Successes and Failures in Language Planning for European Languages in Asian Nations

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Introduction

Although there have been some attempts to examine language planning and its successes and failures in South and East Asian languages, especially as such planning relates to English and to other European languages, no systematic cross-national study is available that looks systematically at these issues. While such a study is not possible within the limits imposed by this paper – a monograph would probably be needed; we attempt to sketch the broad outlines of what such a study might look like and provide some basic data about, and examples of the successful and more problematic language policy and planning that has occurred in this region.

If we look beyond the large regional languages (e.g., Bengali, Chinese, Japanese, Javanese, Korean, and more recently Malay/Indonesian and Filipino) and the multitude of minority languages, we find European – and of course Arabic and other Asian languages – have become established in the various polities in the region. These languages have come to be used for a number of reasons, including:

- Trade internally within the region, from the Arabian peninsula, and later from Europe (Dutch, English, French, German, Italian, Portuguese, Russian, Spanish);
- Religious proselytisation conducted through Arabic and various European languages;
- Colonization, as conducted through various European (and Asian) languages;
- Languages learned to access overseas education and technology;
- Wars of aggression, some of which were linked to European, North American, and Asian
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• Colonial development;
• The geopolitics of the “cold war”, especially for Russian and English; and
• The rise of English as an economic world language or lingua franca.

These uses indicate that the language ecology of the region is complex and varies widely depending on the polity and the combination of historical events which have shaped it. As Wright (2002) has noted in relation to Vietnam, but which can be applied to all polities in the region, that language policies and usage have been shaped by the various geopolitical situations in which polities have found themselves in different eras. Appendix 1 provides some basic demographic information about Asian polities, along with some general details of the languages in use in those polities.

English has increasingly become the dominant foreign language in the region. While colonialism, missionary work and the geopolitics of the cold war in the past have played significant roles in making English the dominant foreign (second) language, globalization and the world economic system have made English the region’s lingua franca and increasingly the de facto second national language in many polities (see Appendix 1). The debate now is not about “whether English”, but about which English (or Englishes) are to be learned by whom for what purposes, and what other second foreign languages need to be mastered.

Most polities in the region have actively been involved with foreign language planning, particularly through language-in-education planning. For instance, as the individual polity language planning scenarios in this paper suggest, the rush to develop English through changes in schooling has meant that English is increasingly being required for all children at an early age (See, Appendix 2). Asian language policy planners seem to have accepted this evidence (or succumbed to citizen-based pressure), based principally on ESL rather than EFL populations, that starting language studies “earlier is better” (cf. Műnoz, 2006). In the competitive world economic race, where English is seen as a key resource, countries are moving quickly to try to secure the apparent advantage that English brings – but based on what evidence, at what cost, and with what success? How does such planning emphasis effect national languages, minority languages and the study of other foreign languages?

While English has become a dominant lingua franca being taught in schools and being learned through private tuition, other languages continue to be studied. The study of Chinese is growing rapidly – Chinese may soon pass French as the language most studied in Australian universities – and north Asians seem to be studying each other’s languages more frequently. Other languages, including European languages are also available for study in schools and in communities as the case studies indicate.

In this introductory section, we have tried to provide a brief, and hopefully not too stereotypic, overview of the language (planning) situation in Southeast and East Asia. However, as indicated, the polities in this region have very different stories to tell about their language situations and the successes and failures of language planning to meet the needs of those in their polities. An individual can work in this region for most of their adult life, know something about the language situation therein (see, e.g. Baldauf & Kaplan, 2006; Kaplan & Baldauf, 2003, 2008; Zhao & Baldauf, 2008), but can only ever bring an etic (i.e. extrinsic concepts and categories) perspective. While one can argue that this allows for a more critical and ‘scientific’ perspective – although some would not be comfortable using these terms in the same phrase, when judging success and failure, we would argue that one needs first to take an emic perspective (i.e. to consider the intrinsic cultural distinctions that are important to the group involved) (Lett, 2007). Thus, the sections on the different polities (i.e. Bangladesh, China, Indonesia, Japan, Korea, Singapore, Taiwan and Vietnam) have been written based on local experience in language teaching and language-
in-education planning to provide insider views on the successes and failures of language planning, especially as it relates to European languages\textsuperscript{1}. We then try to step back and take an etic perspective on what we have found.

**Successes and Failures in Language Planning in Bangladesh**

**Introduction**

Languages are sensitive and sentimental issues in Bangladesh, which has a near-unique history of sacrificing lives for protecting its national language, Bangla (Hamid, 2006; Mohsin, 2003; Musa, 1996). English, which came to Bangladesh in the wake of British colonial rule (1757-1947), thus relates to Bangla in a complex, controversial way. Language planning discourses in Bangladesh seem to have assumed that the two languages are bound in sort of zero-sum relationship, which means promotion of one language affects the other (Alam, 2002; Imam, 2005). Therefore, language planning in the polity has to be a ‘balancing act’. Such acts ensure that the enhancement of English for ‘strengthening the human resource efforts’ of the Government of Bangladesh (Ministry of Education, 2003) does not ignore the ‘mother tongue’ or the martyrs of the Bangla Language Movement of 1952 (Hossain & Tollefson, 2007; Musa, 1996). However, the idea of balanced language planning applies only to the public or state sector; the private sector does not fall within the purview of macro language planning. So the promotion of English in the latter does not have to be accompanied by simultaneous promotion of Bangla. This public-private domain distinction is useful in understanding Bangla-English relations in the polity since successes and failures in language planning in Bangladesh can only be understood within a framework of the contrasting language rules that apply to the public and private sectors.

Bathed in nationalistic fervours, language policies in post-independence Bangladesh promoted Bangla at the expense of English (Rahman, 1991; Zaman, 2004). Bangla, which is spoken by 98% of the population, was needed for the formation of national identity. Not surprisingly, it was made the sole national language and was awarded constitutional recognition in 1972 (Banu & Sussex, 2001). Furthermore, Bangla was to become ‘the medium of instruction at all levels of education’ (Ministry of Education, 1974: 15), and the language of internal communication in government autonomous and semi-government offices (Alam, 2002: 525). The institution of Bangla in government administration and education reduced the role of English to a substantial degree (Rahman, 1991; Banu & Sussex, 2001). As Rahman (1991: 47) noted, ‘English hitherto dominating the educated, commercial and social scene was relegated, due to a shift in emphasis and in national outlook, to a secondary position.’

In hindsight, relegating the role and status of English in the 1970s can be seen as a failure in language planning on the part of the state. It is widely believed that the standards of English in

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\textsuperscript{1} Studies such as this (e.g. Nunan, 2003) often involve outsiders collecting data from or with the assistance of ‘informants’ to generalize about insider issues and problems. While this is a perfectly good data collection technique, it can lead to critical comments about such work (e.g., Beckett & Macpherson, 2005) as being unrepresentative. In our Language Planning and Policy monograph series, Bob Kaplan and I (Baldauf) have adopted the policy of getting qualified insiders to describe their language situation, thereby providing local insights for further analysis. As Pennycook (1998: 126) has noted in relation to Hong Kong, ‘...in order to make sense of language policies we need to understand both their location historically and their location contextually. Too often we view these things through the lens of liberalism, pluralism or anti-imperialism, without understanding the actual location of such policies.’ This paper extends this perspective to cross-polity analysis. Polity authors have been asked to speak for themselves and their polities, and invited to contribute to the introductory and concluding discussions. Baldauf’s role has been to try to organize the topic and some resources so the discussion can take place, both within the paper and in the symposium. Authors are listed alphabetically.
the country deteriorated severely because of the reduced role ascribed to English (Rahman, 1999; Zaman, 2003). As English was downsized in the public sector, it found fertile new territory in the private sector. Thus private English medium education was introduced for the wealthy. English medium schools have now mushroomed in Dhaka and other metropolitan areas, and the ‘exclusive nature of these schools operating through the English medium may have created the class stratification of access to English’ (Rahman, 2007: 71). So ‘the state must address itself to the question whether it wants to have a more egalitarian society or to widen the social gulf further, with the knowledge of English as a divisive factor’ (Choudhury, 2001: 16). The social divide marked by English can be seen within the Bangla-medium public education as well, since proficiency achievement in the language is mediated by such factors as socioeconomic status, private investment in English and geographic location of learners (urban versus rural) (Hamid, in preparation; Hasan, 2003). Added to this is a far deeper split in the population, between those who can afford to go to school and take English lessons and those who cannot (see Tollefson, 2000) in a country where literacy rate is 49.1% (BBS, 2005), and where nearly half of its total population still live below the poverty line (World Bank, 2002).

The initial marginalization of English in the early 1970s was reversed within a matter of two decades. Rahman (2007) notes that a number of English planning activities such as a) introducing English in the national curriculum from the first grade and a compulsory study of English for 13 years, b) undertaking donor-funded English teaching projects (e.g. English Language Teaching Improvement Project) for English teacher training, c) introducing compulsory English language courses at the undergraduate level in tertiary colleges and public universities, d) replacing the structural curriculum by Communicative Language Teaching, e) enacting the Private University Act, 1992 which paved the way for the establishment of the English-medium private universities in the country, attest to this revitalization.

