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WHO'S TEACHING WHICH LANGUAGES ONLINE? A REPORT BASED ON NATIONAL SURVEYS

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ABSTRACT

This paper describes findings from recent national surveys on online language education (OLE) within a broader context of national surveys of post-secondary online education and world language enrollments. The surveys discussed and compared are the 2012 CARLA Survey by Johnshoy and BOLDD Surveys by Murphy-Judy (2014 & 2015). The findings reported here include: types and sizes of institutions; demographics of the teaching corps (CARLA data only); and, the mix of languages and levels. This work aims to provide useful information on online language education as it emerges as an important field in world language teaching and learning in the 21st century.

INTRODUCTION

The language teaching and learning profession knows little about the current state of online language education (OLE). Who provides which kinds of online language learning (OLL) to whom? How, when, and where is it taking place?

Two recent national surveys have begun to shed some light on these questions (Johnshoy 2012 & Murphy-Judy 2014 & 2015). This article presents results of these surveys within the context of U.S. national data on online education and trends in language enrollments nationwide. The primary sampling frame is primarily postsecondary, fully online language providers, although Johnshoy's data does include some elementary and secondary educational institutions. The summary of data collected and analyzed describes (1) the types and sizes of institutions that offer fully online language courses; (2) general information about online language faculty demographics; and, (3) the mix of languages and levels offered. Although the surveys have collected other data, such as teacher preparation, design issues, learner orientation, and assessments, this article is restricted to the three stated descriptions.

LITERATURE AND NATIONAL DATA REVIEWS

Over the past decade, language learning delivered entirely online (OLL) has emerged as a fast-growing field of academic practice and inquiry worldwide; yet, specific enrollment figures and growth rates are still unknown. For the purpose of this study, online learning is defined as a subset of distance education by means of which instructors and learners engage in a course or full program of instructional activities synchronously, asynchronously, or in a mix of both, with little to no recourse to face-to-face interaction. Anecdotally, one hears of more and more secondary and post-secondary language educators being called upon to teach an online course. Some are even assigned the full range of tasks from design and development all the way through delivery and assessment of student learning outcomes and evaluation of the entire curriculum and program.

As recently as 2010, there were very few sessions specifically addressing fully online language education at the American Council of Teachers of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) Conference, the largest North American meeting of language educators PK-20. Even conferences of organizations dedicated to computer-assisted language learning, such as the Computer-Assisted Language Instruction Consortium (CALICO) and the International Association of Language Learning and Technology (IALLT), offered only a session or two addressing entirely online language instruction. Several articles and a few books on OLL had appeared but nothing targeting a national overview of the field, its various structures, or an inventory of practices (Blake et al., 2008; Blake, 2009; Goertler & Winke, 2008a & 2008b; Hampel & Hauck, 2004; Kraemer, 2008; Sanders, 2005). One of the first books about language teaching entirely online, *Teaching*

Languages Online, covers practices and tools but does not provide global data (Meskill & Anthony, 2010). Other important volumes discuss online language learning--mainly technologies, communities, teaching practices--with some references to specific courses or programs, like those at the University of Auckland (Kraemer, 2008; Blake, 2008; Goertler, 2011). Nonetheless, the creation and expansion of a variety of post-secondary initiatives, such as the large asynchronous, international program at University of Maryland University College, numerous community college programs (e.g., Northern Virginia Community College and Mesa Community College), and the Online Language Initiative (OLI) at Carnegie Mellon University, attest to the growth of online language education. Online K-12 programs like Florida Virtual School and Virtual Virginia offer primary and secondary online language courses. Their students become young language learners ready, willing, able and expecting to continue studying languages online.

Elsewhere in the world, too, online language education delivery has been growing, for example at the Open University in Great Britain, which has a long history in the distance language education field. (Hampel & Stickler, 2015). A significant number of commercial ventures like DuoLingo, Rosetta Stone, Mango Languages, and Busuu have entered the field with fully online versions.

Despite growing attention to OLE in the USA, the extent and rate of its growth in the post-secondary arena could be estimated by inferring from national statistics of the entire field of online education provided by the NCES IPEDS data (2013, 2014, 2015, 2016) and the Babson Survey Research Group, now known as the Online Learning Consortium (Allen & Seaman, 2013, 2014, 2015). The Babson 2013 ten-year retrospective charted an impressive growth of 9.6% to 32% in post-secondary online enrollments over that period (p.17).

The growth of the field of online education could also be tracked by the literature it produced. A 2010 US Department of Education report by Means et al. noted that, "A systematic search of the research literature from 1996 through July 2008 identified more than a thousand empirical studies of online learning" (p.ix) which would also indicate a lively field with significant quantities of specimens of online learning upon which to base said studies. Based on the surveys and literature review, one sees significant growth in online education. Specific information regarding online second language education has not been discernible, therefore, from data collected thus far.

With regard to language education, the MLA study, *Enrollments in Languages Other Than English in United States Institutions of Higher Education Fall 2013* presents the results of its survey of 2,435 educational institutions with enrollments in languages other than English (Goldberg, Looney & Lusin, 2015). The survey presents details about enrollments in language programs in post-secondary institutions in the U.S. It was not designed to gather data specifically about *online* language learning albeit online courses are undoubtedly captured within the total enrollment count. A large-scale, national effort to gather comprehensive data on post-secondary foreign language education (FLE) began in the spring of 2014 under the auspices of the American Councils for International Education. The report gives comprehensive data on the teaching and learning of languages other than English in the United States, Yet there is no specificity of how, when, and why languages are taught, so this report also provides nothing that details online venues of FLE (ACIE, 2017).

With regard to distance education, the Babson Survey in its final report, *Grade Level* (2015), shows that nearly 100% of public four-year and two-year post secondary institutions in its sample universe and some 65% of private for-profit and not-for-profit four-year schools were offering distance learning venues. The two-year institutions, both for-profit and not-for-profit had only some 35% distance learning offerings. The report notes:

> The most recent IPEDS data show that 70.7% of all currently active, degree granting institutions that are open to the public have some distance offerings. There is a strong relationship between the size of the institution (as measured by the total number of students enrolled) and the proportion with distance offerings. Over 95% of institutions with 5,000 or more total students reported distance offerings. This drops to 83.6% for institutions with between 1,000 and 4,999 students, and down to 47.5% of those with less than 1,000 total students.

This same Babson report notes an 11.9% increase in enrollments online in private colleges whereas only 3.9% in public four-year colleges. (Allen & Seaman, 2015; Shaffhauser, 2016). The NCES statistics, unlike Babson's, are collected from all institutions, not just a sampling. Its 2015 report states, "During the 2011–12 school year, about 7.4 million undergraduate students and about 1.3 million post baccalaureate (graduate) students took at least one distance education class. These numbers also include those who took their entire degree program online" (NCES, 2015 update). This report includes responses from 4706 institutions: 1,738 (37%) are two-year and 2,968 (63%) are four-year institutions.

