LANGUAGE POLICY AND PLANNING

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INTRODUCTION

The field of language policy and planning is clearly a sub-field within applied linguistics. It generally does not draw heavily on formal linguistics, except for aspects of corpus and status planning. However, it does draw extensively from a range of disciplines in order to plan, implement, and evaluate language policies that respond to the needs of stake holders of various types. Despite continuous development of the field, aspects of language policy and planning need to be developed further. One of the key areas where policy can be enhanced considerably is in the area of policy and planning evaluation. This direction of inquiry is also relevant to a number of other areas within applied linguistics.

In the present article, we will be concerned primarily with foreign language planning, that is, planned changes in foreign language instructional systems and in uses of languages in different social contexts (with special reference to the Nordic and Baltic countries). These planned changes may result from language policy decisions by relevant authorities and institutions. We have also chosen to focus, in particular, on the relationship between language planning and evaluation. The article will close with brief summaries of language policy developments in Nordic and Baltic countries.

At the outset, it should be pointed out that language planning decisions and language policies are not the only reason for the growth of a nation's total language capital. There are at least three more general reasons for such growth. First, globalization has resulted in an increased need and use of foreign languages. The most important factors include internationalized labor markets, communication media, internet, data banks, various types of international collaboration, foreign trade, and professional needs and training. It is quite evident that a fair amount of this activity centers around a small number of major languages, primarily English. For example, globalization of various industries and foreign trade has meant that

many companies have adopted English as the language of their internal communication. A number of institutions have had a direct impact on the need and use of foreign languages. In Europe, the most important of these is the European Union, which has eleven official languages. This setting means that less widely used languages, such as Finnish for instance, have been assigned unprecedented functions in European community activities.

Second, explicit decisions by public authorities or various types of institutions have resulted in changes in policies. In 1995 in its White Book, the European Union, for instance, adopted an objective according to which all European citizens should learn at least two European languages in addition to their mother tongues. In Finland, such a decision was made in connection with the introduction of the Comprehensive School system in the early 1970s: All comprehensive school pupils have to study, in addition to their mother tongues, the other national language of the country and a foreign language. This language policy decision was not derived from language planning considerations; it was an outcome from a purely political deal between representatives of the Finnish Cabinet and the party representing a Swedish speaking minority in Finland. Similarly, all Finnish university graduates have to pass a test in the non-native domestic language which authorizes them to function as civil servants in bilingual areas in Finland. In this institutional category, we could also include various European Union exchange and cooperation programs which result in raised levels of foreign language competence through increased cross-language interactivity. This emphasis on bilingualism is an institutionalized counterpart to migration due to, for instance, unemployment, poverty, and restricted human rights.

Third, language capital is increased through people's private decisions to travel and migrate without any intervention by authorities. Tourism and employment abroad often result in prolonged interaction with speakers of other languages and in steady interest in other cultures, which may be a source of a more profound motivation to learn the languages concerned.

It is obvious, however, that language policy and planning efforts have become increasingly institutionalized activities because, as noted by a Finnish language planning committee in the early 1990s, political conflicts/issues can often be simultaneously language conflicts/issues and political conflicts/issues.

ISSUES IN LANGUAGE POLICY AND PLANNING

Applied linguistics has incorporated language policy and language planning as one of its many domains. The *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics* has made a valuable contribution by taking up the theme regularly (together with issues of bilingualism and multilingualism) in several volumes (at least in Volumes 2, 6, 10, 14, and 17). There have also been important pioneers in this field, including Haugen (1966), Kloss (1969), Tauli (1968), and Fishman (1974), to mention only a few prominent scholars. However, the field is not yet well-

established and needs further development. It is posited here that language policy and language planning should, more systematically than in the past, draw on the work of policy studies in general and forge closer links with evaluation. It is argued that good planning needs good evaluation to inform it.

Planning can take many forms. Common sense suggests that some planning is better than other planning and some plans better than others. This raises the question of *criteria* that can be properly used to evaluate planning and plans. It is not possible to elaborate on this topic here. It can only be briefly noted that criteria involve at least the following four issues: 1) the set-up of the planning system (stakeholder perspective); 2) the principles, values, and procedures applied during planning (e.g., equality, fairness, factual and comprehensive data, hearing of experts); 3) public review and discussion of plans; and 4) adequate monitoring and evaluation of plan implementation and of potential unplanned (and undesirable) side effects.