The revitalization of English was, however, balanced by the promotion of Bangla to some extent. For instance, the introduction of English at the elementary level in 1986 (which was implemented in 1991) can be juxtaposed with the ‘Bengali Implementation Law’ of 1987, for using Bangla ‘in all spheres and at all levels for government purposes’ (Banu & Sussex, 2001: 126). Similarly, the introduction of an English foundation course for undergraduate students in 1998 saw a parallel introduction of a Bangla foundation course for the same students at the University of Dhaka (Hamid, 2000). However, while the public education curriculum was burdened with an increase in English as well as Bangla, English medium schools and private universities remained, as ever, untroubled by the question of Bangla.

Currently English occupies 19% of the total curricular load at the secondary level; it is taught for at least one class-hour every day. This curricular load and the length of English instruction in the country (13 years) represent a massive state commitment to English teaching. However, resources allocated to English teaching – the meagre Tk. 482 ($6.50) per capita public expenditure on education in general (BBS, 2005) – falls far short of the degree of the commitment required. Consequently, quantitative increase in the provision of English compromises its quality (Rahman, 2007; Education Watch, 2006). English teaching at the school level has been largely ‘unsuccessful’ as students’ proficiency levels in the language after years of compulsory instruction remain deplorable (Yasmin, 2005). Over 30% of all students who could not pass the national school-leaving examination in 2007 failed in English (Prothom Alo, 17 June, 2007). Considering these realities – limited resources for English teaching, and consequently, its poor outcome – the large-scale compulsory English teaching can be described as a ‘white elephant’ project for Bangladesh. Allen (1994: 5, cited in Rahman, 2007: 83), who undertook a project evaluation study, wrote: ‘The present state of English language teaching in Bangladesh represents a significant misapplication of
human resources, time and money’.

Expansion of English in the polity and a popular recognition of its necessity mainly for instrumental ends are some of the features that can be largely attributed to the state planning of the language. Indeed, English is more entrenched in the society now than it was during the colonial days (Kachru, 2005). Nonetheless, English has very limited use in the polity and is still confined to some selected domains such as education. In other words, the large-scale teaching of the language has not led as a consequence to its wider use or application. Of course, the use of English is increasing remarkably in the booming private sector, where, however, code-mixing, rather than exclusive use of English, is the common practice among educated private-sector employees, particularly for spoken communication (Alam, 2006). Because of the limited use of English in the polity in oral communication in particular, the indigenization of the language or the evolution of ‘Banglish’ (Banu & Sussex, 2001) is at best at its earliest stage. The norm continues to be British Standard English, both for written and spoken communication and supporters of this non-endocentric, ‘colonial’ norm can be found among English-medium educated academics and other professionals.

Other European Languages

Compared to English, other European languages such as French, German and Spanish have a negligible presence in Bangladesh. French, German and Spanish are taught at the Institute of Modern Languages of the University of Dhaka. French is also taught at Alliance Française in Dhaka and Chittagong, and German at Goethe Institute in Dhaka. Given the thin presence of these languages in the polity, they have not received any research attention. None of these languages are taught in the national curriculum.

Conclusions

Whether English in Bangladesh is a foreign or a second language remains debatable (British Council, 1986; Yasmin, 2005; Kachru, 2005). However, English is increasingly penetrating the society and becoming increasingly popular. While the general attitude toward English is characterized by ‘pragmatic liberalism,’ which sees English as non-threatening to the national language or culture, ambivalent attitude toward English – English loved and loathed at the same time – also prevails among the people. At the same time, English is an increasing source of socioeconomic divisions.

Arguably, ‘a complex range of factors determined by the community of the people in the region rather than any top-down intervention measures imposed by the administration or any external force’ (Rahman, 2007: 68) explain the situation of English in the polity. However, language planning intervention in various forms has played a crucial part in shaping its presence in different domains and its acquisition. Government intervention has been characterized by a Bangla-English dichotomy in the state sector and a laissez faire attitude in the private sector. Policies have been mostly transitory and short-sighted: after an initial period of reduction and control of English, they gave way to an expansionist zeal, without considering the management of expansion, resource allocation and cost-effectiveness. Thus, the strong, over dominant presence of English in the Bangladeshi curriculum consumes precious national resources but produces hardly any desirable outcomes.
European Languages in the PRC

European languages have been the dominant foreign languages in the history of the People's Republic of China (PRC, for short), with Russian and English being the first foreign language in succession during different periods. However, until recently, there has not been well-designed long-term consistent language policy and planning for foreign language education in the PRC. The selection of those European languages has been determined to a large extent by economic, political, and educational motives operating at the time. Successful education in the selected foreign languages has been achieved but failures have inevitably occurred.

The Shift of the First Foreign Language – from Russian to English

The divergent interpretations of economic development and volatile participation within the international community have created the “pattern of discontinuous foreign language education” in China (Ross, 1992: 242). The goal of economic restoration for self national-strengthening during the first few years after its establishment in 1949 created a close relationship between China and the socialist Soviet Union. Consequently, the Russian language became the most needed foreign language in the PRC, and a period of rapid development occurred in Russian language curriculum design, teacher training and teaching material introduction. However, the teaching and learning of other foreign languages were neglected. The direct problematic result was the unbalanced development in foreign-language education and the shortage of not only qualified Russian language teachers, but of other foreign language teachers and materials as well. When the split in Sino-Soviet relations occurred in late 1950s, the improved relationship between China and the West became an impetus to change foreign language education policy. English took the place of Russian as the first foreign language in school education in China in a policy which was formulated by the Ministry of Education (hereafter MOE) in the 1964 Seven-Year Program for Foreign Language Education. Although the Cultural Revolution during 1966-76 led to the slow development of foreign-language education and even worse to a period of stagnation during which “politics in command” was dominant, the status of English as the first foreign language in Chinese schools subsequently was consolidated and has remained dominant ever since.

English in the PRC

English has been the first foreign language in Chinese education at all levels since 1964. After the Cultural Revolution, with the “economics in command” being the goal-orientation of the Chinese Communist Party, education was elevated to a very important position as the driving force for the four modernizations, based on an expanding Open Door policy and driven more recently by globalization. Foreign languages, English in particular, have become an indispensable instrument for absorbing advanced science and technology from more advanced countries. Since 1979 when foreign language, with English being the main focus, was set as one of the three compulsory subjects alongside Chinese and Mathematics for entrance examinations for tertiary education, English has had the highest status among the foreign languages studied in China. It has played an ever increasing role since 1994 when China entered a new era of the internationalization and globalization of the economic, political and educational systems (Li, 2007). Apart from students enrolled in English departments in various universities, secondary school students and university students are studying English as the major foreign language. In January 2001 with the issuing of the “Guidelines for Promoting English Language Instruction in Primary schools” (MOE, 2001), English started to be offered nation-wide to Primary 3 students, starting in cities
and suburban areas in autumn 2001 and in rural areas in autumn 2002. According to the statistics from the MOE in May 2006 (Wen & Hu, 2007), the number of enrolled students receiving formal English instruction was 226.71 million, of which primary school students had reached 108.64 million, secondary school students 102.46 million and tertiary students 15.81 million.

The high status of English has meant that increasing numbers of people other than school and university students have been studying it to gain entry to higher levels of education, to increase job possibilities, for study and travel abroad, and for accessing information through the Internet.

**Other European Languages in the PRC**

While English has been the first foreign language, other foreign languages have been offered to a limited extent at primary, secondary and tertiary levels as well where teaching facilities and teacher resources are available. This, from the perspective of the state, develops qualified talent with various language skills to meet the needs of national economic development and international cultural and technological communication. From the perspective of individuals, it creates more access for them to other foreign language training programs in order to have more flexible higher education choices or greater job opportunities.

The other major European languages studied are Russian, French and German, but Asian languages such as Japanese and Korean are also popular especially in the provinces neighboring Japan and Korea. At the primary and secondary levels, governments at both national and local levels encourage and support schools with sufficient teaching resources and qualified teachers to offer other foreign languages either as a first or second foreign language. Neither official statistics nor research reports are available on what other foreign languages are offered in how many primary and secondary schools nation-wide, but information from different sources shows that more European languages are taught and learned in major cities in China such as Shanghai, Beijing and Guangzhou than in other areas. At the end of 2003, three other major foreign languages, French, German and Japanese, were being offered in Shanghai experimentally in 41 secondary schools and 17 primary schools. By 2010, the number of schools with multi-languages will have increased (Wen Hui Bao, 2003). In 2005, there were approximately 100 primary and secondary schools in Beijing where a second foreign language was offered, these being predominantly French, German, Russian, Spanish, Japanese, Korean and Portuguese, and in some schools Italian (Beijing Daily, 2005). In addition, foreign language schools in various cities nation-wide, either private or public, offer different European language training courses or programs depending on their teaching facilities and teacher availability, focusing again on French, Russian and German.

At the tertiary level, there are more varieties of European languages offered in different foreign language(s) schools in universities although most of the students enrolled have studied English at primary and secondary levels. Beijing Foreign Studies University offers the largest number of foreign languages (BFSU, 2007). In addition to Schools of English / Russian International Studies and Departments of French, German and Spanish, a separate Department of European Languages deals with the teaching/learning and research of the following European languages: Polish, Czech, Romanian, Serbian, Hungarian, Bulgarian, Albanian, Finnish, Slovak, Dutch, Greek, Norwegian, Danish and Icelandic.