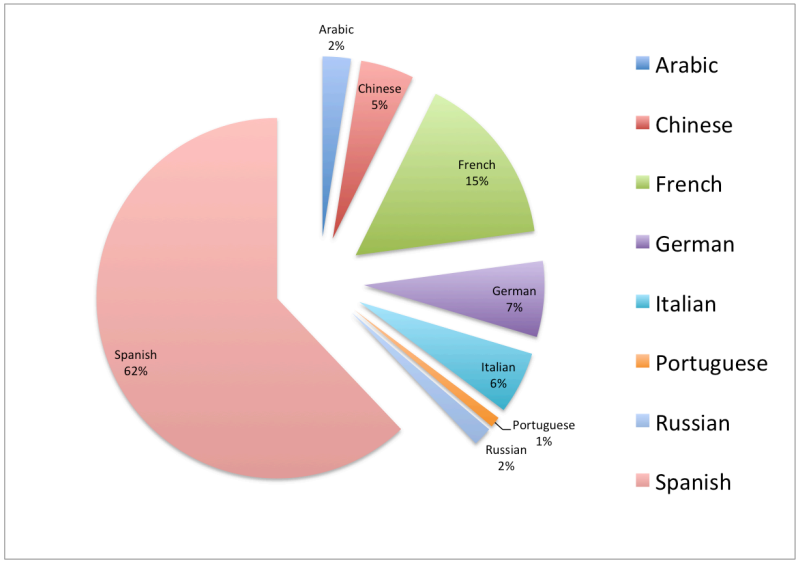
It states that nearly 20% of students (11% in public and 7% in private nonprofit) two-year institutions were enrolled in some form of distance education, as were roughly 20% of students (7% in public and 13 % at private nonprofit) at four-year undergraduate institutions. It should be noted that distance education here means all variations, not just online delivery as defined above.

With regard to languages other than English taught in the United States, the MLA canvassed almost the entirety of post-secondary institutions having language instruction, getting a 98.3% response rate, rendering it "a census as well as a survey" (Goldberg et al., 2015, p.1). The report was issued in 2015, with the most recent data in the survey current as of 2013. As of that time, 2,435 out of 2616 responding institutions (entire field of 2696 institutions in the MLA database of institutions offering languages other than English) offered languages other than English. The authors calculate that "Approximately one-third of the responses came from two-year colleges, and two-thirds from four-year institutions. No language courses were offered in 7.5% of responding two-year colleges and in 6.7% of responding four-year institutions" (p. 1). The two-year to four-year ratio of close to one-third to two-thirds in languages is roughly the same as NCES overall postsecondary ratio as well at the Babson and IPEDS ratio for online education.

It should not be assumed that the institutions with language programs are the same as those offering online education. Given the recent incursion of online education onto the academic scene, proportional disparities may well arise from variable online course creation and adoption rate factors. For example, four-year private institutions had been slower to adopt overall online education until 2015 when suddenly there was a significant increase in online offerings in their ranks (Allen & Seaman, 2015).

The MLA report presents overall national enrollment numbers for students taking courses in languages other than English. Figure 1 is derived from a search of enrollments in the United States in 2013 at the MLA Language Enrollment Database (MLA, 2017), and represents the percentage of students enrolled in courses by language, regardless of delivery mode. With 62% of enrollments (790,756), Spanish is the most widely taught language other than English in the United States. The number of enrollments in Spanish is four times greater than the next most popular language (French at 15%, 197,757), and greater than all other included languages combined.

Figure 1. Percentage of students enrolled in languages other than English in the USA 2013.



CARLA AND BOLDD SURVEYS

Although there is a growing body of longitudinal data for online education in general in the United States, data pertaining specifically to online world language education is limited. The CARLA and BOLDD surveys were in part launched to address this lack, albeit with different focuses. This article aims to provide a beginning statistical overview of OLE in the United States drawing upon these two surveys. Importantly, the defined fields for both surveys restrict themselves to language learning delivered entirely over the internet since the advent of Web 2.0. They do not include language courses that can be purchased on the internet and are intended to be accessed primarily offline (on physical media like CD-ROM) nor other forms of distance learning like teleconferenced classrooms. Also, both surveys target learning delivered entirely or almost entirely online, including some options offered by commercial entities. The term, "online" applies to such circumstances where at least 90% of the delivery is online. (Goertler & Winke, 2008, p. 246).

Research questions that these surveys address are

(1) What types and sizes of institutions offer fully online language courses?

(2) What in general characterizes online language instructors demographically?
(3) Which languages and levels are offered online?

THE CARLA SURVEY

Participants

The Center for Advanced Research on Language Acquisition (CARLA) is a national Language Resource Center funded through Title VI since 1993. One of its research and professional development areas is online language teaching and learning. Its Online Education Program Director, Marlene Johnshoy, created the survey and distributed it in 2012 to gather information on teacher preparation for and practices in online language teaching. Johnshoy 2012) The survey was sent to a list of instructors gathered from a list of OLE providers from CARLA workshop participants; the CARLAtech DIIGO group; lists of workshop participants at various conferences; references from colleagues known to be working in the field. In addition, participation was solicited from NCSSFL, NADSFL, LLTI, and, CALICO listservs; participants in iNACOL, ISTE, and ACTFL DL SIG online forums; email addresses gathered from online; and generally distributed via CARLA newsletters. The context of online teaching for her respondents is the entirely online medium as noted above.

Materials

The CARLA Survey was designed by Johnshoy in 2011-2012 and distributed electronically in spring, 2012. Demographic questions in the CARLA survey gathered quantifiable information about:

- gender and age of faculty,
- languages taught,
- number of courses taught,
- types of institutions,
- self-assessed level of teacher's technology skills,
- types of professional development for teaching online,
- whether faculty had ever taken an online course themselves.

In addition, it solicited input on teacher preparation and challenges that instructors have experienced in teaching languages online.

Results

Since the call for participation was relatively open and appealed to individuals, the ultimate size of the potential pool is unknown. The survey questionnaire garnered 147 responses, representing all educational levels, K-16 and adult education. Johnshoy combined the data in Excel, and produced primarily a descriptive analysis.

