ARE WE MAKING A DIFFERENCE?

ON THE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY AND IMPACT OF THE LINGUIST/APPLIED LINGUIST IN AUSTRALIA

Michael Clyne, University of Melbourne

Michael Clyne is honorary professorial fellow in the School of Languages and Linguistics at the University of Melbourne and emeritus professor at Monash University, having held professorial appointments at both universities. His main research interests are bi- and multilingualism/language contact, sociolinguistics, and inter-cultural communication. His most recent books are Dynamics of Language Contact (Cambridge University Press, 2003), Australia’s Language Potential (UNSW Press, 2005), and, with Sandra Kipp, Tiles in a Multilingual Mosaic: Macedonian, Filipino and Somali in Melbourne (Pacific Linguistics, 2006).

Correspondence to Michael Clyne: mgclyne@unimelb.edu.au

Language is crucial in our lives and to all disciplines. It affects our well-being individually and collectively and touches important sociopolitical issues. Linguists/applied linguists have exciting opportunities for interdisciplinary research and to work in contexts personally meaningful to them. While language is the concern of all people, professionals have special responsibilities to provide leadership in understanding how it works and responsible insights into the uses and abuses of language in society.

Australian language specialists can offer the rest of the world experience with language policy, typological and language contact studies, and bilingual language acquisition. Some Australians have advanced linguistic knowledge through studies of indigenous languages. Many have worked with indigenous, ethnic and other communities and professional groups, providing evidence in court or advice to teachers and families. Some broadcast regularly or occasionally. But have we succeeded in contesting the monolingual mindset of the mainstream? The Australian authors represented in language sections of most general bookshops are not linguists.

Further collaboration and coordination of initiatives through the professional societies is needed to put languages back on the national agenda and make Australia more language-aware. This should lead to recognizing, valuing, fostering and transmitting, supporting and sharing our linguistic diversity. Australia’s rich language potential has only been partly realized.

In this article I would like to address the public visibility of the linguist/applied linguist in Australia today and outline some areas where we need to be playing a role in shaping and improving our society. I will argue that we have a social responsibility to extend
the linguistic horizons of the wider community to help them understand the power of
language and overcome the monolingual mindset.

It is quite well-known that I have difficulties in drawing lines between linguistics and
applied linguistics because I see linguistics as a discipline which intersects with many
others and should not escape application, and applied linguistics as its application. I
hope the reader will forgive me if I employ ‘linguist’ in the general sense of someone who
engages in scholarship about language, and include under that umbrella both general
and applied linguists.

In the era of globalization, terrorism and economic rationalism, academics of many
disciplines are still making their presence felt in the community. Political scientists, his-
torians and economists are examples. What about linguists?

Language is central to every sphere of our lives and to all disciplines. Being the main
means of human communication, it pervades our most crucial as well as our most trivial
relationships, at home, at work and elsewhere. It is crucial in the very domains that are
concerning us such as peace and tolerance, security and diplomacy, education, health,
social justice, national cohesion, international trade, and tourism. Through language we
identify people as belonging or not belonging, we can represent or misrepresent people
and manipulate the opinions of others, as is happening now in Australia. Language is a
medium of cognitive and conceptual development. Language is an instrument of action,
through which we promise, pass judgment, complain, invite and exclude. The study of
language gives us insights into the human mind. It is the deepest manifestation of culture,
the key to revealing our cultural values and understanding those of others. Language,
used in a particular way, can make us sick; used in another, can heal us. It can empower
or disenfranchise others. So linguists have exciting opportunities for interdisciplinary
research and to work in contexts personally meaningful to them.

One recent example of an irresponsible use of language is the us-them dichotomy
employed in some media and politicians’ representations of asylum seekers as ‘illegals’,
‘queue jumpers’ and behaving in an undesirable way to support their exclusion and in-
human treatment in the interests of ‘border protection’ (Clyne 2003). Another is the us-
them dichotomy excluding intellectuals as ‘elites’ from mainstream Australia. A third is
the use of the ‘war against terror’, something totally undefinable, as a means of casting
suspicion on anyone different, and therefore undermining multiculturalism. And as Suzy
Macqueen (2005) has shown, the treatment of indigenous Australians in editorials in
*The Australian* is yet another. More than ever it is essential that school education and
the lifelong education process enables all Australians to develop the power to express
themselves effectively and honestly in both the written and spoken modes, aware of the
possible consequences of the way we talk and write, and the capacity to analyze critically. And we have a role in this by providing the research and sensitizing the future teachers.