**Conclusion**

The selection of foreign languages at the state level for Chinese schooling has been mainly driven by political and economic factors. Given the top-down hierarchical social system in the PRC, educational sections at lower levels have made great efforts to implement national educational policies which have led nationally to the widespread study of Russian in the early years
and more recently English. From this point of view, national policies have been successfully implemented. However, from the perspective of language planning, language-in-education planning in particular (Kaplan & Baldauf, 2003, 2005), unsystematic language planning without considering all the planning goals has made it difficult to achieve the expected objectives.

There were problems during the Russian boom in the first few years of the PRC. In English education, there have also been heated discussions about factors hindering successful learning outcomes. For example, Yu (2001) has pointed out the constraining factors in the implementation of communicative language teaching in China; Nunan (2003) and Wen and Hu (2007) have reported the shortage of English teachers; Shu (2004) has given unsuccessful examples of primary school English education in Shanghai; Wen and Hu (2007) have found there are unrealistic objectives suggested in the curriculum for students to achieve.

The absolutely dominant status of English over the other European languages with the implication that English hegemony may emerge is another issue. National policies claim to encourage schools to offer foreign languages other than English, but without a change in the testing system for tertiary education, primary and secondary students have to spend much of their study time learning English leaving little opportunity to select other foreign languages. This is a repeat of the unbalanced foreign language education that occurred during the early years when Russian was booming, thus restraining the development of other European languages and leading to a shortage of talent qualified in other languages. This domination, on the other hand, may also have a negative impact on the first language learning of minority languages since Standard Chinese (\textit{putonghua}) also is required in Chinese schooling, creating greater competition for the limited time allocated for all subjects in the curriculum.

**European Languages in Indonesia**

**Indonesia: An Overview**

As globalization has increased access to a diverse range of accessible information, the educational system increasingly has had to deal with local, national and global challenges (UU Sisdiknas, 2006), and one approach to dealing particularly with the global challenges has been to learn the languages from which those challenges originate. In the case of Indonesia with its capital in Jakarta, these challenges are increased by its geography as it is an archipelago that is comprised of five major islands lying from west to east: Sumatra, Java, Kalimantan (formerly Borneo), Sulawesi, Irian Jaya, and 3,000 smaller inhabited islands. The nation is home to more than 350 ethnic groups each with their own language.

**Local Languages and Bahasa Indonesia**

Schooling for most children in Indonesia involves bilingualism as they speak their mother tongue at home and Bahasa Indonesia at school. Local languages are still taught in the early years of schooling in some schools, particularly on the island of Java. In the \textit{Youth Pledge of 1928}, Bahasa Indonesia was adopted as the national language in waiting, and since 1948 it has been used as both the national and official language (Dardjowidjojo, 2003). Bahasa Indonesia is a compulsory subject in formal education which begins with kindergarten and continues through tertiary level.

**English in Formal Education**

English is the predominant and first foreign language and one of the compulsory subjects studied in Grades 7-12 and at the tertiary level. In addition to English, students at the Grade 11
level who select a languages’ specialization can study English and its literature. Other foreign languages including German, French, Arabic, Japanese, or Mandarin may also be available at this level with such language study being offered when an appropriate foreign language teacher is available (Kebijaksanaan umum, 2001). Since 1996 English also has been taught in the first year of some primary schools with an emphasis on vocabulary and pronunciation (Dardjowidjojo, 2003). Recently, English has been introduced in many districts in response to local community demands (Muatan Lokal, 2003).

A brief history of English curriculum shows that English has been taught since independence in 1945, initially using a grammar translation approach that focused on translation from Bahasa Indonesia to English. Between 1945-1950 the teaching of English in Indonesia shifted to the use of the direct-method. In 1975, the audio-lingual approach was introduced (Dardjowidjojo, 2003) followed in 1984 by the use of the communicative approach. A meaning-based approach was introduced in 1994 that was similar in its implementation to the communicative approach, that is, it integrated the four language skills. Moreover, it underlined reading as the skill given most priority, followed by listening, speaking and writing. In 2004 a new competence-based method was introduced (Dardjowidjojo, 2003), but within less than three years – at the end of 2006 – with teachers still uncertain about the implementation of the competence based curriculum, a modified curriculum (Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Pendidikan, KTSP) was introduced. It is similar in concept to the School Based Curriculum Development applied in Australia in 1970s (tantangan KTSP, 14 Nov 2006). Teachers and school staff participate creatively to select, adapt, and create materials for students, and community involvement is required.

Even though the English curriculum has been modified six times in an attempt to improve standards, and students have studied English for at least six years in junior and senior high school (Grade 7-12), standards of English teaching in Indonesia are not being met since students who graduated from high school cannot communicate in English. In addition, English, and the teaching of foreign languages more generally, are severely constrained by a lack of trained teachers. In 2004 there were 75,000 language teachers of Bahasa Indonesia, English, French, Japanese, Arabic and Mandarin, but only 10,000 of these were trained at the basic or the elementary level, and approximately 740 teachers had gained intermediate level or had an instructor’s certificate. Even fewer – only 10 – had already attended advanced training, i.e. were trainers of trainers (Widya Iswara) (Terlambat, 2004).

**English in Non-formal Education**

EF (English First) and LIA (Lembaga Indonesia Amerika – Indonesia America Institution), which were first established in Jakarta, are the two biggest private providers of English courses. They have now expanded to cover nearly all of Indonesia. As English has become more popular and there is seen to be a greater requirement for it, smaller local organizations also are offering English courses. Thus, the teaching of English in the private sector is thriving.

In addition, as results of globalization, more English terms now can be found in novels, magazines, on TV, and in other entertainment. The mixture of English and Bahasa Indonesia often occurs in the conversation of the younger generation, particularly in urban areas, e.g., “Aku sudah buking-in plis join as. Gitu dulu ya. Bai-bai” (I’ve booked it for you. Please joint us. See you. Bye-bye) (Engdonesian, 2005).

**Other European Languages**

There is limited recent information about other languages that are taught in Indonesia either in formal or non-formal education. However, other foreign languages can be accessed in some big
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cities such as Jakarta, Surabaya, Bandung, and Medan, particularly where organizations representing foreign nations exist, such as Goethe-Institute Jakarta, the Centre Culturel Francais (CCF Jakarta), and Erasmus Taalcentrum Jakarta.

**German.** The Goethe-Institute Jakarta runs German language courses. In 2004, 60% of the participants were young people who wanted to study in Germany. However, some of them were also employees, researchers, or students whose interests were in teaching techniques or people who wanted to learn the culture. This institute also works cooperatively with Centre for Development and Teacher Training of National Education Department and with Directorate of Vocational Education to develop German textbooks for tourism (Turis Dilarang, 2004).

**French.** French recently has become more popular in Indonesia as indicated by the numbers of participants in French courses at the Centre Culturel Francais / CCF Jakarta. There were about 2,700 participants who took French courses at this institution in one semester in 2004 (Belajar Bahasa Perancis, 2004)

**Dutch.** For some Indonesians, Dutch is still perceived as a language known by elderly. However, for those who are interested in law, political history, and Indonesia culture, having an ability to understand Dutch is really helpful to access historical material written in Dutch from the Dutch colonial period which lasted for nearly three and a half centuries. Moreover, as a consequence of the impact of Dutch law, people need to learn Dutch to comprehend the legal system of Indonesia (Bahasa Belanda, 2004). The Erasmus Taalcentrum Jakarta, which was established in 1971, provides Dutch courses to facilitate the learning of Dutch. There are about 1,500 participants who graduate from this institution every year (Bahasa Belanda, 2004).

**Italian.** There is not much known about Italian in Indonesia. However, some music terms are widely known i.e. *largo* or *presto*. Since 2000, in Jakarta, the Instituto Italiano di Cultura has provided Italian courses that focus on text comprehension, speaking, listening and writing (Asyiknya Belajar, 2004).

Some similarities are found among all these foreign government sponsored institutions that run non-formal education. All teachers in these institutions have been carefully selected, language is taught in small classes, and supporting facilities such as library, audio-video rooms, and language laboratories are available.

**Conclusions**

A number of conclusions can be drawn from this brief overview. First, the curriculum, which has changed more than six times, has had an influence on the extent to which European languages are taught in schools in Indonesia. It also indicates that some of the challenges faced are not policy driven.

Second, there is a severe lack of language teachers, and even those available have limited competence to teach their languages. This inhibits the expansion of foreign languages in Indonesia, including English, the first foreign language which has been taught since 1945.

Third, non-formal education shows that European languages can be successful in producing desired outcomes, even if only in limited numbers. These programs provide a glimpse of how to provide such education. They indicate that the quantity and quality of the teachers, numbers of students in classes, teaching and learning facilities and equipment, students’ motivation and needs, the method of learning a language as well as the nature of the language itself should be given more attention and consideration. A major problem is clearly one of finding resources to do so with such a vast educational system to service.

Finally, comparing formal and non-formal education, if European languages, especially English, were to be more fully mastered as they are in non-formal education, it is hypothesized that
they would increase their share of the language ecology and ultimately local languages and Bahasa Indonesia would have fewer users.