1. Institutional types

Figure 2a. Representation of academic levels

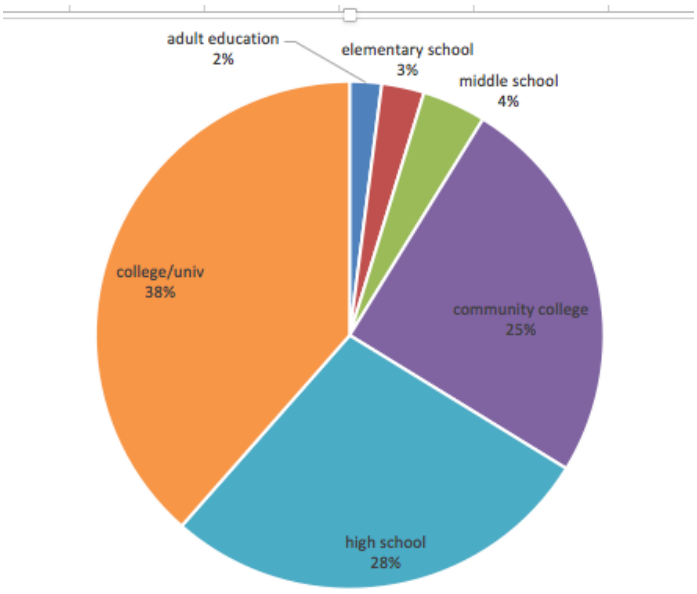


Figure 2a. Types of institutions

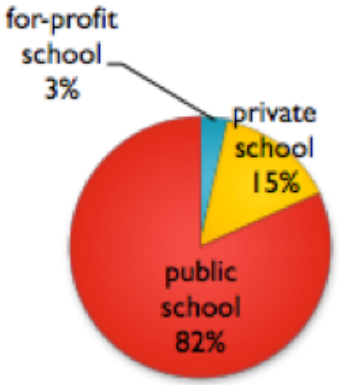
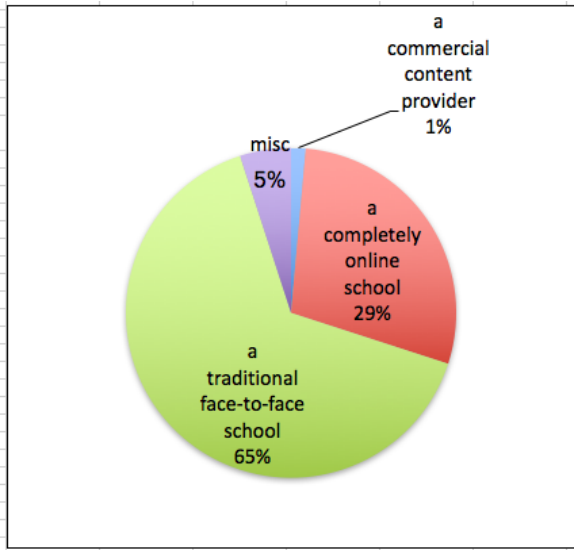


Figure 2b. Primary form of delivery



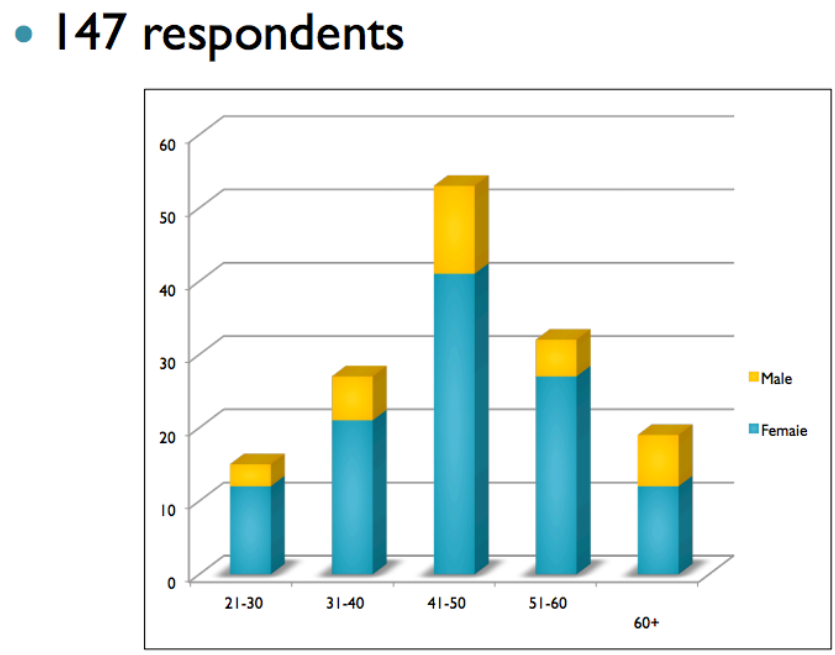
The CARLA survey included elementary, secondary, postsecondary and adult educators. In response to the first research question, the CARLA data points to four-year programs (38%) surpassing all others as the institutional home for respondents with community college (25%) and high schools (28%) being more or less equal (Figure 2a). Elementary and middle schools were far less represented. Public institutions form the great majority of institutional type (82%), as compared with private (15%) and for-profit schools (3%) (Figure 2b).

Although most of the respondents worked at traditional face-to-face schools (65%), a significant percentage of respondents worked at a completely online institution (29%) (Figure 2c).

2. Instructor Demographics

Figure 3 below presents demographic data of CARLA survey respondents grouped into five (5) age categories, as well as by gender. (Johnshoy 2013)

Figure 3. Distribution of CARLA survey respondents by age & gender.



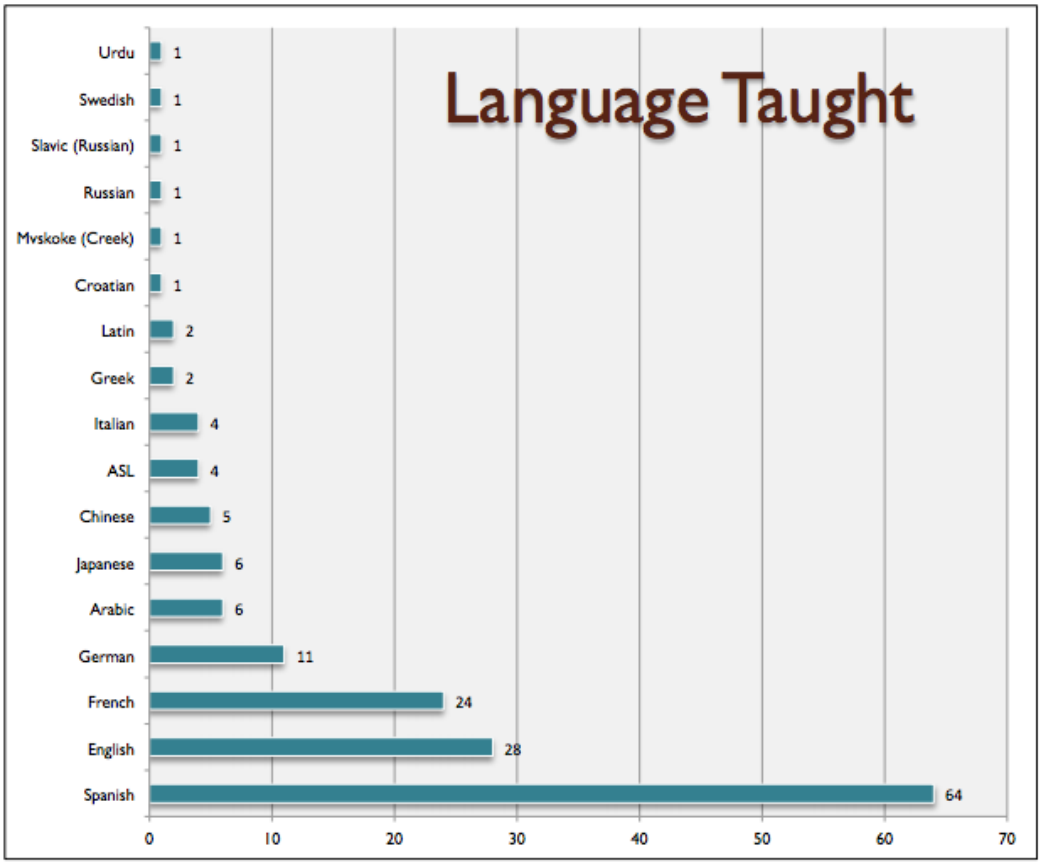
The number of women is more than double the number of men in all groups under 60 years of age. Women 41-50 years of age had the greatest representation, with women being the majority of respondents overall. In response to research question 2, according to the CARLA survey of 2012, the largest age group of online language instructors was between 41 and 50 years, followed by those between 51 and 60 years and then by those between 31 and 40. Smaller numbers represent those at early and late career stages.

3. Languages and levels taught

The CARLA data is in line with those from the MLA in 2013 (Goldberg, et al., 2015), with the largest number of respondents being instructors of Spanish. However, the CARLA survey includes English (as a second language) teachers, while the MLA does not. CARLA involvement with STARTALK programs for critical languages and active engagement with instructors of other less commonly taught languages (LCTLs) may account for the greater representation in CARLA data than in the MLA report.

