

# LANGUAGE RICH EUROPE

## TRENDS IN POLICIES AND PRACTICES FOR MULTILINGUALISM IN EUROPE

**EDITORS:** Guus Extra and Kutlay Yağmur



With the support of:



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# INTRODUCTION

## Martin Hope, *Project Director, Language Rich Europe (until August 2012)*

As the UK's international cultural relations organisation, the British Council is committed to building long-term relationships and trust between people in the UK and other countries. *Language Rich Europe (LRE)*, a project we are delivering with European Union National Institutes for Culture (EUNIC) and a network of committed European partners, is right at the heart of our cultural relations mission. Through LRE we aim to promote greater co-operation between policy makers and practitioners in Europe in developing good policies and practices for multilingualism. Such policies will ensure that languages and cultural exchange continue to be promoted and encouraged at school, university and in broader society. We believe that this is essential if Europeans of all ages are to develop a broader international outlook, and if Europe as a whole is to position itself successfully to do business with the world's emerging economic powers in the 21st century.

Since it was founded in 1934, the British Council has supported learners of English around the world to communicate more effectively with people from other countries and to enhance their employment prospects through face-to-face courses, and more recently on the web. We also work in partnership with ministries and regional education authorities to support teachers of English in their professional development. What is less widely known is the strong support we give to enhancing the learning of foreign languages in the UK, through our Foreign Language Assistants programme, through the development of foreign language textbooks for UK schools, and through facilitating school partnerships with teachers and students in other countries. In 2012 we are hosting over 2,500 language assistants in the UK from French, German and Spanish-speaking countries and from Italy, China, Japan, Oman and Russia. These assistants support our own foreign language teachers in primary and secondary schools and help to enrich the cultural content of our UK classrooms.

LRE is part of our commitment as an organisation to supporting intercultural dialogue and diversity in Europe, a diversity which manifests itself in the huge variety and richness of languages which we observe around us, wherever we live. We are marking the completion of the first phase of the project with this publication, in which we present the findings of baseline research to investigate current language policies and practices in our partner countries, and to see how 'language rich' they are. In the research we have been ambitious in exploring a variety of language types: foreign languages, regional or minority languages, immigrant languages and national languages. For the latter, we are looking in particular at the ways that our institutions are supporting the learning of the national language for newcomers – so important for both education and employment.

Our research has focused of course on the education sector, which is where languages are commonly taught and learnt, but we have also been keen to go beyond education and explore language policies and practices in the media, public services and spaces, and business. We believe that a language

rich environment outside school is as important in building appreciation and knowledge of other languages and cultures as formal instruction itself. Good language policies can make cities more welcoming for visitors and citizens alike, good language practice in business can give companies a competitive advantage, a variety of languages on television and radio will create greater tolerance and openness in any society.

The overall objectives of *Language Rich Europe*, which is co-funded by the European Commission, are:

- to facilitate the exchange of good practice in promoting intercultural dialogue and social inclusion through language teaching and learning
- to promote European co-operation in developing language policies and practices across several education sectors and broader society
- to raise awareness of the European Union and Council of Europe recommendations for promoting language learning and linguistic diversity across Europe.

The first research stage, captured in this book, offers a platform for the creation of networks and partnerships among language policy makers and practitioners in Europe. Our ambition is to create a network of 1,200 people drawn from the pre-school community, the formal education sector, universities and colleges, the business world, public services in cities, the media, and immigrant associations. We believe that only if all these groups work together will we achieve truly language rich societies in which we understand the importance of languages for the cohesion and well-being of our communities and societies, and also for our prosperity.

The work we have done so far would not have been possible without our consortium of partners and researchers, whom I would like to thank for their commitment and patience. The team of Guus Extra, Kutlay Yağmur and Marlies Swinkels, supported by Karin Berkhout, at the *Babylon Centre for Studies of the Multicultural Society* at Tilburg University, deserves special praise for completing the huge task of designing the study, pulling together all the data, and presenting the findings in this publication.

I hope that you will find these initial research findings stimulating, and that they contribute to the debate about the usefulness of languages in your country. We certainly do have a language rich Europe, and the challenge we face is how to make the most of it for the benefit of all.



### *The Council of Europe (CoE)*

The Language Rich Europe project has chosen to draw on the results of the Council of Europe's long tradition and extensive work in the area of language policy in its forty-seven member states. Accordingly, the Council accepted an invitation by the project leaders, the British Council, in partnership with EUNIC, to be associated with the initial development and piloting phase, in particular with regard to the use of its policy instruments.

The Council of Europe provides a pan-European forum for sharing expertise and experience based on common values and respect for the diversity of contexts. In that spirit it supports the overall objectives of this project: the exchange of good practice in promoting intercultural dialogue and social inclusion, the promotion of European cooperation in developing language policies and practices and raising awareness of European values and guiding principles. It is the Council of Europe's aim to draw on the results of the LRE project in examining how the impact of its policy instruments and actions might best be reinforced in the promotion of linguistic diversity and plurilingual and intercultural education.

The Council of Europe wishes to express its thanks to the authors and project leaders for their work and appreciates the considerable challenge the project faced in attempting to map an extremely complex construct and its implementation in over twenty different contexts. It is expected that the consultation on this draft will provide essential feedback for the next stage of refinement.

While the Council of Europe has offered guidance on its policy and related actions, it cannot accept responsibility for the contents of the present report or related documents, in print or electronic form, which are the sole responsibility of the authors.

Readers are referred to the Council of Europe website for full and up-to-date information on its conventions, recommendations, instruments, and intergovernmental co-operation activities.

**DG II – DIRECTORATE GENERAL OF DEMOCRACY**  
DIRECTORATE OF DEMOCRATIC CITIZENSHIP AND  
PARTICIPATION – EDUCATION DEPARTMENT

#### **Language Policy Unit**

[www.coe.int/lang](http://www.coe.int/lang)

Platform of resources and references for plurilingual and intercultural education

#### **European Centre for Modern Languages**

[www.ecml.at](http://www.ecml.at)

# KEY FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

*Guus Extra and Kutlay Yağmur*

In spite of the challenges involved in the comparison of policies and practices for multi/plurilingualism in different national or regional contexts, comparative data presented in the Language Rich Europe (LRE) study provides a rich source of cross-national insights. Leaving aside the *degree of recognition* of multi/plurilingualism, there are multi/plurilingual policies and practices in all 24 countries/regions surveyed, with many European Union (EU) and Council of Europe (CoE) recommendations being followed. On the basis of both the comparative cross-national findings presented here, and the contextual detail provided by our researchers in the national/regional profiles in Part 3 of this study, we hope that policy makers, practitioners, and specialists working in the field will be able to identify good practice, which can subsequently serve as a basis for development and knowledge exchange. Below, we summarise the key findings for each of the language domains surveyed.

## *Languages in official documents and databases*

- Legislation on national and regional/minority (R/M) languages is provided in almost all countries/regions, on foreign languages in 14 countries/regions, and on immigrant languages in only six countries/regions.
- Official language policy documents on the promotion of national and foreign languages are available in almost all countries/regions, on R/M languages in 18 countries/regions and on immigrant languages in only four countries/regions.
- The *European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages (ECRML)* has been ratified by parliament in 11 out of the 18 countries surveyed, and signed by government in France and Italy. In Bulgaria, Estonia, Greece, Lithuania and Portugal, it has neither been ratified nor signed.
- The largest numbers of officially offered R/M languages in education emerge in South-Eastern and Central European countries. In Western Europe, Italy and France are the clearest exceptions to this general rule, as they offer a wide variety of languages. The concepts of 'regional' or 'minority' languages are not specified in the ECRML but immigrant languages are explicitly excluded from it. In Western European countries, immigrant languages often have a more prominent appearance than R/M languages but enjoy less recognition, protection and/or promotion.
- Most countries/regions are familiar with official language data collection mechanisms and most of them address three types of languages: national languages, R/M languages and immigrant languages. Five out of 24 countries/regions have no language data mechanisms at all: Austria, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Denmark, Greece and the Netherlands. Portugal only collects data on the national language.
- There is also variation in the major language question(s) asked in official nation-regionwide language data collection mechanisms. Over half of the countries/regions surveyed ask a home language question, while others ask about the main language and/or the mother tongue.

## *Languages in pre-primary education*

- Many EU and CoE documents underline the importance of early language learning. At pre-primary level, 14 of the 24 countries/regions surveyed provide additional support in the national language for all children funded by the state. The Netherlands and Ukraine devote the most time to this.
- Foreign language provision at this level is offered by seven countries/regions: Bosnia and Herzegovina, Basque Country, Bulgaria, Catalonia, Estonia, Spain and Ukraine, although it may be partly or fully funded by parents/guardians. English, French and German are the most common languages offered.
- R/M languages are offered by 17 countries/regions, and provision is mainly funded by the state/region. In some countries there are minimum group size requirements to form a group. The widest variety of R/M languages is offered in Austria, Hungary, Italy, Romania and Ukraine.
- Provision in immigrant languages in pre-primary education is not yet very common. However, in spite of the difficulties involved in identifying appropriate teachers and learning materials, three countries (Denmark, Spain and Switzerland) do offer support to very young children for the maintenance and development of their languages and cultures of origin. In Denmark, national, regional or local funds cover all costs for these programmes, while in Spain and Switzerland source-country related funds partly cover the costs through bilateral agreements.
- The only country offering early language learning across all language types is Spain.

## *Languages in primary education*

- According to both the EU and CoE, all young European children should learn two languages in addition to the national language(s) of the country in which they reside. In primary education, apart from Italy and Ukraine, all countries/regions offer extra support for newcomers in learning the national language.
- Apart from Wales, all countries/regions report foreign language provision in primary education. Denmark and Greece make two foreign languages compulsory, while 18 countries/regions have one compulsory foreign language. In England, Northern Ireland and Scotland, foreign languages are optional.
- Foreign languages are taught from the first year of primary in 12 of the countries surveyed, from the mid-phase in seven, and from the final phase only in the Netherlands, Scotland and Switzerland.
- English, French and German emerge as the most commonly taught foreign languages. In many cases, one of these languages is the compulsory subject to be studied by all pupils. Italian, Russian and Spanish are other languages offered either as compulsory or optional foreign languages.
- *Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL)* is widespread for foreign languages only in Spain, while this approach is being used in 13 other countries/regions, although not systematically.

- Seven countries/regions report using the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (CEFR) explicitly in foreign language learning, although more may base their national/regional standards on its principles and approaches. A1/A2 is the CEFR target for this age group of foreign language learning.
  - Apart from Denmark and Estonia, R/M languages are offered in 22 countries/regions. R/M language classes and lessons in other subjects taught through R/M languages are open to all pupils irrespective of language background in 20 countries/regions, although Bulgaria and Greece only target native speakers of these languages. The offer is rich in a number of countries/regions, with Austria, Bulgaria, Hungary, Italy, Lithuania, Romania and Ukraine offering four or more R/M languages either as subjects or, in the majority of cases, as a medium of instruction. Twelve countries/regions report widespread CLIL, with another six reporting it in some areas.
  - Only five countries/regions report offering immigrant languages at primary level. These are Austria, Denmark, France, Spain and Switzerland (in the canton of Zurich). In France and Switzerland, immigrant language classes are open to all pupils, while in Austria, Denmark and Spain they are reserved for native speakers of immigrant languages. Spain and Switzerland offer lessons partly in school hours, whereas in the other countries they are offered as extra-curricular activities. Achievement in immigrant languages is not linked to any national, regional or school-based standards, although the development of language skills is monitored in all countries. Lessons in immigrant languages are fully funded by the state in Austria and Denmark, whereas in France, Spain and Switzerland they are mainly supported by the country of origin.
  - In primary education qualified language teachers are employed to teach languages as follows in the countries/regions surveyed: 16 out of 24 in the national language, 17 out of 22 in R/M languages, 14 out of 23 in foreign languages, and two out of five in immigrant languages. In Austria, England, France, Italy, Netherlands, Northern Ireland, Scotland and Switzerland, foreign languages are taught by generally qualified classroom teachers. Pre-service and in-service training is widespread in most countries/regions except for immigrant languages.
  - A clear area for development in foreign language teaching is teacher mobility: nine countries/regions out of 24 report having no support at all in this area, and only Catalonia and Switzerland report structured teacher mobility programmes. More should be done to stimulate language teachers to spend more time in the country of the language they are teaching to acquire higher level linguistic and cultural competencies.
  - A number of countries/regions are taking active measures to increase the supply of language teachers. Basque Country, Denmark, Estonia and Switzerland are recruiting national language teachers. Bulgaria, Denmark, England, Friesland, Hungary, Lithuania and Ukraine are recruiting extra foreign language teachers. Basque Country, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Denmark, Northern Ireland, Scotland, Spain and Ukraine are recruiting R/M language teachers. None of the countries/regions surveyed are actively recruiting immigrant language teachers.
- ### Languages in secondary education
- Additional support in the national language is provided for newcomers either before or during mainstream education in 21 countries/regions, with Denmark, Italy and Ukraine reporting no provision.
  - As expected, all countries/regions surveyed offer foreign languages in both lower and upper secondary education. Significant differences emerge, however, in the number of compulsory languages offered, the range of languages, the monitoring of language skills, the use of CLIL, and the extent to which the CEFR is used to evaluate the level achieved.
  - The only countries/regions to make two languages compulsory at both lower and upper secondary level are Austria, Estonia, France, Poland, Portugal, Romania and Switzerland.
  - As expected, attainment targets in line with the CEFR for foreign languages are much better established in secondary schools than in primary schools in the participating countries/regions, with 13 of them explicitly stating a level to be achieved. B2 seems to be the commonly agreed level for proficiency in the first foreign language, and B1 for the second.
  - Nineteen countries/regions offer R/M languages within secondary education. The countries/regions not offering R/M language education are Denmark, England, Estonia, Greece and Poland.
  - Eighteen countries/regions monitor the language skills acquired either through national/regional or school-based tests, with only Italy reporting no monitoring. Austria and Wales set no targets for the standard to be achieved, but all other countries/regions do. All countries/regions offer the languages free of charge to all pupils.
  - Few countries/regions are making immigrant language provision available systematically (three in pre-primary and five in primary), and in secondary eight countries/regions out of the 24 responded positively. These are Austria, Denmark, England, Estonia, France, the Netherlands, Scotland and Switzerland.
  - Full state funding is available for immigrant languages in Austria, Denmark, England, the Netherlands and Scotland. In France and Switzerland funding is provided by the countries of origin of immigrant pupils and in Estonia parents meet the costs. The only countries/regions offering immigrant languages in both primary and secondary education are Austria, Denmark, France and Switzerland.

- The most commonly offered foreign languages are English, German and French, although other European languages such as Spanish and Italian are also offered. Some immigrant languages such as Arabic, Croatian, Polish, Russian and Turkish are offered as optional foreign languages, and Arabic and Turkish have a firm status as examination subjects in secondary schools in France and the Netherlands. Russian is offered widely in Eastern European countries either as an R/M language or as a foreign language.
- As in primary education, CLIL is widespread in the teaching of R/M languages, but much less so in foreign languages, with only France reporting widespread practice, and 14 other countries/regions reporting localised examples.
- Foreign language teachers are well qualified, and only in Estonia and Northern Ireland do general classroom teachers teach foreign languages.
- There is a little more structured support for mobility at secondary level than at primary, with Austria as well as Catalonia reporting that teachers spend a semester abroad as part of their pre-service or in-service development. Another 17 countries/regions encourage and support mobility of teachers financially, leaving Estonia, France, Italy, Portugal and Romania as countries where teachers are less likely to spend time in a target language country.
- In line with EU and CoE recommendations, foreign language teachers in most countries are required to have attained a certain proficiency level in the foreign language and this is measured against CEFR levels in eight countries/regions. C1 appears to be the most common level required, although B2 is considered appropriate in Basque Country.
- There is a shortage of language teachers in some countries/regions, and special measures are being taken to recruit professionals with appropriate qualifications and to encourage people to qualify as language teachers. The most active countries/regions in teacher recruitment are Scotland, Basque Country, England, Romania and Switzerland, who are all recruiting for teachers in at least three of the four language categories.
- Twenty-five VET institutions offer R/M languages, with 13 fully covering the costs. The countries/regions offering R/M language courses in all three of the VET institutions surveyed are Basque Country, Catalonia, Hungary, Northern Ireland, and Wales. Immigrant languages are only offered in four of the institutions surveyed - one each in Austria, England, Italy and Wales.
- As expected, English, French, German and Spanish are prominent among foreign languages, with Russian offered as an R/M language in some countries/regions and a foreign language in others. Arabic is also offered in a number of VET institutions. The main offer for R/M languages is from countries/regions where there is more than one official language.
- New/primary data was gathered on 65 general/public universities across countries/regions. As is to be expected, all of the targeted European universities in our sample cities provide instruction in the national language because in most cases it is the main language of their student population and it is the official state language. However, in the majority of universities surveyed other languages can also be used.
- The international mobility of students and staff, and the desire to attract a global and diverse student body, appear to be making English the second language of many European universities. Many textbooks are also being written in English.
- A very high number of universities offer language courses to non-language students, as recommended by the European institutions. The offer is wide, with 31 universities (almost half) giving students the choice of more than four languages. Only eight universities from our sample do not offer non-language students the opportunity to learn other languages. The actual take-up of these courses was beyond the scope of the research.
- Almost all universities make special efforts to attract international students. Half also report conscious efforts to attract students with an immigrant background at home.
- Student mobility is supported financially by European universities but only ten of the universities surveyed make mobility programmes compulsory for language students.

### *Languages in further and higher education*

- New/primary data was collected directly from the largest 69 *Vocational and Education Training* (VET) centres in our 67 participating cities: the national language is quite well supported, with 30 out of the 69 VET institutions surveyed offering a wide variety of support programmes in the national language, ranging from basic communication to advanced skills. Twenty-four institutions offer a limited variety of programmes, while 15 of the institutions surveyed offer no support.
- Sixty-two of the 69 VET institutions surveyed offer foreign languages, with 15 reporting that more than four languages are taught, 22 offering three to four languages, and 25 one to two languages. Forty-one institutions offer a wide variety of programmes, from basic language skills to advanced, while 18 offer basic language skills only. Twenty-six institutions align their programmes with the CEFR.

### *Languages in audiovisual media and press*

- To explore the diversity of languages in the media, we asked our researchers to record the languages offered during one week on national radio and television according to the best-selling newspapers in the cities surveyed. Most participating countries/regions offer some radio and television broadcasting in languages other than the national language. Catalonia provides television broadcasting in a rich variety of foreign, R/M, and immigrant languages. Hungary and Italy provide radio broadcasting in more than ten languages.
- In terms of dubbing and subtitling, LRE findings are comparable to earlier studies, with around half of the countries/regions commonly using dubbing practices, while the other half commonly provide subtitles. The countries/regions where both television and cinema are dubbed are Austria, Catalonia, Hungary, Italy, Northern Ireland, Poland and Spain. The countries/regions where subtitles are used on both television and cinema are Bosnia and Herzegovina, Denmark, England, Estonia, Friesland, Greece, the Netherlands, Portugal, Romania, Scotland, Switzerland and Wales. Other countries/regions have a hybrid approach where programmes are subtitled in one medium and dubbed in the other.
- Regarding the availability of newspapers at the largest kiosks and train stations in our surveyed cities in each country/region, all researchers went into the kiosks and train stations and listed the available different newspapers in different languages, following the methodology of linguistic landscaping, to provide a snapshot at a given place and time. Overall, newspapers in English were the most common, followed by German, and, at a distance, by French, Russian and Italian. Arabic and Turkish newspapers also figured prominently.
- Recognition of sign languages, and the availability of sign languages for important media events was also investigated. Sign languages are officially recognised/promoted in all countries/regions with the exception of Basque Country, Denmark, Greece, Italy and Poland. People who are deaf can always make use of sign languages in official interactions with authorities in half of the countries/regions surveyed. Facilities for sign languages on television at important media events are always available in Estonia and regularly available in another nine countries/regions. However, in Italy, Poland and Romania researchers report that these facilities are not available.
- Around one-third of the cities surveyed have a widely practised institutionalised strategy for promoting multilingualism, and half of the cities surveyed report that the offer of multilingual services is widely practised. Only ten cities out of the 63 cities surveyed do not provide multilingual services. Twenty-three cities make it policy to include language skills in the job descriptions of their staff, and 18 provide widespread language training for staff. The five cities with the most developed policies according to the data are in ranked order Vienna, Barcelona, London, Milan and Kraków.
- The most multilingual provision is in tourism, immigration and integration, legal services (oral communication) and transport services (written communication). Health services are also commonly offered in a number of languages. The lowest levels of multilingual services are in the cultural sector (theatre) and political debates/decision making. Education services also do not rank as high as one might expect, given the large number of students (and their parents) attending schools across Europe who are not fluent in the official language of the country where they are educated.
- Seventeen cities offer most of the above services in more than four languages, while 23 offer them in three or four languages. The cities which report offering the most oral communication services in the most languages are in ranked order London, Aberdeen, Glasgow, Madrid, Valencia, Zurich, Milan, Belfast, Barcelona and Lugano.
- A lower number of cities responded as positively for written communication services, with only six reporting that most services are offered in more than four languages and 27 in three or four languages. This might suggest that cities place less emphasis on providing documents in multiple languages than in providing on-the-spot oral interpreting and mediation.
- English is by far the most widely offered language other than the national language for oral and written services in all cities surveyed, followed in ranked order by German, Russian, French and Spanish. Chinese and Arabic also emerge as high priority and are offered by a number of cities. Welsh, Catalan and Basque are used widely in public services in the regions in which they are spoken. The outcomes for the most frequently reported languages in public services are very similar to those obtained for languages of newspapers.
- We can infer that there are basically three types of target groups for oral and written communication services in public services and spaces: a) international travellers, business people and tourists b) immigrant groups, and c) speakers and readers of R/M languages.
- In most city websites, English is the main language next to the national language. German and French are also quite common across our sample of cities. Some second largest cities have more multilingual websites than the capital city in the same national context. For instance, while Rome offers information only in Italian and English, industrial Milan offers information in eight different languages next to Italian. The same phenomenon is observed in Poland for Kraków versus Warsaw. In the regional cities surveyed, English is again the most common language used on city websites next to the national languages.

### *Languages in public services and spaces*

- Language policies and strategies at city level were explored, as well as the number of languages in which public services are offered. In addition, city representatives reported the actual languages available in both written and oral communication in education, emergency, health, social, legal, transport, immigration, and tourism services, as well as theatre programmes.
- Sixty-three cities in total were surveyed, the basic criteria for selection being that in each country a capital city, the second largest city, and a city/town with a regional language presence were chosen. According to our researchers' reports, all the cities combined provide services in 140 languages other than the national language.

## Languages in business

- LRE developed a survey to explore the language strategies of companies, to find out whether they prioritise and support language training for their employees, and also to establish the range of languages used to communicate with customers and in promotional materials. The criteria investigated are divided into three main categories: general company language strategies, internal language strategies, and external language strategies.
- Data was collected from a selected set of companies based in cities across all countries/regions and 484 companies were surveyed in total. Four business sectors were targeted (banks, hotels, building construction companies and supermarkets). Overall, although the number of hotels participating was relatively high compared to other sectors, there was a good balance of sectors.
- In the area of general language strategies, a quarter of the companies surveyed have an explicit languages strategy in place and over half take languages into account when recruiting. A quarter regularly encourage mobility of staff for language learning and development of intercultural awareness. However, 70% do not keep a record of staff language skills, and very few take advantage of EU programmes for language learning.
- Widespread provision of language training is reported for business English in 27% of the companies surveyed, with 14% offering support in the national language for non-native speakers, and 12% for other languages. A relatively small percentage have reward or promotion schemes for language learning, with 11% reporting that it is widespread for business English and only 5% for the national language and other languages. The number of companies forging partnerships with the education sector to develop the language skills of their staff also appears modest, with a quarter doing so either regularly or occasionally for English, 17% for the national language for non-native speakers, and 14% for other languages.
- In the sectors surveyed just under half of the companies use business English widely in addition to the national language in external communications, and as many as 30% use other languages in addition to English and the national language on their websites.
- In ranked order, German, Russian, French, Spanish and Italian emerge as the most commonly used languages other than English by the companies surveyed, reflecting the strong internal market in Europe. Chinese, Japanese, Arabic and Turkish are also valued and supported by some of the companies surveyed, although perhaps higher prioritisation of these might be expected.

## Discussion

The comparative findings presented above highlight a multitude of interesting trends in policies and practices for multi/plurilingualism in the European context. While some countries/regions have highly developed policies and practices in specific domains, others need to develop further if they wish to align themselves more closely with European recommendations and create more language-rich societies. Of all the *language domains* researched, it is in primary and secondary education where most efforts are being made to promote multi/plurilingualism. However, in early language learning, and in the sectors of further and higher education, the media, public services and spaces and business, the LRE research findings suggest that the officially declared commitment of European countries/regions to support multi/plurilingualism still needs to be turned into action plans and practices at the local and institutional level.

Of all the non-national *language varieties* researched, immigrant languages are the least recognised, protected and/or promoted, in spite of all affirmative action at the European level. More attention to languages other than national ones would allow European cities and enterprises to become more inclusive in the context of increasing mobility and migration in Europe.

We believe that the findings presented here go beyond the current state of our knowledge with regard to language policies and practices in Europe from four different perspectives: (i) the high number of participating European countries and regions, (ii) the broad spectrum of chosen language varieties in the constellation of languages in Europe, (iii) the range of chosen language domains within and beyond education (iv) the publication and dissemination of the outcomes of this study in 20 languages. The scope and magnitude of the LRE survey, resulting in a huge database on a range of language policies and practices within and beyond education sectors, can be expressed in a formula of 260 questions in total raised for 24 countries/regions and 67 cities which amount to 6,240 scored and analysed values (minus partial data for Friesland only).

As will be mentioned in the introduction to Part 1 of this publication, the purpose of the draft indicators developed through the LRE project is to act as a tool to support countries and regions in evaluating themselves against EU and CoE documents on multilingualism and plurilingualism. Through this process, we aim to raise awareness at both the public and the political macro-level among European, national and regional language policy makers, and motivate key stakeholders across a variety of sectors, languages and countries/regions to take action. Suggestions for further indicators are welcome, as is an active response to our findings.

# PART 1

## Towards European Indicators of Language Policies and Practices

*Guus Extra and Kutlay Yağmur*

### Introduction

This publication is part of the *Language Rich Europe* (LRE) project, co-financed by the European Commission (EC) under its *Lifelong Learning Programme (LLP)*, and initiated by the British Council, the UK's international organisation for educational opportunities and cultural relations. The project is managed by the British Council, and supervised by a Steering Group made up of representatives of European Union National Institutes for Culture (EUNIC) and our partner organisations.

*Babylon, Centre for Studies of the Multicultural Society* at Tilburg University, has led on the research element of the project, developing draft indicators based on European Union (EU) and Council of Europe (CoE) resolutions, conventions and recommendations to examine language policies and practices in 25 countries and regions, constructing and administering the research questionnaire among our partner network, processing and analysing the data, and writing up the cross-national outcomes of data collection. Our research partners in each country/region have complemented the data collected with their own analysis of the findings, supported by examples of good practice and promising initiatives.

The overall objectives of the LRE project are:

- to facilitate the exchange of good practice in promoting intercultural dialogue and social inclusion through language teaching and learning
- to promote European co-operation in developing language policies and practices across several education sectors and broader society
- to raise awareness of the EU and CoE recommendations for promoting language learning and linguistic diversity across Europe.

The purpose of the draft indicators developed through the project is to act as a tool to support countries and regions in evaluating themselves against EU and CoE documents on multilingualism and plurilingualism. Through this process, we aim to raise awareness at both the public and the political macro-level among European, national and regional language policy makers, and motivate key stakeholders across a variety of sectors, languages and countries/regions to take action. Suggestions for further indicators are welcome, as is an active response to our findings. We hope that the outcomes presented here will trigger relevant follow-up case studies and in-depth research into micro-level policies and practices on multilingualism and plurilingualism.

There are obvious limitations to what can be achieved in a survey study like this. These limitations will be addressed in Section 1.6 in terms of validity issues. However, we believe that the results we present go beyond the current state of our knowledge with regard to language policies and practices in Europe from four different perspectives:

- the high number of participating countries and regions – 25
- the spectrum of chosen language varieties in the constellation of languages in Europe – we look at foreign, regional or minority, immigrant and national languages, the latter with a special focus on support for newcomers
- the range of chosen language domains within and beyond education to include business, public services and spaces in cities, and the media
- the publication and dissemination of the outcomes of this study in 20 languages.

Sections 1.1 and 1.2 offer background information on European actors in promoting multilingualism and plurilingualism, and on the so-called trilingual formula. Sections 1.3 and 1.4 focus on the language varieties and language domains explored in the project. Section 1.5 goes into data collection and our three-cities approach. The research methodology employed in this project is addressed in the final Section 1.6.



## 1.1 European actors in promoting multilingualism and plurilingualism

Linguistic diversity is a key property of Europe's identity, and both the EU Institutions based in Brussels and the Council of Europe based in Strasbourg have been active in promoting language learning and multilingualism/plurilingualism. The major language policy agencies in these two institutions are the *Unit for Multilingualism Policy* within the Directorate-General of Education and Culture in the European Commission and the *Language Policy Unit* of the Directorate of Education in the Council of Europe. The work done by these agencies underpins the important resolutions, charters and conventions produced by the respective bodies. Baetens Beardsmore (2008) gives an insightful overview of both EU and CoE language promotion activities in the past.

A search for multilingualism publications on <http://europa.eu/> yields key EU documents in a range of languages organised under five headings: EU policy documents, information brochures, reports, studies, and surveys. On the CoE site, [www.coe.int/lang](http://www.coe.int/lang), publications are offered in the domains of policy development, instruments and standards, languages of school education, migrants, conference reports and selected studies.

The CoE makes a distinction between plurilingualism as a speaker's competence (ability to use more than one language) and multilingualism as the presence of various languages in a given geographical area. The EU uses multilingualism for both (sometimes specifying 'multilingualism of the individual'). Throughout the report both concepts multilingualism and plurilingualism are quoted.

### *The European Union (EU)*

Within the EU, language policy is the responsibility of individual Member States. EU institutions play a supporting role in this field, based on the 'principle of subsidiarity'. Their role is to promote co-operation between the Member States and to promote the European dimension in national language policies. Within the three constituent bodies of the EU, that is the *Council of the European Union*, the *European Commission* (EC), and the *European Parliament*, multilingualism has been a key area of focus for a number of years.

EU language policies aim to protect linguistic diversity and promote knowledge of languages, for reasons of cultural identity and social integration, but also because multilingual citizens are better placed to take advantage of the educational, professional and economic opportunities created by an integrated Europe. Multilingualism policy is guided by the objective set by the Council of the EU in Barcelona in 2002 to improve the mastery of basic skills, in particular by teaching at least two additional languages from a very early age. This in turn had built on the seminal 1995 *White Paper on Teaching and Learning*, which advocated that everyone should learn two European languages. 'European' was removed in later documents. In addition, Barcelona called for the establishment of a language competence indicator.

In 2003, the EC committed itself to undertake 45 new actions to encourage national, regional and local authorities to work towards a 'major step change in promoting language learning and linguistic diversity'. The EC's first ever Communication on Multilingualism, *A New Framework Strategy for Multilingualism*, was adopted in November 2005, and complemented its action plan *Promoting Language Learning and Linguistic Diversity*. The EC Communication (2005) set out three basic strands to the EU's multilingualism policy:

1. ensuring that citizens have access to EU legislation, procedures and information in their own language
2. underlining the major role that languages and multilingualism play in the European economy, and finding ways to develop this further
3. encouraging all citizens to learn and speak more languages, in order to improve mutual understanding and communication.

The importance of multilingualism to the EC was underlined by the appointment of a special European Commissioner, Leonard Orban, to manage the portfolio for the very first time at the beginning of 2007, although in the 2009 Barroso reshuffle it became part of the remit of the Commissioner for Education, Culture, Multilingualism and Youth. Under Commissioner Orban, the EC produced their 2008 Communication, *Multilingualism: an Asset for Europe and a Shared Commitment*, which established language policy as a transversal topic which contributed to all other EU policies. The Communication set out what needed to be done to turn linguistic diversity into an asset for solidarity and prosperity. The two central objectives for multilingualism policy were:

- to raise awareness of the value and opportunities of the EU's linguistic diversity and encourage the removal of barriers to intercultural dialogue
- to give all citizens real opportunities to learn to communicate in two languages in addition to their mother tongue.

Member States were invited to offer a wider range of languages more effectively within the education system from an early age up to adult education and to value and further develop language skills acquired outside the formal education system. Moreover, the EC stated its determination to make strategic use of relevant EU programmes and initiatives to bring multilingualism 'closer to the citizen'.

The *Commission Staff Working Document* (2008), accompanying the above-mentioned EC Communication, presents a good overview of existing EU activities supporting multilingualism. The EC Communication (2008) was welcomed and endorsed by resolutions from both the Council of the EU (2008) and the European Parliament (2009), with the emphasis on lifelong learning, competitiveness, mobility and employability. In 2011 the EC reported back on progress since 2008 and provided a full inventory of EU actions in the field. It also looked forward to the *Strategic Framework for European Cooperation in Education and Training* (ET 2020) in which language learning is identified as a priority, with communication in foreign languages one of eight key competences to improve the quality and efficiency of education and training. Also included as core skills are communication in the mother tongue, mediation and intercultural understanding.

The report underlines that language skills are crucial for the *Agenda for new skills and jobs* initiative, as they enhance employability. They are also a prerequisite for mobility and hence for the successful implementation of the new flagship initiative *Youth on the Move*. More broadly, language skills have the potential to encourage and facilitate the exercise of the right of EU citizens to free movement and residence in the territory of the Member States and to stimulate the cross-border exercise by citizens of a broad range of rights conferred to them under EU law.

Key statistics on language learning and teaching in the EU are collected in the context of *Eurydice* and *Eurobarometer* surveys. Of major importance for the primary and secondary education domains of our LRE questionnaire are the reports *Key data on teaching languages at school in Europe* (Eurydice 2008, updated version of 2005 report) and *Integrating Immigrant Children into Schools in Europe* (Eurydice 2009), as well as two Eurobarometer reports on language skills of European citizens and their attitudes towards languages (Eurobarometers 2001 and 2006). The above-mentioned report to the EC by Strubell et al. (2007) also contains key data on student enrolments in language classes in primary, lower and upper secondary education in EU countries; moreover, the report offers an analysis of cross-national results and trends, and concludes with a range of recommendations.

Specific numbers of language learners and school learning exams, as well as types of language competences may be addressed in a follow-up version of the LRE questionnaire. We will explore the opportunities for synergies between data collection for the current LRE project and for the *European Language Monitor* (ELM) and the *European Survey on Language Competences* (ESLC), respectively (see the websites of the two projects for work in progress). The focus of the ELM project is on official state languages; it has a special section on instruction in and use of official state languages versus English at university level. The initial focus of the ESLC project is on students' competence in English, French, German, Italian and Spanish as their first and second foreign language in their final year of lower secondary education or their second year of upper secondary education, depending on the given educational context. The first ESLC report has recently been made available by the EC (2012) and contains data of almost 54,000 students enrolled in 14 participating countries. Curriculum-independent tests were designed, standardised and applied for reading, listening and writing skills in each of the five languages referred to and linked to the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (CEFR) levels. The ESLC results show an overall low level of competences in both first and second foreign languages tested. In addition, the outcomes vary greatly across countries, chosen languages, and measured language skills.

The main EC funding programme for 2007–13 to support multilingualism is the *Lifelong Learning Programme* (LLP), which brings the various European education and training initiatives under a single umbrella with a budget of nearly €7 billion for the seven year period. The LLP, the successor of *Socrates*, which ran from 1994–2006, consists of four sub-programmes, each one addressing a specific education sector: *Comenius* (schools), *Erasmus* (higher education), *Leonardo da Vinci* (vocational education and training) and *Grundtvig* (adult education). A cross-cutting programme complements these four sub-programmes, including a so-called *Key Activity* (KA) on languages. Finally, the *Jean Monnet* programme stimulates teaching, reflection and debate on the European integration process at higher education institutions worldwide.

One of the specific LLP objectives is to promote language learning and linguistic diversity. Proposals for language projects, networks and other language-oriented activities (for instance linked to mobility of students, teachers and workers) can be submitted for European co-funding under the different parts of the programme. All languages – official, national, regional, minority, and migrant languages – are eligible under this programme. The *Language Rich Europe* programme is co-funded under the KA2 (Networks) Programme.

### *The Council of Europe (CoE)*

Founded on 5 May 1949, the CoE is an intergovernmental organisation with 47 Member States, including the 27 European Union States.

The CoE's mission is to promote human rights, parliamentary democracy and the rule of law. These core values underpin its actions in all areas, including language policy which draws on three distinct but complementary dimensions of the organisation's work: *conventions, recommendations, and technical instruments*.

The *European Cultural Convention* encourages states to support the study of each others' languages, history and civilisation. The *European Social Charter* ensures the right of migrant workers and their families to learn the language(s) of the receiving state and supports the teaching of the migrant worker's mother tongue to the children of the migrant worker.

Two CoE *conventions* are directly concerned with European standards to promote and safeguard linguistic diversity and language rights – the *European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages* and the *Framework Convention for the Protection of National Minorities*. The Charter is a cultural instrument designed to protect and promote regional or minority languages as a threatened aspect of Europe's cultural heritage. It provides for specific measures to support the use of this category of languages in education and the media, and to permit their use in judicial and administrative settings, economic and social life and cultural activities. The Framework Convention specifies the conditions necessary for persons belonging to national minorities to maintain and develop their culture, and to preserve the essential elements of their identity, namely their religion, language, traditions and cultural heritage.

States which have ratified these *conventions* are monitored with regard to their fulfilment of the commitments they have undertaken.

CoE *recommendations* are authoritative statements to national authorities on guiding principles and related implementation measures, but are not legally binding. The following are among the most relevant for the purposes of this project:

- *Recommendation No. R (98) 6 of the Committee of Ministers on Modern Languages* (1998) emphasising intercultural communication and plurilingualism as key policy goals and proposing concrete measures for each educational sector and for initial and in-service teacher education. The appendix to this recommendation specifies comprehensively, for each educational sector, ways in which plurilingualism may be established as an overarching aim in a coherent concept of language education in all the Member States of the CoE

- *Recommendation 1383 (1998) of the Parliamentary Assembly of the Council of Europe on Linguistic Diversification* stating that 'Europe's linguistic diversity is a precious cultural asset that must be preserved and protected' and that 'there should therefore be more variety in modern language teaching in the CoE Member States; this should result in the acquisition not only of English but also of other European and world languages by all European citizens, in parallel with the mastery of their own national and, where appropriate, regional language'
- *Recommendation 1539 (2001) of the Parliamentary Assembly of the Council of Europe on the European Year of Languages* calling upon the Member States to 'maintain and develop further the CoE's language policy initiatives for promoting plurilingualism, cultural diversity and understanding among peoples and nations' and to 'encourage all Europeans to acquire a certain ability to communicate in several languages, for example by promoting diversified novel approaches adapted to individual needs ...'
- *Recommendation Rec (2005)3 of the Committee of Ministers on teaching neighbouring languages in border regions* urging the governments of Member States 'to apply the principles of plurilingual education, in particular by establishing conditions that enable teaching institutions in border regions at all levels to safeguard or, if need be, introduce the teaching and use of the languages of their neighbouring countries, together with the teaching of these countries' cultures, which are closely bound up with language teaching'
- *Recommendation 1740 (2006) of the Parliamentary Assembly on the place of the mother tongue in school education* encouraging young Europeans to learn their mother tongue (or main language) when this is not an official language of their country, while pointing out that they have the duty to learn an official language of the country of which they are citizens
- *Recommendation No. R (2008) 7 of the Committee of Ministers on the use of the CEFR and the promotion of plurilingualism* outlining general principles and measures to be implemented by authorities responsible for language education at national, regional and local level as well as specific measures aimed at policy making, curriculum and textbook development, teacher training, and assessment.

What might be described as 'technical' instruments in the field of language education are generally reference tools, always non-normative, which policy deciders and practitioners may consult and adapt as appropriate to their specific educational context and needs. These instruments include the widely used *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (CEFR), the *European Language Portfolio* (ELP), policy guides, and a variety of other practical tools developed through the programmes of the Language Policy Unit in Strasbourg and the European Centre for Modern Languages in Graz.

*The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (2001) was designed to promote plurilingual education and to be adapted to the specific contexts of use. The CEFR offers a common basis for developing and comparing second/foreign language curricula, textbooks, courses and examinations in a

dynamic plurilingual lifelong learning perspective. Developed through a process of scientific research and wide consultation, the CEFR provides a practical tool for setting clear goals to be attained at successive stages of learning and for evaluating outcomes in an internationally comparable manner. It provides a basis for the mutual recognition of language qualifications, thus facilitating educational and occupational mobility. It is increasingly used in the reform of national curricula and by international consortia for relating of language certificates, in Europe and beyond, and is available in over 35 language versions.

*The European Language Portfolio* (2001) is a personal document in which those who are learning or have learned any language – whether at school or outside school – can record and reflect on their language learning and cultural experiences. It is the property of the learner. In the Portfolio, all competence is valued, regardless of the level or whether it is gained inside or outside formal education. It is linked to the CEFR.

*The Guide for the Development of Language Education Policies in Europe* (Beacco and Byram 2007) is an analytical instrument which can serve as a reference document for the formulation or re-organisation of language teaching policies to promote plurilingualism and diversification in a planned manner so that decisions are coherently linked. The Guide conceives of plurilingualism as a single competence, encompassing – potentially – several languages with usually varying levels of proficiency, 'a communicative competence to which all knowledge and experience of language contributes and in which languages interrelate and interact'.

The above-mentioned policy instruments were developed by the Language Policy Division (now Language Policy Unit) which has recently launched a *Platform of Resources and References for Plurilingual and Intercultural Education* ([www.coe.int/lang](http://www.coe.int/lang)). This site expands the scope of consideration beyond the domain of modern foreign languages and including classical languages, languages of migrants and, significantly, languages of schooling. This refers to languages such as German in Germany and Swedish in Sweden – taught as school subjects and used as the medium of instruction for other school subjects (taking into account the key role of language in knowledge building in all subjects). The *Platform* offers an open and dynamic resource, with system of definitions, points of reference, descriptions and descriptors, studies and good practices which Member States are invited to consult and use in support of their policy to promote equal access to quality education according to needs, resources and educational culture.

Accompanying the Platform is the *Guide for the development and implementation of curricula for plurilingual and intercultural education* which is currently being piloted in different sectors of formal education. The Guide is intended to facilitate improved implementation of the values and principles of plurilingual and intercultural education in the teaching of all languages – foreign, regional or minority, classical, and languages of schooling. It provides a general picture of the issues and principles involved in designing and/or improving curricula, and of pedagogical and didactic approaches which open the way to fuller realisation of the general aim of plurilingual and intercultural education.

In the work of the CoE, plurilingual and intercultural competence is the ability to use a plural repertoire of linguistic and cultural resources to meet communication needs or interact with people from other backgrounds and contexts, and enrich that repertoire while doing so. Plurilingual and intercultural education takes into account the repertoire of languages, and the cultures associated with those languages, which individual learners have acquired, whether formally recognised in the school curriculum or not – languages of schooling (as subject and medium of instruction), regional/minority languages, modern foreign and classical languages, and immigrant languages. The CoE encourages a holistic approach that develops increased synergy between languages, greater co-ordination between teachers and exploitation of learners' transversal competences.

The CoE's work on language education is co-ordinated by the *Language Policy Unit* (LPU) in Strasbourg and the *European Centre for Modern Languages* (ECML) in Graz.

The LPU carries out intergovernmental co-operation programmes within the programme of the Steering Committee for Educational Policy and Practice (CDPPE).

The LPU has been a pioneer of international co-operation in language education since 1957, acting as a catalyst for innovation, and providing a unique pan-European forum in which to address the policy priorities of all Member States. The results of the LPU's programmes have led to a number of recommendations and resolutions of the Committee of Ministers and of the Parliamentary Assembly of the CoE, which provide political support for its policy instruments and initiatives. Following on from this, the LPU organised the *European Year of Languages 2001* with the European Commission; the aims of which continue to be promoted in the annual *European Day of Languages* ([www.coe.int/edl](http://www.coe.int/edl)).

The LPU also provides expert assistance to Member States in carrying out reviews of language education policy, and has been involved with policy development for the education of minorities. Its recent work deals particularly with the languages of schooling (including the needs of disadvantaged students) in the wider context of plurilingual and intercultural education, and with language policies related to the integration of adult migrants.

The programmes of the LPU are complemented by those of the *European Centre for Modern Languages* (ECML) – an Enlarged Partial Agreement of the Council of Europe set up in 1994 in Graz (Austria). Thirty-one states subscribe to the Partial Agreement currently.<sup>1</sup>

The ECML's mission is to promote innovative approaches and disseminate good practice in language learning and teaching. The Centre runs four-year programmes of projects organised in co-operation with European experts in the field of language education. Resulting from project work are 'hands-on' training kits, guidelines and interactive websites, such as the *European Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages (EPOSTL)* translated into 13 languages and taken up in many teacher education programmes in Europe (<http://epostl.ecml.at>) and the *Framework of Reference for Pluralistic Approaches to Languages and Cultures (CARAP)* showing how to support the development of learners' plurilingual and intercultural competences in a school classroom (<http://carap.ecml.at>). Several tools developed at the ECML relate to the practical use of the CEFR and the European Language Portfolio (ELP), and address the needs of language professionals acting in multilingual settings. All ECML publications are available free of charge via the Centre's website ([www.ecml.at](http://www.ecml.at)).

In designing the LRE questionnaire for our survey, we drew on key EU and CoE resolutions, conventions, recommendations and communications that have contributed to the development of policies and practices for multi/plurilingualism. Table 1 gives an overview of the documents consulted. A summary of the key points and the questionnaire itself can be found on the LRE website. Note the difference between the Council of the EU (heads of state and government) and the Council of Europe.

<sup>1</sup>Albania, Andorra, Armenia, Austria, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Croatia, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Iceland, Ireland, Latvia, Liechtenstein, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, Montenegro, the Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Romania, Slovak Republic, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, 'the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia'.

**Table 1:** Overview of EU and CoE documents used to develop the LRE questionnaire

European Union documents	Council of Europe documents
<p><b>Council Resolutions/Conclusions</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Decision of the European Parliament and of the Council on the European Year of Languages 2001 (2000)</li> <li>- Presidency Conclusions of the Barcelona European Council (2002)</li> <li>- Conclusions on multilingualism (May 2008)</li> <li>- Resolution on a European strategy for multilingualism (November 2008)</li> <li>- Conclusions on a strategic framework for European cooperation in education and training ET 2020 (2009)</li> <li>- Conclusions on language competencies to enhance mobility (2011)</li> </ul>	<p><b>Conventions</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- European Cultural Convention (1954)</li> <li>- European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages (ECRML) (1992)</li> <li>- Framework Convention for the Protection of National Minorities (1995)</li> <li>- European Social Charter (rev 1996)</li> </ul>
<p><b>European Parliament Resolutions</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Resolution to promote linguistic diversity and language learning (2001)</li> <li>- Resolution on European regional and lesser-used languages (2003)</li> <li>- Resolution on multilingualism: an asset for Europe and a shared commitment (2009)</li> </ul>	<p><b>Recommendations of the Committee of Ministers</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Recommendation N° R (2005)3 concerning teaching neighbouring languages in border regions</li> <li>- Recommendation N° R (82)18 concerning modern languages (1982)</li> <li>- Recommendation N° R (98)6 concerning modern languages (1998)</li> <li>- Recommendation CM/Rec (2008)7 on the use of the CEFR and the promotion of plurilingualism</li> </ul>
<p><b>Communications by the European Commission</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Communication 2005: A new framework strategy for multilingualism</li> <li>- Communication 2008: Multilingualism: An asset for Europe and a shared commitment</li> <li>- Green Paper 2008: Migration and Mobility: Challenges and opportunities for EU education systems</li> </ul>	<p><b>Recommendations of the Parliamentary Assembly</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Recommendation 1383 (1998) on linguistic diversification</li> <li>- Recommendation 1539 (2001) on the European Year of Languages 2001</li> <li>- Recommendation 1598 (2003) on the protection of sign languages in the Member States of the Council of Europe</li> <li>- Recommendation 1740 (2006) on the place of mother tongue in school education</li> </ul>
<p><b>External reports</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Final Report of the High Level Group on Multilingualism (2007)</li> <li>- Languages mean business: companies work better with languages, Business Forum for Multilingualism (2008)</li> </ul>	<p><b>External reports</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- From linguistic diversity to plurilingual education: Guide for the development of language education policies in Europe: Beacco and Byram (2007)</li> <li>- Guide for the development and implementation of curricula for plurilingual and intercultural education, Beacco et al. (2010)</li> </ul> <p><b>Tools for Teaching and Learning</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) (2001)<sup>1</sup></li> <li>- European Language Portfolio (ELP) (2001)</li> <li>- A framework of reference for pluralistic approaches to languages and cultures (FREPA) (2012): <a href="http://carap.ecml.at">http://carap.ecml.at</a></li> <li>- European Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages (2007): <a href="http://epostl2.ecml.at">http://epostl2.ecml.at</a></li> </ul>

<sup>1</sup> Designed to promote plurilingual education and to be adapted to the contexts of use, the CEFR of the Council of Europe offers a common basis for developing and comparing second/foreign language curricula, textbooks, courses and examinations in a dynamic plurilingual lifelong learning perspective.

## 1.2 The trilingual formula and plurilingualism

Promoting multilingualism in terms of trilingualism has not only been advocated by the EU. UNESCO adopted the term 'multilingual education' in 1999 (*General Conference Resolution 12*) in reference to the use of at least three languages in education, that is the mother tongue, a regional or national language, and an international language. As early as the 1950s, the Indian government had put forward the outline of a multilingual educational policy, which included instruction in the mother language, in the regional (or State) language, in Hindi as the language of general communication and in one of the classical languages – Sanskrit, Pali, Arabic or Persian. Revised in 1961, the proposal was named the *three language formula* (TLF), which included instruction in the regional language, in Hindi in non-Hindi-speaking areas or in another Indian language in Hindi-speaking areas, and in English or another European language.

The EC (1995), in a so-called *Whitebook*, opted for trilingualism as a policy goal for all European citizens. Apart from the mother tongue, each citizen should learn at least two 'community languages'. This policy goal was followed up by the Council of the EU Resolution (2002) in Brussels. At this stage the concept of 'mother tongue' was being used to refer to the official languages of Member States and overlooked the fact that for many inhabitants of Europe 'mother tongue' and 'official state language' do not coincide (Extra and Gorter 2008: 44). At the same time, the concept of 'community languages' was used to refer to the official languages of two other EU Member States. In later EC documents, reference was made to one foreign language with high international prestige (English was deliberately not referred to) and one so-called 'neighbouring language'. This latter concept referred to neighbouring countries, rather than to the language of one's real-life next-door neighbours. More recently the EC's thinking has developed in this area and paragraph 4.1 of the 2008 Communication is entitled 'Valuing all languages':

*In the current context of increased mobility and migration, mastering the national language(s) is fundamental to integrating successfully and playing an active role in society. Non-native speakers should therefore include the host-country language in their 'one-plus-two' combination.*

*There are also untapped linguistic resources in our society: different mother tongues and other languages spoken at home and in local and neighbouring environments should be valued more highly. For instance, children with different mother tongues – whether from the EU or a third country – present schools with the challenge of teaching the language of instruction as a second language, but they can also motivate their classmates to learn different languages and open up to other cultures.*

*With a view to allowing closer links between communities, the Commission's advisory group on multilingualism and intercultural dialogue (Group of Intellectuals for Intercultural Dialogue) (2008) developed the concept of a 'personal adoptive language', which should usefully benefit from further reflection.*

While not explicitly specifying the number of languages to be learned, the CoE has played a pioneering role in promoting language learning and the development of plurilingualism in individuals from an early age, and has consistently underlined the need to value all languages. It has also added an interesting perspective in putting forward the idea of variable and partial competencies.

Building on the Resolution of 1969 on an intensified modern language teaching programme for Europe, and Recommendation 814 (1977), the CoE's 1982 Recommendation, R/M (82) 18, called for Member States to ensure that as far as possible, all sections of their populations had access to effective means of acquiring a knowledge of the languages of other Member States (or of other communities within their own country) and to encourage the teaching of at least one European language other than the national language, or the vehicular language of the area concerned, to pupils from the age of ten or the point at which they enter secondary education. The Recommendation also called for states to make facilities available for learning 'as wide a range of languages as possible'. The CoE also took into consideration in this recommendation the needs of migrant workers, calling for adequate facilities for them:

*to acquire sufficient knowledge of the language of the host community for them to play an active part in the working, political and social life of that community, and in particular to enable the children of migrants to acquire a proper education and to prepare them for the transition from full-time education to work to develop their mother tongues both as educational and cultural instruments and in order to maintain and improve their links with their culture of origin.*

In the key follow-up recommendation of the Committee of Ministers, CM/R (98) 6, the CoE called for Europeans to achieve a degree of communicative ability in a number of languages and asked Member States to achieve this by diversifying the languages on offer and setting objectives appropriate to each language, including modular courses and those which aim to develop partial competences.

A more recent CoE recommendation is CM/Rec (2008) 7E to Member States on the use of the CoE's *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (CEFR) and the promotion of plurilingualism.

A detailed overview and analysis of EU policies on multilingualism is provided by Cullen et al. (2008), who say that there is still significant reluctance or resistance with respect to additional language learning – apart from learning English. This view is supported by the 2009 Eurostat data which shows a marked increase in the learning of English, but not other languages. Only one in five Europeans, say Cullen et al., can be described as an active additional language learner and language skills are unevenly distributed geographically and culturally. Most of the activities aimed at promoting multilingualism take place in the formal education sector, more particularly in the domain of secondary education. Cullen et al. (2008: iii–iv) arrive at the following main conclusions with respect to the political and policy context of promoting multilingualism in the EU:

- *Multilingualism and linguistic diversity are sometimes conflicting policy agendas. Language learning policy has tended to be influenced by ‘harder’ priorities like economic competitiveness and labour market mobility, and linguistic diversity policies by ‘softer’ issues like inclusion and human rights. Multilingualism policy has been more highly prioritised than linguistic diversity policy in terms of concrete actions.*
- *The action of the European Parliament reflects a consistent and persistent effort to maintain minority language protection and linguistic diversity support. Since the late 1970s, the European Parliament has issued a series of communications and resolutions that call for the Commission to take action in order to promote the use of minority languages and to review all Community legislation or practices which discriminate against minority languages. However, a major problem is that none of these initiatives are binding for the Member States.*

### Attitudes of EU citizens to multilingualism/plurilingualism

One of the periodical European Barometers of the EC, the Special Barometer 243 (2006), offers a cross-section of public opinion on issues related to multilingualism. Support for some of the principles underpinning the Commission’s multilingualism policy is analysed, along with respondents’ perceptions of the situation in their respective countries or regions and their support for multilingual policies at the national level. The respondents were presented with five statements that illustrate some of the key principles behind the policies targeted at promoting multilingualism in Europe. All statements receive the support of the majority of Europeans but to a varying degree, as Table 2 makes clear.

**Table 2: Attitudes towards multilingualism in Europe**  
(Source: Special Eurobarometer Report 243:53, European Commission 2006)

Statements	Tend to agree	Tend to disagree	Do not know
1. Everyone in the EU should be able to speak one additional language	84%	12%	4%
2. All languages spoken within the EU should be treated equally	72%	21%	7%
3. Everyone in the EU should be able to speak a common language	70%	25%	5%
4. The European institutions should adopt one single language to communicate with European citizens	55%	40%	5%
5. Everyone in the EU should be able to speak two additional languages	50%	44%	6%

The results of the survey show that while the vast majority of EU citizens think that one additional language is manageable, only 50% think that two is a realistic goal. There is strong feeling that languages should be treated equally, but an equally strong feeling that we should all be able to speak a common language. Opinions are divided about whether the EU institutions should adopt one language for communication with citizens.

The recently published follow-up Special Eurobarometer 386, carried out on behalf of the EC (2012), shows almost similar outcomes on each of the five statements referred to in Table 2 in terms of proportions (%) of those who (totally) agree – (totally) disagree – do not know: (1) 84-13-3, (2) 81-25-4, (3) 69-27-4, (4) 53-42-5, and (5) 72-25-3. The strongest change over time occurs for more agreement with statements (2) and (5). In particular the increased agreement with statement (5) refers to a stronger support of the EC’s trilingual formula. Apart from the key attitudinal data referred to, Special Eurobarometer 386 offers a whole range of recent survey data on multilingualism in the EU today, on the use of languages, and on attitudes to languages.

The LRE project offers interesting information about the extent to which the Barcelona principles are being followed in education systems in the countries/regions surveyed, and also provides findings about the way that all languages – national, foreign, immigrant, and regional or minority – are being valued both inside school and out.

## 1.3 Language varieties explored in the project

In the LRE project our ambition is to reflect the richness of languages present in European society and the extent to which all of these languages are included in policies and practices for multilingualism and plurilingualism. Our challenge was to distinguish the language types and categorise them appropriately.

In its 2008 Communication, the EC refers to the many ‘national, regional, minority and migrant’ languages spoken in Europe ‘adding a facet to our common background’ and also ‘foreign languages’, used to refer principally to both European and non-European languages with a worldwide coverage.

The value of learning the national language well in order to function successfully in society and benefit fully from education is widely recognised. The learning of foreign languages has also been common in Europe. The language types which have been less emphasised are regional/minority and immigrant languages, but their value across European Member States has been acknowledged and supported by both the CoE and the EU, which have emphasised that both types of languages need to be supported as they are important means of intra-group communication and are part of the personal, cultural and social identity of many EU citizens.

In CM/R (98) 6, the CoE (1998) had already asked for Member States to ensure that the provisions of the *European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages* and the *Framework Convention for the Protection of National Minorities* be taken into account as indicating desirable parameters for policy on regional or minority languages or cultures. It had also called for parity of esteem between all languages and for countries to ‘continue to promote bilingualism in immigrant areas or neighbourhoods and support immigrants in learning the language of the area in which they reside.’

The High Level Group on Multilingualism *Final Report* (2007) also mentions that it is necessary to use the potential of immigrants as a source of language knowledge and as a good opportunity for companies to profit from these immigrants’ cultural and linguistic abilities in order to gain access to markets in the immigrants’ countries of origin:

*All too often, migrants are only seen as a problem – migrant children under performing at school or adult migrants with only a minimal command of the language of the host country. What is often overlooked is the fact that migrants constitute a valuable resource. By giving value to migrant languages in our midst, we may well enhance migrants’ motivation to learn the language of the host country, and – indeed – other languages, and enable them to become competent mediators between different cultures.*

*Very often, young second- and third-generation migrants possess well-developed aural/oral skills in their heritage or community languages, but cannot read and write them. Many of them are highly motivated to become literate in these languages. Schools, higher and adult education institutions should make it their business to provide special learning opportunities for these target groups. This would be sound investment, as these people could help to establish economic contacts in their countries of origin, and could be brought to play an active role in intercultural dialogue and integration programmes for newly arrived immigrants.*

Against this background, the constellation of languages (see Extra and Gorter 2008: 3-60) to be addressed in our LRE questionnaire will include *national, foreign, regional/minority* and *immigrant* languages. We are fully aware of the different connotations across European countries in referring to the people (and their languages) with a more or less long-standing history of residence that stems from abroad (see Extra and Gorter 2008: 10 for the nomenclature of the field).

In the context of the LRE project, we will therefore explore and use the above language types with the following definitions (see also the Glossary in the appendix to Parts I and 2):

- **National languages:** Official languages of a nation-state.
- **Foreign languages:** Languages that are not learnt or used at home but learnt and taught at school or used as languages of wider communication in non-educational sectors.
- **Regional or minority languages:** Languages that are traditionally used within a given territory of a state by nationals of that state who form a group numerically smaller than the rest of the state’s population.
- **Immigrant languages:** Languages spoken by immigrants and their descendants in the country of residence, originating from an infinite range of (former) source countries.

For similar perspectives, we refer to McPake and Tinsley (2007). In this context, we want to express our awareness of the deliberate inclusion of immigrant languages as part of the European repertoire of languages, while at the same time in this first round of data collection on multilingual policies and practices for as yet little reference is made to sign languages. Within Western societies where there is significant migration, or within language minorities inside a single-nation-state, there are deaf people who are in effect minorities within minorities. Given the oralist hegemony, most of these deaf people have been cut off not only from mainstream culture, but also from their own ‘native’ cultures, a form of double oppression (Schermer 2011). There is an important difference between deaf communities and other language minorities. It is only to a limited extent that sign languages are passed on from one generation to the next. The main reason for this is that more than 95% of deaf people have hearing parents for whom a sign language is not a native language. Most people who are deaf have learned their sign language from deaf peers, from deaf adults outside of the family and/or from parents who have acquired a sign language as a second language.

The European Parliament unanimously approved a resolution on sign languages on June 17, 1988. The resolution asked all Member States for recognition of their national sign languages as official languages of people who are deaf. So far this resolution has had limited effect. In 2003, sign languages were recognised by the Council of Europe as minority languages in the *European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages*. In our first round of data collection, we include reference to sign language(s) in the Languages in official documents and databases and Languages in audiovisual media and press domains of the LRE questionnaire.



The distinction presented above between ‘regional/minority’ and ‘immigrant’ languages is widely used and understood across continental Europe, whereas the attractive bottom-up-supported reference to ‘community’ languages, common in the UK, is used to refer to national, regional and/or immigrant languages. Moreover the concept of ‘community’ languages often refers to the national languages of *European Union* countries in EU documents and in this sense is almost ‘occupied territory’, at least in the EU jargon (see Extra & Gorter, 2008: 7-11 for the nomenclature of the field). A final argument in favour of using the term ‘immigrant’ languages is its widespread use on the website of *Ethnologue, Languages of the World*, a most valuable and widely used standard source of cross-national information on this topic.

In the context of the present project, we will consider regional/minority languages as ‘officially recognised’ if such recognition derives from the nation-state under consideration. In addition to this, such recognition may also derive from the Council of Europe’s *European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages*. The Charter came into operation in March 1998. It functions as a European benchmark for the comparison of legal measures and facilities of Member States in this policy domain (Nic Craith 2003), and is aimed at the protection and the promotion of ‘the historical regional or minority languages of Europe.’ The concepts of ‘regional’ and ‘minority’ languages are not specified in the Charter (‘States decide on the definition’) and immigrant languages are explicitly excluded from it. States are free in their choice of which regional/minority languages to include. Also, the degree of protection is not prescribed; thus, a state can choose loose or tight policies. The result is a wide variety of provisions across EU Member States (Grin 2003).

We are aware that there are a number of complicating factors that make clear-cut distinctions between the proposed language types virtually impossible. First of all, within and across EU Member States, many regional/minority and immigrant languages have larger numbers of speakers than many official state languages. Moreover, both regional/minority and immigrant languages in one EU country may be official state languages in another country, for example German in Denmark or Russian in Ukraine. It should also be kept in mind that many, if not most, immigrant languages in European nation-states originate from countries outside Europe. It is the context of migration and minorisation in particular that makes our proposed distinction between regional/minority and immigrant languages ambiguous. However, we cannot think of a more transparent alternative. In our opinion, if nothing else, the proposed distinction will at least lead to awareness-raising and may ultimately lead to an inclusive approach in the European conceptualisation of minority languages.

## 1.4 Language domains addressed in the survey

Eight language domains are covered by the LRE survey. As the first domain, we include a meta-domain which looks at the availability of official national/regional documents and databases on language diversity. Given the key role of language learning in education, four domains focus on the main stages of publicly funded education from pre-school to university. In addition, three language domains outside and beyond education are addressed, in order to capture levels of multilingual services in society and business. All in all, the eight domains of the questionnaire are covered by a total of 260 questions, distributed across these domains as outlined in Table 3. The questions on language domains 2–8 are based on the European documents referred to in Section 1.1.

**Table 3: Distribution of questions across language domains**

N	Language domains	N questions
1.	Languages in official documents and databases	15
2.	Languages in pre-primary education	34
3.	Languages in primary education	58
4.	Languages in secondary education	60
5.	Languages in further and higher education	30
6.	Languages in audiovisual media and press	14
7.	Languages in public services and public spaces	31
8.	Languages in business	18
	<b>Total of questions</b>	<b>260</b>

Domain 1 explores the availability of nationwide or regionwide official documents and databases on language diversity in each of the participating countries/regions. The availability of such documents and databases may contribute significantly to the awareness of multilingualism in a given country/region and can inform language education policy. The division of this domain into official documents and databases is closely related to the common distinction in studies on language planning between *status* planning and *corpus* planning. In our study, the section on documents refers to efforts undertaken *to regulate* the use and function of different languages in a given society, and the section on databases refers to efforts undertaken *to map* the distribution and vitality of the spectrum of languages in a given society.

Domains 2–4 of the survey focus on education for non-adult learners provided by the state. Definitions of each of these domains are provided in the Glossary to Parts 1 and 2 of this publication, including the common distinction between lower and upper secondary education which may refer to *age-related* differences and/or differences related to *type of schooling*. In each of these domains, the organisation of language teaching is addressed in addition to the qualifications and training of teachers, for each of the four language varieties. The key distinction between organisation versus teachers is widely used in the European context (see, for example, Eurydice 2008). The responses in these sections are based on publicly available data as well as from official sources.

Given the significant diversification in post-secondary education at the national and cross-national level, domain 5 focuses on basic (vocational) versus high (university) education. As a result, this domain yields highly binary and complementary data on post-secondary education. Domains 6–8 cover three crucial domains outside and beyond education.

Responses in domains 5–8 are based on collected and reported data in the urban contexts of three cities per country or region (see Section 1.5 for details). Domain 5 explores language provision in a small sample of further (vocational) and higher (university) education institutions. Domain 6 focuses on languages in the audiovisual media and the press. Domain 7 concentrates on languages in public services and public spaces in terms of institutionalised language strategies, oral communication facilities and written communication facilities. The focus of domain 8, languages in business, is on company language strategies, internal communication strategies and external communication strategies. In each country/region a sample of 24 companies was aimed at.

## 1.5 Data collection and the three-cities approach

As stated above, responses in language domains 1–4 of the LRE survey are based on *official/secondary* data and reflect policies and common practices at the national or regional level. Domains 5–8, on the other hand, are based on the outcomes of *primary* data collection and data analysis. The collection of this *primary* data took place in three cities in each country or region prompted by the following considerations:

- multilingualism is most prevalent in urban settings as long-term residents and newcomers tend to congregate there in search of work
- cities reinforce national dynamics in responding to language diversity
- large further and higher education institutions are present in cities (domain 5)
- the international press, cinemas and television stations are concentrated in cities (domain 6)
- as a result, city administrators and urban planners need to create local policies on multilingualism (domain 7)
- the headquarters of many businesses are located in cities (domain 8).

The selection of cities was identical for countries 1–14 in Table 4. Here the focus was on the two cities with the largest population size plus one city where the regional/minority language with the highest status, vitality and/or number of speakers in the country is spoken. Countries 15–18 presented a challenge as they do not fit the above model.

Country 15, Bosnia and Herzegovina, has three national languages: Bosnian, Croatian and Serbian. The cities chosen for primary data collection were Sarajevo, where Bosnian is mainly used, Banja-Luka, where Serbian is mainly used, and Mostar, where Bosnian and Croatian are mainly used.

Country 16, Switzerland, comprises 26 cantons and has four official languages: German, French, Italian and Romansch. LRE research in all domains took place in three sample cantons: one German-speaking (Zurich), one French-speaking (Geneva), and one Italian-speaking (Ticino). The data for domains 2–4 has been aggregated for the tables presented in this publication, but for domains 5–8 are presented at city level.

Country 17, Spain, comprises 17 autonomous communities and two autonomous cities. LRE research has been conducted for domains 2–4 in three autonomous communities – Madrid, Sevilla, Valencia – and two ‘historic nationalities’ – Basque Country and Catalonia. Three profiles have been created: a combined profile for Madrid, Sevilla and Valencia and two separate profiles for Basque Country and Catalonia. Basque Country has two official languages: Basque and Spanish. Catalonia has three official languages: Catalan, Spanish and Aragonese.

Country 18, the UK, comprises four countries that have separate governments and education systems. For the education domains (2–4) data has been collected on policies and common practice in each country/region. For domains 5–8, the cities in Wales and Scotland were chosen on the basis of population size. In England, after London, the city of Sheffield was chosen for practical reasons. It has not yet been possible to research a further city, but it is hoped that this data will be available soon. In Northern Ireland it has so far only been possible to include Belfast in the survey.

The selection of the three cities and the proposed regional/minority (R/M) languages to focus on were decided upon in advance in co-operation with all participating national or regional teams on the basis of municipal statistics for the first two cities and regional/minority language/group statistics for the third city. Table 4 gives an overview of the cities surveyed per country (minus Germany: see page 28).

**Table 4:** Three-cities approach for all participating countries/regions

N	Type A Countries	Largest city	Second/Third largest city	Additional city	Dominant regional/minority language in additional city
1.	Austria	Vienna	Graz	Klagenfurt	Slovene
2.	Bulgaria	Sofia	Plovdiv	Shumen	Turkish
3.	Denmark	Copenhagen	Aarhus	Aabenraa	German
4.	Estonia	Tallinn	Tartu	Narva	Russian
5.	France	Paris	Marseille	Corte	Corsican
6.	Greece	Athens	Thessaloniki	Xanthi	Turkish
7.	Hungary	Budapest	Debrecen	Pécs	German
8.	Italy	Rome	Milan	Trieste	Slovene
9.	Lithuania	Vilnius	Kaunas	Klaipeda	Russian
10.	Netherlands	Amsterdam	Rotterdam	Leeuwarden*	Frisian
11.	Poland	Warsaw	Kraków	Gdańsk	Kashubian
12.	Portugal	Lisbon	Oporto	Miranda do Douro*	Mirandese
13.	Romania	Bucharest	Iași	Cluj	Hungarian
14.	Ukraine	Kyiv	Kharkiv	Lviv	Russian
	Type B Countries	Largest city	City in region 2	City in region 3	Official language(s)
15.	Bosnia and Herzegovina	Sarajevo	Banja-Luka	Mostar	Bosnian/Croatian/Serbian
16.	Switzerland	Zurich	Geneva	Lugano	German/French/Italian
17.	Spain: Madrid, Valencia, Sevilla Catalonia Basque Country	Madrid Barcelona Bilbao	Valencia Tarragona San Sebastian	Sevilla L'Hospitalet Vitoria-Gasteiz	Spanish Catalan Basque
18.	UK: England Wales Scotland Northern Ireland	London Cardiff Glasgow Belfast	Sheffield Swansea Edinburgh –	– Newport Aberdeen –	English Welsh/English Gaelic/Scots/English Irish/Ulster Scots/English

\*Absence of university leading to absence of university-based data

*National or regional profiles* are based on primary data collection for the 23+22+22=67 cities referred to in Table 4. As can be derived from Table 4, most dominant regional/minority languages in the chosen additional cities have the status of national language in adjacent countries. The focus of primary data collection for language domains 5–8 in each of the 24 participating countries/regions is summarised as follows:

- For language domain 5, the focus is on language provision in different types of adult education provided by the state. Two complementary sectors are addressed: language provision in vocational education for (young) adults aged 16 plus, and language provision in academic/university education.
- For language domain 6, the focus is on language provision in audiovisual media, including public radio and television broadcasting, the largest cinemas, and in the press at the largest train stations and city kiosks in the cities surveyed.

- For language domain 7, the focus is on language provision in public services and public spaces at city level, more particularly on institutionalised language strategies, oral communication facilities and written information facilities at city (council) level in the cities surveyed.
- For language domain 8, the focus is on four different business sectors – supermarkets, construction businesses, hotels and banks. Researchers were asked to collect samples distributed as evenly as possible across multinational/international (M/I), national (N), and regional or local (R/L) businesses. In practice, this ambition turned out to be difficult to realise across all countries/regions.

In Table 5, a summarising overview of language domains and targets for primary data collection per city (3x) is provided.

**Table 5:** Domains and targets for primary data collection per city

N	Language domain	Targets per city (3x)
5.	Languages in further and higher education	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Largest institution for vocational education and training (VET) with language provision</li> <li>- Largest public and general university</li> </ul>
6.	Languages in the media	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Language provision in radio and television programmes, at the cinema, as described in the best-selling newspaper in the largest city</li> <li>- Language provision in press at the largest train station and city kiosk</li> <li>- Use of subtitles or dubbing for films in languages other than the national language</li> <li>- Provision of sign language</li> </ul>
7.	Languages in public services and spaces	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Institutionalised language strategies, oral communication facilities and written information facilities at the central city level</li> </ul>
8.	Languages in business	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Small-/medium-sized and large multi-/international, national and regional/local supermarkets, building construction businesses, hotels and banks</li> </ul>

## 1.6 Research methodology

### *Different types of research*

Various research methodologies can be chosen to investigate language policies and practices in a given society. In line with their research interests, researchers can take a micro-sociolinguistic or a macro-sociolinguistic perspective to document relevant policies and practices (Fishman and Garcia 2010). If the research is limited to case studies with few informants, researchers mostly opt for ethnographic observation and discourse-analytic approaches. Linguistic ethnography (Heller 2007) is one common methodology to investigate how and in which language people interact with each other. Linguistic ethnographers try to understand how people make use of their available linguistic resources in interacting with other individuals.

However, ethnographic methods cannot always be optimal in the investigation of language policies and practices at the societal level. The main focus of the LRE project is on societal multilingualism and in particular on institutional policies and practices promoting (or limiting) multilingualism. The methodology adopted for the LRE project was therefore to gather *survey data* on common language policies and practices in a variety of language domains in given national or regional contexts across Europe.

The questionnaire for the survey was compiled by studying the main EU and CoE documents on language policies and practices described above and pulling out the key recommendations. However, given the fact that language policies and practices across Europe are a very complex phenomenon, it is not possible to identify all the relevant variables, operationalise them and turn them into measurable constructs.

### *Questionnaire construction*

In terms of questionnaire construction, the following prerequisites for constructing questions were followed:

- each question should yield rateable data
- rateable data should be weighted, leading to differentiation of reported policies and practices
- yes/no-questions where one of the answers would predictably lead to 100% scores should be avoided
- the questions should be robust enough for repeated measurement over time.

Most commonly, each question had three response options and researchers had to select the option which was the closest to reality in terms of common policy or practice in their country/region. Each choice was given a score. The highest score for each question corresponds to the policy or practice which is most closely aligned with EU/CoE recommendations. The cross-national results for each country/region are presented in Part 2 of this publication. An overview of all national and regional profiles is given in Part 3.

### *Validity*

From a validity perspective our concerns at the overall questionnaire level were the following:

#### **Internal validity**

- Is the LRE questionnaire sufficiently *comprehensive* in its conceptual construct and scope and therefore fit for its aims?
- Is the LRE questionnaire sufficiently *explicit and transparent* in its formulation?
- Is the LRE questionnaire sufficiently *practical* as a tool for data collection in terms of intelligibility and administrative workload?

#### **External validity**

- Is the LRE questionnaire *sufficiently valid* in its linkage to European benchmarks that guide its scoring?

### Cross-national comparability

- Is the LRE questionnaire *sufficiently fair* in representing the four key language varieties that are taken into account: national, foreign, regional/minority and immigrant languages?
- Is the LRE questionnaire based on *equal questions* across countries/regions?
- Is the LRE questionnaire based on *equal scoring* procedures across countries/regions?

We believe that the questionnaire, while still undoubtedly to be refined and developed by the established network and stakeholders, attempts to meet the criteria outlined above. It already constitutes a good set of draft indicators and an overall framework for supporting countries/regions in evaluating themselves against EU and CoE documents on language policies and practices, for awareness raising at both the public and the political macro-level of European, national and regional language policy makers, and for motivating key stakeholders across a variety of sectors, languages and countries to take action.