**Foreign Language Teaching in Japan**

**Overview of the Context: Limited European Language Use**

The Japanese government stresses in their policy documents that the advance of IT technology and the advent of a knowledge-based information society have accelerated the communicative needs of individuals across and beyond nations and cultures (The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT), 2006). The foreign resident population in Japan in 2005 exceeded 2 million or 1.57% of the total population – the largest number ever recorded (The Ministry of Justice, 2006a). Compared to 10 years ago, this is 47.7% increase with the greatest part coming from other Asian countries; 73.8% from Asia, 18.7% from South America, 3.2% from North America, and 2.9% from Europe. According to the Ministry of Justice (2006b) foreign visitors staying less than 3 months increased by 33% from 2000 to 2005 to over 5.7 million; with 68% coming from other Asian countries, 19% from North America and Oceania, and 12% from Europe.

These demographics show the increasing interactions between Japan and other Asian countries in recent years. But, in total, native English and European language speakers including short-term visitors make up no more than 1.5% of the whole population, which is far less than that of other Asian language speakers.

**Foreign Language Education Policy: Exclusive Promotion of English**

Despite the small numbers of English native speakers, Japanese foreign language education policy virtually exclusively promotes English language teaching. It stipulates that English is a common international language and a necessary tool in order to fulfil economic, societal, political, and cultural needs in the current and future global context (MEXT, 2006). A minister recently commented that the current English ability of a large percentage of population is “inadequate” even after the many years of public English education (MEXT, 2002b). In order to provide higher quality English teaching and to enhance communicative competence in English, the government has issued an “Action Plan to Cultivate Japanese with English Ability”, in which four concrete projects are outlined: establishment of SELHi (Super English Language High Schools), further promotion of the JET Programme (The Japan Exchange and Teaching Programme), English teacher education, and promoting English teaching in elementary schools.

**SELHi (Super English Language High School)**. The government has designated 153 high schools as SELHi, where an innovative pilot English language curriculum is being implemented, which is intended to provide a model of effective English teaching in schools. As its name indicates, this project focuses solely on the English language.

**The JET Programme (The Japan Exchange and Teaching Programme)**. Jointly sponsored by the ministries for Education, Home affairs, and Foreign affairs, the JET Programme aims “to promote grass roots internationalisation at the local level by inviting young overseas graduates to assist in international exchange and foreign language education in local governments, boards of education and elementary, junior and senior high schools throughout Japan” (The JET Programme, 2007). Although the emphasis on English language is not clearly stated in the project guidelines, 93.2% of the 5,508 participants in 2006, recruited from 44 countries, were from English speaking countries. The positions offered to JET participants are divided into; ALT (Assistant Language Teach-
ers) working mainly as language instructors in elementary and secondary schools, CIR (Coordinators for International Relations) working mainly as language specialists in municipal authorities, and SEA (Sports Exchange Advisors) who work mainly as sports club coaches in schools. Only 32 participants (0.58% of the total) are European language speakers teaching languages other than English. 70 ALTs (1.2% of the whole), including 22 people from India and 32 people from Singapore, are from Asian regions. Here, again, the extreme inclination toward English language teaching is clear. Although English is called an international language in the policy documents, Anglo-American native English speakers are mainly chosen as language role models for this project. After 20 years of the JET programme, its outcomes and effectiveness still remain controversial.

Promoting ELT in Elementary Schools. Since 2002, all public primary schools have offered a course called General Studies, which includes international comprehension and awareness, global education, welfare, and the environment. In these elementary schools, 93.6% introduced English as part of a General Studies or special activity programmes in 2005 (MEXT, 2006). The extent to which, English teaching is promoted, varies among schools and local regions, however, the purpose of its introduction in elementary schools is to cultivate a willingness to communicate through English by involving children in activities that are fun.

Other European Language Teaching in School Education

In most public junior and senior high schools, English is the only foreign language taught. Junior high schools that offer foreign language courses other than English represent less than 0.5% of the total (MEXT, 2003b). Twelve public junior high schools offer courses such as Chinese, Korean, Russian, and Portuguese as elective foreign languages and 40 private junior high schools offer French, Chinese, Korean, Spanish, and German courses.

At the high school level, 24 language courses are offered in 653 high schools (432 public schools, 221 private schools), which represents 12% of Japanese high schools (MEXT, 2003b). European languages such as French, German, Spanish, Russian, Italian, and Portuguese other than Asian languages such as Chinese and Korean are also taught. Esperanto is offered in one school. The education policy in the 2006 White Paper stipulates the importance of teaching foreign languages other than English. It delineates the “Regional Project for Promoting Diversity in Foreign Language Teaching in High Schools” to promote languages other than English (See MEXT, 2002a). The Chinese, Korean, and Russian languages are being studied in assigned regions. The number of the high schools that offer foreign language teaching other than English is gradually increasing (See Table 1.).

Table 1: Foreign Language Teaching in Japanese High Schools

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>1993</th>
<th>1995</th>
<th>1997</th>
<th>1999</th>
<th>2001</th>
<th>2003</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>192</td>
<td>303</td>
<td>372</td>
<td>424</td>
<td>475</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>147</td>
<td>191</td>
<td>206</td>
<td>215</td>
<td>235</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korean</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>163</td>
<td>219</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>German</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(adapted MEXT, 2003a)

At tertiary level, access to foreign language teaching other than English becomes wider with 82% of the universities offering Chinese and Korean courses, while German and French are
taught in over 70% of the universities in Japan (See Table 2.).

Table 2: FL Teaching at Japanese Universities in 2005

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>National University</th>
<th>Public University</th>
<th>Private University</th>
<th>Total (percentage out of the total number of the universities)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>545</td>
<td>700 (96%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>460</td>
<td>598 (82%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korean</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>460</td>
<td>598 (82%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>German</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>417</td>
<td>551 (76%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>412</td>
<td>542 (75%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>174</td>
<td>233 (32%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Russian</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>176 (24%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italian</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>117 (16%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latin</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>94 (13%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arabic</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>49 (7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>157 (22%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(adapted from MEXT, 2007)

As highlighted in the previous section, language education in the Japanese school system heavily favors English. However, there is a gradual change toward diversity, statistically and in government policy.

Foreign Language Teaching in the Private Sector

In June 2007, the Ministry of Economy, Trade and Industry (METI) imposed administrative penalties on the biggest private foreign language school operator in Japan by ordering the suspension of part of its business due to its illegal acts (METI, 2007a). The fact that this was front-page national news indicates the huge impact that private foreign language education enterprises have in Japanese society. Although private institutions activities may be categorised as being outside language planning, the influence of the private sector should not be overlooked. In fact, it is a powerful agency in the spread of foreign languages in Japan. According to a recent preliminary report by METI (2007b), more than 796,000 people are enrolled in private language schools and the annual total sales are over 136 billion yen. These large numbers infer a great demand for foreign language education outside of public education. This can be interpreted as either a general public distrust of foreign language education in the school system due to the poor outcomes or simply as a result of practical economic and social change. English language teaching is the most popular and the major course offered in these private language schools, however French, German, Spanish, Chinese, Italian, and Korean language courses are also offered in larger schools. The status of being a native speaker is highly valued in these schools and annually over 4,000 native speakers of English are recruited. A lot of students view native speakers as role models for their language production. The extreme reverence toward native speakers of English and its implications in other contexts in Japan have been pointed out by Honna, Tajima and Minamoto (2000) and Oda & Takada (2005).

Conclusion

The Japanese government emphasises English as an international language and a tool of
communication in global context. Overall, a strong inclination toward the English language is observed in its foreign language policy. However, it may be questioned whether English is treated truly as an international language in these policies or whether particular varieties are given priority. Access to other European language learning opportunities in secondary schools is still very limited although it is increasing. Although the government has continued to make various efforts to improve English language education, up to now, the overall public view of public English language education is a succession of failures as reflected by the minister’s comments. The strong necessity to learn foreign languages outside the school system is shown by the popularity of private language schools. In response to this public distrust of English education, the Japanese government has issued an action plan that includes concrete projects. We must wait for the longer-term outcomes of this action plan to gauge its effectiveness.

European Languages in Korea

Korea avoided colonization by the West before World War II and, in fact, was not involved in any trade with the West at all until 1882 (Song, 2002). It was only in the next decade that German, French, Russian, and English education were introduced to Korea on a small scale in missionary schools and through a government translator training school (Choi, 2007). On the other hand, the national languages of neighboring Japan and China have dominated foreign language learning in Korea for centuries (Shim & Baik, 2000). European language education gradually expanded until Japanese colonization (Choi, 2007), when the Japanese government attempted to phase out not only the learning of European languages, but also the learning and use of the Korean language itself (Choi, 2006; 2007). Following liberation from Japanese occupation in 1945, a major distinction developed between the language policies of North and South Korea since they began to develop very different education systems along with their unique government ideologies.