Planning can take place in a variety of settings. One possible way of looking at the situation is a typology suggested some thirty years ago by Thompson and Tuden (1959). Parties involved may either agree or disagree on facts and on values. If there is agreement on values and facts, programmatic plans/decisions can be made, basically in a bureaucratic structure. This is hardly a common situation, however, as far as language policy and planning is concerned. If there is agreement on values but not on facts, pragmatic plans/decision can be made, often in a collegial structure. If there is agreement on facts but not on values, bargained plans/decisions can be made in a representative structure. If there is no agreement on either values or facts, plans/decisions are largely ad hoc in an anomic structure.

Another aspect worth considering—as implied by Kaplan (1994), for example—is to try to proceed from country and regional analyses to "universal" analysis in order to discover similarities and differences, leading to useful typologies and—perhaps ultimately—universal principles. In fact, Kaplan, in collaboration with Baldauf has recently made considerable progress in this direction in the recent volume, *Language planning: From practice to theory* (1997), which represents a major contribution to the field of language policy and planning. The comprehensiveness of the book in terms of content and literature covered deserves acclaim.

In planning, a general distinction should be made between strategic planning and operational planning. Main tasks in strategic planning are problem analysis, stakeholder analysis, analysis of objectives, analysis of inputs, analysis of external influencing factors, and analysis of the responsible organizations (e.g., Dale 1998). Operational planning consists of the formulation of a detailed guide for implementation. This requires an elaboration of more specific objectives, procedures, tasks, time scales, and budgets.

LINKING LANGUAGE PLANNING AND EVALUATION

The consequences of plans and their implementation need to be evaluated. Planned and systematic action presupposes that evaluation is an inherent part of it. The plan itself can be critically examined in terms of appropriate criteria. The implementation of the plan can be monitored on a continuous basis for information needed for follow-up purposes. This is called formative evaluation. At the point where the plan needs to be more systematically reviewed, summative evaluation is needed (Scriven 1967).

Language planning can be carried out more or less explicitly or implicitly, but always draws on prior activities and prior views. Language planning means making decisions. It requires monitoring to determine the impact of the decisions. In order to progress as a form of social activity, language planning needs conceptual frameworks to advance professionalism in the domain. What is said above suggests that a possible framework is one which links decisions and monitoring in a systematic manner. The literature of program evaluation contains several models (Shadish, Cook and Leviton 1991), but the model presented by Stufflebeam (1975) is one that does this more systematically than any other model. Consequently it will be used as the organizing framework for the following discussion. The purpose is to explore the feasibility of the model in the domain of language planning. The original model is presented in Table 1.

	INTENDED	ACTUAL
ENDS	PLANNING DECISIONS Supported by CONTEXT EVALUATION	RECYCLING DECISIONS Supported by PRODUCT EVALUATION
MEANS	STRUCTURING DECISIONS Supported by INPUT EVALUATION	IMPLEMENTING DECISIONS Supported by PROCESS EVALUATION

Table 1: The CIPP model of evaluation (Stufflebeam 1975, Stufflebeam, *et al.* 1971)

The acronym CIPP comes from the initial letters of four types of evaluation: context, input, process, and product. From the decision-making point of view, a corresponding acronym PSIR might be derived to reflect the four types of decision: planning, structuring, implementing, and recycling.

Briefly stated, context evaluation serves planning decisions to determine aims. Input evaluation serves structuring decisions to determine program designs. Process evaluation serves implementing decisions to control program and project operations. Finally, product evaluation serves recycling decisions to judge and react to program and project attainments.

In the CIPP model, context evaluation is the most basic kind of evaluation. Its purpose is to provide a rationale for determining objectives. In the domain of language planning, this evaluation would include careful definition of the relevant language community, description of the desired and actual conditions pertaining to the language environment, identification of unmet needs and unused opportunities, and diagnosis of the problems that prevent or interfere with the fulfilment of needs or restrict the full use of existing opportunities. The diagnosis of problems provides an essential basis for developing objectives whose attainment will result in improved language policies.

