

ASPECTS OF LITERACY IN AN INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVE:
THE CASE OF EUROPE

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INTRODUCTION

Europe at the beginning of the 1990's is, at least for the time being, a scene of a surprisingly peaceful revolution. Political structures are being radically challenged both between and within power blocks, between countries and within countries. Change is so rapid that government statements dealing with fundamental issues of foreign, military and trade policy can be totally reversed in a matter of weeks or even days. This poses a great challenge to the peoples of Europe in many ways. Europeans seem to feel that even keeping up with the latest news requires considerable effort. Anticipating change and trying to accommodate to the uncertainty taxes the mental capacities of the best experts on Europe. We all want to be good Europeans. All countries seem to be scrambling not to lose the competitive edge, which might easily happen if one is too slow or too cautious. On the other hand, proceeding rapidly involves high risks.

The current scene has come about as a total surprise to everybody. Experts in all countries do not even pretend to have been able to anticipate the extent and the rate of the change.

Before the late 1980's, there had, of course, been movement towards European cooperation across the national borders. However, Europe was divided into three blocks: the EEC countries, coterminous with NATO, aiming at a high degree of economic and political integration; the mostly politically neutral EFTA (European Free

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Trade Association) countries that joined to protect their economic interests vis-a-vis the EEC, but with no plans at integration; the COMECON countries which all are members of the Warsaw Pact.

The date, 1992, set by the EEC as the date for removing a great many obstacles concerning the free movement of persons, goods, services and capital, has undoubtedly been one of the main catalysts for change. Another has been the end of the cold war, and the willingness to cut the military spending to be able to invest more money on social and environmental programmes. The Kremlin's willingness to radically question some of their basic dogmas (e.g., the Brezhnev doctrine) has allowed the East-European countries new scope for national policy-making and for pursuing national interests. All of this has led to unprecedented intensity of contacts between Western Europe and Eastern Europe. There appears to be a common interest in building up bases for pan-European cooperation: political, economic and cultural.

This change is also manifested in linguistic behavior: suddenly, Soviet government spokesmen start using English (and answering tough questions without evading them or labeling the questioner as a prejudiced anti-Soviet propagandist). Interpreters appear more seldom. Some groups, for instance, in Latvia and Lithuania start using English and refuse to be interviewed in Russian. Some other groups are using French or German in their official and unofficial contacts.

There are also major governmental activities taken to improve the capacity to communicate in foreign languages. The most ambitious is the European Community Lingua programme.

THE LINGUA PROGRAMME FOR THE PROMOTION OF THE TEACHING
AND LEARNING OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES IN THE
EUROPEAN COMMUNITY

The Council of the European Communities has established an action scheme for the promotion of training in foreign languages, which is known as the Lingua programme.

Information about the Lingua programme exists in a number of documents, and the phrasing varies slightly from one to the next, without any real change in the intent. As far as I can tell, the following is the final wordings used (Official Journal of the European Communities No L 239/24-32). According to the document the principal objectives of the Lingua programme were defined as follows:

The principal objective of the Lingua Programme shall be to promote a quantitative and qualitative improvement in foreign language competence with a view to developing communication skills within the Community. To that end, it shall, by means of Community-wide measures, provide opportunities for supporting and complementing Member States' policies and schemes aimed at achieving that objective.

The Lingua Programme is intended to support the policies of the Member states which aim at:

- encouraging all citizens to acquire a working knowledge of foreign languages,
- increasing opportunities for teaching and learning foreign languages in the Community and, in particular, encouraging competence in the least widely used and least taught foreign languages,
- promoting the provision of opportunities for university

students to combine foreign language studies with the pursuit of their main disciplines, as a recognized component of their degree, diploma or other qualification,

- raising the standard of foreign language teaching by improving the initial and in-service training of foreign-language teachers and trainers, by increasing the opportunities for them to reap the benefits of appropriate preparation abroad,
- encouraging employers and professional organizations to promote training in foreign languages for the workforce in order to take full advantage of the internal market, with particular reference to the needs of the small and medium-sized enterprises and of the peripheral and least-developed regions of the Community,
- promoting innovation in methods of foreign language training and in the exploitation of the communications technologies used.

In more concrete terms, the Community will support measures which aim at:

- enabling practising foreign-language teachers to improve their professional competence, notably through periods of in-service training or professional experience in a Member State in which the language they teach is spoken,
- enabling students studying foreign languages and, where the education and training system of a Member State allows, intending teachers of foreign languages in particular, to spend a recognized period of their initial training, of at least three months' duration, in a Member State in which the language they are studying is spoken,

- encouraging both sides of industry, professional organizations and in-service training establishments to set up facilities to develop the linguistic skills of the workforce; likewise, developing foreign language knowledge within the framework of initial and in-service vocational training,
- encouraging young people undergoing professional, vocational and technical education to participate in exchange programmes which are based on pedagogical projects,
- promoting innovation in methods of foreign language teaching.

