

# LANGUAGE RICH EUROPE TRENDS IN POLICIES AND PRACTICES FOR MULTILINGUALISM IN EUROPE



With the support of:



**EDITORS:** Guus Extra and Kutlay Yağmur

## **CONTENTS**

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	2	COUNTRY PROFILE: NORTHERN IRELAND	93
INTRODUCTION		Languages in pre-primary education	94
INTRODUCTION  Martin Hope	6	Languages in primary education	95
тчаг инт поре		Organisation	95
KEY FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION		Teaching	97
Guus Extra and Kutlay Yağmur	8	Languages in secondary education	99
PART 1 – TOWARDS EUROPEAN INDICATORS		Organisation	99
OF LANGUAGE POLICIES AND PRACTICES		Teaching	100
Guus Extra and Kutlay Yağmur	13	Languages in Further and Higher Education	102
1.1 European actors in promoting		Further Education (in three institutions)	102
multilingualism and plurilingualism	14	Languages in Audiovisual Media and Press	105
1.2 The trilingual formula and plurilingualism		Languages in public services and spaces	106
1.3 Language varieties explored in the project		Institutionalised language strategies at city level	106
1.4 Language domains addressed in the survey		Oral Communication Facilities	107
1.5 Data collection and the three-city approach		Written Communication Facilities	108
1.6 Research methodology		COUNTRY PROFILE: SCOTLAND	110
DART O CROSS MATIONAL ANALYSIS OF		Languages in Official documents and databases	
PART 2 – CROSS-NATIONAL ANALYSIS OF THE LANGUAGE RICH EUROPE RESULTS		Languages in pre-primary education	
Kutlay Yağmur, Guus Extra and Marlies Swinkels	28		
2.1 Languages in official documents and databases		Languages in primary education	
2.2 Languages in pre-primary education		Organisation Teaching	
2.3 Languages in primary education		Languages in secondary education	
2.4 Languages in secondary education		Organisation Organisation	
2.5 Longitudinal perspectives on (pre-)primary		Teaching	
and secondary education	54	Languages in Further and Higher Education	
2.6 Languages in further and higher education		Further Education (in three institutions)	
2.8 Languages in public services and spaces		Languages in Audiovisual Media and Press	
2.9 Languages in business		Languages in Addiovisual Media and Fress	
2.10 Cross-sectional perspectives on multilingual		Institutionalised language strategies at city level	
profiles beyond education	70	Oral Communication Facilities	
References in Part I and 2		Written Communication Facilities	
Glossary	73	Writteri Communication i acinties	12J
		COUNTRY PROFILE: WALES	128
COUNTRY PROFILE: ENGLAND		Languages in Official documents and databases	128
Languages in pre-primary education		Languages in pre-primary education	
Languages in primary education		Languages in primary education	130
Organisation		Organisation	130
Teaching		Teaching	132
Languages in secondary education		Languages in secondary education	133
Organisation		Organisation	133
Teaching		Teaching	134
Languages in Further and Higher Education		Languages in Further and Higher Education	136
Further Education (in three institutions)		Further Education (in three institutions)	136
Languages in Audiovisual Media and Press		Languages in Audiovisual Media and Press	139
Languages in public services and spaces		Languages in public services and spaces	
Institutionalised language strategies at city level		Institutionalised language strategies at city level	
Oral Communication Facilities		Oral Communication Facilities	141
Written Communication Facilities	90	Written Communication Facilities	142

### **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

The British Council wishes to thank the following persons and institutions for their contributions to the publication.

#### Language Rich Europe coordination team:

Karin Berkhout, Secretary of Babylon, Tilburg University Prof. Guus Extra, Chair of Language and Minorities, Tilburg University

Martin Hope, Language Rich Europe Project Director, British Council

Christiane Keilig, Communications Co-ordinator, British Council Eilidh MacDonald, Project Co-ordinator, British Council Nadine Ott, Former Senior Project Manager, British Council Aneta Quraishy, Senior Project Manager, British Council David Sorrentino, Communications Manager, British Council Marlies Swinkels, Department of Culture Studies, Tilburg University Dr. Kutlay Yagmur, Associate Professor of Multilingualism, Tilburg University

#### Language Rich Europe Steering Group members:

Dr. Juan Pedro de Basterrechea, Director of Fundraising and Sales, Instituto Cervantes

Prof. Guus Extra, Chair of Language and Minorities, Tilburg University

Prof. Mário Filipe, Vice-President, Instituto Camões Martin Hope, Director Benelux and EU Office British Council Thomas Huddleston, Policy Analyst, Migration Policy Group Tony Jones, Senior Adviser (English), British Council Dr. Elidir King, Director Languages Company Ulla-Alexandra Mattl, Co-ordinator of EUNIC in Brussels

Xavier North, Delegate-general for the French language and languages of France, Ministry of Culture and Communication

Aneta Quraishy, Senior Project Manager, Language Rich Europe

Joseph Sheils, Former Head of the Department of Language Education and Policy, Council of Europe

Wolf von Siebert, Project Management, Language and Integration, Goethe Institute

Liliana Szczuka-Dorna, Head of Department of Modern Languages, Poznan University of Technology

#### Partner consortium:

This first edition of Language Rich Europe – Trends in policies and practices for multilingualism in Europe has been produced thanks to the extensive, long-term collaboration of our consortium of trusted partners, to whom we are extremely grateful for their energy and commitment:

Austria: EDUCULT – Institute for Cultural Policy and Management

Belgium: Migration Policy Group, EUNIC Brussels, Danish Cultural Institute and Universiteit Gent / Ghent University (Steunpunt Diversiteit en Leren / Director Centre for Diversity and Learning)

Bosnia and Herzegovina: University of Sarajevo – Faculty of Philosophy

**Bulgaria:** Sofia University – Faculty of Classical

and Modern Philologies

Denmark: Danish Language Council

**Estonia:** National Examinations and Qualifications Centre

France: Observatoire Européen du plurilinguisme

**Germany:** University of Hamburg, LIMA – Linguistic Diversity Management in Urban Areas and Goethe-Institut

**Greece:** South East European Research Centre **Hungary:** Research Institute for Linguistics – Research Centre for Multilingualism

Italy: Università per Stranieri di Siena, lend -

lingua e nuova didattica

Lithuania: Lithuanian Social Research Centre – Institute of Labour and Social Research, State Commission on the Lithuanian Language

Netherlands: Tilburg University - Babylon, Centre for Studies of the Multicultural Society, Mercator Kenniscentrum/Fryske Akademy

Poland: Institute for Quality in Education

**Portugal:** ILTEC – Institute of Theoretical and Computational Linguistics, Instituto Camões

Romania: Centre Education 2000+, EuroEd Foundation

**Spain:** Instituto Cervantes, Universidad Nebrija, Department of Culture of the Basque Government, University of Barcelona

**Switzerland:** University of Fribourg – Institute of Multilingualism

Ukraine: Institute of Social and Political Psychology

**United Kingdom:** The Languages Company, Welsh Language Board (conducted initial research), CILT – National Centre for Languages (conducted initial research)

#### Associate Partner:

Council of Europe, European Centre for Modern Languages

We also thank our team of British Council colleagues in the following countries for their valuable collaboration and assistance:

Austria: Martin Gilbert

Belgium: Julia Kofler, Kirsi Suutarinen

Bosnia and Herzegovina: Samir Avdibegovic, Alisa Mulalic

Bulgaria: Tzvetanka Panova

Denmark: Dorte Friis, Brid Conneely

Estonia: Ursula Roosmaa

France: Marianne Garcia, Sally Goodman, Sandrine Mahieu

Germany: Michael Croasdale Greece: Alison Weedall

Hungary: Viktoria Vas, Agota Biro

Italy: Susan Costantini, Stephen Benians, Isabella Pallone

Lithuania: Vilma Bačkiūtė

Netherlands: Manon de Ruijter, Aleksandra Parcinska,

Canan Marasligil Poland: Alicja Grymek

Portugal: Fátima Dias

Romania: Ruxandra Popovici Spain: Raquel Fernández-Montes Spain (Catalonia): Isabella Petith

Switzerland: Caroline Morrissey, Regula Renggli Ukraine: Irina Sukhinina, Elena Gorsheniova

**UK: Tony Jones** 

UK (Wales): Simon Ford

Finally, we extend our full and heartfelt appreciation to the networks of experts, peer reviewers, country profile contributors and translators, who shared their detailed knowledge to produce the data on which this report is based. Their names are listed below:

#### **Austria**

Dr. Michael Wimmer, EDUCULT

Anke Schad, EDUCULT

Dr. Waldemar Martyniuk, Council of Europe, ECML

#### Peer Reviewer:

Prof. Dieter Halwachs, University of Graz

#### Belgium

Rebecca Marx, Danish Cultural Institute

#### Bosnia & Herzegovina

Prof. Ivo Komsic, University of Sarajevo, Faculty of Philosophy Prof. Jasmin Dzindo, University of Sarajevo, Faculty of Philosophy

#### Peer Reviewer:

Ranko Risojević

#### Bulgaria

Dr. Gueorgui Jetchev, Sofia University

Assoc. Prof Galina Sokolova, Sofia University

Assoc. Prof. Maria Stoicheva, Department of European Studies,

Sofia University 'St. Kliment Ohridski'

#### Peer Reviewer:

Assoc. Prof. Angel Pachev, Department of General and Applied Linguistics, Bulgarian Academy of Science

#### Denmark

Sabine Kirchmeier-Andersen, Danish Language Council

Anne Holmen, Danish School of Education

#### Estonia

Kersti Sõstar, National Examinations and Qualifications Centre

#### Peer Reviewer:

Tuuli Oder, Tallinn University Language Centre

#### **France**

#### Members of the French Steering Group:

Prof. Louis-Jean Calvet, University of Provence

Prof. Christos Clairis, European Observatory for Plurilingualism

Valérie Drake, Ministry of Foreign Affairs

Claire Extramiana, Ministry of Culture and Communication

Prof. José Carlos Herreras, European Observatory for Plurilingualism

Michel Lefranc, Ministry of Education

François Monnanteuil, Ministry of Education

Xavier North, Ministry of Culture and Communication

Christian Tremblay, European Observatory for Plurilingualism

Prof. Claude Truchot, University of Strasbourg

#### Data collectors:

Claude Bourgeois

Dr. Kenza Cherkaoui

Yvonne Touchard

#### Peer reviewer:

Prof. Georges-Daniel Veronique, University of Provence

#### Germany

Dr. Joana Duarte, University of Hamburg, LIMA

Prof. Ingrid Gogolin, University of Hamburg, LIMA

Dr. Patrick Grommes, University of Hamburg, LIMA

Emel Özcep, University of Hamburg, LIMA

Uwe Mohr, Goethe Institut

Barbara Baumann, Goethe Institut

Wolf von Siebert, Goethe Institut

#### Peer Reviewer:

Prof. Marianne Krüger-Potratz, Westfälische Wilhelms-Universität Münster, Institut für Erziehungswissenschaft

#### Greece

Dr. Sara Hannam, formerly of South East European Research Centre

Dr. Evangelia Papathanasiou, formerly of South East European Research Centre

Dr. Zoi Tatsioka, South East European Research Centre

Nikos Zaharis, South East European Research Centre

#### Peer Reviewer:

Prof. Angeliki Kiliari, Aristotle University of Thessaloniki

#### Hungary

Dr. Csilla Bartha, Hungarian Academy of Sciences – Research Centre for Multilingualism

Dr. Noemi Nagy, Hungarian Academy of Sciences – Research Centre for Multilingualism

Helga Hattyar, Hungarian Academy of Sciences – Research Centre for Multilingualism

#### Peer Reviewer:

Prof. Péter Medgyes, University of Budapest

#### Italy

Prof. Monica Barni, Università per Stranieri di Siena Silvia Minardi, lend – lingua e nuova didattica

#### Peer Reviewer:

Prof. Tullio De Mauro, University of Rome

#### Lithuania

Prof. Boguslavas Gruževskis, Lithuanian Social Research Centre

Dr. Julija Moskvina, Lithuanian Social Research Centre

Dr. Irena Smetonienė, State Commission on the Lithuanian Language

#### Peer Reviewer:

Prof. Meilutė Ramonienė, Vilnius University

#### **Netherlands**

Dr. Cor van der Meer, Fryske Akademy

Dr. Saskia Benedictus-van den Berg, Fryske Akademy

#### Peer Reviewer:

Prof. Durk Gorter, University of the Basque Country, Donosta/San Sebastian

#### Translators:

Taalburo Popkema Groningen (Anne Tjerk Popkema)

Translator (Arabic): Dr. Abderrahman el Aissati, Tilburg University

Translator (Turkish): Dr. Kutlay Yagmur, Tilburg University

#### **Poland**

Dr. Liliana Szczuka-Dorna, Institute for Quality in Education

Dr. Pawel Poszytek, formally of Institute for Quality in Education

#### Peer Reviewer:

Prof. Władysław Miodunka, University of Krakow

#### **Portugal**

Nuno Carvalho, ILTEC – Institute of Theoretical and Computational Linguistics

Cristina Faustino, Instituto Camões

Lis Gonçalves, ILTEC – Institute of Theoretical and Computational Linguistics

Prof. Lachlan Mackenzie, ILTEC – Institute of Theoretical and Computational Linguistics

Prof. Maria Helena Mateus, ILTEC – Institute of Theoretical and Computational Linguistics

Fabíola Santos, ILTEC – Institute of Theoretical and Computational Linguistics

#### Peer Reviewer:

Prof. Ricardo Salomão, Universidade Aberta (Open University, Portugal)

#### Romania

Dr. Anca Nedelcu, Centre Education 2000+

Monica Dvorski, Centre Education 2000+

Alexandru Cernat, Centre Education 2000+ – external collaborator

Prof. Stefan Colibaba, EuroEd Foundation

Prof. Anca Colibaba, EuroEd Foundation

#### Peer Reviewer:

Dr. Calin Rus, Intercultural Institute of Timisoara

#### **Spain**

Madrid, Sevilla, Valencia:

Prof. Marta Genís, Universidad Nebrija

#### Peer Reviewer:

Prof. José J. Gómez Asencio, University of Salamanca

#### Translators:

María Ortiz y Carmen Octavio, Universidad Nebrija

Basque Country:

Iván Igartua, Department of Culture of the Basque Government

#### Peer Reviewer:

Prof. Alberto López Basaguren, University of the Basque Country

#### Translators:

Idoia Gillenea, Hitzurun

Catalonia:

Prof. Xavier Vila, University of Barcelona

#### Peer Reviewer:

Prof. Miquel Àngel Pradilla Cardona, Universitat Rovira I Virgili

#### Translator:

Mª del Mar Vilano

#### **Switzerland**

Prof. Raphael Bertele, University of Fribourg, Institute of Multilingualism

Prof. Bernhard Lindt, University of Fribourg, Institute of Multilingualism

Susanne Obermayer, University of Fribourg, Institute of Multilingualism

#### Peer Reviewer:

Prof. Georges Lüdi, University of Basel

#### Ukraine

Dr. Lyubov Naydonova, Institute of Social and Political Psychology Dr. Yaroslav M. Pylynsky, the Kennan Institute, Kyiv Project

#### **United Kingdom**

Phillip Harding-Esch, Languages Company

Dr. Elidir King, Languages Company

Teresa Tinsley, Alcantara Communications

Nick Byrne, Language Centre at the London School of Economics and Political Science

#### Peer reviewer:

Prof. Mike Kelly, University of Southampton Hywel Jones, Welsh Language Commissioner

#### Peer reviewer:

Wales: Prof. Colin Williams, Cardiff University

Meirion Prys Jones, Welsh Language Board

#### Previously also:

Kathryn Board, CILT – National Centre for Languages Youping Han, CILT – National Centre for Languages Nick Joujou, CILT – National Centre for Languages

### INTRODUCTION

#### Martin Hope, Project Director, Language Rich Europe

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 cooperation between policy makers and practitioners in Europe in developing good policies and practices for multilingualism. Such polices 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 TV 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 cooperation in developing language policies and practices across several education sectors and broader society
- to raise awareness of the EU 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.

Although of course the findings from our study still need to be refined, as does the framework we have used to investigate language policies and practices in Europe, we are keen to put them out now for consultation, and share them with stakeholders, in order to generate dialogue and debate. The overall European findings will be made available in a publication in 23 languages at the end of 2012.