We also believe that our draft indicators will make it possible for users to situate their own policies in relation to those in other countries or regions and consequently to share information in a transparent way and to identify good practice. It is hoped that the indicators can also contribute to context-specific new policy initiatives. It should be noted that the draft indicators are *not* meant as an instrument for carrying out in-depth analyses of multilingual policies or practices at the micro-level. The outcomes of the research, however, may trigger highly relevant follow-up case studies that will yield complementary perspectives and data, derived from the indicators' macro-level perspectives.

### Complementary approaches

Not all of the domains covered in LRE lend themselves to the same research methodology, and so a complementary approach was adopted for language domains 1–8 (see Table 3). The part of the LRE questionnaire where official national or regional policies and documents exist is based on *official/secondary data* (language domains 1–4). This data was collected by our research partners, and where possible was cross-checked with the national ministries concerned. Where this data is absent (further and higher education, media, public services and spaces, business) the results are based on *self-collected/primary data* (language domains 5–8).

The primary data is not meant to be representative of any country/region, nor large enough for making generalisations, but is meant as a starting point for providing initial indicators of policies and practices on multilingualism and plurilingualism in domains which have been explored less in EC documents and covered less in research. Given the combined methodology adopted, it was decided neither to present overall scores per language domain, nor to provide one accumulative overall score or index per country/region.

Although, as stated above, the self-collected/primary database cannot be used for making generalisations, it certainly constitutes a valuable cross-national database for further research. We believe that the combination of secondary data analysis for language domains 1–4 and primary data collection/analysis for language domains 5–8 are innovative and pioneering elements in the project.

### Process

The following procedure summarises the steps we took to design and pilot the LRE questionnaire, and to collect and process the data:

- 2010 – Initial questions and scoring proposals for all multiple answer options were developed in co-operation between Tilburg University, the British Council and the Migration Policy Group in Brussels. The business domain was developed by CILT in London, using the ELAN survey (2006) as the starting point, and then further refined by the French research team. Advice for the public services and spaces domain was given by the Metropolitan Police languages team and other London public service providers.
- The draft version of the LRE questionnaire was pre-tested in three pilot studies in Poland, Spain and the region of Catalonia in early 2011. The pilot studies were aimed at testing the content and construct validity of the LRE questionnaire by taking into account variation in language policies and practices both *between* and *within* countries.
- On the basis of the pilot outcomes, the LRE questionnaire, a Field Manual for researchers, and the scoring procedures were further adapted and then scrutinised by the LRE Steering Group and external experts. The final LRE questionnaire was sent out in autumn 2011 to all national and regional teams for data collection.
- Different versions of the questionnaire were created for Bosnia and Herzegovina, Spain, Switzerland and the UK (see Table 4).
- Researchers were sent a detailed Field Manual explaining the background to the project, and how data collection was to be conducted. In addition, there was a two-day face-to-face meeting to discuss the methodology, and email exchanges and phone calls took place with each research team.
- Once the national and regional teams had provided all answers to all questions, all the data obtained was peer-reviewed independently to ensure a double-checked and consistent interpretation.
- Subsequently, all peer-reviewed data was processed, analysed and reviewed by the LRE team at Tilburg University.
- Through the process, it became clear that some questions had been interpreted differently by different researchers, while others had not been fully understood. The process of clarifying these, standardising responses, and agreeing final interpretations was completed in early 2012. It was decided that some questions would not be scored due to unfeasibility of gathering the data. Data for questions on book collections in languages other than the national language in public libraries and bookshops proved impossible to collect in some countries. Questions on the languages required for undergraduate and postgraduate studies proved ambiguous, and have not been scored.
- The results for each country/region were sent back to all researchers and a further opportunity for feedback was given. The results were presented initially at the whole domain level, but subsequently it has been decided to present them at the more detailed question level in order to capture countries/regions policies and practices in more detail.

## Outcomes

The results presented in this book are based on this first comprehensive cross-national survey on policies and practices for multilingualism and plurilingualism in Europe and result from double-checked peer-reviewed expert reports on a range of 260 questions in total. Not all questions have delivered outcomes that could be processed and analysed in predicted ways. This holds for example for some of our questions on languages in the media.

The national and regional profiles presented in Part 3 of this study are the outcomes of the process described above, as are the cross-national and cross-sectional perspectives presented in Part 2. For each country/region, the description is based on a *qualitative and quantitative profile* in terms of text and tables which relate back directly to the questions asked in the LRE questionnaire, accompanied by *commentaries* in which researchers in each country/region explain the results, put them into context, pick out the key findings and highlight interesting new initiatives and good practice. Our ambition has been to provide a contextualised balance and interplay between the two types of information.

Inevitably it is not possible to include all possible variables in such a piece of research. Nonetheless, we feel that while there may be some gaps, we have covered a lot of ground and captured many issues at the macro-level of language policies and practices. It should be noted that within the chosen domains of education, the focus of the LRE survey is on language provision, not on language demands in terms of actual student participation, nor on language proficiency in terms of actual language achievement. The latter two ambitions were beyond the scope of this first round of data collection.

There are two appendices to this publication. The first appendix offers the LRE questionnaire in Version A and is to be found on the LRE website. Version B is an adapted version of A that was used in those countries in our LRE sample where there is more than one national language, such as Bosnia and Herzegovina and Switzerland. The second appendix is a Glossary which offers definitions of the most important terms used in this publication. Throughout all three parts, all references to languages are based on a careful scrutinising of the website *Ethnologue: Languages of the World*, a most valuable and widely used standard source of information on this topic.

## PART 2

# Cross-national analysis of the Language Rich Europe results

*Kutlay Yağmur, Guus Extra and Marlies Swinkels*

## Introduction

In Part 2, cross-national perspectives are offered on the degree to which national/regional language policies and practices in the 24 participating countries/regions align with European benchmarks. Across eight language domains including one meta-domain, cross-national tables are presented to show the results for education, public services and spaces, media and business. Cross-sectional data from different domains is also presented so that the reader can gain a better understanding of the spread and distribution of languages in the European context.

In Section 2.1, reported information on languages in official documents and databases across our participating countries/regions is presented. In Section 2.2, the focus is on languages in pre-primary education in terms of national, foreign, regional/minority (R/M) and immigrant language provision. Section 2.3 presents comparative perspectives on languages in primary education under the headings of organisation and teachers, again covering the four language types. The same is done for secondary education in Section 2.4. Section 2.5 offers three types of data on (pre-) primary and secondary education from a cross-sectional perspective. Section 2.6 focuses on languages in further and higher education. Section 2.7 presents the reported outcomes of our research on languages in audiovisual media and press, while Section 2.8 concentrates on languages in public services and spaces. Section 2.9 presents comparative perspectives on languages in business in all participating countries/regions. Section 2.10 provides cross-sectional perspectives on the distribution of languages in the domains of press, public services and spaces, and business together. The key findings and conclusions derived from all the above sections are presented at the beginning of the book, as is common practice in European Union (EU) research projects.

Germany is a federal and highly decentralised state, in particular in the domains of education and socio-cultural welfare. It has been unfeasible to collect Language Rich Europe (LRE) data for Germany in a consistent way, given its strong diversity and divergence between language policies and practices, both within and between each of the three *Bundesländer* and each of the three cities focused upon. In the chosen language domains of the LRE project, language policies and practices are the responsibility of the regional or local level of municipalities or even schools. Given these autonomies, it is virtually impossible to report on 'common' policies and practices in the German context. For these reasons, the data for Germany has not been incorporated into our cross-national analysis in Part 2 of this study.

## 2.1 Languages in official documents and databases

In the first part of the LRE survey we examined whether official documents and databases on languages were present in the countries/regions surveyed. We believe that the existence of official documents supporting language diversity, and the construction of databases mapping languages spoken, will strengthen awareness of multilingualism in any national or regional context and will also lead to better education policies. On the basis of our LRE data, and also by consulting the Council of Europe's (CoE) official record, the European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages (ECRML), we were able to map policies and reported practices in this area.

Table 1 provides the answers to two major questions on language legislation and official language policy documents in all 24 countries/regions surveyed, according to our researchers' reports. Legislation on national and regional/minority (R/M) languages is provided in almost all countries/regions, on foreign languages in 14 countries/regions, and on immigrant languages in only five countries/regions. Official language policy documents on national and foreign languages are available in almost all countries/regions, on R/M languages in 19 countries/regions and on immigrant languages in only four countries/regions.

**Table 1:** Language legislation and official language policy documents in 24 countries/regions surveyed

Country/Region	Is there national or regional/federal legislation which contains articles on language(s)?				Do official language policy documents exist aimed at promoting language learning and teaching in your country or region?			
	National	Foreign	Regional/Minority	Immigrant	National	Foreign	Regional/Minority	Immigrant
Austria	√		√		√		√	
Basque Country	√		√		√	√	√	
Bosnia and Herzegovina	√		√		√	√	√	
Bulgaria	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	
Catalonia	√		√		√	√	√	√
Denmark	√	√	√	√	√			
England			√		√	√	√	
Estonia	√	√		√	√	√		
France	√	√	√		√	√	√	√
Friesland	√	√	√		√	√	√	
Greece	√				√	√		
Hungary	√	√	√		√	√	√	
Italy			√		√	√	√	
Lithuania	√	√	√		√	√	√	
Netherlands	√	√	√		√	√	√	
Northern Ireland	√	√	√		√	√	√	
Poland	√		√					
Portugal	√		√		√	√		
Romania	√	√	√		√	√	√	
Scotland	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	
Spain	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
Switzerland	√		√		√	√	√	√
Ukraine	√	√	√		√	√	√	
Wales	√	√	√		√	√	√	



As mentioned in Section 1.1, one of the key documents supporting linguistic diversity in Europe is the CoE's *European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages* (ECRML). The Charter is a convention designed on the one hand to protect and promote R/M languages as a threatened aspect of Europe's cultural heritage, and on the other hand to enable speakers of a R/M language to use it in private and public life. First and foremost, the Charter sets out the main objectives and principles that states undertake to apply to all R/M languages existing within their national territory. Secondly, the Charter contains a series of concrete measures designed to facilitate and encourage the use of specific R/M languages in public life. Within its scope are the languages traditionally used within a state's territory, but it does not cover those connected with recent migratory movements or dialects of the official language. It is intended to ensure, as far as is reasonably possible, that R/M

languages are used in education and in the media, to permit and encourage their use in legal and administrative contexts, in economic and social life, for cultural activities and in transfrontier exchanges.

The Charter has been ratified by parliament in 11 out of the 18 countries surveyed, and signed by government in France and Italy. In Bulgaria, Estonia, Greece, Lithuania and Portugal, it has neither been ratified nor signed. One reason for non-ratification is that in some countries ratification would be in conflict with the national constitution. Table 2 shows which languages are recognised, protected and/or promoted in each country in terms of national country documents only or in terms of both national documents and the ECRML. For more detail, we refer to the CoE website on the Charter which is updated continuously.

**Table 2: Official recognition, protection and/or promotion of R/M languages in 18 countries**

**IN CAPITALS: BY OFFICIAL COUNTRY DOCUMENTS ONLY**

*In italics: by official country documents as well as by the ECRML*

Country	R/M languages recognised, protected and/or promoted by official country documents/ legislation or in the ECRML
Austria	<i>Croatian (in Burgenland), Czech (in Vienna), Hungarian (in Burgenland and Vienna), Romani (in Burgenland), Slovak (in Vienna), Slovene (in Carinthia and Styria)</i>
Bosnia and Herzegovina	<i>Albanian, Czech, German, Hungarian, Italian, Jewish languages (Yiddish language and Ladino language), Macedonian, Montenegrin, Polish, ROMANI, Rusyn, Serbo-Croatian, Slovak, Slovene, Turkish, Ukrainian</i>
Bulgaria	ARMENIAN, HEBREW, ROMANI, TURKISH
Denmark	<i>German (ESKIMO-ALEUT AND FAROESE PROTECTED BY THE LAWS ON HOME RULE)</i>
Estonia	THE NEW LAW OF LANGUAGES (2011) CONSIDERS IT IMPORTANT TO PROTECT ALL ESTONIAN REGIONAL LANGUAGES
France	BASQUE, BRETON, CATALAN, CORSICAN, GERMAN DIALECTS IN THE ALSACE AND MOSELLE REGIONS (ALSACIEN AND MOSELLAN), WESTERN FLEMISH, FRANCO-PROVENÇAL, LANGUE D'OÏL ('LANGUAGES OF THE NORTH': FRANCCOMTOIS, WALLON, CHAMPENOIS, PICARD, NORMAND, GALLO, POITEVIN-SAINTONGEAIS, LORRAIN, BOURGUIGNON-MORVANDIAU), OCCITAN ('LANGUAGES OF THE SOUTH': GASCON, LANGUEDOCIEN, PROVENÇAL, AUVERGNAT, LIMOUSIN, VIVARO-ALPIN), PARLERS LIGURIENS (FROM THE VALLEY OF ROYA IN THE ALPES-MARITIMES AND BONIFACIO IN CORSICA). IN ADDITION THE 41 LANGUAGES FROM OVERSEAS TERRITORIES INCLUDED IN THE OFFICIAL LIST OF THE LANGUES DE FRANCE, AND THE NON-TERRITORIAL LANGUAGES SPOKEN BY IMMIGRANT POPULATIONS: DIALECTAL ARABIC, OCCIDENTAL ARMENIAN, BERBER, JUDEO-SPANISH AND ROMANI.
Greece	Promoted, but no languages specified
Hungary	<i>Armenian, Bulgarian, Greek, Polish, Rusyn, Ukrainian, Croatian, German, Romani, Boyash, Romanian, Serbian, Slovak, Slovene</i>
Italy	ALBANIAN, CATALAN, CROATIAN, FRANCO-PROVENÇAL, FRENCH, FRIULAN, GERMAN, GREEK, LADIN, OCCITAN, SARDINIAN, SLOVENE
Lithuania	BELARUSAN, HEBREW, POLISH, RUSSIAN
Netherlands	<i>Limburgish, Low Saxon, Romani, Yiddish: protected and recognised. Frisian: promoted</i>
Poland	<i>Armenian, Belarusan, Czech, German, Hebrew, Karaim, Kashubian, Lemko, Lithuanian, Romani, Russian, Slovak, Tatar, Ukrainian, Yiddish</i>
Portugal	MIRANDESE
Romania	<i>Albanian, Armenian, Bulgarian, Croatian, Czech, German, Greek, Hungarian, Italian, Macedonian, Polish, Romani, Russian, Rusyn, Serbian, Slovak, Tatar, Turkish, Ukrainian, Yiddish</i>
Spain	<i>Basque, Catalan, Galician, Valencian, Arabic, Aranese Occital, Asturian/Bable, Berber languages, Caló, Fable Aragonese, Portuguese, Romani</i>
Switzerland	<i>Italian at the federal level and in the cantons of Grisons and Ticino, Romansch, French in the canton of Berne, German in Bosco-Gurin and Ederswiler and the cantons of Fribourg and Valias, Walser, Yenish, Yiddish</i>
UK	<i>Cornish in England, Irish and Ulster-Scots in Northern Ireland, Gaelic and Scots in Scotland, Welsh in Wales</i>
Ukraine	<i>Belarusan, Bulgarian, Crimean Tatar, Gagauz, German, Greek, Hungarian, Moldovan, Polish, Romanian, Russian, Slovak, Yiddish</i>

Recognition and/or protection of languages by the ECRML does not necessarily imply promotion of languages in education. Table 3 shows the languages officially provided by each country in national or regionwide education, either according to official national documents or the ECRML.

**Table 3:** R/M languages officially provided in nation- or regionwide education in 18 countries  
**IN CAPITALS:** EDUCATIONAL PROVISION MENTIONED BY OFFICIAL COUNTRY DOCUMENTS ONLY  
*In italics:* educational provision mentioned by official country documents as well as by ECRML

Country	R/M languages officially taught in nation- or regionwide education	N Total
Austria	<i>Burgenland: Croatian, Hungarian, Romani; Slovene in Carinthia</i>	4
Bosnia and Herzegovina	<i>Albanian, Czech, German, Hungarian, Italian, Jewish languages (Yiddish and Ladino), Macedonian, Montenegrin, Polish, Romani, Romanian, Rusyn, Slovak, Slovene, Turkish, Ukrainian</i>	17
Bulgaria	ARMENIAN, HEBREW, ROMANI, TURKISH	4
Denmark	<i>German</i>	1
Estonia	VÕRU LANGUAGE	1
France	BRETON, BASQUE, CATALAN, CORSICAN, CREOLE, FRENCH SIGN LANGUAGE, GALLO, OCCITAN, REGIONAL LANGUAGES OF ALSACE, REGIONAL LANGUAGES OF THE MOSELLE DEPARTMENT. TAHITIAN AND MELANESIAN LANGUAGES (AJIE, DREHU, MENGONE, PAICI) are offered in France Overseas.	10 + 5
Greece	–	–
Hungary	<i>Croatian, German, ROMANI, BOYASH, Romanian, Serbian, Slovak, Slovene</i>	8
Italy	ALBANIAN, CATALAN, CROATIAN, FRANCO-PROVENÇAL, FRENCH, FRIULAN, GERMAN, GREEK, LADIN, OCCITAN, SARDINIAN, SLOVENE	12
Lithuania	BELARUSAN, HEBREW, POLISH, RUSSIAN	4
Netherlands	<i>Frisian in Friesland only</i>	1
Poland	<i>Armenian, Belarusan, German, Hebrew, Kashubian, Lemko, Lithuanian, Russian, Slovak, Ukrainian, Czech, Karaim, Romani, Tatar, Yiddish</i>	15
Portugal	MIRANDESE in the region of Miranda do Douro	1
Romania	<i>Bulgarian, Croatian, Czech, German, Greek, Hungarian, Italian, Polish, Romani, Russian, Serbian, Slovak, Tartar, Turkish, Ukrainian</i>	15
Spain	<i>Aranese-Occital, Basque, Catalan, Galician, Valencian</i>	4
Switzerland	<i>Italian, Romansch</i>	2
UK	<i>Cornish, Irish, Gaelic, Welsh</i>	4
Ukraine	<i>Belarusan, Bulgarian, Crimean Tatar, Gagauz, German, Greek, Hungarian, Moldovan, Polish, Romanian, Russian, Slovak, Yiddish</i>	13

As can be seen from Table 3, there is significant variation in the number of languages officially provided in education. In general, the largest numbers of officially provided R/M languages in education emerge in South-Eastern and Central European countries. In Western Europe, Italy and France are the clearest exceptions to this general rule. The concepts of 'regional' or 'minority' languages are not specified in the ECRML but immigrant languages are explicitly excluded from the Charter (Extra and Gorter 2008: 31). In Western European countries, immigrant languages often have a more prominent appearance than R/M languages but are less recognised, protected and/or promoted. Greece is the only participating LRE country in which no specific R/M language is officially recognised or taught, although Turkish is actually provided for Turkish-speaking children at primary schools in the region of Thrace. Not all languages officially provided according to documents are actually offered in schools, and information on the languages actually taught at the time of data collection and according to our researchers' reports is presented in Sections 2.3–2.5.

Both in Europe and beyond, there is variation in the types of databases for the definition and identification of population groups in multicultural societies. These databases may include language data derived from a variety of single or multiple language questions. In the European context, Poulain (2008) makes a distinction between nationwide censuses, administrative registers, and statistical surveys. Censuses take place at fixed intervals (commonly five or ten years) and result in nationwide databases. Administrative registers are commonly built up at both the municipal and the central level, and they are commonly updated every year or even on a monthly basis (the latter, for example, in the Netherlands). Statistical surveys may be carried out at regular intervals among particular subsets of population groups. All three types of data collection may take place in various combinations. Table 4 gives an overview of policies and practices in our 24 participating countries/regions.

**Table 4:** Official nation-/regionwide data collection mechanisms on national languages, R/M languages and immigrant languages

Country/region	Official nation-/regionwide data collection mechanisms on national languages, R/M languages and immigrant languages
Austria	–
Basque Country	Census data and survey data on national and R/M languages
Bosnia and Herzegovina	–
Bulgaria	Census data on national, R/M and immigrant languages
Catalonia	Municipal register data, census data, and survey data on national and R/M languages
Denmark	–
England	Municipal register data, census data, and survey data on national, R/M and immigrant languages
Estonia	Census data on national, R/M and immigrant languages
France	Census data and survey data on national, R/M and immigrant languages
Friesland	Survey data on national and R/M languages
Greece	–
Hungary	Census data on national and R/M languages
Italy	Survey data on national and R/M languages
Lithuania	Census data on national, R/M and immigrant languages
Netherlands	–
Northern Ireland	Census data on national, R/M and immigrant languages
Poland	Census data on national, R/M and immigrant languages
Portugal	Census data on the national language only
Romania	Census data on national, R/M and immigrant languages
Scotland	Census data on national, R/M and immigrant languages
Spain	Census data and survey data on national, R/M and immigrant languages
Switzerland	Municipal register data and survey data on national, R/M and immigrant languages
Ukraine	Census data and survey data on national and R/M languages
Wales	Census data and survey data on national, R/M and immigrant languages

From Table 4 we can see that most countries/regions are familiar with language data collection mechanisms and most of them address three types of languages: national languages, R/M languages and immigrant languages. Five out of 24 countries/regions have no language data mechanisms at all: Austria, Bosnia and Herzegovina (in spite of its many R/M languages in education as referred to in Table 2), Denmark, Greece and the Netherlands. Portugal only collects data on the national language.

Table 5 shows the major language question(s) asked in large-scale or nationwide population research. There is variation in the major language question(s) asked. Extra (2010) goes into the validity of nationwide or large-scale questions on mother tongue, main language spoken and home language. Derived from international experience, in particular in the non-European English-dominant contexts of Australia, Canada and the USA, he argues that the mother tongue question has the lowest empirical validity and the home language question has the highest (see

Glossary on *mother tongue* or *native language*). Europe seems to agree with this, and over half of the countries/regions surveyed ask the home language question. The language questions asked in Switzerland are most remarkable, in particular the first one on main language in terms of: *Which language do you think in and know best?* One final remark should be made: additional questions on language skills are asked in only 11 out of all 24 countries/regions, that is in *yes/no* terms of *Can you...?* and/or in scaled terms of *How well can/do you....?*

In conclusion, the availability of official databases and data collection mechanisms shows strong variation across European countries/regions. Taken from a European perspective, there is room for further development and knowledge exchange in this domain in order to raise further awareness of multilingualism, to provide evidence-based data for language planning and education provision, and to carry out comparative European research.

**Table 5:** Language questions in official data collection mechanisms in 24 countries/regions

Country/region	Major language question(s) asked	Question(s) asked on language skills (X) speaking/understanding/reading/writing
Austria	Home language	–
Basque Country	Home language + Main language + Mother tongue	Can you X? How well can you X?
Bosnia and Herzegovina	–	–
Bulgaria	Mother tongue	–
Catalonia	Home language + Main language + Mother tongue	Can you X? How well can you X?
Denmark	–	–
England	Home language + Main language	Can you X? How well can you X?
Estonia	Mother tongue	How well can you X?
France	Home language	Can you X?
Friesland	Home language	Can you X? How well can you X?
Greece	–	–
Hungary	Home language + Mother tongue	Can you X?
Italy	Home language	–
Lithuania	Mother tongue	–
Netherlands	–	–
Northern Ireland	Main language	Can you X? How well can you X?
Poland	Home language	–
Portugal	Mother tongue	–
Romania	Mother tongue	–
Scotland	Home language + Main language	Can you X?
Spain (Madrid, Valencia, Seville)	Home language	Can you X? How well can you X?
Switzerland	Main language + Home language + Language at school/work	–
Ukraine	Mother tongue	–
Wales	Home language + Main language	Can you X? How well can you X?

## 2.2 Languages in pre-primary education

Many EU and CoE documents referred to in Section 1.1 underline the importance of early language learning, and we have therefore included a section on languages in pre-primary education in our survey. The *EU Council Resolution* of 1997 advocates the early teaching of European Union languages, and both the 2002 and 2008 *EU Council Conclusions* continue to emphasise the promotion of multilingualism from the earliest age. The European Commission (EC) *Green Paper on Migration and Mobility* (2009) emphasises the critical importance of children from an immigration background learning the host language as early as possible while retaining the heritage language and culture of the country of origin.

The CoE is also clear with regard to children from a migrant background, and recommends that to facilitate their integration Member States should provide them with adequate national language skills at pre-school level (*Recommendation CM/Rec(2008)4 on strengthening the integration of children of migrants and of immigrant background*).

*The Guide for the development and implementation of curricula for plurilingual and intercultural education* (Beacco et al. 2010: 45) provides a good summary of what is required:

*As spaces for discovery and socialisation, pre-primary schools represent a basic stage in plurilingual and intercultural education, particularly for children from underprivileged and migrant backgrounds, whose language practices at home may conflict with the varieties and norms selected and fostered by schools. To that extent, and since the issue here is the right to quality language (and general) education, one of the first desiderata is that schooling of this kind for very young children be guaranteed and provided in optimum conditions for all the groups concerned – both permanently resident natives and recently arrived immigrant families.*

From the perspective of R/M languages, the ECRML (1992) refers to the importance of pre-school education in R/M languages: 'Member States should make pre-school education available in the relevant R/M languages for at least the families that request it.' (Part III, Article 8 – Education, Paragraph 1).

The most recent publication on early language learning (ELL) is the 2011 EC policy handbook entitled *Language Learning at pre-primary level: making it efficient and sustainable*. The handbook was produced by a group of 28 national experts and outlines the strengths and weaknesses in ELL in each country as well as profiling examples of good practice.

This section will provide an insight into early language learning in pre-primary institutions across the countries/regions participating in our survey. It should be pointed out that pre-primary state education is not provided in all of them. In our analysis we aim to highlight the countries/regions that are most closely aligned with EU recommendations in order to raise awareness and provide opportunities for knowledge exchange. We will also pinpoint the challenges raised by our research for pre-school language education.

### *Additional support for national languages in pre-primary education*

We asked our researchers questions about the level of additional support in the national language at pre-primary level, focusing on:

- the target groups for such support
- the number of years for which it is offered
- the number of days per week offered
- group size requirements for forming a class
- sources of funding.

Fifteen of the 24 countries/regions surveyed provide *additional* support at pre-primary level in the national language. These are Austria, Basque Country, Bulgaria, Denmark, England, Friesland, Lithuania, the Netherlands, Northern Ireland, Romania, Scotland, Spain, Switzerland, Ukraine and Wales. The results for these countries/regions are shown in Table 6.

**Table 6:** Additional support for the national language in pre-primary education in 15 countries/regions

Criteria	Replies	N	Replies	N	Replies	N
<b>Target groups</b>	all	14	immigrant children only	1	no support	0
<b>Duration of support</b>	≥2 years	10	1 year	5	<1 year	0
<b>Days per week</b>	<1 day	3	0.5–1 day	10	<0.5 day	2
<b>Group size requirements</b>	none	13	5–10	2	>10	0
<b>State funding available</b>	full	14	partial	1	none	0

Additional support in the national language in pre-primary education is provided for all children in 14 of the 15 countries/regions, with Switzerland providing it for immigrant children only. The three countries/regions which devote the most time to additional national language support per week are the Netherlands, Friesland and Ukraine. Ten of the countries/regions surveyed offer two or more years' support, while five – Bulgaria, Denmark, the Netherlands, Scotland and Switzerland – offer one year. In 14 countries/regions this support is offered by the state, while in Switzerland parents/guardians pay part of the cost.

### *Foreign language provision in pre-primary education*

For foreign language provision in pre-primary schools we asked our researchers about:

- which languages are taught
- the amount of time devoted to foreign language training per week
- the number of years taught
- group size requirements
- sources of funding.

It should be noted that the research did not explore foreign language teaching in the private sector, where it may be offered more widely. Overall, seven of the 24 countries report that foreign language teaching is offered in state pre-school institutions, and the results are set out in Table 7.

**Table 7:** Foreign language provision in pre-primary education in seven countries/regions (C/R)

Criteria	Replies	N	Replies	N	Replies	N
<b>Target groups</b>	all	7	restricted	0	no support	0
<b>Duration</b>	≥2 years	6	1 year	0	<1 year	1
<b>Days per week</b>	>1 day	1	0.5–1 day	6	<0.5 day	0
<b>Group size requirements</b>	none	6	5–10	0	>10	1
<b>State funding available</b>	full	2	partial	3	none	2

The seven countries/regions offering foreign languages at this level are Bosnia and Herzegovina, Basque Country, Bulgaria, Catalonia, Estonia, Spain and Ukraine. Basque Country offers more than one day of foreign languages per week, and the other countries/regions offer between half a day and one day. The languages offered by each country/region are shown in Table 8. Bulgaria offers the widest choice, although the courses are funded by parents/guardians. English, French and German are the most common languages on offer.

**Table 8:** Foreign language provision in pre-primary education in seven countries/regions

Country/region	Foreign languages offered
Bosnia and Herzegovina	English, French, German
Basque Country	English
Bulgaria	English, French, German, Italian, Russian, Spanish
Catalonia	English
Estonia	English, German, French, Russian
Spain (Madrid, Valencia, Sevilla)	English in the Communities of Madrid and Valencia English, French and German in Sevilla
Ukraine	English, French, German

The overall conclusion we can draw from this overview is that further development and national/institutional support is needed in some countries/regions to enable foreign languages to take root at an earlier age. However, the EC 2011 report and policy handbook on early language learning suggest that a lot more activity is going on than we are able to reflect here, and should be consulted for a more in-depth analysis.

### *R/M language provision in pre-primary education*

For R/M languages we asked our researchers the same set of questions as for foreign languages and the responses are set out in Table 9, with 17 countries/regions reporting provision.

**Table 9:** R/M language provision in pre-primary education in 17 countries/regions

Criteria	Replies	N	Replies	N	Replies	N
<b>Target groups</b>	all	14	native speakers only	1	no support	2
<b>Duration</b>	≥2 years	15	1 year	2	<1 year	0
<b>Days per week</b>	>1 day	12	0.5–1 day	3	<0.5 day	2
<b>Group size requirements</b>	none	13	5–10	2	>10	2
<b>State funding available</b>	full	15	partial	2	none	0

As can be seen from the table, 15 of the 17 countries/regions offer R/M languages for more than two years, and 13 have no group size requirements. In Northern Ireland and Ukraine, a minimum of ten children is required to form a class, and in Denmark and Hungary a minimum of five is required. In 15 of the countries/regions the courses are funded by the state, with Catalonia and England reporting that parents/guardians pay part of the costs. The countries where R/M languages are not offered in pre-primary education are Bosnia and Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Estonia, France, Greece, Poland and Switzerland.

Table 10 provides an overview of the languages reported to be offered in the 17 countries/regions where they are taught in state pre-school institutions.

Provision is widespread in a variety of R/M languages according to our researchers' reports, with Austria, Hungary, Italy and Romania offering the widest range.

**Table 10:** R/M language provision in pre-primary education in 17 countries/regions

Country/region	R/M languages offered
Austria	Croatian in Burgenland, Czech, Hungarian, Italian in Tyrol, Slovak, Slovene
Basque Country	Basque
Catalonia	Catalan everywhere, Aranese Occitan in Val d'Aran
Denmark	German
England	Cornish in Cornwall
Friesland	Frisian
Hungary	Bulgarian, Croatian, German, Greek, Romani/Boyash, Romanian, Rusyn, Serbian, Slovak, Slovene
Italy	Albanian, Croatian, Franco-Provencal, French, Friulian, German, Greek, Ladin, Occitan, Sardinian, Slovene
Lithuania	Belarusan, Hebrew, Polish, Russian
Netherlands	Frisian in Friesland
Northern Ireland	Irish
Portugal	Mirandese
Romania	Bulgarian, Croatian, Czech, German, Greek, Hungarian, Polish, Serbian, Slovak, Turkish, Ukrainian
Scotland	Gaelic
Spain (Madrid, Valencia, Sevilla)	Valencian in Valencia
Ukraine	Crimean Tatar, German, Hungarian, Moldovan, Polish, Romanian, Russian
Wales	Welsh



### Immigrant language provision in pre-primary education

On the basis of our LRE data, it appears that provision in immigrant languages in pre-primary education is not yet very common. However, in spite of the difficulties involved in identifying appropriate teachers and learning materials, three countries do offer immigrant language support to very young children, namely Denmark, Spain and Switzerland. The canton Zurich has a remarkable offer of no less than 17 languages. There is no provision in any of the other countries/regions. The languages offered are set out in Table 11.

**Table 11: Immigrant languages provision in pre-primary education in three countries/regions**

Country/region	Languages offered
Denmark	Albanian, Arabic, Bosnian, Icelandic, Somali, Tamil, Turkish, Urdu/Panjabi
Spain (Madrid, Valencia, Sevilla)	(Moroccan) Arabic, Portuguese, Romanian
Switzerland Canton Zurich	Albanian, Arabic, Bosnian, Bulgarian, Chinese, Croatian, Finnish, French, Greek, Hungarian, Italian, Korean, Portuguese, Russian, Slovene, Spanish (Latin American), Turkish
Switzerland Canton Geneva	Albanian, Arabic, Italian, Portuguese, Spanish (Latin American), Turkish

In order to promote linguistic integration of immigrant children, language support programmes are provided in their home language in pre-schools in Switzerland. In line with the *Strategic Plan for Citizenship and Integration 2007–2010* in Spain, a number of immigrant languages are offered in pre-schools for the maintenance and development of languages and cultures of origin. In Denmark, national, regional or local funds cover all costs for these programmes, while in Spain and Switzerland source-country related funds cover the costs through bilateral agreements.

## 2.3 Languages in primary education

*EU Council Conclusions* (2002) underlined the importance of taking measures to offer pupils the opportunity to learn two or, where appropriate, more languages in addition to their mother tongues from an early age, and to ensure that the supply of languages is as diverse as possible. They also emphasised the importance of ensuring that language programmes generate a positive attitude towards other cultures.

The integration of non-native speakers was to be addressed through measures to improve their knowledge of the national language(s) of instruction, while respecting the languages and cultures of their country of origin. Teacher training and teacher mobility were also highlighted, as was the degree of competence in language knowledge based on the *Common European Framework of Reference* (CEFR) for languages developed by the CoE. The *EU Council Conclusions* (2008) reasserted the same messages, adding a lifelong learning perspective and the

updating of language skills for all through formal, informal and non-formal means. Once more the conclusions called for a broader selection of languages taught and learner assessment based on recognised tools. The value of teacher training and teacher exchanges was underlined, and the need to support the teaching of subjects through other languages (CLIL) was recommended for the first time. The *EU Council Conclusions* (2011) again highlight the importance of quality language teaching, performance evaluation, teacher training and mobility, CLIL, broadening the range of languages, reinforcement of the teaching of the national language, as well as considering options for immigrant children to maintain and develop their languages of origin.

The CoE also strongly supports linguistic diversity and intercultural education in primary education and provides concrete policy and classroom tools. The ECRML emphasises the need to provide teaching in and of the appropriate R/M language when requested by parents and without prejudice to the teaching of the national language. The CEFR provides a common basis for language syllabuses, curriculum guidelines, examinations and textbooks across Europe, and enhances the transparency of courses, syllabuses and qualifications, thus promoting international co-operation in the field of modern languages. *Recommendation 98 (6)* urged Member States to put in place education policies that promote widespread plurilingualism and to encourage the use of foreign languages in the teaching of non-linguistic subjects. Like the EU, the CoE also encouraged the development of links and exchanges with institutions and persons at all levels of education in other countries. With regard to the place of the home language in the curriculum, the *CoE Recommendation 1740 (2006)* underlines the desirability of encouraging young Europeans to learn their mother tongue (or main language) when this is not an official language of their country. At the same time, every young European has a duty to learn the official language/s of the country of which s/he is a citizen. The CoE Recommendation goes on to say that bilingual education is the basis for success and that bilingualism and plurilingualism are assets.

Given the linguistic diversity of children in many European schools, it is not always easy to arrange for language tuition for them in their home language. Nevertheless, as pointed out by Extra and Yağmur (2004: 99–105), it has proved possible to do this in certain contexts. The pioneering and widely-known policies and practices in the *Victorian School of Languages* (VSL) in Melbourne, Australia constitute an excellent ‘good practice’ that can be adopted in the European context as well. A breakthrough with respect to *directionality and provision* of additional language learning is the main landmark of the VSL: additional language learning next to English as first or second language is offered to (and requested by) *all* pupils in Victorian primary and secondary schools, including those who speak English as a first language, and provision is offered currently for more than 60 *languages of personal adoption* through government mainstream schools and so-called ‘after-hours ethnic schools’, depending on demand.

In the LRE survey we asked questions based on the above recommendations and guidelines across national, R/M, foreign and immigrant languages.

### Support for the national language in primary education

Table 12 presents an overview of the organisation of national language support in primary schools. Researchers were asked about:

- the extent to which there is a coherent and explicit curriculum
- the degree of language support for newcomers
- diagnostic testing on entry for newcomers
- monitoring of language skills.

**Table 12:** National language support in primary education in 24 countries/regions

Criteria	Replies	N	Replies	N	Replies	N
<b>Curriculum</b>	coherent and explicit	19	general	5	no guidelines	0
<b>Extra support for newcomers</b>	before mainstream	22	during mainstream	0	absent	2
<b>Diagnostic testing on entry</b>	all	8	for immigrant children only	7	absent	9
<b>Monitoring of language skills</b>	national standardised	16	school-based	8	absent	0

According to our researchers' reports, 19 countries/regions have a coherent and explicit national language curriculum in primary schools, while in five countries/regions it is expressed in general terms. Apart from Italy and Ukraine, all countries/regions offer extra support for newcomers in learning the national language. Diagnostic testing is an area where there are different approaches, and this may require further attention by policy makers. Eight countries/regions – Austria, Bulgaria, Denmark, England, Lithuania, Northern Ireland, Scotland and Wales – use diagnostic language testing for all children at the start of primary education, seven test only immigrant children, and nine countries/regions report no diagnostic testing on entry. Regular monitoring of language skills is another area where policies differ, with 16 countries/regions using national level tests, and eight working at school level. Overall, Bulgaria, Denmark, Lithuania and Scotland were the countries/regions which fully aligned with the above LRE criteria for national language support, while Italy, Poland and Ukraine were less aligned.

### Foreign language learning in primary education

For foreign languages, we asked our researchers about:

- target groups
- the number of compulsory foreign languages
- the extent to which there is a coherent and explicit curriculum
- the spread of CLIL
- when foreign language education starts
- scheduling during or after the school day
- minimum group size requirements
- monitoring of language skills
- the level to be achieved and alignment with CEFR
- whether state funding is available.

Twenty-three out of the 24 countries/regions offer foreign languages in primary education, with Wales being the exception, and the results of these 23 countries/regions are displayed in Table 13.

**Table 13:** Organisation of foreign language education in primary schools in 23 countries/regions

Criteria	Replies	N	Replies	N	Replies	N
<b>Target groups</b>	all	23	restricted	0	no support	0
<b>Number of compulsory foreign languages</b>	two	2	one	18	optional only	3
<b>Curriculum</b>	coherent and explicit	20	general	3	no guidelines	0
<b>Languages used as medium of instruction (CLIL)</b>	widespread	1	localised	13	absent	9
<b>Start of language education</b>	from year 1	12	from mid-phase	7	end-phase only	4
<b>Scheduling</b>	in school hours	21	partly in school hours	1	outside school hours	1
<b>Minimum group size requirements</b>	none	21	5–10 pupils	1	>10 pupils	1
<b>Monitoring of language skills</b>	national standardised level	10	school-based level	13	absent	0
<b>Level to be achieved</b>	linked to CEFR	7	national or school norms	13	not specified	3
<b>State funding available</b>	full	23	partial	0	none	0

Our research shows that foreign languages are commonly offered in all countries/regions surveyed, with the exception of Wales. Two countries/regions, Greece and Denmark, make two foreign languages compulsory, while 18 have one compulsory language. In England, Northern Ireland and Scotland, foreign languages are optional. There is a coherent and explicit curriculum in 20 countries/regions, while in Friesland, Italy and the Netherlands it is expressed in general terms. Spain is the only country to report widespread CLIL, while in 13 countries/regions this approach is being used, although not systematically. Foreign languages are taught from the first year of primary in 12 countries/regions, from the mid-phase in seven, and in the

final year only in Friesland, the Netherlands, Scotland and Switzerland. Language skills are monitored using standardised instruments in ten of the countries/regions, and at the local level in 13. Although many countries/regions undoubtedly draw on the CEFR for developing their curricula, only seven report explicitly and systematically using the instrument to evaluate the language level to be achieved. These are Bulgaria, Estonia, France, Romania, Scotland, Spain and Switzerland.

Table 14 shows the foreign languages offered in primary, both compulsory and optional, as reported by our researchers.

**Table 14:** Foreign language provision in primary education in 23 countries/regions

Country/region	Foreign languages offered in primary education
Austria	Croatian in Burgenland, Czech, English, French, Hungarian, Italian, Slovak, Slovene (one of these languages is compulsory)
Basque Country	English: compulsory
Bosnia and Herzegovina	English or German: compulsory; French, Italian, Arabic: optional
Bulgaria	English, French, German, Italian, Russian, Spanish: one of these languages is compulsory
Catalonia	English: compulsory
Denmark	English, and French or German: compulsory; Spanish, German or French: optional
England	French, German, Spanish, very rarely also Chinese, Italian, Japanese, Urdu: optional
Estonia	English, French, German, Russian: one language is compulsory, the rest optional
France	English, German, much less other languages such as Arabic, Chinese, Italian, Portuguese, Russian, Spanish: one of these languages is compulsory
Friesland	English: compulsory; French, German, Spanish: optional
Greece	English and French or German: compulsory
Hungary	English, French, German, Italian, Russian: one of these languages is compulsory
Italy	English: compulsory
Lithuania	English, French, German: one of these languages is compulsory
Netherlands	English: compulsory; French, German, Spanish: optional
Northern Ireland	Spanish, French: optional
Poland	English, German, French: one of these languages is compulsory
Portugal	English, French: one of these languages is compulsory
Romania	English, French, German, Italian, Russian, Spanish: one of these languages is compulsory
Scotland	French, German, Spanish: optional
Spain (Madrid, Valencia, Sevilla)	English, French, German: one of these languages is compulsory
Switzerland	in the Zurich Canton: English compulsory in the Geneva Canton: German compulsory in the Ticino Canton: French compulsory
Ukraine	English, French, German, Spanish: one of these languages is compulsory

English, French and German emerge as the most commonly taught foreign languages. In many cases, one of these languages is the compulsory subject to be studied by all pupils. Italian, Russian and Spanish are other languages offered either as compulsory or optional foreign languages. In some countries, Arabic, Chinese and Japanese are also offered as optional foreign languages. This reported variety of languages on offer in primary schools is a positive sign for European multilingualism, although the picture presented here should be balanced against the 2008 *Eurydice* data which highlight the increasing dominance of English in primary language teaching. [http://eacea.ec.europa.eu/about/eurydice/documents/KDL2008\\_EN.pdf](http://eacea.ec.europa.eu/about/eurydice/documents/KDL2008_EN.pdf)

To facilitate successful language learning it is important to develop an explicit curriculum and attainment targets. The CEFR has become a standard tool for supporting this process. It is a document which describes in a comprehensive manner through illustrative descriptor scales a) the competencies necessary for communication, b) the related language knowledge and skills, and c) the situations and domains of communication. Of the countries/regions researched, seven report using the CEFR explicitly in foreign language learning, although more may base their national standards on its principles and approaches. The countries/regions and the attainment targets specified in each are presented in Table 15. As expected, A1/A2 is the chosen target level for this age group.

**Table 15:** CEFR attainment targets for foreign language education in primary schools in seven countries/regions

Country/region	Proficiency level to be achieved for foreign languages at the end of primary education
Bulgaria	A1–A2
Estonia	A1–A2
France	A1
Romania	A1
Scotland	A1
Spain (Madrid, Valencia, Sevilla)	A2; 'not specified' in Valencia
Switzerland	In the Zurich Canton: A2.1 for oral and written reception and oral production, A1.2 for written production

### *R/M language learning in primary education*

Consistent with the methodology adopted for foreign language education, we asked our researchers about R/M languages on offer in their national/regional context, and specifically:

- the target groups
- the extent to which there is a coherent and explicit curriculum
- the spread of CLIL
- when R/M language education starts
- scheduling during or after the school day
- minimum group size requirements
- monitoring of language skills
- whether there is an explicit requirement with regard to the R/M language proficiency level to be achieved by the end of primary school
- whether state funding is available.

R/M languages are offered in 22 of the 24 countries/regions surveyed, with Denmark and Estonia not reporting provision. The results are presented in Table 16 for these 22 countries/regions.

**Table 16:** Organisation of R/M language education in primary schools in 22 countries/regions

Criteria	Replies	N	Replies	N	Replies	N
<b>Target groups</b>	all	20	native speakers only	2	no support	0
<b>Curriculum</b>	coherent and explicit	16	general	5	no guidelines	1
<b>Languages used as medium of instruction (CLIL)</b>	widespread	12	localised	6	absent	4
<b>Start of language education</b>	from year 1	19	from mid-phase	3	end-phase only	0
<b>Scheduling</b>	in school hours	17	partly in school hours	4	outside school hours	1
<b>Minimum group size requirements</b>	none	16	5–10 pupils	3	>10 pupils	3
<b>Monitoring of language skills</b>	national standardised	8	school-based	11	absent	3
<b>Level to be achieved</b>	national or regional norms	14	school norms	3	not specified	5
<b>State funding available</b>	full	21	partial	1	none	0

R/M language classes and lessons in other subjects taught through R/M languages are open to all pupils irrespective of language background in 20 countries/regions, although Bulgaria and Greece only target native speakers of these languages. All countries except Austria have curriculum guidelines. CLIL is much more widespread in R/M language teaching than in foreign language teaching, with 12 countries/regions reporting that it is commonplace and another six that it is used locally. Nineteen of the 22 countries/regions in which R/M languages are taught begin early at the start of primary education, with only France, Poland and Switzerland introducing it from the mid-phase. Sixteen countries/regions have no group size requirements. England (in Cornwall), Hungary and Poland require

at least five children to form a class, while Austria, Bulgaria and Northern Ireland require ten. In terms of monitoring of language skills, 19 countries/regions do this using either age-appropriate standardised instruments or school-based approaches, with only Italy and the Netherlands/ Friesland not reporting regular monitoring. Achievement levels are linked to national/regional standards in 14 countries/regions while three set standards at school level. Five countries/regions, namely Austria, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Greece, Italy and Northern Ireland do not have explicit targets.

Table 17 shows the R/M languages actually offered according to our researchers.

**Table 17: R/M language provision in primary education in 22 countries/regions**

Country/region	R/M languages offered in primary education
Austria	Croatian in Burgenland, Czech, Hungarian, Slovak, Slovene, Romani
Basque Country	Basque
Bosnia and Herzegovina	Other National Languages: Bosnian, Croatian and Serbian
Bulgaria	Armenian, Hebrew, Romani, Turkish,
Catalonia	Catalan everywhere, Aranese Occitan in Val d'Aran
England	Cornish in Cornwall
France	Basque, Breton, Catalan, Corsican, Occitan Tahitian and Melanesian Languages (Ajie, Drehu, Nengone, Paici) are offered in France Overseas.
Friesland	Frisian
Greece	Turkish
Hungary	Bulgarian, Croatian, German, Greek, Polish, Romani/Boyash, Romanian, Rusyn, Serbian, Slovak, Slovene
Italy	Albanian, Catalan, Croatian, French, Franco-Provencal, Friulian, German, Greek, Ladin, Occitan, Sardinian, Slovene
Lithuania	Belarusan, Hebrew, Polish, Russian
Netherlands	Frisian only in Friesland
Northern Ireland	Irish
Poland	Kashubian
Portugal	Mirandese
Romania	Bulgarian, Croatian, German, Hungarian, Italian, Polish, Romani, Russian-Lipovan, Serbian, Slovak, Turkish, Ukrainian
Scotland	Gaelic
Spain (Madrid, Valenica, Sevilla)	Valencian in Valencia only
Switzerland	Other National Languages: French, German, Italian
Ukraine	Belarusan, Bulgarian, Crimean Tatar, Gagauz, German, Greek, Hungarian, Moldovan, Polish, Romanian, Russian, Slovak, Yiddish,
Wales	Welsh

The offer is rich in a number of countries/regions, with Austria, Bulgaria, France, Hungary, Italy, Lithuania, Romania and Ukraine offering four or more R/M languages either as subjects or in the majority of cases as a medium of instruction.

### Immigrant language learning in primary education

For immigrant languages, we asked our researchers a similar set of questions to those asked for R/M and foreign languages. Only five countries report a significant offering of immigrant languages at primary level. These are Austria, Denmark, France, Spain (in Madrid and Valencia) and Switzerland (in the canton of Zurich) and the results from these five countries are set out in Table 18.

**Table 18:** Organisation of immigrant language learning in primary education in five countries/regions

Criteria	Replies	N	Replies	N	Replies	N
<b>Target groups</b>	all	2	native speakers only	3	no support	0
<b>Curriculum</b>	coherent and explicit	2	general	3	no guidelines	0
<b>Languages used as medium of instruction</b>	widespread	1	localised	3	absent	1
<b>Start of language education</b>	from year 1	2	from mid-phase	1	end-phase only	2
<b>Scheduling</b>	in school hours	0	partly in school hours	2	outside school hours	3
<b>Minimum group size requirements</b>	none	2	5–10 pupils	1	>10 pupils	2
<b>Monitoring of language skills</b>	national standardised	0	school-based	5	absent	0
<b>Level to be achieved</b>	national or regional norms	0	school norms	0	not specified	5
<b>State funding available</b>	full	2	partial	3	none	0

In France and Switzerland, immigrant language classes are open to all children, while in Austria, Denmark and Spain (Madrid, Valencia, Sevilla) they are reserved for native speakers of immigrant languages. There are no minimum group size requirements in Switzerland and France. In Spain more than five pupils are required to start a class, and in Austria and Denmark a group of ten is required. In Austria and Denmark there is a coherent and explicit curriculum, while in the other countries the curriculum is expressed in general terms. In Spain, it is common to use immigrant languages as a medium of instruction, whereas in Austria, Denmark and France this is less widespread. In Switzerland these languages are only taught as a subject. Spain and Switzerland offer lessons partly in school hours, whereas in the other countries they are offered as extra-curricular activities. Achievement in immigrant languages is not linked to any national, regional or school-based standards, although the development of language skills is monitored in all countries. Lessons in immigrant languages are fully funded by the state in Austria and Denmark, whereas in France, Spain and Switzerland they are mainly supported by the country of origin.

The immigrant languages offered in each country are set out in Table 19.

**Table 19:** Immigrant language provision in primary education in five countries

Country/region	Immigrant languages offered in primary education
Austria	Albanian, Bosnian/Croatian/Serbian, Polish, Russian, Turkish
Denmark	Albanian, Arabic, Bosnian, Icelandic, Somali, Tamil, Turkish, Urdu/ Panjabi
France	Arabic, Croatian, Italian, Portuguese, Serbian, Spanish, Turkish
Spain (Madrid, Valencia, Sevilla)	(Moroccan) Arabic and Portuguese in Madrid and Valencia
Switzerland	In Zurich: Albanian, Arabic, Bosnian/Croatian/Serbian, Bulgarian, Chinese, Finnish, French, Greek, Hungarian, Italian, Korean, Kurdish, Portuguese, Turkish, Russian, Spanish, Slovene, Swedish
Switzerland	In Geneva: Albanian, Arabic, Italian, Portuguese, Spanish, Turkish

### Teacher development in primary education

Both the EU and the CoE have consistently underlined the importance of recruiting and developing qualified language teachers to support the language development and intercultural skills of learners. They emphasise the need for teachers to develop their own language skills, intercultural competencies and awareness of multilingualism and plurilingualism. Teacher mobility schemes, through which teachers are encouraged to spend time abroad in the country of the language they are teaching, have been identified as a valuable way of supporting them to achieve these objectives. (EC 2008: 11).

In our LRE survey, we asked about:

- teacher qualifications
- provision of pre-service and in-service teacher training
- mobility of foreign language teachers
- measures to increase the supply of teachers where there is a shortage

In Table 20, the results for all four language types in primary education are set out for all countries/regions. It is important to bear in mind that not all language types are offered in all countries/regions, and this accounts for the low score particularly in immigrant languages, which are only offered in five countries/regions.

**Table 20:** Teacher qualifications and development in primary education in 24 countries/regions

Dimension	Replies	N countries				Replies	N countries				Replies	N countries			
		NL	R/M	FL	IL		NL	R/M	FL	IL		NL	R/M	FL	IL
<b>Teacher qualifications</b>	qualified language teachers	16	17	14	2	generally qualified teachers	8	5	9	3	no specific qualification	0	2	1	19
<b>Pre-service training</b>	subject-specific	20	18	17	1	general	4	3	4	2	none	0	3	3	21
<b>In-service training</b>	subject-specific	16	14	20	1	general	7	7	3	4	none	1	3	1	14
<b>Measures to increase supply</b>	structural measures	3	7	8	0	recruitment campaigns in press	1	2	2	0	no specific measures	20	15	14	24
<b>Teacher mobility</b>	incorporated into training	N/A	N/A	2	N/A	informal financial support	N/A	N/A	13	N/A	none	N/A	N/A	9	N/A



According to the responses from our survey, qualified language teachers are employed to teach languages in around two-thirds of the countries/regions surveyed: 16 out of 24 in the national language, 17 out of 22 in R/M languages, 14 out of 23 in foreign languages, and two out of five in immigrant languages. Of course, where there is content and language integrated learning (CLIL), it is less important that the teachers are actually qualified language teachers (although language levels need to be high), and in many primary contexts, qualified language teachers for general teaching in the national language and R/M languages would be unusual. However, it would certainly be expected that foreign language teachers would have a formal qualification. In Austria, England, France, Friesland, Italy, the Netherlands, Northern Ireland, Scotland and Switzerland, foreign languages are taught by generally qualified classroom teachers.

Pre-service and in-service teacher development programmes, either of a specific or general nature, are common in all countries, although Italy and Northern Ireland report no pre-service training for foreign language teachers, and Greece reports no in-service training for teachers of the national language. R/M language teachers of Cornish in England also receive no formal training. In immigrant language teaching, only Austria provides subject specific pre-service and in-service training. Inevitably the survey was not able to ask in detail about the nature of teacher development programmes, and this is suggested as an area of further research.

Another area beyond the scope of the survey was that teachers of R/M languages as well as immigrant languages might formally be defined as teachers of native languages if they teach in minority or immigrant schools, or as teachers of foreign languages if they teach non-native speakers of the language who attend a minority or immigrant community school. Thus, they can choose to join either teacher development programmes for teachers of native or foreign languages, depending on their teaching situation.

The clear area for development in foreign language teaching is teacher mobility. Nine countries/regions out of 24 report having no support at all in this area, and only Catalonia and Switzerland report structured teacher mobility programmes. Thirteen others encourage mobility and provide financial support. More could be done here to stimulate language teachers to spend more time in the country of the language they are teaching and also align with EU recommendations which highlight teacher mobility and exchange as important means for teachers to acquire higher level linguistic and cultural competence.

An interesting finding is that a number of countries/regions are taking active measures to increase the number of language teachers, and this would be a fruitful area for knowledge exchange. Does it mean that demand is increasing, or simply that numbers of teachers are dwindling? In Basque Country, Denmark, Estonia and Switzerland special measures are being taken to recruit additional national language teachers. Bulgaria, Denmark, England, Friesland, Hungary, Lithuania and Ukraine are taking measures to promote and facilitate the supplementary hiring and training of qualified foreign language teachers. The resurgence and promotion of many R/M languages is likely to account for the fact that Spain (Basque Country), Bosnia and Herzegovina, Denmark, Northern Ireland, Scotland, Spain (Madrid, Valencia, Sevilla) and Ukraine are taking special measures to recruit R/M language teachers. None of the countries/regions, however, are reported yet to be actively recruiting immigrant language teachers, and this must surely be an area for development.

## 2.4 Languages in secondary education

EU and CoE documents on multilingualism emphasise the need for students to build on the basic language learning done at primary school as they make the transition to secondary education, extending both the number of languages they learn and their ability to communicate in them with a view to future employment and further or higher education.

According to the CoE's *Recommendation CM/R (98) 6*, the language learning objective in secondary should be to:

*continue to raise the standard of communication which pupils are expected to achieve so that they can use the language studied to communicate effectively with other speakers of that language in everyday transactions, build social and personal relations and learn to understand and respect other people's cultures and practices.*

Secondary schools should offer a more diverse range of languages overall, and give students the opportunity to learn more than one European or other language. Levels of achievement should be monitored using standard European benchmarks, including the recognition of partial competencies where appropriate. It is recommended that content language integrated learning (CLIL) should be used more widely. Teacher development and mobility, and the creation of international networks and co-operation across countries to set up joint projects are also considered important ingredients for success. Our research was structured to consider many, although not all, of the above aspects.

Secondary education is of course more difficult to compare from country to country than primary: a range of specialist schools becomes available for students to choose from, lower and upper secondary are structured differently in different countries (see Glossary) and the way that language programmes are planned also varies considerably. In spite of these challenges, our researchers gathered data on the organisation of language teaching and teacher development across all language types in 24 countries/regions.

### *Support for the national language in secondary education – organisation*

Support for the national language continues to be important at secondary level for both newcomers and for all others who have difficulty understanding and communicating in the national language. We asked our researchers the same set of questions as in primary, about:

- the extent to which there is a coherent and explicit curriculum
- the level of extra support for newcomers
- the existence of diagnostic testing on entry
- monitoring of language skills.

The results are set out in Table 21.

**Table 21:** Organisation of support in the national language in secondary education in 24 countries/regions

Criteria	Replies	N	Replies	N	Replies	N
<b>Curriculum</b>	coherent and explicit	20	general	4	no guidelines	0
<b>Extra support for newcomers</b>	before mainstream	21	during mainstream	0	absent	3
<b>Diagnostic testing on entry</b>	all	9	immigrants only	5	absent	10
<b>Monitoring of language skills</b>	national standardised	15	school-based	8	absent	1

According to our researchers' reports, 20 countries/regions have a coherent and explicit national language curriculum, whereas in Friesland, Italy, Northern Ireland and the Netherlands it is expressed in general terms. Additional support in the national language is provided for newcomers either before or during mainstream education in 21 countries/regions, with Denmark, Italy and Ukraine reporting no provision. The exact nature of the support given, and the difference that this makes to students' academic success, is an area for further research. As in primary education, a relatively small number of countries/regions conduct a needs-based diagnosis of proficiency for all students in the national language on entering secondary education. These are Bosnia and Herzegovina, Catalonia, England, France, Poland, Portugal, Scotland, Ukraine and Wales. Another five countries/regions – Bulgaria, Hungary, Lithuania, Spain and Basque Country – provide diagnostic testing for immigrant students only. The nature of the tests and how the information is used to inform syllabus design and provide ongoing support is another area for further exploration. As at primary level, there is regular monitoring of national language skills, with 15 countries/regions doing this at national level and eight at local level. Denmark reports no monitoring of national language skills in secondary education.

### *Foreign languages in secondary education*

Table 22 presents an overview of the organisation of foreign language teaching in secondary education. We asked our respondents about:

- target groups
- the number of languages taught and whether or not they are compulsory
- the extent to which there is a coherent and explicit curriculum
- the spread of CLIL
- scheduling during the school day
- minimum group size requirements
- monitoring of language skills
- the level to be achieved and alignment with CEFR
- the level of state funding available.

**Table 22:** Organisation of foreign language teaching in secondary education in 24 countries/regions

Criteria	Replies	N	Replies	N	Replies	N
<b>Target groups</b>	all	24	restricted	0	no support	0
<b>Number of compulsory foreign languages (lower secondary level)</b>	two	14	one	10	none	0
<b>Number of compulsory foreign languages (upper secondary level)</b>	two	9	one	10	none	5
<b>Curriculum</b>	coherent and explicit	20	general	4	no guidelines	0
<b>Languages used as medium of instruction (CLIL)</b>	widespread	1	localised	14	absent	9
<b>Scheduling</b>	in school hours	23	partly in school hours	1	outside school hours	0
<b>Minimum group size requirements</b>	none	19	5–10 pupils	5	>10 pupils	0
<b>Monitoring of language skills</b>	national standardised	11	school-based	13	absent	0
<b>Level to be achieved</b>	linked to CEFR	13	national or school-based norms	7	not specified	4
<b>State funding available</b>	full	24	partial	0	none	0

As expected, all countries/regions surveyed offer foreign languages at both lower and upper secondary. Significant differences emerge, however, in the number of compulsory languages offered, the range of languages, the monitoring of language skills, the use of CLIL, and the extent to which the CEFR is used to evaluate the level achieved.

Twenty countries/regions report a coherent and explicit curriculum, with just the Netherlands, Northern Ireland, France and Italy saying that it is expressed in general terms. In primary education only one country, Spain, reported widespread CLIL, and at secondary level it is France which claims this honour, with 14 countries/regions reporting localised initiatives and nine reporting no CLIL at all. A study of CLIL across all language types can be found in Section 2.5. In general there are no group size requirements for foreign language education, although Bulgaria, Denmark, Greece, Lithuania and Romania report that a minimum of five students is required to start some courses, particularly for optional courses in less widely used languages. Eleven countries/regions monitor language skills at the national level, and 13 at school level.

Table 23 shows the extent to which countries/regions offer compulsory languages at secondary level.

While 14 countries/regions make the learning of two foreign languages compulsory in lower secondary education, the number reduces to nine at upper secondary level, with Denmark, Friesland, Italy, Lithuania, the Netherlands and Ukraine lowering the requirement from two to one, and Greece from two to zero. Hungary increases requirements from one to two. The only countries/regions to make two languages compulsory at both lower and upper secondary are Austria, Estonia, France, Poland, Portugal, Romania and Switzerland. In England, Northern Ireland and Wales one foreign language is compulsory at lower secondary but at upper secondary these are the only countries/regions of those surveyed, in addition to Greece, where no foreign languages are compulsory. In Scotland, learning languages is an entitlement in both lower and upper secondary and therefore not technically compulsory; although in practice most children learn a foreign language at secondary school.

**Table 23:** Number of compulsory languages in lower and upper level secondary schools in 24 countries/regions

Number of compulsory languages	Two languages compulsory	One language compulsory	No language compulsory
Lower secondary	Austria, Denmark, Estonia, France, Friesland, Greece, Italy, Lithuania, Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Switzerland, Ukraine	Basque Country, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Catalonia, England, Hungary, Northern Ireland, Spain, Wales (Madrid, Valencia, Sevilla)	Scotland
Upper secondary	Austria, Bulgaria, Estonia, France, Hungary, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Switzerland	Basque Country, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Catalonia, Denmark, Friesland, Italy, Lithuania, Netherlands, Spain, Ukraine	England, Greece, Northern Ireland, Scotland, Wales

As expected, attainment targets in line with the CEFR for foreign languages are much better established in secondary schools than in primary schools in the participating countries/regions, with 13 of them explicitly stating a level to be achieved. The standards established are set out in Table 24.

**Table 24:** CEFR attainment targets for foreign language (FL) education in secondary schools in 13 countries/regions

Country/region	Proficiency level expected to be reached at the end of secondary education
Austria	B2
Basque Country	B1
Bulgaria	B1-B2 for first FL; A1 for second FL
Denmark	B2
Estonia	Lower secondary: B1 level for first FL; A2 for second FL Upper secondary: two foreign languages at B level (either B1 or B2)
France	B2 level for first foreign language; B1 level for second foreign language; A2/B1 for third foreign language
Friesland	Depending on school type, levels range between A1 to B2 (or C1 for reading skills)
Hungary	First foreign language: B1 or B2; B1 for second foreign language
Lithuania	Lower secondary level: B1 for first FL; A2 for second FL; Upper secondary level: in connection with achievements at lower secondary, B2, B1 or A2
Netherlands	Depending on school type, levels range between A1 to B2 (or C1 for reading skills)
Portugal	Levels vary from A.2.2 to B.1.2
Romania	B2
Switzerland	In the cantons of Zurich and Geneva: B2.

B2 seems to be the commonly agreed level for proficiency in the first foreign language, with B1 for the second. These level descriptions are presumably adapted to the target groups as appropriate in keeping with the principles of the CEFR. The results of the *SurveyLang* study later this year will reveal to what extent this aspiration is being met.

### *R/M languages in secondary education*

Under ECRML and national obligations, countries/regions are still committed to offering teaching in and through R/M languages, and we asked researchers a similar set of questions as for foreign languages, enquiring about:

- target groups
- the extent to which there is a coherent and explicit curriculum
- the spread of CLIL
- scheduling during the school day
- group size requirements
- monitoring of language skills
- the level to be achieved
- the level of state funding available.

Nineteen countries/regions offer R/M languages within secondary education and the results are presented in Table 25.

**Table 25:** Organisation of R/M language teaching in secondary education in 19 countries/regions

Criteria	Replies	N	Replies	N	Replies	N
<b>Target groups</b>	all	18	native speakers only	1	no support	0
<b>Curriculum</b>	coherent and explicit	16	general	3	no guidelines	0
<b>Languages used as medium of instruction (CLIL)</b>	widespread	10	localised	8	absent	1
<b>Scheduling</b>	in school hours	15	partly in school hours	3	outside school hours	1
<b>Minimum group size requirements</b>	none	13	5–10 pupils	1	>10 pupils	5
<b>Monitoring of language skills</b>	national standardised	10	school-based	8	absent	1
<b>Level to be achieved</b>	national or regional norms	14	school norms	3	not specified	2
<b>State funding available</b>	full	19	partial	0	none	0

The countries/regions not offering R/M language education are Denmark, England, Estonia, Greece and Poland. Of the 19 that do, CLIL is widespread in ten, and present in some areas in eight, with only Bulgaria reporting that these languages are only taught as subjects. Courses are open to all pupils except in Bulgaria, where they are for native speakers only. They take place during school hours except in Austria, Bosnia and Herzegovina and Bulgaria, where courses are scheduled partly in school time and partly outside. There are no group size requirements in 13 countries/regions, although in Scotland a minimum of five students is required to form a class. In Austria, Bulgaria, France, Northern Ireland and Romania a minimum of ten is required. Eighteen countries/regions monitor the language skills acquired either through national/regional or school-based tests, with only Italy reporting no monitoring. Austria and Wales set no targets for the standard to be achieved, but all other countries do. All countries/regions offer the languages free of charge to all pupils.

### *Immigrant languages in secondary education*

With increased mobility and migration within Europe and into Europe from outside, the number of immigrant languages spoken in European schools has increased markedly, and for many children the language of instruction at school is their second language. European documents have been keen to emphasise the importance of valuing all the languages and cultures of the classroom, with the CoE *Recommendation CM/R (98) 6* urging Member States to ensure that:

*there is parity of esteem between all the languages and cultures involved so that children in each community may have the opportunity to develop oracy and literacy in the language of their own community as well as to learn to understand and appreciate the language and culture of the other.*

The 2008 *EC Green Paper on Migration and Mobility* referred back to Directive 77/486/CEE under which Member States should:

*promote teaching of the mother tongue and culture of the country of origin, in co-ordination with normal education, in co-operation with the Member State of origin.*

In our LRE research we set out to explore the extent to which Member States are offering both immigrant students and others the opportunity to learn these languages. As we saw in pre-primary and primary, few countries/regions are making this choice available systematically (three in pre-primary and five in primary), and in secondary eight countries/regions out of the 24 responded positively. These are Austria, Denmark, England, Estonia, France, the Netherlands, Scotland and Switzerland.

In Table 26 we present an overview of immigrant languages in these countries, focusing on:

- target groups
- the extent to which there is a coherent and explicit curriculum
- the spread of CLIL
- scheduling during the school day
- group size requirements
- monitoring of language skills
- level to be achieved
- level of state funding available.

**Table 26:** Organisation of immigrant language teaching in secondary education in eight countries/regions

Criteria	Replies	N	Replies	N	Replies	N
<b>Target groups</b>	all	4	native speakers only	3	no support	1
<b>Curriculum</b>	coherent and explicit	3	general	3	no guidelines	2
<b>Languages used as medium of instruction (CLIL)</b>	widespread	1	localised	2	absent	5
<b>Scheduling</b>	in school hours	1	partly in school hours	1	outside school hours	6
<b>Minimum group size requirements</b>	none	4	5–10 pupils	2	>10 pupils	2
<b>Monitoring of language skills</b>	national standardised	1	school-based	5	absent	2
<b>Level to be achieved</b>	national or regional norms	2	school norms	3	no norms	3
<b>State funding available</b>	full	5	partial	2	none	1

Of the eight countries/regions reporting provision, England, Denmark, France and the Netherlands offer languages such as Turkish and Arabic not only to pupils from these backgrounds, but to all secondary pupils as a foreign language, a model that can be highlighted as good practice for other countries/regions to follow. France is the only country/region offering widespread CLIL, while Austria and Switzerland offer it in some areas. The Netherlands offers immigrant languages as part of the curriculum within school time, while England and Switzerland (Zurich only) offer them partly in school time, and the other countries/regions as extra-curricular activities. There are no minimum group size requirements in England, France, Netherlands and Scotland. In Denmark and Switzerland a minimum of five students is required to start a class, and in Austria and Estonia the minimum is ten. Language skills are monitored using standardised national tests in England, using school-based instruments in Austria, Denmark, France, the Netherlands and Switzerland, and there is no monitoring in Estonia and Scotland. Estonia and the Netherlands are the only countries/regions to specify the proficiency level to be achieved nationally. Full state funding is available for immigrant languages in Austria, Denmark, England, the Netherlands and Scotland. In France and Switzerland funding is provided by the countries of origin of immigrant pupils and in Estonia parents/guardians meet the costs. The only countries offering immigrant languages in both primary and secondary education are Austria, Denmark, France and Switzerland.

### Overview of languages other than the national language offered at secondary level

Beyond primary education it becomes more difficult to distinguish between foreign, R/M and immigrant languages because the target groups for provision become increasingly non-specific and languages other than the national language (LONL) tend to be offered more to pupils independent from their home language background. In spite of these complexities, we have maintained our initial distinction between foreign, R/M and immigrant languages which was used in describing language provision in pre-primary and primary education, while recognising that the categories are not watertight. Table 27 gives a comparative overview of provision in (mainly) R/M languages, (mainly) foreign languages and (mainly) immigrant languages in 24 countries/regions according to our researchers' reports.

**Table 27:** Comparative overview of provision in (mainly) R/M languages, (mainly) foreign languages and (mainly) immigrant languages in secondary education (foreign languages referred to in italics are offered in upper secondary education only) in 24 countries/regions

Country/region	(Mainly) R/M languages	(Mainly) foreign languages	(Mainly) immigrant languages
Austria	Croatian in Burgenland, Czech, Hungarian, Romani, Slovak, Slovene	<b>Compulsory</b> 2 from English, French, Italian, Spanish	Albanian, Bosnian/Croatian/Serbian, Polish, Russian, Turkish
Basque Country	Basque	<b>Compulsory</b> English, German <b>Optional</b> <i>Arabic</i> , French, Italian, Russian, <i>Turkish</i>	–
Bosnia and Herzegovina	Bosnian/Croatian/Serbian as other national languages	<b>Compulsory</b> English, German <b>Optional</b> <i>Arabic</i> , French, Italian, Russian, <i>Turkish</i>	–
Bulgaria	Armenian, Hebrew, Romani, Turkish	<b>Compulsory:</b> 1–2 from <i>Croatian</i> , <i>Czech</i> , English, French, German, Italian, <i>Japanese</i> , <i>Korean</i> , <i>Polish</i> , <i>Romanian</i> , Russian, <i>Serbian</i> , <i>Slovak</i> , Spanish <b>Optional:</b> others from above selection	–
Catalonia	Catalan everywhere, Aranese-Occitan in Val d'Aran	<b>Compulsory:</b> 1 from English, French, occasionally German and Italian <b>Optional:</b> <i>Ancient Greek</i> , <i>Latin</i> and others	–
Denmark	–	<b>Compulsory:</b> English <b>Optional:</b> <i>Ancient Greek</i> , <i>Chinese</i> , French, German, <i>Italian</i> , <i>Japanese</i> , <i>Latin</i> , <i>Russian</i> , Spanish	Arabic, Turkish
England	–	<b>Compulsory:</b> 1 language up to age 14. This can be any living language (with suitable accreditation); the main languages are French, German, Spanish but also include Arabic, Italian, Japanese, Mandarin, Polish, Portuguese, Russian, Turkish & Urdu	Arabic, Chinese, Urdu
Estonia	–	<b>Compulsory:</b> 2 from English, French, German, Russian	Chinese, Finnish, Swedish

Country/region	(Mainly) R/M languages	(Mainly) foreign languages	(Mainly) immigrant languages
France	<i>Alsacian/German, Basque, Breton, Catalan, Corsican, Occitan, Mosellan, Creole, Tahitian, Melanesian languages (Ajié, Drehu, Nengone, Paici )</i>	<b>Compulsory:</b> 2 languages from 19: English, Spanish, German, Arabic, Chinese, Italian, Portuguese, Russian, Danish, Dutch, Greek, Hebrew, Japanese, Norwegian, Polish, Swedish, Turkish, Ancient Greek and Latin; other languages, such as regional languages optional	Arabic, Croatian, Italian, Portuguese, Serbian, Spanish and Turkish
Friesland	Frisian in Friesland only	See Netherlands	–
Greece	–	<b>Compulsory:</b> English <b>Optional:</b> French, German	–
Hungary	Romani, Boyash	<b>Compulsory:</b> 1–2 from Chinese, English, French, German, Italian, Russian, Spanish, <i>Latin</i>	–
Italy	Albanian, Catalan, Croatian, Franco-Provencal, French, Friulian, German, Greek, Ladin, Occitan, Sardinian, Slovene	<b>Compulsory:</b> English and another foreign language	–
Lithuania	Russian, Polish, Hebrew, Belarusian	<b>Compulsory:</b> 1 from English, French, German <b>Optional:</b> other languages	–
Netherlands	Frisian in Friesland only	<b>Compulsory:</b> English <i>plus one other language at highest level of secondary.</i> <b>Optional:</b> <i>Ancient Greek, Chinese, French, German, Italian, Latin, Russian Spanish.</i>	Arabic, Turkish
Northern Ireland	Irish	<b>Compulsory:</b> 1 language up to age 14, usually French, German or Spanish	–
Poland	–	<b>Compulsory:</b> 2 from English, French, German, Italian, Russian, Spanish	–
Portugal	Mirandese	<b>Compulsory:</b> 2 from English, French, German, Spanish, <i>Latin, Greek</i>	–
Romania	Bulgarian, Croatian, Hungarian, Italian, Polish, Romani, Russian-Lipovan, Slovak, Serbian, Turkish, Ukrainian	<b>Compulsory:</b> 2 from English, French, German, Italian, Portuguese, <i>Russian, Spanish</i>	–
Scotland	Gaelic	<b>Optional:</b> 1 from French, German or Spanish, Italian and Chinese.	Chinese, Russian, Urdu
Spain (Madrid, Valencia, Sevilla)	Valencian in Valencia only	<b>Compulsory:</b> 1 from English, French, German.	–
Switzerland	French, German, Italian as other national languages	<b>Compulsory:</b> 1–2 from English, Greek, Latin, Spanish	In Zurich: Albanian, Bosnian, Chinese, Croatian, Finnish, French, Greek, Hungarian, Italian, Korean, Kurdish, Portuguese, Russian, Serbian, Slovene, Spanish, Swedish, Turkish In Geneva: Albanian, Arabic, Italian, Portuguese, Spanish, Turkish
Ukraine	Belarusian, Bulgarian, Crimean Tatar, Gagauz, German, Greek, Hebrew, Hungarian, Moldovan, Polish, Romanian, Russian, Slovak	<b>Compulsory:</b> 1–2 from English, French, German or Spanish depending on the school <b>Optional:</b> Armenian, Czech, Korean, Turkish, Vietnamese: as extra-curricular languages	–
Wales	Welsh	<b>Compulsory:</b> 1 language up to age 14, from French, German, Spanish	–

The most commonly offered foreign languages are English, German and French, although other European languages such as Spanish and Italian are also offered. Some immigrant languages such as Arabic, Croatian, Polish, Russian and Turkish are also offered as optional foreign languages, and Arabic and Turkish have a firm status as examination subjects in secondary schools in France and the Netherlands. France has the largest number of languages on offer, and *all* pupils can choose from a large variety of languages such as modern European languages, popular Asian languages such as Japanese and Chinese as well as R/M languages and immigrant languages. Austria and the Netherlands also have a rich variety of languages on offer according to our researchers' reports. Russian is of course offered widely in Eastern European countries either as an R/M language or as a foreign language. In England, Northern Ireland, Scotland and Wales, French, German and Spanish are the most commonly offered, although immigrant languages are also offered, sometimes in mainstream education, but more commonly in so-called *complementary* education.

