers develop their pedagogical content knowledge within real classroom teaching situations (Van Compernelle & Henery, 2015). In particular, reflexive praxis is important in the context of mentoring (Morgan, 2014). While there are many ways to approach mentoring (e.g. group mentoring, one-to-one mentoring and mentoring students to mentor other students), it is clear that the mentor-mentee relationship is essential to the development of languages teachers. A key element of the mentoring relationship is working in collaborative and complementary ways to promote collegial sharing and capacity building (Morgan, 2014).

Ensuring deep subject expertise would require assessment of language proficiency and teaching performance as part of languages teacher education.

An essential element of mentoring within languages teacher education is to ensure that mentors/supervisors have the relevant languages teaching experience, pedagogical content knowledge, qualifications and training for the target language/s, all of which have an impact on supervisory effectiveness (Kissau & Algozzine, 2013). Generalist supervisors are typically unable to provide targeted feedback to their pre-service language teachers, set lower expectations and rely on others to provide supervisory support (Kissau & Algozzine, 2013). In Australia, the *MoRe LEAPS* project, mentioned previously, was intended to develop accomplished lead teachers of languages by building, among other things, their capacity for mentoring and reflexivity in languages education.

Deep subject expertise

Given the current nature of languages teacher education in Australia, it is difficult for pre-service languages teachers to develop deep pedagogical content knowledge in their target language/s. Language and methodology studies are not always concurrent, there is typically no formal assessment of language proficiency, proficiency development and/or teaching performance, and methodology units are not usually language-specific.

To develop their expertise in languages education, language teachers typically need access to further training. A range of formal university courses exists in Australia to support this training, as discussed previously. In their examination of a professional learning programme to build language teacher capacity in New Zealand, Richards, Conway, Roskvist and Harvey (2013) found that teachers with limited target language proficiency needed to continue developing their subject expertise in order to improve their students' language learning experience. This is because deep subject knowledge in the target language is required to explain complex language points and cultural issues in a rich and engaging manner (Richards et al., 2013; Simons, 2014). This subject knowledge precedes pedagogical content knowledge and is essential for intercultural language teaching (Simons, 2014).

Ensuring deep subject expertise would require assessment of language proficiency and teaching performance as part of languages teacher education. In the United States, Glisan, Swender and Surface (2013) found that only a little over 50 per cent of teacher candidates are attaining the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) and National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) Oral Proficiency Standard. Yet, subject knowledge is essential to effective languages teaching. It remains a challenge in Australia as to how pre-service teachers' language proficiencies are assessed and what needs to be done to ensure their proficiencies develop alongside their study of languages methodology. Concurrent language and teacher education studies in Australia only address this challenge to a degree, due to the absence of standardised national assessments of proficiency, subject knowledge and languages teaching performance.

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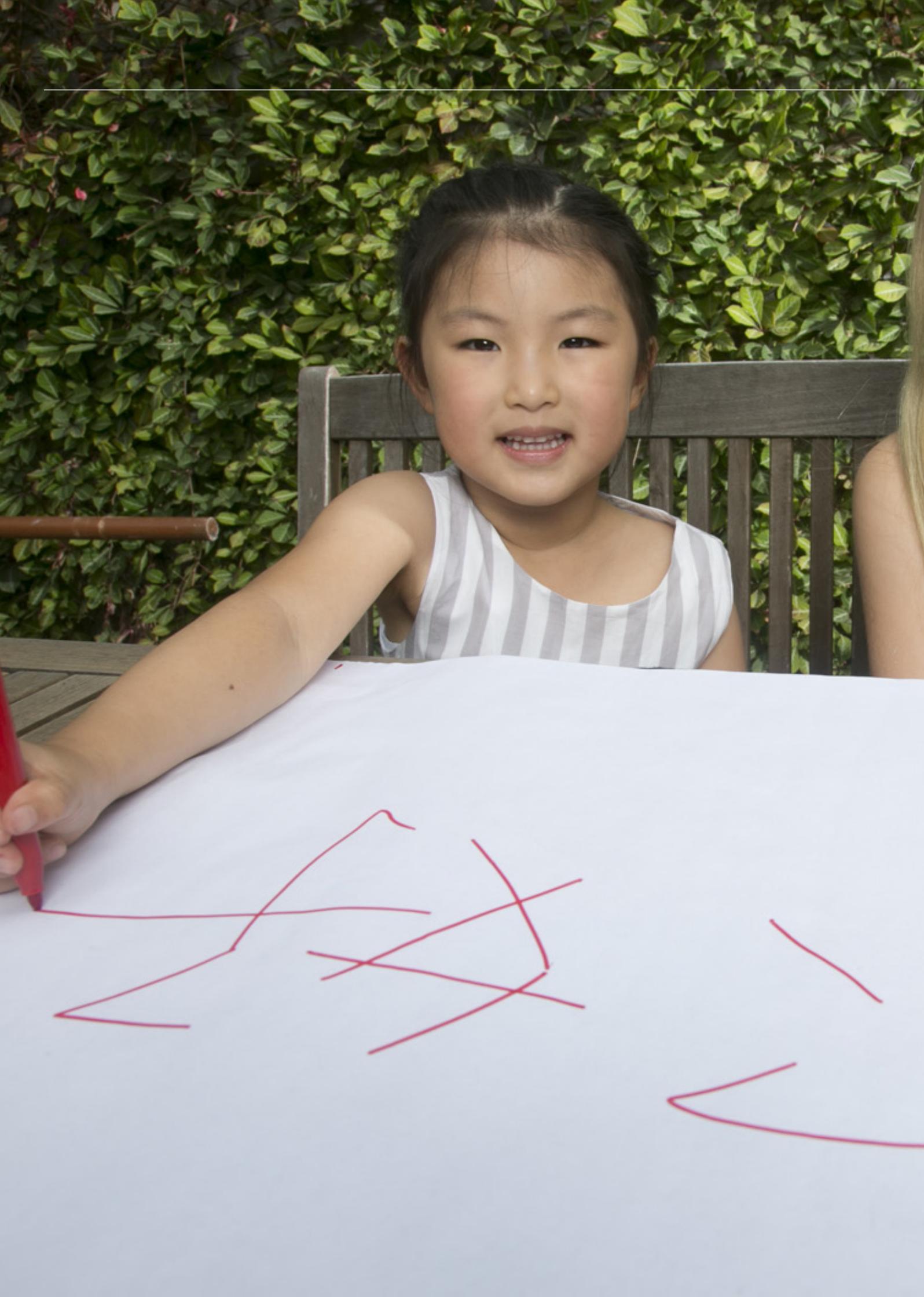
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The Asia Education Foundation provides teachers, education leaders and school communities with innovative programmes, curriculum resources and networks to support the achievement of Asia literacy for every young Australian.

AEF is a joint activity of Asialink at The University of Melbourne and Education Services Australia. It receives core funding from the Australian Government Department of Education and Training.

AEF leverages funding to support Asia literacy in Australian schools from a broad range of government, philanthropic and corporate partners in Australia and Asia.

Research at AEF

AEF is building its research profile and capacity to support evidence-informed practice for Asia learning in schools.

About *What Works*

What Works is AEF's flagship research series. Aimed primarily at teachers and school leaders, the series is based on evidence-informed practice, combining up-to-date research with illustrations of practice that demonstrate 'what works' and 'what is possible' to support the development of Asia learning in Australian schools.

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