The Member States are required to report on the situation in the above fields by 31 December 1992 at the latest.

The Member States are required to designate one or more institutions that are responsible for coordinating at national level the implementation of the programme.

The funds estimated as necessary for the execution of the Lingua programme during the five-year period 1990-1994 amount to ECU 200 million (US dollars 250 million). Lingua is expected to be consistent with and complement other major EC programme such as Erasmus, Comett, Delta and 'Youth for Europe'.

It is obvious that the Lingua programme is a very ambitious scheme whose implementation will require considerable effort. Its funding also appears reasonable. What, in fact, is the entry situation in comparison to the target situation?

THE EUROPEAN COMMUNITY SITUATION BEFORE THE LINGUA PROGRAMME

I will attempt to give an idea of the current situation by describing the situation in foreign language teaching in a few of the Community

countries.

Belgium

School age 6;

Primary stage (grades 1-6): foreign language begins either in grade 3 or 5; 2-3 weekly hours in grades 3-4, 3-5 weekly hours in grade 5-6; Dutch/French/German

Intermediate stage (grades 7-9): two compulsory languages: First FL: French/Dutch/German/English; 3-5 weekly hours; Second FL: as above, plus Spanish/Italian/Arabic; 2-3 weekly hours; Third FL (optional): as above, plus: Russian; 2 weekly hours in grade 9

Upper stage (grades 10-12): two compulsory languages for all; First FL, as above; 3-4 weekly hours; Second FL: as above; 2-3 weekly hours; Third FL: compulsory in economic lines; 2-3 weekly hours; optional in other lines, 1-2 weekly hours.

Evaluation: Belgium already has implemented the Lingua objectives.

England

School age: 5

Primary stage (grades 1-6): French taught in some schools

Intermediate stage (grades 7-11): First FL: optional; French/German/Spanish 2,5 weekly hours; in a few schools the above languages plus Italian/Russian are offered as a second optional language; 2,5 weekly hours in grades 9-11

Upper stage (A-level/O-level), grades 12-13: First FL: as above (French 90%); 3,5 weekly hours (A-level); 2,5 weekly hours (O-level, and AS level); Second FL (optional): as above; 3,5-4,5 weekly hours (A-level); 2,5-3,5 weekly hours (O-level, AS level); Third FL: the

above languages plus some other; optional

Evaluation: England falls short of the objectives and faces a major task of expanding the provision of language teaching even in schools providing academic-type education.

Federal Republic of Germany

School age 6

Primary stage (grades 1-4; Berlin 1-6): First FL: English/French; 2-3 weekly hours in grades 3-4; pilot scheme

Intermediate stage (grades 5-10): Gesamtschule: First FL; compulsory: English/French; 5 weekly hours in grades 5-6; 3-4 weekly hours in grades 7-10); Realschule: First FL: English/French, 5 wh in grades 5-6, 4 wh in grade 7, 3-4 wh in grade 8, 3 wh in grades 9-10; Second FL; optional, French/English/Spanish/Dutch/Danish; 3-4 wh in grades 7-10

Gymnasium (lower stage): First FL, compulsory: English/ French/ Latin; 5-6 wh in grades 5-6, 4 wh in grade 7, 3-4 wh in grade 8, 3 wh in grades 9-10; Second FL, compulsory; French/English/Latin/ Italian/Spanish/Russian; 4-5 wh in grades 7-8, 3-4 wh in grades 9-10; Third FL, compulsory or optional depending on the school type; Greek/Latin/French/Italian/Spanish/Dutch/Danish/Portugese/- Russian/Japanese/ Chinese; 5-6 wh in grades 9-10

Upper stage (Gymnasium), grades 11-13: identical for First, Second and Third FL; 3-4 wh in grade 11, grades 12-13: 3 wh for basic course, 5-6 wh for advanced course

Evaluation: The Federal Republic has mostly fulfilled the objectives. There may be some need to increase provision in the vocational branches.

France

School age: 6

Primary stage: grades 1-5; English/German/Spanish/Italian are taught in pilot schemes, weekly hours vary

Intermediate stage: grades 6-9; First FL, compulsory: English/German/Spanish/Italian/Russian/Portugese/Arabic/Chinese/Hebrew/Polish/Dutch/Japanese/Danish/Modern Greek; 3 wh in grades 6-9; Second FL, optional: as above; 3 weekly hours in grades 8-9

Upper stage (Lycee): grades 10-12; First FL, compulsory, as above; 2-3 wh in grades 10-12; Second FL, optional, as above; 3-5 wh in grades 10-12; Thrid FL, optional, as above, 3 wh in grades 10-12

Evaluation: France faces a major task in complying with the objectives of the Lingua programme.

Luxembourg

School age: 6

Luxembourg probably has the most wide-ranging provision in language teaching in the whole world.