### Teacher qualifications and development in secondary education

Regarding teacher qualifications and development, as expected secondary schools have tougher requirements than primary schools according to our researchers' reports. In the LRE survey we asked about:

- teacher qualifications
- provision of pre-service and in-service teacher training
- mobility of foreign language teachers
- level of language required
- measures to increase the supply of teachers where there is a shortage .

In Table 28, the results for all four language types in secondary education are set out for all countries/regions. It is important to bear in mind that not all language types are offered in all countries/regions, and this accounts for the low score particularly for immigrant languages, which are only offered in eight countries/regions.

**Table 28:** Teacher qualifications and development in secondary education in 24 countries/regions

Criteria	Replies	NL	R/M	FL	IL	Replies	NL	R/M	FL	IL	Replies	NL	R/M	FL	IL
<b>Teacher qualifications</b>	language teachers	23	16	22	3	general teachers	1	3	2	3	unqualified	0	5	0	18
<b>Pre-service training</b>	subject-specific	22	17	22	3	general	2	2	2	2	none	0	5	0	19
<b>In-service training</b>	subject-specific	19	14	20	3	general	5	5	4	5	none	0	5	0	16
<b>Level to be achieved</b>	linked to CEFR	4	N/A	8	N/A	national or regionwide standards	13	N/A	13	N/A	none	7	N/A	4	N/A
<b>Measures to increase supply of teachers where there is a shortage</b>	structural measures	7	8	10	1	campaigns	2	0	1	1	no specific measures	15	16	13	22
<b>Teacher mobility</b>	incorporated into training	N/A	N/A	2	N/A	informal financial support	N/A	N/A	17	N/A	none	N/A	N/A	5	N/A



In 23 of the 24 countries/regions, additional national language (NL) support is provided by qualified language teachers, while only in Estonia is it provided by generally qualified classroom teachers. Pre-service and in-service teacher development is also offered. Non-native teachers of the national language are required to have attained a certain proficiency level in the national language in 17 countries/regions, although only four stipulate explicit CEFR levels – Basque Country (B2), Estonia (C1), Italy (C2) and Switzerland (in Zurich and Ticino) (C2). In seven countries/regions, no standards are stipulated.

Foreign language teachers are also well qualified, and only in Estonia and Northern Ireland do general classroom teachers teach foreign languages. Italy and Greece report that pre-service training is general rather than language-specific. There is a little more structured support for mobility at secondary level than at primary, with Austria as well as Catalonia reporting that teachers spend a semester abroad as part of their pre-service or in-service development. Another 17 countries/regions support mobility initiatives of teachers financially, leaving Estonia, France, Italy, Portugal and Romania as countries where teachers are less likely to spend time in a target language country. In line with EU and CoE recommendations, foreign language teachers in most countries/regions are required to have attained a certain proficiency level in the foreign language and this is measured against CEFR levels in eight countries/regions, as set out in Table 29.

**Table 29: Proficiency requirement for teachers of foreign languages in secondary education in eight countries/regions**

Country/region	Proficiency level required by foreign language teachers in secondary education
Austria	C1
Basque Country	B2
Bulgaria	B2–C1
Catalonia	C1–C2
Estonia	C1
Hungary	C1
Romania	C1
Switzerland	Canton of Zurich: C2

C1 appears to be the most common level required, while requirements are higher in Catalonia and Switzerland (Zurich), where teachers are expected to reach C2.

Teachers of R/M languages in every country/region are all qualified language teachers except in Friesland, where courses are commonly taught by generally qualified language teachers. Pre-service and in-service teacher development is also provided in all countries/regions.

Only in Austria, Denmark and the Netherlands do qualified subject-specific language teachers conduct classes in immigrant languages (IL), whereas in Estonia, France and Switzerland general classroom teachers are employed.

As in primary education, in a number of countries there is a shortage of supply of teachers and special measures are being taken to recruit professionals with appropriate qualifications and to encourage people to qualify as language teachers. Those countries/regions reporting such teacher recruitment campaigns are set out in Table 30.

**Table 30: Countries/regions actively recruiting language teachers where there is a shortage**

NL teachers	FL teachers	R/ML teachers	IL teachers
Basque Country	Basque Country	Basque Country	England
England	Bulgaria	Friesland	Scotland
Estonia	England	Northern Ireland	
Friesland	Friesland	Romania	
Netherlands	Hungary	Scotland	
Northern Ireland	Lithuania	Spain (Madrid, Valencia, Sevilla)	
Romania	Netherlands	Switzerland	
Scotland	Romania	Wales	
Switzerland	Scotland		
	Switzerland		
	Wales		

Scotland is the only country/region which reports actively recruiting for language teachers in every category, while Basque Country, England, Romania and Switzerland are taking measures to increase supply in three of the four language categories.

## 2.5 Cross-sectional perspectives on (pre-)primary and secondary education

In this section, cross-sectional perspectives are presented on three important areas highlighted by EU and CoE documents:

- content and language integrated learning (CLIL)
- foreign language teacher mobility
- overall recognition of multilingualism and plurilingualism in schools.

## Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL)

CLIL involves pupils learning subjects such as science or geography through the medium of another language, which is strongly encouraged as an efficient and effective way to develop communicative competence. We have already touched on the use of CLIL in the separate sections on primary and secondary, and in Table 31 we present the results for both domains together. We asked researchers about the extent to which CLIL is widespread, localised or absent in their countries/regions. The total number of countries/regions offering each language type is shown in brackets.

**Table 31:** Number of countries/regions reporting use of CLIL in primary and secondary education

Country/ region	Primary education			Secondary education		
	FL(23)	R/M(22)	IL(5)	FL(24)	R/M(19)	IL(8)
Widespread	1	12	1	1	10	1
Localised	13	6	3	14	8	2
Absent	9	4	1	9	1	5

As expected, CLIL is widespread primarily in the teaching of R/M languages, because these languages are usually the pupils' home languages, and so they are already able to communicate in them. In foreign language classrooms, because pupils' communicative competence is lower, very few countries/regions report widespread practice: only Spain in primary and France in secondary. Nonetheless, the fact that 13 countries/regions in primary and 14 in secondary report localised CLIL initiatives suggests that there are pockets of good practice, and further research to compare approaches and explore teacher development and the design of materials would be helpful. Of the few countries/regions offering immigrant languages, it is Spain again that reports offering widespread CLIL at primary, and France at secondary level, suggesting that these countries have acquired expertise in this approach.

## Foreign language teacher mobility

Mobility of teachers is strongly encouraged through the EC's *Lifelong Learning Programme* (LLP), and in the LRE survey we asked researchers about the opportunities given to teachers in their country/region to spend time in the country of the language they are intending to teach either as part of their pre-service or in-service training. Researchers were asked whether countries/regions:

- incorporate such programmes into the structure of teacher development programmes, with teachers spending at least one term in the target country,
- do not incorporate this, but do encourage and finance individual teacher initiatives, or
- do neither of the above.

The results are presented in Table 32.

**Table 32:** Overview of foreign language teacher mobility in primary and secondary education in 24 countries/regions

	Primary	Secondary
Structured programmes – at least one term spent in target country	Catalonia, Switzerland	Austria, Catalonia, Spain (Madrid, Valencia, Sevilla), Switzerland
Individual initiatives supported	Austria, Basque Country, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Denmark, England, Estonia, Greece, Hungary, Lithuania, Poland, Scotland, Spain (Madrid, Valencia, Sevilla), Ukraine	Basque Country, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Denmark, England, Friesland, Greece, Hungary, Lithuania, Netherlands, Northern Ireland, Poland, Scotland, Ukraine, Wales
Absent	Bulgaria, France, Friesland, Italy, Netherlands, Northern Ireland, Portugal, Romania, Wales	Estonia, France, Italy, Portugal, Romania,

Catalonia and Switzerland are the only countries/regions providing structured mobility programmes at both primary and secondary level, although half of the countries surveyed finance individual teacher initiatives at both levels. A surprisingly large number of countries appear not to support teacher mobility at either level, and the possible reasons for this are an area for further research.

## Overall recognition of multi/plurilingualism in schools

The organisation of multi/plurilingual education and the development of teachers for linguistically and culturally diverse classrooms are increasing challenges facing European public education. With so many different home languages now represented in almost all classrooms, EU and CoE documents have emphasised the importance of acknowledging the existing plurilingual repertoire of pupils in the learning and teaching of languages, and to develop teachers to valorise and make use of the plurilingual repertoire of pupils in classroom practice. The extent to which this actually takes place is difficult to ascertain and would be a research project in itself. However, for indicative purposes, we asked researchers to estimate the extent to which it is practised in their country/region. The results are presented in Table 33.

**Table 33:** Recognition of multi/plurilingualism in pre-primary (PPE), primary (PE) and secondary (SE) schools in 24 countries/regions (figures refer to number of countries/regions)

Level of recognition	Coherent integrated approach			Informal approach			Not dealt with		
	PPE	PE	SE	PPE	PE	SE	PPE	PE	SE
<b>Acknowledgement of multilingualism and the plurilingual repertoire of pupils</b>	8	11	9	15	11	11	1	2	4
<b>Teachers trained to make use of plurilingual repertoire of learners</b>	7	8	4	14	12	16	3	4	4

The majority of countries/regions report that multilingualism in society and the plurilingual repertoires of learners are acknowledged at all stages of education formally or informally, although teacher development tends to be more informal, particularly at secondary level. The countries/regions which reported a coherent integrated approach in all three education

domains were Romania, Spain (Madrid, Valencia, Sevilla) and Wales. In Bosnia and Herzegovina, England, France and Scotland the level of recognition of multi/plurilingualism is reported to be higher in pre-primary and primary compared to secondary schools, whereas in the Netherlands and Switzerland, there is greater acknowledgement at secondary level.

## 2.6 Languages in further and higher education

### *Languages in further education*

Further education, commonly referred to as *Vocational Education and Training (VET)*, is a particularly important component of the EU 2020 strategy, and the EC has been working closely with EU Member States to strengthen provision across Europe on the basis of the *Copenhagen Process* agreed upon in 2002 by the Council of the EU. In its *Communication* of 2008, the EC highlighted the importance of lifelong learning, the role of VET for the future of Europe, and the need to provide more opportunities to study languages within such institutions. EU structural funds have been made available for job-specific language courses.

The 2010 EC Communication, *A new impetus for European cooperation in Vocational Education and Training to support the Europe 2020 strategy*, calls for a strategic approach to mobility in VET, and recommends that all courses include periods of study or training in other countries with a much stronger focus on language learning. This is particularly important for those training to work in industries or sectors such as banking, tourism or international trade. Equally, because most VET institutions offer training programmes to the unemployed and newcomers, support in the national language is also of crucial importance. The 1998 CoE *Recommendation 98(6)* had also called for vocationally-oriented language learning, and urged institutions to provide language courses which ensure a balance between general and vocational components, and which equip students to participate in international projects and prepare them for taking up their occupation and being mobile within it.

The LRE research objective was to find out about the range of languages and the types of programmes offered in VET institutions across Europe. In order to do this our network of researchers collected primary data directly from the institutions at the largest VET centres (69 in total) in our 67 participating cities (See Table 4 in Section 1.5).

### *Additional support for the national language in VET*

To find out about the level of additional support available for the national language, our researchers asked institutions about:

- the diversity of target groups
- the variety of programmes offered to trainees
- the extent to which a coherent and an explicit curriculum is used
- support for job-related skills and for general upskilling
- types of funding source
- on-the-job training opportunities
- the use of EU instruments.

The results are presented in Table 34.

**Table 34:** Additional support for the national language in VET (N=69 institutions)

Dimensions	Replies	N	Replies	N	Replies	N
<b>Target groups</b>	all	37	restricted	9	not specified	23
<b>Range of language support programmes</b>	wide variety	30	limited variety	24	none	15
<b>Curriculum</b>	coherent and explicit	43	general	8	no guidelines	18
<b>Type of courses</b>	job-related courses and general courses	34	general courses only	13	job-related courses only	7
<b>State funding available</b>	full	39	partial	10	none	19
<b>Training periods in companies</b>	built into course	13	optional	3	none	53
<b>Use of European instruments</b>	yes	0			no	69

According to the information gathered by our researchers, 30 out of the 69 VET institutions surveyed offer a wide variety of support programmes in the national language, ranging from basic communication to advanced skills, 24 institutions offer a limited variety, and 15 offer no support. Well over half of the institutions surveyed have a coherent and explicit curriculum, and 34 institutions (almost half) offer both job-related and general language courses, with another seven offering job-related language courses only. In 39 institutions additional support in the national language is fully funded, with ten offering partial funding. Although training opportunities in companies are recommended in EU documents, both for work experience and to develop language skills, only 13 out of the 69 institutions report building partnerships with business to offer this. None of the institutions appears to use European instruments such as the *European Credit System* or *Europass* in defining and applying learning outcomes in national language programmes, and the assumption must be that this instrument is not known to the institutions surveyed.

### *Languages other than the national language in further education*

To explore the provision of foreign, R/M and immigrant languages, we asked institutions about:

- the number of languages on offer
- the types of programmes available
- the extent to which there is a coherent and explicit curriculum
- alignment with CEFR (for foreign languages)
- availability of state funding.

The results are presented in Table 35.

**Table 35:** Organisation of foreign, R/M and immigrant language teaching in further education (N=69 institutions)

Criteria	Replies	FL	R/ML	IL	Replies	FL	R/ML	IL	Replies	FL	R/ML	IL
<b>Number of languages offered</b>	>4 languages	15	0	1	3–4 languages	22	3	1	1–2 languages	25	22	2
<b>Range of programmes</b>	wide variety	41	17	2	limited variety	18	7	2	not specified	10	45	65
<b>Curriculum</b>	coherent and explicit	50	18	1	general	11	5	3	not specified	8	46	65
<b>Alignment with CEFR</b>	fully aligned	26	N/A	N/A	national standards	27	N/A	N/A	not specified	16	N/A	N/A
<b>State funding available</b>	no fees	38	13	1	partial fees	22	11	1	full fees	9	45	67

In terms of the organisation of language teaching as a whole, a similar pattern emerges to other education sectors, where national and foreign languages are given the most support, followed by R/M languages, and immigrant languages receiving the least.

Sixty-two of the 69 institutions surveyed offer foreign languages, with 15 reporting that more than four languages are taught, 22 offering three to four languages, and 25, one to two languages. Forty-one institutions offer a wide variety of programmes, from basic language skills to advanced, while 18 offer basic language skills only. A very high number, 50, have a coherent and explicit curriculum, and 26 align their courses with the CEFR. In 38 institutions, students are not required to pay for these courses, and in another 22 part of the costs are covered.

This contrasts with the picture for R/M languages, with only 24 institutions reporting that such courses are offered, and only 13 fully covering the costs. The countries/regions offering R/M language courses in all three of the VET institutions surveyed are Basque Country, Catalonia, Hungary, Northern Ireland, and Wales. Bosnia and Herzegovina and Switzerland offer courses in the other official languages in all three institutions surveyed. Immigrant languages are only offered in four of the institutions surveyed, one each in Austria, England, Italy and Wales.

Table 36 gives a comparative overview of provision in (mainly) R/M languages, (mainly) foreign languages and (mainly) immigrant languages at the 69 VET institutions surveyed in our 67 selected cities according to our researchers' reports.

**Table 36:** Comparative overview of (mainly) R/M languages, (mainly) foreign languages, and (mainly) immigrant languages provision in VET institutions (three in each country)

Country/region	(mainly) R/M languages	(mainly) foreign languages	(mainly) immigrant languages
Austria	–	Arabic, Chinese, Czech, Dutch (only e-learning), English, French, German, Hungarian, Italian, Japanese, Polish, Romanian, Russian, Slovak, Slovene, Spanish	Bosnian/Croatian/Serbian, Turkish
Basque Country	Basque	English, French	–
Bosnia and Herzegovina	Bosnian, Croatian and Serbian, as other national languages	Arabic, Czech, English, French, German, Italian, Latin, Persian, Russian, Turkish	–
Bulgaria	–	Croatian, English, French, German, Italian, Romanian, Russian, Spanish Turkish	–
Catalonia	Catalan	English, French, German	–
Denmark	–	English as CLIL, French, German, Spanish	–
England	–	French, German, Greek, Italian, Japanese, Portuguese, Russian, Spanish	Arabic, Chinese, Turkish, Urdu
Estonia	–	English, French, Finnish, German, Russian	–
France	Corsican	Arabic, Chinese, English, German, Italian, Spanish, Russian	–
Greece	–	English	–
Hungary	German	English	–
Italy	Slovene	English, French, German, Spanish	Arabic
Lithuania	Polish, Russian	English, French, German	–
Netherlands	–	English, French, German, Spanish	–
Northern Ireland	Irish, Ulster Scots	French, German, Greek, Italian, Japanese, Polish, Portuguese, Russian, Spanish	Arabic, Turkish, Chinese
Poland	–	English, French, German, Russian	–
Portugal	Mirandese	English, French, German, Spanish	–
Romania	Hungarian, Romani	English, French, German	–
Scotland	–	French, German, Italian, Polish, Spanish	–
Spain (Madrid, Valencia, Sevilla)	–	English, French	–
Switzerland	French, German, Italian as other national languages	English, Spanish	–
Ukraine	Russian and Ukrainian languages	English, French, German	–
Wales	Welsh	Chinese, French, German, Greek, Italian, Spanish	Arabic

As expected, English, French, German and Spanish are prominent among foreign languages, with some Russian offered as an R/M language in some countries/regions and a foreign language in others. Arabic is also offered in a number of VET institutions. As expected the main offer for R/M languages is from countries/regions where there is more than one official language. It is likely that Basque, Catalan, Irish/Ulster Scots, and Welsh are the medium of instruction in the institutions surveyed as well as being offered as a subject.

### Languages in higher education

Both the EU and the CoE emphasise in their documents the importance of linguistic diversification and the development of plurilingual competencies at all stages of education. At university level, this is particularly important as it is the final stage before starting a career. University graduates are likely to travel in their careers and to have regular dealings with speakers of other languages. It is essential that they acquire language skills to support them in this, as well as developing their core academic knowledge and skills. Some universities in Europe are already making language skills an entry requirement for all courses, while others encourage all students to spend some time each week following language courses.

The 1998 CoE *Recommendation 98 (6)* supports the development of links and exchanges between institutions and persons in higher education in other countries so as to offer to all the possibility of authentic experience of the language and culture of others. Higher education is also included under the ECRML, and education in and of R/M languages should be offered to students requesting it. For foreign languages, it is expected that higher education institutions will use the CEFR as the main document for developing their syllabuses and for the purposes of assessment.

EU documents are equally robust about increasing and diversifying language education in Higher Education. The EU *Council Conclusions (2011)* call for Member States to step up efforts to achieve the Barcelona objective by enhancing the provision, quality and relevance of language teaching in general education, VET and higher education, as well as in the context of lifelong learning. The 2008 EC *Communication* had also called for greater mobility and exchanges, and for universities to teach languages to all students regardless of their chosen discipline.

In light of the above, we asked our researchers to interview representatives of three general/public universities in each of our target cities about:

- the languages of instruction
- the languages in which websites are presented
- target groups for additional support in the national language
- the languages offered for non-language students
- the extent to which CEFR is used to guide syllabus development and assessment
- recruitment of non-national students
- mobility for language students
- mobility for non-language students.

We succeeded in gathering data on 65 general/public universities and the results are presented in Table 37.

**Table 37:** Practice of multilingualism at 65 general/public universities surveyed

Dimension	N countries/regions	N countries/regions	N countries/regions
<b>Language(s) of instruction</b>	23 national, foreign, R/M	31 national and foreign	11 national only
<b>Languages on website</b>	17 national, foreign, R/M	38 national and foreign	10 national only
<b>Target groups for additional support in NL</b>	24 all students	38 restricted	3 none
<b>Number of languages offered to non-language students</b>	31 >4	10 3–4	14 1–2
<b>Level to be achieved by language students</b>	34 linked to CEFR	22 national or institution based	9 none
<b>Recruitment of non-national students</b>	33 international and immigrant	31 only international	1 only native speakers of national language
<b>Mobility for language students</b>	10 obligatory	51 optional	4 no offer
<b>Mobility for non-language students</b>	1 obligatory	60 optional	4 no offer

As is to be expected, all of the targeted European universities in our sample cities provide instruction in the national language because in most cases it is the main language of their student populations and it is the official state language. However, in the majority of institutions surveyed other languages can also be used. A breakdown of which languages are used as a medium of instruction and an exact picture of how the language of instruction in European universities is changing due to globalisation of both the economy and academic research is a subject for further investigation. The international mobility of students and staff, and the desire to attract a global and diverse student body, appears to be making English the second language of many European universities and many academic textbooks are also being written in English.

It is encouraging that 55 of the 65 university websites surveyed are multilingual, with only ten universities providing information in the national language only. This is an indication that most European universities in large cities are making significant efforts to promote diversity and attract a diverse student body. The LRE survey did not capture the exact languages in which the websites are displayed, and this is an area for further research.

In terms of additional support in the national language, important even at this level to give all students the opportunity to achieve a good degree, 24 of the 65 universities surveyed provide support for all, with another 38 providing it for non-native speakers only, adding up to a good level of provision overall.

A very high number of universities offer language courses to non-language students, as recommended by the European institutions. The offer is wide, with 31 institutions (almost half) giving students the choice of more than four languages. Only eight universities from our sample do not offer non-language students the opportunity to learn other languages. It is a positive sign that the CEFR is used to design syllabuses and inform assessment in over half of the universities surveyed. Of course the actual take-up of language courses among undergraduates and postgraduates is another matter, and is beyond the scope of our research.

Given the strong competition for talent and extra funding among European universities, it is no surprise that all universities except one make special efforts to attract international students. It is interesting, though, that half also report conscious efforts to attract students with an immigrant background at home. How this is being done would be an excellent subject for further investigation.

Student mobility is supported financially by European universities but only ten of the universities surveyed make mobility programmes compulsory for language students, with the great majority only 'encouraging' it. As is to be expected, mobility is optional rather than obligatory for all but one of the universities surveyed for non-language students. The EC publishes statistics on student mobility under the *Erasmus* programme and this source should be consulted to gain insights into the actual numbers of students from each country spending time in another country as part of their studies: [http://ec.europa.eu/education/erasmus/statistics\\_en.htm](http://ec.europa.eu/education/erasmus/statistics_en.htm)

## 2.7 Languages in audiovisual media and press

EU and CoE documents are clear about what they recognise as good policies for multi/plurilingualism in the audiovisual media and the press. The 2008 EC *Communication* emphasised the need to provide for people who do not speak so many languages through the media, new technologies and translation:

*Media can be a great source of informal language learning through 'edutainment' and subtitled films.*

Through this Communication Member States were invited to support the subtitling and circulation of cultural works. The 2009 *European Parliament Resolution* also encouraged the use of subtitles in television programmes. The High Level Group on Multilingualism (2007) devoted a section of its report to this area, stressing the importance of the media in shaping people's attitudes to other languages and cultures and encouraging a move from dubbing to subtitling:

*Television companies which normally use dubbing should be encouraged to offer subtitling in addition to traditional dubbing, so that viewers have a choice.*

From an R/M languages perspective, Article 11 of the ECRML focuses on the media, and specifies that signatories should ensure that radio and television stations are created in R/M languages, as well as encouraging the production and distribution of television and radio programmes and newspapers in these languages. It also stipulates that there should be freedom of direct reception of radio and television broadcasts from neighbouring countries in a language used in identical or similar format to an R/M language.

In our LRE research we aimed to reflect the above recommendations and guidelines, asking researchers to collect data from the target cities in each national or regional context. The following variables were included:

- the range of languages on radio and television
- subtitling practices at the cinema and on television
- reception of R/M languages outside the region of origin
- provision available for sign languages
- the diversity of languages in which newspapers are available in major kiosks and in major train stations.

In order to gather data on the range of languages on radio and television, we asked our researchers to record the radio and television programmes listed in different languages in the best-selling newspapers in the cities surveyed. This method is basically in line with the rationale of linguistic landscaping. Being aware of the limitations of such research, the aim was to take at a given time and place a snapshot of the actual situation as portrayed in different newspapers regarding television and radio programmes. Based on our researchers' reports it becomes clear that multilingual radio and television programmes are available in a number of countries. Our researchers recorded only programmes in the national language on television and radio as listed in the newspapers in Bosnia and Herzegovina, Greece and Poland. Most other participating countries offered programmes in English, German and French both on television and on radio. Next to the national language, English is the most common television language in Austria, Basque Country, Catalonia, Denmark, Estonia, Italy, the Netherlands/Friesland, Portugal, Spain, Switzerland and Ukraine. German television programmes are recorded in Catalonia, Denmark, Estonia, France, Hungary, the Netherlands/Friesland and Romania. French is listed in Catalonia, Denmark, England and Estonia. In a number of countries a rich variety of television programmes in R/M languages are listed; for instance, Bulgaria offers television programmes in Armenian, Hebrew, Romani and Turkish. France, Hungary and Romania display similar trends regarding R/M languages. In some countries/regions like Catalonia, England, the Netherlands and Switzerland, television programmes in immigrant languages are listed as well. Radio programmes show a similar pattern to the television programmes. While the offer on radio is much broader compared to television programmes in Bulgaria, France, Hungary, Italy and Lithuania, the variety is much less in Catalonia, Estonia and the Netherlands.

Bosnia and Herzegovina, Denmark, Estonia, Lithuania, Portugal, Switzerland and Wales report that television and radio broadcasts in R/M languages can always be received from other countries/regions, while France and Catalonia report that this is never the case. Researchers in the remaining countries/regions said that R/M language programmes can sometimes be received across borders. The reasons behind these findings are worth further exploration.

According to research conducted by the Media Consulting Group (2007) and in line with repeatedly expressed EU recommendations, subtitling is becoming more widespread in European countries. However, dubbing and voice-over practices are still common. Countries are commonly divided into two large groupings (dubbing countries versus subtitling countries), although the actual situation in Europe is far more complex. The LRE findings presented in Table 38 are comparable to earlier studies, with around half of the countries/regions commonly using dubbing practices, while the other half commonly provide subtitles.

**Table 38:** Subtitling vs. dubbing on television and at the cinema

Country/ region	Television productions		Film productions	
	Commonly dubbed	Commonly subtitled	Commonly dubbed	Commonly subtitled
Austria	√		√	
Basque Country	√		√	
Bosnia and Herzegovina		√		√
Bulgaria	√			√
Catalonia	√		√	
Denmark		√		√
England		√		√
Estonia		√		√
France	√			√
Friesland		√		√
Greece		√		√
Hungary	√		√	
Italy	√		√	
Lithuania	√			√
Netherlands		√		√
Northern Ireland		√		√
Poland	√		√	
Portugal		√		√
Romania		√		√
Scotland		√		√
Spain	√		√	
Switzerland		√		√
Ukraine		√	√	
Wales		√		√

The countries/regions where both television and cinema are dubbed are Austria, Catalonia, Hungary, Italy, Poland and Spain. The countries/regions where subtitles are used on both television and cinema are Bosnia and Herzegovina, Denmark, England, Estonia, Friesland, Greece, the Netherlands, Northern Ireland, Portugal, Romania, Scotland, Switzerland and Wales. Other countries/regions have a hybrid approach where programmes are subtitled in one medium and dubbed in the other.

Regarding the availability of newspapers at the largest kiosks and train stations in our surveyed cities in each country/region, all researchers went into these kiosks and train stations and listed the available different newspapers in different languages, again following the methodology of linguistic landscaping to provide a snapshot at a given place and time.

In Table 39, the 20 most common non-national/non-regional languages in which newspapers were sold in the sampled cities outside the country/region of reference are presented.

**Table 39:** Multilingual spectrum of reported newspapers at the city level (Top 20 of languages of different newspapers outside the country or region of reference)

Languages in newspapers	Frequency
1. English	408
2. German	270
3. French	181
4. Russian	162
5. Italian	127
6. Arabic	77
7. Turkish	54
8. Spanish	51
9. Dutch	46
10. Albanian	40
11. Serbian	36
12. Chinese	27
13. Croatian	23
14. Bulgarian	12
15. Japanese	11
16. Polish	10
17. Greek	8
18. Bosnian	7
19. Hungarian	7
20. Swedish	6



Overall, English is the most common language, followed at a distance by German, French, Russian and Italian. One might infer that there are basically two types of target audiences for these newspapers: a) newspapers appealing to international travellers, business people and tourists such as newspapers in English, German, French or Japanese; b) newspapers appealing to immigrant groups in various European cities, such as newspapers in Arabic, Turkish, Albanian or Chinese. Of course these distinctions are not watertight.

The other area we looked at in the audiovisual section was the extent to which sign language is offered in television programmes for important media events. The Parliamentary Assembly of the CoE in its 2003 *Recommendation* on the protection of sign languages in the Member States pointed out that sign languages are a feature of Europe's cultural wealth,

that these languages are natural means of communication for people who are deaf, and that official recognition of sign languages is needed. It was also recommended that broadcasting television programmes in sign languages or with subtitling would enhance the process of integration of the deaf community into the mainstream.

In Table 40, we show the answers given by our researchers not only to the question about sign language on television, but also to the other two questions asked about sign languages in the LRE project: the extent to which official language policy documents exist in which sign languages are officially recognised or promoted in a country/region, and also to what extent people who are deaf could make use of sign languages in official interactions with the authorities in public services. Table 40 provides an overview of the reported sign language provision.

**Table 40:** Sign language provision in 24 countries/regions

Country/region	Sign language is officially recognised or promoted	Deaf people can make use of sign language in official interactions with the authorities	Sign language is offered in important media events
Austria	✓	Always	Sometimes
Basque Country	–	–	Sometimes
Bosnia and Herzegovina	✓	Always	Sometimes
Bulgaria	✓	Only in some cases	Regularly
Catalonia	✓	Always	Sometimes
Denmark	–	Always	Regularly
England	✓	–	Regularly
Estonia	✓	Only in some cases	Always
France	✓	Always	Regularly
Friesland	✓	Only in some cases	Sometimes
Greece	–	–	Sometimes
Hungary	✓	Always	Sometimes
Italy	–	–	–
Lithuania	✓	Always	Sometimes
Netherlands	✓	Only in some cases	Sometimes
Northern Ireland	✓	Only in some cases	Regularly
Poland	–	–	–
Portugal	✓	Always	Regularly
Romania	✓	Always	–
Scotland	✓	Only in some cases	Regularly
Spain (Madrid, Valencia, Sevilla)	✓	Always	Regularly
Switzerland	✓	Always	Regularly
Ukraine	✓	Always	Sometimes
Wales	✓	Only in some cases	Sometimes

Sign languages are officially recognised/promoted in all countries/regions with the exception of the Basque Country, Denmark, Greece, Italy and Poland. People who are deaf can always make use of sign languages in official interactions with the authorities in half of the countries/regions surveyed. Facilities for sign language provision in important media events are always available in Estonia and regularly available in another nine countries/regions. In Italy, Poland and Romania researchers report that these facilities are not available. On the whole, levels of awareness regarding sign languages appear to be increasing across Europe, which is of crucial importance for the deaf communities.

## 2.8 Languages in public services and spaces

The *EC Communication* (2008) is one of a number of EU documents to underline the importance of multilingual public services being made available to citizens and visitors who do not speak the local language:

*Metropolitan areas and tourist resorts in Europe should make information available in different languages and rely on multilingual people to act as cultural mediators and interpreters. This is required to cope with the needs of foreigners who do not speak the local language. Legal translation and interpretation are particularly important.*

The ECRML also covers public services, more from a citizen's perspective. Article 9 focuses on legal proceedings, and guarantees that both criminal and civil proceedings can be conducted in R/M languages using interpreters and translators at no extra expense to the person concerned, and also allowing citizens to submit legal documents in these languages. Article 10 relates to administrative authorities and public services, and states that where the number of residents justifies it, public officers should speak R/M languages and texts should be made available in them. It should also be possible to use these languages in debates within local and regional authorities. It is important when making this provision that the official languages of the state should not be excluded.

Both EC and CoE documents, while pushing cities and public authorities to be more multilingual, at the same time encourage them to offer opportunities for citizens to learn the local language at low cost.

Our focus is on languages in public services and spaces at the city (council) level, that is, at the central city level, *not* at the decentralised level of different neighbourhoods. We make use of recommendations of the Eurocities network of major European cities and recent recommendations of a European pioneer in this domain, the city of Sheffield in the UK. The *Sheffield City Languages Strategy* was published in 2004 and sought to make a link between language learning and the wider city agenda of inclusion. In 2008, Sheffield became the first city in Europe to have its language policies profiled by the Council of Europe, which provides expert assistance with a self-evaluation of policy by countries, regions or cities. A city report covering the promotion of multilingualism in education and beyond, including business, was compiled by Reynolds (2008).

In the LRE research, our aim was to explore language strategies and policies at city level. To do this we looked at the following dimensions:

- to what extent the city has an institutionalised strategy for promoting multilingualism
- whether services and documents are provided in languages other than the national language
- web presence in other languages
- the use of interpreters and translators in public services
- the languages included in staff job descriptions, provision of language training recruitment of speakers of other languages, and records kept of language competencies of staff
- recognition for plurilingual skills of staff.

We also asked city representatives to state the number of languages for which the above policies are adopted. In addition, the actual languages, offered by cities in *oral and written communication facilities* were surveyed in the domains of education, emergency, health, social, legal, transport, immigration, and tourism services, as well as theatre programmes.

The LRE data was gathered through a mixture of questionnaire, interview and desk research, and was for the most part submitted by representatives of the city authorities. Inevitably the nature of the questionnaire means that it is impossible to capture detail, but these are nonetheless useful indicative findings for future discussion and exploration.

Sixty-four cities in total were surveyed. The full list of cities and the criteria for selection are set out in Part 1 of this book, the basic formula being that in each country/region a capital city, the second largest city, and a city/town with a regional language presence were chosen. The data reported for language strategies and policies at institutional level is set out in Table 41.

**Table 41:** Reported language strategies and policies in 64 participating cities

Dimensions	Widely practised	Occasionally practised	Not practised
Having an institutionalised strategy for promoting multilingualism	20	25	19
Multilingual services	30	24	10
Website presence in other languages	27	18	19
Annual municipal reports in other languages	15	10	39
Use of interpreters and translators	35	24	5
Language competencies in job descriptions of staff	23	27	14
Language training offered to employees	18	24	22
Recruitment of speakers of other languages	11	30	23
Record of language skills of staff	17	9	38

According to our researchers' reports, the cities provide services in 140 languages other than the national language. More detail on which languages are offered can be found in Table 46.

The overall picture that emerges is one where around half of the cities surveyed report that the offer of multilingual services is widely practised, while one-third actually have a widely practised institutionalised strategy for promoting multilingualism. Only ten cities out of the 64 surveyed do not provide multilingual services. Twenty-seven cities have complete web services in other languages, while 18 report that this is practised, but only in part. The use of interpreters and translators is an important source of information for non-native speakers of local languages. Such services are provided widely in 35 cities and partly in 24, with only five cities reporting no offer at all. Twenty-three cities (over a third) make it a widespread practice to include languages in the job descriptions of their staff, with another 27 reporting that this happens, but only occasionally. Eighteen cities provide thorough provision of language training for staff with another 24 reporting that it happens occasionally. Only 11 cities make it widespread practice to recruit speakers of other languages. Just under a third of cities make it common practice to keep a record of language competencies of staff, while over half do not have such practices.

As well as asking city representatives about how widely the above policies for multilingualism are practised, LRE researchers also asked about the number of languages for which these policies are implemented. Table 42 shows the distribution of cities when both elements are taken into consideration.

**Table 42:** Policies for multilingualism and number of languages offered in 64 participating cities

<b>No policies in place</b>	1 city
<b>Poorly developed policies in very limited number of languages</b>	6 cities
<b>Partly developed policies in a few languages</b>	21 cities
<b>Developed policies in several languages</b>	31 cities
<b>Well developed policies in many languages</b>	3 cities
<b>Very well developed policies in many languages</b>	2 cities

The five cities with the most developed policies in the most languages according to the data are in ranked order: Vienna, Barcelona, London, Milan and Kraków. Other cities tend to offer certain services in many languages, but others only in the national language or in a limited range of languages. In Table 43 the services themselves are ranked according to the number of languages in which they are offered.

**Table 43:** Public services ranked in order from the most to the least number of languages in which communication facilities are offered in 64 participating cities

Oral communication	Written communication
1. Tourism services	Tourism services
2. Immigration and integration services	Immigration and integration services
3. Legal services	Transport services
4. Health services	Health services
5. Social services	Emergency services
6. Emergency services	Social services
7. Education services	Legal services
8. Transport services	Education services
9. Theatre programmes	Theatre programmes
10. Political debates and decision-making processes	Political debates and decision-making processes

The best provision is in tourism, immigration and integration, legal (oral communication) and transport services (written communication). Health services are also commonly offered in a number of languages. The lowest levels of multilingual services are in the cultural sector (theatre) and in political debates/decision making. Education services also do not rank as high as one might expect given the large number of students (and their parents) attending schools across Europe who are not fluent in the official language of the country/region where they are educated. The lower scores for political debates and decision-making processes may have a negative effect on equal opportunities for involvement of all stakeholders, especially minority groups, newcomers and immigrants, in active citizenship.

In terms of the actual number and range of languages offered in each city, it should again be emphasised that the data is based on questionnaires and written responses from city representatives. Further in-depth observation would be required to establish if the languages reported to be offered actually are offered, together with the consistency and levels of language competence. Nonetheless, the LRE data gathered is a good indicator and platform for further research.

The distribution of cities according to the number of languages in which oral communication services are available is set out in Table 44.

**Table 44:** Distribution of cities according to number of languages offered in oral communication across ten public services

The extent of oral multilingual services	Number of cities
Services available only in the national language	1
Services available in 1 or 2 languages on average	23
Services available in 3 or 4 languages on average	23
Services available in more than 4 languages on average	17

According to the responses given, 17 cities offer most services in more than four languages, while 23 offer them in three to four languages. The ten cities which report offering the most oral communication services in the most languages are in ranked order London, Aberdeen, Glasgow, Madrid, Valencia, Zurich, Milan, Belfast, Barcelona and Lugano.

For written communication, the distribution of services according to the same system is set out in Table 45.

**Table 45:** Distribution of cities according to number of languages offered in written communication across ten public services

The extent of written multilingual services	Number of cities
Services available only in the national language	1
Services available in 1 or 2 languages on average	30
Services available in 3 or 4 languages on average	27
Services available in more than 4 languages on average	6

A lower number of cities are in the top categories for written communication, suggesting that less emphasis is placed on providing documents in multiple languages than in providing on-the-spot oral interpreting and mediation. While 40 cities reported offering oral communication facilities in more than three languages, 33 do so in written form. According to the reported data, the ten cities which offer the most written communication services in the most languages are in ranked order London, Glasgow, Aberdeen, Belfast, Valencia, Sevilla, Lugano, Zurich, Madrid, and Milan.

What this high-level data does suggest is that cities are already sensitive to the language needs of citizens, at least in the most essential services, but that there is room for development in broadening out the range of services across which multiple languages are offered. In terms of the languages actually offered by cities, Table 46 shows the 20 most frequently mentioned languages across the policies and services surveyed.

**Table 46:** Multilingual spectrum of reported languages for public services and spaces in 64 cities (Top 20 of languages *outside* the country or the region of reference)

Languages in public services and public spaces	Frequency
1. English	771
2. German	290
3. Russian	285
4. French	255
5. Spanish	153
6. Chinese	117
7. Arabic	117
8. Italian	98
9. Polish	69
10. Turkish	67
11. Romanian	60
12. Croatian	58
13. Portuguese	55
14. Bosnian	37
15. Japanese	36
16. Hungarian	34
17. Urdu	34
18. Albanian	27
19. Serbian	27
20. Persian	21

English is by far the most widely offered language other than the national language for oral and written services in all cities surveyed, followed by German, Russian, French and Spanish. Chinese and Arabic also emerge as high priority and are offered by a number of cities. The outcomes for the top five languages in newspapers and public services/spaces at the city level are very similar. As in the case of the languages in which newspapers are offered, we can infer that there are two types of target groups for oral and written communication services in public services and spaces: a) services intended for international travellers, business people and tourists in English, German, Russian, French, Spanish and Italian; b) services intended for immigrant groups in Arabic, Turkish, Croatian, Chinese, and so on. There may be a number of reasons why cities prioritise certain languages over others, and this is an area for further exploration with city administrators and their communications teams.

## 2.9 Languages in business

The EU institutions have consistently promoted multilingualism as a factor in Europe's competitiveness, and in the mobility and employability of people. The EU Council *Resolution* (2008) called for businesses to develop capability in a wide range of languages to broaden access to markets, and encouraged them to take greater account of language skills in the career development of staff. The EC *Communication* of the same year referred to the ELAN study of 2006, which had concluded that language and intercultural skills are relevant to success in export, and a significant amount of business had been lost to Europe as a result of lack of language and intercultural skills.

The High Level Group on Multilingualism (2007) also devoted a section of their report to business, concluding that although English was the leading business language, it would be other languages which would provide EU companies with a competitive edge. It recommended that companies should invest in languages, use the current language resources of their staff, develop language management strategies, and set up public-private partnerships with the education sector to ensure that the right languages for business were being learnt.

The Business Forum for Multilingualism (2008), established by the EC, published a new series of recommendations on language strategies in the business world. In its concluding remarks, it pointed out that:

*Companies need to take stock of existing language skills within the company and use these strategically. They should look over their recruitment policies, their training strategies and their principles for mobility. They can encourage staff to use and develop the skills they have already acquired and offer language training in ways that are both motivating and compatible with the demands of the workplace. (2008:13)*

In line with these recommendations, a survey was developed for LRE to explore the language strategies of companies, to find out whether or not they prioritise language skills in recruitment and support language training for their employees, to establish the level of multilingualism within companies, and the range of languages used to communicate with customers and in promotional materials. The criteria investigated are divided into three main categories: *general company language strategies, internal language strategies, and external language strategies.*

LRE researchers collected data from a selected set of companies based in cities across all countries/regions and 484 companies were surveyed in total. Four business sectors were targeted (banks, hotels, building construction companies and supermarkets) as explained in Part 1 in Table 5. The reason for this choice was that we wanted to collect data about companies which, as well as doing business with other countries, also have a strong customer-facing aspect to their work. Data collectors were asked to conduct the survey with at least 24 companies in their country/region, with samples distributed as evenly as possible across multinational/international (M/I), national (N), and regional or local (R/L) businesses, and as evenly as possible across business sectors. This ambition turned out to be difficult to realise across all countries/regions. Table 47 presents the distribution of business types surveyed. Overall, although the number of hotels participating was relatively high compared to other sectors, there was a good balance of sectors.

**Table 47:** Distribution of companies across different sectors (N=484)

Hotels	Banks	Building constructors	Supermarkets	Total
140	120	116	108	484

Under the heading of *General company language strategies*, representatives of companies answered questions about:

- whether the company has an explicit language strategy in place
- whether the company places an emphasis on language skills in recruitment
- provision for international mobility for staff for language learning and intercultural awareness
- the use of external translators/interpreters
- whether records are kept of staff language skills
- the use of networks for language training
- awareness of EU programmes/funding
- the use of EU programmes/funding.

The results are presented in Table 48 for the 484 companies surveyed.

**Table 48:** Companies reporting policies and practices for multilingualism in four sectors (484 companies, in %)

Policy	Widely practised	Occasionally practised	Not practised
<b>Languages strategy</b>	24	28	48
<b>Language skills in recruitment</b>	55	28	17
<b>Mobility</b>	23	27	50
<b>Use of external translators/interpreters</b>	22	35	43
<b>Staff records of language skills</b>	1	29	70
<b>Use of networks for language training</b>	10	15	75
<b>Use of EU programmes/funding</b>	5	8	87
<b>Awareness of EU programmes/funding</b>	0	27	73

The results show that a quarter of companies in these sectors have an explicit languages strategy in place, and over half take languages into account when recruiting new staff. A quarter regularly encourage mobility of staff for language learning and development of intercultural awareness. However, 70% do not keep a record of staff language skills, and very few take advantage of EU programmes for language learning.

For *Internal language strategies*, we asked companies about how they promote language skills in the workplace, and the approach they take to languages used in documents and for internal communication. In order to ascertain the relative importance of the national language, English, and R/M, foreign and immigrant languages to these companies, we asked them to specify which practice they adopt for each language type, and also to specify which languages other than the national language and English are given the most attention. The areas covered were:

- partnerships with the education sector for developing language skills of employees
- reward/promotion schemes based on language skills
- language training provision
- use of CEFR in language training
- languages used for workplace documents and the intranet
- languages used for software and web programmes.

The results are presented in Table 49 according to language type.

**Table 49:** Companies reporting good practice according to language type: NL = National Language(s); BE = Business English; OL = Other Languages (484 companies, in %)

Criteria	Widely practised			Occasionally practised			Not practised		
	NL	BE	OL	NL	BE	OL	NL	BE	OL
<b>Partnerships with education sector</b>	7	10	7	10	17	7	83	73	86
<b>Reward/promotion schemes</b>	5	11	5	9	12	6	86	77	89
<b>Language training provision</b>	14	27	12	18	23	12	68	50	76
<b>Use of CEFR in language training</b>	4	7	3	7	9	6	89	84	91
<b>Languages used for workplace documents and intranet</b>	96	41	14	3	21	10	1	38	76
<b>Languages used for software and web programmes</b>	88	46	11	6	22	5	6	32	84

As we can see from Table 49, widespread provision of language training is reported for business English in 27% of the companies surveyed, with 14% offering support in the national language for non-native speakers, and 12% for other languages. A relatively small percentage have reward or promotion schemes, with 11% reporting that it is widespread for business English and only 5% for the national language and other languages. The number of companies forging partnerships with the education sector to develop the language skills of their staff also appears modest, with a quarter doing so either regularly or occasionally for English, 17% for the national language for non-native speakers, and 14% for developing other languages. The CEFR is used widely by a very small percentage of the companies surveyed to develop curricula and evaluate progress, suggesting the need for awareness-raising.

In terms of the languages actually used in workplace documents and on corporate intranets, as expected the national language predominates, although almost half of the companies surveyed report that business English is also widely used. Other languages are widely used in just over 10% of the companies surveyed.

In looking at *external language strategies* we asked companies about which languages they use to communicate externally in their:

- annual business reports
- marketing materials
- corporate branding/identity
- company website.

The results are presented in Table 50 according to language type.

**Table 50:** Languages used by companies in external communications: NL = national language(s); BE = Business English; OL = Other Languages (% of 484 companies)

Type of communication	Widely practised			Occasionally practised			Not practised		
	NL	BE	OL	NL	BE	OL	NL	BE	OL
<b>Annual business report</b>	92	38	11	2	11	5	6	51	84
<b>Marketing materials</b>	95	40	19	2	17	11	3	42	70
<b>Corporate branding</b>	92	48	22	5	24	19	3	28	59
<b>Company website</b>	92	61	30	2	5	5	6	34	65

These results show that in the sectors surveyed just under half of the companies use business English widely in addition to the national language in external communications, and that as many as 30% use other languages on their websites.

The Business Forum for Multilingualism (2008:13) highlights multiple language strategies as one of the basic conditions for success in trade and commerce for European businesses:

*Real progress will be achieved if businesses, from micro companies to multinationals, develop creative and dynamic language strategies, adapted to the individual possibilities of each organisation.*

Our LRE survey attempts to explore how this ambition is being realised by asking companies questions about which specific languages they prioritise and promote in addition to the national language and English. Table 51 breaks down the other languages according to frequency of mention by the respondents to the questionnaire and lists the top 20 languages.

**Table 51:** Multilingual spectrum of reported languages prioritised by 484 companies in four sectors  
(Top 20 languages other than English outside the country or region of reference)

Languages in business	Total frequency of mention	Distribution of language frequencies in different countries (if more than 5 countries mentioned a language, only those countries with the 5 highest frequencies are shown)
1. German	430	Switzerland, Cantons of Geneva and Ticino only (57), Spain* (38), Bosnia and Herzegovina (33), Hungary/Lithuania/Netherlands (27)
2. Russian	333	Estonia (94), Ukraine (78), Lithuania (64), Greece (20), Poland (15)
3. French	322	Switzerland, Cantons of Zurich and Ticino only (71), Spain* (47), UK (41), Netherlands (37), Portugal (33)
4. Spanish	155	Portugal (31), Switzerland (29), UK (28), Netherlands (18), France (16)
5. Italian	134	Switzerland, Cantons Zurich and Geneva only (26), Austria (24), Bosnia and Herzegovina (16), Spain* (15), UK (15)
6. Finnish	66	Estonia (59), Denmark (2), Lithuania (2), Netherlands/Poland/UK (1)
7. Chinese	55	UK (34), Greece (9), Spain* (4), Netherlands (3), Poland (2)
8. Polish	47	Netherlands (12), Ukraine (11), Lithuania (7), Austria (6), UK (5)
9. Portuguese	35	Spain* (13), Switzerland (11), Netherlands (3), UK (3), Austria/France (2)
10. Turkish	29	Bosnia and Herzegovina (13), the Netherlands (6), Switzerland (4), Austria (3), Romania (2)
11. Arabic	26	UK (10), Portugal/Switzerland (4), Greece (3), Spain* (2)
12. Croatian	26	Austria (17), Hungary/Italy (3), Switzerland (2), Bosnia and Herzegovina (1)
13. Czech	26	Austria (16), Hungary (6), Poland (3), Switzerland (1)
14. Hungarian	23	Austria (11), Poland (9), Romania (3)
15. Catalan	22	Spain* (18), UK (3), Poland (1)
16. Swedish	22	Estonia (12), Denmark (4), Lithuania/UK (2), Poland/Spain* (1)
17. Japanese	20	UK (7), Poland (5), Italy (3), Netherlands (2), Greece/Switzerland/Ukraine (1)
18. Latvian	20	Estonia/Lithuania (9), Denmark/UK (1)
19. Romanian	19	Austria (9), Greece (5), Hungary (3), Bulgaria (2)
20. Danish	18	Hungary (6), Lithuania (5), Estonia/Poland (3), UK (1)

\*Frequencies from Spain: only the mentions in Madrid, Sevilla and Valencia were taken into account.

German, Russian, French, Spanish and Italian emerge as the most commonly used languages by the companies surveyed. From the data presented on the distribution of languages, it becomes clear that some languages, such as German, French and Japanese, are used by a variety of companies in a rich variety of countries. On the other hand, some languages, such as Russian and Finnish, are used mainly in neighbouring countries. The fact that Finnish is reported by most companies in Estonia puts it high on the list. Chinese, Turkish, Arabic, and Japanese are valued by some companies in Europe although perhaps higher prioritisation of these might be expected. More in-depth research will be required to gain further insights into the reasons behind the choice of languages by companies, and the results need to be compared with similar studies in these and other sectors to see what patterns emerge.



## 2.10 Cross-sectional perspectives on multilingual profiles beyond education

In order to get a comparative overview of the distribution of different languages across different language domains beyond education, we present in Table 52 the top 20 most frequently mentioned languages other than the national languages in the language domains of press, public services and spaces, and business.

Overall, English, French, German, Russian and Spanish ('the big five') are the most widely used languages in the European context with English in top position and other languages following at a (very) large distance. English language newspapers are available at most kiosks and train stations in major cities.

Regarding public services and spaces, English again turns out to be by far the most widely used language. In the cross-sectional table, we can see three groups of languages being used in different domains and for different services: languages that are used as *lingua franca* such as English, French, German and Russian; languages that are usually found in certain regions such as Albanian, Catalan and Slovene; and languages that are used by major immigrant groups such as Arabic and Turkish. Two of the three most supported R/M languages by countries/regions, namely Romani supported by six countries and Slovak supported by five countries, appear in none of the three domains.

**Table 52:** Distribution of reported languages in newspapers, in public services/spaces and in business *outside* the country or region of reference (Top 20)

Languages in newspapers	Frequency	Languages in public services and spaces	Frequency	Languages in business (other than English)	Frequency
English	408	English	771	German	430
German	270	German	290	Russian	333
French	181	Russian	285	French	322
Russian	162	French	255	Spanish	155
Italian	127	Spanish	153	Italian	134
Arabic	77	Chinese	117	Finnish	66
Turkish	54	Arabic	117	Chinese	55
Spanish	51	Italian	98	Polish	47
Dutch	46	Polish	69	Portuguese	35
Albanian	40	Turkish	67	Turkish	29
Serbian	36	Romanian	60	Arabic	26
Chinese	27	Croatian	58	Croatian	26
Croatian	23	Portuguese	55	Czech	26
Bulgarian	12	Bosnian	37	Hungarian	23
Japanese	11	Japanese	36	Catalan	22
Polish	10	Hungarian	34	Swedish	22
Greek	8	Urdu	34	Japanese	20
Bosnian	7	Albanian	27	Latvian	20
Hungarian	7	Serbian	27	Romanian	19
Swedish	6	Persian	21	Danish	18

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# Glossary

Definitions given on levels and types of education originate from the *International Standard Classification of Education*. The ISCE is widely used in a range of *Eurydice* documents with key data on education in Europe.

## CLIL

Content and Language Integrated Learning.

CLIL involves pupils learning subjects such as science or geography through the medium of another language.

## Curriculum

The total educational programme of a school type, specifying for each year/grade what subjects are taught for how many hours a week and how many weeks a year, and specifying for each year/grade the content and attainment level required to complete the subject successfully.

## Foreign languages

Languages that are not learnt or used at home but learnt and taught at school or used as languages of wider communication in non-educational sectors.

## Immigrants

In *Eurydice* documents and *EuroStat* statistics, immigrants are *foreign-born* and/or *non-national* population groups in the country of residence. In our LRE project, immigrants may or may not be foreign-born and they may or may not be non-nationals in the country of residence, depending on a whole range of variable country-specific regulations on acquiring *citizenship*.

## Immigrant children

Children who attend school in a country other than their country of origin, or the country of origin of their parents or grandparents. These terms of reference encompass several legally distinct situations, including those of refugees, asylum seekers, children of immigrant workers, children of third-country nationals with long-term residential status, children of workers from third countries who are not long-term residents, children who are irregularly resident and children of immigrant origin who do not necessarily benefit from legal provisions relating specifically to education.

## Immigrant languages

Languages spoken by immigrants and their descendants in the country of residence, originating from a wide range of (former) source countries.

## In-service teacher training

Refresher courses for teachers (already active in teaching) on the latest developments in the teacher's field and/or in the field of pedagogy/education.

## Lower secondary education

It continues the basic programmes of the primary level, although teaching is typically more subject-focused. Usually, the end of this level coincides with the end of compulsory education. In the context of the participating LRE countries, lower and/or upper secondary education may refer to *age-related* differences and/or differences related to *type of schooling*.

## Mother tongue/Native language

Most commonly conceived as the language first learnt and still understood. The traditional research question on mother tongue in European large-scale population studies (including census research) is gradually replaced by a research question on home language use because the latter concept is more transparent *for informants* than the concepts of mother tongue or native language.

## Multilingualism

The presence in a geographical area, large or small, of more than one variety of language, i.e. the mode of speaking of a social group whether it is formally recognised as a language or not.

## National language(s)

Official language(s) of a nation-state.

## Plurilingualism

The repertoire of varieties of language that many individuals use; it includes the language variety often referred to as mother tongue or first language and any number of other languages or varieties.

## Pre-primary education

Pre-primary education is defined as the initial stage of organised instruction. It is school or centre-based and is designed for children aged at least three.

## Pre-service teacher training

Course/programme training students to become qualified teachers, i.e. taking place before the person starts teaching.

## Primary education

This level begins between four and seven years of age, is compulsory in all countries/regions and generally lasts from five to six years.

**Public vocational education and training (VET)**

Vocational education and training funded through public means, i.e. *not* privately funded.

**Public general university education**

Education at public (not private) universities, excepting those that are exclusively technical or medical.

**Regional or minority languages**

Languages that are traditionally used within a given territory of a state by nationals of that state who form a group numerically smaller than the rest of the state's population. They are different from the *state language(s)* of that state (definition based on the *European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages*, Council of Europe 1992). As a general rule, these are languages of populations that have their ethnic roots in the areas concerned or that settled in the regions concerned and have lived there for generations. Regional/minority languages can have the status of *official language*, but this status will by definition be limited to the area in which they are spoken.

**Romani/Sinte**

To be referred to across countries in our LRE project as regional/minority languages, *not* as non-territorial languages.

**Sign languages**

Sign languages are languages in a visual-manual modality with their own grammar and lexicon. They are the natural languages of people who have been born deaf. Sign languages are not derived from spoken languages and are not international or universal. There are hundreds of distinct sign languages around the world.

**Teaching in/of language X**

If formulated like this, no distinction is made between teaching *in* the language, i.e. using it as a *medium of instruction*, and teaching *of* the language, i.e. teaching it as a *subject* in the school's curriculum.

**Upper secondary education**

This level generally begins at the end of compulsory education. The entrance age is typically 15 or 16. Entrance qualifications (end of compulsory education) and other minimum entry requirements are usually needed. Instruction is often more subject-oriented than in lower secondary education. The typical duration of upper secondary education varies from two to five years. In the context of the participating LRE countries, lower and/or upper secondary education may refer to *age-related* differences and/or differences *related to type of schooling*.

**Vocational education and training (VET)**

VET in European countries covers diverse national systems, rooted in their specific economic and social environments. VET may be part of secondary or tertiary education or may be part of vocational types of adult education. It usually includes a range of vocationally-oriented training providers and training programmes within relatively regulated frameworks. In our project, VET does *not* include university education, which is covered by domain 5B.

# PART 3

## National and regional profiles

### Introduction

*Guus Extra, Martin Hope & Kutlay Yağmur*

Part 3 of this publication includes 25 national and regional profiles, distributed across 19 chapters. National profiles are provided for 15 countries, namely 12 European Union (EU) countries plus Switzerland, Bosnia and Herzegovina and Ukraine. Regional profiles are provided for four EU countries (the Netherlands, Spain, UK and Germany). Each profile provides both qualitative and quantitative data, and contains information on the national/regional context, on the eight language domains referred to in Parts 1 and 2 of this publication, on key findings overall, and on promising initiatives and/or pilots. The options referred to within each of the eight chosen language domains have been introduced in Part 2 of this study. The format of the profiles is illustrated and explained on the following pages of this introduction.

1. Austria
2. Bosnia and Herzegovina
3. Bulgaria
4. Denmark
5. Estonia
6. France
7. Germany
8. Greece
9. Hungary
10. Italy
11. Lithuania
12. Netherlands
  - 12.1 Netherlands at large
  - 12.2 Friesland
13. Poland
14. Portugal
15. Romania
16. Spain
  - 16.1 Madrid, Valencia, Sevilla
  - 16.2 Catalonia
  - 16.3 Basque Country
17. Switzerland
18. Ukraine
19. United Kingdom
  - 19.1 England
  - 19.2 Wales
  - 19.3 Scotland
  - 19.4 Northern Ireland

## GUIDELINES ON THE FORMAT OF NATIONAL/REGIONAL PROFILES

**NL=National Language(s)**  
**FL=Foreign Languages**  
**R/ML=Regional or Minority Languages**  
**IL=Immigrant Languages**

The purpose of the following guidelines is to help readers to interpret the national/regional profiles. The profiles are a combination of survey results, which are presented in the tables, and a commentary on these, written by the country/regional researcher. The options presented in each table reflect the actual questions asked in the Language Rich Europe (LRE) questionnaire.

Each profile is divided into the following sections:

### Country/Regional context

In this section the national/regional context is described. Information is provided about the languages present from a socio-historical, demographic and legal perspective.

### Domain 1: Languages in official documents and databases

This section presents information in a standardised format about language legislation and official policy

documents for national (NL), foreign (FL), regional/minority (R/ML) and immigrant (IL) languages. It also describes the data collection mechanisms for languages employed in each country/region.

### Domain 2: Languages in pre-primary education

In this section, information is presented on language teaching provision in pre-primary education in R/M languages, foreign languages, immigrant languages and also additional support in the national language. For each language type, information is presented on: target groups; the duration of language provision; minimum group size requirements; how many days per week such education is available; provision of pre- and in-service training for teachers; and the source of funding. The possible responses for each question are indicated in the table below, and researchers were asked to choose the response which represents common practice in their country/region. The first option is the one regarded as most aligned with desired European recommendations and practices.

	Target groups	Duration	Minimum group size requirements	Days per week	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	State funding available
<b>R/ML</b>	all/native speakers only/ no support	≥2 years/ 1 year/<1 year	none/5–10/>10	>1 day/0.5–1 day/ <0.5 day	subject-specific/ general/none	subject-specific/ general/none	full/partial/none
<b>FL</b>	all/restricted/ no support	≥2 years/ 1 year/<1 year	none/5–10/>10	>1 day/0.5–1 day/ <0.5 day	subject-specific/ general/none	subject-specific/ general/none	full/partial/none
<b>IL</b>	all/native speakers only/ no support	≥2 years/ 1 year/<1 year	none/5–10/>10	>1 day/0.5–1 day/ <0.5 day	subject-specific/ general/none	subject-specific/ general/none	full/partial/none
<b>Additional NL support</b>	all/immigrant children only/ no support	≥2 years/ 1 year/<1 year	none/5–10/>10	>1 day/0.5–1 day/ <0.5 day	subject-specific/ general/none	subject-specific/ general/none	full/partial/none

## Domain 3: Languages in primary education

In this section, information is presented on languages in primary education. The information is divided into two sections: *organisation* of language education and actual *teaching practice*.

Regarding *organisation*, information is presented on language education for the four language types: the national language, R/M languages, immigrant languages and foreign languages. In the area of national language support, there is information about the curriculum, the degree of extra support for newcomers, whether diagnostic testing is available on entry, and whether language skills of pupils are monitored by means of standardised instruments.

R/M language education, immigrant language education and foreign language education are assessed in terms of curriculum characteristics; the type of target groups; whether these languages are used as medium of instruction (CLIL); the start of language education; the scheduling in the curriculum; whether there are group size requirements; whether language skills are monitored with standardised instruments; whether there are set achievement levels to be reached; and the type of funding available. For all questions, the first option is the one regarded as most aligned with desired European recommendations and practices.

### 3a. Organisation

	Curriculum	Extra support for newcomers	Diagnostic testing on entry	Monitoring of language skills
<b>NL support</b>	coherent and explicit/ general/no guidelines	before mainstream/during mainstream/absent	all/immigrants only/absent	national standardised/ school-based/absent

	Target groups	Curriculum	Languages used as medium of instruction (CLIL)	Start of language education	Scheduling	Minimum group size requirements	Monitoring of language skills	Level to be achieved	State funding available
<b>R/ML</b>	all/native speakers only/no support	coherent and explicit/ general/no guidelines	widespread/ localised/ absent	from year 1/from mid-phase/ end-phase only	in school hours/partly in school hours/ outside school hours	none/5–10 />10	national standardised/ school-based/ absent	national or regional norms/ school norms/not specified	full/partial/ none
<b>FL</b>	all/ restricted/ no support	coherent and explicit/ general/no guidelines	widespread/ localised/ absent	from year 1/from mid-phase/ end-phase only	in school hours/partly in school hours/ outside school hours	none/5–10 />10	national standardised/ school-based/ absent	linked to CEFR/ national or school norms/not specified	full/partial/ none
<b>IL</b>	all/native speakers only/no support	coherent and explicit/ general/no guidelines	widespread/ localised/ absent	from year 1/from mid-phase/ end-phase only	in school hours/partly in school hours/ outside school hours	none/5–10 />10	national standardised/ school-based/ absent	national or regional norms/ school norms/not specified	full/partial/ none



### 3b. Teaching

In any educational system, teachers are key players in enabling the achievement of learning objectives. In this table, readers can find information about language teachers and their formal qualifications in primary schools. For each language type, there

is information about teachers' formal qualifications; whether they receive pre-and in-service training; and, in the case of foreign languages, whether teachers benefit from international mobility programmes.

	Teacher qualifications	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	Mobility
<b>NL support</b>	language teachers/general teachers/unqualified	subject-specific/general/none	subject-specific/general/none	N/A
<b>R/ML</b>	language teachers/general teachers/unqualified	subject-specific/general/none	subject-specific/general/none	N/A
<b>FL</b>	language teachers/general teachers/unqualified	subject-specific/general/none	subject-specific/general/none	incorporated into training/informal financial support/none
<b>IL</b>	language teachers/general teachers/unqualified	subject-specific/general/none	subject-specific/general/none	N/A

### Domain 4: Languages in secondary education

As for primary education, readers are presented with information along two major dimensions: *organisation* of language education and actual *teaching* practice. Within *organisation*, information is presented on national language education with a focus on the curriculum itself; the level of extra support for newcomers; whether diagnostic testing is available on entry; and whether language skills of pupils are monitored by means of standardised instruments.

For R/M, foreign and immigrant language education, information is presented on the target groups; the curriculum; whether these languages are used as medium of instruction; the scheduling in the curriculum; whether there are minimum group size requirements; whether language skills are monitored with standardised instruments; whether there are set achievement levels to be reached; and the type of funding available for teaching languages. The first option is the one regarded as most aligned with desired European recommendations and practices.

#### 4a. Organisation

	Curriculum	Extra support for newcomers	Diagnostic testing on entry	Monitoring of language skills
<b>NL support</b>	coherent and explicit/general/no guidelines	before mainstream/during mainstream/absent	all/immigrants only/absent	national standardised/school-based/absent

	Target groups	Curriculum	Languages used as medium of instruction (CLIL)	Scheduling	Minimum group size requirements	Monitoring of language skills	Level to be achieved	State funding available
<b>R/ML</b>	all/native speakers only/no support	coherent and explicit/general/no guidelines	widespread/localised/absent	in school hours/partly in school hours/outside school hours	none/5–10/>10	national standardised/school-based/absent	national or regional norms/school norms/not specified	full/partial/none
<b>FL</b>	all/restricted/no support	coherent and explicit/general/no guidelines	widespread/localised/absent	in school hours/partly in school hours/outside school hours	none/5–10/>10	national standardised/school-based/absent	linked to CEFR/national or school-based norms/not specified	full/partial/none
<b>IL</b>	all/native speakers only/no support	coherent and explicit/general/no guidelines	widespread/localised/absent	in school hours/partly in school hours/outside school hours	none/5–10/>10	national standardised/school-based/absent	national or regional norms/school norms/no norms	full/partial/none

## 4b. Teaching

Similar to the primary *teaching* sub-domain, in this table readers can find information about language teachers and their formal qualifications in the four types of languages in secondary schools. For each language type, there is information about

teachers' formal qualifications; whether they receive pre- and in-service training; what their required language level is; and, for foreign language teachers, whether they benefit from international mobility programmes.

	Teacher qualifications	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	Language level required	Mobility
<b>NL support</b>	language teachers/ general teachers/ unqualified	subject-specific/ general/none	subject-specific/ general/none	linked to CEFR/national or school-based norms/not specified	N/A
<b>R/ML</b>	language teachers/ general teachers/ unqualified	subject-specific/ general/none	subject-specific/ general/none	N/A	N/A
<b>FL</b>	language teachers/ general teachers/ unqualified	subject-specific/ general/none	subject-specific/ general/none	linked to CEFR/national or nationwide standards/none	incorporated into training/informal financial support/ none
<b>IL</b>	language teachers/ general teachers/ unqualified	subject-specific/ general/none	subject-specific/ general/none	N/A	N/A

## Domain 5: Languages in further and higher education

### 5a. Further education (in three Vocational Education and Training institutions)

Vocational Education and Training (VET) is offered in many countries. In each of the selected cities, the largest VET institution was researched for LRE, and as with other school types, information was collected on the four main types of languages in education.

In this publication, readers can find information on R/M, foreign and immigrant language education regarding the range of language programmes; curriculum characteristics; whether there are set achievement levels to be reached; and the type of funding available for teaching these different types of languages.

For reasons of space, it was not possible to include information about additional support for the national language here, but on the LRE website detailed information is presented on the range of language support programmes; the type of target groups; whether the curriculum is coherent and explicit; whether a VET institution provides job-related skills and/or general up-skilling; to what extent state funding is available; whether internships in companies are available, and whether EU instruments are used.

For all questions, the first option is the one regarded as most aligned with desired European recommendations and practices.

		Range of language programmes	Curriculum	Level to be achieved	State funding available
<b>R/ML</b>	<b>Institution A</b>	wide variety/limited/no specifications	coherent and explicit/ general/no guidelines	N/A	full/partial/none
	<b>Institution B</b>	wide variety/limited/no specifications	coherent and explicit/ general/no guidelines	N/A	full/partial/none
	<b>Institution C</b>	wide variety/limited/no specifications	coherent and explicit/ general/no guidelines	N/A	full/partial/none
<b>FL</b>	<b>Institution A</b>	wide variety/limited/no specifications	coherent and explicit/ general/no guidelines	linked to CEFR/national/none	full/partial/none
	<b>Institution B</b>	wide variety/limited/no specifications	coherent and explicit/ general/no guidelines	linked to CEFR/national/none	full/partial/none
	<b>Institution C</b>	wide variety/limited/no specifications	coherent and explicit/ general/no guidelines	linked to CEFR/national/none	full/partial/none
<b>IL</b>	<b>Institution A</b>	wide variety/limited/no specifications	coherent and explicit/ general/no guidelines	N/A	full/partial/none
	<b>Institution B</b>	wide variety/limited/no specifications	coherent and explicit/ general/no guidelines	N/A	full/partial/none
	<b>Institution C</b>	wide variety/limited/no specifications	coherent and explicit/ general/no guidelines	N/A	full/partial/none

### 5b. Higher education (in three universities)

In each of the selected cities, the largest state-funded general university was targeted. Readers can find information on the language(s) of instruction at these universities; the languages used on university websites; the target groups for additional

support in the national language; whether there are levels to be achieved in foreign languages; the recruitment of non-national students; whether international mobility programmes are available for language students and for non-language students.

	Language(s) of instruction	Languages on website	Target groups for additional support in the national language	Level to be achieved in foreign language instruction	Recruitment of non-national students	Mobility for language students	Mobility for non-language students
<b>University A</b>	national, foreign and R/M/ national and foreign/national only	national, foreign and R/M/ national and foreign/national only	all/restricted/ none	linked to CEFR/ national or institution-based/none	international and immigrant/ only international/ only native speakers of national language	obligatory/ optional/no offer	obligatory/ optional/no offer
<b>University B</b>	national, foreign and R/M/ national and foreign/national only	national, foreign and R/M/ national and foreign/national only	all/restricted/ none	linked to CEFR/ national or institution-based/none	international and immigrant/ only international/ only native speakers of national language	obligatory/ optional/no offer	obligatory/ optional/no offer
<b>University C</b>	national, foreign and R/M/ national and foreign/national only	national, foreign and R/M/ national and foreign/national only	all/restricted/ none	linked to CEFR/ national or institution-based/none	international and immigrant/ only international/ only native speakers of national language	obligatory/ optional/no offer	obligatory/ optional/no offer

### Domain 6: Languages in audiovisual media and press

In each of the selected cities, information was gathered on the range of non-national languages on radio and television, on subtitling versus dubbing in non-national language television productions and in cinema, on the offer of R/M languages

outside of the region, and on the availability of sign language on television. The first option is the one regarded as most aligned with desired European recommendations and practices.

Cities	Non-national language TV productions	Non-national language films in cinema	R/ML programmes outside of region	Availability of sign language on TV
<b>City 1</b>	subtitled/dubbed	subtitled/dubbed	always/regularly/sometimes/ never	always/regularly/sometimes/ never
<b>City 2</b>	subtitled/dubbed	subtitled/dubbed	always/regularly/sometimes/ never	always/regularly/sometimes/ never
<b>City 3</b>	subtitled/dubbed	subtitled/dubbed	always/regularly/sometimes/ never	always/regularly/sometimes/ never

Information was also collected about the non-national/non-regional languages in which newspapers are available in each of

the cities surveyed. This information is presented on the LRE website and in Part 2 of this publication at the European level only.

## Domain 7: Languages in public services and spaces

In each of the selected cities, information was gathered on institutionalised language strategies at city level and on the extent to which oral and written communication facilities are multilingual in a range of domains. For institutionalised language strategies, the number of languages for which these strategies

are adopted is reflected in the table. For the communication facilities, the table shows a ranking of the most multilingual facilities in each city surveyed. Information on the multilingual profiles reported for languages in public services and spaces can be found on the LRE website.

### 7a. Institutionalised language strategies at city level (3 cities)

N languages	Website presence	Use of interpreters	Language competencies in job descriptions	Recruitment of speakers of languages	Language training offered to employees	Record of language skills of employees
>4	A B C	A B C	A B C	A B C	A B C	A B C
3-4	A B C	A B C	A B C	A B C	A B C	A B C
1-2	A B C	A B C	A B C	A B C	A B C	A B C

### 7b. Communication facilities

Top five oral communication facilities	Top five written communication facilities

## Domain 8: Languages in business (out of 24 companies)

In each of the selected cities, information was gathered from selected companies on their general language strategies and also on internal and external language strategies for the national language, business English, and additional languages. In the tables below we show the number of companies reporting that a

given strategy is widely practised. On the LRE website, the tables also show the number of companies reporting that these strategies are occasionally practised or not practised at all. Information on the reported multilingual profiles in businesses can be found on the LRE website.

### 8a. General language strategies

GENERAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES								
	Availability of language strategy	Emphasis on language skills in recruitment	International mobility provision	Use of external translators/ interpreters	Staff records of language skills	Use of networks for language training	Use of EU programmes/ funding	Awareness of EU programmes/ funding
Widely practised								

### 8b. Internal/external language strategies

		INTERNAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES						EXTERNAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES			
		Partnerships with education sector	Reward/promotion schemes based on language skills	Language training provision	Use of CEFR	Language used for workplace documents/intranet	Language used for software, web programmes	Language used for annual/business reports	Language used for marketing	Language used for branding/identity	Language used for website
<b>National Language</b>	widely practised										
<b>Business English</b>	widely practised										
<b>Additional languages</b>	widely practised										

# 1 AUSTRIA

Tanja Nagel, Anke Schad, Barbara Semmler and Michael Wimmer

## Country context

According to the latest register-based data in 2011, the Republic of Austria has a population of 8.43 million people, with foreign citizenship rising between 2001 and 2011 by more than one-third (+35%) to 957,000. The largest proportion of current immigrants comes from EU countries, with the number of German citizens living in Austria more than doubling (+110%) to 152,000. The second largest immigration group, comprising Serbians, Montenegrins and Kosovars remained static at 133,000 and the third largest group, immigrants from Turkey, declined by 10% to 114,000 (Statistik Austria 2011).

The calculation of minority language speakers in official censuses (based on the category of colloquial languages, *Umgangssprachen*) has been criticised by minority rights organisations, which state that many minorities choose German as their main language 'due to actual or perceived pressure', as the Council of Europe's Advisory Committee on the Framework Convention for the Protection of National Minorities states in their third opinion on Austria. The Advisory Committee 'strongly encourages the Austrian authorities to ensure that any future census related to language use contains open-ended lists and allows for the possibility to indicate multiple languages and identities' (Advisory Committee 2011: 11–12). To make the point, minority groups also declare their own estimated numbers of speakers. For Hungarian, for example, the last census with a language question in 2001 counted 25,884 speakers, whereas their own estimate was almost double (Initiative Minderheiten n.d.).