The CARLA survey did not drill down into the various levels of languages being taught online.

Figure 4. Distribution of languages taught in CARLA survey.



THE BOLDD SURVEY, 2013-2104 & 2014-2015

Participants

The Basic Online Language Design and Delivery (BOLDD) Collaboratory is a working group of over forty (40) online language professionals launched in 2011 and focusing primarily on basic, i.e., lower levels, of online language education (OLE). An ongoing concern of the community has been the state of the field and a need for comprehensive data collection and analysis. BOLDD sent out its first annual survey in 2014 to begin to gather such information beginning with academic year 2013-2014. Its intentional focus was on basic or elementary (first and second years) of world language instruction, although it included all levels of post-secondary language learning.

The BOLDD survey targets almost exclusively post-secondary educational venues. The 2013-2014 instrument used a participant invitation list that included BOLDD members from the wiki group (the Collaboratory); the CARLA 2012 survey list; BOLDD 2013 and 2014 workshop participants at CALICO, NECTFL, SCOLT, and COERLL conferences; COERLL blog readers (thanks to Carl Blyth and the COERLL staff); IALLT and LLTI listserv readers thanks to Johnshoy's re-posting to both listservs); as well as lists of ACTFL, CALICO, NECTFL, and SCOLT conference presenters from 2011-2014 whose session descriptions indicated work in OLE. (Murphy-Judy, 2013) It also was sent out to associations and institutions with mailing lists for affiliations among BOLDD collaborators (IALLT, CALICO, COERLL, NFLC, CARLA). Additionally, the last question of the survey itself requested participants to provide names and addresses of colleagues who might be willing to take the survey, yielding an additional eight participants. For the BOLDD survey, for-profit educational institutions were not pursued due to the difficulty in gathering information about their online language programs. This same population was not surveyed by the MLA (see above). 461 invitations were sent out through RedCAP and it is estimated that some 75 more participants were contacted through the outreach efforts (via a link to the survey) for what may have reached 500 invitees in total, for both convenience and snowball sampling. There were 128 responses that, after data cleaning, comprised a sample universe of 101, which totals around a 20% response rate. This was considered quite good since BOLDD is a small organization without wide national recognition in an emerging field. The majority of respondents were from post-secondary institutions. The BOLDD survey devised its institutional categories based on those of the Babson post-

secondary 2013 list for the sake of comparison and as a check for representativeness within the general population. Among the institutions responding to the BOLDD survey, there were Ivy League, small Liberal Arts colleges, state universities, and community colleges. In comparison with both Babson and the MLA data, it was evident that two-year institutions were underrepresented in the 2013-2014 BOLDD survey, particularly since the survey was meant for instructors of basic language learners, the primary target population of two-year institution world language programs.

In an attempt to redress the perceived survey sample disproportion between two-year and four-year colleges evident in the 2013-2014 results when compared to the Babson and MLA data of 2013, every effort was made with the 2014-2015 instrument to identify and invite many more two-year and community colleges with online language programs; all the while, more four-year public and private college respondents were also sought out and invited. (Allen & Seaman 2014; MLA 2015) In all, 648 invitations were emailed along with a link to the instrument. They garnered 114 responses for a rate of 18%. A loss of two percentage points in the response rate was disturbing given the serious attempt to increase the number of participants. There was no readily obvious reason for the decrease.

Materials

The survey itself began as a Google Doc shared with the BOLDD Collaboratory. Eventually, a subgroup interested in pursuing the survey emerged, sharing ideas and reviewing the alpha and beta forms of the questionnaire. It was created through REDCap thanks to a grant held by Virginia Commonwealth University. Study data then were collected and managed using REDCap electronic data capture tools hosted at Virginia Commonwealth University (Harris et al., 2019). REDCap (Research Electronic Data Capture) is a secure, web-based application designed to support data capture for research studies, providing 1) an intuitive interface for validated data entry; 2) audit trails for tracking data manipulation and export procedures; 3) automated export procedures for seamless data downloads to common statistical packages; and 4) procedures for importing data from external sources. The very goal of this survey was to cover the field broadly whereas the CARLA survey was intended to investigate more the specifics of online teaching and teachers. Thus, the BOLDD survey included more institutional information, greater detail on languages offered, an expanded range of levels (albeit with an emphasis on the basic or

introductory levels), success/failure rates, specificity on design issues, evaluation modalities and procedures, and input on faculty and student preparation. The BOLDD Survey was repeated in 2015 for academic year 2014-2015 with important changes noted below. It continues to be disseminated annually.

The BOLDD 2013-2014 survey was deployed in July, 2014, with final data collection in mid-November, 2014. Entitled "Academic Year 2013 - 2014 Survey Of Online Language Education," it contained four sections in a single survey. The first section targeted the institutional context of the online language course(s) or program(s) and included the specifics of languages offered, their levels of instruction, and enrollment and attrition data. The second section focused on design and development aspects. The third involved delivery and teaching modes and practices, including teacher preparation. The final section asked participants to note important questions not covered in the instrument. It also requested information on colleagues whose input might be solicited for the survey. For this article, data from the first and second sections will provide the institutional and demographic profiles of the sample and allow comparisons with the CARLA survey regarding languages taught.

The subsequent BOLDD Survey, the one for academic year 2014 - 2015, was first disseminated in September, 2015, with a closing date of December 31, 2015. Significant changes were made based on the skewed sampling ration between two-year to four-year institutions as well as collection and data errors discovered in the 2013-2014 survey. The first major change was to convert the four sections of the first survey into five data collection instruments (Demographics, Languages & Levels, Design, Delivery & Evaluation, Finale) in a survey queue. Elsewhere, certain question formulations that had elicited faulty data (whole numbers v. percentages, for example) were recast to cause less confusion for participants.