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 Yagmur 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 cooperation activities.

#### **Head of Language Policy Unit**

www.coe.int/lang
Platform of resources and references for
plurilingual and intercultural education

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

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 this study provide 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 EU and 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 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 & Herzegovina, Denmark, Greece and Netherlands. Portugal only collects data on the national language.
- There is also variation in the major language question(s) asked in official nation-/region-wide 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. Netherlands and Ukraine devote the most time to this.
- Foreign language provision at this level is offered by seven countries/regions: Bosnia & Herzegovina, the 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 and 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 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 saying that 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 Zürich). 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. Preservice 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 & 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.
- 19 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.
- 18 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, Netherlands, Scotland and Switzerland.
- Full state funding is available for immigrant languages in Austria, Denmark, England, 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.

#### 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.
- 62 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. 41 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.

- 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 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. 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 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 TV and cinema are Bosnia & Herzegovina, Denmark, England, Estonia, Friesland, Greece, 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 these 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 followed 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. Deaf people can always make use of sign languages in official interactions with authorities in half of the countries/regions surveyed. Facilities for sign language subtitling in 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.

#### 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.

- 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. 23 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 Krakow.
- 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, Zürich, 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 Krakow 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 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 per cent 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 per cent of the companies surveyed, with 14 per cent offering support in the national language for non-native speakers, and 12 per cent for other languages. A relatively small percentage have reward or promotion schemes for language learning, with 11 per cent reporting that it is widespread for business English and only 5 per cent 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 per cent for the national language for non-native speakers, and 14 per cent 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 per cent 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 business, our 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).

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 cooperation in developing language policies and practices across several education sectors and broader society;
- to raise awareness of the European Union and Council of Europe (EU and CoE) recommendations for promoting language learning and linguistic diversity across Europe.

As 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 macrolevel 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* project (LRE), co-financed by the European Commission under its *Lifelong Learning Programme*, 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 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 and Council of Europe resolutions, conventions and recommendations to examine language policies and practices in 24 countries and regions, constructing and administering the research questionnaire among our partner network, processing and analysing the data, and writing up the crossnational 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 cooperation in developing language policies and practices across several education sectors and broader society
- to raise awareness of the European Union and Council of Europe (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 <a href="http://europa.eu/">http://europa.eu/</a> 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, <a href="http://www.coe.int/lang">www.coe.int/lang</a>, publications are offered in the domains of policy development, instruments and standards, languages of school education, migrants, conference reports and selected studies.

The Council of Europe 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/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 cooperation 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
- 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 Domains 3-4 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), and 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, and 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 (EFNIL) 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 vs. 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. Curriculumindependent tests were designed, standardized and applied for reading, listening and writing skills in each of the five languages referred to and linked to 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 subprogrammes, 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 Council of Europe is an intergovernmental organisation with 47 Member States, including the 27 European Union States.

The Council of Europe'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 civilization. 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 Council of Europe 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 respectively. 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.

Council of Europe 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 (Council of Europe, 1998) emphasizing 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 Council of Europe;

- 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 Council of Europe 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 Council of Europe'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 Common European Framework of Reference for Languages.

The Guide for the Development of Language Education Policies in Europe (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" (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, Swedish in Sweden, etc. – 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* 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 Council of Europe, 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, immigrant languages. The Council of Europe encourages a holistic approach that develops increased synergy between languages, greater coordination between teachers and exploitation of learners' transversal competences.

The CoE work on language education is coordinated 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 cooperation 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).

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 *Language Policy Unit* 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). 31 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 4-year medium-term programmes of projects organised in cooperation 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 Common European Framework of Reference (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).

In designing the LRE questionnaire for our survey, we drew on the 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.

III Albania, Andorra, Armenia, Austria, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Croatia, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Iceland, Ireland, Latvia, Liechtenstein, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, Montenegro, 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
Council Resolutions/Conclusions  Decision of the European Parliament and of the Council on the European Year of Languages 2001 (2000)  Presidency Conclusions of the Barcelona European Council (2002)  Conclusions on multilingualism (May 2008)  Resolution on a European strategy for multilingualism (November 2008)  Conclusions on a strategic framework for European cooperation in education and training ET 2020 (2009)  Conclusions on language competencies to enhance mobility (2011)	Conventions  - European Cultural Convention (1954)  - European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages (ECRML) (1992)  - Framework Convention for the Protection of National Minorities (1995)  - European Social Charter (rev 1996)
<ul> <li>European Parliament Resolutions</li> <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>	Recommendations of the Committee of Ministers  Recommendation N° R (82)18 concerning modern languages (1982)  Recommendation N° R (98)6 concerning modern languages (1998)  Recommendation CM/Rec (2008)7 on the use of the CEFR and the promotion of plurilingualism
Communications by the European Commission  Communication 2005: A new framework strategy for multilingualism  Communication 2008: Multilingualism: An asset for Europe and a shared commitment  Green Paper 2008: Migration and Mobility: Challenges and opportunities for EU education systems	Recommendations of the Parliamentary Assembly  Recommendation 1383 (1998) on linguistic diversification  Recommendation 1539 (2001) on the European Year of Languages 2001  Recommendation 1598 (2003) on the protection of sign languages in the Member States of the Council of Europe  Recommendation 1740 (2006) on the place of mother tongue in school education
External reports  - Final Report of the High Level Group on Multilingualism (2007)  - Languages mean business: companies work better with languages, Business Forum for Multilingualism (2008)	External reports     From linguistic diversity to plurilingual education: Guide for the development of language education policies in Europe: Beacco and Byram (2007)     Guide for the development and implementation of curricula for plurilingual and intercultural education, Beacco et al. (2010)
	Tools for Teaching and Learning  Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) (2001) [1]  European Language Portfolio (ELP) (2001)  A framework of reference for pluralistic approaches to languages and cultures (FREPA) (2012): http://carap.ecml.at  European Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages (2007): http://epostl2.ecml.at

<sup>&</sup>lt;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 Hindispeaking 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 Barcelona. 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 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 Members 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.

The most 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 show 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)

Sta	atements	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 per cent 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 through in education systems in our 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 intragroup 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 Part 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 deaf people 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 the 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 will include reference to sign language(s) in Domains 1 and 6 of the Questionnaire to be proposed.

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

Nr	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
	Total of questions	260

Domain 1 explores the availability of nationwide or region-wide 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, e.g. Eurydice 2008). The responses in these sections are based on publicly available data as well from official sources.

Given the significant diversification in post-secondary education at the national and cross national level, Domain 5 focuses on basic (vocational) vs. 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-city 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 TV 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 & Herzegovina, has three national languages: Bosnian, Serbian and Croatian. 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 (Zürich), 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 is 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' – the Basque Country and Catalonia. Three profiles have been created: a combined profile for Madrid, Sevilla and Valencia and two separate profiles for the Basque Country and Catalonia. The 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 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.

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

Nr	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	Krakow	Gdansk	Kashubian
12.	Portugal	Lisbon	Oporto	Miranda do Douro*	Mirandese
13.	Romania	Bucharest	laşi	Cluj	Hungarian
14.	Ukraine	Kiev	Kharkiv	Lviv	Russian
	Type B Countries	Largest city	City in region 2	City in region 3	Official language(s)
15.	Bosnia & Herzegovina	Sarajevo	Banja-Luka	Mostar	Bosnian/Serbian/ Croatian
16.	Switzerland	Zürich	Genève	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 N.Ireland	London Cardiff Glasgow Belfast	Sheffield Swansea Edinburgh	– Newport Aberdeen –	English Welsh/English Gaellic/Scots/English Irish/Ulster Scots/English

<sup>\*</sup>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

Nr	Language domain	Targets per city (3x)
5.	Languages in further and higher education	<ul> <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> <li>Language provision in radio and TV 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> <li>Institutionalised language strategies, oral communication facilities and written information facilities at the central city level</li> </ul>
8.	Languages in business	<ul> <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 microsociolinguistic 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 per cent 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 corresponding 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 cooperation 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 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 & 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 peerreviewed 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, i.e., Bosnia-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 scrutinizing 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 this chapter, 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, media and business. Cross-sectional data from different domains are 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 longitudinal 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 after the introduction, as is common practice in EU research projects.

Germany is a federal and highly decentralized state, in particular in the domains of education and socio-cultural welfare. It has been unfeasible to collect 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 responsibilities at 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 database for Germany has not been incorporated in our cross-national analyses 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 CoE's (CoE) official record (ECRML), we were able to map policies and reported practices in this area.

Table 1 provides the answers for 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 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 or Minority	Immigrant	National	Foreign	Regional or Minority	Immigrant
Austria	√		√		√		√	
Basque Country	√		√		√	V	√	
Bosnia & Herzegovina	√		√		√	V	√	
Bulgaria	√	V	√	√	√	V	√	
Catalonia	√		√		√	V	√	√
Denmark	√	V	√	√	√			
England			√		√	V	√	
Estonia	√	V		√	√	V		
France	√	V	√		√	V	√	√
Friesland	√	V	√		√	V	√	
Greece	√				√	V		
Hungary	√	V	√		√	V	√	
Italy			√		√	V	√	
Lithuania	√	V	√		√	V	√	
Netherlands	√	V	√		√	V	√	
Northern Ireland	√	V	√		√	V	√	
Poland	√		√					
Portugal	√		√		√	V		
Romania	√	V	V		√	V	√	
Scotland	√	√	√	√	√	V	√	
Spain	√	V	√	√	√	V	√	V
Switzerland	√		√		√	V	√	V
Ukraine	√	√	√		√	V	√	
Wales	√	√	√			$\sqrt{}$	<b>√</b>	

As mentioned in Section 1.1, one of the key documents supporting linguistic diversity in Europe is the CoE 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	Croatian (in Burgenland), Czech (in Vienna), Hungarian (in Burgenland and in Vienna), Romani (in Burgenland), Slovak (in Vienna), Slovene (in Carinthia and Styria)
Bosnia & Herzegovina	Albanian, Czech, German, Hungarian, Italian, Jewish languages (Yiddish language and Ladino language), Macedonian, Montenegrin, Polish, ROMANI, Rusyn, Serbo-Croatian, Slovak, Slovene, Turkish, Ukrainian
Bulgaria	ARMENIAN, HEBREW, ROMANI, TURKISH
Denmark	German (ESKIMO-ALEUT AND FAROESE PROTECTED BY THE LAWS ON HOME RULE)
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'OÎL ('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	Armenian, Bulgarian, Greek, Polish, Rusyn, Ukrainian, Croatian, German, Romani, Boyash, Romanian, Serbian, Slovak, Slovene
Italy	ALBANIAN, CATALAN, CROATIAN, FRANCO-PROVENÇAL, FRENCH, FRIULAN, GERMAN, GREEK, LADIN, OCCITAN, SARDINIAN, SLOVENE
Lithuania	BELARUSAN, HEBREW, POLISH, RUSSIAN
Netherlands	Limburgish, Low Saxon, Romani, Yiddish: protected and recognised. Frisian: promoted
Poland	Armenian, Belarusan, Czech, German, Hebrew, Karaim, Kashubian, Lemko, Lithuanian, Romani, Russian, Slovak, Tatar, Ukrainian, Yiddish
Portugal	MIRANDESE
Romania	Albanian, Armenian, Bulgarian, Croatian, Czech, German, Greek, Hungarian, Italian, Macedonian, Polish, Romani, Russian, Rusyn, Serbian, Slovak, Tatar, Turkish, Ukrainian, Yiddish
Spain	Basque, Catalan, Galician, Valencian, Arabic, Aranese Occital, Asturian/Bable, Berber languages, Caló, Fable Aragonese, Portuguese, Romani
Switzerland	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
UK	Cornish in England, Irish and Ulster-Scots in Northern Ireland, Scottish-Gaelic and Scots in Scotland, Welsh in Wales
Ukraine	Belarusan, Bulgarian, Crimean Tatar, Gagauz, German, Greek, Hungarian, Moldovan, Polish, Romanian, Russian, Slovak, Yiddish

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 region-wide education, either according to official national documents or the ECRML.

**Table 3:** R/M languages officially provided in nation- or region-wide 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 region-wide education	N Total
Austria	Burgenland: Croatian, Hungarian, Romani; Slovene in Carinthia	4
Bosnia & Herzegovina	Albanian, Czech, German, Hungarian, Italian, Jewish languages (Yiddish and Ladino), Macedonian, Montenegrin, Polish, Romani, Romanian, Rusyn, Slovak, Slovene, Turkish, Ukrainian	17
Bulgaria	ARMENIAN, HEBREW, ROMANI, TURKISH	4
Denmark	German	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	Croatian, German, ROMANI, BOYASH, Romanian, Serbian, Slovak, Slovene	8
Italy	ALBANIAN, CATALAN, CROATIAN, FRANCO-PROVENÇAL, FRENCH, FRIULAN, GERMAN, GREEK, LADIN, DCCITAN, SARDINIAN, SLOVENE	
Lithuania	BELARUSAN, HEBREW, POLISH, RUSSIAN	4
Netherlands	Frisian in Friesland only	1
Poland	Armenian, Belarusan, German, Hebrew, Kashubian, Lemko, Lithuanian, Russian, Slovak, Ukrainian, Czech, Karaim, Romani, Tatar, Yiddish	15
Portugal	MIRANDESE in the region of Miranda do Douro	1
Romania	Bulgarian, Croatian, Czech, German, Greek, Hungarian, Italian, Polish, Romani, Russian, Serbian, Slovak, Tartar, Turkish, Ukrainian	15
Spain	Aranese-Occital, Basque, Catalan, Galician, Valencian	4
Switzerland	Italian, Romansch	2
UK	Cornish, Irish, Scottish-Gaelic, Welsh	4
Ukraine	Belarusan, Bulgarian, Crimean Tatar, Gagauz, German, Greek, Hungarian, Moldovan, Polish, Romanian, Russian, Slovak, Yiddish	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 guestions. 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/region-wide data collection mechanisms on national languages, R/M languages and immigrant languages

Country/region	Official nation/region-wide 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 & 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	-				
N. 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 & 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 & 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	-	-
N. 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 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 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.

15 of the 24 countries/regions surveyed provide additional support at pre-primary level in the national language. These are Austria, the Basque Country, Bulgaria, Denmark, England, Friesland, Lithuania, 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
Target groups	all	14	immigrant children only	1		
Duration of support	>2 years	10	1 year	5	<1 year	0
Days per week	≥1 day	3	1/2-1 day	10	<1/2 day	2
Group size requirements	none	13	5–10	2	>10	0
State funding	full	14	partial	1		

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, Netherlands, Scotland and Switzerland – offer one year. In 14 countries/regions this support is offered by the state, while in Switzerland parents 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 7 countries/regions (C/R)

Criteria	Replies	N.	Replies	N.	Replies	N.
Target groups	All	7	restricted	0		
Duration	>2 years	6	1 year	0	<1 year	1
Days per week	>1 day	1	1/2-1 day	6	<1/2 day	0
Group size requirements	none	6	5-10	0	>10	1
State funding	full	2	partial	3	parents pay costs	2

The seven countries/regions offering foreign languages at this level are Bosnia & Herzegovina, the Basque Country, Bulgaria, Catalonia, Estonia, Spain and Ukraine. The 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. English, French and German are the most common languages on offer.

**Table 8:** Foreign language provision in pre-primary education in 7 countries/regions

Country/region	Foreign languages offered
Bosnia & 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
Target groups	all	14	restricted	1	not specified	2
Duration	>2 years	15	1 year	2	<1 year	0
Days per week	>1 day	12	1/2-1 day	3	<1/2 day	2
Group size requirements	none	13	5–10	2	>10	2
State funding	full	15	partial	2	parents pay costs	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 pay part of the costs. The countries where R/M languages are not offered in pre-primary education are Bosnia & 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	Burgenland-Croatian, 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	Scottish Gaellic
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 Zürich 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 3 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 Zürich	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, 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 and 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, 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 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-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
Curriculum	coherent and explicit	19	general	5	none	0
Extra support for newcomers	full	22	partial	0	none	2
Diagnostic testing on entry	for all	8	for immigrants only	7	none	9
Monitoring of language skills	national level	16	school level	8	none	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.