Austria is a country with significant language diversity, especially among children and young people. The share of pupils using a language other than German in everyday life is highest in Vienna (41.8%) and lowest in Carinthia (8.9%). The group of bi- or multilingual young people is characterised by heterogeneity in terms of their migration history, affecting also an individual's language and education profiles (Biffi/Skrivanek 2011:1).

## Languages in official documents and databases

The national language and R/M languages are dealt with in language legislation and/or language policy documents. The learning and teaching of the national language abroad for children and/or adults interested in learning German is (co-)funded in seven countries: Czech Republic, Hungary, Italy, Poland, Serbia, Slovakia and Slovenia. The *European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages* has been signed and ratified by Austria. The following R/M languages are recognised in the Charter: Burgenland-Croatian, Croatian, Czech, Hungarian in Burgenland, Hungarian in Vienna, Burgenland-Romani, Slovak, Slovene in Carinthia, and Slovene in Styria. There is official provision of R/M languages in education, supported by the Charter, in specific regions.

Official nation-/regionwide data collection mechanisms on language diversity in Austria no longer exist. Census data (2001) has been substituted by register data (2011) which does not include a language question.

The National Action Plan (NAP) for Integration, issued in 2011, was co-ordinated by the Ministry of the Interior through a dialogue process with experts and stakeholders. Proficiency in German is regarded as the key to integration. Immigrants to Austria have to pass a language exam (level A1) before entering the country. With prerequisites, Austria is similar to Germany, France, Denmark and the Netherlands (Bundesministerium für Inneres 2011).

In June 2011, the Austrian government issued its third report on the implementation of the European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages. The report refers also to the amendment of the constitutional law in 2011, guaranteeing a stable solution to the tedious *Ortstafelstreit* (controversy over bilingual signs) about the use of minority languages in topography and in specific public services in Burgenland and Carinthia (Bundeskanzleramt 2011:11).

**NL=National Language(s)**  
**FL=Foreign Languages**  
**R/ML=Regional or Minority Languages**  
**IL=Immigrant Languages**

## Languages in pre-primary education (No provision of foreign languages and immigrant languages)

	Target groups	Duration	Minimum group size requirements	Days per week	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	State funding available
<b>R/ML</b>	all	≥2 years	none	0.5–1 day	general	subject-specific	full
<b>Additional NL support</b>	all	≥2 years	none	0.5–1 day	subject-specific	subject-specific	full

### Languages offered in pre-primary education

<b>R/ML</b>	Burgenland-Croatian, Czech, Hungarian, Italian in Tyrol, Slovak, Slovene
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Since 2010 pre-primary education attendance from the age of five has been obligatory in the whole of Austria. This measure was mainly introduced to ensure that all children learn German before entering school.

As described in the *Language Education Policy Profile* (LEPP), pre-primary education is characterised by a decentralised fragmentation. This has consequences for the implementation of language diversity in terms of quantity of offer (with disparities between the individual *Länder*) and quality of offer, especially when it comes to the qualification of language educators (Bundesministerium für Unterricht, Kunst und Kultur/Bundesministerium für Wissenschaft und Forschung/Österreichisches Sprachen Kompetenz Zentrum 2008: 82-88).

## Languages in primary education

### Organisation

	Curriculum	Extra support for newcomers	Diagnostic testing on entry	Monitoring of language skills
<b>NL support</b>	coherent and explicit	before mainstream	all	school-based

	Target groups	Curriculum	CLIL	Start of language education	Scheduling	Minimum group size requirements	Monitoring of language skills	Level to be achieved	State funding available
<b>R/ML</b>	all	no guidelines	localised	from year 1	partly in school hours	>10	school-based	not specified	full
<b>FL</b>	all	coherent and explicit	localised	from year 1	in school hours	none	school-based	not specified	full
<b>IL</b>	native speakers only	coherent and explicit	absent	from year 1	outside school hours	>10	school-based	not specified	full

## Teaching

	Teacher qualifications	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	Mobility
<b>NL support</b>	general teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	N/A
<b>R/ML</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	N/A
<b>FL</b>	general teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	informal financial support
<b>IL</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	N/A

## Languages offered in primary education

<b>R/ML</b>	Burgenland-Croatian, Czech, Hungarian, Romani, Slovak, Slovene
<b>FL</b>	Croatian, Czech, English, French, Hungarian, Italian, Slovak, Slovene (one of these languages is compulsory)
<b>IL</b>	Albanian, Bosnian/Croatian/Serbian, Polish, Russian, Turkish

Due to demographic development, the expansion of *Muttersprachlicher Unterricht* (immigrant language education), especially at primary level, is regarded as a government priority. The aim of *Muttersprachlicher Unterricht* is defined by the curriculum as enabling bilingualism and equality of immigrant home languages and German.

In the school year 2009/10, 29.4% of primary school pupils in Austria with an additional language other than German took part in *Muttersprachlicher Unterricht* (Bundesministerium für Unterricht, Kunst und Kultur 2011: 13).

The Department for Migration and Schools at the Federal Ministry for Education, Culture and the Arts co-ordinates the offer. It issues information sheets; for example on the legal framework, data and statistics. On the platform [www.muttersprachlicher-unterricht.at](http://www.muttersprachlicher-unterricht.at) information on registration of children by parents can be accessed in Albanian, Bosnian/Croatian/Serbian, and Turkish.

For immigrant language teaching, as well as for other foreign and minority languages, the main challenge is not only expansion, but also quality improvement. In both respects, the number of qualified teachers is a key challenge demanding reform in teacher education (Bundesministerium für Unterricht, Kunst und Kultur/Bundesministerium für Wissenschaft und Forschung/Österreichisches Sprachen Kompetenz Zentrum 2008: 88-91).

Vienna is taking part in the European Multilingual Cities Project, collecting data among primary school pupils to generate knowledge on the connection between language diversity and school success (Brizic 2011).

## Languages in secondary education

### Organisation

	Curriculum	Extra support for newcomers	Diagnostic testing on entry	Monitoring of language skills
<b>NL support</b>	coherent and explicit	before mainstream	absent	school-based

	Target groups	Curriculum	CLIL	Scheduling	Minimum group size requirements	Monitoring of language skills	Level to be achieved	State funding available
<b>R/ML</b>	all	coherent and explicit	localised	partly in school hours	>10	school-based	not specified	full
<b>FL</b>	all	coherent and explicit	localised	in school hours	none	school-based	linked to CEFR	full
<b>IL</b>	native speakers only	coherent and explicit	localised	outside school hours	>10	school-based	school norms	full



## Teaching

	Teacher qualifications	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	Language level required	Mobility
<b>NL support</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	not specified	N/A
<b>R/ML</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	N/A	N/A
<b>FL</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	linked to CEFR	incorporated into training
<b>IL</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	N/A	N/A

## Languages offered in secondary education

<b>R/ML</b>	Croatian in Burgenland, Czech, Hungarian, Romani, Slovak, Slovene
<b>FL</b>	English, French, Italian, Spanish. At the level of academic secondary schools: 2 compulsory. At the level of general secondary schools: 1 compulsory
<b>IL</b>	Albanian, Bosnian/Croatian/Serbian, Polish, Russian, Turkish

From secondary level (ISCED 2) onwards, the Austrian school system becomes diversified into general (*Hauptschule*) and academic secondary schools. This interface is crucial for language education processes that can be interrupted, continued or enhanced.

In 2009/10 Vienna was the only *Bundesland* which provided *Muttersprachlicher Unterricht* (immigrant language education) in academic secondary schools as well as in general secondary schools (Bundesministerium für Unterricht, Kunst und Kultur 2011: 25). All other *Bundesländer* provided it in general secondary schools only.

However, the curriculum in academic secondary schools includes two compulsory modern foreign languages (or one plus Latin), in contrast to the *Hauptschule* curriculum, which includes only one.

The New Middle School (NMS) was introduced in 2008/09 to overcome the traditional divide. By 2015/16, all *Hauptschulen* will be transformed into New Middle Schools. Social learning and integration, together with a more individualised and differentiated teaching, is part of the pedagogic concept of the NMS. This is specifically aimed at fostering the potential of pupils with an immigrant background.

English is the most chosen modern foreign language at schools at all levels, studied by almost 99% of pupils. Regional and minority languages can also be offered as a subject at secondary schools. The provision depends on the region: in Burgenland, 12.9% of pupils learn Croatian and 10.6% of Carinthian pupils learn Slovene (data from school year 2004/5, Bundesministerium für Unterricht, Kunst und Kultur/Bundesministerium für Wissenschaft und Forschung/Österreichisches Sprachen Kompetenz Zentrum 2008: 149).

## Languages in further and higher education

### Further education (in three VET institutions) (No provision of R/M languages)

		Range of language programmes	Curriculum	Level to be achieved	State funding available
<b>FL</b>	<b>Institution A</b>	wide variety	general	linked to CEFR	none
	<b>Institution B</b>	wide variety	coherent and explicit	linked to CEFR	partial
	<b>Institution C</b>	wide variety	general	linked to CEFR	partial
<b>IL</b>	<b>Institution A</b>	wide variety	general	N/A	none
	<b>Institution B</b>				
	<b>Institution C</b>				

### Higher education (in three universities)

	Language(s) of instruction	Languages on website	Target groups for additional support in the national language	Level to be achieved in foreign language instruction	Recruitment of non-national students	Mobility for language students	Mobility for non-language students
<b>University A</b>	national and foreign	national and foreign	restricted	linked to CEFR	only international	optional	optional
<b>University B</b>	national, foreign, R/M	national and foreign	restricted	linked to CEFR	international and immigrant	optional	optional
<b>University C</b>	national and foreign	national and foreign	restricted	linked to CEFR	only international	optional	optional

Apart from adult vocational training and university education, Austria's tradition of *Volkshochschulen* (VHS) deriving from both bourgeois and working-class initiatives in the 19th century should be mentioned in the context of language learning. With a share of 39.4% of education units in 2009/10, languages are the strongest education field of the VHS (Verband Österreichischer Volkshochschulen 2011: 1). Vienna's VHS currently offer more than 60 languages.

### Languages in audiovisual media and press

Non-national language TV productions	Non-national language films in cinema	R/ML programmes outside of region	Availability of sign language on TV
dubbed	dubbed	sometimes	sometimes

The Austrian broadcasting corporation ORF is by law obliged to provide services to recognised R/ML speakers. Apart from television and radio magazines, the online platform *volksgruppen.orf.at* provides news and information and audio and video live streams in Croatian, Czech, Hungarian, Romani, Slovakian and Slovenian.

FM4 is the ORF radio station targeted at a young audience. Although bilingual, English is spoken predominantly. The news bulletins are read in English and twice a day in French. FM4's hosts and on-air guests are encouraged to follow FM4's 'Native Speaker Principle' and speak in their mother tongue.

## Languages in public services and spaces

## Institutionalised language strategies at city level (2 cities)

N languages	Website presence	Use of interpreters	Language competencies in job descriptions	Recruitment of speakers of languages	Language training offered to employees	Record of language skills of employees
>4	Vienna	Vienna Graz	Graz	Vienna Graz	Vienna	Vienna Graz
3-4						
1-2	Graz		Vienna		Graz	

## Communication facilities

Top five oral communication facilities	Top four written communication facilities
Tourism Immigration and integration Political debates and decision making Education Transport	Tourism Transport Theatre Immigration and integration

Although the LRE project focus was on major cities in terms of population, Austria is largely characterised by smaller towns, also in the regions with recognised linguistic minorities (*Volksguppen*). Therefore, the afore-mentioned constitutional amendment decided by the parliament in 2011 on the use of minority languages (BGBl. I Nr. 46/2011) in topography and official languages to be used in public services affects mainly those smaller towns.

## Languages in business (out of 19 companies)

	General language strategies							
	Availability of language strategy	Emphasis on language skills in recruitment	International mobility provision	Use of external translators/interpreters	Staff records of language skills	Use of networks for language training	Use of EU programmes/funding	Awareness of EU programmes/funding
<b>Widely practised</b>	6	12	5	4	0	0	2	0

		Internal language strategies						External language strategies			
		Partnerships with education sector	Reward/promotion schemes based on language skills	Language training provision	Use of CEFR	Language used for workplace documents/intranet	Language used for software, web programmes	Language used for annual/business reports	Language used for marketing	Language used for branding/identity	Language used for website
<b>NL</b>	widely practised	4	0	5	1	19	19	19	19	18	18
<b>Business English</b>	widely practised	7	2	9	2	7	5	9	6	9	12
<b>Additional languages</b>	widely practised	6	0	4	1	2	2	2	3	4	3

The Institute for Research on Qualifications and Training of the Austrian Economy (ibw) conducted a survey in 2005 among 2,017 Austrian companies on their demand for foreign languages. 86% said that they need foreign languages. In 45% of the companies, English is needed by 'most' employees. For contacts with business partners in Eastern Europe, German is the language used, according to the survey (Tritscher-Archan 2008: 172).

Whereas language skills in Austria as an export-oriented country are traditionally regarded as a tool to access foreign markets, some companies, for example, banks and telecommunication providers, are also responding to a diversifying inland market with so-called ethno-marketing, using immigrant languages in their campaigns and services.

## Key findings overall

Austria is characterised by ambivalent developments in terms of multi- and plurilingualism. On the one hand, the government programme recognises the increasing diversity of Austrian society by emphasising the importance of acquisition of language skills mainly through education for children and young people, particularly referring to English, the languages of the neighbouring countries, and immigrant languages (Republik Österreich 2008: 206).

On the other hand, it is above all a question of resources (for example, when it comes to the number of qualified teachers), which prevents the creation of a more diverse and comprehensive language education provision and makes it difficult to create a continuous language education process.

Whereas German is regarded as the most important language for successful integration (also strengthened by current education and immigration policies), society is slowly becoming aware of the benefits of additional language skills, at least when they are seen to be 'useful', for example, in the economy for specific export-oriented trade and business.

## Promising initiatives and pilots

There are many good practice examples throughout the domains of Language Rich Europe. One example is a project that EDUCULT is actively involved in: *Sag's multi* is an annual rhetoric competition for bilingual pupils organised by an association of business people, the *Verein Wirtschaft für Integration (VWFI)*, together with EDUCULT. Pupils from grade seven (age 12) onwards present their speeches switching between German and their additional language. Since 2009, approximately 700 pupils have already taken part in this competition, presenting performances in more than 40 languages.

SPIN: *SprachenInnovationsNetzwerk*, a network initiated by the *Österreichisches Sprachen-Kompetenz-Zentrum (ÖSZ)*, provides a database at [www.oesz.at/spin](http://www.oesz.at/spin) on innovative language projects to a wider interested public.

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## 2 BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA

Jasmin Džindo and Selma Žerić

### Country context

Bosnia and Herzegovina is a multinational and multilingual country with three official national languages: Bosnian, Croatian and Serbian (with both Latin and Cyrillic script). These languages emerged from Serbo-Croatian, which used to be the official language in former Yugoslavia. After the dissolution of Yugoslavia, Bosnia and Herzegovina standardised this into *Bosnian*, *Croatian* and *Serbian*, which have been lawfully established as three completely equal official languages throughout the territory. From a grammatical, lexical and phonetic point of view, however, the differences between these languages are minimal. This leads to the conclusion that the entire population of Bosnia and Herzegovina understands all three languages and is free to decide which to use in everyday and professional life.

### Languages in official documents and databases

All three national languages (Bosnian, Croatian and Serbian), foreign languages and R/M languages are dealt with in language policy documents. The *European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages* has been signed by government and ratified by parliament. The following languages are recognised in the Charter: Albanian, Czech, German, Hungarian, Italian, Jewish (Yiddish and Ladino), Macedonian, Montenegrin, Polish, Romanian, Russian, Slovak, Slovene, Turkish and Ukrainian. Official nationwide data collection mechanisms on language diversity do not exist.

There are a large number of laws which regulate pre-primary, primary, secondary, and further and higher education, such as the *Framework Law on Pre-Primary Education in Bosnia and Herzegovina* (2007), the *Law on the Agency for Pre-Primary, Primary and Secondary Education* (2007), the *Framework Law on Primary and Secondary Education in Bosnia and Herzegovina* (2003), the *Framework Law on Secondary Vocational Education* (2008), and the *Framework Law on Higher Education in Bosnia and Herzegovina* (2007).

There is legislation which contains articles pertaining to national languages in terms of the *Constitution of Bosnia and Herzegovina*. It is the fundamental legal act of this country, used to establish political and legal order. Since there are two entities in Bosnia and Herzegovina, the Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina and the Republic of Srpska, there are two further constitutions – the *Constitution of the Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina* and the *Constitution of the Republika Srpska*, which also mention national languages and the official script/scripts. There are also official language policies, created in order to promote the learning and

teaching of national languages, foreign languages and R/M languages such as the *Revised Action Plan of Bosnia and Herzegovina on Roma Educational Needs* (published by the Ministry for Human Rights and Refugees). Sign language is officially recognised by state documents which pertain to the official language policies. This matter is under the legislation of the *Law on Use of Sign Language in Bosnia and Herzegovina* (2009). People who are deaf have the legal right to use sign language in various procedures of any institution in Bosnia and Herzegovina.

As well as being administratively divided into two entities, Bosnia and Herzegovina also contains the *Brčko District* which does not belong to either of the entities, but forms a separate administrative unit. The Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina is further divided into ten cantons which are considered federal units within the entity, and which enjoy a high level of autonomy. Due to the great complexity within the state structure, there are no coherent approaches to either education or language policies. With that in mind, the current official language situation is diverse. Apart from various differences between the entities, there are also diversities within the cantons as well, since there is a separate Ministry of Education within each canton, with their own laws. Given such a broad legal basis, the language politics are not completely harmonised, and it is not unusual for the majority of the population in a certain canton (and the entity of the Republika Srpska) to determine the official language in educational institutions. Curricula are based on one of the three national languages but all three national languages are present at all levels of the educational system, from pre-primary to higher education. Students decide which national language their classes will be held in at the beginning of primary school. Textbooks and curricula are adjusted according to this decision. Apart from national languages, each educational level in Bosnia and Herzegovina offers a wide variety of foreign languages. However, there is a lack of harmony here as well. As a result, different foreign languages are offered in schools within the same canton, and throughout different cantons as well. In pre-primary, primary and secondary education there are usually five to six foreign languages offered, such as English, German, French, Italian, Russian or Arabic, depending on which entity or canton the school is in. Institutions for higher education in Bosnia and Herzegovina offer Arabic, Czech, English, French, German, Greek, Italian, Latin, Persian, Russian, Spanish and Turkish.

**NL=National Language(s)**  
**FL=Foreign Languages**  
**R/ML=Regional or Minority Languages**  
**IL=Immigrant Languages**

## Languages in pre-primary education

(No provision of additional national language support, R/M languages, or immigrant languages)

	Target groups	Duration	Minimum group size requirements	Days per week	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	State funding available
<b>FL</b>	all	≥2 years	none	<0.5 day	none	none	partial

### Languages offered in pre-primary education

<b>FL</b>	English, German, French
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Throughout Bosnia and Herzegovina there is pre-primary language education with a coherent, integrated approach to language-learning curricula, with special attention paid to plurilingualism in the classroom and multilingualism of society in general. The foreign languages offered in pre-primary education are mostly English, German and French, while immigrant languages are not offered at all.

## Languages in primary education (No provision of immigrant languages)

### Organisation

	Curriculum	Extra support for newcomers	Diagnostic testing on entry	Monitoring of language skills
<b>NL support</b>	coherent and explicit	before mainstream	absent	school-based

	Target groups	Curriculum	CLIL	Start of language education	Scheduling	Minimum group size requirements	Monitoring of language skills	Level to be achieved	State funding available
<b>R/ML</b>	all	coherent and explicit	widespread	from year 1	in school hours	none	school-based	not specified	full
<b>FL</b>	all	coherent and explicit	localised	from year 1	in school hours	none	national standardised	national or school norms	full

### Teaching

	Teacher qualifications	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	Mobility
<b>NL support</b>	language teachers	general	subject specific	N/A
<b>R/ML</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	N/A
<b>FL</b>	language teachers	general	subject-specific	informal financial support

## Languages offered in primary education

<b>Other NL</b>	Bosnian, Croatian, Serbian
<b>FL</b>	English or German are compulsory. Arabic, French, or Italian are optional.

A coherent and explicit curriculum is used to teach national as well as foreign languages throughout primary education. Classes can be held only in national languages with one compulsory foreign language to be chosen from a selection of five to six different languages, including English, German, French, Italian, Russian and Arabic. Some of these are taught as compulsory and some as optional foreign languages. They are offered as part of the curriculum, and the level of proficiency is regularly tested and monitored using age-dependent standardised instruments. Immigrant languages are not taught in primary schools.

## Languages in secondary education (No provision of immigrant languages)

### Organisation

	Curriculum	Extra support for newcomers	Diagnostic testing on entry	Monitoring of language skills
<b>NL support</b>	coherent and explicit	before mainstream	all	national standardised

	Target groups	Curriculum	CLIL	Scheduling	Minimum group size requirements	Monitoring of language skills	Level to be achieved	State funding available
<b>R/ML</b>	all	coherent and explicit	widespread	partly in school hours	none	national standardised	national or regional norms	full
<b>FL</b>	all	coherent and explicit	localised	in school hours	none	national standardised	national or school-based norms	full

### Teaching

	Teacher qualifications	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	Language level required	Mobility
<b>NL support</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	national or school-based norms	N/A
<b>R/ML</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	N/A	N/A
<b>FL</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	national or regionwide standards	informal financial support



### Languages offered in secondary education

Other NL	Bosnian, Croatian, Serbian
FL	English or German are compulsory Arabic, French, Italian, Russian, Turkish are optional

In secondary education a combination of teaching foreign languages as a subject and teaching all subjects in a foreign language is used, even though the latter method is not common practice. There are coherent and explicit curricula to teach national and foreign languages, and the level of proficiency is regularly tested and monitored using age-dependent standardised instruments. In secondary education two foreign languages are compulsory, from a selection of six to seven foreign languages such as English, German, French, Italian, Russian, Turkish and Arabic. Some of these languages are taught as compulsory and some as optional foreign languages. Immigrant languages are not taught in secondary schools.

### Languages in further and higher education

#### Further education (in three VET institutions) (No provision of immigrant languages)

		Range of language programmes	Curriculum	Level to be achieved	State funding available
R/ML	Institution A	wide variety	coherent and explicit	N/A	partial
	Institution B	wide variety	coherent and explicit	N/A	partial
	Institution C	wide variety	coherent and explicit	N/A	partial
FL	Institution A	wide variety	coherent and explicit	linked to CEFR	full
	Institution B	wide variety	coherent and explicit	national	full
	Institution C	wide variety	coherent and explicit	national	full

#### Higher education (in three universities)

	Language(s) of instruction	Languages on website	Target groups for additional support in the national language	Level to be achieved in foreign language instruction	Recruitment of non-national students	Mobility for language students	Mobility for non-language students
University A	national, foreign and R/M	national, foreign and R/M	restricted	national or institution-based	international and immigrant	optional	optional
University B	national, foreign and R/M	national, foreign and R/M	restricted	national or institution-based	international and immigrant	optional	optional
University C	national, foreign and R/M	national, foreign and R/M	restricted	national or institution-based	international and immigrant	optional	optional

According to the institutions surveyed, higher education institutions in Bosnia and Herzegovina offer a wide selection of programmes in national and foreign languages, from basic communication to advanced linguistic skills. Coherent and explicit curricula are set up for learning national and foreign languages, and students can choose to study English, German, Italian, French, Spanish, Turkish, Arabic, Persian, Latin, Greek, Russian and Czech.

## Languages in audiovisual media and press

Non-national language TV productions	Non-national language films in cinema	R/ML programmes outside of region	Availability of sign language on TV
subtitled	subtitled	always or regularly	sometimes

National languages are more or less equally represented across audio-visual media and the printed press, although at the local level, the majority determines which national language is dominant. There is no systematic evaluation of these languages in the media. As for audio-visual media at state level, there are three main broadcasters: state radio and television (BHRT) and the entity-level broadcasters FTV and RTRS. On state television both scripts are used: one day a television programme may be broadcast in the Latin script, and the next day in Cyrillic script.

Apart from national languages, newspapers are also available in English, French, German and Italian.

## Languages in public services and spaces

### Institutionalised language strategies at city level

N languages	Website presence	Use of interpreters	Language competencies in job descriptions	Recruitment of speakers of languages	Language training offered to employees	Record of language skills of employees
>4						
3-4	Sarajevo Mostar					
1-2	Banja Luka	Sarajevo Mostar Banja Luka	Sarajevo Mostar Banja Luka	Sarajevo Mostar Banja Luka	Sarajevo Mostar Banja Luka	

### Communication facilities

Top three oral communication facilities	Top three written communication facilities
Tourism Transport Immigration and integration	Tourism Transport Immigration and integration

Communication between local authorities is held in the national languages, with some use of English and German. Oral and written communication in municipal facilities also takes place in the national languages, except for transportation, tourism, immigration and integration services where communication also takes place in English, French and German.

## Languages in business (out of 29 companies)

GENERAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES								
	Availability of language strategy	Emphasis on language skills in recruitment	International mobility provision	Use of external translators/interpreters	Staff records of language skills	Use of networks for language training	Use of EU programmes/funding	Awareness of EU programmes/funding
<b>Widely practised</b>	4	26	10	6	0	4	0	0

		INTERNAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES						EXTERNAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES			
		Partnerships with education sector	Reward/promotion schemes based on language skills	Language training provision	Use of CEFR	Language used for workplace documents/intranet	Language used for software, web programmes	Language used for annual/business reports	Language used for marketing	Language used for branding/identity	Language used for website
<b>NL</b>	widely practised	0	6	3	0	29	23	29	28	27	29
<b>Business English</b>	widely practised	0	14	6	2	21	24	11	20	16	25
<b>Additional languages</b>	widely practised	0	4	3	0	3	1	1	0	5	2

In the companies surveyed the main language for written and oral communication is one of the three national languages (depending on the territory), with some use of English.

## Key findings overall

According to the dynamics of social and economic development of Bosnia and Herzegovina, and aiming at EU membership, state authorities, as well as entity and canton authorities, are constantly working on further harmonising and improving the scope of language policies. Based on the previously mentioned facts, and having in mind that this essay gives only a glimpse of the current condition, we might conclude that the seemingly complex multilingual situation in our country does not generally represent a communication barrier in everyday life. Of course, there is much room for improvement; for example, in harmonising laws, as well as in raising public awareness on the existence of the three official national languages and two scripts, which should be accepted and respected for all their similarities and minor differences.

## 3 BULGARIA

*Gueorgui Jetchev*

### Country context

The Bulgarian medieval states supported three important cultural centres with a strong literary tradition: the Preslav and Ohrid literary schools (during the First Bulgarian Kingdom, 8th–11th centuries) and the Tarnovo literary school (Second Bulgarian Kingdom, 12th–14th centuries). Under the Ottoman Empire, Bulgarians successfully resisted the cultural influences of Turkish speaking authorities and the Greeks.

Bulgarians have held consistently firm views on the correct use of their language and literary traditions. A special public holiday celebrates the missionary and literary work of Saints Cyril and Methodius, apostles to the Slavs and co-patron saints of Europe annually on 24 May. The day is also dedicated to the Cyrillic alphabet, the literature and the culture created in Bulgaria.

The 1991 Constitution does not use the terms 'national' or 'ethnic minorities'. However, it guarantees the main rights of persons belonging to ethnic, linguistic, and religious groups. Article 36 grants members of ethnic groups the right to study and use their own language. Article 54 entitles them to develop their own culture in accordance with their ethnic self-identification, which is recognised and guaranteed by law. All of this has created a legal and political framework guaranteeing the equal rights of minorities in Bulgaria.

The Bulgarian ethnic model aims at balancing the principles of integration, common national and European values, and respect for ethnic and religious identity.

According to the 2011 population census, Bulgarian is mother tongue to 85.2% of the population, Turkish to 9.1% and Romani to 4.2% of the population. According to the National Statistical Institute, census data shows a strong correlation between ethnic and linguistic self-determination.

### Languages in official documents and databases

The national language, foreign languages, R/M languages and immigrant languages are dealt with in language legislation and/or language policy documents. The learning and teaching of the national language abroad for children and/or adults originating from Bulgaria is (co-)funded in around 30 countries in Europe and abroad. The *European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages* has not been signed and ratified by Bulgaria. At the national level, however, 4 R/M languages are officially provided in nation- or regionwide education: Armenian, Hebrew, Romani, and Turkish.

Official nationwide data collection mechanisms on language diversity in Bulgaria exist in terms of periodically updated census data. In these data collection mechanisms, national, R/M and immigrant language varieties are addressed, based on a mother tongue question.

Official curricula in Bulgarian for Bulgarian citizens abroad can be found on the Ministry of Education, Youth and Science (MoEYS) website. They are part of the National Language and Culture Abroad governmental programme.

The Education, Science, Children, Youth and Sports Committee and the Culture, Civil Society and Media Committee at the National Assembly are responsible for all issues concerning the national language, and draft resolutions or recommendations. Scientists and experts are allowed to participate in the Committees' meetings. The *Institute for Bulgarian Language* (IBL) at the Bulgarian Academy of Sciences is a central co-ordinating body responsible for the Bulgarian national language policy ([www.ibl.bas.bg/en/index.htm](http://www.ibl.bas.bg/en/index.htm)). IBL co-operates with Bulgarian language and literature university departments.

The 1991 Constitution declares Bulgarian the country's sole official language (Article 3), but it also guarantees (Article 36) the right for 'citizens whose mother tongue is not Bulgarian' to study and use their mother language.

Bulgaria has been a State Party to the Framework Convention for the Protection of National Minorities since 7 May 1999. The National Council for Cooperation on Ethnic and Integration Issues ([www.nccedi.government.bg/](http://www.nccedi.government.bg/)), whose secretariat is part of the government administration (the Council of Ministers), monitors the implementation of the Convention at national level.

Turkish, Roma and other minorities are now entitled to mother tongue tuition. The Educational Standards, Basic General Education and Curriculum Law of July 1999, amended in 2002, stipulates that the 'mother tongue' subject is a compulsory

elective subject in the primary and secondary education curricula (Article 15–3). The Public Education Law of 1991 Implementation Rules, amended in 1998, provide a definition of the term ‘mother tongue’: the language in which the child communicates in his/her family (Article 8–2). The Centre of Educational Integration of Children and Young people from the Minorities (<http://coiduem.mon.bg>) was established in 2005. It is the only governmental institution whose name contains the term ‘from the minorities’ instead of ‘citizens whose mother tongue is not Bulgarian’.

The Radio and Television Law of 1998 contains an article on programmes in minority languages:

*Article 49: (1) The Bulgarian National Radio and the Bulgarian National Television shall produce national and regional programmes; broadcasts for abroad, including for Bulgarians living abroad; broadcasts intended for Bulgarian nationals whose mother tongue is not Bulgarian, including in their own language.*

The Union of the Deaf in Bulgaria created the National Centre on Sign Language in 2004. The Bulgarian National Television offers daily translation into sign language of the 4 p.m. news.

**NL=National Language(s)**  
**FL=Foreign Languages**  
**R/ML=Regional or Minority Languages**  
**IL=Immigrant Languages**

### Languages in pre-primary education (No provision of R/M languages and immigrant languages)

	Target groups	Duration	Minimum group size requirements	Days per week	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	State funding available
<b>FL</b>	all	≥2 years	none	<0.5 day	subject-specific	subject-specific	none
<b>Additional NL support</b>	all	1 year	none	0.5–1 day	subject-specific	subject-specific	full

### Languages offered in pre-primary education

<b>FL</b>	English, French, German, Italian, Russian, Spanish
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The national programme for the development of school instruction and pre-school education (2006–2015) mentions the necessity to provide children whose mother tongue is not Bulgarian with programmes in the Bulgarian language adapted to their special needs during the year of pre-school education which has been obligatory since 2003. The National Education Law, amended in 2002, introduced a specialised curriculum in the Bulgarian language for these children.

### Languages in primary education (No provision of immigrant languages)

#### Organisation

	Curriculum	Extra support for newcomers	Diagnostic testing on entry	Monitoring of language skills
<b>NL support</b>	coherent and explicit	before mainstream	all	national standardised

	Target groups	Curriculum	CLIL	Start of language education	Scheduling	Minimum group size requirements	Monitoring of language skills	Level to be achieved	State funding available
<b>R/ML</b>	native speakers only	coherent and explicit	absent	from year 1	partly in school hours	>10	school-based	school norms	full
<b>FL</b>	all	coherent and explicit	absent	from year 1	in school hours	>10	national standardised	linked to CEFR	full

## Teaching

	Teacher qualifications	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	Mobility
<b>NL support</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	N/A
<b>R/ML</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	general	N/A
<b>FL</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	none

## Languages offered in primary education

<b>R/ML</b>	Armenian, Hebrew, Romani, Turkish
<b>FL</b>	English, French, German, Italian, Russian, Spanish: one of these languages is compulsory

Official curricula for four languages offered as a ‘mother tongue’ subject (Turkish, Armenian, Hebrew, Romani) for primary and secondary education can be found on the MoEYS website. Mother tongue tuition is not compulsory; it is only a ‘compulsory elective subject’ which means it can be chosen from a list of alternative subjects including English, German, French or Russian. This is why few Turkish-speaking children take these courses, and their number has been decreasing in recent years.

## Languages in secondary education (No provision of immigrant languages)

### Organisation

	Curriculum	Extra support for newcomers	Diagnostic testing on entry	Monitoring of language skills
<b>NL support</b>	coherent and explicit	before mainstream	immigrants only	national standardised

	Target groups	Curriculum	CLIL	Scheduling	Minimum group size requirements	Monitoring of language skills	Level to be achieved	State funding available
<b>R/ML</b>	native speakers only	coherent and explicit	absent	partly in school hours	>10	school-based	school norms	full
<b>FL</b>	all	coherent and explicit	localised	in school hours	>10	national standardised	linked to CEFR	full

## Teaching

	Teacher qualifications	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	Language level required	Mobility
<b>NL support</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	national or school-based norms	N/A
<b>R/ML</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	general	N/A	N/A
<b>FL</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	linked to CEFR	informal financial support

**Languages offered in secondary education**

<b>R/ML</b>	Armenian, Hebrew, Romani, Turkish
<b>FL (languages in italics offered in upper secondary only)</b>	<i>Croatian, Czech, English, French, German, Italian, Japanese, Korean, Polish, Romanian, Russian, Serbian, Slovak, Spanish</i> : 1 or 2 of these are compulsory, a 2nd or 3rd is optional

There is a dense network of schools that are ‘foreign-languages oriented’ (in all or part of their classes) all over the country. These schools use the first foreign language as a medium of instruction for a variety of subjects including mathematics, physics, chemistry, biology, geography, history, and philosophy. These subjects are taught using *Content and Language Integrated Learning* (CLIL) methods from the beginning of upper secondary education (ninth and tenth year). These schools offer an intensive language course (at least 18 hours per week) for one year (the final year of lower secondary education – the eighth year).

At the level of upper secondary education, it is difficult to find a class which is not part of the network. The ‘foreign-languages oriented’ school model was established in 1952 at a school in Lovech, a town in North Bulgaria, where English, French and German were the three languages of instruction. In 1960, new schools were established in other towns, including the capital, with each of these three languages taught separately and with Russian. In 1970 Spanish was added to the network. Since 1990, all of the above-mentioned languages, as well as other languages, are offered all over the country in (partly or fully) ‘foreign-languages oriented’ schools.

Languages in further and higher education

**Further education (in three VET institutions) (No provision of R/M languages and immigrant languages)**

		Range of language programmes	Curriculum	Level to be achieved	State funding available
<b>FL</b>	<b>Institution A</b>	wide variety	coherent and explicit	linked to CEFR	full
	<b>Institution B</b>	limited	coherent and explicit	national	full
	<b>Institution C</b>	wide variety	coherent and explicit	linked to CEFR	none

**Higher education (in three universities)**

	Language(s) of instruction	Languages on website	Target groups for additional support in the national language	Level to be achieved in foreign language instruction	Recruitment of non-national students	Mobility for language students	Mobility for non-language students
<b>University A</b>	national and foreign	national and foreign	all	linked to CEFR	international and immigrant	optional	optional
<b>University B</b>	national and foreign	national and foreign	restricted	national or institution-based	international and immigrant	optional	optional
<b>University C</b>	national and foreign	national only	restricted	linked to CEFR	international and immigrant	optional	optional

A two year course of Bulgarian as a foreign language is offered to Erasmus students, as well as to foreign students attending university. The courses in Turkish language and literature at Sofia, Plovdiv and Shumen universities are in great need of highly qualified experts, as are the Higher Islamic Institute in Sofia and the newly established Turkish theatres in Kurdzhali and Razgrad, which rely on the universities for this provision.

## Languages in audiovisual media and press

Non-national language TV productions	Non-national language films in cinema	R/ML programmes outside of region	Availability of sign language on TV
dubbed	subtitled	sometimes	always in Sofia regularly in Plovdiv sometimes in Shumen

Radio Bulgaria offers web-based programmes in ten languages: English, German, Russian, French, Spanish, Serbian, Greek, Albanian, Turkish and Arabic.

Although on a rather limited scale, the Turkish language has also been introduced in mass media. The Bulgarian National Radio has had half-hour morning and evening broadcasts for the Turkish population in Bulgaria since 1993. The news and Turkish and Bulgarian folk songs are included in the broadcasts. In the spring of 2001, the Bulgarian National Television began broadcasting ten-minute programmes in Turkish.

During the transition period attempts were also made to establish a Turkish press. At present, there are three weekly Turkish newspapers in Sofia (*Sabah*, *Zaman* and *Müslümanlar*), a children's newspaper *Filiz* and a children's magazine called *Balon*.

## Languages in public services and spaces

### Institutionalised language strategies at city level

N languages	Website presence	Use of interpreters	Language competencies in job descriptions	Recruitment of speakers of languages	Language training offered to employees	Record of language skills of employees
>4		Shumen				
3-4		Sofia Plovdiv		Sofia		
1-2	Sofia Plovdiv Shumen		Sofia Plovdiv Shumen	Plovdiv Shumen	Sofia Plovdiv Shumen	

### Communication facilities

Top five oral communication facilities	Top five written communication facilities
Tourism Legal Health Emergency = Transport = Immigration and integration	Tourism Transport Emergency Health Immigration and integration

There is still a lot to be done to strengthen multilingualism in this domain. In the three cities researched, Sofia, Plovdiv and Shumen all provide limited services in foreign languages, with a focus on emergency, immigration and tourism services, although commonly interpreters are used. Aside from Bulgarian, English is the language most often available in public services and spaces with some services also being available in Turkish, German, French and Russian. The websites of all cities are available in English, but in Shumen Russian is also available. All city administrations recruit employees who speak foreign languages, with English being the main priority, and English language teaching is also provided for them during their employment.



## Languages in business (out of 24 companies)

GENERAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES								
	Availability of language strategy	Emphasis on language skills in recruitment	International mobility provision	Use of external translators/interpreters	Staff records of language skills	Use of networks for language training	Use of EU programmes/funding	Awareness of EU programmes/funding
<b>Widely practised</b>	1	7	0	1	0	0	0	0

		INTERNAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES						EXTERNAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES			
		Partnerships with education sector	Reward/promotion schemes based on language skills	Language training provision	Use of CEFR	Language used for workplace documents/intranet	Language used for software, web programmes	Language used for annual/business reports	Language used for marketing	Language used for branding/identity	Language used for website
<b>NL</b>	widely practised	0	0	0	0	21	18	22	23	18	23
<b>Business English</b>	widely practised	0	1	0	1	5	7	8	4	9	12
<b>Additional languages</b>	widely practised	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0

As with the Public Services and Spaces domain, there is much to be done to strengthen multilingualism in business. In the surveyed companies, almost half have some form of language strategy. Business English is used by two-thirds of companies in addition to Bulgarian for promotional purposes and on the web. Other languages are rarely used and training in languages is not provided other than occasionally in business English. A few companies have partnerships with the education sector to support language training, and a very small number make use of international networks to support language skills of employees.

## Key findings overall

Our LRE research revealed many strong points in multilingualism in the domains of education at all levels, both for the national language and for foreign languages. Some important steps have been made towards a greater involvement of regional/minority languages in education and in the media.

Domains that need further development are public services and spaces and business.

## Promising initiatives and pilots

Lilyana Kovatcheva, Director of the Centre of Educational Integration of Children and Young people from the Minorities (affiliated to MoEYS), was one of the six national consultants for the Curriculum Framework for Romani, created by the Language Policy Division of the Council of Europe in 2008 ([www.coe.int/t/dg4/linguistic/Romani\\_doc\\_EN.asp](http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/linguistic/Romani_doc_EN.asp)).

The European Day of Languages in Bulgaria is a successful event organised by EUNIC – the network of European Union National Institutes for Culture. In its last edition the following member institutions participated: Austrian Embassy, the British Council, Czech Centre, Polish Institute, French Institute, Goethe Institut, Hellenic Foundation of Culture, Hungarian Cultural Institute, Instituto Cervantes, Embassy of Spain, Italian Cultural Institute, as well as partners from the Russian Cultural Centre, Embassy of Switzerland, Directorate General for Translation to the European Commission, Bulgarian Cultural Institute, and Human Resource Development Centre. The European Day of Languages 2011 was supported by the Sofia Municipality, MoEYS, and with the media partnership of the Bulgarian National Radio.

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## 4 DENMARK

Sabine Kirchmeier-Andersen

### Country context

Danish is the official language of Denmark, which has approximately 5,500,000 inhabitants. 90% of these are ethnic Danes with Danish as their mother tongue. For the remaining 10%, only one minority language, German, is recognised officially. The overall number of native speakers of German located in South Jutland amounts to approximately 20,000.

Apart from the Danish speakers who live in Denmark, Danish is also the native or cultural language of around 50,000 Germano-Danish citizens living in the south of Schleswig.

In the Faroe Islands and Greenland, the law of autonomy guarantees the official status of the Faroese and Greenlandic languages, although Danish is a compulsory subject in schools. In Iceland, Danish has been a part of the school curriculum since the beginning of the 19th century and Danish is still used to facilitate communication with other Nordic countries.

Denmark has ratified the *Nordic Language Convention* (1987), which secures the right of Nordic citizens to use their own language to communicate with the authorities in all Nordic countries. Denmark has also ratified the *Nordic Language Declaration* (2006), which is a joint policy document of the Nordic Council of Ministers. It states that both national and minority languages should be supported and protected, that universities should use a parallel language strategy ensuring the use of English alongside the use of the national languages, and that the citizens of Nordic countries should be given the opportunity to learn their mother tongue and acquire skills in a language of international importance and skills in another foreign language.

### Languages in official documents and databases

The national language, foreign languages, R/M languages and immigrant languages are dealt with in language legislation. The learning and teaching of the national language abroad for children and/or adults originating from Denmark is (co-)funded in about 20 countries in Europe and abroad. The *European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages* has been signed and ratified by Denmark. German as a R/M language is recognised in the Charter. Eskimo-Aleut (in Greenland) and Faroese are also protected by Laws on Home Rule. In Denmark, there is official provision in education, supported by the Charter, for German.

Official nation-/regionwide data collection mechanisms on language diversity in Denmark do not exist.

There are no provisions for the use of Danish or other languages in the Danish Constitution and there is no specific law providing overall regulation for language use. However, rulings for language are part of legislation in other fields, for example in promoting Danish as a second language for minority students, and there is a law stating that all schools and public institutions must use the Danish orthography provided by the *Danish Language Council*. Although there is no official recognition or policy document for sign languages, official recommendations for the teaching of sign languages exist.

**NL=National Language(s)**  
**FL=Foreign Languages**  
**R/ML=Regional or Minority Languages**  
**IL=Immigrant Languages**

## Languages in pre-primary education (No provision of foreign languages)

	Target groups	Duration	Minimum group size requirements	Days per week	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	State funding available
<b>R/ML</b>	all	1 year	5–10	0.5–1 day	general	general	full
<b>IL</b>	native speakers only	1 year	5–10	0.5–1 day	general	general	full
<b>Additional NL support</b>	all	1 year	none	0.5–1 day	general	subject-specific	full

## Languages offered in pre-primary education

<b>R/ML</b>	German
<b>IL</b>	Albanian, Arabic, Bosnian, Icelandic, Panjabi, Somali, Tamil, Turkish, Urdu

More than 85% of the children in Denmark attend either private or public day care. Danish local authorities are obliged to monitor the language development of all children who do not attend day care at the age of three, and to initiate language stimulation up to 15 hours a week if necessary. The purpose of language stimulation is to provide the child with the necessary language skills in Danish before the start of school. Children that attend day care on a regular basis do not have to be monitored but they receive mandatory language stimulation if necessary.

## Languages in primary education (No provision of R/M languages)

### Organisation

	Curriculum	Extra support for newcomers	Diagnostic testing on entry	Monitoring of language skills
<b>NL support</b>	coherent and explicit	before mainstream	all	national standardised

	Target groups	Curriculum	CLIL	Start of language education	Scheduling	Minimum group size requirements	Monitoring of language skills	Level to be achieved	State funding available
<b>FL</b>	all	coherent and explicit	absent	from mid-phase	in school hours	5–10	national standardised	national or school norms	full
<b>IL</b>	native speakers only	coherent and explicit	absent	from year 1	outside school hours	>10	school-based	not specified	full

## Teaching

	Teacher qualifications	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	Mobility
<b>NL support</b>	general teachers	general	general	N/A
<b>FL</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	general	informal financial support
<b>IL</b>	language teachers	general	general	N/A

## Languages offered in primary education

<b>FL</b>	English and French or German compulsory; Spanish, German, French and immigrant languages optional
<b>IL</b>	Albanian, Arabic, Bosnian, Icelandic, Somali, Tamil, Turkish, Urdu/Panjabi

Danish children normally start primary school at the age of five or six and leave at the age of 15 or 16.

Until 2002 extra-curricular education in immigrant languages was provided at primary school level and funded by the government. This is still the case for children from the EU, European Economic Area (EEA), Greenland and the Faroe islands. For all other children since 2002 it has been up to each local community to provide education in immigrant languages. Therefore education in immigrant languages is only offered in large communities with a high number of immigrants, for example, Copenhagen.

A recent committee report *Sprog er nøglen til verden* (2011) suggests the introduction of English in the first year of primary school and the introduction of a third language (German or French) at the age of 11–12. Furthermore, the report recommends that a broad range of languages such as Arabic, Chinese and Portuguese/Brazilian should be offered as electives.

## Languages in secondary education (No provision of R/M languages)

### Organisation

	Curriculum	Extra support for newcomers	Diagnostic testing on entry	Monitoring of language skills
<b>NL support</b>	coherent and explicit	absent	absent	absent

	Target groups	Curriculum	CLIL	Scheduling	Minimum group size requirements	Monitoring of language skills	Level to be achieved	State funding available
<b>FL</b>	all	coherent and explicit	absent	partly in school hours	>10	national standardised	linked to CEFR	full
<b>IL</b>	all	coherent and explicit	absent	outside school hours	5–10	school-based	school norms	full

## Teaching

	Teacher qualifications	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	Language level required	Mobility
<b>NL support</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	general	national or school-based norms	N/A
<b>FL</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	general	national or regionwide standards	informal financial support
<b>IL</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	general	N/A	N/A

## Languages offered in secondary education

<b>FL</b> ( <i>languages in italics offered in upper secondary only</i> )	English is compulsory. <i>Ancient Greek, Chinese, French, German, Italian, Japanese, Latin, Russian, Spanish</i> are optional
<b>IL</b>	Arabic and Turkish

Good knowledge of the national language is expected in upper secondary education in Denmark. The assessment of language skills is part of the admission procedure to the secondary level.

Danish and English are the only compulsory languages, whereas Ancient Greek, Arabic, Chinese, German, French, Italian, Japanese, Latin, Russian, Spanish and Turkish have been optional since the latest reform in 2005. The reform has led to a dramatic decrease in the number of students that learn multiple foreign languages. The number of students who are taught three foreign languages dropped from 41% to 3% and in spite of minor adjustments of the reform, the picture has not changed significantly.

## Languages in further and higher education

### Further education (in three VET institutions) (No provision of R/M languages and immigrant languages)

		Range of language programmes	Curriculum	Level to be achieved	State funding available
<b>FL</b>	<b>Institution A</b>				
	<b>Institution B</b>	no specifications	no guidelines	none	full
	<b>Institution C</b>				

### Higher education (in three universities)

	Language(s) of instruction	Languages on website	Target groups for additional support in the national language	Level to be achieved in foreign language instruction	Recruitment of non-national students	Mobility for language students	Mobility for non-language students
<b>University A</b>	national and foreign	national and foreign	all	none	only international	optional	optional
<b>University B</b>	national and foreign	national and foreign	all	none	only international	optional	optional
<b>University C</b>	national, foreign and R/ML	national and foreign	restricted	none	only international	optional	optional

Danish universities comply with the Anglo-Saxon education system (Bachelor-Master) following the process to create a *European Higher Education Area* (Bologna process). As a result of these changes as well as an increased focus on internationalisation in general and to attract international students, Danish universities offer more than 25% of their courses in English. Also academy profession schools (90–150 ECTS) and professional bachelor's schools (180–240 ECTS) offer quite a number of programmes in English.

Since 2005 the number of students entering programmes in foreign languages other than English has been falling steadily, which has led to the closing of several language programmes. Spanish, German and French are still taught in many places whereas Italian and Russian have almost no students. A small increase has been noticed for Japanese and Chinese. Some universities offer Turkish and Arabic.

## Languages in audiovisual media and press

Non-national language TV productions	Non-national language films in cinema	R/ML programmes outside of region	Availability of sign language on TV
subtitled	subtitled	always	regularly in Copenhagen never in Aarhus and Aabenraa

Denmark has six national television channels, three of which (DR1, DR2, TV2) are paid via a general license fee. In addition, several local television channels broadcast every day. According to a law of December 2002, programmes on public radio and television must ensure public access to information and important social debates. They must also draw on Danish language and culture.

Sign language is regularly offered at important media events and there is a special sign language channel.

## Languages in public services and spaces

### Institutionalised language strategies at city level

N languages	Website presence	Use of interpreters	Language competencies in job descriptions	Recruitment of speakers of languages	Language training offered to employees	Record of language skills of employees
>4	Copenhagen	Copenhagen Aabenraa			Copenhagen	
3-4						
1-2	Aabenraa		Aabenraa	Aabenraa	Aabenraa	

### Communication facilities

Top five oral communication facilities	Top five written communication facilities
Emergency Immigration and integration Tourism Health = Social = Legal	Immigration and integration Legal Tourism Health Social

The *Nordic Language Convention* states that speakers of the Nordic languages have the right to address public institutions in any of the Nordic countries in their own language.

## Languages in business (out of 12 companies)

GENERAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES								
	Availability of language strategy	Emphasis on language skills in recruitment	International mobility provision	Use of external translators/interpreters	Staff records of language skills	Use of networks for language training	Use of EU programmes/funding	Awareness of EU programmes/funding
<b>Widely practised</b>	4	7	1	5	0	0	0	0

		INTERNAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES						EXTERNAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES			
		Partnerships with education sector	Reward/promotion schemes based on language skills	Language training provision	Use of CEFR	Language used for workplace documents/intranet	Language used for software, web programmes	Language used for annual/business reports	Language used for marketing	Language used for branding/identity	Language used for website
<b>NL</b>	widely practised	1	0	3	0	11	11	10	12	12	11
<b>Business English</b>	widely practised	0	0	2	0	3	6	4	3	5	6
<b>Additional languages</b>	widely practised	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2

Danish businesses are mainly composed of small, and medium-sized companies – 92% have fewer than ten employees and less than 2% have more than 50 employees. 68% of the jobs are in private companies.

According to a survey by *Danish Industry* in 2007, more than 25% of the large businesses use English as the corporate language. The use of other languages and of translation services is decreasing. Danish Industry has expressed severe concerns about the falling numbers of language students and has suggested combined competences, such as the combination of engineering skills and language skills as one of the solutions.



## Key findings overall

For the last 150 years Denmark has been a mainly monolingual country with Danish as the main language, and a country where citizens had a fairly good command of German and French and, since 1945, English. Furthermore, Danes have had easy access to the whole of Scandinavia due to Danish, Norwegian and Swedish being mutually understandable.

During the last ten years, English has gained a much stronger position at the cost of German and French. The parallel Danish/English language strategy of the Danish government has strongly supported this development. Language skills in foreign languages including the Scandinavian languages are decreasing, and the command of immigrant languages such as Arabic and Turkish has not been promoted as an asset. As a consequence, there is a falling interest in foreign languages other than English in universities, companies and schools. The recent recommendations to introduce English at the beginning of primary school will probably further accelerate this development. If Denmark wants to live up to the language policies of the EU and the Council of Europe, this development may become a serious challenge.

## Promising initiatives and pilots

Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL): At *Købmagergade skole* in Fredericia experiments with internationalisation and *Content and Language Integrated Learning* (CLIL) have been taking place since 2001. In 2005 an international stream was established for the lower secondary level where sciences such as biology and mathematics are taught in English by native English teachers.

Centre for Internationalisation and Parallel Language Use (CIP): The *Centre for Internationalisation and Parallel Language Use* (CIP) was established in 2008 at the University of Copenhagen in order to augment the University's efforts to implement a language policy based on the principles of parallel language use.

Nordic Language Coordination: *Nordic Language Coordination* was established in 2009 under the auspices of the Nordic Council of Ministers in order to enhance the mutual understanding between speakers of the mainland Scandinavian languages: Danish, Swedish and Norwegian.

Tegn på sprog (Sign language): *Tegn på sprog* is a research and development project established in 2008 for a period of six years by the Ministries of Education and Integration in broad co-operation with universities, university colleges and schools. The aim of the project is to gain insights into how children with Danish as their second language approach written Danish, and to develop new teaching strategies.

## References

*Sprog til Tiden* (Language in time). Report by the language policy group of the Danish government (2008).

*Sprog er nøglen til verden* (Language is the key to the world). Report by a working group under the ministry of research, innovation and higher education (2011).

*Nordic Convention of Languages* (1987).

[www.efnil.org](http://www.efnil.org)

## 5 ESTONIA

Kersti Sõstar

### Country context

To understand the current language situation in Estonian society, we should take a look at history. Before the First World War, Estonia was part of the Russian empire for two centuries. However, the official language of state authorities was German until 1880 when Russian took over. The Estonian language achieved the status of official language during the first period of independence of the Republic of Estonia (1918–1940) on the basis of the first Constitution of Estonia of 1920. During the Soviet period (1945–1985), Estonian continued to be developed, but to a lesser extent than previously. At the time, centralised management across the Soviet Union in Russian prevailed in various sectors of the economy. The Russian language also spread to other areas of life. Non Estonian-speaking Soviet citizens who had moved to Estonia were employed in the public sector, but knowledge of Estonian was not required of them until 1989. Since then, more attention has been paid to creating opportunities to learn Estonian for all residents of the country, as well as for learning foreign languages. The language policy also aims to support the right of national minorities to maintain their cultures.

### Languages in official documents and databases

The national language, foreign languages, and immigrant languages are dealt with in language legislation and/or language policy documents. The learning and teaching of the national language abroad for children and/or adults originating from Estonia is (co-)funded in Belgium and Luxembourg. The *European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages* has not been signed and ratified by Estonia. The new national *Law on Languages* (2011), however, considers it important to protect all Estonian R/M languages.

Official nationwide data collection mechanisms on language diversity in Estonia exist in terms of periodically updated census data. In these data collection mechanisms, national, R/M and immigrant language varieties are addressed, based on a mother tongue question plus a language proficiency question in terms of how well the language can be spoken/understood/read/written.

In addition to the *Language Act*, language use is also governed by the Constitution, the *Citizenship Act* and several other acts of law pertaining to the sphere of education in the Republic of Estonia. The *Language Act* focuses on the conditions of using varieties of Estonian, foreign languages, minority languages and *Estonian Sign Language*, plus the language use of people with special needs. Language development strategies have a significant role. The *Estonian Language Council* set up by the Minister of Education prepared the first strategy for the development of Estonian for the period 2004–2010; the *Estonian Language Development Plan* has been prepared for the period 2011–2017. Both documents also address issues related to multilingualism and foreign languages to a certain extent. Issues related to foreign languages are dealt with in the *Estonian Foreign Language Strategy 2009–2015* ([www.hm.ee/index.php?03247](http://www.hm.ee/index.php?03247) *Eesti võõrkeelte strateegia 2009–2015*).

According to the Ministry of Education and Research, in the near future the ratification of the *European Charter of Regional or Minority Languages* is not planned, but Estonia fulfils the criteria of the ECRML.

**NL=National Language(s)**  
**FL=Foreign Languages**  
**R/ML=Regional or Minority Languages**  
**IL=Immigrant Languages**

## Languages in pre-primary education

(No provision of R/M languages, immigrant languages and additional national language support)

	Target groups	Duration	Minimum group size requirements	Days per week	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	State funding available
<b>FL</b>	no support	<1 year	none	<0.5 day	general	general	none

### Languages offered in pre-primary education

<b>FL</b>	English, German, French, Russian
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In nursery schools the language of instruction is mostly Estonian but another language may be used subject to the decision of the local government. Teaching is based on the national curriculum for pre-school childcare institutions. To non Estonian-speaking children, Estonian is taught from the age of three, with the state supporting language training through local governments. Many of the nursery schools in which Estonian is taught have participated in the language immersion programme since 2003. Nursery school teachers affiliated with the programme have been specially trained. Studying Estonian as a mother tongue involves learning pronunciation, sentence structure, reading and writing, and arousing children's interest in literature.

At the request of parents, as well as on the initiative and with the support of foreign states' language and cultural representations, foreign languages are increasingly being taught in pre-school childcare institutions. However, there is no statistical data available on foreign language learning in nursery schools.

## Languages in primary education (No provision of R/M languages and immigrant languages)

### Organisation

	Curriculum	Extra support for newcomers	Diagnostic testing on entry	Monitoring of language skills
<b>NL support</b>	coherent and explicit	before mainstream	absent	school-based

	Target groups	Curriculum	CLIL	Start of language education	Scheduling	Minimum group size requirements	Monitoring of language skills	Level to be achieved	State funding available
<b>FL</b>	all	coherent and explicit	absent	from mid-phase	in school hours	none	school-based	linked to CEFR	full

### Teaching

	Teacher qualifications	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	Mobility
<b>NL support</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	N/A
<b>FL</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	informal financial support

## Languages offered in primary education

<b>FL</b>	Either English, German, French or Russian: one language is compulsory, the rest optional
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Teaching the mother tongue (Estonian language and literature or Russian language and literature) is compulsory in the first stage of primary school (as well as in all subsequent stages of schooling). Foreign languages have been taught in general education schools starting from grade three since the 1991/1992 academic year, with children (or parents) being able to freely choose the language to be studied (English, Russian, German or French). In schools with a language of instruction other than Estonian, the national language is taught from grade one. In addition to Estonian, foreign languages are taught in accordance with the schools' curricula. The first Estonian-language study programme for schools with another language of instruction was adopted in 1997. To support learning Estonian, many of those schools have joined the early language immersion programme. The 2002 curriculum introduced the opportunity to start learning foreign languages from grade one and the obligation to start learning them from grade three.

## Languages in secondary education (No provision of R/M languages)

### Organisation

	Curriculum	Extra support for newcomers	Diagnostic testing on entry	Monitoring of language skills
<b>NL support</b>	coherent and explicit	before mainstream	absent	national standardised

	Target groups	Curriculum	CLIL	Scheduling	Minimum group size requirements	Monitoring of language skills	Level to be achieved	State funding available
<b>FL</b>	all	coherent and explicit	absent	in school hours	none	national standardised	linked to CEFR	full
<b>IL</b>	native speakers only	no guidelines	absent	outside school hours	>10	absent	national or regional norms	none

### Teaching

	Teacher qualifications	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	Language level required	Mobility
<b>NL support</b>	general teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	linked to CEFR	N/A
<b>FL</b>	general teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	linked to CEFR	none
<b>IL</b>	general teachers	general	general	N/A	N/A

### Languages offered in secondary education

<b>FL</b>	English, German, French, Russian, other languages: two of these languages are compulsory
<b>IL</b>	Chinese, Finnish, Swedish

In 1996 the first national general education curriculum was adopted in which the contents of studies were set out by school stage. Based on the national curriculum, schools prepared their subject syllabi, including for mother tongue and literature (Estonian and Russian) and for foreign languages. Foreign language A, the first foreign language, was taught from grade three and foreign language B from grade six. The third foreign language, foreign language C, was added as an elective subject in grade ten. In recent years, nearly half of all secondary school pupils have chosen English as their first foreign language, followed by Russian as the second and German as the third. In the academic year 2010/2011, German was studied by 8.9% and French by just 1.9% of all pupils. Of elective subjects, German is the most common choice. In addition to these languages, several schools offer the opportunity to learn other languages such as Hebrew, Chinese (Mandarin), Spanish, Italian, Japanese, Latin, Swedish or Finnish as a third foreign language.

To support the learning of Estonian as the second language from grade six, many schools have joined the late language immersion programme. In 2007 the transition to partially Estonian-language instruction began in schools with other languages of instruction; in the academic year 2011/2012, 60% of the minimum number of compulsory courses were taught in Estonian. Revised national curricula for primary and secondary schools have been implemented from 2011/2012. Learning outcomes for Estonian as a second language and for foreign languages are assessed in accordance with the Council of Europe system of uniform language proficiency levels (CEFR).

### Languages in further and higher education

#### Further education (in three VET institutions) (No provision of R/M languages and immigrant languages)

		Range of language programmes	Curriculum	Level to be achieved	State funding available
<b>FL</b>	<b>Institution A</b>				
	<b>Institution B</b>	wide variety	coherent and explicit	national	full
	<b>Institution C</b>	limited	coherent and explicit	national	full

### Higher education (in three universities)

	Language(s) of instruction	Languages on website	Target groups for additional support in the national language	Level to be achieved in foreign language instruction	Recruitment of non-national students	Mobility for language students	Mobility for non-language students
<b>University A</b>	national and foreign	national, foreign and R/ML	restricted	linked to CEFR	international and immigrant	optional	optional
<b>University B</b>	national and foreign	national and foreign	restricted	linked to CEFR	only international	optional	optional
<b>University C</b>	national, foreign and R/ML	national and foreign	all	linked to CEFR	international and immigrant	optional	optional

Estonian is the language of instruction in vocational schools; the use of any other language as the language of instruction is decided by the Minister of Education and Research. Vocational schools provide education in accordance with the curricula of schools and the national curricula for vocational subjects. Teaching Estonian is compulsory in vocational schools for Russian medium classes and is based on the level achieved at the end of basic education (that is, ISCED II or the Estonian ninth form). Foreign languages are taught as two different strands under two curricula: foreign languages and specialist foreign languages. While in the case of some technical disciplines there is virtually no foreign language training, for a number of service disciplines the foreign languages taught in vocational schools include English, French, German, Russian, Italian, Swedish and Finnish.

The *Estonian Qualifications Authority* co-ordinates the development of professional standards, which specify the required level of proficiency in Estonian and in foreign languages for pursuing the profession in question. Requirements for civil servants, employees and entrepreneurs in terms of knowledge of Estonian have been established in a government regulation. Following an amendment introduced to the *Language Act* (2008), mandatory levels of language proficiency were introduced in alignment with the Council of Europe's *Common European Framework of Reference*; Estonian language proficiency state exams are conducted for the A2, B1, B2 and C1 levels.

According to the *Universities Act*, Estonian is the language of instruction at universities; the use of other languages is decided by the council of the university. On the one hand, the aim is to provide Estonian language higher education that ensures a high level of proficiency in Estonian; on the other hand, in particular at higher-study levels, the proportion of English-language instruction is growing in connection with internationalisation. Russian is also used as a language of instruction in institutions of higher education.

Students in Bachelor's or diploma studies mostly take English as a general subject, followed by Russian, Estonian as a second or foreign language, German, and, to a lesser extent, French. The opportunities to learn other foreign languages have expanded significantly through university language centres: it is possible to study Italian, Spanish, Finnish, Swedish, Turkish and other languages. Foreign languages are taught to foreign philologists as a specialism and to all other students as a general and specialist language. Although foreign languages can mostly be taken as optional subjects under curricula, the learning outcomes of higher education levels stipulated in the *Higher Education Standard* also provide for the foreign language proficiency level. This acts as an incentive to learn foreign languages. Good foreign language skills among teachers and students serve as a basis for pursuing the goals of the *Higher Education Internationalisation Strategy*.

## Languages in audiovisual media and press

Non-national language TV productions	Non-national language films in cinema	R/ML programmes outside of region	Availability of sign language on TV
subtitled in Tallinn and Tartu dubbed in Narva	subtitled in Tallinn and Tartu dubbed in Narva	always in Tallinn and Tartu regularly in Narva	always

The common practice of subtitling television programmes and films means that from an early age people are exposed to languages other than Estonian. However, the large majority of foreign programmes offered on Estonian television are in English. Viewers are mainly exposed to the English language, and to a lesser extent to Russian, German and Spanish. Children’s programmes, cartoons in particular, are often dubbed.

The range of languages other than Estonian offered in national television programmes is limited. An effort has been made by *Estonian National Broadcasting* to offer news and cultural programmes in Russian. On the other hand, satellite television and the internet provide access to programmes from all over the world and they are viewed intensively. However, those types of television providers have not been included in this study.

A limited choice of foreign language newspapers, dominated by Russian, is available in the three cities surveyed. Tourism and the presence of a large Russian community explain the linguistic offer regarding newspapers.

## Languages in public services and spaces

### Institutionalised language strategies at city level

N languages	Website presence	Use of interpreters	Language competencies in job descriptions	Recruitment of speakers of languages	Language training offered to employees	Record of language skills of employees
>4	Tallinn					
3–4	Tartu	Tallinn Tartu	Tallinn			Narva
1–2	Narva	Narva	Tartu Narva	Tallinn Tartu Narva	Tallinn Tartu Narva	

### Communication facilities

Top five oral communication facilities	Top five written communication facilities
Tourism Education Emergency = Health = Social = Legal = Transport = Immigration and integration	Tourism Education Emergency = Health = Social = Legal = Transport = Immigration and integration

The *Language Act* of the Estonian Republic, adopted in 1995, defines the domains in which the use of Estonian is obligatory. It also sets out the conditions and extent of the use of the languages of national minorities in state agencies and local governments. In areas where at least half of the population belongs to a national minority group, residents have the right to receive information in that minority language (in addition to Estonian) from the local government and from state agencies based in that area. This is the case in two out of the three cities surveyed. The services in these cities are offered in several languages with Russian, English and Finnish prevailing. City websites have language versions besides the national language also in English and Russian. In addition, basic city information and tourist information is offered in Finnish, Swedish and German.

## Languages in business (out of 24 companies)

GENERAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES								
	Availability of language strategy	Emphasis on language skills in recruitment	International mobility provision	Use of external translators/interpreters	Staff records of language skills	Use of networks for language training	Use of EU programmes/funding	Awareness of EU programmes/funding
<b>Widely practised</b>	5	15	7	6	0	6	0	0

		INTERNAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES						EXTERNAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES			
		Partnerships with education sector	Reward/promotion schemes based on language skills	Language training provision	Use of CEFR	Language used for workplace documents/intranet	Language used for software, web programmes	Language used for annual/business reports	Language used for marketing	Language used for branding/identity	Language used for website
<b>NL</b>	widely practised	4	1	7	1	24	21	24	24	23	19
<b>Business English</b>	widely practised	2	0	8	0	9	13	9	12	9	14
<b>Additional languages</b>	widely practised	3	1	7	0	3	4	4	8	5	15

Historically international relations and trade have always been and still are very important for the Estonian economy, and general language practices are much stronger than companies' written communication strategies. Linguistic competencies are generally considered as an important requirement for employees. It is a common standard that for many jobs the knowledge of Russian and one additional foreign language, English or German, is a prerequisite.

The importance of multilingualism in Estonia is not reflected in Estonia's profile of languages in business. Not all four company types investigated (banks, hotels, supermarkets, and construction companies) are necessarily company types that focus on international business. Small local shops and construction businesses solely target local communities.



## Key findings overall

Estonia has addressed language issues over time and has done its best to preserve and develop Estonian; to enhance the language skills of the entire population; and to promote the use of various languages. In analysing its language education policy, Estonia was assisted by the *Language Policy Division* of the Council of Europe. The analysis was completed in 2011. Strategies for Estonian and foreign languages developed over the past decade set further goals. The process of developing strategies has played an important role, bringing together specialists from different spheres, which in turn has improved language-related co-operation. Joint efforts have contributed to strengthening the position of Estonian at all education levels. Although all of the strategic objectives are worthwhile, their implementation depends on the availability of resources. This is felt particularly in the implementation of the *Foreign Language Strategy*.

In conclusion, Estonia has created good conditions for teaching Estonian as a mother tongue and as the state language. Among other languages, Russian and English prevail, while other languages are learnt and used much less frequently. Educational institutions are seeking to introduce more diverse opportunities for learning a third foreign language in their curricula. The development of multilingualism is supported and encouraged with the help of various projects for the teaching of, for example, French, German, Swedish and Finnish. Yet Estonia is still quite a long way from true multilingualism.

## Promising initiatives and pilots

The objectives of promoting the learning and spread of Estonian as a mother tongue and second language set out in the *Estonian Language Development Plan* should be pursued. The transition to Estonian language instruction in schools with languages of instruction other than Estonian which began in 2007 has required and will require a lot of resources. The transition has been more successful in schools that joined the language immersion programme. In addition, the methodology for integrated subject and language teaching should become more widespread.

Although foreign languages are mentioned in Estonian language development plans, and development plans concerning foreign languages refer to connections with the mother tongue, the objectives concerning mother tongue and foreign languages are often separated in the development plans of the language sphere. Estonia should take guidance from the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching and Assessment*, both as regards the principles set out in the document and the language proficiency levels defined by the Council of Europe. This document was translated into Estonian in 2006 at the request of the Ministry of Education and Research. The *Estonian Foreign Language Strategy* aims to promote the continuity of the policy of learning and teaching foreign languages, as well as the continuity of the principles of funding the recognition and assessment of language skills. Of the many strategic objectives, those prioritised should be distinguished.

While the assessment of adult proficiency in Estonian as a second language is based on the Council of Europe's language proficiency levels, the development of self-assessment tools (such as the *Language Portfolio*) and national tests should continue and international certificates of proficiency should be accepted according to these language proficiency levels. Implementation of the *National Curriculum* (2011) based on the Council of Europe's language proficiency levels is a challenge for the education system. An understanding of the language proficiency levels should be disseminated and harmonised in vocational and adult education, as well as among employers.

## References

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## 6 FRANCE

Louis-Jean Calvet

### Country context

Before describing the French national context, it is important to stress the fact that the questionnaire that was used is based on the assumption that European situations are comparable. There is, therefore, a risk that certain national specificities are overlooked. It is, of course, legitimate to take stock of the application of European directives on linguistic matters, and the results of the survey constitute an invaluable database of the countries in question. It would be interesting to make this data available to the general public in the form of an 'on-request' index based on the OECD's *Better Life Index*, for example.

France (Metropolitan France and overseas territories) is a country where a large number of languages are spoken, be they indigenous or a consequence of migration. As part of its work on the *European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages*, the Ministry for National Education, Research and Technology and the Ministry of Culture and Communication commissioned the linguist Bernard Cerquiglini to produce a report on the *Languages of France* which was presented to the authorities in April 1999. It listed 75 'languages spoken in the country other than the official language'. These are languages 'spoken by French nationals' and the many languages spoken by immigrants should therefore be added to this list. On this point it should be highlighted that, for ethical reasons, in France there is no monitoring of ethnic or national minorities.

However, with regards to the transmission of immigrant languages and regional languages, the 1999 census provides interesting data. It shows that 26% of French people were raised by parents who spoke a language other than French at home. The respondents cite 6,700 'names of languages' corresponding to around 400 languages identified and catalogued by *Ethnologue* with a ISO 639-3 code. As for the rate of transmission of immigrant languages, it is 86% for Turkish, 25% for Polish and, for regional languages, 45% for Alsatian and 10% for Breton. This means that some immigrant languages are transmitted more than regional languages and that the more recent the migration, the higher the rate of transmission. As for regional languages, their transmission rate is constantly falling.

Finally, French, the official language of over thirty countries in which it is the second language and has a wide range of forms, is also taught as a foreign language to immigrant groups in France.

### Languages in official documents and databases

The national language, foreign languages, R/M languages and immigrant languages are dealt with in language legislation and/or language policy documents. The learning and teaching of the national language abroad for children and/or adults originating from France is (co-) funded in approximately 130 countries in Europe and beyond. The *European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages* has been signed by government but not ratified by parliament in France. At the national level, a range of R/M languages and immigrant languages are recognised, protected and/or promoted in official country documents, including nation- or regionwide education. The languages referred to are Basque, Breton, Catalan, Corsican, Alsacien, Mosellan, Western Flemish, Franco-Provençal, Langues d'Oïl ('Languages of the North' – Franc-Comtois, Wallon, Champenois, Picard, Normand, Gallo, Poitevin-Saintongeais, Lorrain, Bourguignon-Morvandiau), Occitan or Langue d'Oc ('Languages of the South' – Gascon, Languedocien, Provençal, Auvergnat, Limousin, Vivaro-Alpin), Parlers Liguriens (from the valley of Royain in the Alpes-Maritimes and Bonifacio in Corsica), plus the 41 languages from overseas territories included in the *Langues de France* official list, and the non-territorial languages spoken by immigrant populations: dialectal Arabic, Western Armenian, Berber, Jewish, Spanish and Romani. Both R/M languages and immigrant languages are referred to as *Langues de France*, that is languages of, rather than languages in, France. Such reference shows a remarkable inclusive perspective on minority languages that is rarely found across European countries.

Official nationwide data collection mechanisms on language diversity in France exist in terms of periodically updated survey data. In these data collection mechanisms, national, R/M and immigrant language varieties are addressed, based on a home language question plus a language proficiency question in terms of whether this language can be spoken/understood/read/written.

Article 2 of the French Constitution (amended on 25 June 1992) stipulates that 'the language of the French Republic is French' and Article 75-1 (amended on 23 July 2008) states that 'regional languages are the national heritage' (it should be noted that these languages are not listed in the Constitution). Moreover, these regional languages are taught at secondary level and there are regular competitive exams to recruit teachers (CAPES). Article 1 of the law on 'the use of the French language' (4 August 1994), the so-called *Toubon Law*, specifies that French is 'the language of teaching, working and discussion in public services'. Other articles of this law will be cited below under the relevant headings.

**NL=National Language(s)**  
**FL=Foreign Languages**  
**R/ML=Regional or Minority Languages**  
**IL=Immigrant Languages**

## Languages in pre-primary education (no provision)

Regarding this heading and the three subsequent headings (primary, secondary and higher education), Article 11 of the Law on 'the use of the French language' stipulates that:

*The language of teaching, examinations and competitive examinations as well as theses and dissertations in state and private institutions is French, notwithstanding exceptions that are justified by the requirements of teaching regional or foreign languages and cultures or where teachers are foreign associate or guest teachers. Foreign schools or those that are set up especially to host pupils of a foreign nationality as well as schools teaching lessons of an international nature are not subject to this requirement.*

## Languages in primary education

### Organisation

	Curriculum	Extra support for newcomers	Diagnostic testing on entry	Monitoring of language skills
<b>NL support</b>	coherent and explicit	before mainstream	absent	national standardised

	Target groups	Curriculum	CLIL	Start of language education	Scheduling	Minimum group size requirements	Monitoring of language skills	Level to be achieved	State funding available
<b>R/ML</b>	all	coherent and explicit	localised	from mid-phase	in school hours	none	school-based	national or regional norms	full
<b>FL</b>	all	coherent and explicit	localised	from mid-phase	in school hours	none	school-based	linked to CEFR	full
<b>IL</b>	all	general	absent	end-phase only	outside school hours	none	school-based	not specified	partial

### Teaching

	Teacher qualifications	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	Mobility
<b>NL support</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	N/A
<b>R/ML</b>	general teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	N/A
<b>FL</b>	general teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	none
<b>IL</b>	general teachers	none	general	N/A

## Languages offered in primary education

<b>R/ML</b>	Basque, Breton, Catalan, Corsican, Occitan in Continental France, Tahitian, Melanesian languages (Ajié, Drehu, Nengone, Paici) in France Overseas
<b>FL</b>	Compulsory: one language from English, German and, less commonly, other languages such as Arabic, Chinese, Italian, Portuguese, Russian and Spanish
<b>IL</b>	Arabic, Croatian, Italian, Portuguese, Serbian, Spanish, Turkish

Primary education is in French. In parallel, education in languages and culture of origin (ELCO) is offered for a number of immigrant languages such as Arabic or Turkish, aimed at children of migrants and organised in the school setting by the country of origin. With regards to Arabic, it is the standard form that is taught rather than the linguistic forms actually spoken in families.