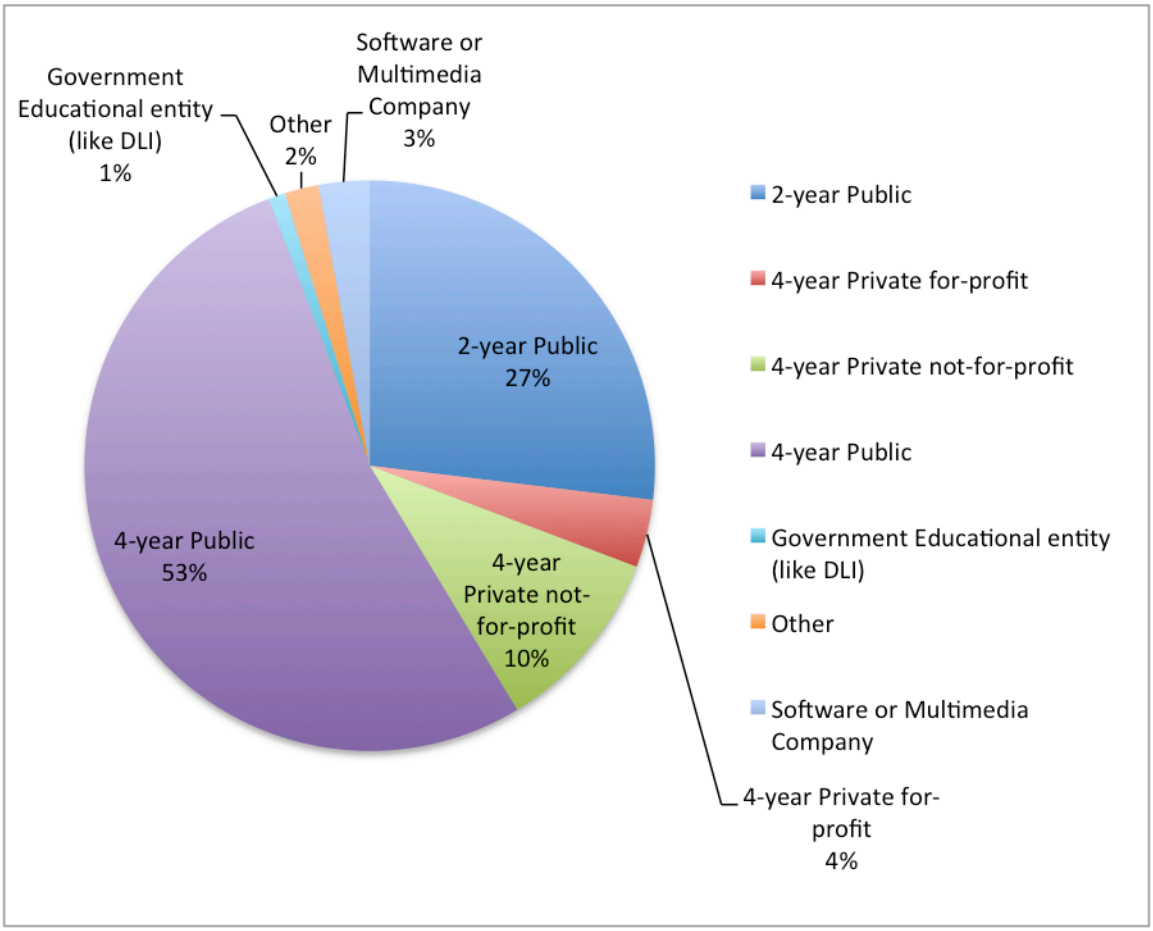
Results

Institutional types

Figure 5 shows the percentage of respondents representing types of institutions, including two-year public, four-year public, four-year private not-for-profit, and four-year for-profit institutions, two-year private, two-year for profit, and educational entities, such as the Defense Language Institute (DLI),

and commercial software companies. The figure presents the data gathered from the initial BOLDD survey of 2013-2014.

Figure 5. Type of Institution 2013-2014.

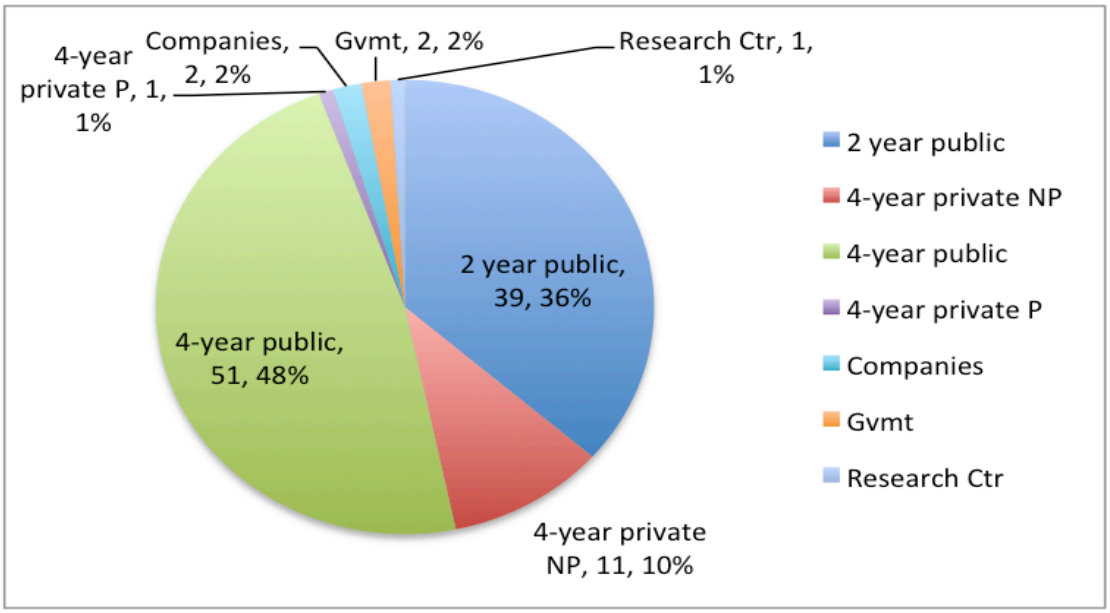


Unfortunately, in the total count for type of institution nearly 20% of respondents did not answer. Of those who did, roughly a quarter were two-year Public (26.2%). The majority were four-year Public (53.3%). Notably, four-year Private not-for-profit were far less numerous at approximately 10%. There were no two-year Private not-for-profit, two-year Private for-profit, research centers (like an NFLC), or OER consortia. There were few four-year private for-profit settings (3.7%), one government educational entity (like the DLI) (0.9%), and three software or multimedia companies (2.8%), as well as three other types of

institutions (2.8%) including a two-year and four-year school and a publishing company.

For the 2014-2015 BOLDD survey and its 114 respondents, a better balance of two and four-year institutions offering basic online language education was achieved. Two institutions did not respond to this question (> 2%). Five had to be eliminated from the count (see below). There were 39 two-year Public colleges/universities for 34.8%; no two-year Private not-for-profit, nor any two-year Private for-profits. Among four-year schools, there were 50 four-year Public (44.6% plus one, see below), 11 four-year Private not-for-profit (9.8%), and only one four-year Private for-profit (0.9%) respondents. Among government educational entities (like DLI), two responded (1.8%), One software or multimedia Company (0.9%), and one research center (like an LRC) or OER consortium (0.9%). Seven identified as "Other" (6.3%) and included: five secondary institutions, a not-for profit company and an intensive language institute within a four-year private university (which has been included in the postsecondary four-year public institutions). Eliminating the secondary institutions, and aggregating the companies, then, the representation for 2014-2015 appears more in balance than the previous year in so far as Babson and MLA ratios are concerned. Figure 6 shows this distribution.

Figure 6. Type of institution 2014-2015.