The CIPP model suggests that context evaluation begins with a conceptual analysis to identify and define the limits of the domain to be served as well as its major subparts. This view seems to apply also to language planning quite well. Next, empirical studies—surveys and other types of research—are carried out to identify unmet needs and unused opportunities. Then context evaluation involves both empirical and conceptual analyses, as well as appeal to theory and authoritative opinion, to aid judgements on the basic problems which must be solved. According to Stufflebeam, identification of the problems to be solved is equivalent to identification of the objectives to be achieved. In language planning, the situation is seldom so straightforward.

In the CIPP model, the purpose of input evaluation is defined as the provision of information for determination of the kind and amount of resources needed and the manner in which they will be utilized to achieve program and project objectives. In language planning, this would mean identification and assessment of: 1) relevant capabilities of the responsible agency, 2) strategies for achieving planned objectives, and 3) designs for implementing a selected strategy. Alternative language planning options are assessed in terms of the following:

1. their resource, time, and budget requirements;
2. their potential procedural barriers;
3. the consequences of not overcoming these barriers;
4. the relevance of the designs to project objectives; and
5. the overall potential of the design to meet project objectives.

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Stufflebeam suggests that input evaluation can vary from highly structured to quite informal procedures. In language planning, common practices would
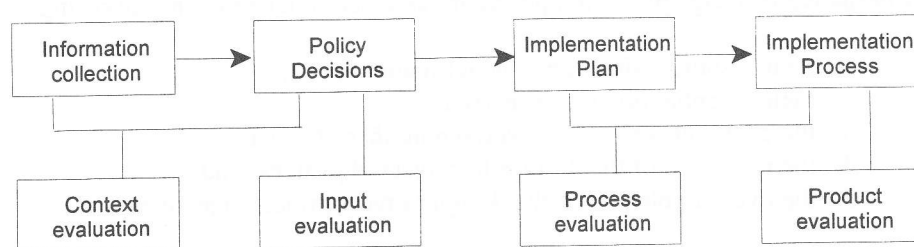
include committee deliberations, professional literature, interest-group submissions and reports, and the experiences of other countries/contexts. Pilot experiments in a limited number of contexts may even be carried out. Major changes in language policy normally require extensive efforts to provide the information which is not available but needed if projected objectives are to be attained.

When the implementation of the new language plans has begun, process evaluation is needed to provide periodic feedback to persons responsible for implementing plans and procedures. This kind of evaluation has three main functions: 1) to detect and predict defects in the procedural design or its implementation during the implementation stages, 2) to provide information for future decisions, and 3) to maintain a record of procedures as they occur.

Finally, product evaluation is intended to measure and interpret outcomes not only at the end of a program or a project cycle but as often as necessary during the process. In language planning, this evaluation would mean a major review of the state of achieved language planning goals.

As language policy and planning literature has long recognized, there are several actors with a stakeholder interest in the activities to be carried out (see Haugen 1966, Ingram 1989, Kaplan and Baldauf 1997). Kaplan and Baldauf present a comprehensive view of the theme and summarize their discussion in a very illuminating figure (1997:6) which posits national resource development planning as the overarching concept, dividing it into natural resource development planning and human resource development planning. Under the latter is placed language planning and other planning, and language planning is elaborated further to include government agencies, education agencies, non/quasi-governmental organizations, and other organizations. Each of these elements is specified in some detail. Figure 1 relates the basic language planning model of Kaplan and Baldauf to the CIPP evaluation model.

Figure 1. Basic language planning model in relation to an evaluation model (adapted from Kaplan and Baldauf 1997 and Stufflebeam, *et al.* 1971).

In the following Tables (2 and 3), the same conceptual approach is applied, relating the CIPP model to decisions and evaluations made by various stake holders. This mapping is an attempt to test the feasibility of the model in the context of language planning and policy.