Primary pupils (99.9% of pupils in cycle 3) are also taught a foreign language, usually English. They are also sometimes taught a regional language (49,800 pupils).

There are also secular and free charity-run schools (for example, Diwan for Breton, Calendreta for Occitan, Bressola for Catalan) in which teaching is in the regional language.

## Languages in secondary education

### Organisation

	Curriculum	Extra support for newcomers	Diagnostic testing on entry	Monitoring of language skills
<b>NL support</b>	coherent and explicit	before mainstream	all	national standardised

	Target groups	Curriculum	CLIL	Scheduling	Minimum group size requirements	Monitoring of language skills	Level to be achieved	State funding available
<b>R/ML</b>	all	coherent and explicit	localised	in school hours	none	school-based	national or regional norms	full
<b>FL</b>	all	coherent and explicit	widespread	in school hours	none	school-based	linked to CEFR	full
<b>IL</b>	all	general	widespread	partly in school hours	none	school-based	no norms	partial

### Teaching

	Teacher qualifications	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	Language level required	Mobility
<b>NL support</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	N/A	N/A
<b>R/ML</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	linked to CEFR	N/A
<b>FL</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	linked to CEFR	none
<b>IL</b>	general teachers	none	subject-specific	N/A	N/A

## Languages offered in secondary education

<b>R/ML</b>	Basque, Breton, Catalan, Corsican, Creole, Occitan, Alsatian/German, Mosellan; Tahitian, Melanesian languages (Ajié, Drehu, Nengone, Paici) in France Overseas
<b>FL</b>	2 languages from 19 are compulsory: English, Spanish, German, Arabic, Chinese, Italian, Portuguese, Russian, Danish, Dutch, Greek, Hebrew, Japanese, Norwegian, Polish, Swedish, Turkish, Ancient Greek and Latin. Other languages, such as regional ones, are optional
<b>IL</b>	Arabic, Croatian, Italian, Portuguese, Serbian, Spanish and Turkish

Under the compulsory foreign language syllabus, pupils can choose between more languages than in most other European countries. These are divided into two types according to two political approaches: the languages of EU Member States on the one hand, and languages that are in keeping with France's foreign policy choices (Arabic, Chinese, Japanese). Pupils (or parents) tend to favour English, followed by Spanish and German. It should be noted that Russian has fallen out of favour in parallel with the fall of the Berlin Wall and that Arabic is mainly chosen by pupils of immigrant origin.

Eleven regional languages should be added to the taught foreign languages cited in the France country profile: Basque, Breton, Catalan, Corsican, Creole, Gallo, Melanesian languages, and the regional languages of Alsace, regional languages of the Moselle, Occitan, and Tahitian.

Moreover, pupils may take a paper at the *baccalauréat* in a regional or foreign language of their choice. Altogether, 57 languages were assessed orally or in writing in the 2011 *baccalauréat* exam.

## Languages in further and higher education

### Further education (in three VET institutions) (No provision of immigrant languages)

		Range of language programmes	Curriculum	Level to be achieved	State funding available
<b>R/ML</b>	<b>Institution A</b>				
	<b>Institution B</b>				
	<b>Institution C</b>	limited	general	N/A	full
<b>FL</b>	<b>Institution A</b>	wide variety	general	national	partial
	<b>Institution B</b>	wide variety	general	linked to CEFR	none
	<b>Institution C</b>	wide variety	coherent and explicit	national	full

### Higher education (in three universities)

	Language(s) of instruction	Languages on website	Target groups for additional support in the national language	Level to be achieved in foreign language instruction	Recruitment of non-national students	Mobility for language students	Mobility for non-language students
<b>University A</b>	national and foreign	national and foreign	restricted	national or institution-based	only international	obligatory	obligatory
<b>University B</b>	national only	national and foreign	restricted	linked to CEFR	only international	optional	optional
<b>University C</b>	national only	national only	restricted	linked to CEFR	only international	optional	optional

As stipulated by law (see above) French is the language of higher education. However, many languages are taught at universities (thirty, for example, at the University of Aix-Marseille), and a specialised higher education institute such as the *Institut National des Langues et Civilisations Orientales (INALCO)* teaches 93 different languages.

## Languages in audiovisual media and press

Non-national language TV productions	Non-national language films in cinema	R/ML programmes outside of region	Availability of sign language on TV
dubbed	subtitled	never	regularly

On the national media (radio and television) there are local programmes in regional languages. The survey did not address access to foreign languages on television and it should be specified here that the various cable or satellite packages make it possible to access channels in a great number of the world's languages. As for the press, there are few publications in regional languages but a great number of foreign publications. The combined effect of tourism and immigration ensure that non-indigenous multilingualism maintains an important position in France. An extensive range of foreign language print media is available all year round in Paris, Marseille, and in the tourist season in Corte, with 13 languages in Marseille and 15 in Paris, totalling nearly 80 foreign language publications for these two cities.

## Languages in public services and spaces

### Institutionalised language strategies at city level

N languages	Website presence	Use of interpreters	Language competencies in job descriptions	Recruitment of speakers of languages	Language training offered to employees	Record of language skills of employees
>4	Marseille	Marseille			Paris	
3-4		Paris			Marseille	
1-2	Paris		Marseille	Marseille		

### Communication facilities

Top five oral communication facilities	Top five written communication facilities
Tourism Transport Legal Theatre Health	Tourism Transport Legal = Education = Health = Immigration and integration = Theatre

Public services operate in French. The law on 'the use of the French language' stipulates in particular that, whether governed by public or private law, when carrying out a public service duty, individuals must use the French language (Article 5).

In the public sphere, regional languages appear on street signs in some towns and on road signs of some highways next to French. The situation varies substantially from one region to another: Corsican is prevalent in Corsica; Breton and Occitan less so in their respective regions. This should be understood in the context of our introduction on the low transmission rate of these languages.

Languages in business (out of 24 companies)

GENERAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES								
	Availability of language strategy	Emphasis on language skills in recruitment	International mobility provision	Use of external translators/interpreters	Staff records of language skills	Use of networks for language training	Use of EU programmes/funding	Awareness of EU programmes/funding
<b>Widely practised</b>	7	11	5	7	0	3	0	0

		INTERNAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES						EXTERNAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES			
		Partnerships with education sector	Reward/promotion schemes based on language skills	Language training provision	Use of CEFR	Language used for workplace documents/intranet	Language used for software, web programmes	Language used for annual/business reports	Language used for marketing	Language used for branding/identity	Language used for website
<b>NL</b>	widely practised	3	1	4	1	23	21	23	23	23	22
<b>Business English</b>	widely practised	4	2	12	3	12	11	7	11	12	12
<b>Additional languages</b>	widely practised	2	1	5	1	1	0	1	0	2	1

Regarding the use of languages in companies, the most prevalent languages (English, Spanish, German, Dutch, Italian, Portuguese) are European languages which, taking into account the various factors, carry the most weight relatively speaking.

With regard to work contracts, French law highlights the precedence of French and, at the same time, protects foreign employees. Article 8 of the law on 'the use of the French language' specifies that

*when a position that is under contract can only be designated by a foreign term without a French equivalent, the contract must include an explanation in French of the foreign term. When the employee is of foreign nationality and the contract is in writing, a translation of the contract is drafted, at the request of the employee, in their own language. Both texts are legally binding. In the event of discrepancies between the two texts, only the text drafted in the language of the foreign employee can be held against them.*

## Key findings overall

It is important to underline that the classification which distinguishes between ‘immigrant languages’ and ‘foreign languages’ can be flawed by the reality and complexity of real-life situations. For example, languages like Italian, Spanish or Portuguese can be taught in secondary education as ‘foreign’ languages and at the same time be the first language of part of the immigrant population. The survey shows that the linguistic policy of France in the area of education is both open linguistically (many languages are offered) but equally reflects the linguistic aspects of globalisation (English widely dominates compared to German and Spanish). It should be noted, however, that the situation in Corte gives the impression that the presence of a regional language seems to slow down the trend towards multilingualism.

## Promising initiatives and pilots

At the international level, the *Organisation Internationale de la Francophonie* organised a global forum on the French language in Quebec in 2012. At the national level, the French authorities organised a convention on multilingualism in overseas territories in December 2011, and the Strategic Advisory Council on Languages published a report in January 2012 entitled *To learn a language is to learn about the world*. Universities, city councils and training centres in France make significant efforts to provide teaching of French as a foreign language with the double objective of integrating immigrants and disseminating the French language externally. At the beginning of the 2012/3 academic year, the University of Strasbourg is putting in place, a project looking at mutual understanding of related languages. Finally, the city of Marseille will be the European Capital of Culture in 2013, which should support its effort to become more multilingual.



# 7 GERMANY

Ingrid Gogolin, Joana Duarte, Patrick Grommes

## Country context

Germany is a federal and highly decentralised state, especially in the fields of educational, cultural and social welfare policies. The field of education in particular is the responsibility of the individual *Länder* (Federal States) and so it is not possible to provide generalised information for Germany as a whole. This report concentrates, therefore, on three *Länder* only. Because even in the *Länder*, for many questions of the LRE questionnaire no reliable generalisation is possible, we prefer to present our report without quantified data.

In the following sections, we present illustrations for the different domains approached by the LRE project. These illustrations are supported by answers to the LRE questionnaire. For domains 1 to 4 (Languages in official documents and databases, pre-primary, primary and secondary education), we sent the questionnaire to experts in the respective ministries in Hamburg, North Rhine-Westphalia, Saxony and Bavaria. For domain 5 (Languages in further and higher education), we contacted three vocational schools and universities in the cities of Berlin, Flensburg, and Munich. For domains 6 (Languages in audiovisual media and press), 7 (Languages in public services and spaces) and 8 (Languages in business), we equally contacted informants in the three cities Berlin, Flensburg and Munich. The cities as well as *Länder* were selected at the request of the LRE Steering Group.

## Languages in official documents and databases

Nationwide data collection on language diversity does not take place. With respect to migration, the National Statistics Bureau ([www.destatis.de/DE/](http://www.destatis.de/DE/)) collects data on foreign citizenship. Since 2008, the *Mikrozensus* – a regular representative household survey – collects additional data on ‘place of birth’. Recently and in a small number of *Länder* (such as in Hamburg and North Rhine-Westphalia), data on the question ‘which language is dominantly spoken at home’ has been collected at school entry.

## Languages in pre-primary education

A number of special programmes have been initiated in pre-school institutions, many of which aim to integrate immigrant minority children as early as possible. One such programme was called *Sag mal was* and was developed by the *Land Baden-Württemberg* (see [www.sagmalwas-bw.de/](http://www.sagmalwas-bw.de/)) (*Baden-Württemberg-Stiftung*, 2011).

There is also a major push to raise the quality of pre-primary educators’ qualifications, since as yet the majority of these educators do not have academic degrees or comparably

high-quality training. One of the central pillars of these initiatives is how to deal appropriately with linguistic and cultural diversity in elementary education. (see, for example, [www.weiterbildungsinitiative.de](http://www.weiterbildungsinitiative.de); [www.dji.de/sprachfoerderung](http://www.dji.de/sprachfoerderung)).

In 14 out of 16 German *Länder*, children with ‘identified deficits’ in German are entitled to receive special support before entering primary school. The vast majority of the respective tests neither consider bi- or multilingualism as a relevant influential factor for language development, nor do they take languages other than German into account. Some tests, however, include the aspect of multilingualism and allow for bilingual testing in a number of immigrant languages. An example is HAVAS 5 *Katze und Vogel*, a test for the age group five to six, which was developed for German and roughly ten immigrant languages (Autorengruppe Bildungsberichterstattung, 2012; Reich, Roth, & Neumann, 2007).

Pre-primary education in the Sorbian language takes place in some nurseries in Saxony and Brandenburg, and in Schleswig-Holstein we find such nurseries in Danish. Only the *Länder* Saxony, Brandenburg (Sorbian) and Schleswig-Holstein integrated the protection of regional minorities in their constitutions. In the other *Länder*, there are no officially accepted regional minority languages.<sup>1</sup> Instruction in languages other than German takes place in a wide number of foreign languages (mostly English and French), as well as, in some cases, immigrant languages.

## Languages in primary education

German is the language of schooling in the majority of primary schools in Germany, although there is no official regulation determining this. In some *Länder* we find single primary schools working according to so-called bilingual models. The majority of these schools – some of them call themselves ‘international schools’ – work with English or one of the other prestigious ‘classical’ foreign languages, such as French (see, for example, the *Staatliche Europaschulen Berlin*). A few *Länder* have established bilingual models for pupils from autochthonous minorities (for example, in Danish in Schleswig-Holstein, and Sorbian in Saxony – see Gantefort und Roth 2011 for an overview). Likewise, in a few *Länder*, bilingual schools with immigrant minority languages have been established. Hamburg is one example for this, with a total of six schools with one ‘bilingual’ branch or class, concerning the languages Italian, Portuguese, Spanish and Turkish (Duarte 2011).

In general, English is the first foreign language. However, according to regional regulations, other languages can also be offered. Schools in border regions, for example, offer French or Dutch as the first foreign language. Some *Länder* offer the first foreign language from grade one, but mostly children start at

<sup>1</sup> This remark concerns the whole education system.

grade three, that is, at the age of nine years. Where these offers are made they are obligatory for all children, including those with an immigrant background.

With respect to education in immigrant minority languages, again a highly differentiated picture emerges. In the 1970s, the *Länder* of the former Bundesrepublik Deutschland had established systems of so-called mother tongue teaching with respect to the then relevant *Gastarbeiter* languages, that is, the languages of those sending countries with which contracts for labour migration had been established. The languages concerned were primarily Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, Greek, 'Yugoslavian', Turkish, and, in rare cases, Moroccan-Arabic. These systems were established in response to recommendations of the European Community.

However, since the late 1990s, and especially after German re-unification, these models faded out for manifold reasons. Today, there is no reliable data available about the number and range of immigrant languages that are taught either within the official school systems or outside of it, and likewise no data about the numbers of participants in these programmes. We can assume on the basis of reported data that there is a considerable and probably growing interest in such language tuition (Fürstenau, Gogolin, & Yağmur, 2003). Most of the provisions are based on private initiatives and not linked to the official school system.

In principle, teachers are qualified in teaching German as well as foreign languages, as German teacher education requires that two subjects are studied, and that teachers are appointed according to their qualification. There is hardly any specific qualification at German universities for teachers of immigrant languages. A small number of teachers of Russian or Turkish as foreign languages are trained, for example, at the Universities of Hamburg, Duisburg-Essen (North-Rhine Westphalia) and Tübingen (Baden-Württemberg). Proficiency levels for national and foreign languages must comply with national standards.

## Languages in secondary education

Germany has established a rather extensive system of foreign language education at secondary level. The vast majority of pupils learn at least one foreign language, namely English. German is compulsory at all levels and school types of secondary education and is also part of all school leaving exams. Additionally, one foreign language is compulsory in all secondary schools with the exception of special needs schools. A second foreign language is compulsory only for the purpose of reaching the highest school leaving examination (*Abitur*), but is often also offered from grade six in intermediate schools. The choice of languages varies regionally, as well as from school to school. Today, French and Spanish are the most popular foreign languages. Languages such as Chinese or Japanese, however, show increasing numbers of learners, especially in urban area schools. Schools are more or less free to offer a range of different foreign languages in their curricula, if they wish to promote distinctive profiles or programmes. For a number of university degree courses (for example, for doctorates), Latin is still required in most universities. Thus, Latin (and in less common cases also classical Greek) is offered at many schools that lead to the highest school leaving examination, the *Abitur*. As a rule of thumb, roughly 15 different

languages are taught as foreign languages in Germany's public school system.

Syllabi for German as a Second Language exist in most of the *Länder* (see overview: [www.bildungsserver.de/Lehrplaene-Richtlinien-3271.html](http://www.bildungsserver.de/Lehrplaene-Richtlinien-3271.html)). In general, these syllabi focus on pupils who just arrived in the system. They aim at supporting the transfer from initial 'reception classes' into mainstream schooling. Comparable to the primary school system, heritage language teaching is offered in some immigrant languages (for example, in 12 languages in Saxony), mostly outside the mainstream school or at best attached to it. Most *Länder* established provisions for the recognition of achievement in heritage language classes, such as by including the grades from respective classes, no matter if they were offered inside or outside the mainstream school system, in the official school certificate.

A recent phenomenon within secondary schools is the increase of bilingual programmes with English. These programmes differ in type. Some are immersion, English-only; others use both German and English and can be referred to as Content and Language Integrated Learning – CLIL. In most cases these programmes are established in the highest track of secondary education. All in all, foreign language education is highly developed in the German education system and covers a broad range of different offers. Teaching and learning of English is almost the minimum requirement offered to all pupils.

In Bavaria, according to our informants only German is used as means of instruction. Foreign languages are compulsory in both lower and upper secondary education. The actual choice of languages differs from school to school and also within the school types. The standard offer of foreign languages comprises Latin, Russian, French, Italian and Spanish. No regional or minority language exists in Bavaria. No immigrant languages are used for instruction. Teachers of German and of foreign languages are qualified at universities and clear standards of proficiency must be met.

In North Rhine-Westphalia, no regional or minority languages exist. German as well as foreign and immigrant languages are used for instruction, in each case with an explicit curriculum. Teachers of German and foreign languages are qualified, and their proficiency level is described in respective standards.

## Languages in further and higher education

### *Further education (in three VET institutions)*

In the responding schools, the focus was on skills in German as well as foreign languages (English, French and Spanish) and no immigrant languages were offered. One interesting result was found in the vocational school in Flensburg, where Danish was listed as a foreign language rather than a recognised minority language.

### *Higher education (in three universities)*

The LRE questionnaire was delivered to three universities: Ludwig Maximilians University, Munich, the University of Flensburg and the Free University of Berlin. In all of them, parts of the tuition were provided in both German and foreign

languages. There was no question about the language of tuition in the questionnaire, but it is most likely that it is English. All universities offer websites and information on admission requirements in German and foreign languages. The University of Flensburg points to the usage of 'regional and minority languages'; in practice this refers most likely to Danish, the regional minority language of the area. The languages offered at the universities surveyed are Arabic, Basque, Chinese, English, French, Italian, Dutch, Persian, Polish, Portuguese, Russian, Spanish, Turkish and Danish.

## Languages in audiovisual media and press

Until the late 1990s, many public and private radio and television stations offered programmes in regional dialects, autochthonous minority languages or immigrant languages. The latter were often labelled as multicultural programmes (or even stations). These offers are almost completely gone in radio or television under public law.

One considerable 'multilingual' station is the French-German television co-operation ARTE. ARTE offers most of its programmes with a second – French or German – audio programme. Other widely offered 'multilingual' options are subtitles, in German, for the hearing impaired and audio commentaries for visually impaired audiences. Sign language plays only a minor role; there is no regulation requiring this provision. The private television and radio market is largely monolingual. However, cable and satellite television and radio allow audiences to access a lot of foreign stations. Many of them are from the UK and France, but there is also a considerable amount of programmes in immigrant languages, for example, from Russia and Turkey.

Another specific feature of German television, as well as the wider movie market, is the dubbing of foreign language films. Almost all foreign language films and television series are dubbed. Only in exceptional cases can the original languages be accessed on a second audio programme. Similarly, most mainstream cinemas only show dubbed versions of foreign language films. Original language and subtitled versions are more or less restricted to art-house cinemas. This is due to the development of a considerable 'dubbing industry' alongside a flourishing film industry.

The number of newspaper titles as well as languages offered we identified in Berlin exceeds those in Flensburg by a large margin. Given the size of the two cities and the international character of a city like Berlin this comes as no surprise. The offer in Berlin is again dominated by European languages, but Chinese, Japanese, Arabic and other African languages are also represented.

In line with expectations, autochthonous minority languages do not play a significant role in the German media market, except of the regions where the respective languages are recognised.

Media in immigrant languages are widespread. Media in foreign languages representing main political and economic partners of Germany can be found in all regions. A recent development on

the newspaper market is 'print on demand'. This technology allows for the presence of printed media in any language, even if only a single person asks for it.

## Languages in public services and spaces

### *Institutionalised language strategies at city level*

The official language of Germany is German, although no codification of a 'national language' exists. Any communication that is legally binding has to take place in German or it will be assumed not to have taken place. In the case of legal disputes, the defendants are entitled to be assisted in their home language by interpreters.

In practice, however, at least larger cities in Germany apparently take a pragmatic stance and cities aim to convey as much information as possible to speakers of languages other than German, particularly regarding social welfare and social inclusion, security, immigration services and tourism. How far this represents a coherent strategy remains unclear from the answers to the questionnaire.

The respondents from all three cities – Berlin, Flensburg and Munich – state that a strategy for promoting multilingualism is at least occasionally practised. Danish has a special status as an official minority language in Schleswig-Holstein. English is supported, as everywhere in Germany, not only for business purposes. The respondent from Munich gives very detailed examples of support to multilingualism.

In the following paragraphs we present some of the answers for the cities Berlin and Munich. For Flensburg we do not have sufficient information to say more than we stated above.

Domain 7A asked for institutionalised language strategies at city or council level. The Berlin contact remarked that it is difficult to answer these questions at city, or, in the case of Berlin, concurrently state-level.<sup>2</sup> Here again, decentralisation as a general element of administration and politics becomes visible: authorities at district level are free to set their own policies. The main topics that call for multilingual communication from the respondent's point of view are security, crime- and accident prevention and general information. For example, leaflets on home security in Arabic and Turkish are distributed in districts with a significant immigrant population.

Also, parts of the city council's website and other information are available in English, French, Italian, Chinese, Polish, Russian, Turkish, Serbian, Croatian and Spanish. In most other cases, multilingual competences of civil servants or other state employees are exploited on an ad hoc basis. This leads to a situation where in some cases a broad variety of languages are available, and in others there will only be German and English, depending on who is working what shift. For legal purposes and in criminal prosecution, qualified external translators or interpreters are drawn in. Apparently it is only the police who ask for non-German language skills as an additional competence

<sup>2</sup>The three German cities Berlin, Bremen and Hamburg have also the political status of *Bundesländer* (Federal States).

that is rewarded with extra credits in the application process. This holds for high-interest languages such as Arabic, English, Chinese, French, Italian, Croatian and Serbian, Polish, Russian, Spanish, Turkish and Vietnamese.

Munich city authorities provide a more diversified picture. However, this is most likely an effect of the communicative strategy of a particular respondent. For Munich it is reported, for example, that the department of social welfare offers interpreter services in Albanian, Amharic, Arabic, Azerbaijani, Bosnian/Croatian/Serbian, Bulgarian, Chinese, Czech, Dari, English, Filipino, French, Greek, Hebrew, Hindi, Italian, Kikongo, Kiswahili, Kurdish, Lao, Macedonian, Pashto, Polish, Portuguese, Panjabi, Romanian, Russian, Slovenian, Somali, Spanish, Tamil, Tajik, Thai, Turkish, Uyghur, Ukrainian, Urdu and Vietnamese. Advice on educational topics is offered by the authority for education and sports in many of these languages too. The City of Munich also has a web presence in English, French, Italian, Arabic, Chinese, Russian, Japanese, Spanish and Portuguese. The City administration offers translation and interpretation services in English, French, Turkish, Bosnian/Croatian/Serbian. For 40 other languages external support can be drawn in. The City of Munich further acknowledges multilingualism by allowing job applicants to balance 'deficits' in German language competence with multilingual competences. Also, language courses taken by staff of city authorities can be part-sponsored if the language can be useful in their job. But, like Berlin, Munich does not keep track of the language skills of their employees.

Domain 7B asks for oral communication facilities in the city. The replies in this section have been scarce, which could be due to the formulation of the questions or that some services, for example, transport and tourist information, are provided by private companies. Some detailed information has been provided for the emergency services in Berlin where, depending on who is on duty, Turkish, Russian, Polish, Spanish, Italian, Dutch, Portuguese and French, as well as English, are spoken at varying levels of competence but independent of a person's first language. Immigration and integration services are often accessible in English plus in some cases in French, Turkish, Russian, and Spanish. For languages like Arabic, Vietnamese, Romanian and Bulgarian, external support will be called in. Theatres mainly offer information in German and English with the exception of the Russian Theatre and one fringe theatre, the *ufa-Fabrik*, where information in English, Spanish, and French is provided. For Munich we do not have information at a comparable level of detail.

Many German cities have established either a Foreign Citizens' Council (*Ausländerbeirat*) or similar institutions dealing with the interests of immigrants and supporting their integration.

Domain 7C then asks for written communication facilities. Here the answers do not offer any additional insights compared to the previous two domains. The general impression is that the two big cities acknowledge linguistic diversity, but their reaction towards it could be more coherent.

## Languages in business<sup>3</sup>

The public debate around languages in businesses in Germany concentrates on two issues. The first is the issue of German language competencies. Employers' organisations – among others – complain that school leavers do not show sufficient German language skills to start an apprenticeship. Although this complaint is sometimes narrowed down to school leavers with an immigrant background, it is usually more general and refers to young people with a school leaving certificate from the lower tracks. The second is that a number of substantial studies show that employers do not consider the mastery of English and German as sufficient any more, but require mastery of additional languages from their employees (Meyer & Apfelbaum, 2010).

From the 15 companies we spoke to, it is probably safe to conclude that multilingual strategies do play a role in the companies, provided there is a need to use other languages for internal communication in the case of multinational companies or communication with customers, clients, and business partners. In many cases, however, these strategies would not be termed 'multilingual strategies', but be part of more general concepts of dealing with diversity.

In terms of specific language management practices, almost all (13 out of 15) use German for internal documents. Business English is widely used by two companies, with five using it occasionally, and the rest not at all. Other languages are only used by three companies and these languages are: Danish (a bank); Slovenian, Russian, Polish, Italian, Hungarian, Czech and Bulgarian (a construction company, presumably using the languages that cover their area of operation as well as the countries of origin of their employees); and English and French by a hotel. Questions about the languages of internal software, marketing activities, and websites show a very similar picture, with only one bank standing out from the crowd in reporting the use of German and Danish across the board. Furthermore, one construction company ran a marketing campaign in Danish but this has been terminated. One of the hotels provides information on its website in – according to their response – English, French, 'Belgian', Spanish, Italian, Dutch, 'Austrian', Portuguese, 'Swiss' and 'Brazilian'. Only two companies use external translators or interpreters widely and four occasionally. Only one company, a bank, keeps a regular record of the language skills in German and English of their employees.

These rather anecdotal answers do not allow for any generalisations. They might be interpreted as indicators of a lack of interest in language management, which only becomes relevant when business demands require communication in languages other than German. The question could be posed as to which other expectation one could have with respect to the business sector. Meyer (2009) could show that German companies actually invest in linguistic diversity among their staff if this is justified by the requirements of diversity management on the one hand and of their field of business on the other.

<sup>3</sup>We only received a few answers to the questionnaire because many companies were reluctant to reveal their internal policies.

## Key findings overall

In Germany, we find an ambivalent atmosphere with respect to linguistic diversity. On the one hand, many public initiatives and campaigns carry a 'German only' message. A recent campaign of the *Deutschlandstiftung* (which is supported by the National Commissary for the Integration of Migrants and Refugees, Minister Maria Böhmer) is one example for this kind of strategy. The message is that speaking German is the best (if not only) key to integration ([www.ich-spreche-deutsch.de/de/](http://www.ich-spreche-deutsch.de/de/)) On the other hand, and at least on a rhetorical basis, we can find clear statements that support and recognise multilingualism. An example for this is a campaign 'Multilingualism – languages without borders' which was initiated by the Goethe-Institut (see [www.goethe.de/ges/spa/prj/sog/deindex.htm](http://www.goethe.de/ges/spa/prj/sog/deindex.htm)). Even on the highest political level, the acknowledgement of multilingualism is frequently expressed. An example for this can be found in the 'National Integration Plan', a political framework that was developed on behalf of the central government (Bundesregierung, 2007). In the section concerning education, we find the statement that the Ministers of Cultural Affairs of the *Länder* will invest in strategies that promote a better command of German for all pupils. Besides the support for learning German, however, the Ministers declare that 'the *Länder* acknowledge the importance and relevance of multilingualism for all pupils. This includes the heritage or family languages of immigrant children. Appropriate measures shall be identified that support the establishment of multilingualism as a general educational principle in the school routines' (Bundesregierung, 2007, p. 25f, our translation). The illustration of 'policies and practices for multilingualism', as it is intended by the LRE project, brings about a highly fluid, anything but definitive picture of the situation and we are convinced that this is no German peculiarity, but an appropriate sketch of European societies in general.

## Promising initiatives and pilots

Although there is no general strategy for dealing with it in Germany, the official recognition of multilingualism has risen in recent years. Many promising initiatives can be identified; yet, in a decentralised system as is the case in Germany, they will probably not be discovered on the basis of the LRE instrument. Initiatives range from bilingual education models to wide-ranging models of school innovation which aim at implementing multilingualism as a general feature of language education (see the projects *Durchgängige Sprachbildung/Continuous Language Education* – [www.foermig.uni-hamburg.de](http://www.foermig.uni-hamburg.de)). A number of projects promote linguistic diversity as a general feature of early childhood education (Tracy, Weber, & Münch, 2006). Such initiatives can be found in the private sector as well as in public elementary education. They include models with 'classical' foreign languages, namely English or French, as well as models which care for immigrant languages. Information portals exist for parents as well as for interested teachers or experts (see, for example, [www.fmks-online.de](http://www.fmks-online.de) with respect to foreign languages, or regional portals such as *Bilingual erziehen* [educating bilingual], [www.bilingual-erziehen.de](http://www.bilingual-erziehen.de) which refer to all models, irrespective of the languages that are addressed). As in the latter example, the terms 'bilingual' and 'multilingual' are often used as if they were synonyms by private initiatives as well as in the public or political sphere and in research.

Another example is the numerous diversity management strategies in companies. Such strategies can usually be found in big companies rather than small and medium-sized enterprises, although the latter also develop ways to deal with diversity among their staff or in their clientele. In major motor companies, for example, language resource groups take care of migrant members of staff. Support for heritage language abilities is one part of such activities.

To conclude: whereas on the level of public laws and regulations we do not find extensive initiatives that promote multilingualism, we can find a lot of such initiatives on the regional and local level. In other words, the closer we look at actual practice, the more we can make discoveries on multilingual experience.

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## 8 GREECE

Sara Hannam and Evagelia Papathanasiou

### Country context

Greece has a population size of approximately 11,320,000 (Eurostat, 2011) and is located in the southern part of the Balkan peninsular. The national language is Greek, which is spoken by the majority of the population. A variety of other languages are present which represent old and newer waves of immigration – they include most Balkan countries and Turkey, China, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, Afghanistan, the Philippines and various African countries (Hannam and Papathanasiou, 2011). Turkish also exists as a regional language. At the time of data collection Greece was at the point of economic collapse and continues to be in a vulnerable position within the European structures which affects all levels of education and public services.

### Languages in official documents and databases

Both the national language and foreign languages are dealt with in language legislation and/or language policy documents. The learning and teaching of the national language abroad for children and/or adults originating from Greece is (co-)funded in countries all over Europe, most notably in Germany, the United Kingdom and France, and also in the USA, Australia and some African countries. Greece has not ratified/signed the *European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages*. Greece is among several EU countries that has been unable to sign due to restrictions of the Constitution governing the country. Ever since the *Treaty of Lausanne* (24 July 1923), which resulted in what is referred to as ‘an exchange of populations’, both Greece and Turkey do not recognise the existence of ethnic minorities on their respective territories. Both countries only recognise the existence of religious minorities. In Greece, this holds in particular for the Turkish community in the North-Eastern province of Thrace, referred to as a Muslim minority.

Official nation-/regionwide data collection mechanisms on language diversity in Greece do not exist.

The issue of regional, minority and immigrant languages is politically sensitive (Kiliari, 2009) as it intersects with discussions about immigration flow and control. Although there are schools offering education in Turkish in the Thrace area, this is presented as a provision for the Muslim minority with no explicit reference made to the language of this community in a policy document. A language policy may be developed soon governing foreign languages and a survey has been set up by the Ministry of Education which addresses the need for ‘promoting heritage languages of foreign and repatriated students’ ([www.diapolis.auth.gr](http://www.diapolis.auth.gr), 2011).

**NL=National Language(s)**  
**FL=Foreign Languages**  
**R/ML=Regional or Minority Languages**  
**IL=Immigrant Languages**

## Languages in pre-primary education (No provision)

## Languages in primary education (No provision of immigrant languages)

### Organisation

	Curriculum	Extra support for newcomers	Diagnostic testing on entry	Monitoring of language skills
<b>NL support</b>	coherent and explicit	before mainstream	absent	national standardised

	Target groups	Curriculum	CLIL	Start of language education	Scheduling	Minimum group size requirements	Monitoring of language skills	Level to be achieved	State funding available
<b>R/ML</b>	native speakers only	general	widespread	from year 1	in school hours	none	national standardised	not specified	full
<b>FL</b>	all	coherent and explicit	localised	from year 1	in school hours	none	national standardised	not specified	full

### Teaching

	Teacher qualifications	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	Mobility
<b>NL support</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	none	N/A
<b>R/ML</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	N/A
<b>FL</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	informal financial support

## Languages offered in primary education

R/ML	Turkish
FL	English and French or German

There is no compulsory state provision in foreign languages at pre-primary level, although foreign languages are introduced at the primary stage and taken very seriously. There is considerable investment from the state sector and through additional private provision. The results do not adequately reflect the amount of investment at this stage in either the Greek language or foreign languages. It is also at primary level that Turkish is offered in schools in the Thrace region for the established population from various population exchanges between Greece and Turkey. There are more than 200 schools offering Turkish at primary level although that has decreased in recent years. By secondary level this is reduced to less than ten (Συντονιστικό Γραφείο Μειονοτικών Σχολείων – Co-ordination Office of Minority Schools, 2011). English remains dominant as the default foreign language offered. We found that there is a wish to provide more languages beyond English, French and German (the latter two also being available). There is limited teacher training provision in Italian, Spanish, some Balkan languages and Turkish, although little provision in state schools. Immigrant languages remain unrepresented in this sector and we found evidence that many are taught within the communities themselves.

## Languages in secondary education (No provision of R/M languages and immigrant languages)

### Organisation

	Curriculum	Extra support for newcomers	Diagnostic testing on entry	Monitoring of language skills
NL support	coherent and explicit	before mainstream	absent	school-based

	Target groups	Curriculum	CLIL	Scheduling	Minimum group size requirements	Monitoring of language skills	Level to be achieved	State funding available
FL	all	coherent and explicit	absent	in school hours	>10	school-based	national or school-based norms	full

### Teaching

	Teacher qualifications	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	Language level required	Mobility
NL support	language teachers	general	general	not specified	N/A
FL	language teachers	general	general	national or regionwide standards	informal financial support



## Languages offered in secondary education

FL	English is compulsory French and German are optional
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A significant number of hours are devoted to the learning of foreign languages in secondary education with great emphasis on passing language examinations, often with extra provision being financed by families. English is the compulsory language with other foreign languages (French, German, Italian and Spanish) being optional. There is some evidence of experimental CLIL (*Content and Language Integrated Learning*) in a state school in Thessaloniki with English as the language of instruction. Additionally, multimedia applications (such as Xenios) and new technologies are being implemented as part of a cross-curricular approach to foreign language teaching (Tangas, 2006). Immigrant languages remain unrepresented in this sector.

## Languages in further and higher education

### Further education (in three VET institutions) (No provision of R/M languages and immigrant languages)

		Range of language programmes	Curriculum	Level to be achieved	State funding available
FL	Institution A				
	Institution B				
	Institution C	limited	no guidelines	none	full

### Higher education (in two universities)

	Language(s) of instruction	Languages on website	Target groups for additional support in the national language	Level to be achieved in foreign language instruction	Recruitment of non-national students	Mobility for language students	Mobility for non-language students
University A	national and foreign	national and foreign	all	national or institution-based	only international	optional	optional
University B	national and foreign	national and foreign	restricted	national or institution-based	international and immigrant	optional	optional

Vocational Education and Training (VET) institutions appear to function primarily in Greek and where there is language provision it is largely focused on English. The VET institution surveyed in Athens implemented a large number of training programmes in Greek for refugees, immigrants, and repatriates offered by the Ministry of Labour and Social Security. In total, 15 programmes of 300 hours each were implemented for 323 refugees, immigrants and repatriates who then took an examination for the certificate of attainment in Greek organised by the *Centre of Greek Language*. We experienced significant problems accessing data on VET institutions which appeared to be in transition and were going through an inspection by the Department of Education at the time.

Universities demonstrate much wider diversity of languages which is likely influenced by programmes like *Erasmus*. There are initiatives to cater for students coming from different countries but also offering learning opportunities to Greek students in European and non-European languages. There is evidence of experimental practice in schools which is generated by university departments (for example, the CLIL project in Thessaloniki, headed by Aristotle University of Thessaloniki).

## Languages in audiovisual media and press

Non-national language TV productions	Non-national language films in cinema	R/ML programmes outside of region	Availability of sign language on TV
subtitled	subtitled	sometimes	sometimes

New language communities are not given official broadcasting time on television and radio although they are not prevented from utilising such time. Films are streamed using subtitles and dubbing is extremely rare other than in children's provision. Additionally, a small number of hours of news are accompanied by sign language as required by Greek Law. We found a wide array of newspapers sold in different languages demonstrating slippage between real populations and those officially recognised. The variation was greatest in the capital city of Athens.

## Languages in public services and spaces

### Institutionalised language strategies at city level

N languages	Website presence	Use of interpreters	Language competencies in job descriptions	Recruitment of speakers of languages	Language training offered to employees	Record of language skills of employees
>4						Thessaloniki
3-4		Xanthi				
1-2	Xanthi			Xanthi		

### Communication facilities

Top two oral communication facilities	Top two written communication facilities
Education Tourism	Immigration and integration Tourism

We had significant difficulty obtaining the data for this set at a time of political and economic upheaval. There appears to be a lack of systematic policy for dealing with other languages in relation to seeking and provision of public services. Where provision is available, we found that it is ad hoc. English appears to be dominant in these settings. There is an expectation on public service users that they are both conversant and literate in Greek.

## Languages in business (out of 24 companies)

GENERAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES								
	Availability of language strategy	Emphasis on language skills in recruitment	International mobility provision	Use of external translators/interpreters	Staff records of language skills	Use of networks for language training	Use of EU programmes/funding	Awareness of EU programmes/funding
<b>Widely practised</b>	9	14	8	1	0	4	1	0

		INTERNAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES						EXTERNAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES			
		Partnerships with education sector	Reward/promotion schemes based on language skills	Language training provision	Use of CEFR	Language used for workplace documents/intranet	Language used for software, web programmes	Language used for annual/business reports	Language used for marketing	Language used for branding/identity	Language used for website
<b>NL</b>	widely practised	1	2	2	0	21	18	20	22	19	20
<b>Business English</b>	widely practised	2	4	6	0	10	12	9	12	13	22
<b>Additional languages</b>	widely practised	0	2	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	2

Foreign languages are highly sought after in the business sector and are considered essential rather than desirable. However, in the businesses surveyed, little attention seems to be paid to the value of recruiting employees with knowledge of immigrant languages. The pragmatic use of most Balkan languages can be seen in communication due to strong business and commerce links with neighbouring countries. Where these languages are not present in the workplace, English is used as a default *lingua franca* and the highest value appears to be attached to a fluent working knowledge of English as a result. Few businesses have a policy to explicitly reward knowledge of languages or structures to support multilingualism. This may exist more widely than captured by the data but is not perceived in terms of multilingualism.

## Key findings overall

There is significant and long-term investment in the learning of foreign languages in Greece. A diversity of other languages is also spoken deriving from the Balkans and other parts of the world, but there is little discussion of this as it is tied to debates about immigration. We experienced an overall reluctance to provide data in most domains which we believe to be partly due to unfamiliarity with research of this kind but also due to our intervention at the peak of the economic crisis with the country in a state of alert. The issue of multilingualism was not perceived by many potential data providers as a priority. There is clearly a need to address Greek monolingualism in state and public services, and the dominance of English is of concern throughout all domains. The lack of key agencies working on multilingualism either in the state or NGO sector may be a barrier to this as the responsibility currently falls to individual researchers and community organisations. Such organisations might ordinarily focus on widening participation and representation of different linguistic communities - we found no evidence of these kinds of initiatives during data collection.

## Promising initiatives and pilots

Regarding regional and minority languages in primary education we found evidence of two programmes at Aristotle University in Thessaloniki which offer help to schools with repatriates, immigrants and Roma students. This was the only time the Roma community was represented in our data set. The survey to promote heritage languages is also a very promising initiative. Ministry of Education/university partnerships offer one month Modern Greek language and culture courses for foreign students, teachers of Greek and Greek scholars. Scholarships are available for Greek students to study in the EU and other countries and attend undergraduate, postgraduate and foreign language seminars. The *State Scholarship Foundation* (IKY) awards mobility scholarships to students and teaching staff encouraging their contact with other education systems and their familiarisation with the culture and language of another European country (Eurydice 2009/10: 222–223). This is as of 2010 and may have changed with the onset of the economic crisis.

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## 9 HUNGARY

Csilla Bartha

### Country context

Hungary has a population of 9,960,000.<sup>1</sup> There are 13 officially recognised minorities,<sup>2</sup> the proportion of which is nearly 3% of the total population according to the 2001 census data and about 8–10% according to recent estimates.<sup>3</sup> The largest minority is the Roma, who constitute an estimated 6–10% of the country's total and 60% of the minority population. They are underrepresented in positions of power and have a considerably lower socio-economic status compared with other minorities.

Immigration is a growing phenomenon with 206,909 third-country nationals which makes up approximately 2% of the population. This is quite a small number as compared to the immigration figures of other European countries. The number and proportion of people belonging to the most significant immigrant groups are as follows: Romanians (76,878 – 37%), Germans (20,232 – 9%), Serbians (16,301 – 9%), Ukrainians (16,537 – 9%), Chinese (11,829 – 6%) and Slovaks (3%).<sup>4</sup>

### Languages in official documents and databases

The national language, foreign languages and R/M languages are dealt with in language legislation and/or language policy documents. The learning and teaching of Hungarian abroad for children and/or adults originating from Hungary is (co-)funded in Austria. The *European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages* has been signed and ratified by Hungary. The following 8 R/M languages are recognised in the Charter: Croatian, German, Romani, Romanian, Serbian, Slovak, Slovene, and Boyash. There is official provision in nation- or region-wide education, supported by the Charter, for these 8 languages. Apart from the R/M languages recognised in the Charter, the following R/M languages are promoted by official country documents: Armenian, Bulgarian, Greek, Polish, Rusyn and Ukrainian.

Official nationwide data collection mechanisms on language diversity in Hungary exist in terms of periodically updated census data. In these data collection mechanisms, national and R/M language varieties are addressed, based on a home language and a mother tongue question plus a language proficiency question in terms of whether this language can be spoken/understood/read/written.

Since 1 January 2012, the legal framework of language diversity and multilingualism in Hungary has changed. However, we will analyse the linguistic situation based on the legislation in force at the time of the completion of LRE questionnaire.

The (former) Hungarian Constitution does not contain any explicit provisions on the official language of the state. Article 68 sets out that the Republic of Hungary shall provide for the protection of national and ethnic minorities and ensure their collective participation in public affairs, the fostering of their cultures, the use of their native languages, education in their native languages and the use of names in their native languages.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>The new Hungarian constitution of 2011 (*Fundamental Law*) recognises the Hungarian language as the official language of the state. It undertakes to protect the Hungarian language and the Hungarian Sign Language as part of the Hungarian culture. Article XXIX sets out that

*every nationality and ethnic group living in Hungary shall be considered a part of the state forming entity. Every Hungarian citizen belonging to a nationality has the right to undertake and preserve their identity. National and ethnic minorities will have the right to use their own languages, to use their names in their own languages both individually and collectively, to foster their culture and to education in their own languages.*

The new constitution explicitly prohibits the discrimination on the grounds of national origin and language, as well.

<sup>1</sup><http://portal.ksh.hu/pls/ksh/docs/hun/xftp/gyor/nep/nep21111.pdf>

<sup>2</sup>And a statutorily recognised linguistic minority, the Deaf people.

<sup>3</sup>Edit H. Kontra – Csilla Bartha (2010): Foreign language education in Hungary: Concerns and controversies. In: *Sociolinguistica* 24/2010. pp. 61–84, p. 74.

<sup>4</sup><http://portal.ksh.hu/pls/ksh/docs/hun/xftp/stattukor/nemzvand/nemzvand09.pdf>

Act LXXVII of 1993 on the Rights of National and Ethnic Minorities<sup>2</sup> recognised 13 minority languages: Armenian, Bulgarian, Croatian, German, Greek, Gypsy (Romani and Boyash), Polish, Romanian, Rusyn, Serbian, Slovak, Slovene and Ukrainian. In addition to this law, today's minority and foreign language education is based on the 1993 Public Education Act, the Government Decrees of 1995 on the National Core Curriculum and of 1997 on the school-leaving (*Matura*) exams, and the 2005 Higher Education Act.

Hungary ratified the two most significant Council of Europe documents, the European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages (1992/1995/1998) and the Framework Convention for the Protection of National Minorities (1995/1998), for the languages of the so-called traditional minorities: Croatian, German, Romanian, Serbian, Slovak and Slovene. Act XLIII of 2008 included Gypsy languages (Romani and Boyash) under the scope of Article 2(2).

<sup>2</sup>The Hungarian terminological distinction between *national minority* and *ethnic minority* rests primarily on whether a minority has a 'kin state' or not. The Roma do not, hence they are considered to be an ethnic minority. In virtue of Act CLXXIX of 2011 on the Rights of Nationalities, which entered into force on 1 January 2012, 'nationality' is the new term to be used instead of 'national and ethnic minorities'.

**NL=National Language(s)**  
**FL=Foreign Languages**  
**R/ML=Regional or Minority Languages**  
**IL=Immigrant Languages**

Act CXXV of 2009 on Hungarian Sign Language and the use of Hungarian Sign Language is considered to be the most up-to-date sign language law in Europe, defining the deaf community as a linguistic minority. According to it, from 1 September 2017 HSL-Hungarian bilingual education will be compulsory for deaf children in schools for the deaf; meanwhile, in integrating schools, it will be optional even if chosen by only one child's parent.

There are three important legal instruments on migration: Act I of 2007 on the Admission and Residence of Persons with the Right of Free Movement and Residence, Act II of 2007 on the Admission and Right of Residence of Third-Country Nationals, and Act LXXX of 2007 on Asylum.

## Languages in pre-primary education

(No provision of foreign languages, immigrant languages and additional national language support)

	Target groups	Duration	Minimum group size requirements	Days per week	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	State funding available
R/ML	All	≥2 years	5–10	>1 day	subject-specific	general	full

### Languages offered in pre-primary education:

R/ML	Bulgarian, Croatian, German, Greek, Romani/Boyash, Romanian, Rusyn, Serbian, Slovak, Slovene
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There is pre-primary education in national minority schools and specific bilingual institutions. Local governments must provide pre-primary education in R/M languages in a settlement only if it is required by the parents of at least eight pupils. There are 927 nurseries with a minority education programme (21% of all nurseries). More than 40,000 children (12.5% of all children in pre-primary education) are enrolled in minority nurseries, with more than 21,000 children enrolled in Gypsy minority education but only 2.4% (approximately 500 children) receiving education in Romani/Boyash language.<sup>1</sup> In many cases, minority programmes (at all levels of the education system) function as covert forms of foreign language (FL) teaching, especially in the case of German, where children may not have a minority background at all, but schools use the minority education label in order to gain extra financial support.

Although pre-primary education in foreign languages is becoming more and more popular in private (generally fee-paying) nurseries, in public institutions it is not common practice. There is no pre-primary education in immigrant languages.

<sup>1</sup> Other children receive so-called Gypsy cultural education where the language of instruction is entirely Hungarian. Nemzeti és Etnikai Jogok Országgyűlési Biztos, Jelentés a nemzeti és etnikai kisebbségi óvodai nevelés helyzetéről. Budapest, 2011, pp. 23–42. [www.kisebbségiombudsman.hu/data/files/205104474.pdf](http://www.kisebbségiombudsman.hu/data/files/205104474.pdf)

## Languages in primary education (No provision of immigrant languages)

## Organisation

	Curriculum	Extra support for newcomers	Diagnostic testing on entry	Monitoring of language skills
<b>NL support</b>	coherent and explicit	before mainstream	immigrants only	national standardised

	Target groups	Curriculum	CLIL	Start of language education	Scheduling	Minimum group size requirements	Monitoring of language skills	Level to be achieved	State funding available
<b>R/ML</b>	all	coherent and explicit	localised	from year 1	partly in school hours	5–10	school-based	national or regional norms	full
<b>FL</b>	all	coherent and explicit	localised	from mid-phase	in school hours	none	school-based	national or school norms	full

## Teaching

	Teacher qualifications	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	Mobility
<b>NL support</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	N/A
<b>R/ML</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	N/A
<b>FL</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	informal financial support

## Languages offered in primary education

<b>R/ML</b>	Bulgarian, Croatian, German, Greek, Polish, Romani/Boyash, Romanian, Rusyn, Serbian, Slovak, Slovene
<b>FL</b>	Compulsory: One language from English, German, French, Italian, Russian Optional: Latin

There are 608 institutions with an R/M language education programme (26.5% of all primary schools). More than 100,000 children (14% of all students in primary schools) are enrolled in R/M language education. The Armenian, Ukrainian and Polish communities do not have minority language education within the public education system and 92% of Roma children are not taught in Romani/Boyash at all.<sup>1</sup> More than half of the children receive German minority education, as parents' positive attitudes and decisions are influenced by a perceived international market value of the standard variety of German. One foreign language is compulsory from the fourth grade of primary schooling. Provision in immigrant languages is not common practice in primary education, except in a Chinese-Hungarian primary school in Budapest.

<sup>1</sup>Nemzeti és Etnikai Jogok Országgyűlési Biztosa, *Jelentés a nemzeti és etnikai kisebbségi általános iskolai nevelés-oktatás helyzetéről*, Budapest, 2011, pp. 33–42. [www.kisebbségiombudsman.hu/data/files/217986220.pdf](http://www.kisebbségiombudsman.hu/data/files/217986220.pdf)

## Languages in secondary education (No provision of immigrant languages)

## Organisation

	Curriculum	Extra support for newcomers	Diagnostic testing on entry	Monitoring of language skills
<b>NL support</b>	coherent and explicit	before mainstream	immigrants only	national standardised

	Target groups	Curriculum	CLIL	Scheduling	Minimum group size requirements	Monitoring of language skills	Level to be achieved	State funding available
<b>R/ML</b>	all	coherent and explicit	widespread	in school hours	none	school-based	national or regional norms	full
<b>FL</b>	all	coherent and explicit	localised	in school hours	none	school-based	linked to CEFR	full

## Teaching

	Teacher qualifications	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	Language level required	Mobility
<b>NL support</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	national or school-based norms	N/A
<b>R/ML</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	N/A	N/A
<b>FL</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	linked to CEFR	informal financial support

## Languages offered in secondary education

<b>R/ML</b>	Romani, Boyash
<b>FL</b>	Compulsory: English, German, French, Italian, Russian, Spanish Optional: Chinese, Latin

In principle, students are free to choose which foreign language they wish to study. In practice, the foreign languages available in lower secondary education are English, French, German, Spanish, Italian and Russian. In upper secondary education other languages (for example, Boyash, Chinese, Romani) are also offered. Still, Hungary ranks unfortunately high in the number of students learning only one foreign language (57.2%; EU average: 33.4%).<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Eurostat (2009): European day of languages. Eurostat News Release, Stat 09/137.  
<http://europa.eu/rapid/pressReleasesAction.do?reference=STAT/09/137&type=HTML>



## Languages in further and higher education

## Further education (in three VET institutions) (No provision of immigrant languages)

		Range of language programmes	Curriculum	Level to be achieved	State funding available
R/ML	Institution A	wide variety	coherent and explicit	N/A	full
	Institution B	no specifications	general	N/A	full
	Institution C	wide variety	general	N/A	partial
FL	Institution A	wide variety	coherent and explicit	linked to CEFR	full
	Institution B	no specifications	general	none	full
	Institution C	wide variety	coherent and explicit	national	partial

## Higher education (in three universities)

	Language(s) of instruction	Languages on website	Target groups for additional support in the national language	Level to be achieved in foreign language instruction	Recruitment of non-national students	Mobility for language students	Mobility for non-language students
University A	national, foreign and R/M	national and foreign	restricted	national or institution-based	only international	optional	optional
University B	national, foreign and R/M	national and foreign	restricted	none	only international	optional	optional
University C	national and foreign	national and foreign	restricted	linked to CEFR	international and immigrant	optional	optional

Education of national and R/M languages does not play an important role in either VET or university education. Every university surveyed offers courses where the language of instruction is a foreign language (mainly English, German and French). Certain universities provide their whole (fee-paying) tuition period in a foreign language, thus trying to attract foreign students.

There are six higher education institutions which train minority language teachers. Teacher-training for Armenian and Rusyn is completely missing. Six higher education institutions provide training for lower elementary teachers of Croatian, German, Romani/Boyash, Serbian, Slovak and Romanian. Seven institutions provide minority nursery teacher-training programmes in Croatian, German, Romani/Boyash, Serbian, Slovak, Slovene and Romanian. Due to the decreasing number of students opting for minority teacher training, the continuing operation of a minority public education system – except for German – is already under threat.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Nemzeti és Etnikai Jogok Országgyűlési Biztosa, Jelentés a nemzetiségi felsőoktatás helyzetéről, Budapest, 2011, pp. 4–7.  
www.kisebbségiombudsman.hu/data/files/223936615.pdf

## Languages in audiovisual media and press

Non-national language TV productions	Non-national language films in cinema	R/ML programmes outside of region	Availability of sign language on TV
dubbed	dubbed	Regularly in Budapest Never in Pécs and Debrecen	sometimes

The media in Hungary are dominated by Hungarian. However, radio and television programmes are offered in R/M languages in public channels, and there are a few radio stations broadcasting entirely in R/M languages (for example MR4, Radio C). Television programmes in languages other than Hungarian are generally dubbed in Hungarian. Sign language interpretation is offered in important media events. According to the *Hungarian Sign Language Act*, the public television broadcaster shall ensure that in the course of its broadcasting service all announcements and newscasts of public interest, motion pictures and public service programmes are available with Hungarian subtitling or sign language interpreting for a fixed number of hours from 2010, and in entirety from 2015.

## Languages in public services and spaces

### Institutionalised language strategies at city level

N languages	Website presence	Use of interpreters	Language competencies in job descriptions	Recruitment of speakers of languages	Language training offered to employees	Record of language skills of employees
>4		Debrecen		Debrecen		Debrecen
3-4	Budapest Pécs	Budapest Pécs				
1-2	Debrecen		Budapest Debrecen	Pécs	Budapest Pécs Debrecen	

### Communication facilities

Top five oral communication facilities	Top five written communication facilities
Educational Social Emergency Legal Immigration and integration	Social Legal Immigration and integration Tourism Emergency

The public administration of the three Hungarian cities surveyed are characterised by a moderate multilingual profile. Most cities provide services in oral and/or written form in foreign and, occasionally, R/M languages, but institutionalised language strategies are absent. Interpreters are used, although not employed permanently. The repertoire of languages other than Hungarian is dominated by English and to a lesser extent, German. In areas with minority communities, their language may also appear in public services.

Languages in business (out of 21 companies)

GENERAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES								
	Availability of language strategy	Emphasis on language skills in recruitment	International mobility provision	Use of external translators/interpreters	Staff records of language skills	Use of networks for language training	Use of EU programmes/funding	Awareness of EU programmes/funding
<b>Widely practised</b>	3	5	11	6	0	3	1	0

		INTERNAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES						EXTERNAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES			
		Partnerships with education sector	Reward/promotion schemes based on language skills	Language training provision	Use of CEFR	Language used for workplace documents/intranet	Language used for software, web programmes	Language used for annual/business reports	Language used for marketing	Language used for branding/identity	Language used for website
<b>NL</b>	widely practised	2	0	2	1	18	17	17	16	16	18
<b>Business English</b>	widely practised	2	0	3	3	12	11	9	6	14	13
<b>Additional languages</b>	widely practised	1	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	5

Businesses surveyed generally have a low language profile. One-third have some form of language policy, but investment in language skills for their employees is not high. Most of the time language skills are acquired prior to employment. Approximately half of the companies provide limited business English training for employees, while very few provide support in Hungarian for non-native speakers. The national language and English are the main languages used, followed by French and German.

## Key findings overall

Hungary is known as a monolingual country; however, the reality is very different. It is impossible to give an exact answer to the question of whether plurilingualism in the classroom and multilingualism in society at large are acknowledged in Hungary as there are several educational forms and different types of schools. Even within the same type of schools, there are huge differences in terms of the efficiency of education. There are three main and two additional types of educational programmes for minorities: the three main types are mother tongue, bilingual and language teaching, with the additional types being academic improvement education for Gypsy minorities and supplementary minority education.

There are public schools which specialise in supporting foreign language teaching and bilingual education. In these institutions support for and education in languages other than Hungarian usually takes place at a high level, whereas general education is characterised by a lower level in this respect.

Most Roma and Deaf people in Hungary share a number of common features. Coupled with a long tradition of being evaluated in terms of the degree of recognition of their language (Romani and Sign Language respectively), these features include a lower or higher degree of social separation, which is linked to a low employment rate, poor social context, few labour market opportunities, and deep poverty. All of these are closely related to the low level of education and the high drop-out rate from public education of a significant part of the Roma and Deaf youth.

The lack of immigrant languages in education, business and public administration is mainly due to the relatively low number of immigrants. Most are ethnic Hungarians, speaking Hungarian as their mother tongue, coming from neighbouring countries. The proportion of foreign students in public education is also low.<sup>1</sup>

Although the legal framework of support for minority languages and foreign language education is well-established, much remains to be done in the field of practical implementation of multilingualism.<sup>2</sup> Statistics provided by the Special Eurobarometer 243 in 2006 indicate that only 42% of the population can actually carry out a conversation in at least one foreign language as opposed to the EU average of 56%.<sup>3</sup>

## Promising initiatives and pilots

There are many promising initiatives and innovative developments in the provision of Hungarian Sign language for the Deaf as well as in the provision of Romani and Boyash languages in Hungary. These include: the implementation of the new Sign Language Law; two new programmes at Eötvös Loránd University – HSL BA and Teaching English as a Foreign Language to Deaf Learners; The Kedves Ház (Nice House) in Nyírtelek; the 'Pedellus programme' in Ózd; the Dr. Ámbédkar School project in Sajókaza; and the Gandhi Public Foundation and High School in Pécs.<sup>1</sup> In the field of foreign language education, the *World Language Project* must be mentioned, which operated from 2003 to 2007 and took the form of several sub-programmes.<sup>2</sup>

Although linguistic assimilation has been taking place within minority communities, one can experience positive attitudes towards multilingual skills, where younger generations are highly motivated in learning different foreign languages. The Russian language also has a growing market value, which is strong evidence for the fact that Hungary succeeded in overcoming the ideological bias towards past practices of foreign language education.

<sup>1</sup> Illés Katalin – Medgyesi Anna (2009): Migráns gyermekek oktatása. Menedék – Migránsokat Segítő egyesület. Az Európai Unió Európai Integráció Alapjának támogatásával megvalósuló program kiadványa. [www.menedek.hu/files/20090831konyv\\_belso.pdf](http://www.menedek.hu/files/20090831konyv_belso.pdf)

<sup>2</sup> Edit H. Kontra – Csilla Bartha (2010): Foreign language education in Hungary: Concerns and controversies. In: *Sociolinguistica* 24/2010, pp. 61–84, at p. 68.

<sup>3</sup> European Commission (2006): Europeans and their languages 2005. [ec.europa.eu/public\\_opinion/archives/ebs/ebs\\_243\\_en.pdf](http://ec.europa.eu/public_opinion/archives/ebs/ebs_243_en.pdf)

<sup>1</sup> Bartha Csilla – Hámosi Ágnes (2011): Cigány közösségek, nyelvi sokszínűség és az oktatás nyelvi kihívásai – magyarországi helyzetkép. In: *Európai Tükör*, XI. évfolyam, 3. szám, pp. 107–131. [www.kormany.hu/download/7/1b/20000/europai\\_tukor\\_2011\\_03.pdf](http://www.kormany.hu/download/7/1b/20000/europai_tukor_2011_03.pdf)

<sup>2</sup> Fischer Márta – Öveges Enikő (2008): A Világ–Nyelv pályázati csomag háttere és megvalósítása (2003-2006). Áttekintő tanulmány. [www.okm.gov.hu/letolt/vilagnyelv/vny\\_fischer\\_oveges\\_090115.pdf](http://www.okm.gov.hu/letolt/vilagnyelv/vny_fischer_oveges_090115.pdf)

# 10 ITALY

Monica Barni

## Country context

Italian is used and spoken as the main language by around 90% of the Italian population (ISTAT, 2007). This is a radical change from the centuries old idiomatic Italian tradition, characterised by a prevalence of local languages.

Before the Unification of Italy (1861), Italian was the language used for centuries as the literary language, but it was only spoken in the Florentine-Tuscan and Roman areas (De Mauro, 1963, 1979, 1994). After 1861, the political unification of the country determined a need for linguistic unification and the use of a standard language. As a consequence, in the last 150 years there has been a noticeable decrease in the use of dialects. Approximately 6.4% of the population nowadays speak only a dialect inside and outside the home, whereas more than 40% of Italians report the use of both standard Italian and an Italian dialect, depending on the context. Similarly, some R/M languages have, over time, resisted forces of unification and are spoken by 3.9% of the population (ISTAT, 2007).

Despite the general diffusion of standard Italian, used by the vast majority of Italian society nowadays, Italy still presents a linguistic identity characterised by a wide range of dialects, varieties and registers ([www.ethnologue.com/ethno\\_docs/distribution.asp?by=country](http://www.ethnologue.com/ethno_docs/distribution.asp?by=country)). To this complex panorama, a new factor has been added in recent years: immigration of people from abroad. Immigrants in Italy today total more than 5,000,000 – one immigrant for every 12 residents (Caritas, 2011). A census regarding immigrant languages does not exist, but research carried out in various areas of Italy estimates that approximately 200 new languages are present in the country (Bagna, Barni, Vedovelli, 2006; Barni, 2008). Immigration in Italy is characterised by a polycentricity of the place of origin and by various modalities of settlement in the territory from a quantitative and qualitative point of view (such as, length of time and type of permanence). Nowadays there is no area in Italy where immigrants are not present and cannot act like a force of language change from the bottom up (Vedovelli, 2010).

The configuration of the Italian linguistic space, between the extreme of seeking a monolingual state and that of present and renewed plurilingualism, is reflected in the results of the LRE research.

## Languages in official documents and databases

The national language, foreign languages and a range of R/M languages are dealt with in language legislation and/or language policy documents. The learning and teaching of the national language abroad for children and/or adults originating from Italy is (co-)funded in more than 30 countries in Europe and abroad. The *European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages* has been signed by government but has not been ratified by parliament in Italy. At the national level, however, the following 12 R/M languages are recognised, protected and/or promoted in official country documents or legislation: Albanian, Catalan, Croatian, Franco-Provençal, French, Friulian, German, Greek, Ladin, Occitan, Sardinian and Slovene. Official provision in education is commonly available in regions where these languages are spoken.

Official nationwide data collection mechanisms on language diversity in Italy exist in terms of *periodically updated survey data*. In these data collection mechanisms, national and R/M language varieties are addressed, based on a home language question.

Although in the Constitution (1946) no reference is made to Italian as the official language of the Republic, minorities are mentioned and claimed to be protected. However, it was only more than fifty years later that R/M languages were recognised and protected by law (482/1999).

In 2010 an Italian test programme for immigrants requiring long term residency was introduced (D.M. 4/06/2010) and in 2011 competence in the Italian language became one of the key issues for the integration agreement between an immigrant and the State (D.P.R. 14/09/ 2011, n. 179).

With regard to documentation on languages, Italy falls behind some other European countries, with not even the most recent census (2011) including a question regarding languages or dialects. One positive step is reflected in the *Multiscopo* surveys, among which the most recent one, carried out in 2006, has shown the plurality of languages present today and used on a daily basis by Italians (ISTAT, 2007). Comprehensive research on immigrant languages still has to be carried out, apart from data collection in individual local situations.

**NL=National Language(s)**  
**FL=Foreign Languages**  
**R/ML=Regional or Minority Languages**  
**IL=Immigrant Languages**

## Languages in pre-primary education

(No provision of foreign languages, immigrant languages and additional national language support)

	Target groups	Duration	Minimum group size requirements	Days per week	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	State funding available
<b>R/ML</b>	all	≥2 years	none	>1 day	none	general	full

## Languages offered in pre-primary education

<b>R/ML</b>	Albanian, Croatian, Franco-Provençal, French, Friulian, Occitan, German, Greek, Ladin, Sardinian, Slovene
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In general, the modest results achieved in the pre-primary, primary and secondary education domains show that little attention is given to languages other than Italian, whether foreign or immigrant. The results in these domains can be related to the weakness of competence in foreign languages by many Italians, documented in studies such as Eurobarometer (2006) and Eurydice/Eurostat (2008).

The general results bring to light that, from pre-primary to upper-secondary school, there is room for improvement with regard to the range of languages offered, the organisation of learning and the training of language teachers. Furthermore, it should be noted that English is the language which is taught and encouraged the most among all foreign languages at all school levels.

In pre-primary education, the only languages offered apart from Italian are R/M languages, and only in those areas where they are spoken, thanks to the protection in the law. No offer is provided in any foreign or immigrant language.

## Languages in primary education (No provision of immigrant languages)

### Organisation

	Curriculum	Extra support for newcomers	Diagnostic testing on entry	Monitoring of language skills
<b>NL support</b>	general	absent	absent	school-based

	Target groups	Curriculum	CLIL	Start of language education	Scheduling	Minimum group size requirements	Monitoring of language skills	Level to be achieved	State funding available
<b>R/ML</b>	all	coherent and explicit	widespread	from year 1	in school hours	none	absent	not specified	full
<b>FL</b>	all	general	absent	from year 1	in school hours	none	school-based	national or school norms	full

### Teaching

	Teacher qualifications	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	Mobility
<b>NL support</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	general	N/A
<b>R/ML</b>	general teachers	general	general	N/A
<b>FL</b>	general teachers	none	general	none

## Languages offered in primary education

<b>R/ML</b>	Albanian, Catalan, Croatian, Franco-Provençal, French, Friulian, Occitan, German, Greek, Ladin, Sardinian, Slovene
<b>FL</b>	English: compulsory

In primary education, English is the only language other than Italian offered. Its strong support at all school levels is justified by the fact that English will predominantly be used by pupils in the future, in spite of surveys and studies such as ELAN (2006) which highlight that other languages are also important in the work arena. Other languages which are spoken at home by pupils with an immigrant background have entered into approximately 90% of state schools, but the development of such languages is not part of the educational objectives. The same is true regarding structured support for the learning of Italian as a second language, although this may be introduced into pilot projects by individual schools. Otherwise, the recognition and protection of R/M languages has positive effects on education, in terms of organisation and teacher training, in those areas where R/M languages are spoken.

In primary education, Italy's profile is weaker than that of many other countries in terms of both foreign language organisation and teaching. These results are due to the lack of a coherent curriculum and the absence of regular monitoring and explicit requirements as to the proficiency level to be achieved. This is linked to other issues that have direct effects on the linguistic offer throughout education: lack of pre- and in-service training for primary teachers of foreign languages; and an absence of a culture of language assessment in Italy (Machetti, 2010), both at the research level and in teacher training. This has a direct impact on schools' and teachers' attitudes towards language testing and assessment (Barni and Machetti, 2005). This holds also for other school levels.

## Languages in secondary education (No provision of immigrant languages)

### Organisation

	Curriculum	Extra support for newcomers	Diagnostic testing on entry	Monitoring of language skills
<b>NL support</b>	general	absent	absent	school-based

	Target groups	Curriculum	CLIL	Scheduling	Minimum group size requirements	Monitoring of language skills	Level to be achieved	State funding available
<b>R/ML</b>	all	coherent and explicit	localised	in school hours	none	absent	school norms	full
<b>FL</b>	all	general	localised	in school hours	none	school-based	national or school-based	full

### Teaching

	Teacher qualifications	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	Language level required	Mobility
<b>NL support</b>	language teachers	general	general	linked to CEFR	N/A
<b>R/ML</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	N/A	N/A
<b>FL</b>	language teachers	general	general	national or regionwide standards	none

## Languages offered in secondary education

<b>R/ML</b>	Albanian, Catalan, Croatian, Franco-Provençal, French, Friulian, Occitan, German, Greek, Ladin, Sardinian, Slovene
<b>FL</b>	English and another foreign language: compulsory in lower secondary. English: compulsory in higher secondary (with the exception of schools with programmes related to language learning)

Secondary schools show relatively better results. The presence of a second foreign language in lower secondary schools and the offer of R/M languages are factors which contribute to increasing language richness. In higher secondary education, however, English dominates once again. More languages (mainly French, German and Spanish) are offered only in education institutions where the main objective is language learning.

The effects of the recent introduction of legislation regarding *Content and Language Integrated Learning* (CLIL) methodology (2010) in the last year of higher secondary education (starting in language schools from the third year) are not yet possible to predict: teacher training for this objective has not yet been activated and CLIL is only supported by a limited budget. The same is true for the recent introduction of MA degrees and pre-service training courses (TFA) for teachers in secondary schools.

As holds for other school levels, recognition and support of immigrant languages in secondary schools is completely absent.

## Languages in further and higher education

### Further education (in three VET institutions)

		Range of language programmes	Curriculum	Level to be achieved	State funding available
<b>R/ML</b>	<b>Institution A</b>				
	<b>Institution B</b>	limited	coherent and explicit	N/A	partial
	<b>Institution C</b>				
<b>FL</b>	<b>Institution A</b>	wide variety	coherent and explicit	linked to CEFR	partial
	<b>Institution B</b>	wide variety	coherent and explicit	linked to CEFR	partial
	<b>Institution C</b>	limited	general	none	partial
<b>IL</b>	<b>Institution A</b>	limited	general	N/A	none
	<b>Institution B</b>				
	<b>Institution C</b>				



### Higher education (in three universities)

	Language(s) of instruction	Languages on website	Target groups for additional support in the national language	Level to be achieved in foreign language instruction	Recruitment of non-national students	Mobility for language students	Mobility for non-language students
<b>University A</b>	national and foreign	national and foreign	restricted	none	international and immigrant	optional	optional
<b>University B</b>	national and foreign	national and foreign	restricted	none	international and immigrant	optional	optional
<b>University C</b>	national and foreign	national and foreign	restricted	linked to CEFR	international and immigrant	optional	optional

As in other educational domains, the overall VET offer in our three sample cities – Rome, Milan and Trieste – remains more or less linked to European languages, with English well above the others. Teaching of Italian stands out in VET, due to the number of foreign adults for whom public adult education is the only means of learning the language of the society in which they live and work. We know that immigrants who invest in language training are low in number compared to the actual number living in Italy. The effects of the Ministerial Decree of 4 June 2010, which has made it compulsory to pass an exam in Italian at level A2 in order to obtain a long-term EU residence permit, and the recent integration agreement, which introduces competence in Italian as a requisite for living and working in Italy, cannot yet be calculated.

In the three universities surveyed, the range of languages is wide, but the languages on offer are mainly present in Faculties of Arts.

### Languages in audiovisual media and press

Non-national language TV productions	Non-national language films in cinema	R/ML programmes outside of region	Availability of sign language on TV
dubbed sometimes subtitled in Trieste	dubbed	never in Milan or Rome regularly in Trieste	never

The choice of languages in audiovisual media is quantitatively and qualitatively scarce. The practice of dubbing films and television programmes produced abroad does not help in making contact with other languages in Italy. The only language occasionally available is English, but in a very limited way. The other languages offered on radio are the languages used in programmes produced by immigrant communities. Slovene, as an R/M language, has a certain presence in Trieste.

Better results are obtained with regards to newspapers. The languages available reflect both the presence of immigrant communities, and also of tourists, with the majority of newspapers being in European languages. Italy is a destination for millions of tourists every year. In 2010 there were 44 million visitors, of which one fifth were from Germany alone. The top countries after Germany are France, Austria, Switzerland and the UK, representing almost 60% of the yearly visitors (RTBicocca, 2011). The availability of newspapers on sale in these languages seems to be motivated by the need to satisfy demand from these visitors rather than from Italians approaching these languages. The average of Italian readers of books and newspapers is well below the European average (ISTAT, 2011; De Mauro, 2011). Newspapers in Slovene, Croatian and Albanian in Trieste represent the geographical and cultural proximity of the countries in which such languages are spoken and the historical opening of this city towards the Balkans.

## Languages in public services and spaces

### Institutionalised language strategies at city level

N languages	Website presence	Use of interpreters	Language competencies in job descriptions	Recruitment of speakers of languages	Language training offered to employees	Record of language skills of employees
>4	Milan	Rome Milan Trieste	Milan			Milan Trieste
3-4					Milan	
1-2	Rome		Rome Trieste	Rome Trieste	Rome Trieste	

### Communication facilities

Top five oral communication facilities	Top five written communication facilities
Health Tourism Emergency Legal Transport	Tourism Emergency Health Immigration Transport

None of the three cities chosen for the research have significant institutional strategies regarding the promotion of multilingualism. Linguistic competencies are generally not considered an important requirement for employees when being hired, as a career strategy or as a form of training on site. In public services in Trieste, Slovene is present, both in written and oral communication facilities.

In these last two contexts the general profile of Italy has improved because in city council institutions, especially in services for residents, more attention is being paid to languages other than Italian due to an increasing demand from immigrants. This is proven by the informative publicity and mediation services which are mostly in languages such as Chinese, Arabic, Romanian, Russian and Albanian – the languages of immigrant communities present in Italy. However, even in these services, European languages are more prevalent, both for their use in tourism as well as their wide use among immigrants (in particular French and Spanish).

Languages in business (out of 24 companies)

GENERAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES								
	Availability of language strategy	Emphasis on language skills in recruitment	International mobility provision	Use of external translators/interpreters	Staff records of language skills	Use of networks for language training	Use of EU programmes/funding	Awareness of EU programmes/funding
<b>Widely practised</b>	7	10	6	2	0	3	5	0

		INTERNAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES						EXTERNAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES			
		Partnerships with education sector	Reward/promotion schemes based on language skills	Language training provision	Use of CEFR	Language used for workplace documents/intranet	Language used for software, web programmes	Language used for annual/business reports	Language used for marketing	Language used for branding/identity	Language used for website
<b>NL</b>	widely practised	2	2	3	4	24	21	24	21	24	20
<b>Business English</b>	widely practised	4	2	6	5	5	5	5	6	10	10
<b>Additional languages</b>	widely practised	2	1	3	2	2	1	2	2	2	3

In the domain of business, Italy has obtained comparatively low results, confirming what has already come to light in other research (ELAN, 2006). There is a lack of awareness on the part of businesses (especially in small- and medium-sized companies, which are key to the Italian economy) of the fact that weak foreign language competences limit the possibility of internationalisation in an ever more global market. The low consideration of the importance of even English is also surprising, when seen as being important for only certain categories of employees. The majority of companies surveyed provide branding and marketing, work place documents, the intranet, and their website only in Italian. This decreases the potential of reaching international markets, in particular for medium- and large-sized companies. An effect of this is the declaration by the businesses surveyed that they do not make much use of internal and external translators. Can we consider this as a sign of the reluctant attitude of Italian business towards foreign markets and consequently by foreign business to make investments in Italy? The presence and use of different languages plays a key role in persuading companies to consider a place as business location (Land, 2000).