For its size, the community of linguists in Australia has achieved a lot, having produced high quality research in a wide range of fields and languages. They have described and given status to their own national variety of English, though there is probably less current research on Australian English than on New Zealand English, and much still needs to be done on regional variation and generational change, for example.

Some Australian linguists have advanced the knowledge on language typology – especially the understanding of ergativity, evidentiality, case-marking, gender, and semantics of event representation – through studies of indigenous languages, though there is still a long way to go in the description of Australian languages, with the clock ticking. According to an excellent overview by Nick Evans (In press), there are now ‘high-quality’ grammars of 30 indigenous languages and ‘workmanly’ ones of another 30. Evans estimates that there are about half as many dictionaries of indigenous languages.

Many linguists have worked closely with indigenous, ethnic and other communities and professional groups, giving evidence in land rights claims in court, expert opinions in social justice issues or advice to families raising their children bilingually. Recently a group representing phonetics, sociolinguistics and language testing has drawn attention to the abuse of human rights in the way in which Australia employs language analysis to exclude some refugee claims (Eades et al. 2004). An increasing number are publishing books for the interested general reader. Some linguists broadcast regularly or occasionally on language matters. We now have regular programs conducted by Ruth Wajnryb in Sydney (and she also has a column in the Sydney Morning Herald), Pauline Bryant in the ACT, Kate Burridge in WA (unfortunately having been silenced in Victoria!), also Anne Pauwels in WA, and Roly Sussex in Queensland, South Australia and the Northern Territory with regular programs (Roly also has a weekly column in the Courier-Mail). But the Australian authors represented in language sections of most general bookshops are not linguists. Don Watson’s books, Death Sentence and Weasel Words, Julian Burnside’s Word Watching, and Bill Bryson’s The Mother Tongue are omnipresent. In one chain bookshop I also found Susan Butler’s The Dinkum Dictionary, Lenie Johansen’s Penguin Book of Australian Slang, Jenny Hunter’s True Blue Guide to Australian Slang and A.W. Reed’s Aboriginal Words. The remaining bookshop actually had Kate Burridge’s Weeds in the Garden of Words, Ruth Wajnryb’s Away with Words and Tom Burton’s Long Words. Let me hasten to add that I am not saying that only professional linguists should write books on language. But why have the books by Don Watson and Julian Burnside been so successful? Would Word Watching have been as popular had it been
written by a linguist? Does Don Watson represent a different way of thinking from linguists? He has certainly done the nation a service by sounding a public alarm about the dominance of managerial jargon and the effect it is having on communication. He graphically but in my opinion wrongly describes the phenomenon as the ‘death of language’. The idea of a word being a ‘shell’ ‘without meaning’ does not, in my opinion, adequately capture the many items included in his Weasel Words. They often represent semantic change, nominalization, verbalization, the development of a collocation which becomes a technical term or of a good quality noun or adjective. They all bear meaning or stylistic function. I don’t know if any linguists were asked to review his books for the media and how many of us tried to enter the public discussion, let alone succeeded, but it might have been useful for a consideration to take place in less prescriptive terms on issues such as:

What is jargon? How does it affect language change? Have there been precedents? Is this different? Why? In any case, the phenomenon of the Don Watson books and their reception is an issue of interest to linguists. So is the status of linguists in the community.

There was a time in living memory when linguists were prominent in Australian public life. It started with the Senate inquiry into National Language Policy in 1982 and ended with the debate on the Green Paper preceding the Australian Language and Literacy Policy in 1991. What did we do right then? Why did the submission from ten professional associations have such an impact in 1982 while a similar new one in 1995 was almost totally ignored. Was the golden age of the 1980s an exception? If so, what is the best strategy for normal times? Australian language specialists can offer the rest of the world experience with language policy, typological studies, language contact studies, bilingual language acquisition and L3 acquisition. Australia has substantial language potential which is only partly being realized. Does it matter that our capacity to train young scholars in research on community languages, including structural changes in such languages, is ever decreasing? Some subjects in this field have been abandoned; some specialist positions in this field have not been replaced.