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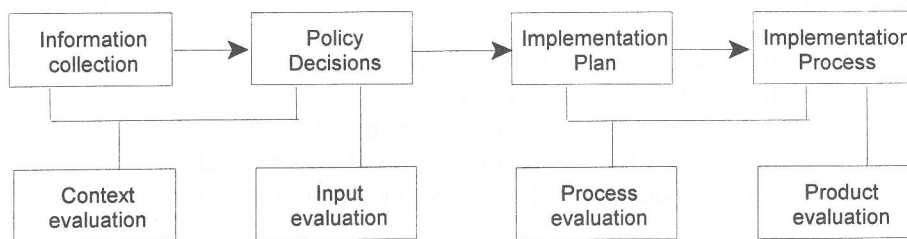
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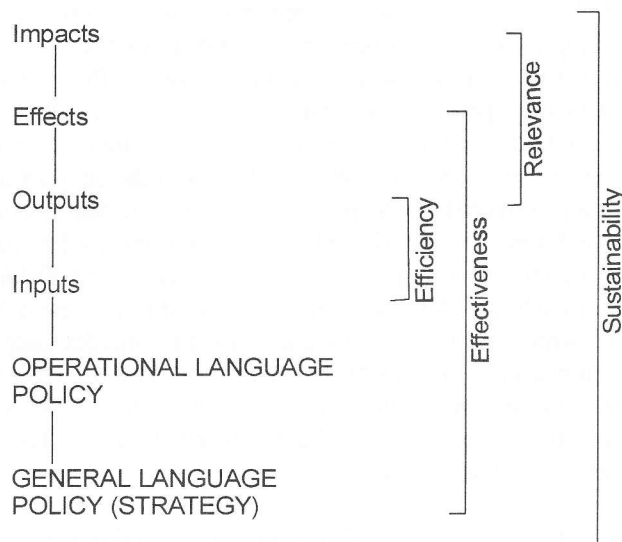

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Level of decision making	Types of decision			
	Context	Input	Process	Product
Individual - Parents - Minors - Adults/citizens	Individual language goals, language choices	Decisions concerning individual input in terms of - Time - Energy - Investment	Decisions concerning how individuals monitor their progress toward individual goals	Decisions concerning how individuals assess outcomes in terms of individual goals
Associations/ organizations, interest groups	Group's language goals	Decisions concerning group's support for goal attainment	Decisions concerning how group monitors progress toward the group's goals	Decisions concerning how group assesses outcomes in terms of its goals
Local government	Language planning goal at the local level	Decisions concerning local input for goal attainment in terms of - facilities - staff - programs	Decisions concerning how local government monitors progress toward its language planning goals	Decisions concerning how local government assesses outcomes in terms of its goals
Regional government	Language planning goal at the regional level	Decisions concerning regional support for goal attainment in terms of - facilities - staff - programs	Decisions concerning how regional government monitors progress toward its language planning goals	Decisions concerning how regional government assesses outcomes in terms of its goals
National government	Language planning goal at the national level	Decisions concerning national support for goal attainment in terms of - facilities - staff - programs	Decisions concerning how national government monitors progress toward its language planning goals	Decisions concerning how national government assesses outcomes in terms of its goals
Supranational agencies	Declarations/ recommenda-tions on goals	Recommendations on input	Recommendations on process monitoring	Recommendations on how to assess outcomes of recommended goals
Research community	Critical analysis of plans and goals	Critical analysis of the planned input	Critical analysis of the planned process	Critical analysis of the planned product

Table 2: Types of decisions related to levels of decision making (stakeholders)

Level of decision making	Types of evaluation			
	Context	Input	Process	Product
Individual - Parents - Minors - Adults/citizens	Survey of goals	Survey of what goal achievement presupposes of individuals - Time - Energy - Investment	Survey of how progress toward individual goals is made	Survey of outcomes in terms of individual goals
Associations/ organizations, interest groups	Analysis/ critique of current goals, proposals, expert goal discussions	Survey of the goal attainment conditions of the group	Survey of how progress of the relevant group is made	Survey of outcomes in terms of the group's goals
Local government	Survey of the local situation, local language plans	Survey of what the attainment of goals imposes on local - facilities - staff - programs	Survey of how progress toward local goals is made	Survey of outcomes in terms of local language planning goals
Regional government	Survey of the regional situation, regional language plans	Survey of what the attainment of goals imposes on regional - facilities - staff - programs	Survey of how progress toward regional goals is made	Survey of outcomes in terms of regional language planning goals
National government	Survey of the national situation, national language plans	Survey of what the attainment of goals imposes on national - facilities - staff - programs	Survey of how progress toward national goals is made	Survey of outcomes in terms of national language planning goals
Supranational agencies	Declarations/ recommenda- tions on goals	Recommenda- tions on input	Survey of how progress toward recommended goals is made	Survey of outcomes in terms of recommended language planning goals
Research community	Critical analysis of the actual context	Critical analysis of the actual input	Critical analysis of the actual process	Critical analysis of the actual product

Table 3: Types of evaluation related to levels of decision making (stakeholders)

Figure 2. Language policy in an evaluation framework (adapted from Dale 1998).