## Key findings overall

In conclusion, the LRE research confirms that Italian society is going through a general 'question of languages', and that there is a dominant fear of linguistic diversity (Vedovelli, 2010). As a consequence, competence in foreign languages is weak, from the most widely spoken to those which are less known, but equally important to the people who speak them, as they provide a link with Italy and support business in new markets.

The cause can be found primarily in the monolingualism which has been the key distinctive feature of educational policy since the Unification of Italy in 1861, enforced by a general societal refusal of the languages of others. Secondly, it is a result of the inefficiency of institutional actions carried out by our state, characterised by the inadequacy of resources, organisation and training for teachers, and a resulting lack of systematic liaison with the business world. In schools, apart from Italian, the focus is exclusively on English, which – above all – is taught with limited resources which often make the effort of individual teachers or schools ineffective. Even today, young people who have reached the end of their schooling are characterised by a large number of cases of 'scholastic competence' in a foreign language: a euphemism alluding directly to lack of real world competence.

The immigrant languages present nowadays in Italy constitute a factor of neoplurilingualism. These languages can contribute to making our country less afraid of linguistic diversity but this opportunity is still ignored.

## Promising initiatives and pilots

The effects of the introduction of CLIL methodology in upper-secondary education and of MA and pre-service training courses for teachers may be promising initiatives but this is not yet possible to determine. The recent introduction of a year of training (TFA, DM 249/2010 and Ministerial Decree 31/2012) for new teachers in secondary schools plans to open courses for teachers of Chinese, Arabic, Japanese, Modern Greek and Slovene, in addition to English, French, German, Spanish and Russian, which are traditionally offered. This may become an important initiative for the promotion of multilingualism and the recognition of R/M and immigrant languages.

There are some promising initiatives and pilots being carried out by individual schools or teachers and they bear testimony to teachers' capacity for creative responses, for instance when pupils who do not speak Italian join their class. In some cases they are linked and documented at a regional level, in particular by those regional authorities (such as Toscana, Lombardia, Emilia Romagna and Trentino Alto-Adige) which provide more support to languages other than Italian. However, in many cases these initiatives are teacher- or school-specific. They are not continued throughout a child's school career, and they are also not aimed at being reproduced in different contexts.

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# 11 LITHUANIA

Irena Smetonienė and Julija Moskvina

## Country context

According to the preliminary data of the population and housing census on 1 March 2011, there were 3.054 million people ordinarily resident in Lithuania. Compared to the data from 2001 (3.484 million), the number of Lithuanian residents has decreased by 12% (430,200 people). The major cause of this decline is emigration (76%): 328,300 citizens left and only 64,200 arrived. Negative natural change has also had a significant impact on the decline of the population (24%, or 101,900 people).

Lithuanian citizens are of various ethnic origins. The data collected during the 2001 census shows that there were 115 ethnic minority groups living in Lithuania, but only 29 had 100 or more representatives.

Lithuanians constitute the absolute majority of residents of Lithuania (83.5% in 2001). The latest censuses suggest that the population in Lithuania is becoming more and more homogeneous.

The most variegated ethnic composition is in Vilnius: in 2001 Lithuanians totalled 57.8%; Poles 18.7%; and Russians 14% of the total population of the city. The second city in terms of ethnic composition is Klaipėda which has 71.3% Lithuanians, 21.3% Russians, and approximately 2% Ukrainians and Belarusians.

The incoming flow of people into Lithuania is relatively small, and due to the recent economic downturn it has decreased even further. According to the Department of Statistics, in 2010 Lithuania received 5,231 people from abroad, the number of immigrants per 1,000 citizens being 1.6 (compared with 2.8 in 2008). Most newcomers were citizens of the Republic of Lithuania returning to live in their homeland.

In 2001, the census reported that 40% of the overall population know one language besides their native language, a quarter of the population know two languages, and about 6% know three or more languages besides their native language (the level of proficiency was not surveyed).

## Languages in official documents and databases

The national language, foreign languages and R/M languages are dealt with in language legislation and/or language policy documents. The learning and teaching of the national language abroad for children and/or adults originating from Lithuania is (co-)funded in Belarus, Georgia, Latvia, Moldova, Poland, Russia and Ukraine. *The European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages* has not been signed/ratified by Lithuania. At the national level, however, three R/M languages are recognised, protected and promoted in official country documents or legislation: Russian, Polish and Belarusian. These three languages plus Hebrew are also officially provided in education.

Official nationwide data collection mechanisms on language diversity in Lithuania exist in terms of periodically updated census data. In these data collection mechanisms, national, R/M and immigrant language varieties are addressed, based on a native language question.

Lithuania particularly cares about the status and use of its state language. In 1995, *the Law on the State Language of the Republic of Lithuania* was adopted and a revision of this document has recently been submitted to the *Seimas* (parliament). The purpose of the law is to determine the domains of protection and use of the state language; the duties of public authorities and institutions with respect to the state language; the right of citizens to use the state language in various domains; and the national guarantees to the support and protection of the state language. The law allows for a more transparent and rational language policy. It helps to ensure the functioning of Lithuanian in various spheres of life and promotes the further consolidation of the civil society of Lithuania. The new law will further contribute to the protection and enhancement of the uniqueness, richness and vitality of the Lithuanian language – the greatest common asset of the people of Lithuania – in the context of a multicultural and multilingual European community of nations.

As for the rights of ethnic minorities, including their right to preserve their own languages and cultures, Lithuania has taken on board many responsibilities in terms of the protection of minority rights. Article 29 in the Lithuanian Constitution states that a person may not have his or her rights restricted on the basis of his or her nationality or language. The Article follows the classical tradition of the concept of human rights that puts discrimination based on language on the same level as that which is based on race or gender. In comparison, the *Maastricht Treaty* on the European Union does not mention discrimination on the basis of language at all. From 1989–2009 the use of

other languages was regulated by the *Law on Ethnic Minorities*. At present, multilingualism in education is governed by specific laws and the *Council of Europe's Framework Convention for the Protection of National Minorities* (ratified on 8 March 2000). Lithuania, like eight other EU Member States, has not ratified the *Council of Europe's European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages*. EU authorities should review the concepts of regional and ethnic minorities and formulate a new approach to the fostering of linguistic and cultural diversity in Europe. This approach should also reflect the new reality that in some

Member States a state language finds itself in the position of a language spoken by a minority of the population rather than the majority.

The Lithuanian approach to multilingualism is also reflected in its population census. In all the censuses, citizens have been asked about the languages they know, but in 2011, the census questionnaire was improved. In order to collect data on bilingualism/multilingualism, citizens had the option to declare two or more native languages instead of one.

**NL=National Language(s)**  
**FL=Foreign Languages**  
**R/ML=Regional or Minority Languages**  
**IL=Immigrant Languages**

## Languages in pre-primary education

(No provision of foreign languages and immigrant languages)

	Target groups	Duration	Minimum group size requirements	Days per week	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	State funding available
<b>R/ML</b>	all	≥2 years	none	<0.5 day	subject-specific	subject-specific	full
<b>Additional NL support</b>	all	≥2 years	none	0.5–1 day	subject-specific	general	full

### Languages offered in pre-primary education

<b>R/ML</b>	Belarusan, Hebrew, Polish, Russian
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According to the Ministry of Education, there are around 700 pre-school institutions in Lithuania. In most of them, the language of education is Lithuanian, but there are some institutions in which children are taught in Russian, Polish, Hebrew, French or Belarusan. In 1995 the government officially recognised sign language as a native language of deaf people. The majority of children of pre-school age begin to learn a foreign language one to two years prior to primary school, but there are also many pre-primary schools where upon parents' request, children start being taught other languages (usually English) from the age of three.

## Languages in primary education (No provision of immigrant languages)

### Organisation

	Curriculum	Extra support for newcomers	Diagnostic testing on entry	Monitoring of language skills
<b>NL support</b>	coherent and explicit	before mainstream	all	national standardised

	Target groups	Curriculum	CLIL	Start of language education	Scheduling	Minimum group size requirements	Monitoring of language skills	Level to be achieved	State funding available
<b>R/ML</b>	all	coherent and explicit	widespread	from year 1	in school hours	none	school-based	national or regional norms	full
<b>FL</b>	all	coherent and explicit	localised	from year 1	in school hours	none	school-based	national or school norms	full

### Teaching (No provision of immigrant languages)

	Teacher qualifications	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	Mobility
<b>NL support</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	N/A
<b>R/ML</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	N/A
<b>FL</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	informal financial support

### Languages offered in primary education

<b>R/ML</b>	Belarusan, Hebrew, Polish, Russian
<b>FL</b>	One language from English, French and German is compulsory

Primary education is carried out in native languages (Lithuanian, Russian, Polish, Hebrew, and Belarusan) in accordance with the programme adopted by the Ministry of Education. However, upon the request of parents or guardians, some selected curriculum subjects may be taught in the official state language. A foreign language (English, French or German) is compulsory from the second year at school. Immigrant languages in (pre) primary education are neither practised nor governed by any legislation. In Lithuania great attention is paid to teacher training. Only individuals who have obtained the qualification of primary school teacher can work in primary schools and only those who have a certain degree of competence in the particular language can teach a foreign language. There is no special training for teachers who work with ethnic minorities, but it is assumed that the necessary methodological skills teachers receive during their higher education are common to all languages.

### Languages in secondary education

#### Organisation (No provision of immigrant languages)

	Curriculum	Extra support for newcomers	Diagnostic testing on entry	Monitoring of language skills
<b>NL support</b>	coherent and explicit	before mainstream	immigrants only	national standardised

	Target groups	Curriculum	CLIL	Scheduling	Minimum group size requirements	Monitoring of language skills	Level to be achieved	State funding available
<b>R/ML</b>	all	coherent and explicit	widespread	in school hours	none	national standardised	national or regional norms	full
<b>FL</b>	all	coherent and explicit	localised	in school hours	>10	school-based	linked to CEFR	full

### Teaching (No provision of immigrant languages)

	Teacher qualifications	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	Language level required	Mobility
<b>NL support</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	national or school-based norms	N/A
<b>R/ML</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	linked to CEFR	N/A
<b>FL</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	none	informal financial support

## Languages offered in secondary education

R/ML	Belarusan, Hebrew, Polish, Russian
FL	One language from English, French and German is compulsory. Other languages are optional

Article 30 of the *Law on Education* proclaims that every citizen of the Republic of Lithuania and foreigners with the right to permanent or temporary residence shall be guaranteed instruction in the state language so as to provide the opportunity for smooth integration into public life. Some schools of general or non-formal education support educational provision in the languages of ethnic minorities and seek to maintain their culture. In accordance with these regulations and parents' requests, the overall curriculum or certain subjects may be taught in one of the languages of ethnic minorities. In such schools, the subject of the Lithuanian language is an integral part of the curriculum and its teaching receives no less time than the teaching of native languages. If there is a real need for additional training in the native language and a specialist of the required language is available, the state, municipal pre-primary schools and schools of general education usually enable ethnic minority students to learn it along with the main language of education provision.

There is one compulsory foreign language in secondary education. Usually pupils continue to learn the same language they have chosen during primary school (English, German or French) but they can also choose from other foreign languages. According to the general education plans for primary and secondary education (2011–2013), pupils can choose their second foreign language from English, Latvian, Polish, French, Russian, German and other languages. The school should make it possible to choose a second foreign language from at least two additional foreign languages and to provide the necessary conditions to learn the chosen language.

There is no educational provision of immigrant languages because there is no specific demand for it. However, there are some legal presumptions – *the Law on Education* states that the children of a person with the right to permanent or temporary residence in the Republic of Lithuania shall be provided with the opportunity to learn the state language, receive instruction in the state language and, where possible, to also learn their native language.

Article 48 of *the Law on Education* determines who has a right to work as a teacher, namely, a person who has attained a higher or post-secondary education level and has a pedagogical qualification. A wide range of specialities is provided in the Lithuanian University of Educational Sciences. This institution prepares teachers of Lithuanian, Russian, Polish and Belarusan as native languages and teachers of English, German and French as foreign languages.

## Languages in further and higher education

### Further education (in three VET institutions) (No provision of immigrant languages)

		Range of language programmes	Curriculum	Level to be achieved	State funding available
R/ML	Institution A				
	Institution B	wide variety	coherent and explicit	N/A	full
	Institution C				
FL	Institution A	wide variety	coherent and explicit	national	full
	Institution B	wide variety	coherent and explicit	national	full
	Institution C				



### Higher education (in three universities)

	Language(s) of instruction	Languages on website	Target groups for additional support in the national language	Level to be achieved in foreign language instruction	Recruitment of non-national students	Mobility for language students	Mobility for non-language students
<b>University A</b>	national and foreign	national and foreign	none	linked to CEFR	only international	optional	optional
<b>University B</b>	national and foreign	national and foreign	restricted	none	international and immigrant	optional	optional
<b>University C</b>	national, foreign and R/M	national and foreign	restricted	linked to CEFR	international and immigrant	optional	optional

As vocational schools primarily focus on vocational subjects, languages actually receive less attention. In vocational schools that also provide the certificate of secondary education, foreign languages must be taught according to the programmes and standards approved by the Ministry of Education. Students of this level tend more often to choose Russian as their first foreign language perhaps as a result of their chosen speciality.

Universities have their own language policy. For example, at Vilnius University, Latin is compulsory for all students of the Faculty of Philology. In addition to the subject of Lithuanian philology, the Faculty provides study programmes in Russian, Polish, English, German, French and Scandinavian philology. Double specialities combining Lithuanian studies with studies of languages like Polish, German, Spanish, Italian, Estonian, Latvian, Turkish, Slovenian or Czech are particularly popular among students of the faculty. In the first years of the undergraduate programme, students throughout the whole university receive some training in foreign languages. In general, most undergraduates continue the advanced studies of the first or second foreign language they chose at school; however, recently there has been a tendency to study languages that were not taught at school (for example Portuguese or Polish). Lithuanian philology students are also required to attend language courses in Latvian, Polish and Latin. Other universities choose foreign languages with respect to their specific needs; English being a preferred language. Universities also provide an increasing number of study programmes taught in English (especially at graduate level); by doing so they hope to attract students from other countries. Lithuanian citizens of Polish background can study in Polish at all education levels.

### Languages in audiovisual media and press

Non-national language TV productions	Non-national language films in cinema	R/ML programmes outside of region	Availability of sign language on TV
dubbed	subtitled	always	sometimes

Besides the audio-visual content available in Lithuanian, listeners of Lithuanian radio and audiences of television and cinema are able to select from broadcasts and films mostly in Russian and English. On national television programmes, productions in languages other than Lithuanian are usually dubbed. In cinemas, films are subtitled except for works aimed at children, which are usually dubbed in Lithuanian. The deaf and hearing-impaired are poorly catered for by television, which results from the lack of subtitling of television programmes, as well as of translating television production into sign language, and finally from the poor quality of translation when it is present. With regard to the Lithuanian press, books, as well as newspapers, magazines and other periodicals are declining in number as well as in size of circulation.

## Languages in public services and spaces

### Institutionalised language strategies at city level

N languages	Website presence	Use of interpreters	Language competencies in job descriptions	Recruitment of speakers of languages	Language training offered to employees	Record of language skills of employees
>4		Vilnius				
3-4	Klaipėda		Vilnius		Vilnius Kaunas	
1-2	Vilnius Kaunas	Kaunas Klaipėda	Klaipėda			Vilnius

### Communication facilities

Top five oral communication facilities	Top five written communication facilities
Tourism Education Emergency Health = Social = Transport = Immigration and integration	Education Tourism Theatre Transport = Emergency = Social = Immigration and integration

The examination of the use of non-state languages in the public service sector in three cities in Lithuania shows that the choice of language depends on the ethnic composition of the population in different regions of the country. Municipalities provide citizens of various ethnic backgrounds with educational services in their native language. There is good provision of public services in Russian in major Lithuanian cities. Recently, there is growing attention from local authorities towards newcomers from the EU or other countries. People who have insufficient knowledge of the state language can receive municipal services orally and/or in writing in both English and Russian. In the tourist sector, the range of services is just slightly wider. Despite the relatively widespread use of foreign languages in various spheres of municipal activities, the attention paid by local governmental institutions to the promotion of the language skills of their staff is restricted, although greater than in the private sector.

## Languages in business (out of 24 companies)

GENERAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES								
	Availability of language strategy	Emphasis on language skills in recruitment	International mobility provision	Use of external translators/interpreters	Staff records of language skills	Use of networks for language training	Use of EU programmes/funding	Awareness of EU programmes/funding
<b>Widely practised</b>	4	17	3	13	1	3	3	1

		INTERNAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES						EXTERNAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES			
		Partnerships with education sector	Reward/promotion schemes based on language skills	Language training provision	Use of CEFR	Language used for workplace documents/intranet	Language used for software, web programmes	Language used for annual/business reports	Language used for marketing	Language used for branding/identity	Language used for website
<b>NL</b>	widely practised	0	0	2	1	24	21	24	23	23	23
<b>Business English</b>	widely practised	3	0	8	0	12	12	10	14	15	21
<b>Additional languages</b>	widely practised	0	0	1	0	3	3	3	12	12	17

There is a relatively wide spectrum of languages used by and within the companies surveyed in Lithuania. The most common business language is English, but quite often advertising and marketing make use of Russian and German too. The use of foreign languages in business corresponds in principle to the major trends of the country's foreign trade. Depending on the objectives and nature of a company's activities, languages like Latvian, Polish, Estonian, Danish, French and Bulgarian are being used for internal and external communication in some of the hotels, supermarkets and banks focused upon. The results of the survey suggest that only a small proportion of companies operating in the country recognise language strategies as a significant element of the company's development although more research on this topic is required. Despite the variety of languages used in Lithuanian business, companies pay insufficient attention to encouraging staff to learn or improve their language skills. The main and most plausible causes of the current situation are the following – the employees' proficiency of foreign languages is often regarded as sufficient by their employers or the costs of employees' training seems too high to the owners of the companies (especially in small- and medium-sized enterprises). On the other hand, entrepreneurs exploit the opportunities provided by their networks operating in Lithuania and in foreign countries to improve the language competencies of their staff.

## Key findings overall

The Lithuanian law allows and promotes plurilingualism (individual multilingualism). Still, the efficient implementation of the EC's *European Strategy for Multilingualism* is a challenge which lacks institutional co-ordination and co-operation and a well-defined distribution of responsibilities.

## Promising initiatives and pilots

Since 2010, the *Languages Ambassador's Awards* initiative has been promoting multilingualism in Lithuania. This annual initiative is co-ordinated by the *Education Exchanges Support Foundation* in partnership with other institutions (including the British Council) as part of the *European Label* programme. The title of *Languages Ambassador of the Year* has already been awarded to an individual (2010), a business enterprise (2011), and a school (2012). The organisers of the *Languages Ambassador's Awards* seek to contribute to the understanding that investment in language learning pays off at both the individual and business level, and to encourage the strategic planning at state level of the investment in language teaching.

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# 12 NETHERLANDS

## 12.1 Netherlands at large

*Saskia Benedictus-van den Berg*

### Country context

This profile describes the situation in the Netherlands as a whole; the specific situation in the Province of Friesland is described in the profile on Friesland.

The Kingdom of the Netherlands has a population of 16.6 million people. Approximately 1.9 million (or 11.4%) are of non-Western origin (first or second generation immigrants). Two-thirds of the immigrants have a Turkish, Moroccan, Antillean or Surinamese background (CBS, 2011a). They can be divided into an ex-colonial group, the Antillean and Surinamese immigrants that come from Caribbean areas where Dutch is the official language, and a non-colonial group, Turkish and Moroccan immigrants that have had no previous contact with Dutch language and culture.

Dutch is the official language of the Netherlands. This was only incorporated in the law in 1995 (Nederlandse Taalunie, 2011). In the same law (*Algemene Wet Bestuursrecht*) the Frisian language was given official status within the province of Friesland.

In the Netherlands, non-Dutch nationals, and in particular non-Western immigrants, are required to pass an exam on knowledge of the Dutch language and culture/history to show that they are sufficiently integrated into Dutch society. The government emphasises the citizens' own responsibility and attaches great importance to the Dutch language. This is reflected in the outcomes of this study.

### Languages in official documents and databases

The national language, foreign languages and R/M languages are dealt with in language legislation and/or language policy documents. The learning and teaching of the national language abroad for children and/or adults originating from the Netherlands is (co-)funded in more than 80 countries, in particular in the neighbouring countries Germany, Belgium and France. The *European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages* has been ratified by the Netherlands. The following 5 R/M languages are recognised in the Charter: Frisian, Limburgish, Low Saxon, Romani, and Yiddish. There is official provision in regionwide education, supported by the Charter, for Frisian only.

Official data collection mechanisms on language diversity in the Netherlands only exist for Frisian, in terms of periodically updated survey data. In these data collection mechanisms, Frisian is addressed based on a home language question plus a language proficiency question in terms of whether (and how well) the language can be spoken/understood/read/written.

Nationwide data collection on language diversity does not take place, although regularly updated databases on language diversity would provide crucial input for policy development, as they do in other countries.

**NL=National Language(s)**  
**FL=Foreign Languages**  
**R/ML=Regional or Minority Languages**  
**IL=Immigrant Languages**

## Languages in pre-primary education

(No provision of foreign languages and immigrant languages)

	Target groups	Duration	Minimum group size requirements	Days per week	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	State funding available
<b>R/ML</b>	all	≥2 years	none	>1 day	general	general	full
<b>Additional NL support</b>	all	≥2 years	none	>1 day	general	general	full

## Languages offered in pre-primary education

<b>R/ML</b>	Frisian in Friesland only
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Attending pre-primary education is optional but widespread. The importance attached to the Dutch language by the Ministry of Education is illustrated by programmes that are offered for children at pre-primary school 'to combat (Dutch) language deficiencies and delays in (Dutch) language development' (Ministerie van Onderwijs, Cultuur en Wetenschap, 2011b). This is in line with a European Parliament resolution of 2009 which says that the national language in particular needs to be addressed at pre-school level.

## Languages in primary education (No provision of immigrant languages)

### Organisation

	Curriculum	Extra support for newcomers	Diagnostic testing on entry	Monitoring of language skills
<b>NL support</b>	general	before mainstream	absent	national standardised

	Target groups	Curriculum	CLIL	Start of language education	Scheduling	Minimum group size requirements	Monitoring of language skills	Level to be achieved	State funding available
<b>R/ML</b>	all	general	localised	from year 1	in school hours	none	absent	national or regional norms	full
<b>FL</b>	all	general	localised	end-phase only	in school hours	none	school-based	national or school norms	full

### Teaching

	Teacher qualifications	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	Mobility
<b>NL support</b>	general teachers	subject-specific	general	N/A
<b>R/ML</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	general	N/A
<b>FL</b>	general teachers	general	subject-specific	none

**Languages offered in primary education**

<b>R/ML</b>	Frisian in Friesland only
<b>FL</b>	English is compulsory; French, German and Spanish are optional

Education is compulsory for children aged five to 16. However, over 95% of children start primary school at the age of four. As in pre-primary education, within primary education there are programmes to ‘combat (Dutch) language delays and deficiencies’ (Ministerie van Onderwijs, Cultuur en Wetenschap, 2011b). The Dutch government stresses the importance of Dutch language and arithmetic throughout education. Frameworks have been developed for language and for arithmetic. These frameworks specify levels of proficiency that are linked to different milestones in pupils’ educational careers, such as the end of primary education. The frameworks have been incorporated in a law that came into force in 2010, but the practical implementation of the framework levels in educational contents and exams will take place gradually in the coming years (Ministerie van Onderwijs, Cultuur en Wetenschap, 2011a).

English is compulsory in the two final years of primary education. Education in immigrant languages used to be provided for by law. From 1974–2004, extra-curricular education in immigrant languages was provided at primary school level and funded by government. Funding was terminated on the grounds that education in immigrant languages ‘was in contradiction with the policy of integration of immigrant minority children’ (Extra & Yağmur, 2006: 55). Mastery of Dutch is seen by government as the basis for integration (Eerste Kamer, 2004). Nevertheless, the law still permits the auxiliary use of languages in addition to Dutch for children from non-Dutch backgrounds if that supports their start in and transition to Dutch education.

In response to the lack of public provision of immigrant languages at (pre-)primary education level, private initiatives have been taken. For example, Chinese, Japanese, Polish and Russian schools have been established that provide complementary education in the languages and cultures referred to. Those initiatives are found all over the country and are mostly community-based. In addition, a mixed Dutch-Turkish foundation has been set up to develop the provision of (extra-curricular) Turkish language education (Stichting TON). These private initiatives put into practice the recommendations made by the Education Council of the Netherlands to the Dutch government in 2001, regarding education of immigrant languages (Onderwijsraad, 2001). These proposals were not taken up by government.

**Languages in secondary education**

**Organisation**

	<b>Curriculum</b>	<b>Extra support for newcomers</b>	<b>Diagnostic testing on entry</b>	<b>Monitoring of language skills</b>
<b>NL support</b>	general	before mainstream	absent	school-based

	<b>Target groups</b>	<b>Curriculum</b>	<b>CLIL</b>	<b>Scheduling</b>	<b>Minimum group size requirements</b>	<b>Monitoring of language skills</b>	<b>Level to be achieved</b>	<b>State funding available</b>
<b>R/ML</b>	all	general	localised	in school hours	none	school-based	national or regional norms	full
<b>FL</b>	all	general	localised	in school hours	none	school-based	linked to CEFR	full
<b>IL</b>	all	general	absent	in school hours	none	school-based	national or regional norms	full

## Teaching

	Teacher qualifications	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	Language level required	Mobility
NL support	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	national or school-based norms	N/A
R/ML	language teachers	subject-specific	general	N/A	N/A
FL	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	national or regionwide standards	informal financial support
IL	language teachers	subject-specific	general	N/A	N/A

## Languages offered in secondary education

R/ML	Frisian in Friesland only
FL (languages in italics at upper secondary only)	Compulsory: English <i>plus one other language at the highest level of secondary</i> . Optional: <i>Ancient Greek, Chinese, French, German, Italian, Latin, Russian, Spanish</i>
IL	Arabic, Turkish

The framework for language in the primary education domain is also used in secondary education. Proficiency in Dutch is compulsory at all levels of secondary education and is also part of all exams, as is English. Newcomers to the Netherlands first attend separate education for, on average, two years, which focuses on Dutch language skills and other essential skills. After that they enter mainstream education. Apart from English, a second foreign language is only compulsory at the highest level of secondary education; this is usually German or French and sometimes Spanish. Schools are free to offer additional foreign languages.

Turkish and Arabic can be offered as subjects and taken as an exam subject. However, schools decide if they want to offer these languages and not many do so. Moreover, the proportion of pupils taking exams in either Turkish or Arabic is low and dropped from approximately 0.28% in 2002 to 0.08% in 2003. It has now slightly risen again to 0.13% in 2011, but is still not at the level of 2002 (Alberts & Erens, 2011). A possible explanation for this decrease is the abolition of government funding for education in immigrant languages mentioned above. This low uptake of Turkish and Arabic is all the more noteworthy given the increase in the number of Turkish-Dutch and Moroccan-Dutch children in primary schools in urban areas. The answers given above pertain to those schools that do offer Arabic and/or Turkish.

A recent phenomenon is the increase in secondary schools offering a bilingual programme through Dutch and English (usually referred to as *Content and Language Integrated Learning – CLIL*). In most cases this concerns the highest level of secondary education which prepares for university, but more recently it has also been implemented at lower levels (Europees Platform, 2011a). In addition, at pre-primary and primary school level more and more schools increase the time they spend on English language education (early foreign language learning) (Europees Platform, 2011b). These developments have raised the question as to the bilingual qualifications teachers at bilingual schools should have.

## Languages in further and higher education

### Further education (in three VET institutions) (No provision of immigrant and R/M languages)

		Range of language programmes	Curriculum	Level to be achieved	State funding available
FL	Institution A	limited	general	linked to CEFR	partial
	Institution B	wide variety	coherent and explicit	linked to CEFR	partial
	Institution C	wide variety	general	linked to CEFR	partial



## Higher education (in two universities)

	Language(s) of instruction	Languages on website	Target groups for additional support in the national language	Level to be achieved in foreign language instruction	Recruitment of non-national students	Mobility for language students	Mobility for non-language students
<b>University A</b>	national and foreign	national and foreign	all	linked to CEFR	only international	optional	optional
<b>University B</b>	national and foreign	national and foreign	all	linked to CEFR	only international	optional	optional

The framework for language in primary and secondary education is also used in Vocational Education and Training (VET).

In university education the Anglo-Saxon education system (Bachelor-Master) was introduced from 2002 onwards. It was part of the process to create a European Higher Education Area (Bologna process). As a result of these changes as well as an increased focus on internationalisation in general to attract international students, Dutch university education is now increasingly offering many Master's courses in English. This has fuelled a discussion about the use of English versus Dutch in university education and about the quality of education in terms of proficiency in English of both university teachers and students.

## Languages in audiovisual media and press

Non-national language TV productions	Non-national language films in cinema	R/ML programmes outside of region	Availability of sign language on TV
subtitled	subtitled	sometimes	sometimes

The common practice of subtitling television programmes in languages other than Dutch means that from an early age children are exposed to a range of different languages. This is in line with the European Parliament Resolution on Multilingualism (2009). However, the large majority of foreign programmes offered on Dutch television are in English, so viewers are mainly exposed to British and American English language and culture. Children's programmes, cartoons in particular, are often dubbed.

In Friesland, the main regional radio and television broadcaster uses Frisian most of the time and some Dutch. Thus, Frisian audiovisual media in particular are in line with CoE and EU recommendations in that they show the language variation in the province.

The range of languages other than Dutch offered on Dutch television is limited.

## Languages in public services and spaces

### Institutionalised language strategies at city level

N languages	Website presence	Use of interpreters	Language competencies in job descriptions	Recruitment of speakers of languages	Language training offered to employees	Record of language skills of employees
>4	Amsterdam	Amsterdam	Amsterdam		Amsterdam Leeuwarden	
3-4						
1-2	Rotterdam Leeuwarden	Leeuwarden	Leeuwarden	Leeuwarden		

## Communication facilities

Top five oral communication facilities	Top five written communication facilities
Health Legal Social Tourism Transport	Tourism Health Social Transport Legal

The range of languages that are used in public services and spaces (in the cities studied) is limited. Dutch is the standard. Only occasionally are Turkish and Arabic used, but the most offered language is English. In Friesland, people are allowed to use Frisian for communication with public services. However, written information from those services is often available in Dutch only.

A service that can be used for all kinds of public affairs is a phone interpreter service (tolkentelefoon). The service has been offered most often in healthcare. It used to be paid for by government, but its funding ended on 1 January 2012. It is now considered to be the patients' own responsibility to be able to speak Dutch or to arrange and pay for their own interpreter (Rijksoverheid, 2011).

## Languages in business (out of 24 companies)

GENERAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES								
	Availability of language strategy	Emphasis on language skills in recruitment	International mobility provision	Use of external translators/interpreters	Staff records of language skills	Use of networks for language training	Use of EU programmes/funding	Awareness of EU programmes/funding
<b>Widely practised</b>	2	14	4	1	1	0	1	0

		INTERNAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES						EXTERNAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES			
		Partnerships with education sector	Reward/promotion schemes based on language skills	Language training provision	Use of CEFR	Language used for workplace documents/intranet	Language used for software, web programmes	Language used for annual/business reports	Language used for marketing	Language used for branding/identity	Language used for website
<b>NL</b>	widely practised	1	0	0	0	22	20	20	23	20	23
<b>Business English</b>	widely practised	2	0	3	0	9	11	11	7	10	13
<b>Additional languages</b>	widely practised	1	0	2	0	3	3	2	3	4	5

Export accounts for over 70% of the GDP (CBS, 2011b). This importance is not reflected in the Netherlands' profile of languages in business, although not all four company types investigated (banks, hotels, supermarkets, and construction companies) are necessarily company types that focus on international business. In particular, local and regional companies will not be internationally oriented. Overall, the role of language in businesses is not explicit. Businesses could be made more aware of the economic benefits of multilingualism.

In Frisian companies, Frisian is mostly used informally and written Frisian does not play a role at all.

## Key findings overall

At a time of increasing language diversity and globalisation, the Dutch government places emphasis on the Dutch language. This is in line with EC and CoE policy. On the other hand, EC/CoE policy also stresses the inclusion of minority, foreign and immigrant languages within education and in other sectors of society. Especially with regard to immigrant languages, Dutch policy could be aligned better with European policy.

Nevertheless, there are various initiatives that recognise the value and benefits of multilingualism. For example, there are several private schools that provide additional education in immigrant languages. Within secondary education, teaching subjects through English (CLIL) is becoming more widespread. The *mother tongue + 2* objective is not fully met, but English being compulsory at secondary school means that most pupils will learn at least one foreign language.

## Promising initiatives and pilots

An interesting innovative project as an example of good practice is carried out in the city of Utrecht, the fourth largest city in the Netherlands. Utrecht describes itself as a multilingual hotspot (City of Utrecht, 2009: 1). A large part of the population is able to speak three or more languages; the link with European policy is explicitly made in the project, and the goal of *mother tongue + 2* is promoted. Furthermore, the city hosts many international companies and Utrecht's university attracts many foreign students. The city wants to take this characteristic as a starting point towards the development of Utrecht as a *laboratory for multilingualism* (ibidem: 1). Various studies around multilingualism have been launched, and multilingual projects set up (ibidem). In 2011 a report was published as part of the project: 'The Dutch City of Utrecht as a European Hotspot and Laboratory for Multilingualism' (Martinovic, 2011).

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# 12 NETHERLANDS

## 12.2 Friesland

*Saskia Benedictus-van den Berg*

### Regional context

This profile pertains to the situation in the province of Friesland and focuses on the particularities of that province across the following domains: Languages in official documents and databases, pre-primary education, primary education and secondary education. It is recommended that this profile is read together with the profile on the Netherlands.

Friesland is a province in the north of the Netherlands. It is a largely agricultural province (Provinsje Friesland, 2010) and is not as densely populated as the country as a whole: 193 people/km<sup>2</sup> compared to 491 nationwide (CBS, 2012). Friesland's nearly 650,000 inhabitants constitute about 4% of the total population of the Netherlands. The proportion of non-Western immigrants is 3.7%; this is considerably less than the proportion of 11.4% for the Netherlands as a whole. People with an Iraqi, Moroccan, Surinamese or Antillean background make up 39% of the non-western immigrants in Friesland (CBS, 2011).

Frisian is the official language of the province, next to Dutch, making Friesland the only officially bilingual province of the Netherlands. Slightly more than half of the population of Friesland has Frisian as their mother tongue. The large majority of the inhabitants can understand the language either well (20%) or very well (65%). Three quarters of the population are able to speak Frisian at a reasonable to high level. Again three-quarters of the population report to read Frisian reasonably, well, or very well. However, only 12% report to write well in Frisian (Provinsje Friesland, 2011a).

### Languages in official documents and databases

The national language, foreign languages and Frisian are dealt with in language legislation and language policy documents. Next to Dutch, Frisian enjoys the status of being a co-official language of the Netherlands.

Official data collection mechanisms on language diversity in the Netherlands only exist for Frisian, in terms of periodically updated survey data. In these data collection mechanisms, Frisian is addressed, based on a home language question plus a language proficiency question in terms of whether (and how well) the language can be spoken/understood/read/written.

Frisian is the only minority language for which the Dutch government has ratified Part III of the *European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages* (ECRML); other regional languages are only recognised under Part II. The ratification led to the setting up of the Advisory Body for the Frisian Language ('Consultatief orgaan Fries') in 1998, an advisory body to the Minister of Internal Affairs (Ministerie van Binnenlandse Zaken en Koninkrijksrelaties, 2011). The Dutch Parliament also ratified the *Framework Convention for the Protection of National Minorities*, in 2005, thereby recognising Frisians as a national minority (Riemersma & De Jong, 2007).

The legal position of Frisian was arranged in 1995 in the *Algemene Wet Bestuursrecht*. In 2011, the Dutch government proposed a new bill on the use of Frisian. The aim of the bill is to guarantee everybody the right to use Dutch or Frisian in dealings with the judiciary and administration within the Province of Friesland and thus to strengthen the possibilities of using Frisian. Furthermore, the bill foresees the institution of a *Frisian Language Council*. In practice, this means that the remit of the aforementioned Advisory Body is enlarged (Ministerie van Binnenlandse Zaken en Koninkrijksrelaties, 2011). Most of the 27 municipalities in Friesland have a specific language policy (Provinsje Friesland, 2011a).

Within Friesland there are two mechanisms for data collection on language diversity. First of all, extensive language surveys have been carried out in 1967, 1980, and 1994; the next survey round is being planned for the near future. Apart from that, every four years the Provincial authorities carry out a basic survey into Frisian language proficiency and use in the province (*De Fryske taalAtlas*). The first edition of this survey appeared in 2007; it provides the authorities in Friesland with basic information to develop their language policy (Provinsje Fryslân, 2011a). These surveys do not provide information on immigrant languages; the focus is on Frisian.

**NL=National Language(s)**  
**FL=Foreign Languages**  
**R/ML=Regional or Minority Languages**  
**IL=Immigrant Languages**

## Languages in pre-primary education

(No provision of foreign languages and immigrant languages)

	Target groups	Duration	Minimum group size requirements	Days per week	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	State funding available
<b>R/ML</b>	all	≥2 years	none	>1 day	general	general	full
<b>Additional NL support</b>	all	≥2 years	none	>1 day	general	general	full

### Languages offered in pre-primary education

<b>R/ML</b>	Frisian
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There are over sixty bilingual (Dutch-Frisian) or Frisian playgroups in Friesland (Sintrum Frysktalige Berne-opfang, 2011). The Centre for Frisian-language Day Care (*Sintrum Frysktalige Berne-opfang*) is responsible for running these playgroups (Riemersma & De Jong, 2007).

In teacher training for pre-primary education only general attention is paid to multilingualism in the province; teaching Frisian is not part of formal training.

Within pre-primary education, attention is paid to multilingualism, as well as learning Dutch and Frisian, but there is no provision for foreign and immigrant languages. EU recommendations are thus followed to a certain extent, but this could be enlarged even further.

## Languages in primary education (No provision of immigrant languages)

### Organisation

	Curriculum	Extra support for newcomers	Diagnostic testing on entry	Monitoring of language skills
<b>NL support</b>	general	before mainstream	absent	national standardised

	Target groups	Curriculum	CLIL	Start of language education	Scheduling	Minimum group size requirements	Monitoring of language skills	Level to be achieved	State funding available
<b>R/ML</b>	all	general	localised	from year 1	in school hours	none	absent	national or regional norms	full
<b>FL</b>	all	general	localised	end-phase only	in school hours	none	school-based	national or school norms	full

### Teaching

	Teacher qualifications	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	Mobility
<b>NL support</b>	general teachers	subject-specific	general	N/A
<b>R/ML</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	general	N/A
<b>FL</b>	general teachers	general	subject-specific	none

### Languages offered in primary education

R/ML	Frisian
FL	Compulsory: English Optional: French, German, Spanish

Frisian is a compulsory subject in primary education in Friesland. In many cases, however, the amount of time spent on Frisian is less than one hour per week (Inspectie van het Onderwijs, 2010); this was deemed insufficient by the Committee of Experts of the ECRML, given the signed and ratified undertakings in Part III of the ECRML (Council of Europe, 2008).

National education laws permit the use of Frisian as language of instruction, and many schools do so. However, more time is spent on Frisian in lower than in higher grades. A quarter of all primary schools do not use Frisian as language of instruction at all (Inspectie van het Onderwijs, 2010). The Education Inspectorate found that around 20% of the teachers are not formally qualified to teach Frisian (ibidem). Within primary education in Friesland, there is no specific attention paid to immigrant languages.

### Languages in secondary education (No provision of immigrant languages)

#### Organisation

	Curriculum	Extra support for newcomers	Diagnostic testing on entry	Monitoring of language skills
NL support	general	before mainstream	absent	school-based

	Target groups	Curriculum	CLIL	Scheduling	Minimum group size requirements	Monitoring of language skills	Level to be achieved	State funding available
R/ML	all	general	localised	in school hours	none	school-based	national or regional norms	full
FL	all	general	localised	in school hours	none	national standardised	national or school-based norms	full

#### Teaching

	Teacher qualifications	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	Language level required	Mobility
NL support	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	national or school-based norms	N/A
R/ML	general teachers	subject-specific	general	N/A	N/A
FL	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	national or regionwide standards	informal financial support

### Languages offered in secondary education

R/ML	Frisian
FL (languages in italics offered in upper secondary only)	English is compulsory <i>plus one other language at highest level of secondary.</i> <i>Ancient Greek, Chinese, French, German, Italian, Latin, Russian, Spanish</i> are optional.

Frisian as a subject is compulsory in the first two grades of secondary education. It can be taken as an exam subject but not all secondary schools offer it (Inspectie van het Onderwijs, 2010), nor do many pupils take the exam: in 2011, only 47 pupils took exams in Frisian (Alberts & Erens, 2011). There is no specific attention paid to immigrant languages within secondary education.

## Key findings overall

Friesland is a province with two official languages, which is visible in the results of the study. Especially within education, there is structural attention paid to Frisian, although the signed and ratified undertakings of the European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages (ECRML) are not all fulfilled completely. On the continuum of education, from pre-primary education, via primary and secondary education to further and higher education, the status of Frisian becomes less and less prominent.

The situation with regard to foreign and immigrant languages is the same as in the Netherlands at large. Immigrant languages get less attention in education in Friesland, which can be accounted for by the low proportion of immigrants in the province.

## Promising initiatives and pilots

### Language pack

Upon registering the birth of their child, parents in Friesland are presented with a language pack (*Taaltaske*). This language pack is offered by the province of Friesland. The aim is to point out the advantages of plurilingualism. The materials in the pack include a brochure about plurilingualism, a Frisian children's book, and a CD with children's songs (Provincie Fryslân, 2011b).

### Trilingual education

Within the province there are several trilingual primary schools. These schools use Dutch, Frisian and English as languages of instruction, starting with a 50–50 division between Dutch and Frisian as languages of instruction in the first six grades (children aged four to ten) and ending with 40% Dutch, 40% Frisian, and 20% English in the last two grades (children aged 11–12). This trilingual model yields positive results: the pupils' level of Dutch at the end of primary school is not negatively affected by the time spent on English and Frisian and it is comparable to national levels; the pupils' Frisian reading and writing skills improve; and the pupils are more at ease in using English (Taalsintrum Frysk/Cedin, 2011b). In 2011 the network of trilingual schools had grown to 41 members (Taalsintrum Frysk/Cedin, 2011a).

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# 13 POLAND

Liliana Szczuka-Dorna

## Country context

The Republic of Poland is situated in the central part of Europe, bordered by Kaliningrad, Oblast, Lithuania, Belarus, Ukraine, Slovakia, Czech Republic, Germany and the Baltic Sea. It is a country with a population of over 38 million people living on 312,679 square kilometres (National Statistics Office).

The official language is Polish which is a Lechitic language spoken by native speakers in Poland as well as abroad. A regional language in Poland is Kashubian used by a particular indigenous ethnic group. Minority languages in Poland are Belarusian, Czech, Lithuanian, German, Slovak, Russian, Ukrainian and Yiddish. There are also diaspora languages used by ethnic groups not possessing their territory in Europe, such as Yiddish, Romani, Karaim, Grabar (Old Armenian) and Tatar. The main immigrant languages include Czech, Eastern Yiddish, Greek, Lithuanian, Russian and Slovak. The main foreign languages spoken by Poles are English, Russian and German.

## Languages in official documents and databases

The national language, and a whole range of R/M languages are dealt with in language legislation and/or language policy documents. The learning and teaching of the national language abroad for children and/or adults originating from Poland is (co-)funded in more than 25 countries in Europe and abroad. The *European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages* has been signed and ratified by Poland. The following 15 R/M languages are recognised in the Charter: Armenian, Belarusian, Czech, German, Hebrew, Karaim, Kashubian, Lemko, Lithuanian, Romani, Russian, Slovak, Tatar, Ukrainian and Yiddish. There is official provision in nationwide education, supported by the Charter, for these.

Official nationwide data collection mechanisms on language diversity in Poland exist in terms of periodically updated census data. In these data collection mechanisms, national, R/M and immigrant language varieties are addressed, based on a home language question.

For many years there has been a tendency to start a dialogue among many stakeholders concerning R/M languages. Poland signed the *European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages* on 12 May 2003. The Charter entered into force in Poland on 1 June 2009. Poland declared that it would apply Parts II and III of the Charter to Armenian, Belarusian, Czech, German, Hebrew, Karaim, Kashubian, Lemko-Rusyn, Lithuanian, Romani, Russian, Slovak, Tatar, Ukrainian and Yiddish.

Official information about language policy can be obtained from the National Statistics Institute, the Ministry of Education, the Ministry of Science and Higher Education, as well as many web pages of international projects. The official publication *Education in the School Year 2009/2010* presents information about all aspects of education including R/M and foreign languages.

Changes within the educational system regulated by the Act of 8 January 1999, *Regulations for Implementing the Reform of the Educational System*, are the best evidence that the system of education in Poland has undergone fundamental changes in order to equip contemporary children, pupils and adults with necessary knowledge and skills.



**NL=National Language(s)**  
**FL=Foreign Languages**  
**R/ML=Regional or Minority Languages**  
**IL=Immigrant Languages**

## Languages in pre-primary education (No provision)

There is no obligation to learn foreign languages at pre-primary level. They are not included in the curriculum. However, most children start learning foreign languages in pre-primary education. The courses are usually paid by parents or sponsors who understand the global need for speaking foreign languages. These are tailor-made courses which suit the needs of young learners. The courses combine 'playing' with a given language, using new methodology and techniques appropriate for children. The most popular foreign languages are English, German and French. Although foreign language education has been developing rapidly at pre-primary level, it is necessary to introduce similar ways of organising courses with/by highly qualified teachers as for primary and secondary education. A public debate should be started with representatives of local governments, the ministry, as well as parents.

## Languages in primary education (No provision of immigrant languages)

### Organisation

	Curriculum	Extra support for newcomers	Diagnostic testing on entry	Monitoring of language skills
<b>NL support</b>	coherent and explicit	before mainstream	absent	school-based

	Target groups	Curriculum	CLIL	Start of language education	Scheduling	Minimum group size requirements	Monitoring of language skills	Level to be achieved	State funding available
<b>R/ML</b>	all	coherent and explicit	absent	from mid-phase	partly in school hours	5–10	school-based	school norms	full
<b>FL</b>	all	coherent and explicit	localised	from year 1	in school hours	none	school-based	national or school norms	full

### Teaching

	Teacher qualifications	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	Mobility
<b>NL support</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	N/A
<b>R/ML</b>	general teachers	general	general	N/A
<b>FL</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	informal financial support

## Languages offered in primary education

R/ML	Kashubian
FL	One language from English, German or French is compulsory

Compulsory education in Poland starts at the age of seven at primary school and ends at the age of 16 (but no later than 18) at lower secondary school. Since 2004/2005, children in Poland are obliged to attend a so-called '0' grade either in nursery or primary school.

### Regional or minority languages

Children can take courses in R/M languages. According to the Polish Statistical Office, in the 2010/2011 school year there were 46,500 children attending R/M language courses, with German – the language of the largest national minority in Poland – being predominantly learnt.

### Foreign languages

In primary education one foreign language is mandatory from the first grade at the age of seven. This situation can change for the better after 2014 when a new education reform will be fully implemented. The most popular foreign languages taught are English, German and French. The situation in primary education is positive. Recently developed programmes introduced compulsory language classes for children at the age of seven in 2009/10: one compulsory foreign language taught from the first grade and a second compulsory foreign language taught in lower secondary schools. Teachers are professional and highly qualified, being graduates of different philology departments, developing their skills doing different courses, receiving scholarships and participating in workshops and conferences.

Primary education pupils take a so-called 'competence test' and one of the competences is a written foreign language test.

## Languages in secondary education (No provision of R/M and immigrant languages)

### Organisation

	Curriculum	Extra support for newcomers	Diagnostic testing on entry	Monitoring of language skills
<b>NL support</b>	coherent and explicit	before mainstream	all	school-based

	Target groups	Curriculum	CLIL	Scheduling	Minimum group size requirements	Monitoring of language skills	Level to be achieved	State funding available
<b>FL</b>	all	coherent and explicit	localised	in school hours	none	school-based	national or school-based norms	full

### Teaching

	Teacher qualifications	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	Language level required	Mobility
<b>NL support</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	not specified	N/A
<b>FL</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	national or regionwide standards	informal financial support

## Languages offered in secondary education

FL	Two languages are compulsory from English, French, German, Italian, Russian and Spanish
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During secondary education pupils continue the study of the foreign language chosen in primary school. They also start a second foreign language in the first year of secondary level. Two foreign languages are compulsory and students choose from English, French, German, Italian, Russian and Spanish. In some schools students are taught Chinese. There are secondary schools with an international baccalaureate (CIB) and the curriculum is based on content as well as language learning. Some secondary schools provide intensive language programmes. Students take their final exams (*Matura*) which are run by the Central Examination Board (along with its regional branches) in co-operation with the Ministry of Education and other R&D and professional bodies. One of the subjects is a foreign language exam.

As far as the Kashubian language is concerned, there is no secondary level teaching. Most students chose elementary level tests in R/M languages at the matriculation exam (*Matura*) in 2010, according to the Statistical Office.

Teachers are professionally qualified and all those working in secondary education have a university degree (Master of Arts or Master of Science). They are given clear instructions from the Ministry of Education on curricula and teaching requirements.

## Languages in further and higher education

### Further education (in three VET institutions) (No provision of R/M languages and immigrant languages)

		Range of language programmes	Curriculum	Level to be achieved	State funding available
FL	<b>Institution A</b>	limited	coherent and explicit	national	full
	<b>Institution B</b>	limited	coherent and explicit	national	full
	<b>Institution C</b>	limited	coherent and explicit	national	full

### Higher education (in three universities)

	Language(s) of instruction	Languages on website	Target groups for additional support in the national language	Level to be achieved in foreign language instruction	Recruitment of non-national students	Mobility for language students	Mobility for non-language students
<b>University A</b>	national and foreign	national and foreign	restricted	linked to CEFR	only international	optional	optional
<b>University B</b>	national and foreign	national and foreign	all	linked to CEFR	only international	optional	optional
<b>University C</b>	national and foreign	national and foreign	all	linked to CEFR	international and immigrant	optional	optional

At the vocational training level, the teaching of foreign languages faces certain difficulties: the programme and syllabus is created locally. Vocational schools are autonomous in constructing their final language requirements; however, there is linkage to the CEFR. The quality assurance and procedures connected with final assessment are not popular. One of potential changes could be the introduction of a common platform for a dialogue between vocational authorities in order to create common foreign language requirements including a syllabus and final exam.

Universities have compulsory language courses in their programmes. The universities in Poland are autonomous and the programme of a given field of study should be approved by the Faculty Board. It is very difficult to standardise foreign language courses at universities. Students take final exams at B1 or B2 levels (first cycle) or B2 and C1 levels (second cycle). For doctoral students, courses such as English for Academic Purposes, ESP and soft skills are provided. The languages taught are English, German, French, Italian, Spanish, Chinese, Norwegian, Arabic, Japanese and Lithuanian. Polish is introduced as a foreign language to international students who come to Poland as *Erasmus* students or on private exchanges.

There are many Polish universities where the language of instruction is English or French. Students, both Polish and international, take their degrees in a language which is not their native one. For more standardisation and better quality in teaching, universities may join SERMO (Association of Academic Foreign Languages Centres).

## Languages in audiovisual media and press

Non-national language TV productions	Non-national language films in cinema	R/ML programmes outside of region	Availability of sign language on TV
dubbed	subtitled	sometimes	never

Polish television offers many international films which are dubbed. A similar situation occurs in the cinema where one mostly watches a dubbed version without subtitles. There are some satellite programmes where subtitles are added to the original version of films.

There are a few good examples of regional television broadcasting (for example, Silesia television) where local programmes are shown.

Newspapers are mainly in Polish. There are some international English, French, German or Italian newspapers available in some bookstores and shops. Some Polish newspapers publish abstracts of their articles and news on web pages in English.

## Languages in public services and spaces

### Institutionalised language strategies at city level

N languages	Website presence	Use of interpreters	Language competencies in job descriptions	Recruitment of speakers of languages	Language training offered to employees	Record of language skills of employees
>4	Gdańsk	Gdańsk Kraków Warsaw				Gdańsk
3-4	Kraków					
1-2	Warsaw		Gdańsk Kraków		Gdańsk Kraków Warsaw	Kraków

### Communications facilities

Top five oral communication facilities	Top five written communication facilities
Immigration and integration Theatre Tourism Political debates and decision making Emergency	Immigration and integration Transport Tourism Political debates and decision making Theatre

In Poland there are some public institutions which supply information in foreign languages; for example, websites are available in English as well as in Polish. Basic information is given in English in many cities. Minority languages are used and authorities guarantee that public administration and public service institutions support the use of minority languages.

Language competence is part of job descriptions in certain institutions. However, there are no consistent language policy plans developing language skills as well as appraisal on the basis of foreign language knowledge.

## Languages in business (out of 24 companies)

GENERAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES								
	Availability of language strategy	Emphasis on language skills in recruitment	International mobility provision	Use of external translators/interpreters	Staff records of language skills	Use of networks for language training	Use of EU programmes/funding	Awareness of EU programmes/funding
<b>Widely practised</b>	8	14	6	5	0	1	0	0

		INTERNAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES						EXTERNAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES			
		Partnerships with education sector	Reward/promotion schemes based on language skills	Language training provision	Use of CEFR	Language used for workplace documents/intranet	Language used for software, web programmes	Language used for annual/business reports	Language used for marketing	Language used for branding/identity	Language used for website
<b>NL</b>	widely practised	1	2	4	0	21	17	15	22	20	20
<b>Business English</b>	widely practised	0	3	9	2	11	12	9	12	12	16
<b>Additional languages</b>	widely practised	0	1	1	0	2	1	0	1	1	3

Poland is a country which pays attention to the level of foreign languages in business. Human Resources departments hire staff with knowledge of at least two foreign languages. In companies, the possibility of developing language skills is created by the managers. Employees can take language courses paid or supported by the company. Although European project funding of such courses and seminars is well developed in Poland, companies participating in our research did not seem to use this form of upgrading their staff knowledge. Further investigation should be carried out to resolve this issue.

Managers are given opportunities to study a foreign language. The data shows that such possibilities should be created for all employees including so-called first contact staff, for example, receptionists, clerks or bus drivers.

Companies use foreign languages not only for advertising and promotional purposes in leaflets and folders, but also for websites of their institutions. The main languages used apart from English are German, Russian, French, Hungarian, Spanish, Japanese, Italian, Chinese, Czech, Dutch, and Slovak. Ukrainian, Arabic, Belarusian, and Korean are the native languages of partner organisations.

## Key findings overall

Poland has undergone substantial changes in the domain of education. A variety of European documents have created a common ground for making Poles more aware of being European citizens. The number of pupils learning foreign languages at schools is constantly rising, with a predominance of English taught to 89% of all pupils at primary, lower, and upper secondary schools in the 2010/2011 school year. Other languages commonly taught included German (36.4% of students), Russian (4.8%) and French (2.9%). The popularity of particular foreign languages taught at schools is regionally diversified. 46.8% of all pupils attending schools learnt one foreign language only; two languages were learnt by nearly every second pupil. Teachers' qualifications are commonly very good. Apart from university education, one in three teachers had the status of appointed teacher, and chartered teachers – the highest rank in professional development – constituted nearly half of pedagogical school personnel. The remaining school personnel (23%) were contractual teachers. Pupils and students are given the opportunity to attend various extracurricular courses, classes and research groups organised in clubs and schools. Moreover, European funds are used for extra language courses in many Polish primary and secondary schools.

There are, however, a number of points which need more clarification, such as the status of teaching foreign languages at pre-primary level; the status of foreign languages in higher institutions; the use of subtitles in television and cinema to promote multilingualism in media; and radio broadcasting, as well as some television channels which broadcast programmes in foreign or minority languages. Last but not least, more attention should be paid to languages in business, providing more help, instructions and initiatives for this sector. Language and cultural awareness are key to success in the global and international business market.

## Promising initiatives and pilots

The language situation in Poland is moving in a positive direction. There are many new initiatives taken by different groups of people for whom language education is a priority as well as an obligation. The following initiatives are just some of the examples influencing language policy in Poland.

### 1. Conferences, workshops and seminars

Many conferences on the topic of multilingualism and plurilingualism have been organised in Poland. An important recent initiative was the conference under the Polish presidency, *Multilingual Competences for Professional and Social Success in Europe*, organised in September 2011. The aim of the conference was to launch an official debate on language education and its importance for better employability and career opportunities.

2. *FIJED – Foundation Institute for Quality in Education* was founded in 2010 as an umbrella organisation and meeting point for different associations, societies and organisations operating in the field of education. The aim of FIJED is to promote plurilingualism by organising events, conferences and meetings in co-operation with associations, publishing houses and the Ministry of Education and Higher Education (see [www.fijed.pl](http://www.fijed.pl)).

3. *FRSE – Foundation for the Development of the Education System* is one of the leading organisations on the Polish market dealing with activities such as study abroad (the Lifelong Learning Programme, Erasmus Mundus, Eurodesk), conferences, events (eTwinning) and competitions (European Language Label). Moreover, FRSE publishes *Języki Obce w szkole*, *European Language Label*, *Europa dla aktywnych*.

### 4. Publications

There are articles and papers published in Polish and foreign journals which present the contemporary state of the art of Polish education. The book *Internalisation of higher education* edited by Waldemar Martyniuk was published by FRSE in 2011.

5. *SERMO – Association of Academic Foreign Languages Centres* was founded in 2006. Its members are the heads and deputy heads of language centres of Polish universities. There are different targets and aims of SERMO activities; for example, to standardise content as well as final targets of language exams at universities in line with CEFR. The members of SERMO meet at least twice a year during conferences organised by language centres. Co-operation with the Ministry of Education, the Ministry of Science and Education, KRASP, other associations, the British Council, as well as international organisations is among SERMO's ambitions (see [www.sermo.org.pl](http://www.sermo.org.pl))

6. There are many local and national initiatives which promote the learning and teaching of national, R/M and foreign languages. Just to mention some of them:

- Study in Poland – a programme addressed to international students who study at Polish universities (promoting Polish language and culture)
- CLIL – developed in primary, secondary and higher education
- the *European Day of Languages* organised every year in September across Poland in all types of schools.

These and other initiatives are good evidence that language and cultural awareness form a basis for education in Poland. This process needs time and the empathy of all interested parties, including government, education authorities, local businesses, as well as students and their parents. Polish cities should become more user-friendly, promoting tolerance and multilingualism as well as Polish hospitality to both Polish citizens and international visitors.

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# 14 PORTUGAL

J. Lachlan Mackenzie

## Country context

The Portuguese Republic has, according to the provisional results of the 2011 census, a population of 10,561,614. The primary language of the country is Portuguese, which originated in a territory corresponding to Galicia (N-W Spain) and the north of present-day Portugal. The Galician/Portuguese language remained in use during the period of Arabic predominance and re-established itself as the principal language as its speakers moved southwards. Portuguese was instituted as the language of the court by King Dinis in 1297.

Portuguese is now used as an official language in eight countries (Portugal, Angola, Brazil, Cape Verde, Guinea-Bissau, Mozambique, São Tomé and Príncipe and East Timor; the so-called CPLP countries) and a territory, Macau (Macau Special Administrative Region of the P.R. of China). The total number of speakers is estimated at around 240 million. There are sizable groups of expatriate Portuguese speakers in various countries around the world, notably in France, Luxemburg, Andorra, the UK, Switzerland, US, Canada, Venezuela and South Africa.

4.1% of the population of Portugal has non-Portuguese nationality (2006; OCDE). The major nationalities of the immigrants are, according to 2006 figures supplied by the Portuguese immigration service, (in descending order) Cape Verdean, Brazilian, Angolan, Guinea-Bissauan and Ukrainian (and various other East European nationalities), as well as Indian and Chinese. In addition there are expatriate communities from the UK and other European countries. The labour force of Portugal comes to 5,580,700 persons (2010; Pordata).

Portugal has one minority language, *Mirandese*, spoken and to some extent written in the north-eastern border town of Miranda do Douro (population of around 2,000) and in surrounding areas within Portugal by at most 10,000 persons; (almost) all of them being bilingual. *Mirandese* was recognised in 1999 as co-official with Portuguese for local matters. The *Mirandese* language belongs linguistically to the Asturian/Leonese group.

Portugal also recognises *Portuguese Sign Language* as an official language, having stated that it is incumbent upon the state to protect and give value to it as a cultural expression and as an instrument for access to education and for equality of opportunities.

Education is obligatory for 12 years from the age of six: it is divided into nine years of primary education, followed by three years of either secondary or vocational education.

*Portuguese* is established as the official language of Portugal in the Constitution of the Portuguese Republic, paragraph 3, article 11. *Mirandese* is recognised as an official language in the council of Miranda do Douro in Law 7/99, of 29 January 1999. *Portuguese Sign Language* is recognised in the 1997 revision of the Constitution of the Portuguese Republic, art. 74, para. 2h.

## Languages in official documents and databases

The national language, foreign languages, and one R/M language (*Mirandese*) are dealt with in language legislation and/or language policy documents. The learning and teaching of the national language abroad for children and/or adults originating from Portugal is (co-) funded in 13 countries in Europe and abroad. The *European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages* has not been signed/ratified. At the national level, *Mirandese* is the only recognised R/M language for which also educational provision is available.

Official nationwide data collection mechanisms on language diversity in Portugal exist in terms of periodically updated census data. However, in these data collection mechanisms, only the national language is addressed, based on a mother tongue question.

Portugal, whose current borders were essentially determined in 1249, shows a relatively high degree of demographic and linguistic stability as a fundamentally monolingual country. Nevertheless, its history has brought it into regular contact with other languages, both in Europe (chiefly Spanish, English and French) and across the world as a consequence of its colonial past (languages of South America, Africa and Asia). As a result, the Portuguese have gained awareness of the advantages of multilingualism and successive governments have enshrined both support for the national language and enablement of the teaching of foreign languages in their policies and legislation, in addition to funding education in the Portuguese language abroad. The regional language *Mirandese* has been recognised, but the languages of immigrants have received no recognition in law nor in censuses.

**NL=National Language(s)**  
**FL=Foreign Languages**  
**R/ML=Regional or Minority Languages**  
**IL=Immigrant Languages**

## Languages in pre-primary education (No provision of additional national language support, foreign languages and immigrant languages)

	Target groups	Duration	Minimum group size requirements	Days per week	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	State funding available
<b>R/ML</b>	all	≥2 years	none	<0.5 day	subject-specific	general	full

### Languages offered in pre-primary education

<b>R/ML</b>	Mirandese
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Pre-primary education is optional in Portugal, but as of 2009 the provision of nursery schooling for children of five has become an obligation of the state. For the great majority of pupils, Portuguese is the sole language of instruction in pre-school. However, since around 1990 there has been a gradually growing awareness of the difficulties faced by pre-schoolers whose native language is not Portuguese (Litwinoff 1992), namely, speakers of – predominantly – Cape Verdean Creole, Kriol (Guinea-Bissau Creole), one of the Creole languages of São Tomé and Príncipe, Ukrainian or Chinese (see Mateus et al. 2008). Measures have been proposed to raise educators' consciousness of the bilingual situation of immigrant pre-schoolers. Pre-service training is available for pre-school teachers in the area where Mirandese is spoken.

## Languages in primary education (No provision of immigrant languages)

### Organisation

	Curriculum	Extra support for newcomers	Diagnostic testing on entry	Monitoring of language skills
<b>NL support</b>	coherent and explicit	before mainstream	immigrants only	national standardised

	Target groups	Curriculum	CLIL	Start of language education	Scheduling	Minimum group size requirements	Monitoring of language skills	Level to be achieved	State funding available
<b>R/ML</b>	all	general	widespread	from year 1	in school hours	none	national standardised	national or regional norms	full
<b>FL</b>	all	coherent and explicit	absent	from year 1	outside school hours	none	national standardised	national or school norms	full

### Teaching

	Teacher qualifications	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	Mobility
<b>NL support</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	N/A
<b>R/ML</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	general	N/A
<b>FL</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	none



## Languages offered in primary education

<b>R/ML</b>	Mirandese
<b>FL</b>	English, French: one of these languages is compulsory

Portuguese is the language of transmission in all schools, although in certain private schools other languages (such as English, French and German) may be used, and is a subject throughout primary education. There is no obligatory foreign language instruction in the first cycle (years one to four). However, in recent years the Ministry of Education has strongly recommended (and provided funds for) schools to offer lessons in English from year three in the framework of 'curricular enrichment'. By 2008, over 99% of schools had implemented this recommendation; over 50% had English from year one. In the second cycle (years five to six), a foreign language becomes part of the obligatory curriculum; the current government is proposing to require that the second-cycle foreign language be English.

Primary school teachers, especially those working in multilingual areas, are aware of and trained to deal with the plurilingualism of the children entrusted to their care. However, immigrant languages are not treated as an object of study, although Ukrainian and Chinese communities have organised extramural classes in their respective languages. In the Mirandese-speaking area, teachers have been permitted since 1985 to devote explicit attention to the Mirandese language and use it as a medium of instruction.

## Languages in secondary education (No provision of immigrant languages)

### Organisation

	Curriculum	Extra support for newcomers	Diagnostic testing on entry	Monitoring of language skills
<b>NL support</b>	coherent and explicit	before mainstream	all	national standardised

	Target groups	Curriculum	CLIL	Scheduling	Minimum group size requirements	Monitoring of language skills	Level to be achieved	State funding available
<b>R/ML</b>	all	coherent and explicit	widespread	in school hours	none	national standardised	national or regional norms	full
<b>FL</b>	all	coherent and explicit	absent	in school hours	none	national standardised	linked to CEFR	full

### Teaching

	Teacher qualifications	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	Language level required	Mobility
<b>NL support</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	national or school-based norms	N/A
<b>R/ML</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	N/A	N/A
<b>FL</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	national or regionwide standards	none

## Languages offered in secondary education

R/ML	Mirandese
FL ( <i>languages in italics offered in upper secondary only</i> )	2 from English, French, German, Spanish, <i>Latin, Greek</i> are compulsory.

In secondary education (commencing in the third cycle of primary education), the study of two foreign languages is obligatory; the government has proposed that English must be one of these. In current practice, the great majority of pupils combine English with one of French, German, Spanish, Latin and Classical Greek (all organised in keeping with the *Common European Frame of Reference*). In years 10 to 12, education in Portuguese continues, with classes in one foreign language for science pupils and in two for humanities' pupils. Immigrant languages are neither studied nor are they a medium of instruction in Portuguese schools; it should be borne in mind that some 50% of immigrants are from countries where Portuguese is an official language. The regional language Mirandese can be studied in the Mirandese-speaking area.

## Languages in further and higher education (No provision of immigrant languages)

### Further education (in three VET institutions)

		Range of language programmes	Curriculum	Level to be achieved	State funding available
R/ML	Institution A				
	Institution B				
	Institution C	limited	general	N/A	full
FL	Institution A	wide variety	coherent and explicit	linked to CEFR	full
	Institution B	wide variety	coherent and explicit	linked to CEFR	full
	Institution C	limited	coherent and explicit	national	full

### Higher education (in three universities)

	Language(s) of instruction	Languages on website	Target groups for additional support in the national language	Level to be achieved in foreign language instruction	Recruitment of non-national students	Mobility for language students	Mobility for non-language students
University A	national and foreign	national and foreign	restricted	linked to CEFR	international and immigrant	optional	optional
University B	national and foreign	national and foreign	restricted	linked to CEFR	international and immigrant	optional	optional
University C	national and foreign	national and foreign	restricted	linked to CEFR	international and immigrant	optional	optional

In higher education, Portuguese is almost always the medium of instruction. However, the internationalisation of education flowing from the Bologna Process has led to selected faculties offering courses in English attended by visiting and Portuguese students alike. Portugal's universities are generally aware of the value of language competence, providing training in Portuguese for non-native speakers wishing to secure admission to their programmes and in a wide range of languages for voluntary take-up by all students. No explicit attention is devoted to regional or immigrant languages.

Establishments offering vocational training ensure that their students receive instruction in Portuguese to develop skills in linguistic accuracy and effective communication. They also generally devote attention to a foreign language; the orientation is towards job-related proficiencies.

## Languages in audiovisual media and press

Non-national language TV productions	Non-national language films in cinema	R/ML programmes outside of region	Availability of sign language on TV
subtitled	subtitled	always	regularly

Television material and films in cinemas are shown in the original language with Portuguese subtitles – with the exception of some productions aimed at children, which are dubbed. Selected television programmes include an inserted window with an interpreter communicating in Portuguese Sign Language. Newspapers and magazines in foreign languages are available, primarily to serve the needs of tourists; but there are also publications for immigrants, like the Russian-language newspaper *Slovo*.

## Languages in public services and spaces

### Institutionalised language strategies at city level

N languages	Website presence	Use of interpreters	Language competencies in job descriptions	Recruitment of speakers of languages	Language training offered to employees	Record of language skills of employees
>4		Lisbon Oporto Miranda do Douro				
3–4	Miranda do Douro			Lisbon	Miranda do Douro	
1–2	Oporto		Lisbon Oporto Miranda do Douro	Oporto	Lisbon Oporto	

### Communication facilities

Top five oral communication facilities	Top five written communication facilities
Education Legal Tourism Transport Immigration and integration	Immigration and integration Political debates and decision making Education Emergency Transport

City councils have some awareness of multilingualism in their communities and make certain services available in English and Spanish; interpreters can be called up through a national facility for as many as 60 languages. Written material produced by councils is typically only in Portuguese, although immigration and tourism services are multilingual. The city council of Miranda do Douro provides many written services in Mirandese and Spanish as well as Portuguese.

## Languages in business (out of 20 companies)

GENERAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES								
	Availability of language strategy	Emphasis on language skills in recruitment	International mobility provision	Use of external translators/interpreters	Staff records of language skills	Use of networks for language training	Use of EU programmes/funding	Awareness of EU programmes/funding
<b>Widely practised</b>	5	8	3	0	0	1	0	0

		INTERNAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES						EXTERNAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES			
		Partnerships with education sector	Reward/promotion schemes based on language skills	Language training provision	Use of CEFR	Language used for workplace documents/intranet	Language used for software, web programmes	Language used for annual/business reports	Language used for marketing	Language used for branding/identity	Language used for website
<b>NL</b>	widely practised	1	0	1	0	20	18	20	20	17	19
<b>Business English</b>	widely practised	1	3	3	1	5	7	5	8	9	14
<b>Additional languages</b>	widely practised	1	2	1	1	1	1	0	0	3	2

The companies surveyed reflected a general tendency to favour the use of Portuguese but also to recognise the importance of business English for interaction with foreign customers and companies abroad. Other languages tend not to figure prominently, except for businesses with specific interests in particular foreign countries. The promotion of employees' language competencies in the national language, in English as a *lingua franca*, or in other languages is generally not a priority. Multilingualism is not high on the agenda of the Portuguese enterprises that completed the questionnaire.

## Key findings overall

Portugal emerges as a country that is profoundly aware of the status of its national tongue as the fifth most spoken language on earth, while also recognising the importance of (business) English for Portugal's role in a globalised world. It promotes the regional language *Mirandese*, spoken by 0.1% of the national population, and has given constitutional protection to Portuguese Sign Language (LGP). Schooling is provided in Portuguese, but also in English from primary school upwards and in a second foreign language. The media have a positive influence on the public's attitudes to and skills in foreign languages, but this is not reflected in a strong orientation of public services or in business to valorise the language competencies of their personnel.

## Promising initiatives and pilots

A prominent contribution to raising awareness of linguistic minorities was the *Linguistic Diversity in Portuguese Schools* project (2003–2007), funded by the *Gulbenkian Foundation* and carried out by the *Instituto de Linguística Teórica e Computacional* (ILTEC) in collaboration with various schools. The output included not only the realisation of (still ongoing) bilingual education in selected schools but also the development of materials, recommendations to the Ministry of Education and various publications (see Mateus et al. 2008).

The British Council is working in partnership with the Ministry of Education on a four-year pilot project (2011–2015) to introduce bilingual education into eight state primary schools across the country from year one onwards. Some five hours per week are given in English and the British Council provides training and support.

In addition, there have been efforts to promote multilingualism in international business, for example by *Three Linguistic Spaces* ([www.3el.org](http://www.3el.org) referring to the French-, Spanish- and Portuguese-speaking areas of the world), a pressure group stressing the intercomprehensibility of the Romance languages.

The REFLECT Project (2000–2002), the PROTOCOL II project (2002–2004) and the ECLAT project (2006–2008; the website [www.eclatproject.eu](http://www.eclatproject.eu) is still active) established a language and culture auditing scheme for export-oriented SMEs, providing real data about business needs and trends in the area of linguistic and cultural skills and fostering the development of language planning (Salomão 2011).

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# 15 ROMANIA

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## Country context

Romania has a population of 21,462,186 (National Statistics Institute, 2010<sup>1</sup>) according to the latest census report of 2002. An estimated 2.8 million people have left the country for work, with Italy and Spain as the main targets (Sandu, 2010). There are 20 national minorities officially recognised (or with official political representation) in Romania, representing more than 11% of the population. The largest ones are Hungarians (6.6% of the population) and Roma (2.5% of the population), according to the 2002 census. The Hungarians are mainly located in the central and western part of the country and have important political and mass media representation. Hungarian is widely used in education, local administration and the justice system where Hungarians represent over 20% of the local population. The Roma minority is still underrepresented in positions of power. The Romani language is also underrepresented in mass media and education. Approximately 11% of the pre-university educational institutions in Romania have a minority language as medium of instruction in at least one section, 90% of these being in the Hungarian language.<sup>2</sup>

Immigration is a growing phenomenon with an estimation of 57,211 third-country nationals where the three main groups are from the Republic of Moldova (28%), Turkey (17%) and China (14%)<sup>3</sup> (European Commission; Statistical Office of the European Communities, 2010: 194). This does not include European Union citizens. The Eurostat estimation for 2008–2060 for Romania is an immigration rate of 18.4 to 1,000 inhabitants (Alexe & Păunescu, 2010, p. 22).

The statistical data about the size and the structure of the population will be updated in 2012 when the final results of the 2011 census will be made public.

## Languages in official documents and databases

The national language, foreign languages, and a range of R/M languages are dealt with in language legislation and/or language policy documents. The learning and teaching of the national language abroad for children and/or adults originating from Romania is (co-)funded in 18 countries in Europe and abroad. The *European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages* has been ratified by Romania. The following 20 R/M languages are recognised in the Charter: Albanian, Armenian, Bulgarian, Czech, Croatian, German, Greek, Hungarian, Italian, Macedonian, Polish, Romani, Russian, Rusyn, Serbian, Slovak, Tatar, Turkish, Ukrainian and Yiddish. There is official provision in nation- or region-wide education, supported by the Charter for 15 of these languages, which do not include Albanian, Armenian, Macedonian, Rusyn and Yiddish.

Official nationwide data collection mechanisms on language diversity in Romanian exist in terms of periodically updated census data. In these data collection mechanisms, national, R/M and immigrant language varieties are addressed, based on a mother tongue question.