23 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
Target groups	all	23	restricted	0		
Number of compulsory foreign languages	two	2	one	18	optional only	3
Curriculum	coherent and explicit	20	general	3	no guidelines	0
Language used as medium of instruction (CLIL)	widespread	1	localised	13	subject only	9
Start of language education	from year one	12	from mid-phase	7	from end-phase	4
Scheduling	in school hours	21	partly in school	1	outside school	1
Minimum group size requirements	none	21	5–10 pupils	1	>10 pupils	1
Monitoring of language skills	standardised national level	10	school-based level	13	absent	0
Level to be achieved	linked to CEFR	7	national or school-based	13	none	3
State funding available	full	23	partial	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, Czech, English, French, Hungarian, Italian, Slovak, Slovene (one of these languages is compulsory)
Basque Country	English: compulsory
Bosnia & 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
N. 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 Zürich 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 highlights the increasing dominance of English in primary language teaching. 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 14. 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 7 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 and 'not specified' in Valencia
Switzerland	In the Zürich 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
Target groups	all	20	restricted	2		
Curriculum	coherent and explicit	16	general	5	no guidelines	1
Language used as medium of instruction (CLIL)	widespread	12	in some areas	6	subject only	4
Start of language education	from year one	19	from mid-phase	3	from end-phase	0
Scheduling	in school hours	17	partly in school	4	outside school	1
Minimum group size requirements	none	16	5–10 pupils	3	>10 pupils	3
Monitoring of language skills	national standardised	8	school-based	11	none	3
Level to be achieved	national/regional norms	14	school-based	3	none	5
State funding available	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 & 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	Burgenland-Croatian, Czech, Hungarian, Slovak, Slovene, Romani
Basque Country	Basque
Bosnia & Herzegovina	Other National Languages: Bosnian, Serbian and Croatian
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
N. Ireland	Irish
Poland	Kashubian
Portugal	Mirandese
Romania	Bulgarian, Croatian, German, Hungarian, Italian, Polish, Romani, Russian-Lipovan, Serbian, Slovak, Turkish, Ukrainian
Scotland	Scottish 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, 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 Zürich) and the results from these five countries are set out in Table 18

Table 18: Organisation of immigrant language learning in primary education in 5 countries/regions

Criteria	Replies	N	Replies	N	Replies	N
Target groups	all	2	Immigrant children only	3	not specified	0
Coherent and explicit curriculum	coherent and explicit	2	general	3	no guidelines	0
Language used as medium of instruction	widespread	1	localised	3	subject only	1
Start of language education	from year one	2	from mid-phase	1	from end-phase	2
Scheduling	in school hours	0	partly in school	2	outside school	3
Minimum group size requirements	none	2	5–10 pupils	1	>10 pupils	2
Monitoring of language skills	national level	0	local level	5	none	0
Level to be achieved	country-/region-based	0	school-based	0	none	5
State funding available	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 extracurricular 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 5 countries

Country/region	Immigrant languages offered in primary education
Austria	Albanian, Bosnian/Serbian/Croatian, Polish, Russian, Turkish
Denmark	Albanian, Arabic, Bosnian, Icelandic, Somali, Tamil, Turkish, Urdu/Punjabi
France	Arabic, Croatian, Italian, Portuguese, Serbian, Spanish, Turkish
Spain (Madrid, Valencia, Sevilla)	(Moroccan) Arabic and Portuguese in Madrid and Valencia
Switzerland	In Zürich: Albanian, Arabic, Bosnian/Serbian/ Croatian, 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 I		Replies	N countries			Replies	N countries					
		NL	R/M	FL	IL		NL	R/M	FL	IL		NL	R/M	FL	IL
Teacher qualifications	qualified language teachers	16	17	14	2	generally qualified teachers	8	5	9	3	no specific qualification	0	2	1	19
Pre-service training	subject- specific	20	18	17	1	general	4	3	4	2	none	0	3	3	21
In-service training	subject- specific	16	14	20	1	general	7	7	3	4	none	1	3	1	14
Measures to increase supply	structural measures	3	7	8	0	recruitment campaigns in press	1	2	2	0	no specific measures	20	15	14	24
Teacher mobility	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-integrated language 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, 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 preservice 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 the 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 & 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, is 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 cooperation across countries to set up joint projects are also considered an important ingredient 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
Curriculum	coherent and explicit	20	general	4	none	0
Extra support for newcomers	full	21	partial	0	none	3
Diagnostic testing on entry	for all	9	for immigrant children only	5	none	10
Monitoring of language skills	national level	15	school level	8	none	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 & Herzegovina, Catalonia, England, France, Poland, Portugal, Scotland, Ukraine, and Wales. Another five countries/regions - Bulgaria, Hungary, Lithuania, Spain and the 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
Target groups	all	24	restricted	0	no support	0
Number of compulsory foreign languages (lower secondary level)	two	14	one	10	none	0
Number of compulsory foreign languages (upper secondary level)	two	9	one	10	none	5
Curriculum	coherent and explicit	20	general	4	no guidelines	0
Language used as medium of instruction (CLIL)	widespread	1	in some areas	14	subject only	9
Scheduling	in school hours	23	partly in school	1	outside school	0
Minimum group size requirements	none	19	5–10 pupils	5	>10 pupils	0
Monitoring of language skills	standardised national level	11	school-based level	13	absent	0
Level to be achieved	linked to CEFR	13	national or school-based	7	none	4
State funding	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 & Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Catalonia, England, Hungary, N.Ireland, Spain, Wales (Madrid, Valencia, Sevilla)	Scotland
Upper secondary	Austria, Bulgaria, Estonia, France, Hungary, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Switzerland	Basque Country, Bosnia & Herzegovina, Catalonia, Denmark, Friesland, Italy, Lithuania, Netherlands, Spain, Ukraine	England, Greece, N.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 set are set out in Table 24.

**Table 24:** CEFR attainment targets for foreign language 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: first FL: B1; second FL: A2 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, range between A1 to B2 (or C1 for reading skills)
Hungary	First foreign language: B1 or B2; Second foreign languages B1
Lithuania	Lower secondary level: 1st FL – B1; 2nd FL – A2; Upper secondary level: In connection with achievements at lower secondary: B2, B1 or A2
Netherlands	Depending on school type, 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 Zürich 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
Target groups	all	18	restricted	1	not specified	0
Coherent and explicit curriculum	coherent and explicit	16	general	3	no guidelines	0
Language used as medium of instruction (CLIL)	widespread	10	in some areas	8	subject only	1
Scheduling	in school hours	15	partly in school	3	outside school	1
Minimum group size requirements	none	13	5–10 pupils	1	>10 pupils	5
Monitoring of language skills	standard national/ regional tests	10	school-based tests	8	no testing	1
Level to be achieved	country-/region-based	14	school-based	3	none	2
State funding available	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 & 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 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, 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 8 countries/regions

Criteria	Replies	N	Replies	N	Replies	N
Target groups	all	4	restricted to native speakers only	3	not specified	1
Coherent and explicit curriculum	coherent and explicit	3	general	3	no guidelines	2
Language used as medium of instruction (CLIL)	widespread	1	localised	2	subject only	5
Scheduling	in school hours	1	partly in school	1	outside school	6
Minimum group size requirements	none	4	5–10 pupils	2	>10 pupils	2
Monitoring of language skills	standard national tests	1	school-based tests	5	none	2
Level to be achieved	linked to national standards	2	school-based	3	none	3
State funding available	full	5	partial	2	none	1

Of the eight countries/regions reporting provision, England, Denmark, France and 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 (Zürich 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 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, 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 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	Burgenland-Croatian, Czech, Hungarian, Romani, Slovak, Slovene	<b>Compulsory</b> 2 from English, French, Italian, Spanish	Albanian, Bosnian, Serbian, Croatian, Polish, Russian, Turkish
Basque Country	Basque	Compulsory English, German Optional Arabic, French, Italian, Russian, Turkish	-
Bosnia & Herzegovina	Bosnian, Serbian, Croatian as other national languages	Compulsory English, German Optional Arabic, French, Italian, Russian, Turkish	-
Bulgaria	Armenian, Hebrew, Romani, Turkish	Compulsory: 1–2 from Croatian, Czech, English, French, German, Italian, Japanese, Korean, Polish, Romanian, Russian, Serbian, Slovak, Spanish Optional: others from above selection	-
Catalonia	Catalan everywhere, Aranese-Occitan in Val d'Aran	Compulsory: 1 from English, French, occasionally German and Italian Optional: Ancient Greek, Latin and others	-
Denmark	-	Compulsory: English Optional: Ancient Greek, Chinese, French, German, Italian, Japanese, Latin, Russian, Spanish	Arabic, Turkish
England	-	Compulsory: 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	-	Compulsory: 2 from English, French, German, Russian,	Chinese, Finnish, Swedish

Country/region	(Mainly) R/M languages	(Mainly) foreign languages	(Mainly) immigrant languages	
France	Alsacian/German, Basque, Breton, Catalan, Corsican, Occitan, Mosellan, Creole, Tahitian, Melanesian languages (Ajïé, Drehu, Nengone, Paici)	Compulsory: 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	-	Compulsory: English Optional: 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, Belarusan	Compulsory: 1 from English, French, German Optional: other languages	-	
Netherlands	Frisian in Friesland only	Compulsory: English plus one other language at highest level of secondary. Optional: Ancient Greek, Chinese, French, German, Italian, Latin, Russian Spanish.	Arabic, Turkish	
N. Ireland	Irish	Compulsory: 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</i> , Spanish	-	
Scotland	Scottish Gaelic	<b>Optional:</b> 1 from French, German or Spanish, Italian and Chinese.	Chinese, Russian, Urdu	
Spain (Madrid, Valencia, Sevilla)	Valencian in Valencia only	Compulsory: 1 from English, French, German.	-	
Switzerland	French, German, Italian as other national languages	Compulsory: 1–2 from English, Greek, Latin, Spanish	In Zürich: 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	Belarusan, Bulgarian, Crimean Tatar, Gagauz, German, Greek, Hebrew, Hungarian, Moldovan, Polish, Romanian, Russian, Slovak	Compulsory: 1–2 from English, French, German or Spanish depending on the school Optional: Armenian, Czech, Korean, Turkish, Vietnamese: as extra-curricular languages	-	
Wales	Welsh	Compulsory: 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 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
Teacher qualifications	language teachers	23	16	22	3	classroom teachers	1	3	2	3	no specific qualification	0	5	0	18
Pre-service training	subject- specific	22	17	22	3	general	2	2	2	2	no training	0	5	0	19
In-service training	subject- specific	19	14	20	3	general	5	5	4	5	no training	0	5	0	16
Level of language	linked to CEFR	4	N/A	8	N/A	national / regional standards	13	N/A	13	N/A	no clear standards	7	N/A	4	N/A
Measures to increase supply of teachers where there is a shortage	structural measures	7	8	10	1	campaigns	2	0	1	1	no specific measures	15	16	13	22
Teacher mobility	structural programmes	N/A	N/A	2	N/A	support on demand	N/A	N/A	17	N/A	no support	N/A	N/A	5	N/A

In 23 of the 24 countries/regions, additional national language 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 Zürich 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 preservice 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 8 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 Zürich: C2

C1 appears to be the most common level required, while requirements are higher in Catalonia and Switzerland (Zürich), 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 Netherlands do qualified subject-specific language teachers conduct classes in immigrant languages 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 the Basque Country, England, Romania, Scotland, Switzerland are taking measures to increase supply in three of the four language categories.

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

In this section, longitudinal 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/	Primar	y educatio	n	Secondary education			
region	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 EU *Lifelong Learning Programme*, 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:

a) incorporate such programmes into the structure of teacher development programmes, with teachers spending at least one term in the target country,

b) do not incorporate this, but do encourage and finance individual teacher initiatives. or

c) 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 & Herzegovina, Denmark, England, Estonia, Greece, Hungary, Lithuania, Poland, Scotland, Spain (Madrid, Valencia, Sevilla), Ukraine	Basque Country, Bosnia & 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, primary and secondary 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
Acknowledgement of multilingualism and the plurilingual repertoire of pupils	8	11	9	15	11	11	1	2	4
Teachers trained to make use of plurilingual repertoire of learners	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 & 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
Target groups	for all	37	restricted	9	not specified	23
Range of language support programmes	wide variety	30	limited variety	24	none	15
Curriculum outline	coherent and explicit	43	general	8	absent	18
Type of courses	job-related courses and general courses	34	general courses only	13	job-related courses only	7
State funding	full	39	partial	10	none	19
Training periods in companies	built into course	13	optional	3	none	53
Use of European instruments	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 jobrelated 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
Number of languages offered	> 4 languages	15	0	1	3–4 languages	22	3	1	1–2 languages	25	22	2
Range of programmes	wide variety	41	17	2	limited variety	18	7	2	not specified	10	45	65
Curriculum	coherent and explicit	50	18	1	general	11	5	3	not specified	8	46	65
Alignment with CEFR	fully aligned	26	N/A	N/A	national standards	27	N/A	N/A	not specified	16	N/A	N/A
State funding available	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.

62 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. 41 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 the Basque Country, Catalonia, Hungary, Northern Ireland, and Wales. Bosnia & 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 (3 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, Serbian, Croatian, Turkish
Basque Country	Basque	English, French	-
Bosnia & Herzegovina	Bosnian, Serbian, Croatian, 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	-
N. 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
Language of instruction	23	31	11
	national, foreign, RM	national and foreign	national only
Language of website	17	38	10
	national, foreign, RM	national and foreign	national only
Target groups for additional support in NL	24	38	3
	all students	non-native speakers only	not offered
Number of languages offered to non-language students	31	10	14
	>4	3- 4	1- 2
Level to be achieved by language students	34	22	9
	linked to CEFR	national/inst. based	none
Recruitment of non-national students	33 international and immigrant	31 international only	1 only national students
Mobility among language students	10	51	4
	obligatory	optional	no offer
Mobility among non-language students	1	60	4
	obligatory	optional	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

## 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 TV programs 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 TV and radio programs. Based on our researchers' reports it becomes clear that multilingual radio and TV programmes are available in a number of countries. Our researchers recorded only programmes in the national language on TV and radio as listed in the newspapers in Bosnia & Herzegovina, Greece and Poland. Most other participating countries offered programs in English, German and French both on TV and on radio. Next to the national language, English is the most common TV language in Austria, Basque Country, Catalonia, Denmark, Estonia, Italy, Netherlands/Friesland, Portugal, Spain, Switzerland and Ukraine. German TV programs are recorded in Catalonia, Denmark, Estonia, France, Hungary, Netherlands/ Friesland and Romania. French is listed in Catalonia, Denmark, England, and Estonia. In a number of countries a rich variety of TV programs in R/M languages are listed; for instance, Bulgaria offers TV programs in Armenian, Hebrew, Romani and Turkish. France, Hungary and Romania display similar trends regarding R/M languages. In some countries and regions like Catalonia, England, Netherlands and Switzerland, TV programs in immigrant languages are listed as well. Radio programs show a similar pattern to the TV programs. While the offer on radio is much broader compared to TV programs in Bulgaria, France, Hungary, Italy and Lithuania; the variety is much less in Catalonia, Estonia and Netherlands.

Bosnia & 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/	Television p	roductions	Movie productions			
region	Commonly dubbed	Commonly subtitled	Commonly dubbed	Commonly subtitled		
Austria	$\checkmark$		√			
Basque Country	V		√			
Bosnia & Herzegovina		√		$\sqrt{}$		
Bulgaria	$\checkmark$			$\checkmark$		
Catalonia	√		V			
Denmark		√		$\checkmark$		
England		V		√		
Estonia		V		√		
France	√			√		
Friesland		V		√		
Greece		V		√		
Hungary	√		V			
Italy	√		V			
Lithuania	√			$\checkmark$		
Netherlands		√		$\checkmark$		
N. Ireland		V		√		
Poland	√		V			
Portugal		√		$\checkmark$		
Romania		V		√		
Scotland		$\checkmark$		√		
Spain	V		V			
Switzerland		√		√		
Ukraine		$\checkmark$	$\sqrt{}$			
Wales		√		$\checkmark$		

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 & Herzegovina, Denmark, England, Estonia, Friesland, Greece, 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) (Top 20)

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 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 deaf people, and that official recognition of sign languages is needed. It was also recommended that broadcasting television programmes in sign languages or with sign language 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 deaf people 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	$\checkmark$	Always	Sometimes
Basque Country	-	-	Sometimes
Bosnia & 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
N. 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	V	Only in some cases	Sometimes

Sign languages are officially recognised/promoted in all countries/regions with the exception of the with the exception of Basque Country, Denmark, Greece, Italy and Poland. Deaf people 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 public spaces at the city (council) level, i.e., at the central city level, not at the decentral 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.