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Impacts
   |
Effects
   |                                        Relevance
Outputs
   |                    Efficiency  Effectiveness  Sustainability
Inputs
   |
OPERATIONAL LANGUAGE
POLICY
   |
GENERAL LANGUAGE
POLICY (STRATEGY)
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The evaluation perspectives can vary in terms of their scope (e.g., Dale 1998, Scheerens and Bosker 1997) (see Figure 2). *Efficiency* is usually related to how productively the inputs (resources) have been converted into outputs (results). *Effectiveness* is a broader concept and has to do with the extent to which the planned outputs, immediate objectives, and long-term impacts are achieved. *Relevance* addresses the question of how the high priority goals of key stakeholders/beneficiaries are being met (e.g., Nikki 1992). Impact refers to longer-term, largely indirect, consequences of the plan/program for the intended beneficiaries and for societal change in general. *Sustainability* has to do with how the planned (and hopefully achieved) improved state of affairs can be maintained.

A BRIEF LOOK AT THE NORDIC AND BALTIC REGION

In the following sections, we will discuss briefly some recent developments in Scandinavia and the Baltic. The discussion is related to recent language policy documents prepared and adopted under the auspices of the Council of Europe, which has a long and recognized role in issues related to human rights and language rights. The discussion is purposefully limited to the Nordic and Baltic regions to highlight the current, dramatically different, situations in two adjacent regions.

1. <u>The Nordic states</u>

In July 1999, the Swedish Government submitted a proposal to the parliament concerning measures that needed to be taken for Sweden to be able to ratify the Council of Europe Framework Convention for the Protection of National Minorities (approved and opened for signatures on February 1, 1995). This proposal would mean that Swedish national minorities and their languages are recognized and that the minority languages will be given the support they need to stay alive. The groups covered by the proposed law are the Sami people, Swedish-Finns, Tornedal-inhabitants, Romanis, and Jews. The minority languages are Sami, Finnish, Meänkieli (Tornedal-Finnish), Romani chib, and Yiddish. Of these languages, Sami, Finnish, and Meänkieli are recognized to possess a historical geographical basis, which means that they are entitled to broader support than the other languages. In practice, this designation has to do with the right to use these three languages in court and in administrative matters in those areas where the languages have been traditionally used and are still widely used. The bill is proposed to take effect in April, 2000.

More generally, the European Framework Convention entered into force on February 1, 1998 when it was initially ratified by twelve countries. The countries that were among the first to ratify the convention were: Austria, Croatia, Cyprus, the Czech Republic, <u>Denmark</u>, Estonia, <u>Finland</u>, Germany, Hungary, Italy, Liechtenstein, Macedonia, Malta, Moldavia, <u>Norway</u>, Rumania, Russia, San Marino, Switzerland, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, The Ukraine, and the United Kingdom.

The European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages, open for signatures since November 5, 1992, took effect on March 1, 1998 when five countries initially ratified it. Among the first countries to have ratified it were Croatia, <u>Finland</u>, Germany, Hungary, Liechtenstein, The Netherlands, <u>Norway</u>, and Switzerland. Norway was actually the first to ratify the minority language charter. The only minority language mentioned is Sami and it applies to the approximately 35,000 Sami-speaking citizens. The Norwegian language groups were not eager to be labeled minorities in the manner specified in the earlier convention, and thus, this document has not been ratified for them. Its principles are, however, adhered to by Norway.

In Finland, national minority language legislation traditionally covers Swedish (1922) and Sami (1992). Finland ratified the Charter on Regional or Minority Language as the second country in 1994 (and also ratified the Framework Convention in 1997). Finland has ratified the Framework Convention for Sami, Swedish, Romani, and other non-territorially bound languages, following consultation with the recognized bodies representing these language groups. This wording also means that Finland may later decide to award minority language status to other languages. Groups to be consulted would represent Jews, Tatars, and "old Russians."