Primary stage: grades 1-6; First FL German is compulsory from grade 1, with wh beginning with 9 in grade 1 and ending with 4 wh in grade 6; Second FL French is compulsory from the spring of grade 2; 3 wh in grades 2, 7 wh in grades 3,4 & 6, 7,5 wh in grade 5

Intermediate stage: grades 7-10; 3 compulsory languages; First FL: French; Second FL German; Third FL: English; weekly hours 3-6 per grade

Upper stage: grades 11-14; 3 compulsory languages; French, German, English, 3-5 wh per grade

Evaluation: Luxembourg exceeds the Lingua targets.

As regards the other EEC countries, Greece, Ireland, Italy and Spain need to increase their FL teaching provision, whereas Denmark and the Netherlands already fulfil the objectives.

THE SITUATION IN SOME NON-EEC COUNTRIES

To provide a larger perspective I will give a similar account of a few non-EEC countries.

Switzerland

School age: 6 or 7

Primary stage (grades 1/4-6): First FL: second official language, German/French; taught in grades 3-4 in some schools; mostly begins in grade 5/6/7; weekly hours correspondingly vary up to 6 weekly hours

Intermediate stage (grades 4/5/6-9): Second FL: English/Italian (optional); 3-6 weekly hours

Upper stage (grades 10-12/14): First FL; as above; 80 hours per grade; Second FL: compulsory in grade 10; 80 hours; optional in grades 11-12; 80 hours in grade 11, 40 hours in grade 12; Third FL: unusual

Evaluation: Switzerland fulfils the EEC targets.

Sweden

School age: 7

Sweden has a 'simple' language teaching programme.

Primary stage: grades 1-6; Compulsory language: English, grades 3/4-6; 2 wh

Intermediate stage, grades 7-9; Compulsory language: English, 3 wh; optional: French/German/pupil's mother tongue, grades 7-9,

Upper stage: grades 10-12; compulsory language, wh; Second FL: French/German/pupil's mother tongue, wh ; Third FL: optional, Spanish/Italian/Russian, wh in grades 10-12

Evaluation: Sweden would probably have to increase its variety of FL teaching provision to some extent. Norway's FL teaching provision resembles closely the Swedish pattern.

Finland

School age: 7

Finland has the most complex language teaching programme in Scandinavia. It is the only country in Scandinavia that has not adopted the policy of having English as the only compulsory language for all. In Finland, communities with more than 30 000 inhabitants have to offer children and their parents a choice between English, Swedish, German, French or Russian as the first foreign language that begins in grade 3 at the age of 9.

Primary stage: grades 1-6; First FL, compulsory, choice of languages as described above, 2 wh in grades 3-6

Intermediate stage: grades 7-9; First FL, compulsory, 2-3 wh in grades 7-9; Second FL, compulsory (if first FL is not Swedish, Swedish is always 2nd FL for Finnish-speaking pupils); 3 wh in grades 7-9; Third FL, optional: German/ French/Russian, 2-3 wh in grades 8-9

Upper stage, grades 10-12: First FL, compulsory (continued from earlier stages), 2-3 wh in each grade; Second FL, compulsory, 2-3 wh in each grade; Third FL, optional, 2-3 wh in each grade.

All students who after the ninth grade go to the vocational school also study two FLs to a varying extent. All university students (non-language majors) also study two foreign languages.

Evaluation: Finland fulfils the EEC-norms. Finland is one of the few countries that has explicitly set quantitative targets for the study of various FLs in a national language teaching plan.

East-European countries typically have taught Russian as the first and compulsory foreign language. Thus, in Hungary Russian has been compulsory from grade 4 to 8, with a total of some 400 lessons. In the upper stage, two foreign languages have been compulsory in the academic schools.

LITERACY ACROSS LANGUAGES AND CULTURES IN EUROPE

Oracy vs literacy

The conference documents of this third Gutenberg Conference state that "theory and research about second language learning have tended to focus primarily on speaking and communication ability and less on the development of literacy. Literacy researchers, on the other hand, have tended to concentrate their efforts on first language learners." That is probably a fair description of the situation in L2 research. However, the description is probably less

true of the situation in Europe than it is of the situation in the USA.

In fact, if we shift the perspective from research to the teaching and testing of FL skills, the situation in Europe is such that it is generally considered necessary to try to shift the still dominant emphasis in FL study in schools from intensive reading and written exercises to extensive listening and to speaking. As can be seen from the Lingua programme, the need is seen to be primarily in improving the face-to-face oral communication skills. In fact, historically the major problem of foreign language teaching has throughout the centuries been the heavy emphasis on literacy and literature. The history of FL teaching is largely a history of fighting the dominance of grammar and written translation.

Similarly, the Council of Europe's FL programme stresses the need to teach and test oral skills. Sweden and Finland have set as one of their priorities to establish the testing of oral skills as a regular part of classroom activities.