I believe the changes can be attributed to multiple causes. In the 1970s and 1980s we could benefit not only from our own efforts but also from the initiatives and interest of many in government and the wider community, and the reforming zeal and social conscience of politicians. A period of lobbying on the part of ethnic communities and many others preceded the change of Australia into a vibrant multicultural nation. In
1977, approximately 21,800 Victorians signed a petition in favour of recommendations for the teaching of community languages in schools. I am amazed to recall how easy it was to plant into the minds of government ministers ideas such as teaching languages in primary schools, showing TV programs in community languages and including a language use question in the Census – and how responsive they were. On the other hand, it was not always ‘easy riding’ (Clyne 1997).

Language and languages are not a major public issue today the way that history is. We do not have the context that generated enthusiasm and support for language in the past. Nor do university people today have the time and energy to work for the important language issues. Time and energy are dissipated protecting your own areas (especially a particular language). The new management structures and amalgamations of budgetary units give you far less control over what you are doing. Some areas of our disciplines are being eroded for a range of reasons, including economic rationalist agendas. The link between research and policy in some areas is disappearing as people with expertise in them are not replaced by those in the same field as they retire or resign. Gradually, public figures from outside the discipline have taken over the lead in discussions, often people who do not understand the issues and themselves have a fairly narrow perspective. Booksellers are loath to stock books by academic linguists they do not know, even if the books are written for the general public. People lose heart because their work is not being valued.

The 2001 Census shows over 200 languages other than English spoken in the homes of Australians (Clyne and Kipp 2002). Sixty-four of these are indigenous languages, uniquely linked to the Australian land and each contributing in a special way to the understanding of human language and human cognition. Then there is Australian Sign Language, in a different sense a community language indigenous to Australia. The other community languages have been brought to Australia from all corners of the earth and constitute a rich resource for the nation. Contact between languages from different families and with such varying typological features and sociolinguistic histories offers the opportunity to find out a great deal about contact-induced change and about the factors promoting language shift and maintenance. Because Australia’s national language and lingua franca is English, there is no one second language that needs to be learned by everyone. That gives us the chance to build on the resources we already have and teach a range of languages in our schools. Over the past 30 years we have embraced as our own the collectivity of cultures and languages that Australia encompasses. Australia has developed institutions and has introduced initiatives to foster cultural dynamism. These include:
the teaching of a multiplicity of languages in primary and secondary schools;
the accreditation of 45 languages in the final secondary school examination (including five unfortunately suspended because of low numbers) in four states;
the funding and support of teacher professional development in ethnic schools;
government and public multilingual radio stations;
multicultural television;
the telephone interpreter service; and
multilingual public library holdings appropriate to local demography, with inter-library loans ensuring wider accessibility.

The early developments within multicultural policy and then the National Policy on Languages were supported by local research and by activist coalitions in which linguists were well represented in providing credible arguments. It was hard work and there were struggles which were lost before they were won, but in the end there were people listening. Is anyone listening now? Are we trying to win the grassroots support, which was vital last time round? The awareness of our language potential should lead to recognizing, valuing, fostering and transmitting, supporting and sharing linguistic diversity in our nation. Incidentally the suspension of languages with less than 15 candidates for three consecutive years in the cooperating states is contrary to the notion inherent in Australian multiculturalism that all languages are worthwhile. The practice needs to be stopped.