In Finland, the current language laws stem from 1922 (based on paragraph 14 of the 1919 constitution). It designates Finnish and Swedish as national languages, and it requires that they and their speakers are treated with full equality (a revised constitution is expected to take effect in early 2000) . Other laws specify, for instance, the language requirements for various categories of civil servants. There have been complaints that practice does not always correspond to the principles as far as the Swedish speaking minority is concerned. The Ombudsman of the Parliament has issued a statement in which the complaint is confirmed and the Cabinet Office has reminded the various ministries about the obligations of the language laws. A government committee has been appointed recently to draft the new language laws and related legislation. The new laws are expected to be in effect not later than in four years.

Denmark ratified the Framework Convention in 1997. It applies to the German-speaking minority in Southern Jutland. Denmark did not ratify the Charter on Regional or Minority Language at the same time.

2. The Baltic states

The Baltic States were independent from 1918 to 1940. Before the First World War they had a mixed history of German, Swedish, Polish, and Russian rule and influence. From 1944 to 1991 they all were under Russian rule.

The language policy developments in the Baltic States after the collapse of the Soviet Union are a good example of how the ethnic constitution of the population, in addition to the past history of the country, can be reflected in language attitudes and decision-making. The three Baltic States—Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania—have adopted policies that differ from each other and are directly dependent on the proportion of the non-local population in each country.

In all three states, the language legislation is basically the same, with the local majority language being the state language, obliging state employees to use the language for their services. Yet Lithuania, where only one fifth of the population is non-Lithuanian, has adopted practices which give less emphasis to the promotion of the state language than the ones in use in Latvia and Estonia, where two fifths of the population are non-local. Interestingly, the attitudes of the Latvian population have gradually become stricter, where the non-local population has been more willing to learn the state language than in Estonia.

Before World War II, the Baltic States had their own school systems, cultural organizations, publications, and other elements of cultural autonomy. During the Soviet period, a Leninist principle of the equality of languages was originally adopted, which was also meant to solve the problem of illiteracy. At the same time, however, Russian was promoted as a language of wider communication and international contacts, while the national language was considered a communication instrument and not an integral element of identity. Russian was gradually

given more emphasis, and a special kind of idea of bilingualism was developed through the introduction of the concept of *Homo Sovieticus*. Gradually, particularly during the Brezhnev years, the use of the local language became restricted: Services in Russian were to be available throughout the Soviet Union and local people were expected to comply with this requirement.

After the Baltic States gained their new independence in 1991, new legislation was developed which was fully implemented at a rather rapid pace. Generally speaking, the new laws included the following provisions: The local language was to be the official state language, which meant that all state operations and various other uses of language, such as signing, names, etc., were to be in the official language. Staff employed by the state were to be able to use the national language. Citizenship was acknowledged only for people who were citizens in 1940 and their descendants.

Language requirements were also imposed on citizenship. Naturalization was made possible on the basis of time of residence and demonstrated competence in the official language of the country. The national language requirement has an impact on the status of speakers of Russian. In the early 1990s, the percentages of monolingual Russian speakers were high in all of the three states, and national language requirements excluded many of them from citizenship.

Latvia: At present, the largest proportion of non-local population lives in Latvia. In 1998, out of the 2.43 million inhabitants, a total of 647,000 (24 percent) are non-citizens, which means that 76 percent of the total population are citizens. A total of about 400,000 of the citizens are of non-Latvian origin, that is, persons who have passed the tests for naturalization. The 1989 language law set rules for the use of the Latvian language in state institutions, corporations, educational establishments, and public meetings. Language inspectors were appointed who had the right to fine persons in breach of the rules. A new stricter law was adopted by the Latvian parliament in 1998, adding self-employed persons to the list of those who have to use the state language. If a foreign language is used at meetings, the organizers have to provide translation into the state language. This law applies also to private enterprises and meetings held at the workplace. Codification of the Latvian language has been given an important role: New terms can be used only after they have been approved by a state terminology commission. The new law was not accepted by the Latvian President, one of the reasons being the fact that the law did not sufficiently promote the inclusion of national minorities into Latvia's society, so it was sent back to the parliament for reconsideration.