Institutional size

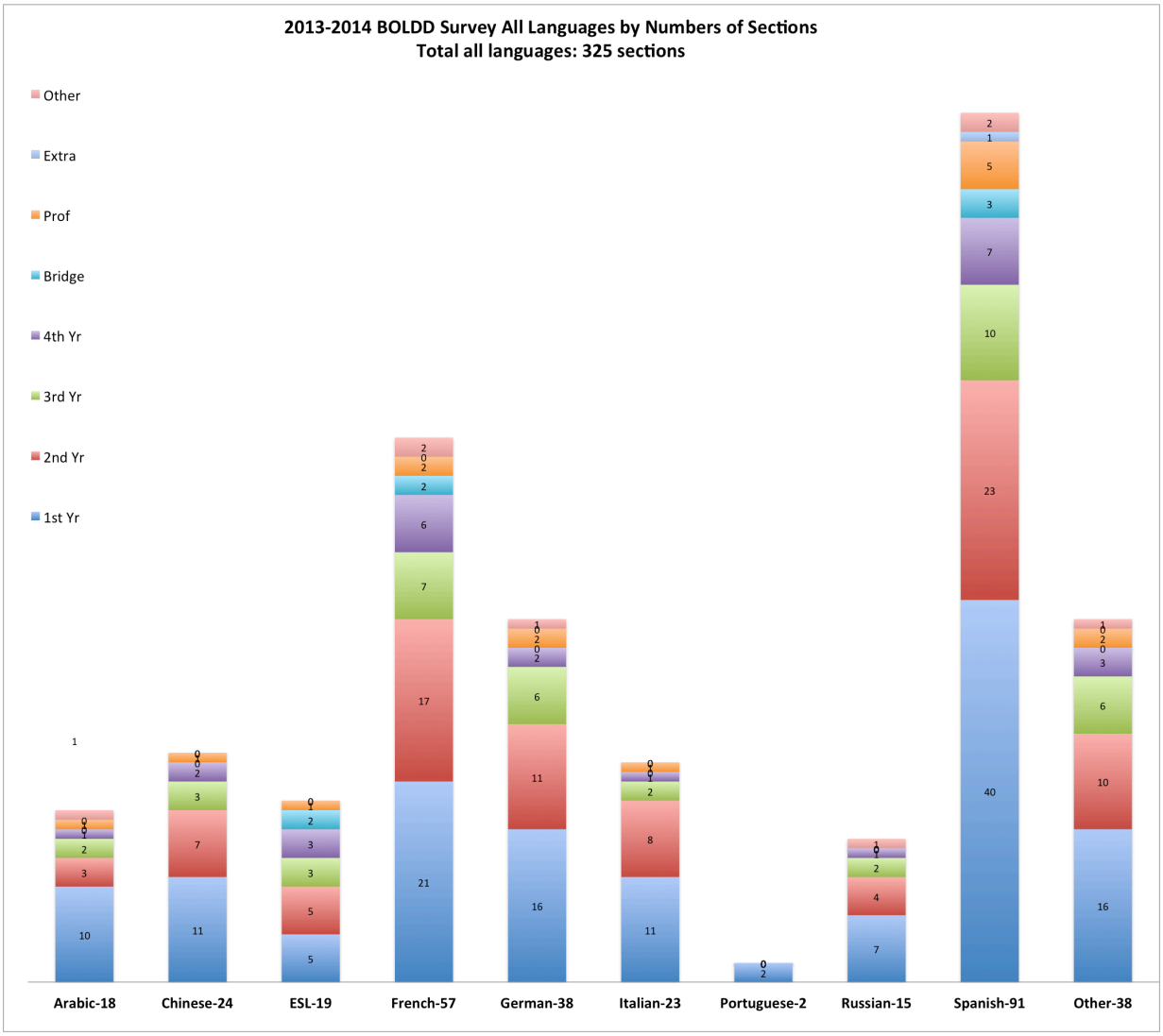
In the 2013-2014 survey, larger institutions dominated the field. There were 19 with 50,000 or more total student enrollment for 21% of the responding 90 institutions. The second largest group included institutions with enrollments between 25, 000 and 49,999 students for 27% of the total. The largest group with 29 respondents was those with a population ranging from 10, 000 to 24, 999 for 32%. The second to least were those schools enrolling between 3, 000 and 9, 999. And, finally, those institutions with the least online language enrollments were those with less than 3,000 students.

In year two of the survey, once again it was the institutions enrolling between 10,000 and 24,999 with the largest number of online language learners. They were followed, again, by the schools having 25,000 to 49, 999. Those with over 50,000 and fewer than 3,000 had the least with 12 (11%) in the latter and 11 (10%) in the former.

Languages and levels taught

Where CARLA survey focused on individual instructors and their courses, the BOLDD survey offered a matrix for input from whole programs or departments across ten languages. In addition, the BOLDD survey matrix divides the language programs into first-year, second-year, various upper-level, and extra-curricular courses. The BOLDD survey emphasizes basic or elementary online language learning, because the largest sector of online language instruction is found in the first and second year levels. The survey aimed at gathering more granular data on the most populous levels. Figure 7 illustrates first and second year numbers of the largest number of all sections for all languages for 2013- 2014. A shortcoming of the initial survey instrument became evident, when many survey participants replied to the question asking for the number of course sections with the total number of students in the course. To provide the information for Figure 7, Murphy-Judy had to use the median to get these numbers, at times relying on follow-up communications with respondents.

Figure 7. Number of sections of online language courses 2013-2014.

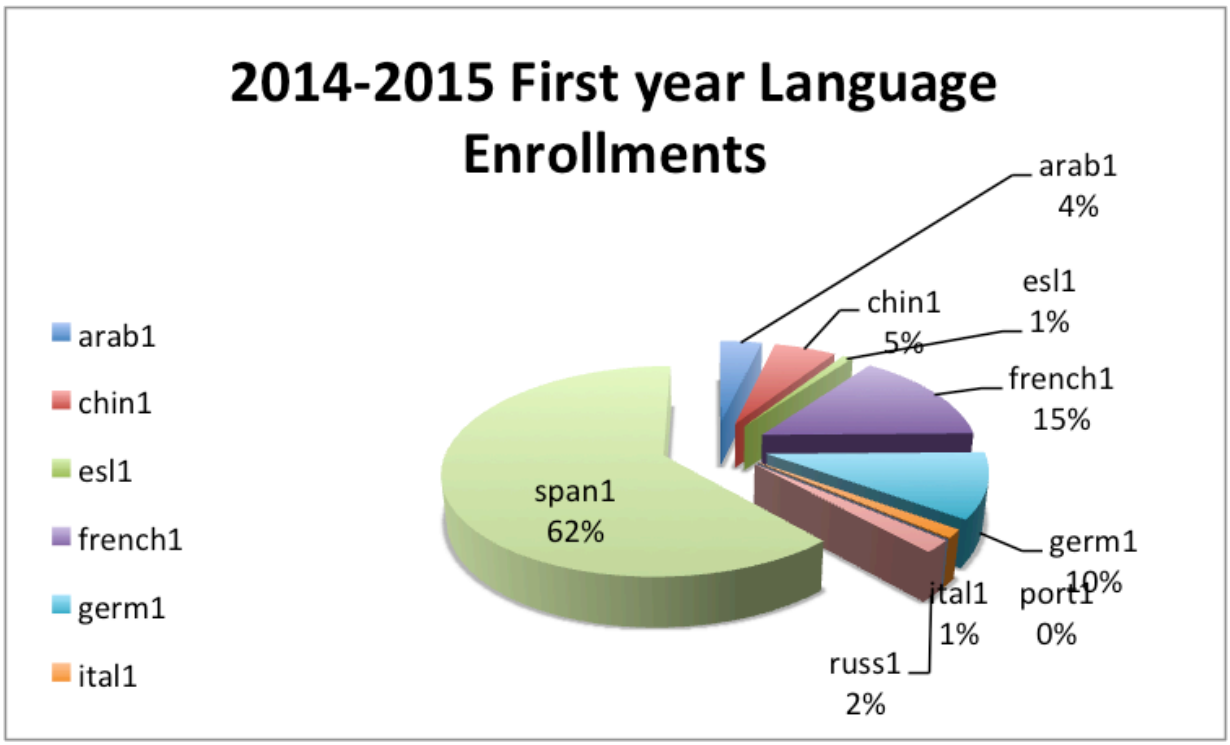


Spanish with 40 sections was the clear leader for first year courses but not at the 4:1 ratio seen in MLA data. Several LCTLs offered nearly as many sections as German at 16 (Chinese-11, Russian-7, Italian-11, Arabic-10). These seemingly skewed results may be due to the less than representative institutional distribution for the first BOLDD survey. By median, Spanish barely held top place in number of second-year sections with 23; French and German were close, 17 and eleven respectively, to Spanish. The number of Italian sections (6) was the same level as

German (6), whereas generally Italian and German enrollments are lower than French (4).