The situation described in the above applies best to the national majorities and to culturally and linguistically homogeneous countries. The situation has, however, changed in many European countries, especially in central Europe, over the past few decades with guest workers coming to supply the much needed labour force. The number of refugees has increased dramatically and has also set new demands.

The Council of Europe has a long tradition in promoting the teaching of modern foreign languages in Europe. Its recommendations for overall language teaching policy and its projects for curriculum development have had a great impact on national development work. Among the best known projects is the communicatively oriented language teaching project that was concretized in the "Threshold Level" curriculum, the "Niveau Seuil", the "Livello soglia", the "Un nivel umbral", the "Kontaktsschwelle Deutsch als Fremdsprache", etc. This work on the development of modern

language teaching, which started some thirty years ago, has been supplemented recently by the Council of Europe's Parliamentary Assembly action on regional and minority languages and on the education of migrants' children. A resolution concerning the former was passed in September 1988 (Doc 5933) and the latter in January 1989 (Doc 5994).

Regional and minority languages

The European Charter for Regional and Minority Languages aims at defending the cultural value of Europe's linguistic diversity. Thus the Charter is essentially a cultural instrument. It seeks to protect languages that are poorly protected and some even dying out. It does not protect minorities, ethnic groups or communities or an individual's linguistic rights. It aims to check the decline of regional and minority languages, and if possible, to initiate the revival of these languages. It is assumed that knowledge of regional and minority languages gives people an opportunity to express themselves at the local level, while constituting a cultural asset at the national level.

The Charter was drafted by the Standing Conference of Local and Regional Authorities of Europe, which does not normally engage in language planning. It was argued, however, that it is the activities of regional and local authorities that will in practice determine what, if anything, is going to be done to implement the new guidelines.

The Charter addresses a very sensitive question of national and sub-national policy-making, and its wording needed to be left general on many points. For instance, to make the Charter acceptable, it was necessary to respect the traditions and territorial integrity of each state, and not to imply any detriment to the development of a state's official language or languages.

Among the principles and objectives laid down in the Charter, the following are worth singling out: (1) Recognition of the existence of regional and minority languages as a community attribute, (2) Respect for the geographical area of each language, (3) Elimination of all forms of discrimination concerning the use of regional and minority languages, (4) Promotion of the use of these languages - in speech and in writing - in public, social and economic life, and (5) Teaching and study of these languages at every appropriate stage.

The Charter covers 69 specific commitments ("undertakings") on a number of subjects, including education, public services, administrative and legal authorities, economic and social life, as well as transfrontier exchanges. States must apply at least 35 of these, and 12 of them must be chosen from among the 22 provisions which constitute the "nucleus" of the Charter. This is intended to guarantee minimum protection.

A system of biennial reports by a Committee of Experts on the basis of information provided by states is meant to keep a record of the states' compliance with their commitments. While the review is not legal, or even quasi-legal, in character, it is expected to have a positive influence on the application of the principles of the Charter by the contracting parties.

The Charter is a convention open to all European states, including those that are not members of the Council of Europe. It is hoped that East-European states would sign it. It remains to be seen how influential the Charter will prove.

Education of migrants' children

In 1976, the Parliamentary Assembly of the Council of Europe adopted a recommendation (786) on the education and cultural development of migrants. Since then, several recommendations have reaffirmed the early policy and elaborated it. The Resolution of the

13th Session of the Standing Conference of the Ministers of Education (Dublin 1983) recommended that the Governments of the member states, and their Ministers of Education in particular, base their action on the following principles:

- Due account should be taken of the educational and cultural needs of migrants and the appropriate resources should be made available to meet those needs.
- Countries of origin and host countries should co-operate to create for migrants and their children a rightful place in education, training, and culture:
 - . to enable them to participate fully in the social life of the host country
 - . to give them equal opportunity in relation to nationals of the host country for their personal and professional development
 - . to enable them to maintain links with their culture of origin, not only to facilitate their return to their country of origin should they desire, but also to foster their own development and to enhance their contribution to the society in which they live.
- Educational programmes, materials and situations should increasingly be designed to integrate in a dynamic way the cultural contributions of migrants in the various countries of Europe, with the aim of achieving an intercultural dimension in education.

This general policy is concretized in terms of curriculum and educational structure, teachers and teacher education, the education of adult migrants, research and information.