After World War II, the U.S. military controlled southern Korea and the Soviet military controlled the northern half. The Soviets installed Kim Il-Sung as leader of what became North Korea, and upon his death in 1994 his son Kim Jong-II took control. Throughout this period, European language learning in North Korea seems to have been limited largely to Russian, and later, English (along with Chinese) (Song, 2002; Shim & Baik, 2000). The current North Korean government remains indisputably oppressive and secretive, and thus there has been relatively little information on the North Korean educational system for decades. We do know that the average citizen of North Korea has absolutely no access to current periodicals in European languages nor any opportunity to converse with fluent speakers of these languages. The limited number of visitors to the country are watched constantly and prevented from most contact with locals. According to a North Korean study’s scholar, Andrei Lankov (personal communication), publications not endorsed by the government do not even enter the country through smuggling, as the high risk merits only the trade of the necessities for survival. Learning foreign languages, other than Chinese, which is useful for smuggling near the north border, is, therefore, a completely academic exercise for all but a few of the elite who might aspire to be sent outside the country on government business. Nevertheless, foreign language study is highly respected as an intellectual pursuit and, as far as we know, all North Korean students study either English or Russian in school (Lankov, personal communication).

In fact, Song (2002) reports that since English was first introduced as an alternative to Russian in 1964, it has been gradually gaining popularity as the foreign language of choice among students, although they are not always free to choose the language they study. Since the break-up of
the Soviet Union, Russian has become less popular, although it is still an option (Song, 2002). A very few can learn additional languages for government purposes. We do know, though, that among those who have managed to escape North Korea, mostly the highly privileged, only about 20% can read English (이진희, 2004), and the speaking ability of even the most senior diplomats who have been trained entirely within North Korea is inappropriate for their duties (Bowers, 2006). Textbooks are oriented toward indoctrination, rather than communication, with the exception of a few phrases like “Hands up!” and “Surrender or you will die!”, useful for the supposed impending possibility of taking U.S. soldiers as prisoners (Song, 2002). According to Lankov, instructors of English and other European languages are typically brought from nations in Africa and other parts of the developing world with relatively friendly ties to the Korean government. They are willing to work for lower compensation than Europeans and other Westerners, but also seem less likely to import Western values along with the language (Lankov, personal communication).

Very recently, tight controls on language study seem to be loosening a bit, as the North Korean government has found that understanding English more thoroughly is not only necessary for following world events and, in particular, developments in science and technology, but it is also necessary for understanding the Korean language used in the South, which has been so heavily influenced by English that its technical genres have become incomprehensible to North Koreans without knowledge of English (Song, 2002).

As a result, Kim Jong-Il has brought a small group of English teachers from the U.K. and Canada (Tsai & Demick, n.d.) – and even invited the U.S. to send teachers, a truly unprecedented move, although nothing has come of it (Seo, 2000). The government has also reportedly approved short periods of interaction between elite learners of English and foreign visitors under surveillance (Tsai & Demick, n.d.). Smuggling South Korean-English dictionaries to sell to the elite has also become a successful business (Kim, 2007). Ironically, it is the knowledge of the English language and the political changes it undoubtedly will bring sooner or later that will very likely usher in the possibility, for the first time in over half a century, of learning additional languages from Europe and other parts of the world for real communication.

Across the world’s most heavily fortified border, in South Korea’s public school system, which almost every child in the country attends, compulsory English education begins in the 3rd year of elementary school. Officially, other foreign languages, including French and German, are offered as electives – one year in middle school and two years in high school (Ministry of Education, n.d.).

In reality, however, European languages compete ineffectively with other electives. In middle school, according to Lee, et al. (이근님, 김영준, and 김연춘, 2003), options for a single elective period consist of computer skills, Chinese characters (still a limited part of local Korean language use), and third languages, primarily Japanese, Chinese, German, and French, in that order of popularity. Almost all students choose to study computer skills or Chinese characters. Those who choose foreign languages generally choose an Asian language. In fact, only 3% of middle schools offered third languages as electives, and the languages were mainly Japanese and Chinese based on a mix of administrator choice as well as student and parent demand (이근님, 김영준, and 김연춘, 2003).

Increasingly, parents who can afford it (and many who can barely afford it) simply send their children to study abroad, most commonly to North America, but also to international schools and language institutes around the world (김관근, 2006). The primary goal of study abroad is to learn English in order to become more competitive for local jobs, and this practice is so popular that the government has made it illegal for children to leave Korea to study in elementary school, and
when schools observe the law, the children’s years of study abroad are not recognized when they return, i.e. they are held back in school (성연진, 2007).

There is a widespread dissatisfaction with the quality of public education in general, and those who do not leave the country (and, again, who can afford the high fees) send their children to private after-school institutes. Nearly all study more English. The even higher prices of language classes at the institutes sponsored by European nations (Alliance Française, Goethe Institute, Centro Cultural Español – Instituto Cervantes) is a further deterrent to considering other options.

Indeed, according to a survey of Korean CEOs, the foreign language skills – including languages other than English – of the Korean workforce are inadequate for doing international business (You, Heejin, 2004). In fact, of 1,995 high schools, recently, 145 have offered no foreign language electives at all (이근님, 김영준 & 김연춘, 2003). Many of these were technical high schools, which educate students not planning to attend university. Among the remaining high schools, most do not offer more than two foreign languages, and many have only one language option available (이근님, 김영준 & 김연춘, 2003). Within these options, as in middle schools, Japanese and Chinese are much more common than European languages other than English (Kim, Jongcheol, 2006).

The Ministry of Education has attempted to remedy this problem in the most recent (7th) curriculum revision by officially adding Spanish, Russian, and Arabic as high school foreign language electives (You, Heejin, 2004). However, these are “electives” in two senses. Students may choose which course to take, but schools may also choose which courses to offer. The results have been different than the government intended. Instead of introducing more variety, German and French teaching has been drastically reduced and the new languages have not been introduced (Kim, Jongcheol, 2006). The new freedom has allowed administrators overwhelmingly to choose to offer Japanese and Chinese, due to student and parent demand (Park, Eunyoung, 2005; Kim, Jongcheol, 2006). Where French or German have not been phased out completely, it seems to be primarily a result of the availability of teachers (Park, Eunyoung, 2005). (Spanish and Russian courses have rarely and Arabic courses have never been implemented (이근님, 김영준 & 김연춘, 2003).) Indeed, because of the tremendous shift toward Japanese and Chinese, many French and German teachers have been left jobless. Since 2003, the Ministry of Education has been giving them the opportunity to retrain over the vacation breaks as Asian language instructors to relieve current shortages in those areas (You, Heejin, 2004; Kim, Jongcheol, 2006).

Table 3: Number of High Schools in Seoul Offering Languages beyond English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Japanese</td>
<td>276</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>172</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>German</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Russian</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Source: Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education, n.d.)

The perception among parents and students seems to be that the two Asian languages, in addition to English, which is a required subject, are most necessary for career success (Lee, Seonyoung, 1991; Yoon, Deokjung & Jeong Eun-sang, 2001; Park, Eunyoung, 2005). The Japanese, in particular, are rumored to have insufficient English skills to do business (Kim, Jae Hui, personal communication). Thus Japanese is in the highest demand. Ironically, as European countries improve their English education, they eliminate a major incentive to learn other European languages. South Korea feels a great deal of economic pressure to survive in its position “sandwiched” between China, with lower labor costs and a fast-paced growth rate, and Japan, with its longer industrialized history and larger economy (Shin, 2007). South Koreans have not
forgotten centuries of repeated colonization by both of these larger powers and in the intense struggle to remain competitive and independent, relationships with other countries and cultures, including language study, fall by the wayside. Interestingly, this parallels North Korea, where Chinese is the only truly useful foreign language, as it is the only language with which anyone can hope to come into direct contact with native speakers. As a result, although the North Korean schools teach English and Russian, from the micro perspective, Chinese is the language of choice to learn through informal means. Thus the average people of North and South Korea demonstrate a shared approach toward learning foreign languages as a form of national defense and personal success – or at least survival.

Still, South Koreans view English as foremost among languages necessary for career success. Yet another factor working against the learning of foreign languages other than English in Korean high schools is the tremendous pressure to gain acceptance to the most prestigious university possible, and the attendant cramming for entrance exams that dominates the waking hours of nearly every college-bound teenager (Shin, Ae kyoung, 1994). Although languages other than English, including French and German, are among the optional language sections on the examination, most students choose “Chinese characters”. Even if they do take courses in French or German, then, most students will not actually put much effort into studying for those courses (Park, Eun young, 2005). In fact, the French embassy in South Korea concluded that its program to send 30 high school French teachers per year to study in France was not an effective use of resources and it was phased out completely. (The German embassy has, interestingly, taken the opposite approach – increasing funding for international teacher exchange in the hopes of improving teaching quality) (Kim, JC, 2006).

At the university level, language and literature majors are available in this order of frequency: German, French, Russian, and Spanish. English, Japanese, and Chinese are more popular than all these languages. Additional languages are even rarer. The Hankuk University of Foreign Studies draws students particularly interested in less common languages, and, in addition to literature, education, and translation / interpretation programs the languages already mentioned, offers master’s and Ph.D. degrees in Italian, Portuguese, Scandinavian, and Central European (Polish, Romanian, Czech, Hungarian, and Yugoslav) languages and literature (Hankuk, n.d.). Undergraduates may major in any of these languages plus Dutch and Greek. Interestingly, Portuguese is specified as “Brazilian”. The school also has an Esperanto club.