For the following year's survey, 2014-2015, the questionnaire requested actual student enrollment figures, rather than numbers of sections and average number of students per section. This yielded more precise data. For first-year languages other than English, Spanish showed the largest population with 4,639 enrolled students or 62% of all enrollments, followed by French (1,098, 15%), German (769, 10%), Chinese (411, 5%), Arabic (278, 4%) and Russian (146, 2%), Italian (98, 1%) and no Portuguese. These ratios are very much in line with the MLA language enrollment figures (2015) and thus appear more accurate than those of the 2013-2014 survey.

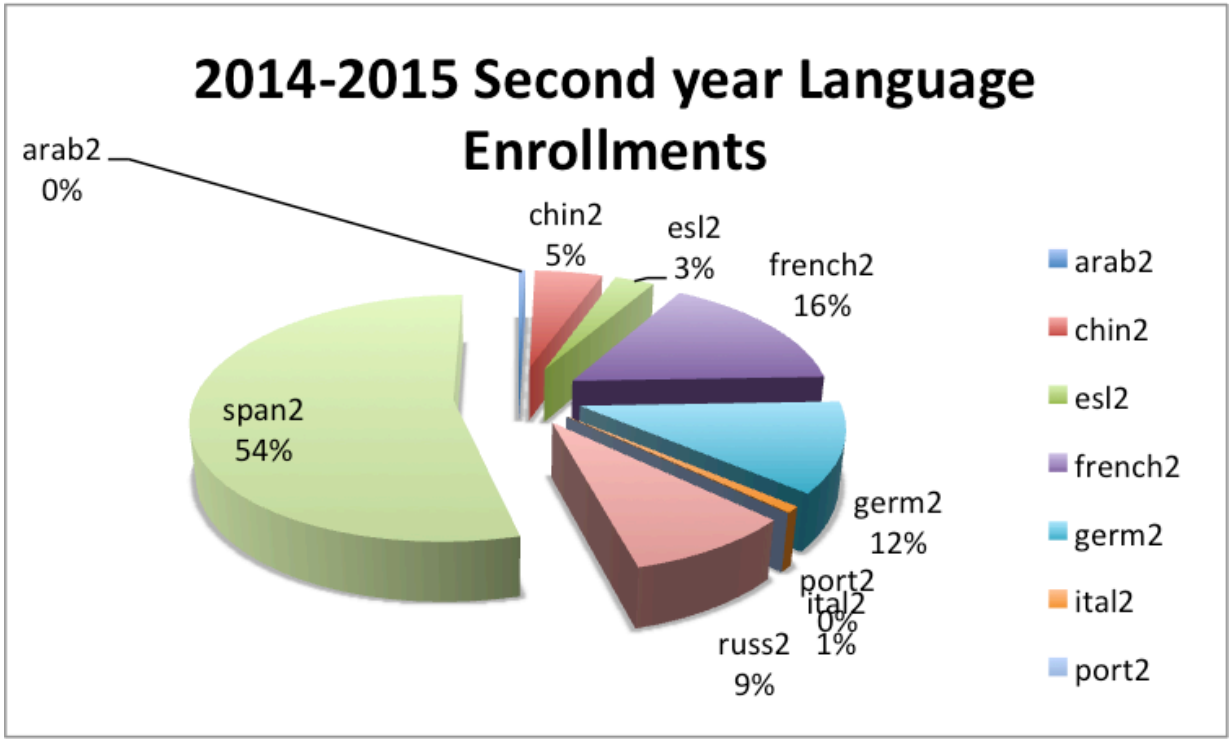
Figure 8. First year online language enrollments 2014-2015.



For second-year enrollments, Spanish continued to represent the lion's share (50%) of the student population, although not as much as at the first year level, in proportion to the other languages. Interestingly, all other languages gain one to three percentage points. So, Chinese had 153 students (5%), French 491 (16%),

German 361 (12%), Russian 272 (9%), and Spanish 1,659 (54%); Arabic and Italian each had less than 1% (15 and 25, respectively).

Figure 9. Second year online language enrollments 2014-2015.



Other languages that were taught online included Norwegian, Korean, Japanese, Vietnamese, Dari, Pashto, and Latin. As could be expected, their enrollments were low, except Japanese, whose grand total of first and second year enrollments across four institutions amounted to 776 students. Given these numbers, Japanese will specifically figure among the specified languages and levels in the upcoming 2015-2016 instrument.

DISCUSSION

What the data from these surveys tell us about online world language education in the United States is that the primary post-secondary users of online language courses are four-year public institutions followed by two-year community colleges. In comparison with the BOLDD survey, which solicited

predominantly post-secondary respondents, 65% of the 147 CARLA survey participants were post-secondary (including adult education programs). Private liberal arts colleges initially formed a small percentage of institutions offering online language courses, although that appears to be changing as of 2015. Kolowich noted a general faculty attitude at private colleges that online courses run counter to the intimate, localized learning experience seen as central to their educational mission (2014). This prevailing attitude may, at first, have explained their earlier lower numbers of online language offerings. More recently, however, financial pressures on private liberal arts colleges or student demand or both seem to be an impetus for significant growth of online courses including, one might assume, in languages (Kolowich 2012, 2014).

The CARLA Survey indicates that online language educators are predominantly female. From the BOLDD Collaboratory membership, it would appear this is also the case, but not to the same extent (14 of 36 original members are male, for almost 40%). Then again, academe in general has been steadily increasing the ranks of female faculty, especially among non-tenure track and adjunct instructors and graduate students (Mason, 2011).

In line with MLA statistics on the most commonly taught languages, Spanish courses make up the majority online, with French, German, and often Chinese following up in that order. The BOLDD 2014-2015 data is in line with the national MLA enrollment ratios per language. It may be noteworthy that less commonly taught languages like Chinese and languages under threat (German, Italian, and to a lesser extent, French) increased in overall percentages at the second year level. One could speculate that online venues for threatened languages may stimulate student interest and enrollments.