In the following I will present some recent information on the presence of foreign residents in several West-European countries:

Country	Year	Total pop.	Foreigners	% for- eigners
Belgium	1986	9.858.900	846.482	8.6
Cyprus	1982	673.000	10.080	1.5
Denmark	1987	5.129.300	128.255	2.5
Finland	1987	4.938.602	17.730	0.4
Greece	1987	9.978.000	193.385	2.0
Liechtenstein	1988	27.400	9.521	34.7
Luxembourg	1988	369.500	95.789	26.0
Netherlands	1987	14.615.000	568.000	3.8
Spain	1987	38.996.000	318.546	0.8
Sweden	1987	8.414.000	400.973	4.8
Switzerland	1983	6.566.800	925.551	14.1
West Germany	1987	61.140.000	4.681.304	7.6

The direction of migration has been mainly from the south to the north. The following figures give the number of foreign residents from six countries of Southern Europe in eleven countries:

Country	Spanish	Italian	Yugoslavian	Greek	Portugese	Turkish
Belgium	58.255	279.700	5.861	21.230	10.482	63.587
Cyprus	-	-	-	2.851	-	-
Denmark	909		1.975	452	278	22.313
Finland *)	389	208	25	125	61	87
Greece	-	-	-	-	-	-
Liechtenstein	197	846	304	84	-	342
Luxembourg	2.073	22.257	1.501	-	23.309	-
Netherlands	20.700	20.300	12.200	-	-	155.600
Spain		12.441	240	-		
Sweden	4.702	5.852	39.471	13.113	2.525	21.295

West Germany 148.322 543.010 584.933 278.169 78.909 1.466.314

*) There were altogether 17,730 registered foreign nationals in Finland. In terms of their mother tongues, the most frequent were speakers of English, Russian, German, Vietnamese, Spanish, Estonian, French, Polish, and Arabic.

The following figures present the distribution of school attendance in thousands in some West European countries

	Total	Pre-school	Primary	Secondary	Vocational and special	Others
Belgium						
Total	2 228.8	391.8	730.3	825.0	176.1	103.6
Foreign	246.8	45.6	88.0	83.2	17.2	12.8
%	11.1	11.6	12.0	10.1	9.8	12.4
Cyprus						
Total	120.0	17.3	54.2	40.6	4.4	3.5
Foreign	4.0	0.5	1.5	1.3	0.0	0.7
%	3.3	2.8	2.7	3.2	0.0	20.0
Denmark						
Total	1 063.3	56.7	402.7	336.7	150.0	116.4
Foreign	22.6	1.9	10.2	5.6	1.6	3.3
%	2.1	3.4	2.5	1.7	1.0	2.8
West Germany						
Total	9 952.5	60.1	3 827.9	5 739.1	271.4	-
Foreign	789.4	11.9	483.3	255.2	39.6	-
%	7.9	19.8	12.6	4.4	14.6	-

Greece

Total	-	-	-	-	-	-
Foreign	9.3	-	-	-	-	-
%	-	-	-	-	-	-

Liechtenstein

Total	4.4	0.8	1.8	1.7	0.1	-
Foreign	1.6	0.3	0.7	0.6	0.0	-
%	36.3	37.0	38.8	35.3	0.0	-

Luxembourg

Total	55.8	7.6	22.0	7.9	18.3	-
Foreign	17.2	2.8	7.9	1.0	5.5	-
%	30.8	36.8	35.9	12.6	30.0	-

Netherlands

Total	3 731.6	399.4	1 095.0	934.9	1 127.8	174.0
Foreign	134.7	26.1	58.3	18.5	28.3	3.5
%	3.6	5.5	3.6	1.2	2.5	2.0

Sweden

Total	1 166.6	308.0	934.3	154.3	143.7	161.3
Foreign	110.4	11.1	93.5	8.4	7.4	-
%	6.5	3.6	8.9	5.4	5.1	-

Switzerland

Total	1 166.4	123.1	367.5	634.6	32.2	-
Foreign	184.9	21.9	65.1	88.6	9.3	-
%	15.8	17.8	17.3	14.1	28.9	-

The figures indicate that the presence of young migrants in vocational training, in apprenticeship courses or in special classes is

far larger than their demographic proportion would imply. They also tend to be underrepresented in the academic secondary education.

Most of the above figures are taken from the OECD Continuous Reporting System (SOPEMI, 1987) and they are no longer fully up-to-date. Recently there has been a large influx of refugees to Sweden, Denmark, Norway, Italy, West Germany etc. These countries have started applying stricter measures to cope with the problems arising, among other things, from the lack of even makeshift accommodation.

In the following I will present some information about the situation of migrants and their children in some Western European countries.

In *Belgium*, additional Dutch lessons are organized for young migrants at the primary level. In schools where over 30% of the pupils are migrants' children, additional teaching staff is available. There are some experiments since 1988 whose aim is to prepare pupils for multicultural society. "Foreign" teachers can be employed and up to 18 hours a week can be used throughout the six years of primary education for lessons that incorporate migrants' children's mother tongue and culture.

Some recent studies estimate that the percentage of migrants' children with learning difficulties is more than double in comparison to Belgian children (38% vs. 15%).

Education in the *Federal Republic of Germany* is the responsibility of the *Länder*, which have undertaken various methods of safeguarding the home language and culture of young migrants. The programmes affect young Turks, Yugoslavs, Italians, Greeks and Spaniards, in particular. Due to its federal character, it is difficult to even attempt to cover the total situation in West Germany. Some facts can, however, be cited.