Although the harnessing of our language and concomitant cultural resources is in keeping with good social policy and good economic management, and is good for diplomacy, Australia is caught in the grip of the monolingual mindset which promises to make it one of the last bastions of complacent xenophobia. Yet at the economic level, the languages of large and small communities have been of great benefit to Australia, if we consider Australian ventures in Vietnam, China, Taiwan, Hong Kong, India, Hungary, Poland, Lithuania and Ukraine, spearheaded by Australians from bilingual backgrounds, for we do not know what political and other events will next influence economics. It is because of our language resources that international call centres and Asia-Pacific headquarters of European multinational companies have been established in Australia. Yet five years ago, we had previously distinguished ourselves by beating the US, the UK and New Zealand to bottom place in a study of CEOs of top companies in 28 (mainly OECD) countries comparing the number of languages in which the CEOs were proficient. Ours averaged 1.4. The Netherlands topped the list with 3.9, followed by Sweden, Brazil, Germany and the Philippines (Rosen et al. 2000). With the diminution in the number of languages taught in mainstream schools and the number settling on six, the languages...
offered are not keeping up with either demographic change or with Australia’s external needs. By far the most widely used language among the younger generation in Sydney is Arabic in one or other national variety; there were 2½ times as many speakers of this language in the 0-14 age group in 2001 than speakers of Greek and Italian combined (Kipp and Clyne 2003). It is not a secret that Arabic is a valuable language for trade, diplomacy and inter-cultural understanding. With the number of L1 speakers of Spanish internationally approaching those of English, it is becoming a popular second language in many European countries (where it is starting to rival French), as well as in Asia. In the USA it has been the number one LOTE in education for some time. Australia never reacted to the recommendations of a 1991 Senate inquiry which found that Australia was wasting millions of dollars by not taking trade with Latin America more seriously and should invest in language resources to do this (Kipp et al. 1995: 9). Yet the language is very popular in many of the universities where it is offered and it would not be impossible to build up teacher resources. The number of young home speakers of Spanish in Sydney now exceeds those of Italian. The most widely used community language among school and pre-school children in Melbourne, Perth and Brisbane, second in Adelaide, and third in Sydney is Vietnamese, which is taught much less in schools and universities than ten years ago. Our resources in Greek are dwindling as secondary school after secondary school is responding to geographical dispersal patterns and withdrawing the subject. Our policies are not keeping up with demographic change because they are no longer a priority. There is a need for informed collective action in which linguists can make their expertise available.

With the disintegration of national language policy, our languages-in-education policy is now largely determined by states. Policies range from Victoria’s (unfulfilled) expectation that all children take a LOTE from Prep to Year 10, to the NSW requirement of at least 100 hours of a language in one year of schooling. Even this was considered undesirable by the former premier of NSW who felt that language study is not aided by compulsion. I don’t know whether a bilingual premier will save at least some core language study. LOTE is a key learning area but it is less key than other areas. Only 37.1% of Victorian schools require students to take a LOTE in year 9 and 14.8% in Year 10 (Clyne 2005: 24). When I am in schools, I sometimes ask the principal about this. “Oh,” they say, “parents ring up and say I don’t want my child to take a language. They find it too hard or they find it boring”. And I say naively that I imagine there aren’t any who find Maths too hard or Science boring. “Oh yes,” the principal admits, “but that’s different”. The monolingual mindset always has some reason for treating other languages differently. While the ALLP aimed at having 25% of students taking a LOTE in Year 11 and 12 by
2001, this is far from accomplished. Throughout Australia the proportion is only 13.1%. Only Victoria and the ACT exceed the national average with 20.7% and 16% respectively (Clyne 2005: 117). And in Victoria it is largely due to the high continuation rate for languages in independent schools.

Many educationists are actually propagating monolingualism through a number of popular fallacies.

The first is the *Crowded Curriculum Fallacy*. The assumption is that there are too many more important things to do so there is really no room for a second language except perhaps as an afterthought. This is characteristic of predominantly monolingual, especially English-speaking, societies. The reason why students particularly in state schools are being denied the opportunity to learn a second language when most of the rest of the world is learning two or more is that many non-core activities have been promoted to core status here. One of the highest achievers in the PISA study (Program for International Student Assessment) comparing the educational achievement of secondary school students is Finland, where everyone learns three languages throughout their schooling and about 75% learn at least four. In the Netherlands, students learn English as well as Dutch in Year 12; in 1999 41% also did German and 21% French.

Then there is the *Monoliteracy Fallacy*. This is based on the assumption that all-important English literacy is different to literacies in other languages and can therefore be acquired only through English. It denies that there are people in some parts of the world who are quite literate even though they have acquired this through a language other than English. It is oblivious of the number of people who achieve biliteracy. It disregards the large literature which demonstrates literacy transfer from one language to another. These points have frequently been made by Lo Bianco and Freebody (2001), people working on multiliteracies and language teachers, many of whom have argued that compulsory primary time allocation to literacy be partly spent on LOTE rather than used as an excuse for not having enough time for a LOTE. It seems to be outside the understanding of many influential people in educational circles that underlying literacy skills are like learning to walk or drive. Once you can walk on the carpet, it only needs some adjustment to walk uphill, on snow or in the water. Once you can drive a car, you can quickly learn to drive a truck or a tram. If you can read and write one language, that skill can be transferred to other languages, as has been shown even by local studies involving English and languages such as Persian and Khmer with different writing systems (Arefi 1997; Burratt-Pugh and Rohl 2001). But the very components of literacy acquisition are ones that are enhanced by the language awareness that comes from being exposed to more than one language:
• Recognition of the structure of a word
• Recognition of the structure of a sentence
• Recognition of sound patterns possible in a language
• Guessing from the context (Baker 2001: 351; Jiménez et al. 1995; Calero-Breckheimer and Goetz 1993).