64 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 are 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
Languages in job descriptions of staff	23	27	13
Language training for staff	18	24	22
Recruitment of speakers of other languages	11	30	23
Record of language skills of staff	17	9	37

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

No policies in place	1 city
Poorly developed policies in very limited number of languages	6 cities
Partly developed policies in a few languages	21 cities
Developed policies in several languages	31 cities
Well developed policies in many languages	3 cities
Very well developed policies in many languages	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 Krakow. 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

Or	al 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 10 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 10 cities which report offering the most oral communication services in the most languages are in ranked order London, Aberdeen, Glasgow, Madrid, Valencia, Zürich, 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 10 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 10 cities which offer the most written communication services in the most languages are in ranked order London, Glasgow, Aberdeen, Belfast, Valencia, Sevilla, Lugano, Zürich, 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 5 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) had 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 and also use the current language resources of their staff, should 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 4 sectors (484 companies, in %)

Policy	Widely practised	Occasionally practised	Not practised
Languages strategy	24	28	48
Language skills in recruitment	55	28	17
Mobility	23	27	50
Use of external translators/interpreters	22	35	43
Staff records of language skills	1	29	70
Use of networks for language training	10	15	75
Use of EU programmes/ funding	5	8	87
Awareness of EU programmes/ funding	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 per cent 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	ВЕ	OL	NL	ВЕ	OL	NL	BE	OL
Partnerships with education sector	7	10	7	10	17	7	83	73	86
Reward/ promotion schemes	5	11	5	9	12	6	86	77	89
Language training provision	14	27	12	18	23	12	68	50	76
Use of CEFR in language training	4	7	3	7	9	6	89	84	91
Languages used for workplace documents and intranet	96	41	14	3	21	10	1	38	76
Languages used for software and web programmes	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 per cent of the companies surveyed, with 14 per cent offering support in the national language for non-native speakers, and 12 per cent for other languages. A relatively small percentage have reward or promotion schemes, with 11 per cent reporting that it is widespread for business English and only 5 per cent 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 per cent for the national language for non-native speakers, and 14 per cent 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 per cent 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			Occasionally practised			Not practised			
	NL	ВЕ	OL	NL	ВЕ	OL	NL	ВЕ	OL
Annual business report	92	38	11	2	11	5	6	51	84
Marketing materials	95	40	19	2	17	11	3	42	70
Corporate branding	92	48	22	5	24	19	3	28	59
Company website	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 per cent 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 attempted 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 &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 Zürich 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 Zürich and Geneva only (26), Austria (24), Bosnia (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 & Herzgovina (13), 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 & 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)

<sup>\*</sup>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, 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 public 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	

## References in Part I and 2

Baetens Beardsmore, H. (2008). Language promotion by European supra-national institutions. In: O. García (ed.), *Bilingual Education: Multilingual and Multicultural Children and Youths in 21st Century Schools*. New York: Blackwell.

Ball, J. (2011). Enhancing Learning of Children from Diverse Language Backgrounds: Mother tongue-based Bilingual or Multilingual Education in the Early Years. Paris: UNESCO.

Beacco, J.C. and M. Byram (2007). From Linguistic Diversity to Plurilingual Education. Guide for the development of language education policies in Europe. Strasbourg: Language Policy Division. Council of Europe.

Beacco, J.C. et al. (2010). Guide for the Development and Implementation of Curricula for Plurilingual and Intercultural Education. Strasbourg: Language Policy Division. Council of Europe.

Business Forum for Multilingualism (2008). *Languages Mean Business. Companies Work Better with Languages.* Brussels: European Communities.

Business Platform for Multilingualism (2011). Report on the period September 2009 – June 2011. Brussels: European Commission.

CILT (2006). *ELAN: Effects on the European Economy of Shortages of Foreign Language Skills in Enterprise.*London CILT: The National Centre for Languages.

Civil Society Platform on Multilingualism (2009). http://www.euroclio.eu/new/index.php/partners-mainmenu-530/european-citizenship/1207-eu-civil-society-platform-on-multilingualism

Commission Staff Working Document (2008). *Inventory of Community Actions in the Field of Multilingualism.*Accompanying document to the Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament, the Council *et al.*Brussels: European Communities.

Commission Staff Working Paper (2011a). *An inventory of Community Actions in the Field of Multilingualism – 2011 update.* Brussels: European Commission.

Commission Staff Working Paper (2011b). Report on the Implementation of the Council Resolution of 21 November 2008 on a European Strategy for Multilingualism. Brussels: European Commission.

Commission Staff Working Paper (2011c). Language Learning at Pre-Primary School Level: Making it Efficient and Sustainable. A Policy Handbook. Brussels: European Commission.

Committee of Ministers (1998). Recommendation to Member States concerning Modern Languages. Strasbourg: Council of Europe.

Committee of Ministers (2008). Recommendations to Member States on the Use of the Council of Europe's Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) and the Promotion of Plurilingualism. Strasbourg: Council of Europe.

Council of Europe (1954). European Cultural Convention. Strasbourg: Council of Europe.

Council of Europe (2001). A Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Council of the European Union (2002a). Resolution on Linguistic Diversity and Language Learning. Brussels: European Commission.

Council of the European Union (2002b). Presidency Conclusions of the Barcelona European Council, 15-16 March 2002. Brussels: European Communities.

Council of the European Union (2008). Council Resolution on a European Strategy for Multilingualism. Brussels: European Communities.

Council of the European Union (2011). Council Conclusions on Language Competences to Enhance Mobility. Brussels: European Communities.

Cullen, J. et al. (2008). Multilingualism: Between Policy Objectives and Implementation. Brussels: European Parliament.

European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages (ECRML) (1992). Strasbourg: Council of Europe.

European Commission (1995). Whitebook. Teaching and Learning: Towards a Cognitive Society. Brussels: European Commission.

European Commission (1995). White paper on Education and Training – Teaching and Learning – Towards the Learning Society. Com (95) 590 final, 29 November 1995. Brussels: European Commission

European Commission (2001). *Europeans and Languages*. *Special Europarometer Report 54*. Brussels: European Commission.

European Commission (2006). Europeans and their Languages. Special Eurobarometer Report 243. Brussels: European Commission.

European Commission (2008). Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament, the Council, The European Economic and Social Committee, and the Committee of the Regions. *Multilingualism: An Asset for Europe and A Shared Commitment*. Brussels: European Communities.

European Commission (2010). Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament, the Council,

The European Economic and Social Committee, and the Committee of the Regions. A New Impetus for European Cooperation in Vocational Education and Training to Support the Europe 2020 Strategy. Brussels: European Communities.

European Commission (2012). *Europeans and their Languages*. *Special Europarometer Report* 386. Brussels: European Commission.

European Commission (2012). *First European Survey on Language Competences*. Final Report and Executive Summary. Brussels: European Commission.

European Commission Green Paper (2008). *Migration and Mobility: Challenges and Opportunities for EU Education Systems*. Brussels: European Commission.

European Language Portfolio (ELP). Strasbourg: Council of Europe.

European Parliament (2003). EP Resolution with Recommendations to the Commission on European Regional and Lesser-used Languages in the Context of Enlargement and Cultural Diversity. Brussels: European Parliament.

European Parliament (2009). *EP Resolution on Multilingualism: An Asset for Europe and a Shared Commitment.* Brussels: European Parliament.

Eurydice (2009). *Integrating Immigrant Children into Schools in Europe*. Brussels: Eurydice/ European Commission.

Eurydice/EuroStat (2008). Key Data on Teaching Languages at School in Europe. Brussels/ Luxembourg: Eurydice/EuroStat.

Eurydice/EuroStat (2009). Key Data on Education in Europe. Brussels: Eurydice/Eurostat

Extra, G. (2010). Mapping linguistic diversity in multicultural contexts: Demolinguistic perspectives. In: J. Fishman and O. Garcia (eds.), Handbook of Language and Ethnic Identity, Second Edition. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 107-122.

Extra, G. and D. Gorter (eds.) (2008). *Multilingual Europe: Facts and Policies*. Berlin/New York: Mouton de Gruyter.

Extra, G. and Yağmur, K. (eds.) (2004). *Urban Multilingualism in Europe: Immigrant Minority Languages at Home and School.* Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Extra, G. and K. Yağmur (2011). Report on the Pilot Studies in Poland and Spain. Berlin/Brussels: British Council.

Fishman, J. and O. Garcia (eds.) (2010). *Handbook of Language and Ethnic Identity. Disciplinary and Regional Perspectives*. Oxford/New York: Oxford University Press.

Grin, F. (2003). Language Policy Evaluation and the European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages. Hampshire: Palgrave Macmillan.

Group of Intellectuals for Intercultural Dialogue (2008). A Rewarding Challenge. How the Multiplicity of Languages Could Strengthen Europe. Brussels: European Communities.

Heller, M. (2007). Bilingualism as ideology and practice. In: M. Heller (ed.), *Bilingualism: A Social Approach*. Basingstoke: Palgrave, 1-24. High Level Group on Multilingualism (HLGM) (2007). *Final report.* Brussels: European Communities.

McPake, J. and T. Tinsley (co-ords.) (2007). *Valuing All Languages in Europe*. Graz: ECML.

Media Consulting Group (2007). Study on dubbing and subtitling needs and practices in the European audiovisual industry. Brussels: European Commission.

Media Consulting Group (2011). Study on the Use of Subtitling. The Potential of Subtitling to Encourage Language Learning and Improve the Mastery of Foreign Languages. Brussels: European Commission.

Nic Craith, M. (2003). Facilitating or generating linguistic diversity. The European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages. In: G. Hogan-Brun and S. Wolff (eds.), *Minority Languages in Europe. Frameworks, Status, Prospects*, 56–72. Hampshire: Palgrave Macmillan.

OMC Group Languages for Jobs (2011). *Providing Multilingual Communication Skills for the Labour Market*. Brussels: European Commission.

Parliamentary Assembly (1998). Recommendation on Linguistic Diversification. Strasbourg: Council of Europe.

Parliamentary Assembly (2001). Recommendation on the European Year of Languages. Strasbourg: Council of Europe.

Parliamentary Assembly (2003). Recommendation on the Protection of Sign Languages in the Member States of the Council of Europe. Strasbourg: Council of Europe.

Parliamentary Assembly (2006). Recommendation on the Place of the Mother Tongue in School Education. Strasbourg: Council of Europe.

Parliamentary Assembly (2008). Recommendation on the Integration of Adult Migrants and Education. Strasbourg: Council of Europe.

PIMLICO Project (2011). Report on Language Management Strategies and Best Practice in European SMEs. Brussels: European Commission.

Poulain, M. (2008). European migration statistics: definitions, data and challenges. In: M. Barni and G. Extra (eds.), Mapping Linguistic Diversity in Multicultural Contexts. Berlin/New York: Mouton de Gruyter, 43–66.

Reynolds, C. (2008). *Sheffield's Language Education Policies*. City Report. Strasbourg/Sheffield: Council of Europe/Sheffield City Council.

Schermer, T. (2011). Language Politics. In: B. Wolff, M. Steinbach and R. Pfau (eds.), *Handbook of Sign Linguistics* (to appear).

Strubell, M., et al. (2007). The diversity of language teaching in the European Union. Final report to the European Commission, Directorate General for Education and Culture. Brussels: European Communities.

UNESCO (2003). Recommendation Concerning the Promotion and Use of Multilingualism and Universal Access to Cyberspace. Paris: UNESCO.

## 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 4B.

# **COUNTRY PROFILE: ENGLAND**

Teresa Tinsley/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 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) [4].

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 region-wide education.

Official 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.

England has recognised its only R/M language – Cornish – under the European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages (ECRML) leading to the publication of the Cornish Language Strategy in 2004 to support the teaching and learning of Cornish in the region.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>[1]</sup> Office for National Statistics, resident population estimates by ethnic group, 2009

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>[2]</sup> Language Capital: mapping the languages of London's schoolchildren, Eversley et al, CILT, 2011

 $<sup>^{\</sup>scriptscriptstyle{[3]}}$  Department for Education pupil data 2011

<sup>[4]</sup> Report on the Cornish Language Survey, Cornish Language Partnership, 2008

**RML**: Regional or Minority Languages

FL: Foreign Languages IL: Immigrant Languages NL: National Language

## Languages in pre-primary education

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

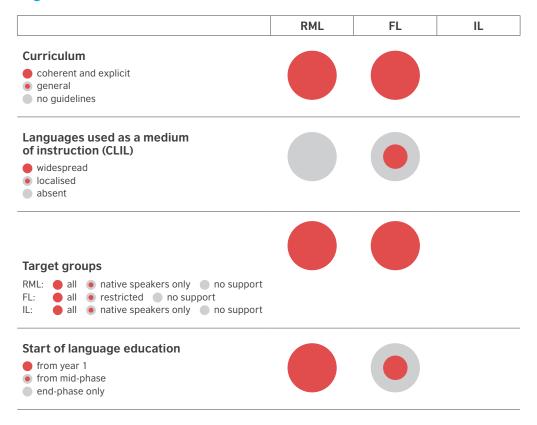
## Languages offered in pre-primary education:

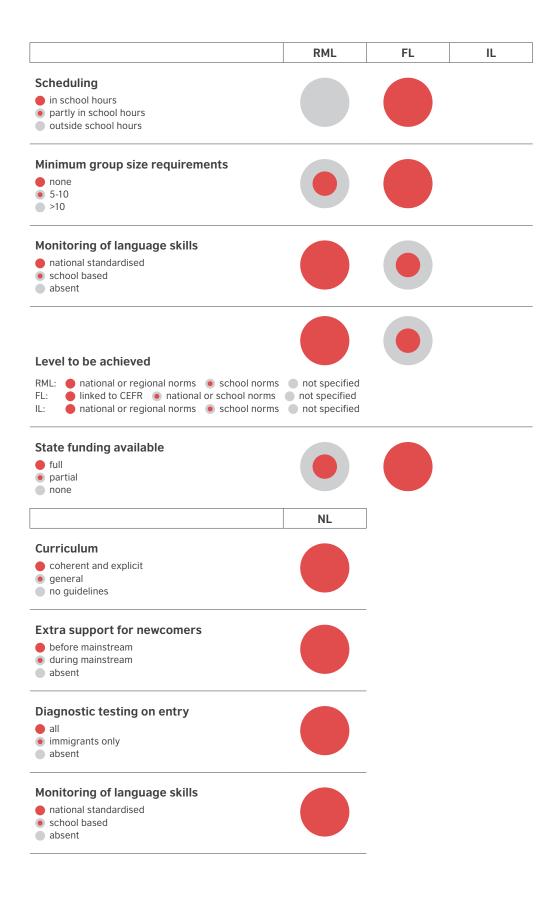
R/M Languages	Cornish in Cornwall
Foreign Languages	(occasionally) French, German, Italian, Spanish
Immigrant Languages	-

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.

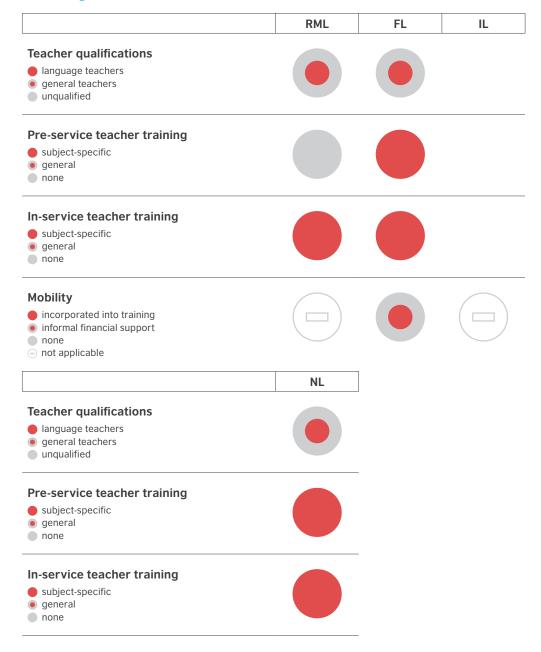
## Languages in primary education

## **Organisation**





## **Teaching**



#### Languages offered in primary education:

R/M Languages	Cornish in Cornwall
Foreign Languages	Optional. Any living language may be offered. In practice mainly French Spanish, German, with some Chinese, Italian, Urdu, Chinese
Immigrant Languages	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 - 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 [3] 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.