First-year language instruction is the most widely offered. On the one hand, this makes sense given the largest enrollments are at that level in all institutions K-16 and in private company subscriptions. On the other hand, designing and delivering effective first-year language education online is difficult and potentially the least successful arena for online language instruction. The majority of first-year learners confront a quadruple deficit. First, they are novice learners in the target language. Getting meaningful, intensive (90% of all instruction in target language), timely, and consistent input in the target language is extremely difficult in a fully online venue. Moreover, online courses may not offer spontaneous feedback that is readily available in face-to-face instruction. In addition, more structure and deliberation is required in an online format. Second, attention has to be paid to teaching the learners to how to learn languages and

how to learn languages online. Beginning learners of a specific language are predominantly first time learners of any non-native language. Thus, they are not only learning the specific foreign language as a new field of study, but they are also undertaking a completely new field of learning and skill acquisition, that of second language learning and acquisition. Learning how to learn a language is an important part of the first and second years of language study. Third, mediated support layers must be inserted between the learner and the instructional agent(s) to compensate for face-to-face facial and gestural indicators (between faculty and students, students and students); social presence and camaraderie in student pairings and engagements; taste, smell, touch and other immediate phenomena; intersections with on-campus events and happenings since much of the online environment must be prepared long ahead of "class time." Fourth, online college course developers and faculty must address the issue that many students lack familiarity with, and preparation for, online learning in general. Online learning necessitates a high degree of learner autonomy and self-direction (Roper, 2007). It calls for learners to engage in a great deal of reading and focus. It requires good time management. These are not the hallmarks, generally, of adolescent and young adult learners, the majority of first- and second-year college students. Yet, many states are now expecting high school students to take at least one online course before graduation (Sheehan, 2012). Currently, 15.1% of all undergraduates take at least one distance learning course (NCES, 2015). In other words, soon many post-secondary institutions may be benefiting from an increase in online learning competencies in their incoming student populations.

Right now, however, online college course developers and faculty must address this and the other three deficits as part of their course design in order to achieve reasonable learning outcomes. Moreover, these factors need to be explored and data collected to shed light on the learning outcomes, impediments, and persistence of OLL from first to second year and beyond.

One other consideration regarding the bulk of online courses being taught at the first-year level is that they are often a pipeline to the upper levels of instruction (majors, minors, special tracks). Without success in first-year language online, the second-year and those above stand to lose student interest and demand. Good outcomes in first-year online languages are essential for the continuation and growth of an online language program but, again, there are potential impediments. The BOLDD Surveys queried the withdrawal, failure and success rates for first and second year courses; unfortunately, the 2013-2014 data was skewed by respondent confusion over numbers of sections versus total student enrollments and the difference between total numbers of students and

average percentage rates. The 2014-2015 BOLDD Survey restructured these questions in an attempt to mitigate the confusion. Too few respondents provided data and thus, statistically significant data is not yet available.

CONCLUSIONS

The primary goal for this research has been to gather data specifically on online world language education in the United States. Both the CARLA and BOLDD surveys have, indeed, afforded a fledgling portrait of the field. By comparing their results with Babson and the MLA surveys, we have been able to compare findings about types of institutions (two-year public, four-year private, four-year public) and language enrollments to assess representational validity. In the case of the 2013-2014 BOLDD survey, these two contexts led us to seeking a better sampling on institutions and, thus, to gather more reliable and representative data. Later reports will tackle the questions of design and delivery of online language education. For now, these surveys provide some descriptive statistics about online language offerings and enrollments, including institution types and sizes, and faculty who teach language online.

With respect to institutions, we find, as could be expected, that the predominant type is the four-year public institution. Those institutions with enrollments between 10,000 and 49,999 seen together comprise some 63% of online language learning establishments: these tend to be public universities yet may include larger community colleges or college systems.

As might be expected, the largest language is Spanish. Yet, Spanish online courses do not always attain the ratios registered in the overall MLA data. There are no findings upon which to speculate why this is. First year enrollments outpace second year, but this is to be expected. Yet, the increase of second year enrollments in French, German and Italian may indicate either very strong first year programs or, more likely, that faculty and administration efforts to stave off language program cuts outside of Spanish may be responding to student desire or need for online courses.

Women faculty staff online language courses more than their male colleagues. Although the BOLDD survey did not gather gender data, a review of the Collaboratory members tends to support the CARLA finding. This may respond to any one or a cross-section of societal realities: numbers of women increasing overall in academe especially in part time or lecturer positions;

professional language educators and mothers/caretakers seeking to stay viable with the more flexible time and geographic configurations that online teaching offers; more women becoming adept at digital technologies and social media.

Online language learning began and has grown significantly over the past ten years with the emergence of Web 2.0 affordances. Even during the economic downturn from 2008-2012, the field expanded, perhaps even as a response to cutbacks in educational funding and resources. The debate still rages over the efficacy of the entirely online modality in language learning; however, the positive impact of hybrid or blended courses appears to be no longer in dispute as Davis shows in her analysis of seven reports (2015). The Babson report of 2015 of overall online delivery of education continues to show that upper administration in post-secondary institutions find that faculty, in general, do not support the entirely online venue regardless of discipline. It should be noted, nonetheless, that although the rate of increase of implementation of online learning opportunities looks to have slowed considerably, it continued to grow at a time when overall educational enrollments were declining. In other words, during the last part of the recession with lower enrollments in post-secondary institutions overall, online education at both undergraduate and graduate levels continued to increase, just not at the same rather heady rate of previous years (Poulin & Strout, 2016).

Given the growth of online course implementation in PK-12 education and even diploma requirements of at least one online course (e.g., in Virginia), it is likely that post-secondary education will see more demand for online courses and programs while benefiting from incoming student populations better prepared to succeed in online learning. This may mean that even more language students will be seeking online language learning opportunities.

LIMITATIONS

Neither the CARLA nor the BOLDD surveys were ever envisioned to canvas all 4,726 U.S. post-secondary institutions of which 2,435 offer education in languages other than English. It is important to note that the efforts and resultant data recorded from the BOLDD survey are not the result of fully-funded and professionally-staffed data collections like those of the Babson, NCES, and MLA surveys. Moreover, identifying to whom to distribute the survey has been fraught with difficulties, especially without access to member databases of national associations.

The CARLA survey was not meant to be exhaustive: it sought to gather demographic data from online teachers and, most importantly, to discover veteran teachers competencies and to gather advice for new online instructors. The annual BOLDD survey does, however, look to gather broad data for a 'big picture' view of the OLL field in the United States. As an ongoing venture, it continues to improve as well as to grow and refine the data it collects based on trends and information needs in the field. The 2015-2016 survey already has undergone significant changes in light of feedback from collaborating statisticians and from colleagues in OLE. Murphy-Judy continues to reach out to colleagues and institutions to discover more potential respondents.

Survey questions might be developed to explore various reasons for the interesting disproportion of second year Spanish courses. Moreover, increases in certain LCTLs at that same level might prompt questions to probe student persistence from first year online to second year online or a switch from F2F to online for a variety of reasons.

Importantly, there is no instrument or endeavor currently that casts a *global* net over the field. Yet, it must be recognized that online learning, and perhaps especially the subset of language learning online, by its very nature knows neither national boundaries nor school-age barriers. A comprehensive, longitudinal survey and collection of OLE 'big data' for online language education in the context of the world language scene from K-20 and including adult and extracurricular education, then, would be highly beneficial but is currently unfeasible since national data sets do not yet exist universally. Nonetheless, there are growing ventures to capture data in many countries and much is already being gathered in K-12 arenas. In this world of 'big data', the possibility of having an articulated, global data set may not be that far away.

NEXT STEPS

Johnshoy may distribute another survey of online language educators as part of the CARLA mission. The BOLDD survey will continue to be disseminated annually after revisions based on statisticians' and colleagues' critiques and suggestions; in particular, the question of gender and age of the designers and faculty may well enter into its questionnaire, in light of the CARLA survey. Access to a wider database of institutions offering post-secondary language courses and programs, like that of the MLA, would be ideal to insure the best representation of all possible online programs.

Other reports on the collected BOLDD data are forthcoming and will address design issues, professional preparation and development of teaching staff, and evaluation of learning outcomes and program quality.

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AUTHOR NOTE

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