After some 25 years of guest workers coming in great numbers, the Standing Conference of the Ministers for Education and Culture agreed on a set of recommendations.

In the city-state Hamburg, about 18% of all school-age children do not have German citizenship. In some districts, they account for 35-50% of primary school children. Up to 40% of non-German pupils are found in the Hauptschule of the secondary level schools (ie. the academically lowest program).

Since 1983, foreign children can in Hamburg choose to study their mother tongue instead of English as a second language. From that time, it has also been possible to arrange Islamic religious instruction for Turkish and other Islamic pupils.

Multiculturalism is also making its way into the mainstream teaching: the regular textbooks for majority pupils increasingly include references to minorities and provide more information on their history and culture.

There is a growing number of German/English and German/ French bilingual branches in grammar schools starting with grade 5. Most of these are now located in Northrhine-Westphalia. There are plans for similar programmes covering Spanish, Italian and Russian.

There are some pupil exchange programmes between France and Germany leading students taking two examinations: Baccalaureate and Deutsche Allgemeine Hochschulreife.

In *Liechtenstein* , the children of migrants receive additional German lessons during the school hours in pre-school and in primary education.

In *Luxembourg* , since 1967 the State has been financing local government effort to provide "settling-in" classes for foreign pupils. Kindergarten is compulsory for 5-year-olds since 1976 and since 1977 there is public support for teaching foreign pupils outside of normal school hours. In the 1980's, materials were developed to teach Luxemburgish; a training course on the culture of a country of immigration is compulsory for teachers, and student teachers can opt for a special course in the subject; an intercultural documentation and activity center has been set up.

In the *Netherlands* , schools with a certain number of foreign language pupils are authorized to increase their teaching staff. Where there is a certain number of pupils of the same nationality, the schools may appoint teachers from the country of origin paid by the Dutch authorities for education in homeland language, culture and history. There are also major efforts to develop intercultural education in schools and to improve mutual understanding between members of different communities. Adult education courses are also available.

In *Sweden* , the migrants' children have received bilingual instruction in the mother tongue and Swedish as a second language in the compulsory basic school since the end of the 1960's and in the upper secondary school since the end of the 1970's. The aim is to maintain and develop knowledge of the language used by these children in their family surroundings and to develop bilingualism enabling them to feel at home in two cultures.

At present, over 60 home languages are taught in Swedish schools with the financial support of the government.

Every new immigrant receives free instruction in the Swedish language, lifestyle and institutions in the SFI (Swedish for Immigrants) course. Since 1986, this has been divided into basic instruction and further instruction. There are also educational opportunities for migrants to have basic education in literacy and numeracy if they did not receive such education in their country of origin ("Grundvux").

There is regular use of bilingual education in primary education (grades 1-6) for migrants' children, when the number of pupils permits it. Principal languages are Finnish, Turkish, Greek, Spanish, Serbo-Croatian, Arabic. Experimental work in grades 7-9 is in progress. Since 1977, there is bilingual education in Finnish at the upper secondary level (both in the theoretical and the vocational lines). Training for teachers teaching the migrants' children their

mother tongue has been arranged since 1977.

In *Norway* , a new curriculum was introduced in 1988, which provides teaching in the pupil's first language as well as Norwegian as a second language. Since 1987, children of migrant families are offered teaching in Norwegian as a second language and it is to some extent possible for these children to receive teaching in various subjects in their mother tongue.

There is also a special introductory course of 500 hours in Norwegian as a second language available at the national level.

In *Finland* , there exist two parallel educational systems from kindergarten to university for the two officially recognized language groups: the Finnish-speaking (some 94%) and the Swedish-speaking (about 6%). Lappish is not an official language, but the rights of the Sami language are increasingly recognized. Currently, only a small proportion of Sami-speaking children go to schools where Sami is the language of instruction. In most cases, they go to schools where they get instruction in Sami 2-4 hours a week. Sami can also be taken as a required language test in the national matriculation examination at 18-19.

As noted earlier, Finland has few foreigners living in the country, less than 18,000. At the end of 1987, the Ministry of Education decided that 86% of all costs due to the teaching of the mother tongues of foreign pupils would be paid by the state and the rest by the municipalities. Normally, five pupils are needed to form a teaching group, but even one pupil can be taught, if good reasons are put forward. If the teaching group consists of pupils from many different grades, the group can be divided into two if the class has 12, 16 or 26 pupils (pupils from 7 different grade levels, 3 and 2, respectively).

A syllabus has been prepared. Teaching can be arranged in the foreign pupils' mother tongue and via it the teaching of the culture, history and social circumstances in the country of origin

In *England*, language planning and policy have recently received unprecedented official attention. The Education Reform Act from 1988 establishes a National Curriculum, which defines *core subjects* (mathematics, English and, Welsh in Welsh-speaking schools), and other *foundation subjects* among which is included a modern foreign language specified in an order of the Secretary of State. Circular No 9/89 (May 19, 1989) stipulates that from August 1 1989 all maintained schools must teach all pupils, in years 7-9 of schooling, at least one of the languages for a reasonable time. Only pupils with a "statement of special educational needs" will not be subject to this requirement during 1989-90, in order to allow time for their statement to be amended if necessary. From 1 August 1990, pupils with a statement of special educational needs too will be covered, unless their statement specifically modifies or disapplies the requirement to study a modern foreign language for a reasonable time.