III Languages The next generation; The final report and recommendations of the Nuffield Languages Inquiry, London 2000

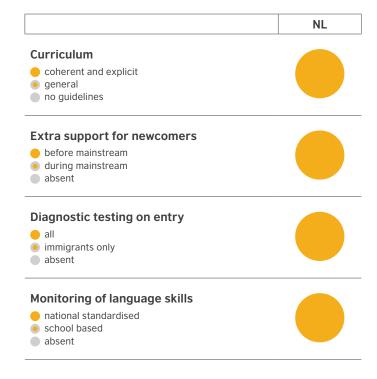
Language learning at key stage 2, a longitudinal study, DCSF Research report RR198, Department for Children, Schools and Families, 2010

<sup>[3]</sup> Community Language Learning in England, Wales and Scotland, CILT, 2005

## Languages in secondary education

## Organisation

	RML	FL	IL
Curriculum			
oherent and explicit			
general			
no guidelines			
Language as a medium			
of instruction (CLIL)			
<ul><li>widespread</li><li>localised</li></ul>			
absent			
Target groups			
Target groups			
RML: all anative speakers only no support  FL: all restricted no support			
IL: all native speakers only no support			
Scheduling			
in school hours			
partly in school hours			
<ul><li>outside school hours</li></ul>			
Minimum group size requirements			
none			
5-10			
>10			
Monitoring of language skills			
<ul><li>national standardised</li></ul>			
<ul><li>school based</li><li>absent</li></ul>			
ausent			
Level to be achieved			
RML: onational or regional norms oschool norms  FL: Inked to CEFR national or school norms			
IL: • national or regional norms • school norms			
State funding available			
full			
partial			
none			



## **Teaching**

	RML	FL	IL
Teacher qualifications  language teachers general teachers unqualified			
Pre-service teacher training  subject-specific general none			
In-service teacher training  subject-specific general none			
Mobility incorporated into training some financial support none not applicable			
Language level required Iinked to CEFR national or region-wide standards none not applicable			

	NL
Teacher qualifications  language teachers general teachers	
unqualified  Pre-service teacher training subject-specific general none	
In-service teacher training  subject-specific general none	
Language level required for non-native speakers Inked to CEFR national or school-based norms not specified	

### Languages offered in secondary education:

R/M Languages	-
Foreign Languages	One language compulsory up to age 14: Any living language but with a recommendation that there should be suitable accreditation. The main languages are French, German, Spanish but include also Italian, Urdu, Arabic, Polish, Chinese, Russian, Portuguese, Turkish and Japanese
Immigrant Languages	Arabic, Chinese, Urdu, Polish, Portuguese, Turkish, Bengali and Punjabi

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 seven per cent 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. The government's advisory panel on the national curriculum has recommended that 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.

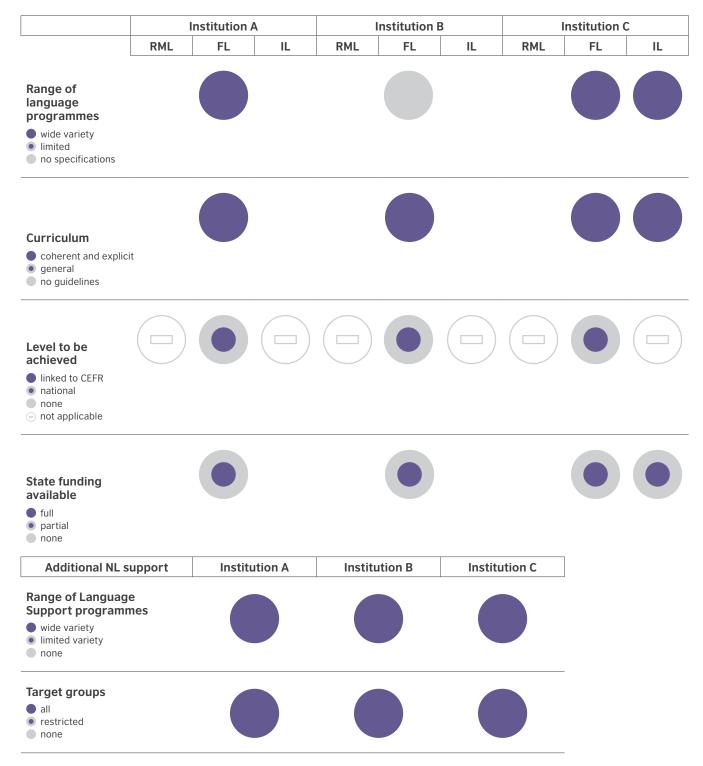
The standard English curriculum is usually used for English as a second language (EAL) [2]. There is a diagnosis of English language skills before entering secondary education and skills are monitored regularly using age-appropriate standard instruments. The Ethnic Minority Achievement Grant has also been used for language support in Secondary schools (see above – Primary)

Towards an integrated curriculum. CLIL National Statement and Guidelines 2009

<sup>[2]</sup> Source: www.naldic.org.uk/eal-teaching-and-learning/faqs

## Languages in Further and Higher Education

## **Further Education (in three institutions)**



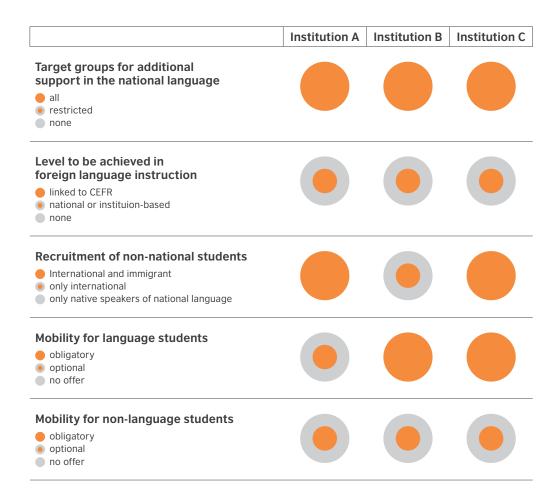
Additional NL support	Institution A	Institution B	Institution C
Curriculum  coherent and explicit general no guidelines			
Job related skills  yes no			
General upskilling  yes no			
State funding available  full partial none			
Internships in companies  built into course optional none			
Use of EU instruments  yes no			

## Languages offered across 3 VET institutions in England:

R/M Languages	-
Foreign Languages	French, German, Spanish, Greek, Italian, Japanese, Portuguese, Russian
Immigrant Languages	Arabic, Chinese, Turkish, Urdu

## **Higher Education (in three institutions)**

	Institution A	Institution B	Institution C
Language(s) of instruction  national, foreign and R/M national and foreign national only			
Languages on website  national, foreign and R/M national and foreign national only			



## Languages offered across 3 higher education institutions in England:

Arabic, Chinese, French, German, Spanish, British Sign Language, Catalan, Czech, Dutch, Greek, Hebrew, Italian, Japanese, Persian, Polish, Portuguese, Russian, Turkish, Urdu

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 one per cent 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 [1].

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 higher education. 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, Panjabi and Bengali, and barriers to professional training in community languages for teaching, translation and interpreting have been identified as concerns [2]. 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>11)</sup> Vocationally related language learning in further education, CILT, 2006

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>[2]</sup> Community Languages in Higher Education, McPake and Sachdev, Routes into Languages, 2008

## Languages in Audiovisual Media and Press

	London	Sheffield
Number of languages on radio  >4 3-4 1-2 national language only		
Number of languages on television  >4 3-4 1-2 national language only		
Non-national language TV productions  subtitled dubbed		
Non-national language films in cinema  subtitled dubbed		
R/M language programmes outside of region  always regularly sometimes never		
Availability of sign language on TV  always regularly sometimes never		

## Languages offered in audiovisual media and press across 2 cities in England:

Radio	Many languages, e.g. Greek, Turkish, Asian languages etc.
Television	Many FL channels are available via Freeview, online, satellite, etc. In the UK the concept of 'terrestrial channel' is largely irrelevant for most people now
Newspapers	French, German, Italian, Arabic, Turkish, Albanian, Chinese, Dutch, Irish, Kurdish, Polish, Russian, Serbian, Spanish

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 other languages 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

	London	Sheffield
<ul> <li>&gt;4 languages</li> <li>3-4 languages</li> <li>1-2 languages</li> <li>1-2 occasionally practised</li> </ul>		
City Council services		
Website presence		
Annual municipal reports	:0	
External or internal translators and interpreters		
Competencies in languages other than the national language in job descriptions of staff members		
Plan or scheme in place to increase skills in languages		
Recruitment of speakers of other languages to support corporate objectives		
Offer of training in languages to employees		
Regularly updated record of skills in languages of employees	:0	
Reward or promotion schemes for being able to adequately communicate in another language	:0	

## **Oral Communication Facilities**

	London	Sheffield
>4 languages	s national lar	iguage only
Political debates and decision-making processes at the city council level		
Educational services		
Emergency services		
Health services		
Social services		
Legal services		
Transport services		
Immigration and integration services		
Tourism services		
Theatre programmes		

## **Written Communication Facilities**

	London	Sheffield
>4 languages  \$\@ 3-4 languages  \$\@ 1-2 language	es national lan	guage only
Political debates and decision-making processes at the city council level		
Educational services		
Emergency services		
Health services		
Social services		
Legal services		
Transport services		
Immigration and integration services		
Tourism services		
Theatre programmes		

## Languages offered in public services and spaces across 2 cities in England ( $N \ge 2$ ):

Arabic, Bengali, Chinese, Urdu, Somali, French, Gujarati, Panjabi, Turkish, Japanese, Polish, Spanish, German, Greek, Hindi, Italian, Persian, Russian, Tamil, Dutch, Vietnamese, Yoruba

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 (21 companies)

General Language Strategies	Widely Practised	Occasionally Practised	Not Practised
Availability of Language Strategy	8	4	9
Emphasis on Language Skills in Recruitment	8	9	4
International Mobility Provision	9	7	5
Use of External Translators/Interpreters	7	8	6
Staff records of language skills	0	12	9
Use of networks for language training	4	6	11
Use of EU programmes/funding	0	1	20
Awareness of EU programmes/funding	0	3	18

NL: National Language FL: Foreign Languages

R/M: Regional or Minority Languages

IL: Immigrant Languages

Internal Language Strategies	Widely Practised		Occasionally Practised		Not Practised	
	NL	FL-R/M - IL	NL	FL-R/M - IL	NL	FL-R/M - IL
Partnerships with Education sector	3	4	5	4	13	13
Reward/Promotion schemes based on language skills	2	3	4	4	15	14
Language training provision	10	8	7	6	4	7
Use of CEFR	0	0	7	6	14	15
Language used for workplace documents/intranet	21	8	0	6	0	7
Language used for software, web programmes	21	7	0	4	0	10
External Language Strategies						
Language used for Annual/Business Reports	21	8	0	3	0	10
Language used for Marketing	21	9	0	7	0	5
Language used for Branding/Identity	19	12	2	5	0	4
Language used for Website	21	12	0	4	0	5

#### Languages offered in business across 21 companies in England (N ≥ 2):

French, Chinese, Spanish, Italian, German, Arabic, Japanese, Russian, Polish, Welsh, Catalan, Hindi, Portuguese

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 language skills <sup>[2]</sup>. Recent research on Small and Medium Sized Businesses approaches to exporting showed they regard language and associated cultural issues as one of the biggest barriers to doing business overseas <sup>[3]</sup>.

## 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' [4]. Despite this there has been significant progress and innovation in introducing the early learning of other languages, in supporting community languages and in promoting of 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 7-11 (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.

 $<sup>^{\</sup>hbox{\tiny{[1]}}}$  Leitch Review of Skills, 'Prosperity for all in the global economy: world class skills' 2006

Building for Growth: business priorities for education and skills, CBI Education and Skills survey 2011

<sup>131</sup> The eXport factor, British SME's approach to doing business overseas, Barclays and Kingston University Small Business Research Centre, 2011

<sup>[4]</sup> King et al Languages in Europe, Towards 2020 - Analysis and Proposals from the LETPP Consultation and review. London 2011

## COUNTRY PROFILE: NORTHERN IRELAND

Teresa Tinsley/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 migrants. 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. Three per cent of primary schoolchildren currently 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 region-wide education, supported by the Charter, for Irish.

Official data collection mechanisms on language diversity in Northern Ireland 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 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[3]. 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>[4]</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, 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>[5]</sup>.

English language support (EAL) was reviewed completely 2005-9 with the policy Every School a Good School - Supporting Newcomer Pupils launched on 1 April 2009.

The UK government recognises Irish and Ulster Scots in Northern Ireland under the ECRML Languages.

III Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency (NISRA) (2002) Northern Ireland Census 2001: Key Statistics Report. Belfast: HMSO

<sup>121</sup> Registrar General Northern Ireland Annual Report 2010, Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency, 2011. Pupil data from School Census, October 2010.

<sup>[3]</sup> Agreement reached in the Multi-Party Negotiations ('The Good Friday Agreement') (1998) Government of the United Kingdom and the Government of Ireland.

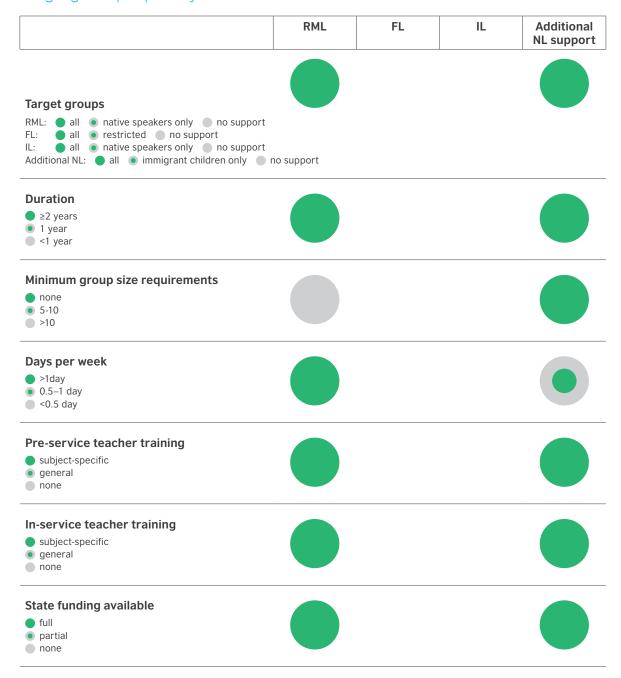
<sup>[4]</sup> www.nicurriculum.org.uk/key\_stage\_3/areas\_of\_learning/modern\_languages/

<sup>[5]</sup> www.arts.ulster.ac.uk/nils/index.php

**RML: Regional or Minority Languages** 

FL: Foreign Languages IL: Immigrant Languages NL: National Language

## Languages in pre-primary education



## Languages offered in pre-primary education:

R/M Languages	Irish
Foreign Languages	-
Immigrant Languages	-

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>.