In 1995 Romania signed the Council of Europe's *Framework Convention for the Protection of National Minorities*, and in 2007 the *European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages* was ratified. While Romanian is the official language, there are ten minority languages that have general protection: Albanian, Armenian, Greek, Italian, Macedonian, Polish, Romani, Rusyn, Tatar and Yiddish and ten languages with enhanced protection: Bulgarian, Croatian, Czech, German, Hungarian, Russian, Serbian, Slovak, Turkish and Ukrainian.

Although topics related to these languages appear sometimes in mass media, empirical data regarding the topic is still scarce. At a national level, information can only be found in the national census with a question regarding the mother tongue. In addition, Romania was included in Eurobarometer 63.4 from 2005 (*Europeans and their languages*) where respondents were asked about their mother language, other languages known and their language competence level. Data about the use of minority languages in education is also available from the National Statistics Institute and the Ministry of Education.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> <https://statistici.insse.ro>

<sup>2</sup> 2002 census.

<sup>3</sup> <http://ori.mai.gov.ro/api/media/userfiles/Proiecte--Strategii/Instruțiuni, IF 1101 10012012>.

<sup>1</sup> <https://statistici.insse.ro>

**NL=National Language(s)**  
**FL=Foreign Languages**  
**R/ML=Regional or Minority Languages**  
**IL=Immigrant Languages**

## Languages in pre-primary education (No provision of foreign and immigrant languages)

	Target groups	Duration	Minimum group size requirements	Days per week	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	State funding available
<b>R/ML</b>	native speakers only	≥2 years	none	>1 day	subject-specific	subject-specific	full
<b>Additional NL support</b>	all	≥2 years	none	0.5–1 day	subject-specific	subject-specific	full

### Languages offered in pre-primary education

<b>R/ML</b>	Bulgarian, Croatian, Czech, German, Greek, Hungarian, Polish, Serbian, Slovak, Turkish, Ukrainian
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Foreign languages at pre-primary level are optional. However, most nurseries include a foreign language in their curriculum. The fact that a year of nursery is mandatory ensures that most children are acquainted with a foreign language before beginning primary education. Also noteworthy is that, legally, all children of a recognised minority have the right to education in their own language. While this is an important positive aspect, there are still differences in the implementation of this law within different minority groups.

The migration history of the country, with an emigration rate higher than that of immigration, is one of the main causes for the absence of an important educational offer for immigrants. The most important immigrant group comes from the Republic of Moldova but language education is not an issue as they have the same language and a very similar culture to Romanians.

## Languages in primary education (No provision of immigrant languages)

### Organisation

	Curriculum	Extra support for newcomers	Diagnostic testing on entry	Monitoring of language skills
<b>NL support</b>	coherent and explicit	before mainstream	immigrants only	national standardised

	Target groups	Curriculum	CLIL	Start of language education	Scheduling	Minimum group size requirements	Monitoring of language skills	Level to be achieved	State funding available
<b>R/ML</b>	all	coherent and explicit	widespread	from year 1	in school hours	none	national standardised	national or regional norms	full
<b>FL</b>	all	coherent and explicit	absent	from mid-phase	in school hours	none	school-based	linked to CEFR	full

## Teaching

	Teacher qualifications	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	Mobility
<b>NL support</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	N/A
<b>R/ML</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	N/A
<b>FL</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	none

## Languages offered in primary education

<b>R/ML</b>	Bulgarian, Croatian, German, Hungarian, Italian, Polish, Romani, Russian-Lipovan, Serbian, Slovak, Turkish, Ukrainian
<b>FL</b>	English, French, German, Italian, Russian, Spanish: one of these languages is compulsory

A similar situation can be found in primary education. Here one foreign language is mandatory, with the school deciding what this should be, although some schools also give children and their parents the opportunity to choose which language to learn. Furthermore, some schools provide instruction fully or partially in minority languages, mostly in Hungarian. Here all classes can be taught in the minority language with the exception of Romanian language and literature classes. There are no provisions on the use of immigrant languages in primary schools.

The new education law gives more autonomy to the schools and increases the competitiveness between them. It can be expected that this process will enhance the quality of the foreign languages taught as it is an important factor in the choice of school. The recent provisions based on the new law will also encourage schools to offer Romani language and Roma culture classes at the parents' request.

## Languages in secondary education (No provision of immigrant languages)

### Organisation

	Curriculum	Extra support for newcomers	Diagnostic testing on entry	Monitoring of language skills
<b>NL support</b>	coherent and explicit	before mainstream	absent	national standardised

	Target groups	Curriculum	CLIL	Scheduling	Minimum group size requirements	Monitoring of language skills	Level to be achieved	State funding available
<b>R/ML</b>	all	coherent and explicit	widespread	in school hours	>10	national standardised	national or regional norms	full
<b>FL</b>	all	coherent and explicit	localised	in school hours	>10	school-based	linked to CEFR	full

## Teaching

	Teacher qualifications	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	Language level required	Mobility
<b>NL support</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	national or school-based norms	N/A
<b>R/ML</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	N/A	N/A
<b>FL</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	linked to CEFR	none



### Languages offered in secondary education

R/ML	Bulgarian, Croatian, Hungarian, Italian, Polish, Romani, Russian-Lipovan, Slovak, Serbian, Turkish, Ukrainian
FL	English, French, German, Italian, Portuguese, <i>Russian</i> , Spanish: two of these languages are compulsory depending on school's offer

Secondary education has similar characteristics to primary. In most cases, pupils continue the study of the foreign language started in primary school. They also start a second foreign language in the first year of secondary level. At the national level, there are schools with intensive study programmes in foreign languages and also specialised high schools where the medium of instruction is in a specific foreign language such as English, German, French, Italian or Spanish.

Education in minority languages at secondary school level exists in specific regions of the country. The main minority language with the necessary institutions and staffing is Hungarian, followed by German, Ukrainian, Serbian and Slovak. Pupils have the opportunity to take their final national exams in the minority language with an adapted Romanian language test.

### Languages in further and higher education (No provision of immigrant languages)

#### Further education (in three VET institutions)

		Range of language programmes	Curriculum	Level to be achieved	State funding available
R/ML	Institution A				
	Institution B				
	Institution C	wide variety	coherent and explicit	N/A	full
FL	Institution A	wide variety	coherent and explicit	linked to CEFR	full
	Institution B	wide variety	coherent and explicit	linked to CEFR	full
	Institution C	wide variety	coherent and explicit	linked to CEFR	full

#### Higher education (in three universities)

	Language(s) of instruction	Languages on website	Target groups for additional support in the national language	Level to be achieved in foreign language instruction	Recruitment of non-national students	Mobility for language students	Mobility for non-language students
University A	national, foreign and R/M	national and foreign	restricted	linked to CEFR	only international	optional	no offer
University B	national and foreign	national and foreign	restricted	national or institution-based	only international	optional	no offer
University C	national, foreign and R/M	national, foreign and R/M	restricted	linked to CEFR	only international	optional	no offer

At the vocational training level the language profile taken as a whole is somewhat moderate with a strong national and foreign languages representation but just a few Hungarian and Romani courses offered in Cluj. However, Hungarian and German, as the main minority languages, are well represented at the tertiary level in regions where the minority population is significant. The national and foreign languages are strongly represented. Here English and French come first with specialised sections in foreign languages or even postgraduate levels such as Master or PhD programmes taught partially or entirely in these languages.

Recent developments have seen more and more investment in courses taught in foreign languages, mainly English and French, with some universities also maintaining sections for Hungarian and German. Romani as well as other national minority languages are also studied in several language/pedagogical higher education units as they prepare future teachers to teach (in) these languages. Here, again, there is no provision for immigrant languages.

## Languages in audiovisual media and press

Non-national language TV productions	Non-national language films in cinema	R/ML programmes outside of region	Availability of sign language on TV
subtitled	subtitled	regularly in Bucharest never in Iași always in Cluj	sometimes in Bucharest never in Iași and Cluj

Traditionally, mass media in Romania are in national and minority languages. Most of the films and foreign television programmes are subtitled while the rest of the broadcasts are in the national language. There is some space for Hungarian and German programmes on the public national television channels and some specialised local television programmes that are entirely in these minority languages. Television channels in Hungarian, German, Serbian and other minority languages are widely available through cable operators. Relatively recently, cartoons have begun to be dubbed while the language of some programmes can be changed by the viewer's choice.

Newspapers are mainly in Romanian. There are some international English, French or German newspapers available in some bookstores and shops. In the central and western part of the country there are also Hungarian and German newspapers and magazines. Online media is also available in national and minority languages, as well as in some immigrant languages such as Arabic and Chinese.

## Languages in public services and spaces

### Institutionalised language strategies at city level

N languages	Website presence	Use of interpreters	Language competencies in job descriptions	Recruitment of speakers of languages	Language training offered to employees	Record of language skills of employees
>4		Cluj	Cluj	Bucharest Iași Cluj		
3-4	Cluj				Cluj	
1-2	Bucharest Iași	Bucharest Iași	Iași		Bucharest	

### Communication facilities

Top five oral communication facilities	Top five written communication facilities
Legal Immigration and integration Tourism Emergency = Transport = Social	Tourism Immigration and integration Political debates and decision making Emergency Transport

Some public institutions supply information in several languages; for example, websites are available in English or French as well as the national language. Hungarian is also available in the central and western part of the country, be it through online material or for some of the services that are available to the public. Minority language use is associated with the population structure. In areas where a certain minority population represents at least 20% of the local population, public administration and public services institutions will ensure there is communication in the minority language, as stipulated in the Constitution, and in accordance with international treaties that Romania has adhered to.

Investment in language skills inside public institutions is not consistent. However, some institutions seem to have adapted to the local situation. In areas with large minority groups the services are provided by personnel who can usually speak the correspondent minority language. In the case of the Roma minority, mediators are hired to help in the communication between the ethnic groups.

## Languages in business (out of 24 companies)

GENERAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES								
	Availability of language strategy	Emphasis on language skills in recruitment	International mobility provision	Use of external translators/interpreters	Staff records of language skills	Use of networks for language training	Use of EU programmes/funding	Awareness of EU programmes/funding
<b>Widely practised</b>	3	17	4	3	0	0	0	0

		INTERNAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES						EXTERNAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES			
		Partnerships with education sector	Reward/promotion schemes based on language skills	Language training provision	Use of CEFR	Language used for workplace documents/intranet	Language used for software, web programmes	Language used for annual/business reports	Language used for marketing	Language used for branding/identity	Language used for website
<b>NL</b>	widely practised	1	0	1	0	22	17	19	19	20	23
<b>Business English</b>	widely practised	2	3	3	0	9	15	8	9	14	18
<b>Additional languages</b>	widely practised	0	0	0	0	3	3	1	1	3	6

The businesses surveyed show a medium to low language profile. While some have a language strategy and practice, the investment in language skills for their employees is very low. Most of the time it looks like the skills were acquired prior to employment. The national language and English seem to emerge as the main languages used, followed by French and German. Policies highlighting the importance of languages and the necessity of private investment in these skills are recommended to increase the multilingual practices in businesses.

## Key findings overall

Romania presents a situation where national, minority and foreign languages seem to be well promoted especially in the education system. The businesses researched here appear to use foreign languages adequately, but do not invest significantly in language skills for employees.

Minority languages are supported legally both through the *European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages* and through the new education law. But this reality does not lead necessarily to equal results for all minorities. While some minority languages, for example, Hungarian, are represented in educational and cultural activities, others such as Romani are not. While investments have been made to help the access of Roma to administration, schools and other public services through mediators, there is still much more to be done in order to ensure real opportunities for using Romani in education and in the public space. While these necessities are known and legal statements have been made regarding Roma language and culture (Ministry of Education Notification 29323/20.04.2004), more practical measures are still required.

Another aspect that needs attention is the immigrant population, and language issues that are related to them, for example, access to education. Long-term immigration is most likely to increase and policies to meet immigrant needs should be discussed and implemented. Another point of improvement could be the offer of universities regarding Romanian as a foreign language; this would be useful for foreign students that want to study in Romania. The development of language skills among workers in public institutions and the improvement of communication strategies, especially disseminating information in more languages, would be of great social and economic importance for both immigrant population and foreign entrepreneurs.

## Promising initiatives and pilots

The linguistic landscape of present-day Romania is diverse and there is a growing tendency to recognise and promote multilingualism as a societal resource and value. Some of the propitious initiatives in this field are briefly described below.

At the governmental level, one example is the Department for Interethnic Relations study on *Multilingualism and minority languages in Romania*<sup>1</sup>, developed together with the Romanian Academy. The programmes of the Romanian Immigration Office or Romanian Institute for Research on National Minorities from Cluj Napoca are also worth mentioning (for example, the project on *Bilingual Forum*). The Romanian Ministry of Education's recent policy options and projects are relevant as well. For example, the new education law, issued in January 2011 and the new draft of the curriculum framework highlight the importance of developing students' communicative competence in several

languages.

The recent initiative of the National Association for Community Programmes, the Representation of the European Commission to Romania and the Department for Interethnic Relations to organise the event *MALLtilingualism – Voices and Colour* at a shopping mall in Bucharest is an example of innovative ways of reaching wider audiences in a non-formal environment. The celebration of the *European Day of Languages* 2011 by the Romanian Cultural Institute and EUNIC Romania within the format of a cultural activities 'swap-shop' is part of the same effort to convey the cultural diversity message to the public.

Another example of collaboration between governmental bodies and civil society is the project *Learn Romanian* carried out by West University of Timisoara, the Intercultural Institute of Timisoara and the Romanian Ministry of Education. Together with the project *Migrant in Romania*<sup>2</sup>, also funded by the European Fund for Integration and implemented in partnership by the Intercultural Institute of Timisoara and the Association of Refugee Women in Romania, the aforementioned initiative is aiming to support the learning of basic Romanian.

The increased awareness of the importance of multilingualism is evident by numerous research projects and scientific debates at university level that have been recently organised by both language and non-language faculties. These initiatives are in line with a suggestion from Leonard Orban, European Commissioner for Multilingualism between 2007 and 2010, to set up multilingualism chairs within universities.<sup>3</sup> One example is the conference organised by the Faculty of Sociology and Social Work at Babeş-Bolyai University, Cluj called *From Immigration to Integration through Multilingualism*.<sup>4</sup>

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<sup>2</sup> [www.migrant.ro](http://www.migrant.ro)

<sup>3</sup> [www.ziare.com/tv/](http://www.ziare.com/tv/) - interview, 23 November 2009.

<sup>4</sup> [www.lumebuna.ro/2011/05/29/conferinta-%E2%80%9Cde-la-imigrare-la-integrare-prin-multilingvism%E2%80%9D/](http://www.lumebuna.ro/2011/05/29/conferinta-%E2%80%9Cde-la-imigrare-la-integrare-prin-multilingvism%E2%80%9D/)

# 16 SPAIN

## 16.1 Madrid, Valencia, Sevilla

Marta Genís

### Country context

Multilingualism is not a new issue for Spanish people as four out of every ten Spaniards live in communities with more than one official language. Considering that Spain has a population of 47.1 million people (2011 census), it implies that 34% of the population are at least bilingual, so multilingualism is an essential characteristic of Spanish culture.

The Spanish Constitution of 1978 recognises the richness of language diversity as a cultural heritage which must be respected and protected, and declares that other languages apart from the national one, Castilian, 'shall also be official in their respective communities'. Thus, we can say that Spain is a multilingual country with the Castilian variety, usually called Spanish, as the official language. Other languages, Galician, Catalan and Basque, are also official in their respective communities and in some other territories that historically were part of their linguistic continuum, such as Valencia and *Islas Baleares* in the case of Catalan, and the north of Navarra in the case of Basque. These three languages together amount to more or less 16 million speakers.

Additionally, there are a great variety of dialects, such as *Andalusian*, *Canario*, *Extremeño* or *Murciano*; and others recognised as territorial languages in the *European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages* (ECRML) such as *Fablas Aragonesas* in Aragón, *Bable* or *Asturian* in Asturias, *Valenciano* in Valencia, and *Aranés*, the official language in la Vall d'Arán. The Charter also protects languages such as *Berber* in Melilla, *Caló*, a non-territorial language used by Gypsies, and *Portuguese*, used in Extremadura and other places situated on the border with Portugal. All of these languages represent only some of the linguistic varieties spoken at local level.

Immigration has also brought other languages to Spain. According to the 2011 census there are 5.7 million people of foreign origin (12.2%), many from South America, where different varieties of Spanish are spoken. The most important immigrant languages in Spain are *Arabic*, *Bulgarian*, *Chinese*, *English*, *German*, *Portuguese* and *Romanian*.

With regard to education, languages were never considered as being an essential issue in Spain. The first sign of concern about foreign languages (FL) can be traced to the Royal Decree of 20 July 1900 with the recommendation that French should be studied first, followed by English or German in order to break through the isolation in which Spain had lived until then.

The General Law of Education in 1970 represents a significant advancement of languages in education as it introduced FL teaching in the third cycle of basic education, and, most significantly, included regional languages and literature in the educational system of the corresponding communities from basic education onwards.

In 1990 the LOGSE (*Ley Orgánica General del Sistema Educativo*) established a decentralised educational system in

which the autonomous communities could select the contents of their curricula.

The current law, approved in 2002, is the LOE (*Ley Orgánica de Educación*) in which the teaching of foreign languages begins in primary school (from five years old) and introduces an elective third FL from nine years old.

### Languages in official documents and databases

The national language, foreign languages, R/M languages and immigrant languages are dealt with in language legislation and/or language policy documents. The learning and teaching of Spanish abroad for children and/or adults originating from Spain is (co-)funded in 13 countries in Europe and abroad, in particular in Latin America. *The European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages* has been signed and ratified by Spain. The following 12 R/M languages are recognised in the Charter: Aranese, Asturian/Bable, Basque, Catalan, Fable Aragonese, Galician, Valencian, Portuguese, Arabic, Berber languages, Caló, and Romani. There is official provision in regionwide education, supported by the Charter, for Basque, Catalan, Galician and Valencian.

Official nationwide data collection mechanisms on language diversity in Spain exist in terms of periodically updated census data and survey data. In these data collection mechanisms, national, R/M and immigrant language varieties are addressed, based on a home language question plus a language proficiency question in terms of whether (and how well) the language can be spoken/understood/read/written.

National, R/M, foreign and immigrant languages are dealt with in various Spanish legislation and policy documents, mainly the Spanish Constitution passed by *Cortes Generales* and ratified by the Spanish people in 1978, and the *European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages*, ratified in 2001. The *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* has also had a very deep influence on the Spanish educational system.

Several reports presented to the European Commission explain what has been done regarding R/M languages in Spain after the different statutes of autonomy of the regions were signed in the 1980s, establishing the official languages of the different communities: *Aranés* as co-official language was introduced in the new text of the Statute of Cataluña enacted in July 2006; *Fablas*, spoken in Aragon, was set out in Law 3/1999 of 10 March; and the General Plan of Normalisation of Galician was passed by the parliament on 22 September 2004. However, regional languages are not promoted or taught in other regions, leaving the initiative to regional clubs or academies.

**NL=National Language(s)**  
**FL=Foreign Languages**  
**R/ML=Regional or Minority Languages**  
**IL=Immigrant Languages**

## Languages in pre-primary education

	Target groups	Duration	Minimum group size requirements	Days per week	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	State funding available
<b>R/ML</b>	all	≥2 years	none	>1 day	subject-specific	subject-specific	full
<b>FL</b>	all	≥2 years	none	<0.5 day	subject-specific	subject-specific	full
<b>IL</b>	all	≥2 years	none	<0.5 day	general	subject-specific	partial
<b>Additional NL support</b>	all	≥2 years	5–10	0.5–1 day	subject-specific	subject-specific	full

## Languages offered in pre-primary education

<b>R/ML</b>	Valencian in Valencia only
<b>FL</b>	English in the communities of Madrid and Valencia, and English, French and German in Andalusia
<b>IL</b>	Portuguese in Valencia, Portuguese and Moroccan Arabic in Madrid, and Portuguese, Moroccan Arabic, and Romanian in Andalusia

It is in pre-primary education where Spain stands out with regard to multilingualism, with high scores for both foreign and R/M languages as the *Strategic Plan for Citizenship and Integration 2007–2010* included among its lines of action the preservation of languages and cultures of origin of immigrant children, and provided for their promotion within the education system via bilateral agreements.

Depending on particular communities, the foreign languages offered comprise English, French, German, Portuguese, Arabic and Romanian. Normally either English or French is compulsory, the rest being optional.

## Languages in primary education

### Organisation

	Curriculum	Extra support for newcomers	Diagnostic testing on entry	Monitoring of language skills
<b>NL support</b>	coherent and explicit	before mainstream	immigrants only	national standardised

	Target groups	Curriculum	CLIL	Start of language education	Scheduling	Minimum group size requirements	Monitoring of language skills	Level to be achieved	State funding available
<b>R/ML</b>	all	coherent and explicit	widespread	from year 1	in school hours	none	national standardised	national or regional norms	full
<b>FL</b>	all	coherent and explicit	widespread	from year 1	in school hours	none	national standardised	national or school norms	full
<b>IL</b>	native speakers only	coherent and explicit	localised	from year 1	partly in school hours	none	school-based	school norms	partial

## Teaching

	Teacher qualifications	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	Mobility
<b>NL support</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	N/A
<b>R/ML</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	N/A
<b>FL</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	informal financial support
<b>IL</b>	language teachers	general	subject-specific	N/A

## Languages offered in primary education

<b>R/ML</b>	Valencian in Valencia only
<b>FL</b>	English and French in Madrid; English, French and German in Valencia and Andalusia: one of these languages is compulsory
<b>IL</b>	Moroccan Arabic and Portuguese in Madrid and Andalusia

## Languages in secondary education (No provision of immigrant languages)

## Organisation

	Curriculum	Extra support for newcomers	Diagnostic testing on entry	Monitoring of language skills
<b>NL support</b>	coherent and explicit	before mainstream	immigrants only	national standardised

	Target groups	Curriculum	CLIL	Scheduling	Minimum group size requirements	Monitoring of language skills	Level to be achieved	State funding available
<b>R/ML</b>	all	coherent and explicit	widespread	in school hours	none	national standardised	national or regional norms	full
<b>FL</b>	all	coherent and explicit	localised	in school hours	none	school-based	not specified	full

## Teaching

	Teacher qualifications	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	Language level required	Mobility
<b>NL support</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	not specified	N/A
<b>R/ML</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	N/A	N/A
<b>FL</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	none	informal financial support

### Languages offered in secondary education

R/ML	Valencian in Valencia only
FL	English, French, German: one of these languages is compulsory

In secondary education the profile is not as outstanding because the new multilingual trend has not yet reached this level, meaning that only some secondary schools are bilingual. Nevertheless, the range of languages offered, the organisation of tuition and teacher training and qualifications are impressive.

Immigrant languages are not widely taught in secondary education although some action plans have been put in place regarding their promotion. The integration of immigrants into Spanish culture through the acquisition of the Spanish language has also been promoted.

### Languages in further and higher education

#### Further education (in three VET institutions) (No provision of R/M languages and immigrant languages)

		Range of language programmes	Curriculum	Level to be achieved	State funding available
FL	Institution A	no specifications	coherent and explicit	none	full
	Institution B	limited	coherent and explicit	none	full
	Institution C	limited	coherent and explicit	none	full

#### Higher education (in three universities)

	Language(s) of instruction	Languages on website	Target groups for additional support in the national language	Level to be achieved in foreign language instruction	Recruitment of non-national students	Mobility for language students	Mobility for non-language students
University A	national and foreign	national and foreign	all	linked to CEFR	international and immigrant	optional	optional
University B	national and foreign	national and foreign	restricted	linked to CEFR	international and immigrant	optional	optional
University C	national and foreign	national and foreign	restricted	linked to CEFR	international and immigrant	optional	optional

In Vocational Training (VET) only French and English are offered and not as compulsory subjects, hence the results are low. Attention from educational authorities is needed in this area, given the fact that VET is aimed at acquiring education with professional objectives.

In university education, English and French lead the foreign language offer followed by German and Italian.



## Languages in audiovisual media and press

Non-national language TV productions	Non-national language films in cinema	R/ML programmes outside of region	Availability of sign language on TV
dubbed	dubbed	sometimes	regularly

As all television broadcasts are digital, the original language of production is also transmitted. Most dubbed programmes are also available in the original version, as are those in the regional languages of Catalan, Galician or Basque. However, this fact is not always known to the general public and perhaps this is the reason for the low values obtained in this domain.

In press and print, six different languages were identified in newspapers. The dominance of English, however, is remarkable.

## Languages in public services and spaces

### Institutionalised language strategies at city level

N languages	Website presence	Use of interpreters	Language competencies in job descriptions	Recruitment of speakers of languages	Language training offered to employees	Record of language skills of employees
>4	Sevilla	Madrid Valencia Sevilla			Madrid	
3-4						
1-2	Valencia		Valencia Sevilla		Valencia Sevilla	

### Communication facilities

Top five oral communication facilities	Top five written communication facilities
Education Emergency Health Social Legal	Health Social Immigration and integration Tourism Emergency

Even though ten languages are mentioned, English dominates the scene in the cities surveyed. There seems to be a growing interest in multilingualism and a greater need of more languages in public services at the local, regional and national level.

Oral communication facilities are far less significant than institutionalised strategies or written communication facilities.

## Languages in business (out of 24 companies)

GENERAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES								
	Availability of language strategy	Emphasis on language skills in recruitment	International mobility provision	Use of external translators/interpreters	Staff records of language skills	Use of networks for language training	Use of EU programmes/funding	Awareness of EU programmes/funding
<b>Widely practised</b>	5	11	4	10	0	0	3	0

		INTERNAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES						EXTERNAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES			
		Partnerships with education sector	Reward/promotion schemes based on language skills	Language training provision	Use of CEFR	Language used for workplace documents/intranet	Language used for software, web programmes	Language used for annual/business reports	Language used for marketing	Language used for branding/identity	Language used for website
<b>NL</b>	widely practised	2	3	6	1	23	22	23	24	20	22
<b>Business English</b>	widely practised	2	9	8	0	9	9	11	11	7	14
<b>Additional languages</b>	widely practised	2	2	4	0	3	0	4	11	7	11

Management practices, even if subjugated by the national language, seem to have become more sensitive to multilingualism but figures are still low. There is room for future improvement, especially in the areas of language strategies and employees' language competence. Multinational firms have a more global perspective in such matters, knowing that multilingualism greatly improves the competitiveness of companies.

## Key findings overall

Recent improvements towards multilingualism are in the domains of pre-primary and primary education and immigrant languages, with the shift being progressive and regular.

It is also important to stress the change attempted in the domain of public services and spaces, given the fact that a decade ago one could hardly expect to find any language other than Spanish.

The same can be said for newspapers and books where the multilingual offer is now huge compared with only a few years ago.

It is in particular in the domains of audiovisual media and business where habit or traditional practice persists.

## Promising initiatives and pilots

The document entitled *Action Plan for 2010–2020* signed in 2010 by the government, lists 12 objectives to improve language learning and multilingualism, teacher education being one of the most important ones. Some of these objectives have already been reached by most autonomous communities but the current financial crisis has slowed down the first initiatives.

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# 16 SPAIN

## 16.2 Catalonia

*F. Xavier Vila i Moreno*

### Regional context

Explicit recognition of Spain's historical multilingual reality was a key priority after the introduction of democracy. Consequently, it was granted a prominent place in Spain's Constitution (article 3) in 1978 and in the subsequent Statute of Autonomy of Catalonia (article 3) in 1979. According to both texts, Catalan and Castilian (the term officially used in the Constitution to refer to Spanish) became official languages in Catalonia.

This recognition has been understood in different ways, and debates about language policies have retained a visible position since then. Debates focus on how to implement this 'official status'. Differentiating between Castilian as a 'national' and Catalan as a 'regional' language made little empirical sense in Catalonia, for both are widely present in all areas: in future research, both should be subsumed under a common, more adequate label, be it national, official, or another.

Some other factors have more recently promoted the relevance of multilingualism in Catalonia: (1) the significance of the tourism industry; (2) the process of European integration; (3) the rapid process of internationalisation in the Catalonian economy; and (4) the arrival, during the first decade of the 21st century, of more than 1.3 million immigrants from Spanish-speaking America and the rest of the world (*alloglots*). This alloglot population is extremely fragmented and scattered across the country: according to the *Survey on the linguistic practices of Catalonia's population* (EULP 2008) the largest group was that of Arabic speakers (2.6% of the total population over 15 years – a figure which also includes many Tamazight L1 speakers). No other first language (L1) group reached 1%: Romanian totalled 0.9%; Galician, 0.6%; French, 0.5%; Portuguese and English, 0.4%; and Russian, 0.3% were the most prominent among more than 400 different L1 groups.

### Languages in official documents and databases

The national language, foreign languages, R/M languages and immigrant languages are dealt with in language legislation and/or language policy documents. The learning and teaching of Catalan abroad for children and/or adults originating from Catalonia is (co-)funded in Argentina, Ecuador, Portugal, Switzerland and US. The *European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages* has been signed and ratified by Spain. There is official provision in education, supported by the Charter, for Catalan and Aranese in Catalonia.

Official regionwide data collection mechanisms on language diversity in Catalonia exist in terms of census data, continuously updated municipal register data and periodical survey data. In these data collection mechanisms, national and regional language varieties are addressed, based on a home language question, a main language question, and a mother tongue question. Additionally, a language proficiency question is included in terms of whether (and how well) this language can be spoken/understood/read/written.

Since the new Statute of Autonomy was voted for in 2006, Catalonia gained a third official language – Occitan, the autochthonous language of Val d'Aran, a small territory in the Catalan Pyrenees. The official status of Occitan was regulated by law by the Parliament of Catalonia in September 2010, but temporally suspended by the Spanish Constitutional Court at the demand of the Spanish government.

**OSL=Official State Language**  
**FL=Foreign Languages**  
**OOL=Official Other Languages**  
**IL=Immigrant Languages**

Languages in pre-primary education

(No provision of immigrant languages and no support for official state language - Spanish)

	Target groups	Duration	Minimum group size requirements	Days per week	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	State funding available
<b>OOL</b>	all	≥2 years	none	>1 day	subject-specific	subject-specific	partial
<b>FL</b>	all	≥2 years	none	<0.5 day	subject-specific	subject-specific	partial

Languages offered in pre-primary education

<b>OOL</b>	Catalan everywhere and Aranese Occitan in Val d'Aran
<b>FL</b>	English

Languages in primary education (No provision of immigrant languages)

Organisation

	Curriculum	Extra support for newcomers	Diagnostic testing on entry	Monitoring of language skills
<b>OSL support</b>	coherent and explicit	during mainstream	immigrants only	national standardised

	Target groups	Curriculum	CLIL	Start of language education	Scheduling	Minimum group size requirements	Monitoring of language skills	Level to be achieved	State funding available
<b>OOL</b>	all	coherent and explicit	widespread	from year 1	in school hours	none	national standardised	national or regional norms	full
<b>FL</b>	all	coherent and explicit	widespread	from year 1	in school hours	none	national standardised	national or school norms	full

Teaching

	Teacher qualifications	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	Mobility
<b>OSL support</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	N/A
<b>OOL</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	N/A
<b>FL</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	incorporated into training

## Languages offered in primary education

<b>OOL</b>	Catalan everywhere and Aranese Occitan in Val d'Aran
<b>FL</b>	English: compulsory

During the last two decades, education in Catalonia has been based on the 'conjunction model', which establishes that children shall not be separated according to first language; Catalan is the main language of education (children are, however, entitled to be taught in Castilian in their first years of education if their parents ask for it); and all children shall be bilingual and biliterate in these two languages by the end of compulsory education. Comparative results show that this model results in bilingualism of most children, although Castilian is still better known (see Vila 2008, 2010). The reason for such results is to be found in a mixture of demolinguisic and sociolinguistic factors: Castilian is the main lingua franca between Catalan, Castilian and *alloglot* speakers, and given its powerful status and ubiquity in society, it is rapidly picked up by non-native speakers. It should also be remembered that while the data used in the Language Rich Europe research is declared by official sources, both observational and self-declared data by children show that Castilian is quite often used in interaction with teachers in classes especially where Castilian speakers and alloglots are in the majority. In 2010, a much debated ruling on Catalonia's new Statute of Autonomy (2006) from the Constitutional Court required that Castilian should have a wider presence as a vehicular language in Catalanian schools, and thus opened the door to a major legal and political conflict which is still ongoing.

## Languages in secondary education (No provision of immigrant languages)

### Organisation

	Curriculum	Extra support for newcomers	Diagnostic testing on entry	Monitoring of language skills
<b>OSL support</b>	coherent and explicit	during mainstream	all	national standardised

	Target groups	Curriculum	CLIL	Scheduling	Minimum group size requirements	Monitoring of language skills	Level to be achieved	State funding available
<b>OOL</b>	all	coherent and explicit	widespread	in school hours	none	national standardised	national or regional norms	full
<b>FL</b>	all	coherent and explicit	localised	in school hours	none	national standardised	national or school-based norms	full

### Teaching

	Teacher qualifications	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	Language level required	Mobility
<b>OSL support</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	linked to CEFR	N/A
<b>OOL</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	N/A	N/A
<b>FL</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	linked to CEFR	incorporated into training

## Languages offered in secondary education

<b>OOL</b>	Catalan everywhere, and Aranese Occitan in Val d'Aran
<b>FL</b> <i>(languages in italics offered in upper secondary only)</i>	Compulsory: One from English, French, occasionally German and Italian Optional: <i>Ancient Greek, Latin</i> and others

The research is quite accurate in depicting the position of most languages. The distinction between 'foreign' and 'immigrant' languages obscures the fact that two of the main L1 foreign groups – namely French and English speakers – find it relatively easy to get tuition in their L1 within the educational system. A number of private foreign schools – American, French, Italian, and 'international' – also cater for relatively well-off foreign residents and locals wishing their children to be plurilingual.

## Languages in further and higher education

### Further education (in three VET institutions) (No provision of immigrant languages)

		Range of language programmes	Curriculum	Level to be achieved	State funding available
<b>OOL</b>	<b>Institution A</b>	wide variety	no guidelines	N/A	full
	<b>Institution B</b>	limited	coherent and explicit	N/A	full
	<b>Institution C</b>	wide variety	general	N/A	full
<b>FL</b>	<b>Institution A</b>	wide variety	coherent and explicit	linked to CEFR	full
	<b>Institution B</b>	limited	coherent and explicit	linked to CEFR	full
	<b>Institution C</b>	wide variety	coherent and explicit	none	partial

### Higher education (in three universities)

	Language(s) of instruction	Languages on website	Target groups for additional support in the national language	Level to be achieved in foreign language instruction	Recruitment of non-national students	Mobility for language students	Mobility for non-language students
<b>University A</b>	official state language, foreign and OOL	official state language, foreign and OOL	none	linked to CEFR	international and immigrant	optional	optional
<b>University B</b>	official state language, foreign and OOL	official state language, foreign and OOL	restricted	linked to CEFR	international and immigrant	optional	optional
<b>University C</b>	official state language, foreign and OOL	official state language, foreign and OOL	restricted	linked to CEFR	only international	optional	optional

The research captures the general environment for language learning in Vocational Education and Training (VET) but the higher institutions looked at in the study do not highlight the wide range of language learning possibilities at many universities in Catalonia, which, beyond the big international languages, include regional languages like Occitan; widely spoken immigrant languages such as Tamazight/Berber; several medium-sized European languages such as Dutch or Swedish; and Asian languages such as Japanese, Chinese, Farsi or Turkish.

## Languages in audiovisual media and press

Non-national language TV productions	Non-national language films in cinema	OOL programmes outside of region	Availability of sign language on TV
subtitled	dubbed	sometimes	sometimes

The research detects the predominance of Castilian as the language most in supply in mass media, followed by Catalan, and English with other languages only at a distance. Castilian is vastly predominant in television, thanks to the existence of many Spain-wide channels, and in cinema, where Castilian-dubbed products are still predominant. In comparison, the Catalan/Castilian ratio was much closer in radio and newspapers.

The position of other languages was more difficult to spot. Since digital television replaced analogue, the question of dubbing and subtitling lost importance, because most television stations broadcast the original version of foreign products, usually with subtitles, as well as a dubbed version. Listening to the original versions is popular among certain social sectors, including some groups of immigrants, but no research is available to date in this particular domain. The use of satellite television was also relatively widespread among immigrant communities, but the small absolute numbers of each language group makes this consumption unnoticed.

By the end of 2011, the economic crisis was reducing the supply in all fields and languages. In December 2011, for instance, the free, Castilian-language newspaper *ADN*, was closed down. The crisis has especially affected local and public initiatives, such as local television stations, which were a stronghold for Catalan. Much more importantly, in late 2011 the government of Catalonia announced severe cuts to public television, which would probably imply that two public channels – both in Catalan – would stop broadcasting.

## Languages in public services and spaces

### Institutionalised language strategies at city level

N languages	Website presence	Use of interpreters	Language competencies in job descriptions	Recruitment of speakers of languages	Language training offered to employees	Record of language skills of employees
>4		Barcelona Tarragona L'Hospitalet de Llobregat	Barcelona	Barcelona		
3-4	Barcelona				Barcelona	Barcelona
1-2	Tarragona L'Hospitalet de Llobregat		Tarragona L'Hospitalet de Llobregat	Tarragona L'Hospitalet de Llobregat	Tarragona L'Hospitalet de Llobregat	

### Communication facilities

Top five oral communication facilities	Top five written communication facilities
Health Social Immigration and integration Education Emergency	Emergency Health Tourism Social Immigration and integration

The strong multilingual profile shown by the data for local public services and spaces clearly reflects the multifaceted nature of this domain, which deals simultaneously with all sorts of customers, for example locals, immigrants, and tourists. It is therefore not surprising that languages from different families and continents, from Catalan to Japanese and Finnish to Swahili, are mentioned as being present.



## Languages in business (out of 23 companies)

GENERAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES								
	Availability of language strategy	Emphasis on language skills in recruitment	International mobility provision	Use of external translators/interpreters	Staff records of language skills	Use of networks for language training	Use of EU programmes/funding	Awareness of EU programmes/funding
<b>Widely practised</b>	9	14	5	8	0	5	4	0

		INTERNAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES						EXTERNAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES			
		Partnerships with education sector	Reward/promotion schemes based on language skills	Language training provision	Use of CEFR	Language used for workplace documents/intranet	Language used for software, web programmes	Language used for annual/business reports	Language used for marketing	Language used for branding/identity	Language used for website
<b>OSL</b>	widely practised	0	2	2	2	21	23	18	21	20	21
<b>Business English</b>	widely practised	3	4	10	5	7	11	10	12	13	14
<b>Additional languages</b>	widely practised	3	4	6	5	11	7	10	15	14	15

The data collected suggests that, in general terms, the private sector lags behind local public institutions in adopting multilingual strategies in their daily routine. In the business sector, Catalan moves to third position, behind Castilian and business English, and is followed at a considerable distance by other European languages, mostly those of tourists and European residents, or other languages in Spain. Non-European languages play a negligible role in this sector, suggesting that African and Asian immigrants and the markets in these regions are not being taken into account by the firms consulted, or alternatively, they are served via business English.

These conclusions should nevertheless be taken with caution: not only was the sample of firms analysed small, it was also internally heterogeneous, including firms from different sectors, some of them being international, some working throughout Spain, and others only working in Catalonia. Comparison between the public services and spaces domain, where only local institutions were analysed, and the business domain, is less than straightforward.

## Key findings overall

- 1 Differentiating between Castilian as a 'national' and Catalan as a 'regional' language made little empirical sense in Catalonia, for both were widely present in all areas: in future research, both should be subsumed under a common, more adequate label, be it national, official, or another.
- 2 The Language Rich Europe project is focussed on language policies on supply, but supply can only be duly analysed when demand and results are taken into consideration. In its current linguistic ecosystem, a comparatively small supply of Castilian at school produces high results in language proficiency, while a small supply of English produces low results in this language. The ways that lead to plurilingualism may be different for each language in each situation, and the whole linguistic ecosystem has to be taken into account. In this sense there is certainly room for development in foreign language learning in the Catalan linguistic ecosystem.
- 3 As a whole, the questionnaire adequately reflects the weak position of 'immigrant languages' in Catalonia, a position consistent with both their recency and their heterogeneity. In its current design, the questionnaire is conceived to detect only initiatives which affect large tracts of society. In the future, the methodology could be developed to incorporate community initiatives more available to new, less established immigrant groups — such as extra-school language courses, community libraries and bookshops, satellite television or television consumption via the Internet. In any case, pedagogic attention to these languages should increase if the immigrant children's linguistic heritage is to be preserved for their benefit and that of Catalan society.

## Promising initiatives and pilots

- 1 Several programmes of *Language volunteers*, sponsored by both public and private initiatives, have resulted in the creation of 'linguistic couples' which have made it possible for thousands of Catalan-language learners to practice the language with fluent speakers all over Catalonia (cf. Boix-Fuster, Melià and Montoya 2011).
- 2 Vila (2010) describes a number of activities addressed at raising awareness of minority languages developed in Catalonia such as the Language Gymkhana or the Amazigh Spring.
- 3 Proxecto Galauda (<http://phobos.xtec.cat/galauda/> [in Galician]) is a project which has taught Galician in Catalonia and Catalan in Galicia in several secondary education centres as a way to enlarge the linguistic repertoire and raise awareness about the value of linguistic diversity.

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# 16 SPAIN

## 16.3 Basque Country

*Iván Igartua, Xabier Zabaltza*

### Regional context

The Autonomous Community of the Basque Country (*Euskadi*) has two official languages: Basque and Spanish. According to the latest estimates, around 37% of the Basque population is bilingual (near 800,000 people). There are other territories in which Basque is spoken. In the French Basque Country, where Basque has no kind of administrative recognition at all, Basque speakers constitute about one-third of the population (some 80,000 people). In Navarre, where it is only official in the northern part of the territory, it is spoken by one-tenth of the population (some 50,000 people).

Nowadays, there are practically no monolingual Basque speakers. Basques who do not know either Spanish or French make up less than 1% of the population. In the light of the current sociolinguistic situation, the primary goal of the Basque government is to promote a feasible bilingualism, based on three principles: consensus of the political forces represented in the Basque Parliament; acceptance of the plurality of Basque society; and respect for citizens' own language choices. This is exactly the spirit of the Normalisation Law, passed in 1982.

Since then, the status of Basque has greatly improved and the status of Spanish has not worsened at all. In Euskadi, language normalisation has always been understood as a plus. The people of Euskadi and their government have pledged their commitment to bilingualism, not to a monolingualism of one kind or another. The idea of linguistic rights is basic in both legislation and political praxis of Basque Country, the rights of both Basque and Spanish speakers.

During the last thirty years, Basque language policy has been based on two priority areas: education and administration. The third priority area in any normalisation process (media, especially television) has had a comparatively smaller impact on the acquisition of the Basque language but has been crucial in the development of a standard language variety. When the *Normalisation Law* was passed, it was understood that the distinction between priority and non-priority areas (such as the police-force, the public health system, the justice system and private sector companies) would only last for a few years. Although we are already in the fourth decade of the process, that distinction is still in force, as the status of Basque in some of the areas mentioned above continues to be weak.

From the beginning of the normalisation process it was clear to politicians and to Basque society as a whole that Basque would be official in the whole territory, even in places where it had not been spoken for centuries. In fact, in the case of Basque, it would be more accurate to speak about a recovery or revival of the language rather than about a classic process of language normalisation and standardisation. This means that language transmission within the family was not enough. School education has become the key to recovery of the language and this recovery is being achieved through social consensus and individual freedom. It is parents, not the Basque government, who choose the language of instruction for their children.

A special aspect of education in Basque Country is the linguistic *Basquisition* of adults. For centuries, the relationship between Basque and Spanish or French was one-way. Many Basque speakers abandoned their language. Either voluntarily or forced by circumstances, they adopted one of the official languages. Since the 1960s, the relationship between Basque and Spanish or French has been reciprocal. Basque continues to lose speakers in the French Basque Country but, at the same time, many Basques whose native language is French or Spanish are learning Basque. Some people who have learned Basque in adulthood have obtained such a command of the language that they have become famous writers in Basque or even members of the Academy of the Basque Language. Currently, as many as 40,000 people are learning Basque or improving their level in the so-called *euskaltegis*, centres for adult learning and for perfecting of Basque. Without *euskaltegis* and the enlargement of the Basque-speaking community, the revival of the language would have been almost impossible.

As regards administration, public institutions have forced themselves to respect each citizen's linguistic choice, instead of forcing them to use one language or another. Many civil servants have to speak the two official languages of the autonomous community. At the moment, 44% of the workers in Basque public institutions possess a Basque language certificate. Actually, it is possible to be a Basque civil servant – even at a high level post – without knowing a single word of Basque, especially in the non-priority areas mentioned before. On the other hand, data on citizens' requests reveals that only 14–15% of them use Basque when addressing public institutions.

## Languages in official documents and databases

Spanish, Basque and foreign languages are dealt with in language legislation and/or language policy documents. The learning and teaching of Basque abroad is (co-) funded at more than 30 universities in Europe and the Americas. The *European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages* has been signed by Spanish government and ratified by Spanish Parliament. There is official provision in education, supported by the Charter, for Basque in Basque Country.

Official regionwide data collection mechanisms on language diversity exist in terms of periodically updated census data and survey data in Basque Country. In these data collection mechanisms, national and regional language varieties are addressed, based on a home language question, a main language question, a first language question, plus a language proficiency question in terms of whether (and how well) this language can be spoken/understood/read/written.

Within the last twenty years, the government of Basque Country has produced many texts on language planning and language policy. Some of the most noteworthy documents are the *General Plan for Promoting Basque* (EBPN, 1999) and the brief essay *Towards a Renewed Agreement* (2009), which set the basis for language policy at the beginning of the 21st century. After the Normalisation Law (1982), legislation on several aspects of bilingualism has been further developed, including the private business sector. Since 1991 Sociolinguistic Surveys have been carried out every five years in order to determine the level of linguistic competence and use of languages in Basque Country. Basic information about the first language of citizens is also included in this survey. In 2011 the Basque government completed an indicators-based study on the current status and evolution of Basque.

**OSL Official State Language**  
**FL=Foreign Languages**  
**OOL=Official Other Languages**  
**IL=Immigrant Languages**

## Languages in pre-primary education (No provision of immigrant languages)

	Target groups	Duration	Minimum group size requirements	Days per week	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	State funding available
<b>FL</b>	all	≥2 years	none	0.5–1 day	subject-specific	subject-specific	full
<b>OOL</b>	all	≥2 years	none	>1 day	subject-specific	subject-specific	full
<b>Additional OSL support</b>	all	≥2 years	none	0.5–1 day	subject-specific	subject-specific	full

### Languages offered in pre-primary education

<b>OOL</b>	Basque
<b>FL</b>	English

## Languages in primary education (No provision of immigrant languages)

### Organisation

	Curriculum	Extra support for newcomers	Diagnostic testing on entry	Monitoring of language skills
<b>OSL support</b>	coherent and explicit	before mainstream	immigrants only	national standardised

	Target groups	Curriculum	CLIL	Start of language education	Scheduling	Minimum group size requirements	Monitoring of language skills	Level to be achieved	State funding available
<b>OOL</b>	all	coherent and explicit	widespread	from year 1	in school hours	none	national standardised	national or regional norms	full
<b>FL</b>	all	coherent and explicit	localised	from year 1	in school hours	none	national standardised	national or school norms	full

### Teaching

	Teacher qualifications	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	Mobility
<b>OSL support</b>	language teachers	general	general	N/A
<b>OOL</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	N/A
<b>FL</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	informal financial support

### Languages offered in primary education

<b>OOL</b>	Basque
<b>FL</b>	English: compulsory

## Languages in secondary education (No provision of immigrant languages)

### Organisation

	Curriculum	Extra support for newcomers	Diagnostic testing on entry	Monitoring of language skills
<b>OSL support</b>	coherent and explicit	before mainstream	immigrants only	national standardised

	Target groups	Curriculum	CLIL	Scheduling	Minimum group size requirements	Monitoring of language skills	Level to be achieved	State funding available
<b>OOL</b>	all	coherent and explicit	widespread	in school hours	none	national standardised	national or regional norms	full
<b>FL</b>	all	coherent and explicit	localised	in school hours	none	national standardised	linked to CEFR	full

### Teaching

	Teacher qualifications	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	Language level required	Mobility
<b>OSL support</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	general	linked to CEFR	N/A
<b>OOL</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	N/A	N/A
<b>FL</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	linked to CEFR	informal financial support

## Languages offered in secondary education

<b>OOL</b>	Basque
<b>FL</b> ( <i>languages in italics offered at upper secondary only</i> )	Compulsory: English, German Optional: <i>Arabic</i> , French, Italian, Russian, <i>Turkish</i>

In Basque Country, school is now far more important than family for the transmission of the Basque language. Basque is the language of instruction chosen by 60% of parents when deciding how their children will be educated, whether they speak Basque or not and whether Basque is alive in their area/town or not (moreover, 22% opt for a bilingual model and the rest, 18%, choose Basque as a school subject). In pre-primary education the percentage of parents who choose Basque for their children is even higher. As a result, Spanish monolinguals are about to become extinct amongst children under six.

The main problem concerning school is that children whose first language is Spanish identify Basque mainly with homework. They give up speaking Basque as soon as they are outside school. Usually, children from Spanish-speaking areas speak only Spanish at home or in the street, unless at least one of the parents is a Basque speaker. In such circumstances, they rarely feel confident or comfortable using the language learnt at school. Nevertheless, as mentioned above, school has become crucial in the revitalisation of the language.

In primary as well as secondary education a foreign language must be learned. Although the vast majority of schools offer English as first foreign language, other languages, such as French or German, can be learned too.

## Languages in further and higher education

### Further education (in three VET institutions) (No provision of immigrant languages)

		Range of language programmes	Curriculum	Level to be achieved	State funding available
<b>OOL</b>	<b>Institution A</b>	wide variety	coherent and explicit	N/A	full
	<b>Institution B</b>				
	<b>Institution C</b>	limited	no guidelines	N/A	full
<b>FL</b>	<b>Institution A</b>	limited	coherent and explicit	national	full
	<b>Institution B</b>	limited	general	none	full
	<b>Institution C</b>	limited	general	national	full

### Higher education (in two universities)

	Language(s) of instruction	Languages on website	Target groups for additional support in the national language	Level to be achieved in foreign language instruction	Recruitment of non-national students	Mobility for language students	Mobility for non-language students
<b>University A</b>	national, foreign and R/M	national, foreign and R/M	restricted	national or institution-based	only native speakers of national language	no offer	optional
<b>University B</b>	national, foreign and R/M	national, foreign and R/M	none	none	only international	no offer	optional

45% of students at the University of the Basque Country currently study in Basque. As a result, the status of Basque in the university sector is much better now compared to thirty years ago. At graduate and especially postgraduate levels, English is increasingly introduced into study programmes.

In vocational education multilingual profiles are also emerging, but at a slower rate. For instance, Basque is chosen as a language for instruction by only 25% of students.

## Languages in audiovisual media and press

Non-national language TV productions	Non-national language films in cinema	R/ML programmes outside of region	Availability of sign language on TV
dubbed	dubbed	sometimes	sometimes

In Basque Country there is one country-wide newspaper and there are nearly 50 regional or local magazines published entirely in Basque. There are also two public television channels which broadcast exclusively in Basque (and some local channels are the same). The presence of other languages, apart from Basque and Spanish, in publications accessible to Basque citizens is growing but still reflects a moderate interest in foreign languages.

## Languages in public services and spaces

### Institutionalised language strategies at city level

N languages	Website presence	Use of interpreters	Language competencies in job descriptions	Recruitment of speakers of languages	Language training offered to employees	Record of language skills of employees
>4						
3-4	Vitoria-Gasteiz					
1-2	Donostia-San Sebastian Bilbao	Donostia-San Sebastian Vitoria-Gasteiz Bilbao	Donostia-San Sebastian Vitoria-Gasteiz Bilbao	Donostia-San Sebastian Vitoria-Gasteiz Bilbao	Donostia-San Sebastian Vitoria-Gasteiz Bilbao	Donostia-San Sebastian Vitoria-Gasteiz Bilbao

### Communication facilities

Top five oral communication facilities	Top five written communication facilities
Legal Immigration and integration Tourism Transport = Educational = Emergency = Health = Social = Political debates and decision making	Immigration and integration Transport Tourism Education Theatre

Public services are commonly offered in Spanish and Basque, the two official languages of Basque Country. In some cases (such as, translation services and primary attention to immigrants) other languages are also used, such as English, French, Arabic, Chinese, Russian, Georgian or Wolof.

## Languages in business (out of 20 companies)

GENERAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES								
	Availability of language strategy	Emphasis on language skills in recruitment	International mobility provision	Use of external translators/interpreters	Staff records of language skills	Use of networks for language training	Use of EU programmes/funding	Awareness of EU programmes/funding
<b>Widely practised</b>	6	14	8	8	1	5	3	0

		INTERNAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES						EXTERNAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES			
		Partnerships with education sector	Reward/promotion schemes based on language skills	Language training provision	Use of CEFR	Language used for workplace documents/intranet	Language used for software, web programmes	Language used for annual/business reports	Language used for marketing	Language used for branding/identity	Language used for website
<b>OSL</b>	widely practised	1	0	2	3	20	19	19	20	19	18
<b>Business English</b>	widely practised	3	1	10	5	5	8	9	4	8	11
<b>Additional languages</b>	widely practised	4	1	6	2	3	1	2	9	8	10

Basque companies are trying to integrate language-management practices into their daily work. This aspect of their business strategy goes far beyond official bilingualism, as other languages (mainly, but not exclusively, English) are absolutely necessary for their relationships with companies all over the world. An aspect that should be improved is the promotion of language competencies among employees.



## Key findings overall

Basque Country exhibits comparatively strong multilingual profiles in primary and secondary education for Spanish, Basque and the main foreign languages (with English in top position). However, immigrant languages have a very weak or non-existent status in the educational system.

In higher education, printed media, public services and private companies, multilingual profiles are emerging at quite a fast rate. This should be improved and consolidated in the future by the development of an adequate educational basis oriented towards multilingualism.

## Promising initiatives and pilots

Multilingualism is a challenge for a society which is far from being 100% bilingual. The gradual move towards a bilingual society must therefore be combined with the growing need and demand for multilingual strategies. One of these strategies is already on track: a pilot has been developed to introduce a trilingual framework into primary and secondary education. Around 120 schools have adopted this new framework, which will probably be extended to the entire educational system.

Within the realm of new technologies, a big effort is currently being directed towards creating a machine-translation system that can translate texts and websites from Spanish and English to Basque and vice versa. This new tool will be based on a powerful grammatical analyser and a large public repository of translation memories.

The goal of these (and other) initiatives is not easy to achieve but it is, at the same time, a very attractive one: to develop and strengthen multilingual profiles in a society that wants and tries to increase the use of Basque, the sociolinguistically weakest language.

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# 17 SWITZERLAND

Raphael Berthele, Bernhard Lindt-Bangerter, Susanne Obermayer

## Country context

Switzerland is a parliamentary confederation. It comprises 26 cantons and, as of 2010, it numbered 7.9 million inhabitants. As federated states with their own constitutions, the cantons are endowed with a great deal of autonomy. In particular, the educational system is cantonally organised; as a consequence, the school systems often differ considerably between cantons. At present, efforts to harmonise the systems are in progress, as stipulated by both a constitutional article from 2006 and by an agreement to harmonise compulsory school (see below).

In Switzerland, four languages have traditionally been spoken in relatively homogeneous territories: German, French, Italian and Rhaeto-Romanic. The first three languages have been national languages since the foundation of the Confederation in 1848; the latter since 1938. A *Law on Languages*, in effect since 2010, regulates the use and promotion of languages and enhances the status of Rhaeto-Romanic as one of the official languages. The status of the Alemannic dialects – the first language of the majority of Swiss – has not yet been clarified. While UNESCO has placed the Swiss-German dialects amongst the world's vulnerable languages, educational institutions tend to restrict their use. The Italian dialects in Ticino are increasingly being replaced by standard Italian, and the Franco-Provençal varieties spoken in Western Switzerland have become moribund.

Each canton is responsible for defining its official language. Of the 26 cantons, 17 have designated German as the official language, four French and one Italian. Three cantons are officially bilingual (French, German), and one canton is trilingual (German, Rhaeto-Romanic, Italian). In addition, there are several officially bilingual municipalities at the German-French language border. The trilingual canton of Graubünden represents a linguistically unique situation. The minority language Rhaeto-Romanic has been losing ground for centuries; the *lingua franca* German increasingly threatens the richness and vitality of Switzerland's fourth language. In the attempt to secure a Rhaeto-Romanic-speaking territory, Graubünden has issued a new cantonal language law with new provisions. Now, a municipality is considered monolingual if 40% of its population speaks Rhaeto-Romanic, and multilingual if 20% do. Furthermore, in Rhaeto-Romanic areas, the local dialect is the exclusive language spoken at nurseries and in the first years of primary school.

According to the national census in the year 2000, 63.7% of the population spoke German as their main language, 20.4% French, 6.5% Italian, 0.5% Rhaeto-Romanic and 9% a non-official language. Approximately 30% of the population has an immigrant background, meaning they or their parents

immigrated to Switzerland. Roughly one-third of these are naturalised Swiss citizens. The most widely represented languages in order of frequency are: German, French, Italian, Bosnian/Croatian/Serbian, Albanian, Portuguese, Spanish, English, Turkish and Tamil (source: 2000 census). The linguistic integration of immigrants who speak a foreign language is a major focus of current federal policies (including language courses in the regional languages).

## Languages in official documents and databases

All four national languages (that is, French, German, Italian and Rhaeto-Romanic), foreign languages, and immigrant languages are dealt with in language legislation and/or language policy documents. The learning and teaching of the national languages abroad for children and/or adults originating from Switzerland is (co)funded in more than 20 countries in Europe and abroad. The *European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages* has been signed by government and ratified by parliament in Switzerland. The following languages are recognised in the Charter: Italian and Rhaeto-Romanic at the federal level, French in the canton of Bern, German in Bosco-Gurin, Ederswiler, and the cantons of Fribourg and Valais, and Yiddish, Yenish, and Walser. There is official provision in nation- or region-wide education, supported by the Charter, for Rhaeto-Romanic and Italian.

Since 2010, official nationwide data collection mechanisms on language diversity in Switzerland exist in terms of yearly updated register data (STATPOP). In these data collection mechanisms, national, R/M and immigrant language varieties are addressed based on three different language questions, i.e., (1) 'what is your main language, i.e. the language you think in and know best?', (2) 'what language(s) do you habitually speak at home, with your family?', and (3) 'what language(s) do you habitually speak at work/at your educational establishment?'.  
 (1) main language, i.e. the language you think in and know best?  
 (2) what language(s) do you habitually speak at home, with your family?  
 (3) what language(s) do you habitually speak at work/at your educational establishment?

Up to the year 2000, Switzerland carried out a census to collect data on all residents. As of 2010, only random sampling will be done, which excludes statements on the level of the individual municipalities and which is particularly problematic for assessing the vitality of Rhaeto-Romanic.

**NL=National Language(s)**  
**FL=Foreign Languages**  
**R/ML=Regional or Minority Languages**  
**IL=Immigrant Languages**

## Languages in pre-primary education

**Zurich (No provision of R/M and foreign languages)**

**Geneva (No provision of R/M, foreign and immigrant languages)**

**Ticino (No provision of any language education)**

		Target groups	Duration	Minimum group size requirements	Days per week	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	State funding available
<b>IL</b>	<b>Zurich</b>	native speakers only	1 year	none	<0.5 day	general	subject-specific	partial
<b>Additional NL support</b>	<b>Zurich</b>	immigrant children only	≥2 years	none	0.5–1 day	subject-specific	none	full
	<b>Geneva</b>	all	≥2 years	none	0.5–1 day	subject-specific	subject-specific	full

## Languages offered in pre-primary education

<b>IL</b>	<p>In Zurich: Albanian, Arabic, Bosnian, Chinese, Croatian, Finnish, French, Greek, Hungarian, Italian, Korean, Portuguese, Portuguese (Brazil), Russian, Slovenian, Spanish (Latin America), Turkish</p> <p>In Geneva: Albanian, Arabic, Italian, Portuguese, Spanish and Turkish</p>
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In its promotion of language skills in pre-primary education, the authorities focus clearly on a given region's official language. In current educational policy, children generally attend nursery for two years and, as a rule, language integration takes place through immersion. In nurseries with a high percentage of children who speak a foreign language, lesson sequences in small groups and with special language-learning modules are offered.

In the coming years, the specific measures promoting integration should increasingly support projects which provide early (preschool) intervention to help children with an immigration background learn the local language.

## Languages in primary education

## Organisation

		Curriculum	Extra support for newcomers	Diagnostic testing on entry	Monitoring of language skills
NL support	Zurich	coherent and explicit	before mainstream	immigrants only	school-based
	Geneva	coherent and explicit	before mainstream	absent	national standardised
	Ticino	general	before mainstream	immigrants only	absent

		Target groups	Curriculum	CLIL	Start of language education	Scheduling	Minimum group size requirements	Monitoring of language skills	Level to be achieved	State funding available
Other NL	Zurich	all	coherent and explicit	absent	from mid-phase	in school hours	none	national standardised	national or regional norms	full
	Geneva	all	coherent and explicit	absent	from year 1	in school hours	none	school-based	national or regional norms	full
	Ticino	all	coherent and explicit	absent	from mid-phase	in school hours	none	school-based	school norms	full
FL	Zurich	all	coherent and explicit	absent	from year 1	in school hours	none	national standardised	linked to CEFR	full
	Geneva	all	coherent and explicit	absent	from year 1	in school hours	none	school-based	national or school norms	full
	Ticino	all	coherent and explicit	absent	from mid-phase	in school hours	none	school-based	national or school norms	full
IL	Zurich	native speakers only	general	localised	from year 1	partly in school hours	none	school-based	not specified	partial
	Geneva	No provision								
	Ticino	No provision								

## Teaching

		Teacher qualifications	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	Mobility
NL support	Zurich	general teachers	subject-specific	none	N/A
	Geneva	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	N/A
	Ticino	general teachers	general	none	N/A
Other NL	Zurich	general teachers	general	none	N/A
	Geneva	general teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	N/A
	Ticino	general teachers	general	none	N/A
FL	Zurich	general teachers	subject-specific	none	incorporated into training
	Geneva	general teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	incorporated into training
	Ticino	general teachers	general	none	incorporated into training
IL	Zurich	general teachers	general	subject-specific	N/A
	Geneva	No provision			
	Ticino	No provision			

## Languages offered in primary education

Other NL	German, French, Italian
FL	In Zurich: English and French compulsory In Geneva: English and German compulsory In Ticino: French compulsory
IL	In Zurich: Albanian, Arabic, Bosnian, Bulgarian, Chinese, Croatian, Finnish, French, Greek, Hungarian, Italian, Korean, Kurdish, Portuguese, Russian, Serbian, Slovenian, Spanish, Swedish, Turkish In Geneva: Albanian, Arabic, Italian, Portuguese, Spanish, and Turkish

In Switzerland, compulsory schooling lasts nine years. After the seventh year, the majority of cantons have two or three different categories based on academic ability. Students generally enter higher secondary school (Gymnasium) after the eighth or ninth class.

Teaching a second national language is a traditional part of compulsory schooling. The past few years, however, have seen language teaching undergo major reforms: an agreement (*HarmoS*) between a majority of the cantons has been drawn up with the aim of harmonising both the sequence of subjects taught and the educational goals. The concrete changes to language teaching are that alongside a second official language for all students, English must be taught. In addition, the first foreign language must have been introduced by the third class at the latest; the second foreign language by the fifth class. In future, German will be the first foreign language taught in French-speaking Switzerland and in areas of Graubünden where Rhaeto-Romanic or Italian are the regional languages; French will be the first foreign language in Italian-speaking Ticino and in many German-speaking cantons in western Switzerland. In the German-speaking territories of Graubünden, Italian will be the first foreign language, while a majority of the German-speaking cantons in central and eastern Switzerland will introduce English as the first foreign language. The fact that a part of German-speaking Switzerland has chosen English over the national language French has given rise to a great deal of criticism.

The stated aim of *HarmoS* is that students achieve comparable language skills in both foreign languages during their compulsory schooling. Educational standards for all languages taught are currently being drafted.

As a general rule, the promotion and cultivation of the first language of children with immigration backgrounds is the responsibility of the nations concerned and private organisations are also at times involved. The Conference of Cantonal Ministers of Education recommends that the cantons support Heritage Language and Culture courses. In most cantons, school infrastructures (such as classrooms) are provided for these courses, and some German-speaking cantons accredit them provided they adhere to a prescribed framework curriculum. In these cantons, there are various forms of co-operation between regular and heritage language teachers, as well as integrated instruction.

## Languages in secondary education

### Organisation

		Curriculum	Extra support for newcomers	Diagnostic testing on entry	Monitoring of language skills
NL support	Zurich	coherent and explicit	before mainstream	absent	school-based
	Geneva	coherent and explicit	before mainstream	absent	national standardised
	Ticino	coherent and explicit	before mainstream	absent	school-based

		Target groups	Curriculum	CLIL	Scheduling	Minimum group size requirements	Monitoring of language skills	Level to be achieved	State funding available
Other NL	Zurich	all	coherent and explicit	localised	in school hours	none	national standardised	national or regional norms	full
	Geneva	all	coherent and explicit	localised	in school hours	none	national standardised	national or regional norms	full
	Ticino	all	coherent and explicit	localised	in school hours	none	school-based	school norms	full
FL	Zurich	all	coherent and explicit	localised	in school hours	none	national standardised	linked to CEFR	full
	Geneva	all	coherent and explicit	localised	in school hours	none	national standardised	linked to CEFR	full
	Ticino	all	coherent and explicit	localised	in school hours	none	school-based	national or school-based norms	full
IL	Zurich	native speakers only	general	localised	partly in school hours	none	school-based	national or regional norms	partial
	Geneva	native speakers only	general	widespread	outside school hours	none	school-based	no norms	partial
	Ticino	No provision							

## Teaching

		Teacher qualifications	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	Language level required	Mobility
<b>NL support</b>	<b>Zurich</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	none	linked to CEFR	N/A
	<b>Geneva</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	national or school-based norms	N/A
	<b>Ticino</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	none	linked to CEFR	N/A
<b>Other NL</b>	<b>Zurich</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	none	N/A	N/A
	<b>Geneva</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	N/A	N/A
	<b>Ticino</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	none	N/A	N/A
<b>FL</b>	<b>Zurich</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	linked to CEFR	informal financial support
	<b>Geneva</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	national or regionwide standards	informal financial support
	<b>Ticino</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	none	national or regionwide standards	informal financial support
<b>IL</b>	<b>Zurich</b>	general teachers	general	subject-specific	N/A	N/A
	<b>Geneva</b>	language teachers	general	general	N/A	N/A
	<b>Ticino</b>	No provision				

## Languages offered in secondary education

<b>Other NL</b>	German, French, Italian
<b>FL</b>	English, Greek, Latin, Spanish: 1-2 of these languages is/are compulsory
<b>IL</b>	In Zurich: Albanian, Bosnian, Chinese, Croatian, Croatian, Finnish, French, Greek, Hungarian, Italian, Korean, Kurdish, Portuguese, Russian, Serbian, Slovene, Spanish, Swedish, Turkish In Geneva: Albanian, Arabic, Italian, Portuguese, Spanish and Turkish

The teaching of national and foreign languages and the promotion of plurilingualism continues to be a major preoccupation of the cantonal and federal authorities in secondary education. As a rule, two foreign languages (generally another national language and English) are compulsory for all pupils until the end of higher secondary education. At the end of upper secondary school, pupils are expected to have attained level B2 according to the Council of Europe's *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages*.

Many higher secondary schools offer bilingual curricula. The predominant language combination is the regional official language and English, especially in German-speaking Switzerland. For pupils with an immigration background there is also the possibility of extracurricular courses in immigrant languages, organised by these language communities, but often supported by local school authorities.

## Languages in further and higher education

## Further education (in three VET institutions) (No provision of immigrant languages)

		Range of language programmes	Curriculum	Level to be achieved	State funding available
Other NL	Institution A	wide variety	coherent and explicit	N/A	partial
	Institution B	wide variety	coherent and explicit	N/A	full
	Institution C	wide variety	coherent and explicit	N/A	full
FL	Institution A	wide variety	coherent and explicit	national	partial
	Institution B	wide variety	coherent and explicit	linked to CEFR	full
	Institution C	wide variety	coherent and explicit	linked to CEFR	full

## Higher education (in three universities)

	Language(s) of instruction	Languages on website	Target groups for additional support in the national language	Level to be achieved in foreign language instruction	Recruitment of non-national students	Mobility for language students	Mobility for non-language students
University A	national, other national and foreign	national, other national and foreign	all	linked to CEFR	international and immigrant	optional	optional
University B	national, other national and foreign	national, other national and foreign	all	none	international and immigrant	optional	optional
University C	national, other national and foreign	national, other national and foreign	restricted	linked to CEFR	only international	optional	optional

Switzerland has a comparatively low percentage of students who acquire a university entry qualification. This is because a great deal of value is placed on high-quality vocational training. In vocational programmes, apprentices work in a company or trade while attending a so-called vocational school one or two days per week, with a very diverse degree of focus on the promotion of the regional official language or of foreign languages. Within commercial training programmes, for example, language is given a prominent role (a second official language plus English are compulsory), whereas in professions requiring primarily manual labour, foreign languages are only very perfunctorily treated, if at all. Therefore, it is impossible to make general statements on the treatment of foreign languages in vocational education.



## Languages in audiovisual media and press

Non-national language TV productions	Non-national language films in cinema	R/ML programmes outside of region	Availability of sign language on TV
dubbed	subtitled	always	regularly

National radio and television programmes from the various language regions are broadcast throughout the whole of Switzerland. Programmes of comparable quality are broadcast on the same terms within the four language regions. There is a considerable redistribution of licence fee income to the regional companies of the minority language regions in order to support and promote linguistic and cultural diversity.

In addition, most households have cable – or internet television – and thereby have access to numerous additional domestic and foreign programmes in diverse languages. It must, however, be noted that most television and radio consumers prefer broadcasts in their own language.

Although print media in the national and many foreign languages are available throughout the country, they are mainly read by the respective language communities.

## Languages in public services and spaces

### Institutionalised language strategies at city level

N languages	Website presence	Use of interpreters	Language competencies in job descriptions	Recruitment of speakers of languages	Language training offered to employees	Record of language skills of employees
>4		Zurich Geneva	Zurich			
3–4	Geneva Lugano	Lugano	Lugano			
1–2	Zurich		Geneva	Zurich Geneva	Zurich	

### Communication facilities

Top five oral communication facilities	Top five written communication facilities
Education Health Social Legal Immigration and integration	Educational Legal Immigration and integration Tourism Transport

In the Federal Administration, the percentage of employees from one of the official language communities is proportional to the overall population. Nonetheless, there are hierarchical disparities, with a partial underrepresentation of the national minorities in executive roles. Moreover, deficiencies were observed regarding the advancement of individual multilingualism of employees in the Federal Administration. Immigrant minority languages are also clearly underrepresented in the Federal Administration.

Traditionally the army has been an important national site where the various linguistic communities, especially the smaller ones, were able to use their respective languages. In the recent past, the troop size of the Swiss army was reduced considerably, which entailed an increase in linguistically mixed groups (the army used to be organised territorially and thus largely in monolingual groups, in correspondence with the traditional principle of territoriality). In the absence of a coherent language policy in the army, this development gives rise to fears of *Germanisation* in the national minority groups, since mixed groups tend to function in the majority language, German.

## Languages in business (out of 32 companies)

GENERAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES								
	Availability of language strategy	Emphasis on language skills in recruitment	International mobility provision	Use of external translators/interpreters	Staff records of language skills	Use of networks for language training	Use of EU programmes/funding	Awareness of EU programmes/funding
<b>Widely practised</b>	8	23	4	5	0	3	0	0

		INTERNAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES						EXTERNAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES			
		Partnerships with education sector	Reward/promotion schemes based on language skills	Language training provision	Use of CEFR	Language used for workplace documents/intranet	Language used for software, web programmes	Language used for annual/business reports	Language used for marketing	Language used for branding/identity	Language used for website
<b>NL</b>	widely practised	4	0	5	2	30	28	29	29	32	28
<b>Business English</b>	widely practised	3	1	6	2	11	7	4	7	13	10
<b>Additional languages</b>	widely practised	3	0	3	1	7	3	7	5	11	13

Major factors for businesses to place value on language skills can be linked to the individual branch, the clientele and an individual's role in the company's hierarchy. While the present study is only able to mirror this statement to a very limited degree, the data obtained does confirm larger studies which reveal that other national languages continue to occupy an important position in the professional world. These studies have also indicated that one cannot speak of a general, but rather a sectoral and local displacement of the regional language in favour of English. Many smaller businesses in all parts of the country are monolingual.

## Key findings overall

In compulsory education, the strong economic relevance of English has led to competition with the official languages not spoken in a given region. The situation weakens the position of smaller official languages, especially Italian. Indeed Rhaeto-Romanic and Italian are barely represented in school settings or in public life outside their own territory.

The progress of integration and valorisation of original languages spoken by immigrants is unsatisfactory, both at school and in society.

## Promising initiatives and pilots

The *Schweizer Institut für Kinder- und Jugendmedien* promotes family literacy. Their project *Schenk mir eine Geschichte* (loosely translated as 'tell me a story') specifically addresses immigrant families and encourages them to cultivate their own languages ([www.sikjm.ch/d/?/d/lesefoerderung/projekte/family\\_literacy.html](http://www.sikjm.ch/d/?/d/lesefoerderung/projekte/family_literacy.html)).

*Ch Foundation* is an important contact point for language exchange programmes in Switzerland and abroad for school pupils, trainees and university students. It is for the most part financed by the Confederation and the cantons ([www.chstiftung.ch/](http://www.chstiftung.ch/)).

The canton Basel-Stadt initiated an overarching language concept for schools, which acknowledges the roles of the various languages: German as the main language, the taught foreign languages, and the original languages of children with an immigration background (<http://sdu.edubs.ch/faecher/fremdsprachen/herkunftssprachen>).

The *Forum du bilinguisme* in the bilingual city of Biel/Bienne supports projects that promote multilingualism. For example, the organisation awards a 'label of bilingualism' to companies that practice a culture of bilingualism ([www.bilinguisme.ch/](http://www.bilinguisme.ch/)).

Several academic institutions perform applied research in the area of multilingualism. These include the *Osservatorio linguistico della Svizzera italiana* and the *Fachstelle für Mehrsprachigkeit* at the University of Teacher Education Graubünden. Both institutions observe the current situation regarding language policy in Italian- and Rhaeto-Romanic-speaking Switzerland and formulate calls for action. The *Research Centre on Multilingualism* in Fribourg/Freiburg, which receives funds from the Confederation, co-ordinates research at academic institutions on institutional and individual multilingualism ([www4.ti.ch/index.php?id=38747](http://www4.ti.ch/index.php?id=38747); [www.phgr.ch/Mehrsprachigkeit.404.0.html?&L=0](http://www.phgr.ch/Mehrsprachigkeit.404.0.html?&L=0); [www.institute-multilingualism.ch/en](http://www.institute-multilingualism.ch/en)).

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# 18 UKRAINE

Lyubov Naydonova

## Country context

As of 1 October 2011 the population of Ukraine was 45.7 million (according to the State Statistics Service of Ukraine). According to the national census in 2001 Ukraine was inhabited by representatives of more than 130 nationalities and ethnic groups with Ukrainians accounting for 77.8% of the population. The largest minority group was Russian and comprised 8.3 million people (17.3% of the country's population). All other large ethnolinguistic minorities together are estimated at less than 2.4 million people (4.9% of the Ukrainian population), with each of them containing less than 300,000 people.<sup>1</sup>

Pursuant to the 1989 *Law on Languages* and the 1996 *Constitution* the state language is Ukrainian. The most widespread languages in Ukraine are Ukrainian and Russian. Ukraine is regionally divided into a predominantly Ukrainian-speaking West and mainly Russian-speaking East, while in the central regions Russian dominates in large cities and Ukrainian in small towns and villages. The most populated towns and cities are situated in eastern Ukraine, which influenced the peculiarity of choosing Lviv for the three-municipal form of research as the largest city among the cities and towns of Ukrainian-speaking West.