Although the list of languages at this single school appears long, only a tiny proportion of Korean students major in or even study European languages (other than English) at all. A recent change in higher education policy has had a profound effect on departments of European languages not unlike what happened at the secondary level. Under a previous quota system, students applying for admission to a university applied to study a general subject area, such as history or engineering, competing for a set number of slots in each major. Within foreign language studies, only students with top scores on the university entrance test could be admitted to popular majors such as English, while others were assigned to fill less popular majors in Asian and European languages. In 1995, the Korean government forced most universities, through conditional funding, to allow students to choose their majors without restriction before their second year (강성국, 2005; 염승섭, 2003). The result has been the decimation of European language departments, and the concurrent expansion of Japanese, and Chinese and especially English departments. In addition, university administrations have been consolidating literature majors into language teacher education majors, as the literature departments are viewed as producing unemployable graduates (Yoon, Duk joong, 2000; Kim, Jong cheol, 2006).

Despite the traditional strength of German and French as the most popular European lan-
Successes and Failures in Language Planning for European Languages in Asian Nations (18/35)

Foreign Languages in Singapore

Introduction

Human resources in Singapore are regarded by the government as the fundamental building blocks for the country’s development (Ministry of Education – Missions and, 2005). Education is therefore perceived to be an important tool to create and improve the knowledge, skills and competencies of this human capital. In Singapore, education is considered as a vital component of the nation-building process. In view of this, Singapore’s language policy is designed to ensure

...
the country’s economic, political and national success.

**English and ‘Mother Tongue’**

Thus, the role of education is intricately tied to the economic development of the country. With that in mind, the Singaporean government uses English as the country’s official language for international trade. Language policy since independence in 1965 has successfully moved Singapore from a predominantly Chinese ‘dialect’ speaking polity to an increasingly English dominant bilingualism. In addition, since 1979 the government has promoted the use of Mandarin instead of Chinese dialects among the Chinese with the aim of unifying the different dialect speaking groups (Dixon, 2005). Preferential treatment for English has been an important development strategy for two reasons: one was to foster social cohesion since it was deemed to be a ‘neutral’ language among the three major ethnic groups (Chinese, Malay and Indian), and the other was to equip Singaporeans to survive in today’s modern technological world (Chew, 1990). The status of English was further raised when it became the “gatekeeper” for higher learning institutions; it now determines what academic careers are available to students (Yip, Eng & Yap, 1997).

The government, through the Ministry of Education, made the policy of bilingualism compulsory for all students in 1966. Thus, it is mandatory for all Singaporeans to be able to converse in two official languages: English as the first language and a “mother tongue” as the second language, Mandarin, Malay or Tamil depending on the child’s paternal ancestry (Samah, 2007). This is to ensure Singapore maintains its social diversity but at the same time develops an identity through learning their mother tongue (Chew, 1990).

Although it did not happen overnight, the bilingual policy did produce the desired results. For example in 2005, 97.2 per cent of Singapore students were eligible for secondary schools and 91.2 per cent of them passed their GCE ‘A’ levels examination (MOE – Resources, 2006). However, the policy has its limitations. Even though a large percentage of Singaporeans use English as the predominant language, there are an increasing number of younger Singaporeans who are replacing or supplementing English with Singlish. In addition, there are an increasing number of students who are having great difficulty in learning their mother tongue.

**The Speak Good English Movement and the New Mother Tongue Curriculum**

Since 2000, the Singapore government has run *The Speak Good English Movement* to discourage the use of Singlish – a local hybrid variety of English spoken in Singapore – which is fast becoming an identity marker and the first language of the many young Singaporeans (Chua, 2004). The main objective of the campaign is to get every Singaporean to speak grammatically correct English, and to use standard sentence structures in both written and spoken English which can be understood around the world. The campaign is a deliberate attempt by the government to ensure that English, and not Singlish, is widely used thereby maintaining Singapore’s competitive edge (Speech by Radmin (NS) Lui Tuck Yew, 2007).

Likewise, the government and the MOE have put a lot of effort into implementing new changes for the learning of mother tongue. For example, in 2007, a new Chinese language curriculum has been implemented at Primary 1 and 2. The aim of this new modular curriculum is to provide more flexibility in the learning of the language. Similarly, in the Tamil language, spoken Tamil rather than formal Tamil has been taught to Tamil students since 2006 (Ministry of Education – Nurturing Every, 2006).

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1 Students must attain a minimum pass for English and Mother Tongue in their PSLE examinations and for the ‘A’ levels examination students need to have a minimum pass for the General Paper.
The Other Foreign Languages

Besides English language and mother tongue, French, German, Japanese, Higher Chinese and Malay (Special Programme) are offered as third languages under the Ministry of Education’s Language Elective Programme (LEP). Specifically, the foreign languages French, German and Japanese have been offered as third languages since the 1970s (Ministry of Education – Press Release, 2007), as France, Germany and Japan have strong economic influences on the world’s economy. In 2008, these centres will offer Indonesian and Arabic as third languages (Ministry of Education Language Centre, 2007). Similar to other subjects, such as history, geography and literature, these third languages are also examination subjects in which students are able to pursue a 4-year course leading to the General Certificate of Education (GCE) ‘O’ Level Examination, and a further 2-year course leading to the GCE ‘A’ Level Examination (Ministry of Education Language Centre, 2007).

National Level – The Third Language. At the national level, secondary schools students who are able to cope well with the two compulsory subjects are given the option to take up an additional third language. Only students who are ranked among the top ten per cent of the Primary School Leaving Examination cohort and have a natural ability to learn a foreign language in addition to English and mother tongue are offered these third languages (Ministry of Education – Nurturing Every, 2006). However, unlike the other subjects, these third languages are not conducted in the government schools. Students who wish to take up these courses enrol through the Ministry of Education Language Centre (MOELC) with campuses located at Bishan and Ghim Moh. Students are required to attend lessons twice a week for two hours outside of school time with their progress regularly monitored through quizzes, tests and examinations (MOE – MOELC: Courses, 2007).

National Level – French and German Languages. European languages also are offered in Singapore’s junior colleges and International Schools. Students who have enrolled in MOELC and have done well in their GCE ‘O’ Level Examination are given the opportunity to further their studies in the LEP, but this time it is a two-year programme conducted only in selected junior colleges, and these LEP subjects can be taken as a 4th GCE ‘A’ Level subject for examination. Although there are thirteen Junior Colleges in Singapore, only two colleges offer European language elective programmes. In Victoria Junior College a French Department consisting of one expatriate teacher teaches French to about twenty students. Students are expected to be fluent in French writing, i.e. themes, tenses and grammar, as well as communication skills (MOE – LEP: French language elective programme, 2004). The National Junior College offers German language to students who have obtained a minimum grade of B3 in their GCE ‘O’Level Examination. These students are expected to be proficient in the German history, philosophy, literature and economics (MOE – LEP: German language elective programme, 2004).

Micro Level – International Schools. At the micro level, there are in total 36 foreign system schools that offer foreign languages to International students in Singapore.1 Schools, such as E R International School that offers French language to students, and SJI International which offers French and Spanish languages. Other International Schools, such as German European School Singapore use German and English as its medium of instruction, the Hollandse School uses Dutch, and in Lycée Français de Singapour the medium of instruction is French with English, German or Spanish taught as a second language. However, these schools are only open to International students and local students are not allowed to be admitted (Singapore Expats, 2002-2007).

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1 Includes only international schools that are registered with MOE.
Conclusion

In general, the population of Singapore does not see the benefits of learning a third language. In addition, given the education system, students already have a heavy work load and many activities throughout their schooling years. Tertiary students or adults who wish to pursue a third language can do so by studying in a private school, with the usual reason for doing being better employment opportunities. In general, the environment in Singapore does not support the use of a third language since there is a strong emphasis on bilingualism and speaking good English. Furthermore, other Asian students who choose to come to Singapore to study usually do so to learn English and not a third language.

Schools in Singapore have small enrolments of students who take French and German in junior colleges. Likewise, in secondary schools, only the top ten per cent of students, those who are proficient in the English and mother tongue studies, are allowed to take up this additional subject. International schools cater only to their own individual communities to maintain their cultural identities and are viewed as separate from the Singapore education system. Thus, in Singapore, learning a foreign or a third language is often the preserve of a small group of people.

Successes and Failures in Foreign Language Policy and Planning in Taiwan

Introduction

Taiwan’s foreign language planning changed with the transition from the era of the Nationalist Party or the Kuomintang (KMT) to the Democratic Progress Party (DPP) (up to March 2008), and the MOE has modified its foreign language policies and administration from overly encouraging to effectively supervising languages. The implementation of two major government foreign language policies marks this change. The first, implemented under the KMT, was an open policy that established departments of Applied Foreign Languages (AFL) in colleges and universities from 1993 to 2000. The second was the “Year 2008 Plan” (Ministry of Education, ROC (Taiwan), 2005) from the year 2002 to 2007 under the DPP. These two foreign languages policies and their planning implementation have had an impact on the role and development of European languages, especially English, in Modern Taiwan.

After Taiwan's entry into the World Trade Organization (WTO) in late 2001, internationalization became more urgent than it had been before (Scott & Chen-Liu, 2004). English language as the de facto lingua franca of world commerce and communication became the most commonly studied foreign language in Taiwan (Chern, 2003).