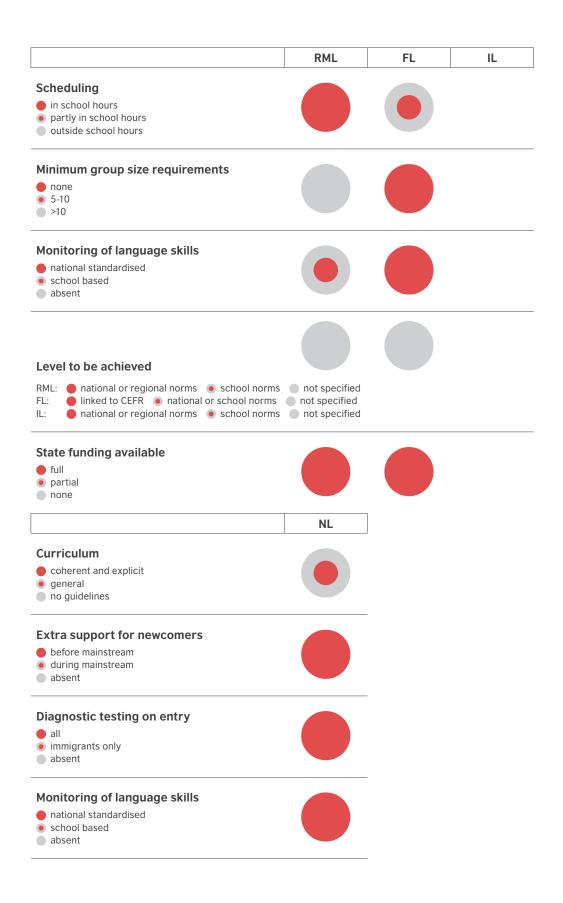
## Languages in primary education

## **Organisation**

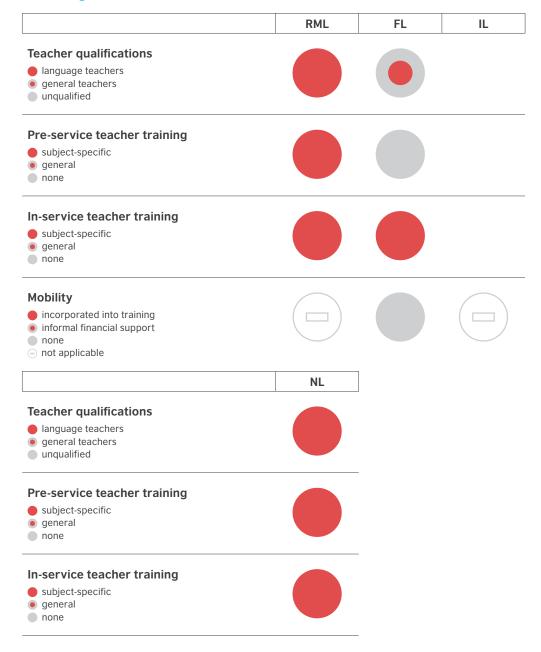
	RML	FL	IL
Curriculum  coherent and explicit general no guidelines			
Languages used as a medium of instruction (CLIL)  widespread localised absent			
Target groups  RML: all anative speakers only no support FL: all restricted no support IL: all native speakers only no support			
Start of language education  from year 1 from mid-phase end-phase only			

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>&</sup>lt;sup>[2]</sup> Report of the Review of Irish medium education, Department for Education for Northern Ireland, undated.



## **Teaching**



### Languages offered in primary education:

R/M Languages	Irish
Foreign Languages	French, Spanish: optional
Immigrant Languages	-

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. 1.67% of all primary schoolchildren now 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.

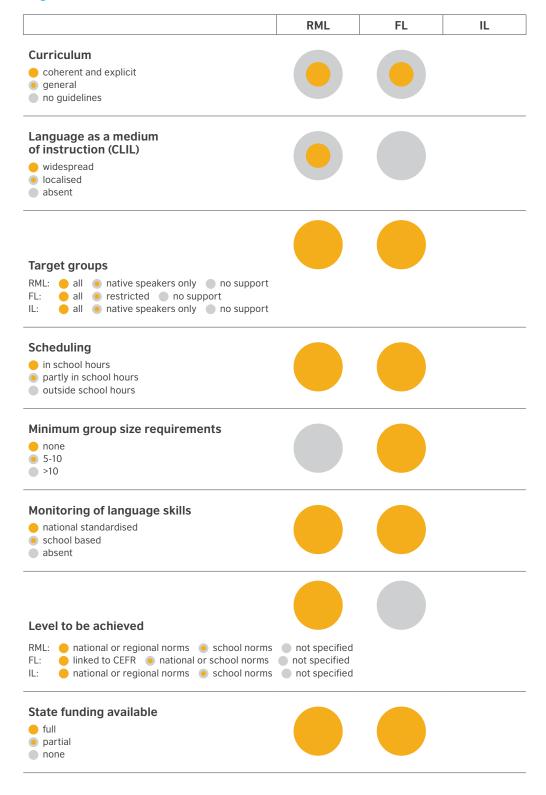
Modern Languages did not find a place in the new Northern Ireland primary curriculum which was revised in 2007, despite a positive evaluation of pilot projects which took place between 2005 and 2007, involving 21 schools teaching mainly French, with some Spanish. Despite the lack of curricular requirement, a survey in 2007 found that 57% of responding primary schools were making some provision for the teaching of a second 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>

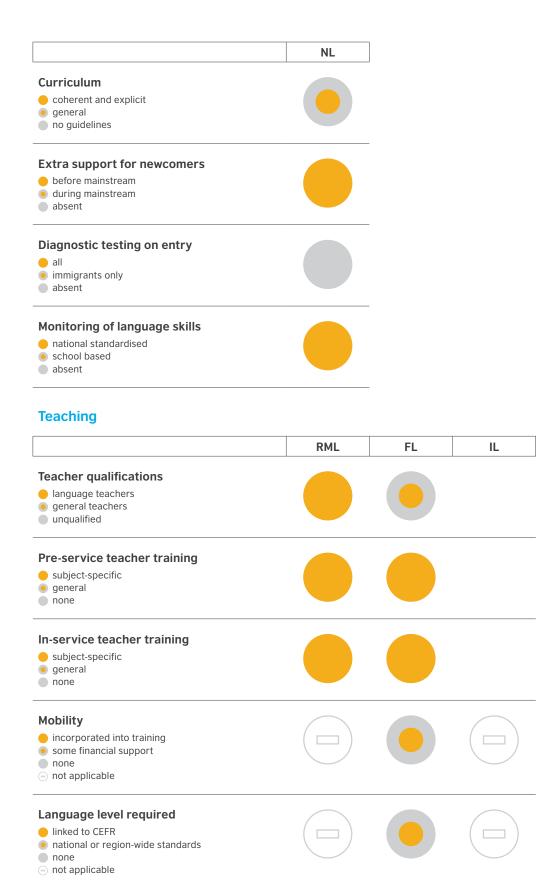
Newcomers receive intensive support in English before and during mainstream classes and there has been a concerted effort to provide EAL support in recent years as Northern Ireland has welcomed an increasing number of immigrants. Immigrant languages are not offered other than, occasionally, Polish.

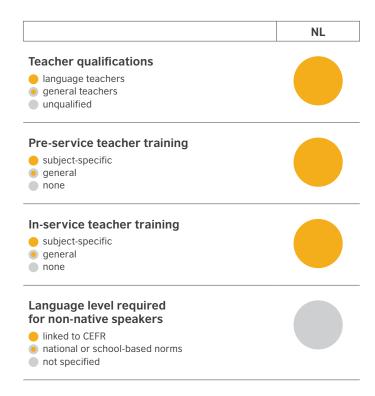
<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>[1]</sup> Primary languages in Northern Ireland: too little, too late? Purdy et al, Language Learning Journal vol 38, 2, 2010

## Languages in secondary education

## **Organisation**







### Languages offered in secondary education:

R/M Languages	Irish
Foreign Languages	One language compulsory up to age 14: from French, German, Spanish
Immigrant Languages	-

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, however, 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 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.

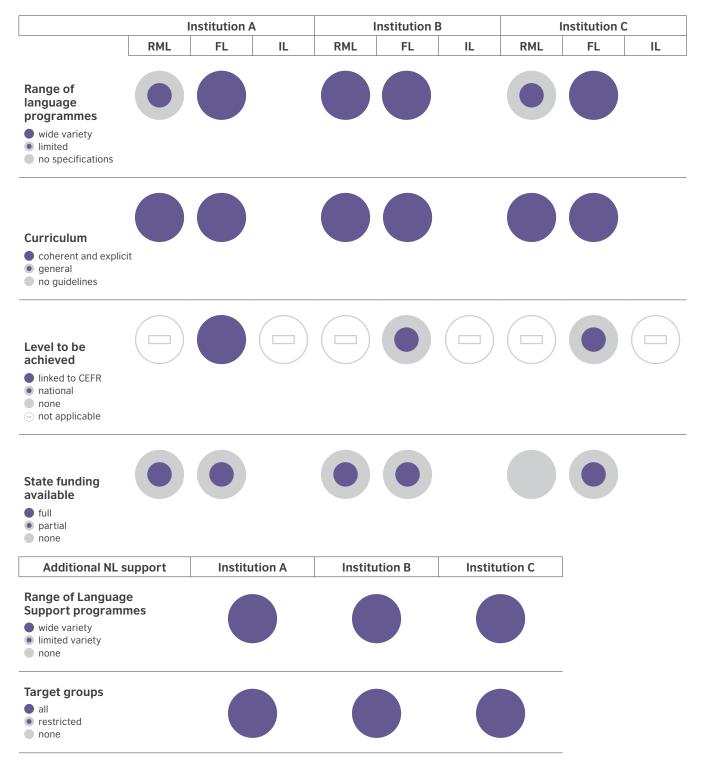
At ages 16-18, the numbers studying languages have remained steadier but have declined as a proportion of the cohort. The pattern is French declining significantly; German, from a smaller base, less so; Spanish still gaining numbers; and Irish maintaining equilibrium

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.

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 institutions)**



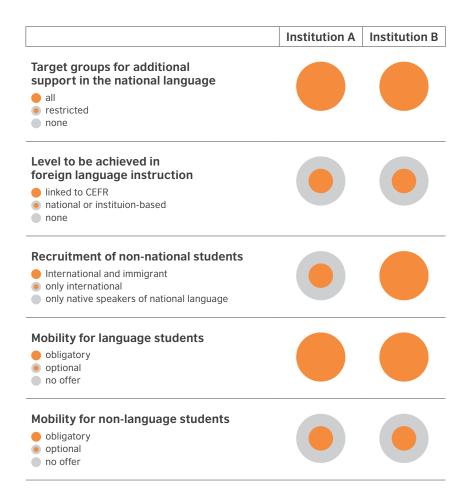
Additional NL support	Institution A	Institution B	Institution C
Curriculum  coherent and explicit general no guidelines			
Job related skills  yes no			
General upskilling  yes no			
State funding available  full partial none			
Internships in companies  built into course optional none			
Use of EU instruments  yes no			

## Languages offered across 3 VET institutions in Northern Ireland:

R/M Languages	Irish, Ulster Scots
Foreign Languages	French, Spanish, Chinese, German, Italian, Japanese, Polish, Arabic, Greek, Portuguese, Russian, Turkish
Immigrant Languages	-

## **Higher Education (in two institutions)**

	Institution A	Institution B
Language(s) of instruction  national, foreign and R/M  national and foreign  national only		
Languages on website  national, foreign and R/M national and foreign national only		

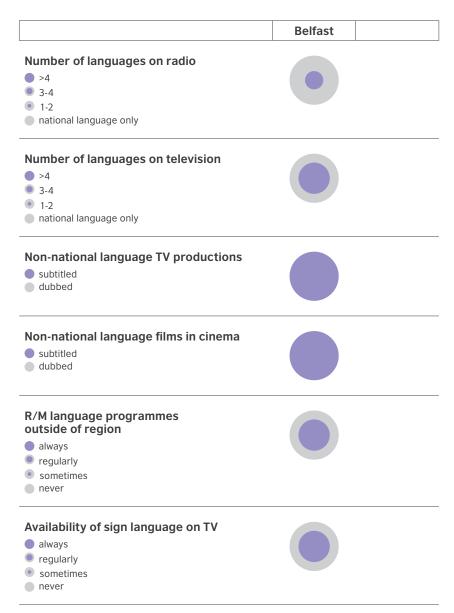


## Languages offered across 2 higher education institutions in Northern Ireland:

French, German, Irish, Spanish, Arabic, Bengali, Czech, Dutch, Finnish, Hindi, Italian, Japanese, Korean, Latin, Chinese, Greek, Polish, Portuguese, Russian, British Sign Language, Swedish and Turkish

In common with the rest of the UK, there is very little provision for languages in vocational courses, although 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



## Languages offered in audiovisual media and press in 1 city in Northern Ireland:

Radio	Irish, Cantonese Chinese
Television	Irish, Scottish Gaelic, French, Ulster Scots
Newspapers	-

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, Scots 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 at city level

	Belfast
<ul> <li>&gt;4 languages</li> <li>3-4 languages</li> <li>1-2 languages</li> <li>→ occasionally practised</li> </ul>	
City Council services	
Website presence	
Annual municipal reports	
External or internal translators and interpreters	
Competencies in languages other than the national language in job descriptions of staff members	
Plan or scheme in place to increase skills in languages	
Recruitment of speakers of other languages to support corporate objectives	
Offer of training in languages to employees	
Regularly updated record of skills in languages of employees	
Reward or promotion schemes for being able to adequately communicate in another language	

# **Oral Communication Facilities**

	Belfast
>4 languages   3–4 languages   1–2 language	es national language only
Political debates and decision-making processes at the city council level	
Educational services	
Emergency services	
Health services	
Social services	
Legal services	
Transport services	
Immigration and integration services	
Tourism services	
Theatre programmes	

# **Written Communication Facilities**

Belfast
es   national language only

#### Languages offered in public services and spaces across 1 city in Northern Ireland (N ≥ 2):

Irish, Polish, Chinese (Mandarin and Cantonese), Portuguese, Lithuanian, Arabic, French, Ulster Scots, British Sign Language, German, Hindi, Italian, Slovak, Spanish

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 Language Rich Europe 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, Cantonese, Arabic, Portuguese and Slovak. 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 or so 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 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 Language Rich Europe research shows, Northern Ireland has a weak profile as regards foreign language learning and now 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 (BEd) course [1]. 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 guotas 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. Marv's University College in addition to their PGCE qualification.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>[1]</sup> Report of the Review of Irish medium education, Department for Education for Northern Ireland, undated.

# COUNTRY PROFILE: SCOTLAND

Teresa Tinsley/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 [1]. Scotland has been attracting inward migration since 2002 [2]; the 2001 Census showed a 2% non-white ethnic minority with the majority being of Pakistani origin, but by 2009 a national pupil survey [3] showed 4.3% of school children mainly used a language other than English at home. 138 languages were recorded as having been spoken altogether, 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. Six hundred and twenty six 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, equivalent to one in every 180 pupils [4].

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 and health and wellbeing. 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 Scottish Gaelic. There is official provision in region-wide education, supported by the Charter, for Scottish Gaelic.

Official data collection mechanisms on language diversity in Scotland 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 and a main language question, plus a language proficiency question on English, Scots and Scottish Gaelic in terms of whether (and how well) the languages can be spoken/understood/read/written.

The Gaelic Language (Scotland) 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>[6]</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>[7]</sup> called for the Scottish Government to develop a Scots Language Policy and for Scotland to be presented internationally as a trilingual country.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>[1]</sup> Scotland's Census 2001: Gaelic Report 2005, General Register Office for Scotland

<sup>121</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>(6)</sup> www.scottish.parliament.uk/parliamentarybusiness/CurrentCommittees/45383.aspx

Report of the Ministerial Working Group on the Scots Language, November 2010

<sup>[8]</sup> Count Us In report, 2009 www.ltscotland.org.uk/Images/cuimnnus\_tcm4-618947.pdf

Policy and practice surrounding English as an Additional Language (EAL) and support for newcomers was reviewed in 2009 <sup>IBI</sup> The subsequent report recommends best 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

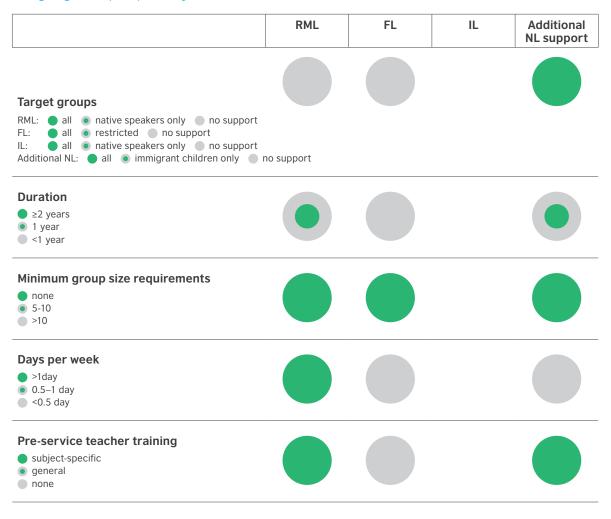
training to enable staff to meet the needs of newly-arrived children and young people more effectively.

Official UK-wide data collection mechanisms on language diversity exist in terms of periodically updated municipal register data, census data and survey data.