A study by Yelland et al. (1993) showed that participation in a limited Italian or Greek program increased the reading readiness of monolingual English speakers in Prep and Grade 1.

The challenge is to ensure that primary LOTE programs do those kinds of things. A better knowledge of precisely what cognitive skills a child acquires after a certain exposure to a LOTE could make it possible to cater for the majority of primary school children who change schools and thereby usually move into a different LOTE program.

The monolingual mindset has also given us the Global English is Enough Fallacy. There are several reasons why this is dangerously wrong. As English is now used as a second language and lingua franca by five times as many people as use it in a first language context, the way in which cultural values underpin pragmatic rules and discourse norms is influencing variation in the language. The minority of English users from what Kachru (1982) calls the inner circle (US, UK, Canada, Australia, New Zealand) will not be able to keep control of English norms for much longer, for instance in academic discourse and international meetings. Users of English, including ‘inner circle’ speakers, will need to learn to understand this variation. For this they, like the rest of the world, will need to have had the experience of acquiring at least one other language to a high level of proficiency. As many Asian and European countries are adopting a policy of three languages in the curriculum, the L1, English and at least one other, monolingual English speakers will be disadvantaged, being able to see everything from only a monolithic viewpoint in a global situation where multilingualism is part of globalization. Yet Australia has the potential advantage of daily grassroots experience in inter-cultural communication in urban workplaces, housing estates, schools and shopping centres, something that could be utilized far more in our commercial, educational and other international dealings.

The Two Languages Maximum Fallacy, like other monolingual misconceptions, erroneously believes that each item in each language is stored separately in the brain, which is a container with limited capacity. It appears to be behind the resistance in some schools to letting bilingual students take a LOTE and ironically in some schools with much linguistic diversity to offering a LOTE to anyone. Local research (Clyne et al. 2004) has
shown how monolingual children learning Greek or Spanish as a third language at secondary school make use of their other languages and the resulting understanding of how language works, and how learning a community language as a third language encourages students to use and value their home language more and stimulates interest in languages in general. This is also reflected in Postmus’s (2005) paper on differences between monolingual and bilingual learners of Mandarin.

The *Unfair Advantage Fallacy* is perhaps the one most likely to detract from the harnessing and sharing of our language resources. It is a throwback to the 1950s, when students with a background in German, Italian and Russian were discriminated against. Now that languages are valued through differential scaling and in Victoria through a 10% bonus for university entry, it is speakers of some Asian languages that are targeted for discrimination as those ‘suspected’ of speaking the language. In the quest for statistical perfection that bears little relationship to proficiency in the language, the previous process of adjusting the proportion of high scores in some languages to ensure that they can be attained by students who began the language at secondary school has been abandoned. There is a fear of people with a different background, which has led to discrimination in assessment, scapegoating, dual (and in one case triple) level examinations. In Western Australia, it is the first five years of a person’s life rather than the medium of secondary education in the target language that is the main criterion for eligibility for the second language examination in four Asian languages. This results from advice in a commissioned report by an academic from outside languages and linguistics based on his overreading of the critical age hypothesis. No linguist in WA seemed to be aware of the changes to the eligibility rules and no relevant Australian research was consulted (Clyne 2005: 123–24). Research in the field has identified not two or three categories but a continuum in which wherever you draw lines, you discriminate, with the possible exception of students who have had a substantial part of their secondary education overseas in the target language (Clyne et al. 2004). It has also shown by Cathie Elder (1997) that students with and without a home background in a language have different strengths in learning a language and can benefit from one another. Discriminating against those with a home background demotivates language maintenance and development of formal skills through schooling in some of the people who could become important bilingual resources for Australia, including in teaching, and alienates the communities who can be mobilized to provide a better basis for maintenance and second language acquisition. In our society, no-one has an ‘unfair advantage’; the Australian nation is advantaged because of the community resources it provides teachers and students for the development of skills in English and other languages. What collaboration has been attempted between
the teaching, research and language communities has tended to be successful and needs to be developed further.