Two Policies from Two Political Eras

The Taiwanese government realized that because English or other foreign languages were neither official nor second languages, there could be a huge disadvantage for Taiwan's competitiveness in a globalizing world (Hong, 1997, as cited in Chen, 2000). Before the 1990s, the only chance for students to study foreign languages at the tertiary level was to enrol in departments of Foreign Languages (FL) where the aim was mainly to cultivate students’ appreciation of literature and culture, instead of providing the practical language training that students needed for their future careers. In order to enhance Taiwan’s competitive competence in the world, the first major influential policy of the MOE was to loosen the requirements and lower the standards for the establishment of applied foreign languages (AFL) departments in technology and vocational (TAV) education. The 1993 policy was so open-ended that the number of colleges and universities of
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technology dramatically increased (Ministry of Education, ROC (Taiwan), 2006). The problematic outcomes were only noticed after students graduated from AFL departments and began working in Taiwanese society.

Before these changes occurred in the 1990s, the study of foreign languages was respected because the standard for enrolment in FL departments in the colleges and universities was demanding. After 1993, with the policy promoting English education for more young people, many departments of AFL in colleges and universities of technology were established and places were made available for intermediate and low proficient students. Most departments of AFL, enjoyed a very short period of high student enrolments. But, what followed was a serious decline in public trust of these language departments and of vocational/practical training. This distrust was based on repeated reports about Taiwanese students’ low English proficiency on important tests (e.g., TOEFL & TOEIC) and on negative feedback from the employment market.

A survey done by a human resources company in Taiwan (English competence becomes a basic skill, 2006) indicated that 85% of enterprises with 250 staff or more used the TOEIC, TOEFL or General English Proficiency Test (GEPT), a test made in Taiwan for the general public, to review their staff’s working competence and to evaluate job seekers. Furthermore, people’s foreign language performance has been regarded as an indication of a country’s economic development. A recent report showed a declining comparative ranking on the TOEIC and TOEFL taken by Taiwanese employees and students. Taiwan fell to the seventh place among ten Asian non-English speaking countries (The Liberty Times, 2007). Therefore, if the KMT government’s policy goal was to enhance its people’s foreign language competence by providing more language study places in tertiary education, that policy initiative needed to be further adjusted.

The second major language policy was “the Year 2008 Plan” instigated by the DPP government (Ministry of Education, ROC (Taiwan), 2005). After 2000 when the DPP came to the power, the MOE noticed Taiwanese students’ inadequate English proficiency together that occurred under the previous policy of the quick expansion of AFL departments and TAV institutions, the MOE began to evaluate how to maintain high educational standards in AFL departments. The method selected was to request all the AFL departments to propose their own year language improvement plans to get government subsidies. To meet the goal to make English a semi-official language as part of “the Year 2008 plan” (Ministry of Education, ROC (Taiwan), 2005), the MOE was able to subsidize a single qualified language planning project with up to 70 million New Taiwanese Dollars (about $2 million USD using July 2007 exchange rates) (Wenzao Ursuline College of Languages, 2006). For colleges or universities of technology which did not propose qualified and applicable language plans, the MOE would scrutinize and reduce the quota of students enrolling. In the worst case scenario, the MOE could even close down an unqualified AFL department in the TAV system. The impact and results of employing this evaluation mechanism to reduce or eliminate the unsuccessful foreign language teaching programs is not yet clear. However, three issues that arise from the current policies can be observed in the following examples.

**Three Critical Issues and Some Examples**

**The Cross-disciplinary Issue for ESP.** As English has become a key resource for many Asian countries to secure their economic advantage, English for specific purposes (ESP) curricula (e.g., business English) have become more and more pivotal. However, it has always been problematic for many language institutions, particularly Taiwan’s TAV education system, to integrate pure language learning (e.g., grammatical form) with applied language and knowledge. Such integration normally requires much cooperation among different departments and industries in the field. Constructing cooperative models between language departments and other professions (e.g., AFL
departments and International Trade Departments) consumes a great deal of extra staff time and energy in addition to the regular teaching and administrative work loads. Not many successful cross-disciplinary curricula are to be found in Taiwan’s TAV educational system (Chen, 2000).

**Bilingual Campus and Total Foreign Language Environments.** Many TAV colleges and universities in Taiwan have tried to implement language policies for constructing a bilingual campus or total foreign language environment, but most have failed to do so. The main difficulty in implementing such policies lies in overcoming learners’ psychological resistance. From my own observations, very often peers isolate a learner who uses a foreign language on campus. This pressure on learners leads to fear of rejection or to a loss of confidence and interest in speaking the foreign language because their social life could be hugely limited by using a foreign language on an EFL campus. For instance, students majoring in AFL in my college often felt unnatural, inconvenienced, or even resentful about one of the language-in-education policies, the “English Only Day”. On this day, the students and their teachers were required to use only English to communicate with each other.

**Building Attitude and Viewpoints of Globalization.** One of the policies in the “Challenge 2008: National Development Plan” (Ministry of Education, ROC (Taiwan), 2005) is to encourage exchange student programs between Taiwan and other countries. This kind of language planning satisfies students who desire to use the foreign languages they have learned. However, because of Taiwan’s present political situation, very often it is difficult for Taiwan’s colleges and universities to get qualified international cooperation in education. Thus, a polity’s international status can influence the development of its foreign language education programs.

A successful example of how this kind of difficulty can be overcome can be seen in the activities engaged in by a small college in the Southern Taiwan which in comparison to many other government- or corporation-sponsored universities was involved in more international exchange programs and conferences (Wenzao Ursuline College of Languages, 2006). Such activities may have given this college’s students a more globalized point of view and so when those students graduated, they behaved like international citizens. The alumni who graduated with English, German, Spanish, or French majors were globalized individuals in many respects. They individually or in groups helped to create a bridge between their college and the foreign universities where they had worked or studied. For example, the alumni working in or with the US, Germany, Mexico or Panama might encourage more people to learn English, German or Spanish and this relates to the frequent international trade these countries have with Taiwan (Ministry of Economic Affairs, ROC (Taiwan), 2004, 2007). Through the involvement of its alumni, a small private college was able to function in ways similar to government-sponsored national universities.

**Conclusion**

Every polity has its own unique emic perspectives and issues when implementing foreign language policy and planning. Taiwan is a small island in a region with many economically competitive countries and Taiwan would like to be a leader in a number of areas. Policies to do that represent or reflect a ruling party’s ideology and vision. Since average Taiwanese performance in foreign languages, especially English, is not making much progress, the government needs to face this reality and amend its policies. This requires careful examination of foreign language policy and planning, whichever political party is in power. For such policy making to be successful, it is pivotal to hear more voices from the real world (e.g., local teaching units and field industries) before any educational reform is implemented.
Foreign Languages in Vietnam

Introduction

In non-English speaking countries in general and in Vietnam in particular, learners' acquisition of foreign languages can be dramatically influenced by government policy toward that language and the role of that language in the society. The Vietnamese government has always recognized the role of four foreign languages (English, Russian, French, Chinese) as necessary for socioeconomic development and national defense. However, the position of different foreign languages in foreign language education in Vietnam has been treated differently at different historical stages. In this section a brief overview of foreign language policy at different stages is provided and the current foreign language education situation in Vietnam is discussed with some specific examples of policy success and failure.

A Brief Overview of Foreign Language Education at Different Historical Stages

Political relationships seem to greatly influence the choice of foreign languages studied. In the 1880s, the French established a protectorate and a colonial government that controlled the whole territory of Vietnam. The French brought a long period of the teaching of French as a second language to parts of the country. “Before 1945, under French colonialism, all languages spoken in Vietnam were secondary to social functional activities as the official language in Vietnam as well as in other countries in Indo-China, such as Cambodia and Laos was French” (Bui, 2003: 1). In 1945, Vietnam declared its independence and Vietnamese became the national language. However, as Do (2006: 3) notes “it took a long time for this recognition to become reality”. The period of 1945-1954 was marked by recolonization by the French and by the Vietnamese struggle. French retained its position in French-ruled areas, but started losing its popularity when the French were forced to withdraw in 1954. After that, Vietnamese flourished throughout the North.

During the years of the American War (1954-1975), South Vietnam, which was under the intense influence of the United States, developed a foreign language policy targeting English and French as the main foreign languages to be taught in the educational system. Although there was a shift from French to English, French was still used for administrative purposes (Wright, 2002). English and French were introduced at the lower secondary schools from grade 6th. During this period, these two foreign languages were not popular in education in the North where they were seen as the languages of the invaders.

From 1954 to 1975, the north of Vietnam was strongly supported by China and Russia with military and civilian aid. Thus, in the post-1954 period, the close relationship with China and Soviet Union exerted profound influences on language policy and language attitudes. French was replaced by Chinese and Russian at secondary and tertiary colleges in the North, with these two languages being more important than English or French. During this period, English language teaching was not given much attention in the North (Le, 2007). However, such a policy, as Do (2006: 1) has argued, “limited communication and cooperation with the rest of the world”. Chinese and Russian involvement in the North reflected Vietnam's political relations during this period.