**RML: Regional or Minority Languages** 

FL: Foreign Languages IL: Immigrant Languages NL: National Language

# Languages in pre-primary education



	RML	FL	IL	Additional NL support
In-service teacher training  subject-specific general none				
State funding available  full partial none				

# Languages offered in pre-primary education:

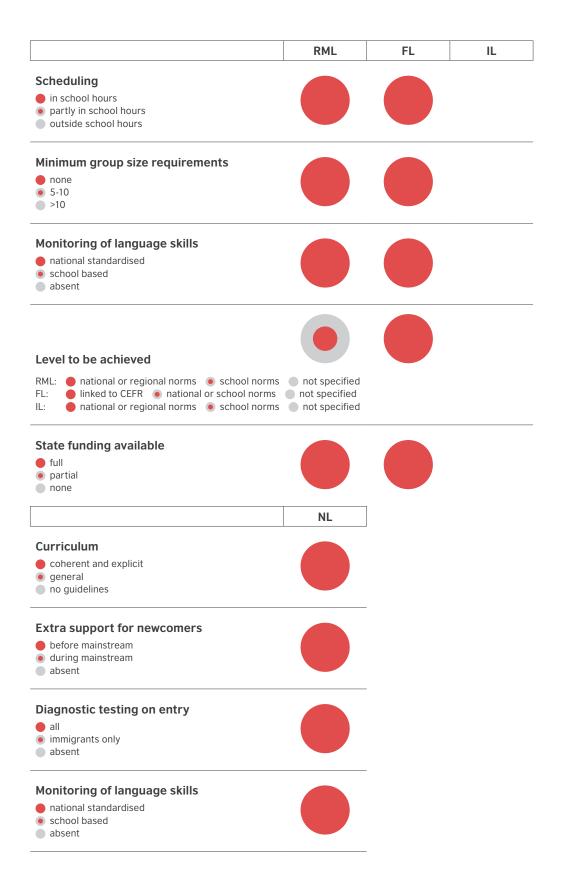
R/M Languages	Scottish Gaelic
Foreign Languages	Chinese, French, German, Italian, Spanish – but often only in private sector
Immigrant Languages	-

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.

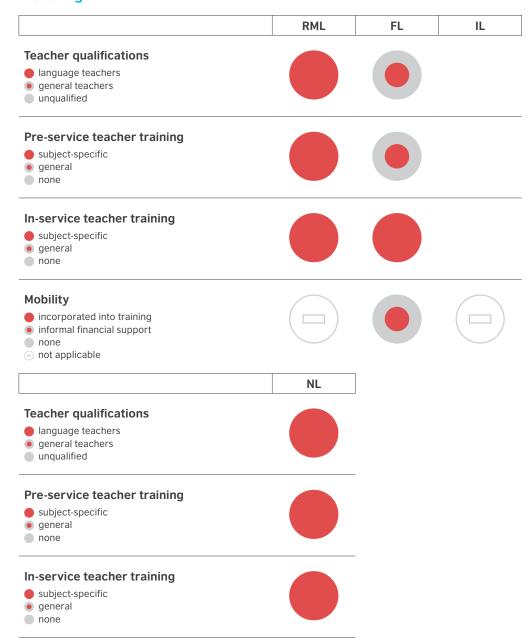
# Languages in primary education

# **Organisation**

	RML	FL	IL
Curriculum  coherent and explicit general no guidelines			
Languages used as a medium of instruction (CLIL)  widespread localised absent			
Target groups  RML: all anative speakers only no support  FL: all restricted no support  IL: no all native speakers only no support			
Start of language education  from year 1 from mid-phase end-phase only			



# **Teaching**



### Languages offered in primary education:

R/M Languages	Scottish Gaelic
Foreign Languages	French, German, Spanish: optional
Immigrant Languages	-

Scotland was an early adopter of primary foreign languages (1992), and by 2005 practically all Scotlish 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) [1].

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 [2] 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.

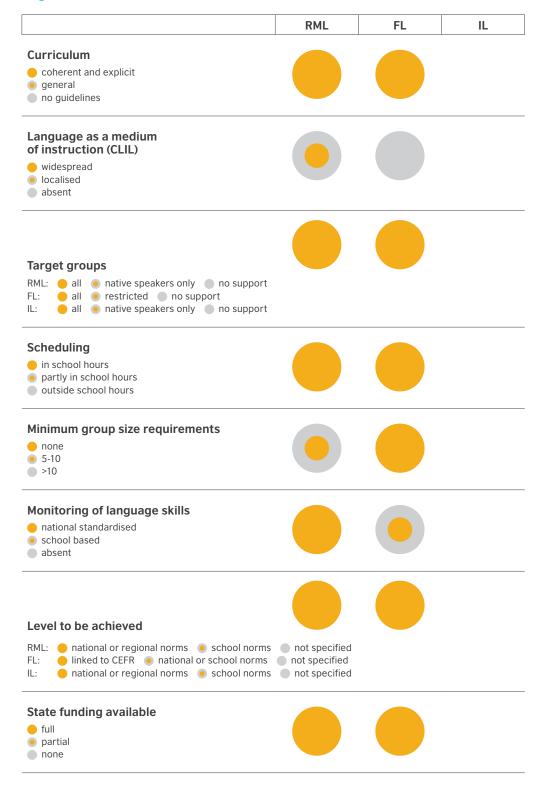
All newcomers in mainstream schools receive support in English before and during mainstream classes, and their skills are assessed and monitored regularly by an EAL specialist. Immigrant languages are rarely offered.

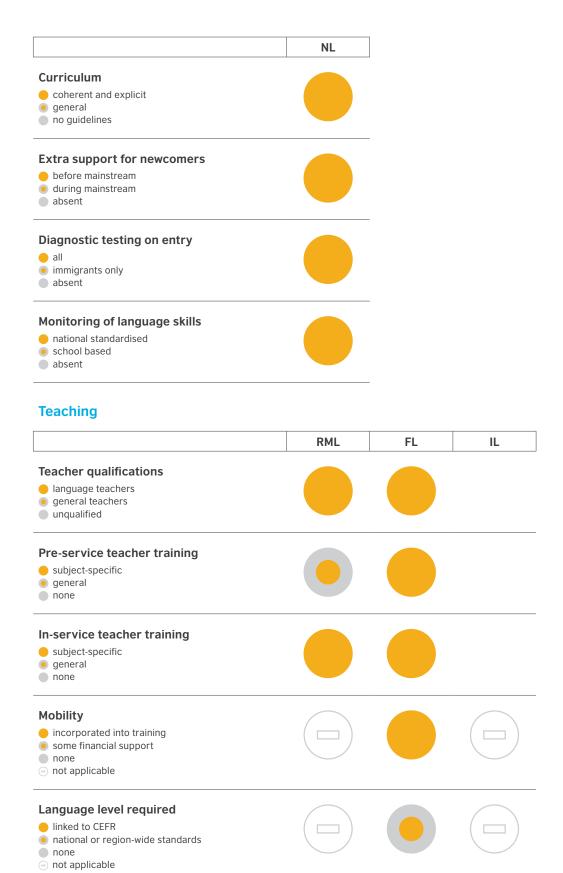
<sup>(1) &#</sup>x27;Pupils risk being lost in translation', Edinburgh Evening News 16/4/2010

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>[2]</sup> HMIE, Gaelic Education: Building on the successes, addressing the barriers, 21 June 2011

# Languages in secondary education

# **Organisation**





	NL
Teacher qualifications  language teachers general teachers unqualified	
Pre-service teacher training  subject-specific general none	
In-service teacher training  subject-specific general none	
Language level required for non-native speakers  linked to CEFR national or school-based norms not specified	

### Languages offered in secondary education:

R/M Languages	Scottish Gaelic
Foreign Languages	Generally French, German or Spanish. Also Italian and Chinese: one of these languages is optional
Immigrant Languages	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 4th 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 (c.16%) and Spanish (c.10%). Spanish has been increasing despite the overall decline [2]. At more advanced levels, the situation is more stable [3].

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 [4]. 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 [5].

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 language 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>&</sup>lt;sup>[1]</sup> Modern Languages Excellence Report, Scottish CILT, 2011

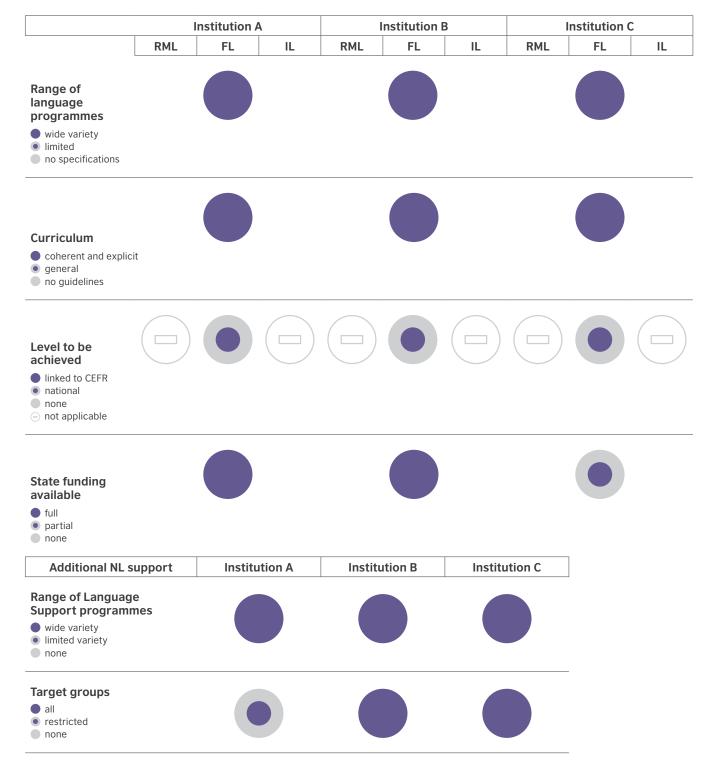
<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>12]</sup> Modern Languages Excellence Report, Scottish CILT, 2011 <sup>13]</sup> Modern Languages Excellence Report, Scottish CILT, 2011

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>[4]</sup> The survey was carried out by TESS and reported as: 'Poor language skills put Scots at disadvantage', TESS 25/3/2011

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>[5]</sup> 'Backlash from diplomats over language cuts', Scotland on Sunday, 4/12/11

# Languages in Further and Higher Education

### **Further Education (in three institutions)**



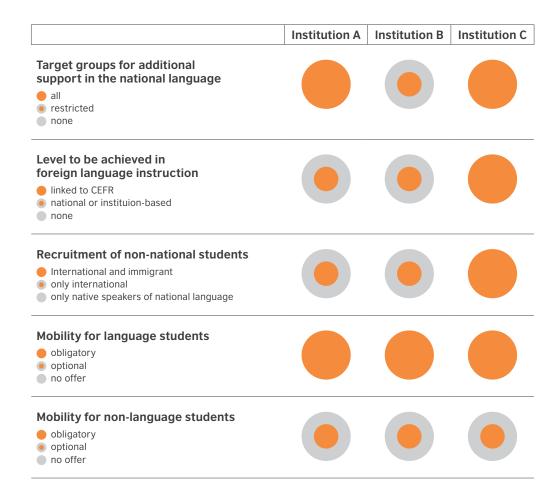
Additional NL support	Institution A	Institution B	Institution C
Curriculum  coherent and explicit general no guidelines			
Job related skills  yes no			
General upskilling  yes no			
State funding available  full partial none			
Internships in companies  built into course optional none			
Use of EU instruments  yes no			

# Languages offered across 3 VET institutions in Scotland:

R/M Languages	-
Foreign Languages	French, German, Spanish, British Sign Language, Italian, Polish
Immigrant Languages	-

# **Higher Education (in three institutions)**

	Institution A	Institution B	Institution C
Language(s) of instruction  national, foreign and R/M national and foreign national only			
Languages on website  national, foreign and R/M national and foreign national only			



### Languages offered across 3 higher education institutions in Scotland:

Chinese, French, German, Spanish, Arabic, Celtic, Italian, Japanese, Norwegian

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 showed that modern language provision in the Scottish further education sector was on the verge of total collapse <sup>(1)</sup>. The analysis showed 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.

III La Grande Illusion: Why Scottish further education has failed to grasp the potential of modern languages, Scottish Languages Review, Issue 23, Spring 2011, Hannah Doughty, University of Strathclyde

# Languages in Audiovisual Media and Press

	Glasgow	Edinburgh	Aberdeen
Number of languages on radio  >4 3-4 1-2 national language only			
Number of languages on television  >4 3-4 1-2 national language only			
Non-national language TV productions  subtitled dubbed			
Non-national language films in cinema  subtitled dubbed			
R/M language programmes outside of region  always regularly sometimes never			
Availability of sign language on TV  always regularly sometimes never			

### Languages offered in audiovisual media and press across 3 cities in Scotland:

Radio	Scottish Gaelic
Television	British Sign Language, Danish, Hindi, Panjabi, Scottish Gaelic, Senegalese
Newspapers	Arabic, French, German, Italian, Japanese, Spanish, Turkish, Urdu, Bengali, Chinese, Polish

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 Scottish Gaelic BBC channel, BBC Alba, has been available on digital TV, 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, satellite, for example. Sign language is regularly offered in important media events in all cities. Newspapers are available in a large repertoire of other languages in larger cities.

# Languages in public services and spaces

# Institutionalised language strategies at city level

	Glasgow	Edinburgh	Aberdeen
<ul> <li>&gt;4 languages</li> <li>3-4 languages</li> <li>1-2 language</li> <li>occasionally practise</li> </ul>			
City Council services			
Website presence			
Annual municipal reports			
External or internal translators and interpreters			
Competencies in languages other than the national language in job descriptions of staff members			
Plan or scheme in place to increase skills in languages			
Recruitment of speakers of other languages to support corporate objectives			
Offer of training in languages to its employees			
Regularly updated record of skills in languages of its employees			
Reward or promotion schemes for being able to adequately communicate in another language			

# **Oral Communication Facilities**

	Glasgow	Edinburgh	Aberdeen
<ul><li>&gt;4 languages</li><li>3-4 languages</li><li>1-2 languages</li></ul>	s national lan	guage only	
Political debates and decision-making processes at the city council level			
Educational services			
Emergency services			
Health services			
Social services			
Legal services			
Transport services			
Immigration and integration services			
Tourism services			
Theatre programmes			

# **Written Communication Facilities**

	Glasgow	Edinburgh	Aberdeen
>4 languages	<ul><li>national lang</li></ul>	guage only	
Political debates and decision-making processes at the city council level			
Educational services			
Emergency services			
Health services			
Social services			
Legal services			
Transport services			
Immigration and integration services			
Tourism services			
Theatre programmes			

### Languages offered in public services and public spaces across 3 cities in Scotland (N ≥ 2):

Scottish Gaelic, Chinese (Mandarin and Cantonese), British Sign Language, French, Urdu, Arabic, Bengali, Spanish, Panjabi, German, Italian, Polish, Dutch, Hindi, Kurdish, Latvian, Lithuanian, Pashto, Persian, Portuguese, Russian, Somali, Tigrigna

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 (Scotland) Act 2005.

### Languages in business

Scottish surveys of skills needs tend not to identify lack of language skills as a problem [1]. 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 [2]. There is clearly a linguistic dimension to the most commonly reported barriers to exporting – difficulties in finding trustworthy partners abroad.

Leitch Review of Skills, 'Prosperity for all in the global economy: world class skills' (2006), and Futureskills Scotland (2007), Skills in Scotland (2006), Glasgow, Scottish Enterprise

Modern Languages Excellence Report, Scottish CILT, 2011

### Key Findings overall:

As the Language Rich Europe research confirms, Gaelic enjoys a high level of political support and 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 [1] 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 Council agreement). It intends to implement this over the course of two parliaments and has set up a working group which will report to Ministers with recommendations in 2012 [1]. 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 Curriculum for Excellence, and what needs to happen in order to secure, promote and enhance the provision of modern languages in Scotland [2]. 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>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup> Record of debate in Scottish Parliament 8/12/11, Scottish Parliament website

<sup>[2]</sup> Modern Languages Excellence Report, SCILT, March 2011

# COUNTRY PROFILE: WALES

Hywel Jones

# Country Context:

Wales has a population of three 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 percentage 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 the 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. Twenty-five per cent 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 data collection mechanisms on language diversity 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 and a main language question plus 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.