There is evidence that language shift is very high in many Chinese communities. In 1996, the last census that enables us to estimate second generation shift, 37% of Australian-born children of People’s Republic of China (PRC) parents and 35% of Hong Kong parents spoke only English at home. This was far higher than for those of Greek and Arabic background and more than twice as high as those of Macedonian or Turkish language background (Clyne and Kipp 1997). It is crucial that students with as well as without a home background in Chinese languages be enabled and motivated to learn and enjoy learning the language.

This brings me to two more general monolingual fallacies:

The Language Maintenance by Osmosis Fallacy (that children automatically speak the language of their parents) and the Language Shift Fallacy (that children will shift to English when they start school so bilingualism is wasted) are contrary to facts from both macrodata from censuses and smaller depth studies in Australia. The shift rate varies vastly in both the first and second generations and there is an increased effort to transmit a community language spoken by only one of the parents in which linguists have acted as facilitators.

Each state could be reflecting on how to build on their linguistic resources and for that they would need research on multilingualism. The Northern Territory clearly should present a multilingual profile in that it is the home of most of our indigenous languages, with 41% of the population outside Darwin using a language other than English at home. Darwin’s close proximity to Indonesia and East Timor accentuates the need to consider the importance of languages other than English. Western Australia is an Indian Ocean state, with four of the five top community languages originating in Asia, and can also claim its own brand of multilingualism. As I speak to teachers and those representing community and indigenous languages in other states, there is a great deal of common disenchantment with declining resources and commitment. I would suggest that far more collaboration and coordination of initiatives through the professional societies is needed to put languages back on the national agenda and make Australia more language aware.

While language is the concern of all people, professionals have special responsibilities, such as to:

- provide information about languages and how language works;
• provide responsible insights into the role of language in society and its possible uses and abuses; and
• present responsible attitudes to language.

Linguists have had a long history of collaboration and cooperation with ‘amateurs’. Lexicographers and dialectologists have leant on language users to help them collect data. Sociolinguists have increasingly employed focus groups to help them understand the language issues and communities they are dealing with. We should not monopolize the discussion on language, but need to offer leadership to language users to help communities manage their own language issues. Linguists will often have to make their expertise available to communities with whom they are working to advise them on their language needs. Sometimes it will mean helping them make political representations. Newer ethnic communities and younger members of older ones lack the experience that had been acquired over longer periods by the earlier generation or vintage, or don’t realize the constant efforts that are needed to protect what was achieved in the 1970s and ’80s. Young community members researching their own languages are in a good position to do this. The energy that comes out of studying a language situation often provides the basis for activism. That is another reason why specialist courses in bilingualism are important like those on indigenous languages. The same applies to teachers researching in the classroom.

Our university linguistics courses could benefit from more community and workplace components. This could give students practice at applying their skills, enhance more general understanding of what linguists do, and put students and potential employers in touch with each other.

As there is still little knowledge in the wider community about what linguists do, it is important for us all to work more closely with the media. It would be good to have an ALAA/ALS joint media/PR committee to encourage this. It would be advantageous for museums to have a section on languages in Australia. The European Year of Languages generated a great deal of interest, sensitization, and discussion, and 2005 was declared the Year of Foreign Language Study by the US Senate in an attempt to bring the value of language learning to the public attention. In both cases, linguists were able to play an important role in the dialogue. How about an Australian Year of Languages? As a long-term strategy I suggest we form expert groups to develop segments of language policy for when things change for the better as we did before 1984. Helping to make Australia a more language-aware society freed of a complacently monolingual mindset is one of the many exciting tasks confronting Australian linguists today.
ENDNOTES

1 This is a slightly revised version of keynote address at the ALAA and ALS conferences, University of Melbourne, October 2005. I thank an anonymous referee for helpful suggestions. A slightly different form is published in the Selected Papers from the 2005 Conference of the ALS (ed. Keith Allan), which is on the Web at http://www.arts.monash.edu.au/lintg/als/.

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