In 1975, dramatic changes in politics occurred with the communist party’s victory reuniting the country. This “marked the dominance of Russian as the main foreign language, and the decline of English as well as other languages in the educational system” (Do, 2006: 1). In 1979, the Chinese war broke out along the border between Vietnam and China, which worsened diplomatic relations between the two countries. As a consequence, Chinese together with French and
English “almost completely disappeared” (Wright, 2002: 237). For a long period after reunification, the Vietnamese government received substantial support from the Eastern Bloc with the greatest influence from Soviet Union. With an increasing number of Vietnamese graduates coming from universities in the Soviet Union or Eastern Europe, Russian emerged as a dominant foreign language in the educational system. After 1975, Denham (1992) notes that targets were set for different foreign languages at high school: 60% studying Russian, 25% English, and 15% French. Although English and French were taught to some degree, Russian was the strongest language during this period of Soviet political influence and it was used by a large number of the elite who had been trained in the Soviet Union (Le, 2007). Russian started losing ground to English with the decline of Soviet Union and the Eastern Bloc, especially in 1986 when Vietnam implemented its open-door policy, which opened Vietnam to the world after a long period of isolation.

Current Situation of Foreign Language Education in Vietnam

The 1990s marked the return of French and English and the sharp decline of Russian in Vietnam. In the latter half of the 1990s, French was been reintroduced to Vietnam by the French Government through a large number of non-profit programs, investment, diplomatic and educational activities, and large amounts of funding. French has gained greater importance since Vietnam became a full member of Francophone and hosted the 11th Francophone Summit in 1997. The number of learners of French has increased as a result of many programs funded by France. According to Wright (2002: 240), “bilingual secondary streams lead into a university program in which, in 1997, 5,000 Vietnamese students were being taught medicine, management, law, basic science, agricultural science, engineering, and computer science through the medium of French”.

French has been introduced in several private associations at primary level in Vietnam. Given the current trends, French will continue to strengthen its position in Vietnamese society as a result of the generous funding and large scale efforts from the French Government.

Although French gradually has gained status in language learning in Vietnam, English is the most preferred foreign language. Currently, English is inextricably bound up with the rapid development of the economic and educational system. Since the 1990s, English has been introduced at all levels of education and is widely used for international communication in Vietnam. Within the education system, English is also becoming increasingly important, as seen from the key role of English in the entrance and final examinations. Currently, ELT in Vietnam is increasing in status. Data from a recent survey showed that of all junior secondary schools, 99.1 per cent teach English, while only 0.6 per cent teach French, 0.2 per cent Russian, and 0.1 per cent Chinese (Loc, 2005). In the national curriculum for junior and senior secondary schools, English is usually taught in three 45-minute periods a week from grade 6 to grade 12 as a compulsory subject. In 1996, English was introduced as an elective subject starting from the second semester of grade 3, with two 40-minute periods a week (Nguyen & Nguyen, 2007).

The acceptance of English as a compulsory subject in the education system does not deny the opportunity to learn other foreign languages at school. The policy encourages the teaching and learning of a variety of foreign languages, with an emphasis on English. According to Loc (2005), by 2010 Russian, French, and Chinese will be available as a second foreign language in regions which have good learning and teaching conditions and wish to teach them. The teaching and learning of a second foreign language will start from grade 6 and continue to grade 12, with two lessons per week. In addition, there are increasing enrolments of students who take German and French in colleges. Since 2004 Japanese and German have been piloted on an experimental basis in some secondary schools as part of extra curricular programs, depending on the different con-
ditions for socio-economic development in different regions. By 2015 these two languages will be officially taught as the foreign languages along with English, Russian, French, and Chinese.

At the moment, German is taught as a major at only three universities in Vietnam (Vietnam National University, Hanoi, Hanoi University, and Vietnam National University, Ho Chi Minh City). The number of students is very limited. German is taught in a pilot program at only two secondary schools in Hanoi. Since July 1999, German has been taught on radio and TV.

The status of Russian has never been lower as it is taught at only few secondary schools in rural areas in Vietnam (0.1 percent). The enrolment of Russian majors throughout the country is only a very tiny proportion of the enrolment of English or other foreign language majors. Most of the Russian-major graduates do not use their Russian in their jobs. However, the importance of Russian is still recognized in colleges and universities under the influence of Vietnam Ministry of National Defense and Ministry of National Security (Bui, 2005) for its role in diplomat relations and technical as well as military trade with Russia. Given that English is regarded as international language for access to research, trade, and development, the sharp decline in Russian reflects the shift from language planning and policy based on political power to socio-economic power, i.e. English use reflects the new economic policy known as Economic Renovation in Vietnam. Although there seems little doubt that the number of learners of Russian in Vietnam will continue to fall, the Vietnamese government has always considered Russian an important strategic foreign language in their language policy.

Conclusion

In parallel with the situation in many other countries in Asia, recognition of the role of English as international language for business and intercultural communication underpins the provision of English as a major foreign language in the economic and educational system in Vietnam. In the twenty-first century, it is conspicuous that English is the most powerful foreign language in the country as it is a world language or lingua franca. However, there is still significant space for other foreign languages, especially European languages such as French, German, and Russian as Vietnam increases its involvement politically as well as economically with European Union. Yet, English as well as other foreign languages will never “have the hegemonic power” over the country that Chinese and French did in the past since the “Vietnamese, proud of their linguistic and cultural traditions, will seek to maintain their national unity and strength through their own language” (Goh & Nguyen, 2000, p. 330).

Discussion

Having taken the emic point of view on the problems and challenges of language planning in the Asian polities covered by this paper, let us now step back to the etic and see if there seem to be generalizations that can be made about language planning success and failure with regard to European languages in Southeast and East Asian languages, and in particular whether there are implications for the themes of the symposium.

The Role of Languages of European Origin in Modern Asia

When one looks beyond English teaching, languages of European origin are not widely taught or available through the public system in Asia. In addition, they are not necessarily learned for their use in Europe, but for their use as world languages in Africa and Latin America. Much of the learning that occurs is through foreign government supported programs, or through other
private and/or ethnically sponsored groups. [Dutch, French, German, Russian, Portuguese, Esperanto]

The Increase in Teaching of Asian Languages

In North Asia in particular there seems to be an increase in the teaching of other Asian languages. Thus while English may be a general lingua franca, there is growing evidence that to suggest that Asians are also increasingly learning each other’s languages as foreign languages. As languages compete for space in the curriculum, there is a danger in looking narrowly at just at European languages in Asian polities rather than considering the whole language teaching ecology.

The Early Introduction of English

Nunan’s (2003: 594) data indicated that English was being introduced at an early age, and that trend has intensified under the pressure of economic competition. This is despite the fact that such teaching requires massive commitments of funds, special early childhood teacher training, teachers with excellent language skills, and books and materials. As with much language ‘planning’, the decision appears to be predominantly political and against the little FL research evidence available. Support for such teaching also appears to be inadequate. Unless such programs are properly resourced, one might predict massive failures and the unfortunate waste of resources.

English and Changes to the Language Ecology

As English has become increasingly important in Asian education and societies, it has had an impact on other languages. For example, in Singapore it has increased as a mother tongue in Singaporean households, and this required a change in the way Mandarin (and Tamil) are taught in schools with Mandarin as a second language programs being contemplated (Zhao, Liu and Hong, 2007). Its increasing presence in the curriculum more generally may be reducing the space for other languages to be taught, including minority languages.

English in Asia: Indigenization and Objections

A widespread phenomenon in Asia is the development of a cline of varieties of English ranging from ‘standard’ English at one end to substrate varieties at the other. These varieties represent both indigenization and identity markers on the one hand, e.g. Singlish incorporates Hokkien and Malay words and usage (See, www.talkingcock.com) and is widely used by young people in Singapore. Other recognized varieties in the literature include Manglish, Chinglish (Qiang & Wolff, 2003) and Japlish.

Examples of resistance to the spread of English or other foreign languages (e.g. Canagarajah, 1999) are perhaps more difficult to cite, although this is clearly occurring in some sectors and may be causing increased social stratification as in Bangladesh. However, we may note that despite the fact that English is a required subject in many polities (for graduation, for professional qualifications), many students seem demotivated to learn it. The question may be posed of whether this is resistance, and/or problems related to instruction (Tran & Baldauf, 2007).

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1 TALKING COCK (v.) a local Singaporean term meaning either to talk nonsense or engage in idle banter. The Oxford Singlish Dictionary (www.talkingcock.com)
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The increased presence of English in the curriculum normally means that something else must go – curricula and schools only have a fixed amount of time. Most new introductions – except for programs like teaching mathematics and science in English in Malaysia from Form 1 – do not make use of bilingual principles. Typically such additions put pressures on 3rd languages, whether they are minority languages or 2nd foreign languages.

Resource Implications

Funding for language programs is inherently expensive, and for some countries in Asia, that creates major problems. In Bangladesh and Indonesia, for example, funding for normal programs, the training of teachers, money for textbooks is inadequate. There is little or no funding that can be found for languages which consume a lot of resources. For this reason, much European language teaching relies on funding from interested foreign donors. Under such circumstances, foreign language teaching is unlikely to increase significantly, unless there are other social or economic reasons for this to occur.

Conclusions

Much of Asia has always been multilingual, but the underlying language learning strategy now seems to be shifting to an English knowing bilingualism as the underpinning for these multilingual societies. English is clearly becoming an Asian language and is being indigenized and used for local intercultural communication. In some polities where this process is more advanced, like Singapore, Malaysia and Korea, there are signs of concern about how English is affecting the national or mother tongue languages, as well as the growing development of local varieties. These globalization pressures are also putting pressure on minority languages and the resources available to teach them.

References

General
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Bangladesh


China (PRC)


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Japan

Korea
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