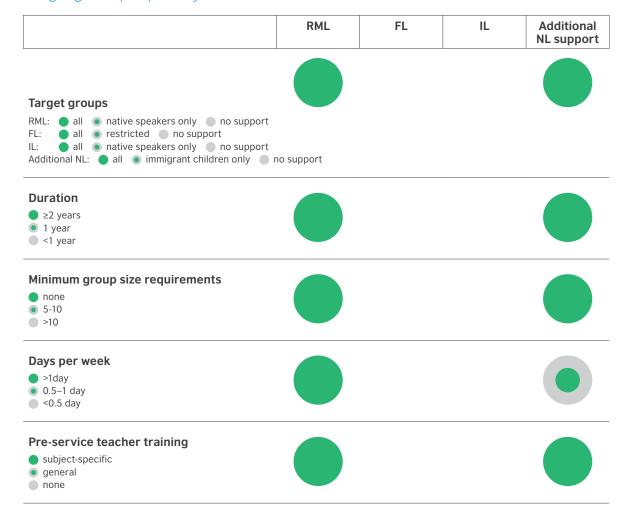
The Welsh Language (Wales) Measure of 2011 includes a declaration that 'the Welsh language has official status in Wales'. It provided for the establishment of a Welsh Language Commissioner and the abolition of the Welsh Language Board (see section on Promising Initiatives below).

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.

**RML: Regional or Minority Languages** 

FL: Foreign Languages IL: Immigrant Languages NL: National Language

# Languages in pre-primary education



	RML	FL	IL	Additional NL support
In-service teacher training  subject-specific  general none				
State funding available  full partial none				

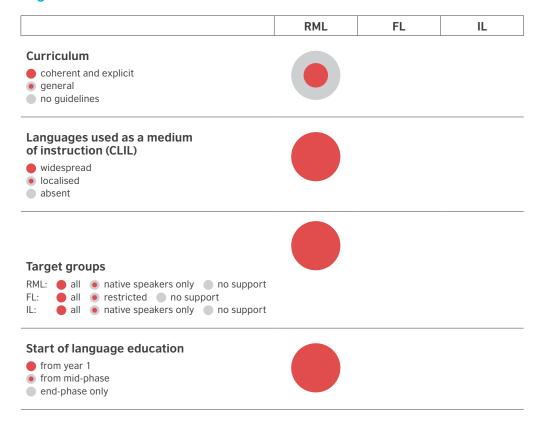
### Languages offered in pre-primary education:

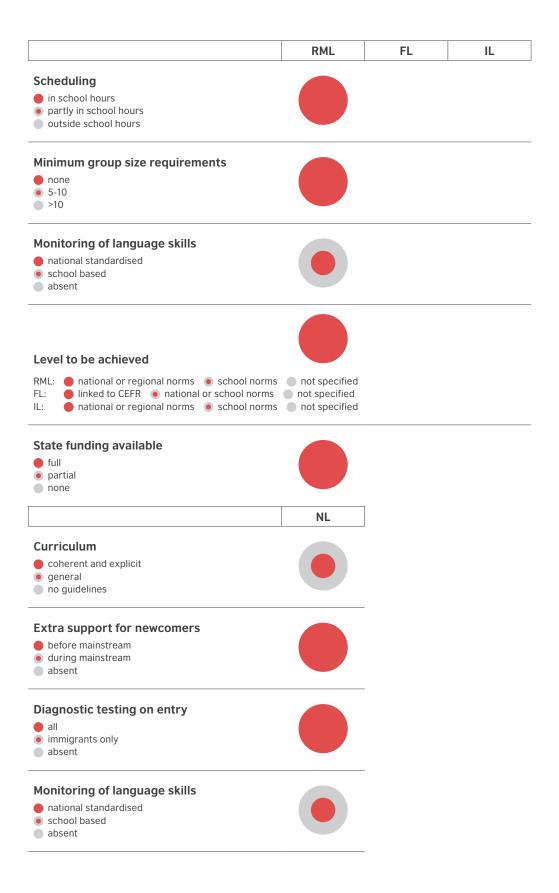
R/M Languages	Welsh
Foreign Languages	-
Immigrant Languages	-

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 Welshmedium nursery schools. They have over 550 playgroups, estimated at providing for around 17 per cent 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

### **Organisation**





# **Teaching**

	RML	FL	IL
Teacher qualifications  language teachers general teachers unqualified	NML	12	ı.
Pre-service teacher training  subject-specific general none			
In-service teacher training  subject-specific general none			
Mobility  incorporated into training informal financial support none not applicable			
Teacher qualifications  language teachers general teachers unqualified	NL		
Pre-service teacher training  subject-specific general none			
In-service teacher training  subject-specific general none		-	

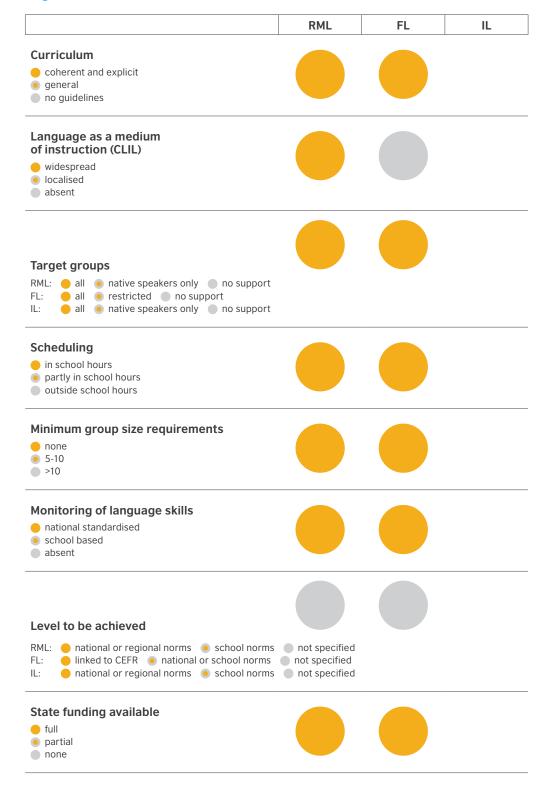
# Languages offered in primary education:

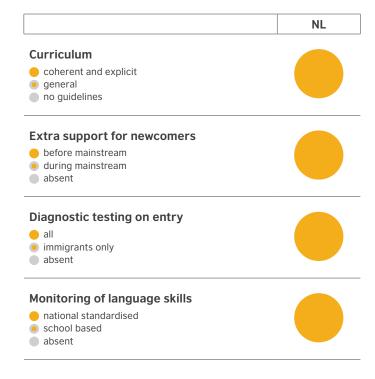
R/M Languages	Welsh
Foreign Languages	-
Immigrant Languages	-

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

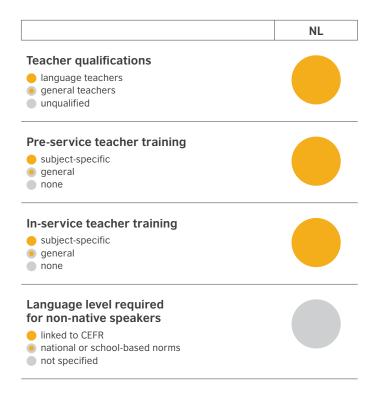
# **Organisation**





# **Teaching**

	RML	FL	IL
Teacher qualifications  language teachers general teachers unqualified			
Pre-service teacher training  subject-specific general none			
In-service teacher training  subject-specific general none			
Mobility incorporated into training some financial support none not applicable			
Language level required Iinked to CEFR national or region-wide standards none not applicable			



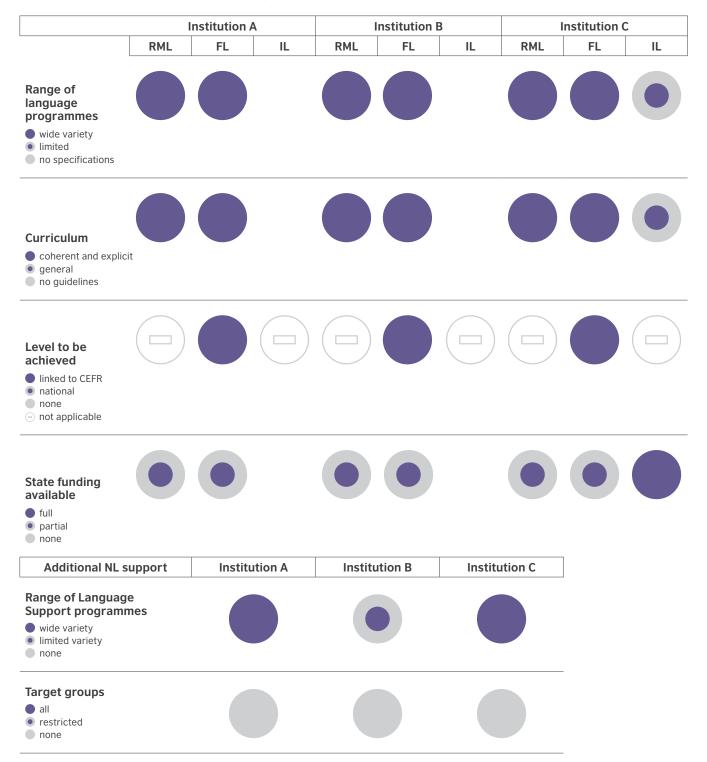
### Languages offered in secondary education:

R/M Languages	Welsh
Foreign Languages	One language compulsory up to age 14, from French, German and Spanish
Immigrant Languages	-

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 institutions)**



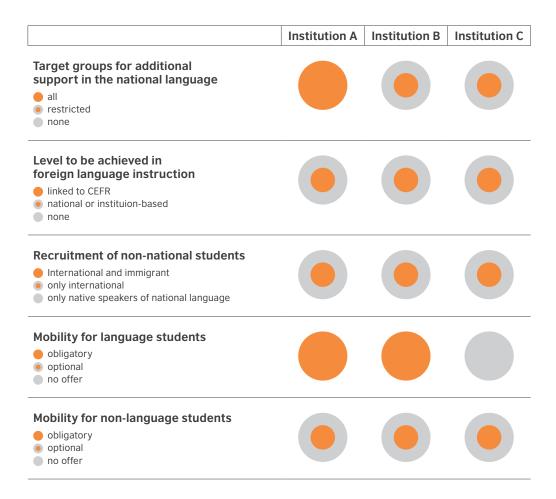
Additional NL support	Institution A	Institution B	Institution C
Curriculum  coherent and explicit general no guidelines			
Job related skills  yes no			
General upskilling  ● yes  no			
State funding available  full partial none			
Internships in companies  built into course optional none			
Use of EU instruments  yes no			

# Languages offered across 3 VET institutions in Wales:

R/M Languages	Welsh
Foreign Languages	French, Italian, Spanish, Chinese, German, Greek
Immigrant Languages	Arabic

# **Higher Education (in three institutions)**

	Institution A	Institution B	Institution C
Language(s) of instruction  national, FL and R/M national and foreign national only			
Languages on website  national, FL and R/M national and foreign national only			



### Languages offered across 3 higher education institutions in Wales:

Welsh

The three cities covered by the 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 higher education, 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 five percent 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

	Cardiff	Swansea	Newport
Number of languages on radio  >4 3-4 1-2 national language only			
Number of languages on television  >4 3-4 1-2 national language only			
Non-national language TV productions  subtitled dubbed			
Non-national language films in cinema  subtitled dubbed			
R/M language programmes outside of region  always regularly sometimes never			
Availability of sign language on TV  always regularly sometimes never			

### Languages offered in audiovisual media and press across 3 cities in Wales:

Radio	Welsh
Television	Welsh
Newspapers	German, Welsh, French, Italian, Polish, Spanish, Urdu

The use of Welsh in audio-visual media is limited to the sole Welsh-language TV 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 the occasional subtitled film on television.

# Languages in public services and spaces

# Institutionalised language strategies at city level

	Cardiff	Swansea	Newport
<ul> <li>&gt;4 languages</li> <li>3–4 languages</li> <li>1–2 language</li> <li>occasionally practise</li> </ul>			
City Council services			
Website presence			
Annual municipal reports			
External or internal translators and interpreters			
Competencies in languages other than the national language in job descriptions of staff members			
Plan or scheme in place to increase skills in languages			
Recruitment of speakers of other languages to support corporate objectives			
Offer of training in languages to employees			
Regularly updated record of skills in languages of employees			
Reward or promotion schemes for being able to adequately communicate in another language			

# **Oral Communication Facilities**

	Cardiff	Swansea	Newport
>4 languages   3–4 languages   1–2 language	es national lang	guage only	
Political debates and decision-making processes at the city council level			
Educational services			
Emergency services			
Health services			
Social services			
Legal services			
Transport services			
Immigration and integration services			
Tourism services			
Theatre programmes			

# **Written Communication Facilities**

	Cardiff	Swansea	Newport
>4 languages    3-4 languages   1-2 language	s national lan	guage only	
Political debates and decision-making processes at the city council level			
Educational services			
Emergency services			
Health services			
Social services			
Legal services			
Transport services			
Immigration and integration services			
Tourism services			
Theatre programmes			

### Languages offered in public services and spaces across 3 cities in Wales (N ≥ 2):

Welsh, Chinese (Mandarin & Cantonese), French, German, Polish, Arabic, British Sign Language, Czech, Somali, Bengali, Slovak, Urdu, Spanish, Dutch, Italian, Japanese, Lithuanian, Persian, Portuguese, Panjabi, Romanian, Russian, Kurdish, Tigrigna

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 (20 companies)

General Language Strategies	Widely Practised	Occasionally Practised	Not Practised
Availability of Language Strategy	1	3	16
Emphasis on Language Skills in Recruitment	2	7	11
International Mobility Provision	2	1	17
Use of External Translators/Interpreters	3	7	10
Staff records of language skills	1	9	10
Use of networks for language training	0	2	18
Use of EU programmes/funding	0	0	20
Awareness of EU programmes/funding	0	0	20

NL: National Language FL: Foreign Languages IL: Immigrant Languages

Internal Language Strategies	Widely Practised		Occasionally Practised		Not Practised				
	NL	Welsh	FL/IL	NL	Welsh	FL/IL	NL	Welsh	FL/IL
Partnerships with Education sector	0	0	0	1	3	0	19	17	20
Reward/Promotion schemes based on language skills	1	0	0	2	3	1	17	17	19
Language training provision	1	0	0	3	3	2	16	17	18
Use of CEFR	0	0	0	0	0	0	20	20	20
Language used for workplace documents/intranet	20	1	0	0	3	1	0	16	19
Language used for software, web programmes	20	0	0	0	0	0	0	20	20
External Language Strategies									
Language used for Annual/Business Reports	20	0	0	0	3	0	0	17	20
Language used for Marketing	20	2	1	0	7	5	0	11	14
Language used for Branding/Identity	20	3	1	0	6	2	0	11	17
Language used for Website	20	2	3	0	1	0	0	17	17

# Languages other than English and Welsh offered in business across 20 companies in Wales (N ≥ 2):

French, German, Chinese, Spanish, Italian, Japanese, Russian

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 (Wales) Measure 2011 a Welsh Language Commissioner is to be established from 1 April 2012. The Commissioner will be 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 must have 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.

### References

Welsh Government (2010) Welsh-medium education strategy: information. Information document No: 083/2010, Cardiff, Welsh Government. http://wales.gov.uk/docs/dcells/publications/10042 Owelshmediumstrategyen.pdf

Welsh Government (2010) Making languages count: Modern foreign languages in secondary schools and Learning Pathways 14-19 Information document No: 088/2010, Cardiff, Welsh Government. http://wales.gov.uk/topics/educationandskills/publications/guidance/makinglanguagescount/?lang=en

Welsh Language Act 1993 http://www.legislation.gov.uk/ukpga/1993/38/pdfs/ukpga\_19930038\_en.pdf

Welsh Language (Wales) Measure 2011 http://www.legislation. gov.uk/mwa/2011/1/pdfs/mwa 20110001 en.pdf

Welsh Government (2012) A living language: a language for living, Cardiff, Welsh Government.

http://wales.gov.uk/docs/dcells/ publications/122902wls201217en.pdf

### The Language Rich Europe project is delivered by a consortium of over 30 partners







































































Sponsored by





Project publisher



# www.language-rich.eu