As many as 90 percent of the non-Latvians believe that it is very important or fairly important for Latvian residents to know Latvian well. Between 1992 and 1997, a total of 388,000 people passed the Latvian language proficiency examinations administered by the State Language Centre. The development of the Latvian language test for citizenship purposes has drawn largely on the work done under

the Council of Europe auspices (e.g., the Threshold concept), and the development teams have been consulting several European institutions with recognized expertise in testing and assessment.

Estonia: Estonia's population is slightly less than 1.5 million. Non-ethnic Estonians constitute 37 percent of the total population, approximately 28 percent being ethnic Russians. According to Estonian legislation, state employees have to be proficient in Estonian. A fairly large number of state employees have been dismissed since the law took effect in 1993. If inhabitants are in a district where more than one-half of the population speak a language other than Estonian, they are allowed to receive information in that language and the local government can conduct business in that language. From 1999, knowledge of the Estonian language is obligatory for all state, municipal, and other functionaries and for people who work in the area of public services. Estonia emphasizes an integration program. Its objective is to cut down the number of people with undetermined citizenship, step up the teaching of Estonian, and increase non-Estonians' participation in Estonian society. All persons resident in Estonia are allowed to vote in local elections, but only Estonian citizens can stand as candidates. Russian language schools will be discontinued from 2000. Only 42 percent of those who were naturalized between 1992 and 1996 have passed the language examination. According to the present legislation, naturalization without Estonian proficiency is no longer possible. Children born in Estonia after 26 February 1992 have been granted an easier access to citizenship. Between 1992 and 1998, a total of 103,000 persons were naturalized.

Lithuania: In Lithuania, 80 percent of the population of 3.72 million are Lithuanians, and only 20 percent represent minorities, the largest being Poles (9 percent) and Russians (8 percent). The Lithuanian language is the state language, and it is to be used in the activities of state and public bodies, as well as in educational, cultural, scientific, industrial, and other institutions, enterprises, and organizations. State employees have to be proficient in Lithuanian. Lithuanian authorities have indicated that no one should be dismissed solely because of an inability to meet the language requirement. It is to be considered a moral incentive for people to learn Lithuanian. The 1991 Lithuanian law on nationality has made it possible for the authorities to grant citizenship to all persons resident in Lithuania, regardless of their origins, previous residence, or ability to speak Lithuanian. Some 90 percent of persons belonging to the minorities have Lithuanian citizenship. There are no plans to constrain education in minority languages, and in higher education, minorities have been given their own quotas.

THE OUTLOOK

As has been suggested in this survey, we believe that systematic effort should be taken to develop professionalism in the area of language policy and language planning. The dawn of the new millenium seems to be a particularly opportune moment to reflect on the new challenges that are facing us. Reference

has already been made to the importance of linking planning and evaluation—they are like two sides of the same coin. Those involved in language policy and language planning could pursue the disciplinary development of evaluation by seeking to establish it as a distinct academic sub-field with its own degree programs or perhaps as joint degree programs that utilize the potential of the Internet, preparing, as a joint effort, standards for the practice of language policy making and language planning. There exist standards for evaluation of educational programs, projects, and materials which are continuously revised to reflect changes in the discipline. The evaluation standards cover four broad areas: utility standards, feasibility standards, propriety standards, and accuracy standards. The first three would be quite relevant also for language policy and language planning.

In the spirit of the present article, it is suggested that there should be systematic attempts to monitor and evaluate the efficiency, effectiveness, impact, relevance, and sustainability of language policies and plans. Another area of study would involve the critical study of public discourse and debate on language policy and planning.

A desirable development would also include a tradition of recurrent regional and international conferences and seminars on language planning. The authors of this article contributed to arranging one such conference and the experience was both useful and rewarding. Hopefully, joint conferences would lead to joint studies by international teams of experts.

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Baker, C. and S. Prys Jones. 1998. *Encyclopedia of bilingualism and bilingual education*. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.

This is a comprehensive volume that covers a range of issues on bilingualism. It deals with individual bilingualism, bilingualism in society, languages in contact, and bilingual education. There is also a chapter on bilingualism and language policies. The volume is unquestionably a major contribution to the field of bilingualism.

Cenoz, J. and F. Genesee (eds.) 1998. *Beyond bilingualism: Multilingualism and multilingual education*. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.