The languages which qualify as a *foundation subject* have been selected with the following criteria in mind: the first modern foreign language should

- (a) extend the pupil's linguistic knowledge, skills and understanding;
- (b) lay a foundation for learning any subsequent foreign language
- (c) widen the pupil's cultural horizons and promote international understanding; and
- (d) be of practical value in future employment, for trading purposes, or in adult life more generally.

The approach recognizes that priority should be given to the working languages of the European Community (as the Lingua program, cited above, requires). Two groups of languages are specified. Schools must offer one or more of the working languages of the EC (Danish, Dutch, French, German, Modern Greek, Italian, Portuguese and

Spanish). Schools may in addition offer one or more of the non-EC languages (Arabic, Bengali, Gujerati, Hindi, Japanese, Mandarin or Cantonese Chinese, Modern Hebrew, Panjabi, Russian, Turkish, Urdu).

Pupils choosing to do one of these "Schedule 2" languages do not have to study one of the "Schedule 1" languages as well. The order, therefore, does not require all pupils to study a European Community language. It requires schools to offer at least one of Schedule 1 languages and, once, that requirement is met, allows them as an alternative to offer other languages listed in Schedule 2. The order does not give pupils a right to demand a non-EC language other than that offered. Nor does it require a school to provide tuition in any language offered if, for example, too few pupils make a particular choice, so long as tuition is provided in an EC language.

When a Schedule 1 and a 2 language are offered, parental wishes and the educational and career interests of the individual pupil should be taken into account.

It is envisaged that the full National Curriculum requirements in schools are introduced in Autumn 1992.

Fitting in the "heritage" languages (mainly the Indian and Chinese languages) is already felt to be a problem. Another problem is that pupils have widely varying degrees of competence in the languages and in the same class it is possible to find pupils with a high degree of fluency and literacy and others to whom the language is comparatively new.

At the moment, there are GCSE (General Certificate of Secondary Education) examinations suited to the student learning the language as a foreign language (eg. examinations similar to those offered in French and German). In the teaching of Urdu, the Urdu teachers are reported to press for a high degree of literacy and the GCSE examination concentrates on oral skills.

In the early 1970's, only 30% of Local Education Authorities (LEAs) were making any provision for the teaching of community

languages (or heritage languages, as they are now frequently called). Towards the end of the 1980's, some 40% of the LEAs were providing some support for the first language of bilingual pupils. Many only provide support in the form of English as a second language.

Summarizing, most Western European countries have moved towards the implementation of the Council of Europe recommendations. They have tended to abandon, at least officially, the 'assimilation' policy in favour of 'integration' policies. They seek to promote an 'intercultural' climate of mutual understanding and tolerance. They are intensifying and diversifying their language teaching provision.

One possible source of friction, however, is the fact that the "sender" countries often emphasize only the maintenance of strong links with their cultures, instead of mutual enrichment. Another cause of potential difficulties is the fact that European host countries have a fairly long tradition of democratic and equalitarian values. They would not normally consider it justified to uphold such traditions in the countries of origin which would conflict with respect for human rights, equality of men and women, etc, as they are recognized in European democracies. At least, this would probably apply to public institutions and services.

It would not be an accurate portrayal of the situation in the whole of Europe to forget the fact that, especially in Eastern Europe, linguistic minorities face problems ranging from lack of support to systematic attempts to suppress the linguistic and cultural heritage of a minority group. For us Finns, especially the hardships faced by the Hungarian-speaking minority in Romania is as source of sorrow and moral outrage. Many similar instances could be added.

It is estimated that there are 34 minority languages within the European Community alone. It should not be forgotten, either, that many of these languages face the problem of revival or revitalization, resembling the case of Hebrew, Maori and Welsh (eg. Welsh in the Secondary schools of Wales, 1983). Activity to

guarantee a positive future for regional and minority languages is clearly on the increase and several institutions (eg. Fryske Akademi/The Frisian Academy being among the pioneers) have been set up to do -research, develop programmes and exchange information.

CONCLUSION

In this paper I have attempted to give an overview of some of the most important developments in language policy, language planning and language teaching in Europe. I have discussed mainly the situation in Western Europe, mainly due to the fact that information is more readily available from it. Due to the breadth of the topic and the limitations of space, I have been forced to be quite selective. The scope of the topic has not made it possible to even attempt to make a deep analysis of the situation in a way that eg. Stacy Churchill (1986) has approached this topic. A lot of effort had to be devoted to simply obtain current documentation from which to compile the paper. If the paper lacks analytic depth, I believe that its content is fairly accurate and up-to-date.