The linguistic landscape of Ukraine is determined by the fact that Russian, which is not a state language, is used by the majority of the population including those people belonging to the other minorities. In 2001, 67.5% of Ukrainian inhabitants acknowledged Ukrainian to be their mother tongue while 29.6% considered their mother tongue to be Russian. According to recent sociological data<sup>2</sup>, communication in Ukrainian is decreasing, while communication in Russian is increasing.

The language issue regarding the balance between Ukrainian and Russian is at the centre of heated public debate. The extended usage of Ukrainian means an inevitable narrowing of those fields where Russian is used. Earlier there was a long-term process of forcing Ukrainian language out of usage in favour of Russian. The renewal of the status of Ukrainian is officially supported but the actual status of Russian in society remains strong. Reaching an appropriate balance between Ukrainian and Russian is a crucial task for the current social and political processes in Ukraine.

The level of immigration to Ukraine is rather high with more than 30,000 people coming to the country every year.<sup>1</sup> Immigrants living in Ukraine are considered to be minorities as far as language issues are concerned. Most often newly arrived immigrants learn Ukrainian (more seldom) or Russian (more often) or use English.

## Languages in official documents and databases

The national language, foreign languages and a whole range of R/M languages are dealt with in language legislation and/or language policy documents. The learning and teaching of the national language abroad for children and/or adults originating from Ukraine is (co-)funded in 15 countries in Europe and abroad. The *European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages* has been signed and ratified by Ukraine. The following 13 R/M languages are recognised in the Charter: Belarusian, Bulgarian, Crimean-Tatar, Gagauz, German, Greek, Hungarian, Moldovan, Polish, Romanian, Russian, Slovak and Yiddish. There is official provision in nation- or regionwide education, supported by the Charter, for all of these languages.

Official nationwide data collection mechanisms on language diversity in Ukraine exist in terms of census data and periodically updated survey data. In these data collection mechanisms, national and R/M language varieties are addressed, based on a mother tongue question.

In 1996 Ukraine signed the *European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages* which became valid on 1 January 2003. The main authority responsible for the issues of minorities is the *State Committee on Nationalities and Religions*. According to information provided by the government language issues are officially monitored in Ukraine. Ukraine submitted its first periodic report on the implementation of the Charter to the Council of Europe in August 2007. The report's conclusions were accepted by the Committee of Experts on 27 November 2008 and the corresponding recommendations were approved in July 2010.<sup>3</sup> Language issues are systematically studied by scientific institutions. The results of social and sociolinguistic research are published in print and electronic mass media and are widely available.

**NL=National Language(s)**  
**FL=Foreign Languages**  
**R/ML=Regional or Minority Languages**  
**IL=Immigrant Languages**

## Languages in pre-primary education (No provision of immigrant languages)

	Target groups	Duration	Minimum group size requirements	Days per week	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	State funding available
<b>R/ML</b>	no support	≥2 years	>10	>1 day	subject-specific	subject-specific	full
<b>FL</b>	no support	≥2 years	>10	<0.5 day	subject-specific	general	partial
<b>Additional NL support</b>	all	≥2 years	none	>1 day	general	general	full

## Languages offered in pre-primary education

<b>R/ML</b>	Crimean Tatar, German, Hungarian, Moldovan, Polish, Romanian, Russian
<b>FL</b>	English, French, German, Spanish: one of these languages is compulsory

The Ukrainian educational system comprises about 15,000 pre-primary establishments and 21,000 schools where 84.6% of children are taught in Ukrainian, 14.8% are taught in Russian, and in the areas densely inhabited by the population of other nationalities about 6,500 children are taught in Hungarian, Moldavian, Romanian, Crimean Tatar and other languages. Pre-primary education in Belarusian, Gagauz and Greek is not provided. The authorities need to conduct more consultations with the speakers of these languages to better estimate the need for teaching children in the languages of their minorities and to ensure the training of teaching staff and provision of educational materials.

## Languages in primary education (No provision of immigrant languages)

### Organisation

	Curriculum	Extra support for newcomers	Diagnostic testing on entry	Monitoring of language skills
<b>NL support</b>	coherent and explicit	absent	absent	school-based

	Target groups	Curriculum	CLIL	Start of language education	Scheduling	Minimum group size requirements	Monitoring of language skills	Level to be achieved	State funding available
<b>R/ML</b>	all	coherent and explicit	widespread	from year 1	in school hours	none	school-based	national or regional norms	full
<b>FL</b>	all	coherent and explicit	localised	from mid-phase	partly in school hours	none	school-based	national or school norms	full

## Teaching

	Teacher qualifications	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	Mobility
<b>NL support</b>	general teachers	general	general	N/A
<b>R/ML</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	N/A
<b>FL</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	informal financial support

## Languages offered in primary education

<b>R/ML</b>	Belarusan, Bulgarian, Crimean Tatar, Gagauz, German, Greek, Hebrew, Hungarian, Moldovan, Polish, Romanian, Russian, Slovak
<b>FL</b>	Compulsory: English, German, French, Spanish: depending on the school, one or two of these languages are compulsory Optional: Korean, Turkish, Armenian, Czech, Vietnamese: optional, extracurricular languages

Formerly, foreign languages were taught from the fifth form but since 2002 learning has starting from the second form. From 2012 one foreign language will be obligatorily in primary school from the first form. From 1996 to 2006 the number of foreign language teachers for primary schools increased almost sixfold.

## Languages in secondary education (No provision of immigrant languages)

### Organisation

	Curriculum	Extra support for newcomers	Diagnostic testing on entry	Monitoring of language skills
<b>NL support</b>	coherent and explicit	absent	all	school-based

	Target groups	Curriculum	CLIL	Scheduling	Minimum group size requirements	Monitoring of language skills	Level to be achieved	State funding available
<b>R/ML</b>	all	coherent and explicit	widespread	in school hours	none	school-based	national or regional norms	full
<b>FL</b>	all	coherent and explicit	absent	in school hours	none	school-based	linked to CEFR	full

## Teaching

	Teacher qualifications	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	Language level required	Mobility
<b>NL support</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	national or school-based norms	N/A
<b>R/ML</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	N/A	N/A
<b>FL</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	national or regionwide standards	informal financial support

### Languages offered in secondary education

<b>R/ML</b>	Russian, Hungarian, Romanian, Moldovan, Crimean Tatar, Polish, German, Slovak, Belarusian, Bulgarian, Gagauz, Greek, Jewish
<b>FL</b>	English, German, French, Spanish: depending on the school, one or two of these languages are compulsory Korean, Turkish, Armenian, Czech, Vietnamese: optional, extracurricular languages

There are about 3.1 million children in secondary education and there are 16 foreign languages available for study, one or two of which are chosen for obligatory learning. More than 90% of schools make their choice in favour of English. Over the past years the number of English teachers has grown by more than a third (2008 compared to 1996).

The language of teaching in secondary schools is determined by the parents and in most cases they have a choice. Teaching in secondary schools using minority languages is well provided for when compared to the other levels of education. The prospects for further development create the conditions for teaching children in secondary schools using the Karaim, Krymchak and Romani languages.

### Languages in further and higher education

#### Further education (in three institutions) (No provision of R/M and immigrant languages)

		Range of language programmes	Curriculum	Level to be achieved	State funding available
<b>FL</b>	<b>Institution A</b>	limited	coherent and explicit	national	full
	<b>Institution B</b>	limited	general	national	full
	<b>Institution C</b>	limited	coherent and explicit	none	full

#### Higher education (in three universities)

	Language(s) of instruction	Languages on website	Target groups for additional support in the national language	Level to be achieved in foreign language instruction	Recruitment of non-national students	Mobility for language students	Mobility for non-language students
<b>University A</b>	national and foreign	national, foreign, R/M	all	linked to CEFR	international and immigrant	optional	optional
<b>University B</b>	national, foreign, R/M	national and foreign	all	national or institution-based	international and immigrant	optional	optional
<b>University C</b>	national only	national and foreign	all	national or institution-based	only international	optional	optional

Vocational education in Ukraine is provided in 919 state educational establishments using mostly Ukrainian. Thirty-nine educational facilities offer their students instruction in Russian (in 123 facilities the subjects are partially taught in Russian), and there is only one establishment where the subjects are taught in Hungarian. In universities, foreign languages, as well as the languages of minorities, are mainly taught as separate subjects.

## Languages in audiovisual media and press

	Non-national language TV productions	Non-national language films in cinema	R/ML programmes outside of region	Availability of sign language on TV
<b>Kyiv</b>	sometimes dubbed	dubbed	never	sometimes
<b>Kharkiv</b>	subtitled	dubbed	regularly	sometimes
<b>Lviv</b>	sometimes dubbed	sometimes dubbed	sometimes	sometimes

According to the public affairs service of the Ministry of Justice, in 2007 among the national publications printed, there were 4,390 registered printed periodicals in Ukrainian only, 2,495 publications in Russian and 35 publications in English. There were 4,389 registered mixed-form publications: the majority of them are in Russian and other languages, 13 are in Crimean Tatar and other languages, eight are in Bulgarian and other languages, ten are in Polish and other languages, five are in Romanian and other languages, 324 are in English and other languages, 28 are in German and other languages, eight are in French and other languages, two are in Chinese and other languages, and four are in Belarusian and other languages. The three cities selected for research do not show a great number of minority language publications, except for Russian.

The language situation in mass media is characterised by two peculiarities. The first is related to the correlation between the usage of Ukrainian and Russian where there is a considerable domination of Russian, especially with regard to the circulation of newspapers and magazines, the language of television programmes in prime-time, and the playlist of FM radio stations. The second is an evidently poor meeting of the language needs of other minority groups. Thus, television and radio broadcasting in minority languages (except for Russian) is provided only in five of the 26 oblasts of Ukraine. There still exists a widespread opinion going back to the Soviet times that groups speaking other languages have to meet their needs by accessing Russian language media space.

## Languages in public services and spaces

### Institutionalised language strategies at city level

N languages	Website presence	Use of interpreters	Language competencies in job descriptions	Recruitment of speakers of languages	Language training offered to employees	Record of language skills of employees
>4						
3-4		Kyiv Kharkiv Lviv		Kharkiv		Kyiv
1-2			Kharkiv Lviv	Lviv	Kyiv Kharkiv Lviv	Kharkiv



## Communication facilities

Top five oral communication facilities	Top five written communication facilities
Immigration and integration Transport Tourism Health Theatre	Tourism Immigration and integration Health Transport = Education = Emergency = Social = Legal = Theatre

In the field of law the state language is mainly used. Of the minority languages, Russian is used, especially in Eastern Ukraine. There is little information available regarding the use of translation to other languages if a person cannot speak either Ukrainian or Russian. Official documents at local government level are published in Ukrainian and Russian. Oral communication in state and public bodies is provided in other languages at the level of village councils in the areas of minority settlements. The use of Ukrainian by the representatives of ethnic minorities (except for Russian) in communication with the governmental authorities is fully provided for in those areas where the corresponding ethnic group represents the majority or a considerable part of the population and has representation in the government. In other cases such language requirements are rarely, if at all, met.

Euro 2012 in Ukraine promoted the introduction of English in public spaces and services, and furthered the development of agencies to render services to tourists speaking other languages.

## Languages in business (24 companies)

GENERAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES								
	Availability of language strategy	Emphasis on language skills in recruitment	International mobility provision	Use of external translators/interpreters	Staff records of language skills	Use of networks for language training	Use of EU programmes/funding	Awareness of EU programmes/funding
<b>Widely practised</b>	8	13	6	6	0	2	0	0

		INTERNAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES						EXTERNAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES			
		Partnerships with education sector	Reward/promotion schemes based on language skills	Language training provision	Use of CEFR	Language used for workplace documents/intranet	Language used for software, web programmes	Language used for annual/business reports	Language used for marketing	Language used for branding/identity	Language used for website
<b>NL</b>	widely practised	1	0	1	0	23	22	23	22	23	20
<b>Business English</b>	widely practised	2	0	6	1	9	15	11	5	11	12
<b>Additional languages</b>	widely practised	0	1	0	1	10	12	6	7	11	15

The information about language diversity in the commercial world is the least available. In regulations of enterprises there is no provision excluding or restricting the usage of regional languages or languages of minorities, at least among the people using the same language.

## Key findings overall

The language correlation currently existing in Ukraine is, on the one hand, the continuation of the process of total Russification, and, on the other hand, the reflection of the desire of the Ukrainian people for national and political self-awareness. Therefore, the usage of Ukrainian and Russian, which has become the subject of heated social and political debate, remains the central issue for language development. The controversy over the need to establish Ukrainian and the preservation of the usage of Russian needs to be strategically settled and legally regulated.<sup>4</sup> It concerns in particular fields such as mass media, education and social life. The development of other minority languages (except for Russian) requires both state support and an increase in the conscious aspiration of ethnic groups to preserve and develop their language, and, thus, demand to exercise their rights to the full extent of Ukrainian laws. Currently, immigrant languages are the least protected in Ukraine and require heightened attention on the part of state authorities and public organisations, as well as the furthering of their recognition in society.

Important initiatives for international relations and cultural development of Ukrainian minorities include the following: cultural and educational events aimed at creating tolerance, respect for culture, history, customs and traditions of the representatives of different nationalities; state financial support to newspapers published in the languages of minorities and rendering assistance to cultural centres; tourist routes to the areas densely inhabited by minority groups to broaden awareness of ethnic, cultural and language diversity and identity.

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# 19 UNITED KINGDOM

## 19.1 England

Teresa Tinsley and Philip Harding-Esch

### Country context

England has a population of 51.8 million people of which 16% belong to an ethnic minority group or are of mixed race.<sup>1</sup> It is favoured linguistically not only by having a major world language – English – as its official language but also by a very high degree of linguistic diversity – the latest survey in London found 233 distinct languages.<sup>2</sup> One in six primary school children (16.8%) and one in eight (12.3%) secondary were found to have another language besides English – nearly a million across England.<sup>3</sup>

England has only one recognised regional minority language – Cornish, used to some degree by several hundred people (2008).<sup>4</sup>

### Languages in official documents and databases

English, foreign languages, R/M languages and immigrant languages are dealt with in language legislation and/or language policy documents in England. The learning and teaching of English abroad for children and/or adults originating from the UK is (co-) funded in Belgium, Belize, Brunei, Canada, Cyprus, Falkland Islands, Germany, Gibraltar, Italy and the Netherlands. The *European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages* has been signed and ratified by the UK. In England, the R/M language recognised in the Charter is Cornish, for which there is also official provision in regionwide education.

Official UK-wide data collection mechanisms on language diversity in England exist in terms of periodically updated municipal register data, census data and survey data. In these data collection mechanisms, national, R/M and immigrant language varieties are addressed, based on a home language, and a main language question and a language proficiency question in terms of whether (and how well) this language can be spoken/understood/read/written.

There is little language legislation as such in England or the UK generally, beyond that relating to R/M languages. English, foreign languages, R/M languages and sign language have been dealt with in a range of language policy and guidance documents. In England, following the 2010 election many of these have been reviewed.

<sup>1</sup>Office for National Statistics, resident population estimates by ethnic group, 2009

<sup>2</sup>Language Capital: mapping the languages of London's schoolchildren, Eversley et al., CILT, 2011.

<sup>3</sup>Department for Education pupil data 2011.

<sup>4</sup>Report on the Cornish Language Survey, Cornish Language Partnership, 2008.

**NL=National Language(s)**  
**FL=Foreign Languages**  
**R/ML=Regional or Minority Languages**  
**IL=Immigrant Languages**

## Languages in pre-primary education (No provision of foreign and immigrant languages)

	Target groups	Duration	Minimum group size requirements	Days per week	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	State funding available
<b>R/ML</b>	all	≥2 years	none	<0.5 day	general	general	partial
<b>Additional NL support</b>	all	≥2 years	none	0.5–1 day	subject-specific	subject-specific	full

### Languages offered in pre-primary education

<b>R/ML</b>	Cornish in Cornwall
<b>FL</b>	Occasionally French, German, Italian, Spanish

All children from age four with limited attainment in English receive extra support from appropriately trained teachers. Foreign languages are occasionally taught at pre-primary level but teachers receive no special training. Cornish is taught informally in a small but increasing number of pre-primary schools.

## Languages in primary education (No provision of immigrant languages)

### Organisation

	Curriculum	Extra support for newcomers	Diagnostic testing on entry	Monitoring of language skills
<b>NL support</b>	coherent and explicit	before mainstream	all	national standardised

	Target groups	Curriculum	CLIL	Start of language education	Scheduling	Minimum group size requirements	Monitoring of language skills	Level to be achieved	State funding available
<b>R/ML</b>	all	coherent and explicit	absent	from year 1	outside school hours	5–10	national standardised	national or regional norms	partial
<b>FL</b>	all	coherent and explicit	localised	from mid-phase	in school hours	none	school-based	national or school norms	full

### Teaching

	Teacher qualifications	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	Mobility
<b>NL support</b>	general teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	N/A
<b>R/ML</b>	general teachers	none	subject-specific	N/A
<b>FL</b>	general teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	informal financial support

## Languages offered in primary education

R/ML	Cornish
FL	Optional. Any living language may be offered. In practice mainly French, Spanish and German, with some Chinese, Italian, Urdu.
IL	Urdu, Chinese, Turkish, for example

In 2000, following widespread public consultation, the *Nuffield Languages Inquiry*<sup>1</sup> recommended a series of measures including an early start to learning another language. This became one of the main planks of the *National Languages Strategy* for England launched by the Labour government in 2002. By 2010, following a far-reaching programme of curriculum development, support for schools, and teacher training, 92% of primary schools offered a foreign language. Although this was most commonly French, guidance strongly encouraged a holistic approach to developing language competence, making explicit links to literacy in English and other languages known by children. Foreign languages are usually taught by generalist teachers who have received pre-service and in-service training in language teaching; they are often supported by secondary school colleagues. Language learning in the majority of schools starts in the first year of primary school, at age seven, typically for 30–40 minutes per week.<sup>2</sup>

Although the *National Languages Strategy* was abandoned when the current government came to power, non-statutory guidelines remain available – the *Key Stage 2 Framework for Languages* (KS2) and most schools base their practice on this document. A consultation process on the national curriculum is currently under way and the advisory committee has recommended that from 2014 language learning should start at least by age nine. In June 2012 the government announced its intention to legislate for compulsory foreign language learning from the age of seven.

A flourishing voluntary *complementary* sector provides opportunities for children to learn languages spoken in their communities. This serves both primary and secondary school children (and earlier). A 2005 survey<sup>3</sup> found provision in after-school and Saturday classes for at least 61 languages. An innovative national programme, *Our Languages*, ran from 2008-2010 to promote and strengthen this provision and to draw it into contact with mainstream schools. Under this scheme any language may be offered in primary schools, and some languages of the wider world are taught, usually in areas with large minority populations and/or as part of ‘language taster’ and intercultural awareness programmes.

There has been funding through an *Ethnic Minority Achievement Grant* (EMAG) for language support for newcomers and bilingual pupils. Such support is offered outside and during mainstream classes and skills are monitored regularly. Since 2011 the EMAG has been ‘mainstreamed’ within general funding and there is some doubt as to how it will be used in future.

In Cornwall, approximately 30% of primary schools in the county offer Cornish, usually as an extra-curricular subject at KS2. Limited funding is available to support teachers and a coherent curriculum for Cornish is available with assessment linked to the CEFR.

<sup>1</sup>*Languages: the next generation. The final report and recommendations of The Nuffield Languages Inquiry*. London, 2000.

<sup>2</sup>*Language Learning at Key Stage 2: A longitudinal study*, DCSF Research Report RR198, Department for Children, Schools and Families, 2010.

<sup>3</sup>*Community Language Learning in England, Wales and Scotland*, CILT, 2005.

## Languages in secondary education (No provision of R/M languages)

### Organisation

	Curriculum	Extra support for newcomers	Diagnostic testing on entry	Monitoring of language skills
NL support	coherent and explicit	before mainstream	all	national standardised

	Target groups	Curriculum	CLIL	Scheduling	Minimum group size requirements	Monitoring of language skills	Level to be achieved	State funding available
FL	all	coherent and explicit	absent	in school hours	none	national standardised	linked to CEFR	full
IL	all	coherent and explicit	absent	partly in school hours	none	national standardised	no norms	partial

## Teaching

	Teacher qualifications	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	Language level required	Mobility
<b>NL support</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	national or school-based norms	N/A
<b>FL</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	national or regionwide standards	informal financial support
<b>IL</b>	unqualified	none	subject-specific	N/A	N/A

## Languages offered in secondary education

<b>FL</b>	One language compulsory up to age 14. Any living language, but with a recommendation that there should be suitable accreditation. The main languages on offer are French, German and Spanish, but also include Italian, Urdu, Arabic, Polish, Chinese, Russian, Portuguese, Turkish and Japanese
<b>IL</b>	Arabic, Chinese, Urdu, Polish, Portuguese, Turkish, Bengali and Panjabi

The situation of foreign languages in secondary schools in England has been a matter of concern for many years. Languages were compulsory until age 16 until 2004 when this was reduced to age 14. Numbers sitting a public examination have since fallen dramatically: in 2001, 78% of the cohort sat a GCSE exam in languages; this was just 43% in 2011. French and German have seen the biggest falls in numbers; however, Spanish and many of the lesser taught languages have become more popular. At ages 16-18, the numbers studying languages have remained steadier. This relative success is mainly due to the maintenance of language learning in independent schools, which educate around 7% of the school population in England, but account for over 40% of Advanced level entries in languages. This reveals a key concern for the future of language teaching in England – that of social inequality.

The current government is encouraging schools to prioritise languages by introducing the English Baccalaureate – an overarching form of certification for students who obtain good passes in five key subjects including a language other than English. The government's advisory panel on the national curriculum has recommended that additional language learning should again be made compulsory for all students up to the age of 16.

Languages are taught as subjects. There are also pilot and individual CLIL schemes which involve the use of another language as a medium of instruction.<sup>1</sup> There has been a clear curriculum, and skills are monitored using national instruments. These National Curriculum 'attainment target' descriptors are based on the *Languages Ladder* (DCSF 2007) which is aligned with the CEFR.

National examinations exist for 28 languages and many secondary schools facilitate access to these for pupils who have developed competence in them – usually outside mainstream school. An initiative developed as part of the National Languages Strategy – *Asset Languages* – successfully developed examinations in new languages such as Cornish, Tamil and Yoruba for which previously no examination existed.

In Cornwall, a small but increasing number of secondary schools offer Cornish, usually as an extra-curricular subject. There is no curriculum on offer to schools. There is some teaching of Welsh and Irish in urban centres such as London.

The standard English curriculum is usually used for English as a second language (EAL).<sup>2</sup> There is a diagnosis of English language skills before entering secondary education and skills are monitored regularly using age-appropriate standard instruments. The *Ethnic Minority Achievement Grant* has also been used for language support in secondary schools (see above – primary education)

<sup>1</sup> *Towards an integrated curriculum – CLIL national statement and guidelines*, 2009.

<sup>2</sup> Source: [www.naldic.org.uk/eal-teaching-and-learning/faqs](http://www.naldic.org.uk/eal-teaching-and-learning/faqs)

## Languages in further and higher education

## Further education (in three VET institutions) (No provision of R/M languages)

		Range of language programmes	Curriculum	Level to be achieved	State funding available
FL	Institution A	wide variety	coherent and explicit	national	partial
	Institution B	no specifications	coherent and explicit	national	partial
	Institution C	wide variety	coherent and explicit	national	partial
IL	Institution A				
	Institution B				
	Institution C	wide variety	coherent and explicit	N/A	partial

## Higher education (in three universities)

	Language(s) of instruction	Languages on website	Target groups for additional support in the national language	Level to be achieved in foreign language instruction	Recruitment of non-national students	Mobility for language students	Mobility for non-language students
University A	national only	national only	all	national or institution-based	international and immigrant	optional	optional
University B	national only	national only	all	national or institution-based	only international	obligatory	optional
University C	national only	national only	all	national or institution-based	international and immigrant	obligatory	optional

Although the three vocational institutions surveyed for Language Rich Europe provide language support, across England there is very little provision for languages alongside vocational courses. A survey in 2006 estimated that less than 1% of all students on vocational courses were studying a language. Those that were, were mainly studying Spanish in either Travel and Tourism or Business courses. A 2011 follow-up survey found that provision had declined even further and that very few attempts were being made in the sector to link languages to the world of work.<sup>1</sup>

English universities offer a wide range of languages as degree subjects or complementary modules. Traditional language and literary studies have always been strong in the older universities. There has, however, been a decline in language study over recent decades. Since 2005 languages have been designated 'strategically important and vulnerable subjects' in English universities. This means that they qualify for additional public funding to address declining national capacity. There is a lack of degree courses in the four most widely spoken community languages (the UK term for what LRE refers to as immigrant languages): Urdu, Cantonese, Punjabi and Bengali, and barriers to professional training in community languages for teaching, translation and interpreting have been identified as concerns.<sup>2</sup> The concentration of languages in the older universities, the narrow student class profile of language undergraduates, and the low incidence of courses combining languages with scientific and technological subjects are additional concerns in the sector.

<sup>1</sup> *Vocationally related language learning in further education*, CILT, 2006.

<sup>2</sup> *Community Languages in Higher Education*, McPake and Sachdev, Routes into Languages, 2008.

## Languages in audiovisual media and press (in two cities)

Non-national language TV productions	Non-national language films in cinema	R/ML programmes outside of region	Availability of sign language on TV
subtitled	subtitled	sometimes	regularly

The use of languages other than English is not prevalent in mainstream audiovisual media (such as radio and terrestrial television), although there are some relatively popular subtitled detective series; in the newer media, however – cable television, satellite, online – European and minority language television channels are widely available. There are also many community radio programmes available in English cities. Newspapers are available in a large repertoire of languages other than English especially in large cities. Foreign language films in the UK are invariably shown in the original language with subtitles in both cinema and on television. Sign language is regularly offered in important media events in all cities and broadcasters are required by law to cater for hearing-impaired viewers.

## Languages in public services and spaces

### Institutionalised language strategies at city level (two cities)

N languages	Website presence	Use of interpreters	Language competencies in job descriptions	Recruitment of speakers of languages	Language training offered to employees	Record of language skills of employees
>4	London Sheffield	London Sheffield	London	London Sheffield		London
3-4						
1-2						

### Communication facilities

Top five oral communication facilities	Top five written communication facilities
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>= Political debates and decision making</li> <li>= Education</li> <li>= Emergency</li> <li>= Health</li> <li>= Social</li> <li>= Legal</li> <li>= Immigration and integration</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>= Political debates and decision making</li> <li>= Education</li> <li>= Health</li> <li>= Social</li> <li>= Legal</li> <li>= Immigration and integration</li> <li>= Tourism</li> </ul>

In the cities surveyed, police, health services, courts and local government all make extensive use of translation and interpreting services, and both written and online information is made available in a variety of languages. The languages supported are defined by the languages of the communities being served.



Languages in business (out of 21 companies)

GENERAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES								
	Availability of language strategy	Emphasis on language skills in recruitment	International mobility provision	Use of external translators/interpreters	Staff records of language skills	Use of networks for language training	Use of EU programmes/funding	Awareness of EU programmes/funding
<b>Widely practised</b>	8	8	9	7	0	4	0	0

		INTERNAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES						EXTERNAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES			
		Partnerships with education sector	Reward/promotion schemes based on language skills	Language training provision	Use of CEFR	Language used for workplace documents/intranet	Language used for software, web programmes	Language used for annual/business reports	Language used for marketing	Language used for branding/identity	Language used for website
<b>English</b>	widely practised	3	2	10	0	21	21	21	21	19	21
<b>Additional languages</b>	widely practised	4	3	8	0	8	7	8	9	12	12

Estimation of skill needs by UK employers tends not to reveal a very strong demand for languages.<sup>1</sup> On the one hand this may be because many monolingual employers have a rather narrow perception of the value of languages to their business; on the other because those that do value language skills are able to recruit from a plentiful supply of multilingual foreign-born workers. However, employers' organisations such as the CBI regularly highlight the importance of language competence for competitiveness in the global economy, and a recent survey showed that only a quarter of British businesses had absolutely no need of skills in languages other than English.<sup>2</sup> Recent research on small- and medium-sized business approaches to exporting showed they regard language and associated cultural issues as one of the biggest barriers to doing business overseas.<sup>3</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Leitch Review of Skills, *Prosperity for all in the global economy: world class skills*, 2006.

<sup>2</sup>*Building for Growth: business priorities for education and skills*, CBI Education and Skills Survey, 2011.

<sup>3</sup>*The eXport factor, British SME's approach to doing business overseas*, Barclays and Kingston University, Small Business Research Centre, 2011.

## Key findings overall

England's lack of 'national capability' in languages has been a matter of considerable debate in recent years and in particular since the *Nuffield Languages Inquiry* of 2000. At policy level and in public discourse, languages are described as important, but in practice and provision there have been many fault lines. This is undoubtedly a reflection of the growing importance of English as a *lingua franca* and a continuing perception that 'English is enough' and that other languages are 'important but not essential'.<sup>1</sup> Despite this, there has been significant progress and innovation in introducing the early learning of other languages, in supporting community languages, and in promoting language competence to young people. Partly as a result of this, languages remain on the political agenda – the case is not closed.

## Promising initiatives and pilots

England has been particularly active in bringing forward evidence to demonstrate the need for languages and in developing coherent rationales for language learning.

The *National Languages Strategy* (2002–2011) was responsible for a number of key initiatives, especially the creation of a framework for language learning for ages seven to 11 (*The Key Stage 2 framework for languages*) and a new assessment framework (*The Languages Ladder/Asset languages*) based on the CEFR. It also supported links between mainstream and complementary schools such as the *Our Languages* initiative.

*Routes into Languages*, managed by the University of Southampton, has targeted secondary school students with messages about the importance of language learning through direct engagement with universities and student ambassadors. It has brought universities into contact with schools and developed some highly successful models of collaboration.

The 2011 report *Labour Market Intelligence on Languages and Intercultural Skills in Higher Education* (CILT) demonstrated the need for a wide range of languages across both public and private sectors in combination with different workplace skills.

In 2011 a new campaign was launched to support language learning - *Speak to the Future*. This has built a broad coalition of support around five key issues to promote the importance of language skills and bring about changes in policy and attitudes.

<sup>1</sup> *Languages in Europe – Towards 2020: Analysis and proposals from the LETPP consultation and review*, King et al., London, 2011.

# 19 UNITED KINGDOM

## 19.2 Wales

*Hywel Jones*

### Country context

Wales has a population of 3 million. In 2001, 20.8% (582,000) of them could speak Welsh, according to the census.

Conquered by England in 1282, the 1563 *Act of Union* banned those using the Welsh language from holding public office. The majority of the population of Wales continued to speak Welsh until late in the 19th century. Extensive immigration, mostly from England and Ireland due to the industrial revolution, coupled with the virtual exclusion of Welsh when compulsory education was introduced, led to a decline in the numbers and proportion of Welsh speakers, and a contraction of the area where Welsh was widely spoken. In 2001, 75,000 Welsh speakers lived in the three cities covered by our LRE research, representing 12% of their total population.

At the start of the 20th century Cardiff was the world's largest coal exporting port and seamen from other parts of the world established immigrant communities there as well as in Newport and Swansea. More recently immigrants have come from the Indian sub-continent and, since the expansion of the EU, from eastern Europe. 25% of the 2001 population were born outside Wales (20% in England).

The National Assembly for Wales was established in 1999. Its legislative powers were initially limited to secondary legislation in just some spheres, including education. Following the Government of Wales Act 2006 and a referendum held in March 2011 it now has primary legislative powers in many domestic policy areas.

### Languages in official documents and databases

English, Welsh and foreign languages are dealt with in language legislation and/or language policy documents. The learning and teaching of Welsh abroad for children and/or adults originating from Wales is not (co-)funded abroad. The *European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages* has been signed and ratified by the UK. There is official provision in education, supported by the Charter, for Welsh in Wales.

Official UK-wide data collection mechanisms on language diversity exist in terms of periodically updated census data, municipal register data, and survey data. In these data collection mechanisms, national, R/M and immigrant language varieties are addressed, based on a home language, a main language question, and a language proficiency question in terms of whether (and how well) these languages can be spoken/understood/read/written.

The first piece of legislation dealing with the status of the Welsh language in recent times was the *Welsh Courts Act* (1942) which permitted limited use of the language in courts. The *Welsh Language Act* 1967 guaranteed the right to use Welsh more widely in court and also provided for its use in public administration. The *Welsh Language Act* (1993) established the principle that in the conduct of public business and administration of justice in Wales, the English and Welsh languages should be treated on a basis of equality. That act established the *Welsh Language Board*, giving it the role of promoting and facilitating the use of Welsh and a statutory duty to agree and monitor the implementation of public bodies' Welsh language schemes. Those Welsh language schemes were to specify the measures the public bodies proposed to take so as to give effect to the act's principle of equality.

The *Welsh Language Measure* (2011) includes a declaration that 'the Welsh language has official status in Wales'. It provides for the establishment of a *Welsh Language Commissioner* and the abolition of the *Welsh Language Board* (see section on Promising Initiatives).

British Sign Language has been recognised as a language in its own right but there is no directly related legislation, nor is there any for foreign and immigrant languages, apart from legislation relating to education. Languages other than Welsh, when mentioned in legislation other than that dealing with education, are largely mentioned in connection with interpretation or translation facilities.

NL=National Language(s)  
 FL=Foreign Languages  
 R/ML=Regional or Minority Languages  
 IL=Immigrant Languages

## Languages in pre-primary education (No provision of foreign and immigrant languages)

	Target groups	Duration	Minimum group size requirements	Days per week	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	State funding available
R/ML	all	≥2 years	none	>1 day	subject-specific	subject-specific	full
<b>Additional NL support</b>	all	≥2 years	none	0.5–1 day	subject-specific	subject-specific	full

### Languages offered in pre-primary education

R/ML	Welsh
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Pre-primary education is not universally provided by the state; most of the provision comes from the voluntary sector. An organisation, now called *Mudiad Meithrin*, was formed in 1971 with the aim of providing Welsh medium nursery schools. They have over 550 playgroups, estimated at providing for around 17% of Wales's two year olds. Over two-thirds of the children attending their playgroups come from homes where Welsh is not the main language. Attendance at the playgroup is their introduction to the language.

## Languages in primary education (No provision of foreign and immigrant languages)

### Organisation

	Curriculum	Extra support for newcomers	Diagnostic testing on entry	Monitoring of language skills
<b>NL support</b>	general	before mainstream	all	school-based

	Target groups	Curriculum	CLIL	Start of language education	Scheduling	Minimum group size requirements	Monitoring of language skills	Level to be achieved	State funding available
R/ML	all	general	widespread	from year 1	in school hours	none	school-based	national or regional norms	full

### Teaching

	Teacher qualifications	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	Mobility
<b>NL support</b>	general teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	N/A
R/ML	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	N/A

## Languages offered in primary education

R/ML	Welsh
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Over 20% of pupils in primary school are educated through the medium of Welsh, a proportion which has been gradually increasing for many years. Welsh medium education is available throughout Wales. All other pupils are taught Welsh as a second language. Education through the medium of community languages (the preferred term in the UK for what LRE refers to as immigrant languages) or foreign languages is not available. Foreign languages are taught in some schools, as are immigrant languages to a lesser extent. English language support for ethnic minority pupils is also provided.

## Languages in secondary education (No provision of immigrant languages)

### Organisation

	Curriculum	Extra support for newcomers	Diagnostic testing on entry	Monitoring of language skills
<b>NL support</b>	coherent and explicit	before mainstream	all	national standardised

	Target groups	Curriculum	CLIL	Scheduling	Minimum group size requirements	Monitoring of language skills	Level to be achieved	State funding available
<b>R/ML</b>	all	coherent and explicit	widespread	in school hours	none	national standardised	not specified	full
<b>FL</b>	all	coherent and explicit	absent	in school hours	none	national standardised	not specified	full

### Teaching

	Teacher qualifications	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	Language level required	Mobility
<b>NL support</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	not specified	N/A
<b>R/ML</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	N/A	N/A
<b>FL</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	none	incorporated into training

## Languages offered in secondary education

R/ML	Welsh
FL	French, German, Spanish: one of these languages is compulsory

Welsh medium secondary education is also increasing. By 2010/11, 16.7% of pupils were being taught Welsh as a first language (nearly all in Welsh medium schools). All other pupils are taught Welsh as a second language although the level of achievement is low. All pupils are also taught at least one foreign language during their first three years in secondary school. The percentage proceeding to take a public examination in a modern foreign language when aged 15 has been falling for many years: 28% were entered for a GCSE examination in a modern foreign language in 2010, compared with 50% in 1997. Community languages are taught in little more than a handful of secondary schools and sporadically, depending on pupil numbers which can fluctuate according to trends in immigration. As in the primary sector, English-language support for ethnic minority pupils is provided.

## Languages in further and higher education

### Further education (in three VET institutions)

		Range of language programmes	Curriculum	Level to be achieved	State funding available
R/ML	Institution A	wide variety	coherent and explicit	N/A	partial
	Institution B	wide variety	coherent and explicit	N/A	partial
	Institution C	wide variety	coherent and explicit	N/A	partial
FL	Institution A	wide variety	coherent and explicit	linked to CEFR	partial
	Institution B	wide variety	coherent and explicit	linked to CEFR	partial
	Institution C	wide variety	coherent and explicit	linked to CEFR	partial
IL	Institution A				
	Institution B				
	Institution C	limited	general	N/A	full

### Higher education (in three universities)

	Language(s) of instruction	Languages on website	Target groups for additional support in the national language	Level to be achieved in foreign language instruction	Recruitment of non-national students	Mobility for language students	Mobility for non-language students
University A	national, foreign and R/M	national, foreign and R/M	all	national or institution-based	only international	obligatory	optional
University B	national, foreign and R/M	national, foreign and R/M	restricted	national or institution-based	only international	obligatory	optional
University C	national, foreign and R/M	national, foreign and R/M	restricted	national or institution-based	only international	no offer	optional

The three cities covered by our LRE research are where the large majority of immigrant communities are to be found. Even so, demand and provision for education in any particular community language is limited. The use of Welsh as a medium of tuition is much more limited in these sectors. In universities, Welsh medium provision, although still not extensive, is mainly concentrated in universities not covered by the research, namely in Bangor and Aberystwyth, as well as at the University of Wales Trinity St David, Carmarthen.

European Union domiciles accounted for 5% of all enrolments at Welsh higher education institutions in 2009/10 and non-EU overseas enrolments for another 13%. There is substantial provision for supporting these students in English.

## Languages in audiovisual media and press

Non-national language TV productions	Non-national language films in cinema	R/ML programmes outside of region	Availability of sign language on TV
subtitled	subtitled	always	sometimes

The use of Welsh in audio-visual media is limited to the sole Welsh-language television channel, S4C, (established in 1982) and largely to the national Welsh language radio service of BBC Radio *Cymru* (established in 1977).

Other languages have almost no presence at all in the mainstream audio-visual media outlets, beyond occasional subtitled films on television.

## Languages in public services and spaces

### Institutionalised language strategies at city level

N languages	Website presence	Use of interpreters	Language competencies in job descriptions	Recruitment of speakers of languages	Language training offered to employees	Record of language skills of employees
>4		Cardiff Swansea Newport				
3-4						
1-2	Cardiff Swansea		Cardiff Swansea Newport	Cardiff Swansea Newport	Cardiff Swansea Newport	Cardiff Swansea Newport

### Communication facilities

Top five oral communication facilities	Top five written communication facilities
Social Legal Immigration and integration Tourism Health	Social Tourism = Education = Health = Legal = Transport = Theatre

In local and central government and its agencies the existence of Welsh language schemes, required by the *Welsh Language Act* (1993), ensures the availability of a number of services in Welsh and the extensive use of Welsh, for example, on signage and forms. However, as the focus of the research is on three cities where the percentage of Welsh speakers is low compared to areas in the north and west of Wales, the provision of Welsh language services is also lower than it would be for areas with higher percentages of Welsh speakers. On the other hand, as these cities contain higher concentrations of immigrants, the use of interpretation services is probably greater than would be found elsewhere in Wales.

## Languages in business (out of 20 companies)

GENERAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES								
	Availability of language strategy	Emphasis on language skills in recruitment	International mobility provision	Use of external translators/interpreters	Staff records of language skills	Use of networks for language training	Use of EU programmes/funding	Awareness of EU programmes/funding
<b>Widely practised</b>	1	2	2	3	1	0	0	0

		INTERNAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES						EXTERNAL LANGUAGE STRATEGIES			
		Partnerships with education sector	Reward/promotion schemes based on language skills	Language training provision	Use of CEFR	Language used for workplace documents/intranet	Language used for software, web programmes	Language used for annual/business reports	Language used for marketing	Language used for branding/identity	Language used for website
<b>English</b>	widely practised	0	1	1	0	20	20	20	20	20	20
<b>Welsh</b>	widely practised	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	2	3	2
<b>Additional languages</b>	widely practised	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	3

Internal business use of languages other than English in the cities is limited but some use of Welsh is made on signage and in advertising.



## Key findings overall

Efforts continue to be made to ensure equality of treatment for Welsh and English in Wales. Good progress has been made in school education but much remains to be done elsewhere. Foreign and immigrant languages both have a relatively weak presence even in the school education.

## Promising initiatives and pilots

The *Coleg Cymraeg Cenedlaethol* (National Welsh Language College) was established in 2011. It is not a single geographical entity, nor a degree awarding body. It will work with and through all universities in Wales to deliver increased opportunities for students to study through the medium of Welsh.

Under the *Welsh Language Measure* (2011), a Welsh Language Commissioner was established in April 2012. The Commissioner has been given functions to promote and facilitate the use of Welsh; to work towards ensuring that Welsh is treated no less favourably than English, investigating interference with the freedom to use Welsh; and to conduct inquiries into related matters. The Commissioner has regard to 'the principle that persons in Wales should be able to live their lives through the medium of the Welsh language if they choose to do so'. The Welsh Ministers (in the National Assembly of Wales) must adopt a strategy setting out how they propose to promote and facilitate the use of Welsh. It also allows them to specify standards with which public bodies must comply. These standards will replace the current system of Welsh language schemes. The Commissioner will oversee the implementation of the standards.

The Welsh government published its new Welsh language strategy on 1 March 2012.

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*Welsh Language Act 1993*  
[www.legislation.gov.uk/ukpga/1993/38/pdfs/ukpga\\_19930038\\_en.pdf](http://www.legislation.gov.uk/ukpga/1993/38/pdfs/ukpga_19930038_en.pdf)

*Welsh Language (Wales) Measure 2011*  
[www.legislation.gov.uk/mwa/2011/1/pdfs/mwa\\_20110001\\_en.pdf](http://www.legislation.gov.uk/mwa/2011/1/pdfs/mwa_20110001_en.pdf)

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# 19 UNITED KINGDOM

## 19.3 Scotland

Teresa Tinsley and Philip Harding-Esch

### Country context

Scotland has a population of 5.22 million people of which 92,000, or just under 2%, have some knowledge of Gaelic.<sup>1</sup> Scotland has been attracting inward migration since 2002<sup>2</sup>: the 2001 census showed a 2% non-white ethnic minority with the majority being of Pakistani origin, but by 2009 a national pupil survey<sup>3</sup> showed 4.3% of school children mainly used a language other than English at home. Altogether, 138 languages were recorded as having been spoken, with Polish at the head of the list with 0.8% of the school population, followed by Panjabi, Urdu, Arabic, Cantonese, French and Gaelic respectively. 626 pupils were registered as speaking mainly Gaelic at home, slightly less than one in 1,000. However, many more are receiving Gaelic medium education or are being taught Gaelic through the medium of Gaelic – 4,064 in 2011, the equivalent to one in every 180 pupils.<sup>4</sup>

Scotland is in the second year of implementing a new *Curriculum for Excellence* which treats learning holistically rather than as a series of separate subjects. There have been concerns that this may aggravate the situation for languages as both primary and secondary schools prioritise numeracy, literacy, health and well-being. As a result, the Scottish Schools Inspectorate was moved to make a strong statement about the importance it attaches to languages in the curriculum.<sup>5</sup>

Immigrant languages tend not to be offered in Scottish schools, the emphasis being on teaching immigrant children English.

### Languages in official documents and databases

English, foreign languages, R/M languages and immigrant languages are dealt with in language legislation and/or language policy documents in Scotland. The learning and teaching of English abroad for children and/or adults originating from the UK is (co-)funded in Belgium, Belize, Brunei, Canada, Cyprus, Falkland Islands, Germany, Gibraltar, Italy and the Netherlands. The *European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages* has been signed and ratified by the UK. In Scotland, the following R/M languages are recognised in the Charter: Scots and Gaelic. There is official provision in regionwide education, supported by the Charter, for Gaelic.

Official UK-wide data collection mechanisms on language diversity in Scotland exist in terms of periodically updated census data, municipal register data, and survey data. In these data collection mechanisms, national, R/M and immigrant language varieties are addressed, based on a home language, a main language question, and a language proficiency question on English, Scots and Gaelic in terms of whether (and how well) the languages can be spoken/understood/read/written.

The *Gaelic Language Act* (2005) required the creation of a *National Plan for Gaelic* and the Scottish government is committed to enhancing the status of the language, its acquisition and use. It has recently published a draft *National Gaelic Language Plan for 2012–2017*<sup>1</sup> which has included the development of a curriculum in Gaelic. The relatively favourable standing given to Gaelic has raised questions about the position of the Scots language, which is also recognised under the *European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages*, along with Ulster Scots. The *Report of the Ministerial Working Group on the Scots Language* (November 2010)<sup>2</sup> called for the Scottish government to develop a Scots Language Policy and for Scotland to be presented internationally as a trilingual country.

Policy and practice surrounding English as an Additional Language (EAL) and support for newcomers was reviewed in 2009.<sup>3</sup> The subsequent report recommends good practice found in local authorities and to be shared more widely, including: welcoming new arrivals and approaches to initial and ongoing assessments; enabling newly-arrived children and young people to use their first language as a tool for learning; and providing well-targeted staff training to enable staff to meet the needs of newly-arrived children and young people more effectively.

<sup>1</sup> *Scotland's Census 2001: Gaelic Report 2005*, General Register Office for Scotland.

<sup>2</sup> *Scotland's Population 2010, The Registrar General's Annual Review of Demographic Trends*, August, 2011.

<sup>3</sup> *Pupils in Scotland 2009*, Scottish Government Publications.

<sup>4</sup> Scottish Government, Pupil Census, Supplementary Data 2011.

<sup>5</sup> TESS 4/6/2010.

<sup>1</sup> [www.scottish.parliament.uk/parliamentarybusiness/CurrentCommittees/45383.aspx](http://www.scottish.parliament.uk/parliamentarybusiness/CurrentCommittees/45383.aspx)

<sup>2</sup> *Report of the Ministerial Working Group on the Scots Language*, November, 2010.

<sup>3</sup> *Count Us In* report, 2009 [www.itscotland.org.uk/Images/cuimnnus\\_tcm4-618947.pdf](http://www.itscotland.org.uk/Images/cuimnnus_tcm4-618947.pdf)

**NL=National Language(s)**  
**FL=Foreign Languages**  
**R/ML=Regional or Minority Languages**  
**IL=Immigrant Languages**

Languages in pre-primary education (No provision of immigrant languages)

	Target groups	Duration	Minimum group size requirements	Days per week	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	State funding available
<b>R/ML</b>	no support	1 year	none	>1 day	subject-specific	none	full
<b>FL</b>	no support	<1 year	none	<0.5 day	none	none	partial
<b>Additional NL support</b>	all	1 year	none	<0.5 day	subject-specific	subject-specific	full

Languages offered in pre-primary education

<b>R/ML</b>	Gaelic
<b>FL</b>	Chinese, French, German, Italian, Spanish - but often only in the private sector

A small but growing number of pre-school establishments offer foreign language support, mainly in the private sector, but some local authorities provide foreign languages from age three. All children with limited ability in English receive extra support if they need it from a combination of EAL trained and non-EAL trained staff. Gaelic is offered in a small number of pre-school institutions (approximately 2000 children enrolled). Immigrant languages are rarely offered.

Languages in primary education (No provision of immigrant languages)

Organisation

	Curriculum	Extra support for newcomers	Diagnostic testing on entry	Monitoring of language skills
<b>NL support</b>	coherent and explicit	before mainstream	all	national standardised

	Target groups	Curriculum	CLIL	Start of language education	Scheduling	Minimum group size requirements	Monitoring of language skills	Level to be achieved	State funding available
<b>R/ML</b>	all	coherent and explicit	localised	from year 1	in school hours	none	national standardised	school norms	full
<b>FL</b>	all	coherent and explicit	localised	end-phase only	in school hours	none	national standardised	linked to CEFR	full

## Teaching

	Teacher qualifications	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	Mobility
<b>NL support</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	N/A
<b>R/ML</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	N/A
<b>FL</b>	general teachers	general	subject-specific	informal financial support

### Languages offered in primary education

<b>R/ML</b>	Gaelic
<b>FL</b>	French, German, Spanish: optional

Scotland was an early adopter of primary foreign languages (1992), and by 2005 practically all Scottish primary schools taught a foreign language. French was and remains dominant (compared to Spanish, German, Italian and Gaelic). All young people have an entitlement to learn at least one foreign language from the later stage of primary school, but it is not compulsory. The *Curriculum for Excellence* gives clear guidelines for foreign language (FL) teaching and the target level to be achieved by the end of primary is A1 on the Council of Europe's *Common European Framework of Reference* (CEFR). In most cases, FL teaching is limited to the final two years of primary school – 10 to 12 year olds – and has a small time allocation. Recent concerns relate to teacher training and local authority support (due to funding reductions).<sup>1</sup>

The learning of Gaelic has been treated fundamentally differently, with the setting up, from 1986 onwards, of Gaelic medium units in primary schools throughout Scotland, complemented by Gaelic medium pre-school provision in many areas. The most recent HM Inspectorate of Education (HMIE) report<sup>2</sup> found 2,312 children being educated in Gaelic medium primary provision, most of whom do not have Gaelic as first language. Gaelic is also offered as second language in a number of primary schools.

All newcomers in mainstream schools receive support in English before and during mainstream classes, and their skills are assessed and monitored regularly by an EAL specialist. Immigrant languages are rarely offered.

<sup>1</sup>Pupils risk being lost in translation', Edinburgh Evening News, 16 April 2010.

<sup>2</sup>HMIE, *Gaelic Education: Building on the successes, addressing the barriers*, 21 June 2011.

## Languages in secondary education (No provision of immigrant languages)

### Organisation

	Curriculum	Extra support for newcomers	Diagnostic testing on entry	Monitoring of language skills
<b>NL support</b>	coherent and explicit	before mainstream	all	national standardised

	Target groups	Curriculum	CLIL	Scheduling	Minimum group size requirements	Monitoring of language skills	Level to be achieved	State funding available
<b>R/ML</b>	all	coherent and explicit	localised	in school hours	5–10	national standardised	national or regional norms	full
<b>FL</b>	all	coherent and explicit	absent	in school hours	none	school-based	linked to CEFR	full

## Teaching

	Teacher qualifications	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	Language level required	Mobility
<b>NL support</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	national or school-based norms	N/A
<b>R/ML</b>	language teachers	general	subject-specific	N/A	N/A
<b>FL</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	national or regionwide standards	incorporated into training

## Languages offered in secondary education

<b>R/ML</b>	Gaelic
<b>FL</b>	Generally French, German or Spanish, but also Italian and Chinese: one of these languages is compulsory/ optional
<b>IL</b>	Chinese, Russian, Urdu

Modern languages are an integral part of the *Curriculum for Excellence* and all children are entitled to a modern language as part of their broad general education (S1–S3). The entitlement is to have the opportunity to reach at least level A2 on the CEFR and for most learners this will happen within the broad, general education (S1–S3), rather than the senior phase (S4–S6). The Scottish government aims to implement policies to ensure that every child learns two languages in addition to their mother tongue.

However, the present situation of foreign languages in secondary schools is a matter of concern. Whereas in 2001 practically all pupils studied a language up to the fourth year of secondary education, by 2010 this had dropped to 67%.<sup>1</sup> French accounts for around 70% of exam entries, followed by German (around 16%) and Spanish around 10%. Spanish has been increasing despite the overall decline.<sup>2</sup> At more advanced levels, the situation is more stable.<sup>3</sup>

In 2011 more than half of Scottish local authorities reported having at least one secondary school where languages were not compulsory with schools interpreting the 'entitlement' to language learning as having been met in primary school.<sup>4</sup> Pressures on public spending have impacted on the employment of *Foreign Language Assistants* in schools (from 285 in 2005 to 59 in 2011), prompting a public outcry from foreign Consuls General and concerns over the future competitiveness of Scottish businesses.<sup>5</sup>

There is a serious challenge in providing continuity for children to learn through the medium of Gaelic in secondary school, with only 36 schools providing it and mainly confining it to the first two years of secondary education.

Scots is not taught as a specific subject but is part of the languages that many children bring to school. Schools are encouraged, therefore, to make use of this and to offer learners the chance to experience aspects of Scots language across curricular subjects.

There is a clear curriculum for the teaching of English as a first and second language. Newcomers receive extra support; however, provision varies widely across Scotland. Immigrant languages are occasionally offered to children in areas with high immigrant populations; however, the emphasis is on English to encourage integration.

<sup>1</sup> *Modern Languages Excellence Report*, Scottish CILT, 2011.

<sup>2</sup> *Modern Languages Excellence Report*, Scottish CILT, 2011.

<sup>3</sup> *Modern Languages Excellence Report*, Scottish CILT, 2011.

<sup>4</sup> The survey was carried out by TESS and reported as: 'Poor language skills put Scots at disadvantage', TESS, 25 March 2011.

<sup>5</sup> 'Backlash from diplomats over language cuts', *Scotland on Sunday*, 4 December 2011.

## Languages in further and higher education

### Further education (in three VET institutions) (No provision of R/M and immigrant languages)

		Range of language programmes	Curriculum	Level to be achieved	State funding available
FL	Institution A	wide variety	coherent and explicit	national	full
	Institution B	wide variety	coherent and explicit	national	full
	Institution C	wide variety	coherent and explicit	national	partial

### Higher education (in three universities)

	Language(s) of instruction	Languages on website	Target groups for additional support in the national language	Level to be achieved in foreign language instruction	Recruitment of non-national students	Mobility for language students	Mobility for non-language students
University A	national only	national only	all	national or institution-based	only international	obligatory	optional
University B	national only	national only	restricted	national or institution-based	only international	obligatory	optional
University C	national only	national only	all	linked to CEFR	international and immigrant	obligatory	optional

Scottish universities are suffering from severe financial pressures and this has led to fears for the future of language departments at some universities and the viability of lesser taught languages in particular. The Scottish Parliament has been petitioned to ensure targeted support for 'strategically important and vulnerable' languages in the same way that this exists in England.

The most recently available data from the *Scottish Qualifications Authority* shows that modern language provision in the Scottish further education sector was on the verge of total collapse.<sup>1</sup> The analysis shows that a self-perpetuating belief among employers and skills forecasters that 'English is enough' had had a negative effect on language provision in both Further and Higher Education.

<sup>1</sup> *La Grande Illusion: Why Scottish further education has failed to grasp the potential of modern languages*, Hannah Doughty, University of Strathclyde, Scottish Languages Review, Issue 23, Spring 2011.

## Languages in audiovisual media and press

Non-national language TV productions	Non-national language films in cinema	R/ML programmes outside of region	Availability of sign language on TV
subtitled	subtitled	regularly	regularly

Radio programmes are offered mainly in English, but there is also daily Gaelic content available on BBC *Radio nan Gàidheal*. Television programmes are mainly in English and Gaelic but there are also broadcasts in Senegalese, Hindi, Danish and British Sign Language. Since 2008 a Gaelic BBC channel, *BBC Alba*, has been available on digital television, satellite and online, with a weekly viewership of over 500,000 people. Foreign language films in Scotland are invariably shown in the original language with subtitles in both cinema and on television. However, foreign and R/M language radio and television are available via Freeview, online and satellite, for example. Sign language is regularly offered in important media events in all cities surveyed. Newspapers are available in a large repertoire of languages other than English in larger cities.

## Languages in public services and spaces

### Institutionalised language strategies at city level

N languages	Website presence	Use of interpreters	Language competencies in job descriptions	Recruitment of speakers of languages	Language training offered to employees	Record of language skills of employees
>4		Glasgow Edinburgh Aberdeen			Edinburgh	
3-4						
1-2			Glasgow Edinburgh Aberdeen	Glasgow	Glasgow	Glasgow Edinburgh

### Communication facilities

Top five oral communication facilities	Top five written communication facilities
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>= Education</li> <li>= Emergency</li> <li>= Health</li> <li>= Social</li> <li>= Legal</li> <li>= Immigration and integration</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Emergency</li> <li>Transport</li> <li>Immigration and integration</li> <li>= Health</li> <li>= Social</li> <li>= Legal</li> </ul>

In the cities surveyed, police, courts, health services and local government all make extensive use of translation and interpreting services and there are efforts to provide written and online information in a variety of languages. Written communication is usually available in English and Gaelic, and is available in a wide variety of other languages. The languages supported are defined by the languages of the communities being served. Both Edinburgh and Glasgow have plans to increase the skills of their staff in Gaelic in accordance with the *National Plan for Gaelic and the Gaelic Language Act (2005)*.

## Languages in business

Scottish surveys of skills needs tend not to identify lack of language skills as a problem.<sup>1</sup> However, further investigation of such research has found that Scottish employers tend to circumvent rather than address language skill needs by exporting only to Anglophone countries or those where they can easily find English speakers.<sup>2</sup> There is clearly a linguistic dimension to the most commonly reported barriers to exporting – difficulties in finding trustworthy partners abroad.

<sup>1</sup> *Leitch Review of Skills, Prosperity for all in the global economy: world class skills, 2006*, and *Futureskills Scotland (2007)*, Skills in Scotland 2006, Scottish Enterprise, Glasgow.

<sup>2</sup> *Modern Languages Excellence Report*, Scottish CILT, 2011.

## Key findings overall

As the LRE research confirms, Gaelic enjoys a high level of political support with the *Gaelic Language Plan*, as well as continuing demand for Gaelic medium education from parents. Its status is very different from that enjoyed by other languages spoken and used in Scotland. A study on community languages (the UK term for what LRE refers to as immigrant languages) published in 2006<sup>1</sup> found provision for children of school age to study 21 such languages in complementary classes, but nothing available for the remaining languages spoken, including Scots. The most significant provision was for Urdu, for which 42 complementary classes were identified, as well as some mainstream provision in primary and secondary schools, including opportunities to study the subject as a modern language. Although the issue of foreign language learning appears now to be creeping up the political agenda, there is clearly a need to continue to make a strong case for the social, cultural, intellectual and economic benefits to Scotland, as well as to invest in high quality training for teachers.

## Promising initiatives and pilots

The Scottish government has recently set a target to work towards every child in Scotland learning two languages in addition to their mother tongue (as per the Barcelona European Union agreement). It intends to implement this over the course of two parliaments and has set up a working group which reports to Ministers with recommendations in 2012.<sup>1</sup>

The *Modern Languages Excellence Group*, chaired by SCILT, Scotland's *National Centre for Languages*, has published a report which sets out clearly how the study of modern foreign languages fits within the *Curriculum for Excellence*, and what needs to happen in order to secure, promote and enhance the provision of modern languages in Scotland.<sup>2</sup> It is very positive that standards have now been set, in accordance with the Council of Europe's *Common European Framework of Reference*, for all children to reach by the end of primary school (A1) and after the first three years of secondary (A2).

The *Scottish Baccalaureate in Languages* is another interesting and promising initiative, aimed at bridging the gap between school and university and providing skills for learning, life and work.

<sup>1</sup> *Provision for community language learning in Scotland*, Scottish CILT/University of Stirling, 2006.

<sup>1</sup> Record of debate in Scottish Parliament, 8 December 2011, Scottish Parliament website.

<sup>2</sup> *Modern Languages Excellence Report*, SCILT, March 2011.



# 19 UNITED KINGDOM

## 19.4 Northern Ireland

Teresa Tinsley and Philip Harding-Esch

### Country context

Northern Ireland has a population of 1.8 million people. While English is the vernacular, the 2001 census found that 10% of the population reported 'some knowledge' of Irish.<sup>1</sup> Since the stabilisation of the political situation in the late 1990s the country has attracted an increasing number of immigrants. Following the 2001 census, the most significant language groups were identified as Chinese, Arabic and Portuguese; however, more recent immigration from the *Accession Eight* (A8) countries of the European Union has given Polish, followed by Lithuanian, a significant presence. Currently 3% of primary school children have a language other than English as their first language; rising to 11% in Dungannon, the most diverse district.<sup>2</sup>

### Languages in official documents and databases

English, foreign languages and R/M languages are dealt with in language legislation and/or language policy documents in Northern Ireland. The learning and teaching of English abroad for children and/or adults originating from the UK is (co-)funded in Belgium, Belize, Brunei, Canada, Cyprus, Falkland Islands, Germany, Gibraltar, Italy and the Netherlands. The *European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages* has been signed and ratified by the UK. In Northern Ireland, the following R/M languages are recognised in the Charter: Irish and Ulster Scots. There is official provision in regionwide education, supported by the Charter, for Irish.

Official UK-wide data collection mechanisms on language diversity in Northern Ireland exist in terms of periodically updated census data, municipal register data, and survey data. In these data collection mechanisms, national, R/M and immigrant language varieties are addressed, based on a main language question, plus a language proficiency question in terms of whether (and how well) this language can be spoken/understood/read/written.

The *Good Friday Agreement* of 1998 set out principles of respect and tolerance in relation to linguistic diversity. 'The Irish language, Ulster Scots and the languages of the various ethnic minorities' were all explicitly mentioned as contributing to the 'cultural wealth' of the province.<sup>1</sup> The *North/South Language Body*, established on 2 December 1999 and comprising two separate agencies, *Foras na Gaeilge* (Irish Language Agency) and *Tha Boord o Ulstèr-Scotch* (Ulster-Scots Agency), promotes Irish and Ulster Scots and implements policies agreed by Ministers in the North South Ministerial Council (NSMC) in Northern Ireland and the Republic of Ireland with regard to these two languages. In August 2000 the Department of Education in Northern Ireland established *Comhairle na Gaelscolaíochta* to encourage and facilitate the strategic development of Irish medium education and provide guidance and advice to the Irish medium sector.

There are published statutory requirements for foreign languages teaching in the lower secondary phase (11–14) only.<sup>2</sup> In 2006 the Department of Education commissioned the development of a *Comprehensive Languages Strategy* for Northern Ireland, 'considering all aspects of languages: at primary, secondary, further and higher education levels,

<sup>1</sup>Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency (NISRA) (2002), *Northern Ireland Census 2001: Key Statistics Report*, Belfast: HMSO.

<sup>2</sup>*Registrar General Northern Ireland Annual Report 2010*, Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency, 2011. Pupil data from *School Census*, October 2010.

<sup>1</sup>Agreement reached in the Multi-Party Negotiations ('The Good Friday Agreement') (1998). Government of the United Kingdom and the Government of Ireland.

<sup>2</sup>[www.nicurriculum.org.uk/key\\_stage\\_3/areas\\_of\\_learning/modern\\_languages/](http://www.nicurriculum.org.uk/key_stage_3/areas_of_learning/modern_languages/)

English as an additional language, languages for business, the languages of Northern Ireland, immigrant mother tongues, sign language, languages for special needs,' but this has yet to report.<sup>3</sup> English language support (EAL) was reviewed

completely from 2005 to 2009 with the policy *Every School a Good School - Supporting Newcomer Pupils* launching on 1 April 2009. The UK government recognises Irish and Ulster Scots in Northern Ireland under the ECRML Languages.

<sup>3</sup>[www.arts.ulster.ac.uk/nils/index.php](http://www.arts.ulster.ac.uk/nils/index.php)

**NL=National Language(s)**  
**FL=Foreign Languages**  
**R/ML=Regional or Minority Languages**  
**IL=Immigrant Languages**

## Languages in pre-primary education (No provision of foreign and immigrant languages)

	Target groups	Duration	Minimum group size requirements	Days per week	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	State funding available
<b>R/ML</b>	all	≥2 years	>10	>1 day	subject-specific	subject-specific	full
<b>Additional NL support</b>	all	≥2 years	none	0.5–1 day	subject-specific	subject-specific	full

### Languages offered in pre-primary education

<b>R/ML</b>	Irish
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Children with limited ability in English often receive extra support and the teachers who provide this receive pre- and in-service training. Foreign languages are generally not taught in pre-primary, but there are 44 Irish medium pre-schools<sup>1</sup> and at least one private French-English bilingual nursery.<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>[www.deni.gov.uk/index/85-schools/10-types\\_of\\_school-nischools\\_pg/schools\\_-\\_types\\_of\\_school-\\_irish-medium\\_schools\\_pg/schools\\_-\\_types\\_of\\_school\\_lists\\_of\\_irishmedium\\_schools\\_pg.htm](http://www.deni.gov.uk/index/85-schools/10-types_of_school-nischools_pg/schools_-_types_of_school-_irish-medium_schools_pg/schools_-_types_of_school_lists_of_irishmedium_schools_pg.htm)

<sup>2</sup>Report of the Review of Irish medium education, Department for Education for Northern Ireland, undated.

## Languages in primary education (No provision of immigrant languages)

### Organisation

	Curriculum	Extra support for newcomers	Diagnostic testing on entry	Monitoring of language skills
<b>NL support</b>	general	before mainstream	all	national standardised

	Target groups	Curriculum	CLIL	Start of language education	Scheduling	Minimum group size requirements	Monitoring of language skills	Level to be achieved	State funding available
<b>R/ML</b>	all	coherent and explicit	widespread	from year 1	in school hours	>10	school-based	not specified	full
<b>FL</b>	all	coherent and explicit	localised	from year 1	partly in school hours	none	national standardised	not specified	full

## Teaching

	Teacher qualifications	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	Mobility
<b>Additional NL support</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	N/A
<b>R/ML</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	N/A
<b>FL</b>	general teachers	none	subject-specific	none

## Languages offered in primary education

<b>R/ML</b>	Irish
<b>FL</b>	French, Spanish: optional

Irish medium education (IME) has been increasing in Northern Ireland since the first Irish medium primary school was set up by parents, outside the mainstream system, in 1971. Now 1.67% of all primary schoolchildren attend IME primary schools or IME units within English language primary schools, and the number is increasing year on year. IME is supported by government policy.

Modern Languages did not find a place in the new Northern Ireland primary curriculum which was revised in 2007, despite a positive evaluation of pilot projects, which took place between 2005 and 2007, involving 21 schools teaching mainly French, with some Spanish. Despite the lack of curricular requirement, a survey in 2007 found that 57% of responding primary schools were making some provision for the teaching of a foreign language, although in over half of cases this was in the form of extra-curricular activity. The new curriculum encourages the teaching of modern languages within a multidisciplinary framework, and guidance has been published to help teachers develop and integrate this. This guidance includes online resources for French, German, Irish and Spanish. From 2008 the Department of Education for Northern Ireland funded a *Primary Languages Programme* which provided peripatetic teachers in Spanish or Irish to work alongside existing Key Stage 1 primary school classroom teachers (Polish was also included from 2009). The scheme was criticised for excluding French, which is the most widely taught language in secondary education. By 2009, 247 schools had participated in Spanish and 76 in Irish.<sup>1</sup>

Newcomers receive intensive support in English before and during mainstream classes and there has been a concerted effort to provide EAL support in recent years as Northern Ireland has welcomed an increasing number of immigrants. Immigrant languages are not offered other than, occasionally, Polish.

<sup>1</sup> *Primary languages in Northern Ireland: too little, too late?* Purdy et al., *Language Learning Journal* vol. 38, 2, 2010.

## Languages in secondary education (No provision of immigrant languages)

### Organisation

	Curriculum	Extra support for newcomers	Diagnostic testing on entry	Monitoring of language skills
<b>NL support</b>	general	before mainstream	absent	national standardised

	Target groups	Curriculum	CLIL	Scheduling	Minimum group size requirements	Monitoring of language skills	Level to be achieved	State funding available
<b>R/ML</b>	all	general	localised	in school hours	>10	national standardised	national or regional norms	full
<b>FL</b>	all	general	absent	in school hours	none	national standardised	not specified	full

## Teaching

	Teacher qualifications	Pre-service teacher training	In-service teacher training	Language level required	Mobility
<b>NL support</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	not specified	N/A
<b>R/ML</b>	language teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	N/A	N/A
<b>FL</b>	general teachers	subject-specific	subject-specific	national or regionwide standards	informal financial support

### Languages offered in secondary education

<b>R/ML</b>	Irish
<b>FL</b>	Compulsory: One from French, German, Spanish

The situation as regards modern foreign languages in secondary schools in Northern Ireland has deteriorated rapidly since languages were made optional after the first three years of secondary education as part of the 2007 curriculum reform. This resulted in a 19% drop in numbers sitting GCSE examinations over three years, with French, as the first foreign language taught, being the worst hit. Spanish is now the second most widely taught modern language and is managing to maintain numbers. However, German also suffered declines. At lower secondary level, many schools require pupils to study two languages.

Up until the introduction of the *Northern Ireland Curriculum* in 1989, Irish was the second most common language after French, despite being taught only in the Maintained (Catholic) sector, and maintained this position in GCSE entries until 2002. The language was excluded from fulfilling the compulsory language requirement offered by schools under the Northern Ireland Curriculum<sup>1</sup> but since 2006 has been reinstated. A GCSE Irish medium (*Gaeilge*) exam was introduced in 1993 to cater for the relatively small number of post-primary pupils being educated through Irish. Irish medium education presents more difficulties at secondary level than at primary, as a result of a lack of teachers able to teach other subjects through Irish at this level. Fewer than 0.5% of all secondary pupils are in Irish medium education.

At ages 16–18, the numbers studying languages have remained steadier but have declined as a proportion of the cohort. The pattern is: French declining significantly; German, from a smaller base, less so; Spanish still gaining numbers; and Irish maintaining equilibrium.

Newcomers receive extra support in English before and during mainstream classes. There is not a needs-based diagnosis of English language skills before entering secondary education, but skills are monitored regularly using age-appropriate standard instruments. As with primary education, there has been a concerted effort to provide EAL support in recent years as Northern Ireland has welcomed an increasing number of immigrants. Immigrant languages are not offered.

<sup>1</sup>McKendry, E. (2007) *Minority-language Education in a Situation of Conflict: Irish in English-medium Schools in Northern Ireland*. International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism. Vol. 10, No. 4, 2007, 394-409.

## Languages in further and higher education

### Further education (in three VET institutions) (No provision of immigrant languages)

		Range of language programmes	Curriculum	Level to be achieved	State funding available
<b>R/ML</b>	<b>Institution A</b>	limited	coherent and explicit	N/A	partial
	<b>Institution B</b>	wide variety	coherent and explicit	N/A	partial
	<b>Institution C</b>	limited	coherent and explicit	N/A	none
<b>FL</b>	<b>Institution A</b>	wide variety	coherent and explicit	linked to CEFR	partial
	<b>Institution B</b>	wide variety	coherent and explicit	national	partial
	<b>Institution C</b>	wide variety	coherent and explicit	national	partial

### Higher education (in two universities)

	Language(s) of instruction	Languages on website	Target groups for additional support in the national language	Level to be achieved in foreign language instruction	Recruitment of non-national students	Mobility for language students	Mobility for non-language students
<b>University A</b>	national only	national only	all	national or institution-based	only international	obligatory	optional
<b>University B</b>	national only	national only	all	national or institution-based	international and immigrant	obligatory	optional

In common with the rest of the UK, there is very little provision for languages in vocational courses. Northern Ireland's two universities (Queen's University Belfast and the University of Ulster) both offer languages in combination with other specialisms, as well as degree courses in the foreign languages taught in schools. However, Queen's University Belfast closed its German department in 2009, reflecting the squeeze on languages in higher education which is being felt across the UK. Northern Ireland is a long way from being self-sufficient in producing linguists in the languages likely to be most needed by its businesses in future, such as Asian languages and a wider range of European languages.

### Languages in audiovisual media and press (in one city – Belfast only)

Non-national language TV productions	Non-national language films in cinema	R/ML programmes outside of region	Availability of sign language on TV
subtitled	subtitled	regularly	regularly

Radio programmes are offered mainly in English, with several hours a week in Irish and a few minutes in Cantonese. Television programmes are mainly in English but there are listed broadcasts in Irish, Scottish Gaelic, French and Ulster Scots. However, the concept of 'terrestrial channels' is becoming obsolete in the digital age with foreign language television and radio channels widely available via Freeview, online and satellite. Sign language is regularly offered in important media events. Foreign language press is not always available in hard copy but is widely available digitally.

### Languages in public services and spaces

#### Institutionalised language strategies in Belfast

N languages	Website presence	Use of interpreters	Language competencies in job descriptions	Recruitment of speakers of languages	Language training offered to employees	Record of language skills of employees
>4		Belfast			Belfast	
3-4						
1-2				Belfast		

## Communication facilities

Top five oral communication facilities	Top five written communication facilities
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>= Political debates and decision making</li> <li>= Emergency</li> <li>= Health</li> <li>= Social</li> <li>= Legal</li> <li>= Immigration and integration</li> <li>= Tourism</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Emergency</li> <li>Health</li> <li>Social</li> <li>Immigration and integration</li> <li>= Transport</li> <li>= Tourism</li> </ul>

The *Good Friday Agreement*, together with recent immigration, appears to have raised awareness of language issues in public life and of the need for public service translation and interpreting. According to the LRE research, many public bodies in Belfast provide information not only in Irish – and, to a lesser extent, Ulster Scots – but also in languages such as Polish, Lithuanian, Portuguese, Slovak, Cantonese and Arabic. The languages supported are defined by the languages of the communities being served.

## Languages in business

Although not surveyed by Language Rich Europe, in common with the rest of the UK, Northern Irish employers are not very language aware. However, improved language skills would support the Northern Irish economy in facing challenges ranging from increasing exports to promoting tourism and inward investment.

## Key findings overall

The last decade has seen enormous changes in Northern Ireland. From being a country of emigration and conflict in the late 20th century, it has become more peaceful and more globally connected with an increase in tourism, low cost air travel and immigration. Although it is still probably the least linguistically diverse of the four UK nations, its history makes it sensitive to issues of language and culture and the measures adopted so far have been inclusive. However, as the LRE research shows, Northern Ireland has a weak profile as regards foreign language learning and needs to give this a much higher priority at all levels in the education system.

## Promising initiatives and pilots

The proposed *Languages Strategy for Northern Ireland*, the result of more than five years' consultation and discussion with policymakers, is intended to provide an assessment of needs and an action plan across the full spectrum of languages in education, business and public life, and should offer opportunities for some focused development.

There have been some encouraging examples of development in Northern Ireland as regards teacher training in languages. A successful development is reported at Stranmillis University College to introduce an optional primary languages module, which has now become an embedded feature of the Bachelor of Education course.<sup>1</sup> In response to the demand for subject-specific teachers in the growing Irish medium post primary sector, St. Mary's University College, Queen's University Belfast and the University of Ulster have formed a partnership to offer a one year PGCE course to students interested in becoming teachers in Irish medium secondary education. Additional places have been added to the PGCE intake quotas for both universities, specifically for those applicants who wish to teach in the Irish medium post primary sector. On completion of the course, these students will be awarded a Certificate in Bilingual Education from St. Mary's University College in addition to their PGCE qualification.

<sup>1</sup>Report of the Review of Irish medium education, Department for Education for Northern Ireland, undated.









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