This edited book of twelve articles incorporates a multilingual perspective and looks at multilingualism from both a global and an individual perspective. It also examines educational implications of multilingualism, presenting six case studies in multilingual education.

Kaplan, R. B. and R. B. Baldauf, Jr. 1997. *Language planning: From practice to theory*. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.

This important book deals with key concepts and issues in language planning, presenting a general framework for planning. The ambitious aim of the book, as the title suggests, is to make a contribution to the theory of language planning. It does this by conceptualizing language planning in terms of key elements and issues. Several case studies in language planning are also presented. The book should be required reading for all engaged in language policy and language planning.

Lambert, R. D. (ed.) 1994. *Language planning around the world: Contexts and systemic change*. Washington, DC: National Foreign Language Center.

The papers in this volume deal with recent planned changes in the foreign language instructional systems of a variety of countries (the Netherlands, Sweden, Finland, England, Israel, and Australia) and address problems and prospects for planning in the American context. In most of the countries covered, the language planning issues address concerns at the national level, and the value of learning foreign languages is unquestioned. In the United States, in contrast, the minimal planning that exists takes the form of dispersed isolated decisions. The themes that recur in the volume include: 1) differences in the context on planning, 2) recommendations for change in specific features of the language-instructional system, and 3) the process of planning and systemic change.

McKay, S. L. and N. H. Hornberger (eds.) 1996. *Sociolinguistics and language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

This edited book contains highly informative articles by a number of well-known scholars. Sections deal with language and variation, language and interaction, language and culture, and there is a chapter specifically on language and education. In the section on language and society, there is a 45-page article on language planning and policy by Terrence G. Wiley. Among several topics covered, the discussion of various approaches to language planning in particular stands out as a valuable contribution.

Paulston, C. B. and D. Peckham (eds.) 1998. *Linguistic minorities in central and eastern Europe*. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.

This edited volume, of great topical interest, contains an integrating introduction by Paulston and ten case studies. The case studies cover a wide geographic region: Austria, minorities in the Balkans, Bulgaria, the Caucasus, the Czech Republic, Hungary, Latvia, Romania, Russia, and Slovakia.

Sajavaara, K., R. D. Lambert, S. Takala and C.A. Morfit (eds.). 1993. *National foreign language planning: Practices and prospects*. Jyväskylä: Institute for Educational Research, University of Jyväskylä.

This collection of papers originated from a conference that brought together experts on foreign language teaching and learning from North America and from western, central, and eastern Europe. It focuses primarily on a comparison across countries and continents of the domains, directions, and processes of language planning. The papers provide both a sense of national differences in the contexts in which language planning is carried out and an in-depth analysis of particular substantive domains relating to language planning such as language choice, teacher training, and assessment. A number of domains of language policy in which the Europeans and Americans have relevant experience are identified, and it is hoped that these domains provide useful guidance for future planning.

Schiffman, H. E. 1996. *Linguistic culture and language policy*. London: Routledge.

This book is a strongly culturally-anchored view of language policy. It represents a systematic approach to analyzing language policies and presents several typologies that implement this view. It also presents detailed analyses of language policies in different parts of the world. The discussion on the language policies in France may be singled out as presenting new and interesting reflections.

Spolsky, B. and E. Shohamy. 1999. *The languages of Israel: Policy, ideology and practice*. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Maters.

The authors of the book provide a thorough and timely analysis of the linguistic scene and linguistic policy in the truly multilingual state of Israel. The authors note that the book appears close to two anniversaries: just over 100 years since the decision to revive Hebrew was made and 50 years since the establishment of the state of Israel and its policy to maintain Hebrew and Arabic as official languages and languages of instruction. The book describes and analyzes the developments during the half century up to the present time, including the 1995–96 Policy for Language Education. It gives a thoughtful appraisal of the developments and the current state and prospects of true linguistic diversity. The book is a valuable and welcome contribution to the rapidly evolving field of language policy studies.

Wodak, R. and D. Corson (eds.) 1997. *Encyclopedia of language planning and education. Volume 1: Language policy and political issues in education.* Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

This edited volume contains a number of articles, each about ten pages in length. Five articles deal with theoretical issues; another five address minorities and education; eight articles present language policy in various countries and regions; and five articles address practical and empirical issues. One unifying feature of the articles is that they discuss future directions in the areas covered.

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