I see Europe moving towards a situation in which it no longer is the hotbed of continuous international conflicts nor a sharply divided, slowly changing "Old World" that occupies a peripheral position vis-a-vis superpowers. If peaceful change can continue, Europe will continue its material and spiritual renaissance and it will increasingly become aware that it is the seat of Western culture, the originator of industrial technology, and one of the main sources of arts and sciences. Somewhat surprisingly, Europe seems to be in many ways a pioneer of new discoveries (geographical and conceptual) and rediscoveries (renaissances). European (Western) civilization is undoubtedly one of the great civilizations in world history, and it has proved quite vital and capable of development,

despite frequent doomsayers. Examples of this might be the following: European discoverers shattered the idea that there was only Europe and Asia, and rather than calling the Gibraltar "ne plus ultra" (nothing beyond this), they just dropped the "ne" and noted that there are more lands beyond; European science dealt another shattering blow to its ego by proving conclusively that the sun did not circle the earth and the earth was by no means the centre of the universe; European science reduced man to one of the creatures of developing organisms and compelled a reappraisal of man's role and responsibilities. These were really revolutionary discoveries but European civilization was capable of adapting to all these changes and continuing to develop.

It seems to me that European nations again face a period where rediscoveries are needed: a second European Renaissance. It will undoubtedly prove equally difficult as during the medieval Renaissance to seek roots of European identity and building a modern European identity, which does not imply any "Fortress Europe" identity. Many questions are a puzzle. What are the essential characteristics of European culture? What are the major achievements and major deficiencies of European culture? How does European culture differ from other major cultures? How has European culture affected other cultures and been influenced by them? How do Europeans conceive of Europe and Europeanism in different countries?

Closer to the venue of the Gutenberg Conference, it is reported that the Canadian government and the provincial governments have signed a protocol in 1988, covering the next five years, concerning improvements in the provision of teaching of the minority language and the teaching of the second language. From Europe, it is not easy to keep up with the lively linguistic policy debate and decisions that seem to us to be permanently on the agenda. In many ways, the experiences in the immersion programmes are of more practical

interest.

Due to its bilingual nature, Canada presents a picture that for Europeans is more familiar in terms of education and language education. In Europe, you can drive a car for a couple of hours and cross a national and language border. Within many countries, you can cross language borders even in a shorter time. The United States, probably due to its sheer mass in terms of land, population, economy and to its traditional advantage in technological developments, and on account of its military power has tended to believe that its dependence on what others are doing is very small. Europeans sometimes seem to believe that Americans think like this: "Others make changes because they have to. We make changes because we choose to." Certainly, very prominent Europeans not so infrequently refer to the topic that Paul Kennedy has addressed (the rise and fall of the great powers) saying, like Jacques Attali, the president of the new European Bank for Reconstruction and Development, "The signs of America's relative decline are converging and unquestionable". Such critics typically point out that the once admirable American school and university systems are slipping, and that the "cult of the immediate" is the dominant ethos of the American present-day culture.

This view may be an extreme one, but variations of it can be heard and read all the time. It is often said that "we must not do the same mistake as America has done in .." and then, depending on the person, the sad situation may refer to education, health care, social welfare, manufacturing, homelessness, environmental pollution, banking, farming, drugs, violence, gun laws, etc. I am not sure what repercussions this spreading perception will have for America, but Europeans should be wary of complacency and (here we go again!) not make the same mistake as America in being complacent about international competition ("the Japanese can only copy and make second-rate products"). No country can ignore its dependence on the

larger international scene.

Referring back to the Lingua programme of the EC countries and the fact that even England and France are joining the rest of Europe in recognizing the multilingual nature of Europe and making arrangements for intensifying language teaching, it would seem to me that America should proceed in the same direction. Several commissions have repeatedly deplored the poor situation in language teaching in American schools and universities. Some years back, Dr. Elaine Degenhart in her dissertation (Degenhart 1984) made a detailed review of the situation and drew some definite conclusions about needed action. I believe she was right in her conclusions and, if anything, one could take several steps further. I would consider it necessary for all high school students who go to university to have studied at least three years of one foreign language and for at least all major universities to require such study or passing a language test as a precondition to being accepted to any study program. Universities should also have a good provision of language courses for non-language majors, and it should be possible for them to earn several credits for language study. All university graduates should, in my opinion, have a good reading knowledge of at least one foreign language. Nothing less will do in our growingly interdependent world.

I also believe that, as in Europe regional, minority and immigrants' languages and cultures are increasingly seen as a cultural asset worth cherishing and protecting, America ought to actively encourage bilingualism and biculturalism in all groups that have a non-English background. This should be supported federally, regionally and locally so that young generations would feel that keeping up the language of one's cultural heritage is something valued not only by the minority itself but also by the larger society. This support could be financial but especially 'moral' support would be important.

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